



Cognitive Vitality Reports[®] are reports written by neuroscientists at the Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation (ADDF). These scientific reports include analysis of drugs, drugs-in-development, drug targets, supplements, nutraceuticals, food/drink, non-pharmacologic interventions, and risk factors. Neuroscientists evaluate the potential benefit (or harm) for brain health, as well as for age-related health concerns that can affect brain health (e.g., cardiovascular diseases, cancers, diabetes/metabolic syndrome). In addition, these reports include evaluation of safety data, from clinical trials if available, and from preclinical models.

Xanamem

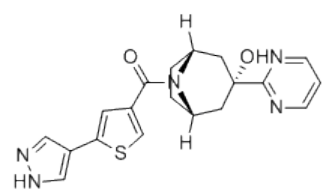
Evidence Summary

Xanamem treatment did not improve cognition or function in healthy older people or Alzheimer's patients, except in a few specific cognitive domains. Xanamem is generally well tolerated.

Neuroprotective Benefit: Xanamem treatment improved some, while worsened other, cognitive domains, with an overall null effect on cognition and function in Alzheimer's patients. A different 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor also failed in an Alzheimer's clinical trial.

Aging and related health concerns: No studies have tested Xanamem, but clinical trials of other 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors have reported small or inconclusive benefits in type 2 diabetes and obesity.

Safety: In a phase 2 study, the most common adverse events were headache, dizziness, and diarrhea. Incidences of adverse events were comparable to those of placebo. Long-term safety beyond 12 weeks has not been evaluated.

Availability: in clinical development	Dose: The dose tested in Alzheimer's patients was 10 mg once daily (oral).	Chemical formula: C ₁₉ H ₁₉ N ₅ O ₂ S MW: 381.45  Source: ProbeChem
Half life: 10-19 hours	BBB: penetrant	
Clinical trials: The largest study to date is a phase 2 study including 186 Alzheimer's patients.	Observational studies: none available	

What is it? Xanamem (also known as UE2343) is under clinical development by [Actinogen Medical](#) (Sydney, Australia), an ASX-listed biotechnology company focused on treating cognitive decline in neurological and metabolic diseases. Xanamem is an inhibitor of 11 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 1 (11 β -HSD1), which is an enzyme that converts the stress hormone cortisone (inactive) to cortisol, the active form. Thus, Xanamem blocks the excess production of cortisol, which is seen in many diseases including Cushing's syndrome, obesity, dyslipidemia, hypertension, cognitive decline, and Alzheimer's disease ([Gregory et al., 2020](#)). Higher cortisol levels have been associated with impaired cognitive performance in elderly people with type 2 diabetes ([Reynolds et al., 2010](#)) and accelerated disease progression in Alzheimer's disease ([Cernansky et al., 2006](#)). High 11 β -HSD1 activity is observed in obesity and metabolic syndrome; genetic polymorphisms of 11 β -HSD1 are associated with diabetes, obesity, and Alzheimer's ([Gregory et al., 2020](#)). 11 β -HSD1 is abundant in the liver, adipose tissue, and the central nervous system, including the hippocampus. Xanamem is under development for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease, and cognitive impairment associated with schizophrenia and diabetes ([Actinogen.com.au](#)).

Neuroprotective Benefit: Xanamem treatment improved some, while worsened other, cognitive domains, with an overall null effect on cognition and function in Alzheimer's patients. A different 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor also failed in an Alzheimer's clinical trial.

Types of evidence:

- 1 double-blind randomized controlled phase 2 study in mild Alzheimer's patients
- 4 phase I studies
- 2 clinical trials testing a different 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor (ABT-384)
- Several observational studies examining the relationships between 11 β -HSD1 expression, cortisol levels, and dementia risk
- Several laboratory studies testing 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors (but not Xanamem, specifically)

Human research to suggest benefits to patients with dementia, or prevention of dementia, prevention of decline, or improved cognitive function:

Xanamem has been studied in four phase 1 studies and one phase 2 study to date. Results from 1 of the phase 1 studies have been published in a peer-reviewed journal while results of the others have been discussed in press releases and company webcasts.

In a double-blind randomized controlled phase 1 study in 60 healthy people, single and multiple ascending doses of Xanamem were tested for safety, pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics, and blood-brain barrier penetrance ([Webster et al., 2017](#)). Xanamem was found to be orally bioavailable, blood-brain barrier penetrant, and showed inhibition of 11 β -HSD1 in the liver. Doses tested for the single ascending dose study were 2, 5, 10, 18, 25, and 35 mg. Doses tested for the multiple ascending dose study were 10, 20, and 35 mg, twice daily for 9.5 days. For the study in cerebral spinal fluid (CSF), 35 mg twice daily was given for 4 days, and CSF was collected 5 hours post-dose. The mean concentration of Xanamem in the CSF was 69.8 ng/mL (ranging from 41.2 to 99.9 ng/mL) and 7.46 to 11.9% of total plasma levels (and 25-40% of free plasma levels).

In 2016, a phase 2 trial in mild Alzheimer's patients (XanADu trial) was initiated. XanADu was a phase 2 double-blind randomized placebo-controlled trial that tested Xanamem treatment (10 mg daily, oral) for 12 weeks in 186 subjects with mild dementia due to Alzheimer's disease ([Actinogen press release; NCT02727699](#)). This trial failed to reach statistically significant differences between Xanamem and placebo in the primary (change in ADAS-Cog version 14; change in ADCOMs) and secondary endpoint measures (RAVLT, CDR-SOB, MMSE, NPI, NTB). However, the 10 mg daily dose of Xanamem appeared safe and pharmacologically active.



After these results, Actinogen Medical proposed that higher doses and longer treatment durations are necessary to effectively improve cognition in Alzheimer's disease.

Subsequently, a phase 1 single-blinded randomized placebo-controlled dose escalation study testing higher doses of Xanamem (20 and 30 mg daily) in 107 Healthy Elderly Subjects (XanaHES trial) was carried out ([Actinogen press release](#); [NCT03830762](#)). Treatment with Xanamem at the 20 mg daily dose for 12 weeks significantly improved cognition in trial participants compared to those receiving placebo. Based on an exploratory assessment of cognitive function, as measured by the Cogstate Cognitive Test Battery, statistically significant benefits were seen in 2 cognitive domains out of 6: One Back Test of working memory ($p < 0.01$ with an effect size of 0.83) and Identification Test of visual attention ($p = 0.05$ with an effect size of 0.67). The Detection Test of psychomotor function showed a trend ($p = 0.09$).

Results also showed that Xanamem treatment significantly reduced serum cortisol levels over the study period.

In April 2022, topline results from the phase 1b study (XanaMIA) in healthy people were presented ([Actinogen press release](#); [Actinogen webcast slides](#)). In this double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled phase 1b study, Xanamem treatment (5 mg or 10 mg, daily, orally) for 6 weeks in 107 cognitively normal older adults (age 50-80) resulted in improvement in visual attention (Identification Test on Cogstate computerized cognitive test battery) with the 5 mg dose only at the end of treatment (Cohen's $d = 0.32$; $Z = 1.97$; $p < 0.05$), but not at Week 4 or at the 4-week follow-up after the treatment, where xanamem and placebo groups had comparable scores ([Actinogen press release, 4/27/2022](#); [Actinogen webcast slides, 4/27/2022](#)). The a priori criterion for effect detection was a Cohen's d of at or above 0.3 in one or more cognitive tests. Although this effect at the 5 mg dose showed a p -value under 0.05, it was not corrected for multiple comparisons. Many cognitive domains were tested, and while the company noted large effect sizes, results were not statistically significant for most domains, including working memory (One Back Test), attention composite, and psychomotor function (Detection Test). For non-attentional cognitive domains, Xanamem treatment, both at 5 and 10 mg doses, resulted in numerically worse outcomes for the cognitive composite, delayed recall (CPAR), visual learning (One Card Learning Test), and the IDSST-S (symbol substitution test). Because there were 11 cognitive domains/composites tested, along with 3 time points (Week 4, Week 6, Week 10) and 2 doses (5 and 10 mg), the possibility of false positives is high without statistically controlling for multiple comparisons.



In this phase 1b study, both the 5 mg- and 10 mg- doses showed pharmacodynamic activity evidenced by increased levels of ACTH, a brain hormone that regulates cortisol production in the adrenal gland, by 2.03 and 2.35 times, respectively ([Actinogen press release, 4/27/2022](#); [Actinogen webcast slides, 4/27/2022](#)). These levels were within normal laboratory ranges.

In October 2022, biomarker-based analyses of a prior phase 2a trial in mild Alzheimer's patients (XanADu trial, initiated in 2016) were released ([Actinogen press release, 10/10/2022](#); [Actinogen webcast slides, 10/10/2022](#)). Out of the originally enrolled 185 patients, this substudy of XanADu included 72 patients with stored blood samples. Of these patients, those with elevated blood pTau181 levels (n=34) showed a clinically significant effect with Xanamem treatment (10 mg, daily, orally, for 12 weeks) on a measure of cognition and function (CDR-SB); however, this effect did not reach statistical significance (p=0.09). Mean CDR-SB was 1.0 in the placebo group (n=18) and 0.4 in the Xanamem group (n=16), with a Cohen's d of 0.41. In this same subgroup of 34 patients, numerical worsening was seen with Xanamem treatment in a cognitive score (ADAS-Cog14 mean), Alzheimer's composite score (ADCOMS mean), and a neuropsychiatric score (NPI mean). Executive function (measured by the Neurologic Test Battery; NTB) showed numerical improvement (0.5 for Xanamem, -2.3 for placebo) in 34 patients, but the p-value was 0.48. In the highest pTau subgroup (> 10.2 pg/mL; n=9 total), CDR-SB change was 0.1 in the Xanamem group and 0.8 in the placebo group, with a Cohen's d of 0.62 and a p-value of 0.33. Although the company noted "clinically significant effect sizes", these effects are not statistically significant.

In a subgroup of clinically impaired patients (MMSE 20-23, n=46), Xanamem treatment showed a change of 1.7 in MMSE compared to a change of -0.3 in the placebo group (Cohen's d of 0.93; p=0.02, uncorrected for multiple comparisons).

With regards to biomarkers, Xanamem treatment did not significantly alter levels of pTau, A β 42/40, or GFAP ([Actinogen press release, 10/10/2022](#); [Actinogen webcast slides, 10/10/2022](#)).

A PET imaging study has demonstrated that Xanamem (from 5 mg to 20 mg doses) binds to the 11 β -HSD1 enzyme throughout the brain, with effects seen after 7 days ([Actinogen webcast slides, 4/27/2022](#)).

A double-blind randomized controlled trial of Alzheimer's patients reported that treatment with a different 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor, ABT-384 (10 or 50 mg/day), for 12 weeks failed to improve cognitive function as measured by ADAS-Cog or any secondary endpoints ([Marek et al., 2014](#)). Neither ABT-384 dose demonstrated significant improvement on the primary end point (change from baseline to final



score on the 13-item ADAS-Cog) or secondary efficacy end points when compared with placebo. This study was terminated for futility after randomization of 267 participants. The ABT-384 dose that was used in this phase 2 study was associated with complete brain 11 β -HSD1 inhibition ([Katz et al., 2013](#)), yet the treatment for 12 weeks failed to produce symptomatic improvement in Alzheimer's patients. The authors noted that full inhibition of brain 11 β -HSD1 is not a viable approach for treating mild-to-moderate Alzheimer's disease.

Mechanisms of action for neuroprotection identified from laboratory and clinical research:

Although higher cortisol levels have been associated with impaired cognitive performance in elderly people ([Reynolds et al., 2010](#)) and accelerated disease progression in Alzheimer's disease ([Cernansky et al., 2006](#)), findings from laboratory and clinical research with regards to the neuroprotective potential of 11 β -HSD1 inhibition have been mixed and inconsistent.

Observational studies: In a case-control observational study of 814 Alzheimer's patients and unrelated control subjects, single-nucleotide polymorphisms in 10 glucocorticoid-related genes were analyzed ([Quervain et al., 2014](#)). A rare haplotype in the 5' regulatory region of the HSD11B1 gene encoding 11 β -HSD1 was associated with a 6-fold increased risk for sporadic Alzheimer's disease (OR=6.2; 95% CI, 1.4 to 28.4). The rare haplotype of HSD11B1 (rs846911) was significantly overrepresented in AD patients (2.9%) as compared with control subjects (0.5%; p=0.008) and this rare haplotype reduced HSD11B1 transcription. This is counterintuitive and contrast with findings that 11 β -HSD1 inhibition could be neuroprotective.

In a brain positron emission tomography (PET) study, 10 lean, 13 overweight, and 5 obese individuals had their brain levels of 11 β -HSD1 measured using 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor radioligands (11C-AS2471907 or 18F-AS2471907)([Bini et al., 2020](#)). A significant age-associated increase in 11 β -HSD1 levels (by 2.7 mL/cm³ per decade) was seen in BMI-corrected mean whole brain distribution volume values. Mean BMI-adjusted whole brain distribution volume value was 6.0 \pm 0.6 mL/cm³ (Mean \pm SEM) in individuals 20-30 years old (n = 10), 8.1 \pm 0.8 mL/cm³ in 30-40-year-old people (n = 10), 8.9 \pm 1.2 mL/cm³ in 40-50-year-old people (n = 6), and 15.8 \pm 6.8 mL/cm³ in 50-60-year-old people (n = 2).

Studies in rodents: No published studies have tested Xanamem in rodent models, but other 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors have been tested and appear to show neuroprotective and pro-cognitive benefits in some models.



In a mouse model of accelerated aging (SAMP8 mice), treatment with an 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor, RL-118 (21 mg/kg/day by oral gavage) for 2 months after being fed a high-fat diet decreased glucocorticoid levels, improved glucose intolerance, restored FGF21 levels, reduced oxidative stress as well as inflammatory markers (IL-1 β , IL-4, IL-6, and TNF- α) and microglial activation, and promoted autophagy ([Puigoriol-Illamola et al., 2020](#)).

In 12-month-old SAMP8 mice, RL-118 treatment (21 mg/kg/day by oral gavage) for 4 weeks increased locomotor activity, improved cognitive performance as measured by object location test, and increased autophagy markers (Beclin1, LC3B, AMPK α , and mTOR)([Puigoriol-Illamola et al., 2018](#)). This was accompanied by a decrease in phosphorylated tau species (Ser-396 and Ser-404), modification of amyloid precursor protein towards a non-amyloidogenic pathway, and decreased gene expression of oxidative stress and inflammation markers (e.g., Hmox1, Aldh2, IL-1 β , and Ccl3).

Also in 12-month-old SAMP8 mice, treatment with an 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor for 4 weeks prevented memory deficits (as measured by the novel object recognition test) and displayed neuroprotective effects ([Leiva et al., 2017](#)). Elevations of iNOS and IL-6 were restored with the 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor to levels comparable to young SAMP8 mice.

Treatment with an 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor, UE2316, improved memory in aged, cognitively-impaired mice and in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease (Tg2576 mice), while reducing A β plaques in the cerebral cortex ([Sooy et al., 2015](#)). Chronic treatment of young Tg2576 mice with UE2316 for up to 13 months prevented cognitive decline; however, the treatment did not prevent A β plaque formation.

Acute treatment with 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors A-801195 (10-30 mg/kg) or A-918446 (3-30 mg/kg) improved memory in rats while increasing phosphorylation of CREB in the cingulate cortex ([Mohler et al., 2011](#)).

APOE4 interactions: APOE4 carriers have higher cortisol levels in the cerebral spinal fluid ([Peskind et al., 2001](#)); however, interactions with Xanamem in APOE4 carriers have not been reported.



Aging and related health concerns: No studies have tested Xanamem, but clinical trials of other 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors have reported small or inconclusive benefits in type 2 diabetes and obesity.

Types of evidence:

- No studies testing Xanamem specifically
- Several clinical trials testing other 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors
- Several observational studies examining the relationships between 11 β -HSD1 expression, cortisol levels, and metabolic syndrome

Metabolic syndrome: UNKNOWN

No studies have tested the efficacy of Xanamem for metabolic syndrome. In a systematic review of 11 β -HSD1 inhibition in human disease, 2 studies examined polymorphisms of 11 β -HSD1 in metabolic syndrome, but there were no significant associations between these polymorphisms and biomarkers of metabolic syndrome ([Gregory et al., 2020](#)).

Obesity: HIGHER BMI CORRELATED WITH HIGHER 11 β -HSD1 EXPRESSION

No studies have tested the efficacy of Xanamem for obesity. However, other 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors have been tested in overweight and obese patients. Treatment with two 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors, MK-0736 (2-7 mg/day) and MK-0916 (6 mg/day), in overweight-to-obese hypertensive patients for up to 24 weeks did not result in a significant improvement in the primary endpoint (placebo-adjusted change in diastolic blood pressure)([Shah et al., 2011](#)). However, treatment with the 7 mg dose of MK-0736 resulted in a placebo-adjusted body weight decrease by 1.4 kg along with decreased LDL and HDL cholesterol.

In a systematic review of 11 β -HSD1 inhibition in human disease, 10 studies examined 11 β -HSD1 expression in participants who were obese ([Gregory et al., 2020](#)). Nine out of the 10 studies showed that 11 β -HSD1 expression (measured in abdominal tissue, adipose tissue, or blood) was higher in participants who were obese compared to lean controls, with higher mRNA levels seen in multiple studies.

However this pattern does not appear to be observed in the brain. In a brain positron emission tomography (PET) study, 10 lean, 13 overweight, and 5 obese individuals had their brain levels of 11 β -HSD1 measured using 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor radioligands (11C-AS2471907 or 18F-AS2471907)([Bini et al., 2020](#)). A correlation emerged between higher BMI with lower levels of the enzyme 11 β -HSD1. The age-adjusted mean whole brain distribution volume the highest in lean individuals (Mean \pm SEM; 10.7 \pm 0.9 mL/cm³)



and significantly lower in both overweight (7.1 ± 0.9 mL/cm³; $p = 0.01$) and obese individuals (5.3 ± 1.3 mL/cm³; $p = 0.01$).

This relationship between higher BMI and lower 11 β -HSD1 levels was counter to the authors' original hypothesis. However, they speculated that lower 11 β -HSD1 levels in the brain with greater BMI may suggest a protective or compensatory mechanism against increased cortisol production and brain exposure. The five individuals with obesity in this study had BMIs ranging from 30 to 32 kg/m² (Class I obesity) and the authors hypothesized that more severe obesity (Class II and III) could result in an increase in 11 β -HSD1.

Type 2 diabetes: 11 β -HSD1 INHIBITION MAY BE BENEFICIAL

No studies have tested the efficacy of Xanamem for type 2 diabetes. However, other 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors been tested in diabetes patients. In a double-blind randomized placebo-controlled study of 302 patients with type 2 diabetes, adding an 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor, INCB13739, for 12 weeks to ongoing metformin monotherapy resulted in significant reductions in A1C (by -0.6%), fasting plasma glucose (by -24 mg/dl), and HOMA-IR (by -24%) compared with placebo ([Rosenstock et al., 2010](#)). In hyperlipidemic patients, total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, and triglycerides were all significantly decreased. INCB13739 treatment also led to a decrease in body weight relative to placebo.

In a different randomized controlled short-term clinical study in people with type 2 diabetes, treatment with 11 β -HSD1 inhibitors (RO5093151/RO-151 and RO5027383/RO-838) showed trends for improvement in HbA1c, though other parameters (HOMA-IR and Matsuda-Index) improved non-significantly ([Heise et al., 2014](#)).

Safety: In a phase 2 study, the most common adverse events were headache, dizziness, and diarrhea. Incidences of adverse events were comparable to those of placebo. Long-term safety beyond 12 weeks has not been evaluated.

Types of evidence:

- 1 double-blind randomized controlled phase 2 study in mild Alzheimer's patients
- 4 phase I studies
- 1 double-blind randomized controlled trial testing a different 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor (ABT-384)

In a double-blind randomized controlled phase 1 study in healthy people, single (2, 5, 10, 18, 25, and 35 mg) and multiple ascending doses (10, 20, and 35 mg, twice daily for 9.5 days) of Xanamem were tested for safety, pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics, and blood-brain barrier penetrance ([Webster et al., 2017](#)). Xanamem doses of 2 to 35 mg once daily and 10 to 35 mg twice daily were safe and well tolerated in healthy people. In the single ascending dose study of 48 healthy adults, the number of subjects with more than 1 treatment-emergent adverse events (TEAEs) was 6 in the placebo group and 9 in the Xanamem group, and none of these were associated with any clinically significant changes in vital signs, ECG, biochemistry, hematology, or urinalysis data. In the multiple ascending dose study, there were no serious TEAEs or TEAEs that led to subject withdrawal, and all TEAEs were mild or moderate in intensity. The most common TEAE was headache reported in 7 out of 24 subjects; diarrhea was reported in 2 out of 24 subjects, and thrombophlebitis (a blood clot in a vein causing inflammation and pain) was reported in 3 out of 24 subjects. A study to determine the amount of Xanamem in the CSF was conducted in 4 healthy subjects and all TEAEs were mild to moderate in intensity. Vital signs remained stable during the study. Increased alanine aminotransferase was reported in 1 subject.

Plasma adrenocorticotrophic hormone was elevated, as expected as a consequence of systemic enzyme inhibition, at doses of 10 mg and above, but plasma cortisol levels were unchanged ([Webster et al., 2017](#)). However, compensatory up-regulation of the hypothalamus-pituitary-axis was noted following multiple doses of 10, 20, and 35 mg Xanamem. DHEA-s and 4-androstenedione were elevated, with effects persisting up to 3 days after the termination of dosing.

In the pharmacokinetic study in dogs, Xanamem showed a clean off-target profile in a diversity screen of 29 enzymes and 72 receptors, including the glucocorticoid and mineralocorticoid receptors ([Webster et al., 2017](#)). No significant CYP450 inhibition was observed at isoforms 1A2, 2D6, 2C9 or 3A4 ($IC_{50} > 50 \mu M$), though moderate inhibition of isoform 2C19 ($IC_{50} = 1.7 \mu M$) was observed.

A phase 1 single-blinded randomized placebo-controlled dose escalation study testing higher doses of Xanamem (20 and 30 mg daily) in Healthy Elderly Subjects (XanaHES trial) reported that Xanamem at the 20 mg daily dose for 12 weeks exhibited a good safety profile, with no reports of serious adverse events ([Actinogen press release, 2019](#); [NCT03830762](#)). However, details of the incidences of adverse events were not reported in the press release.

In a phase 1b study (XanaMIA) of 107 healthy people, xanamem (5 or 10 mg doses) for 6 weeks did not result in treatment-related serious adverse events, and other adverse events were generally equally distributed across the two xanamem and placebo groups ([Actinogen slide deck](#), April 27, 2022).

In a phase 2 double-blind randomized placebo-controlled trial in 186 mild Alzheimer's patients (XanADu trial), Xanomem treatment (10 mg daily, oral) for 12 weeks was safe and pharmacologically active ([Actinogen press release, 05/07/2019](#); [NCT02727699](#)). Serious adverse events occurred at comparable rates in Xanomem (4/91) and placebo (4/94) groups ([NCT02727699](#)). In the Xanomem (10 mg daily) group, serious adverse events included 2 cases of pneumonia, 1 case of abnormal vibration test, 1 case of musculoskeletal chest pain, and 1 case of pulmonary cavitation. In the placebo group, serious adverse events included 1 case of acute myocardial infarction, 1 case of influenza, 1 case of fall, 1 case of rib fracture, and 1 case of transient ischemic attack. Other adverse events also occurred in comparable rates in Xanomem (33/91) and placebo (32/94) groups. The most common were headache (9.89% in Xanomem, 10.64% in placebo), dizziness (8.79% in Xanomem, 4.26% in placebo), and diarrhea (6.59% in Xanomem, 5.32% in placebo).

There has been a phase 2 study in Alzheimer's patients testing a different 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor. A double-blind randomized controlled trial of Alzheimer's patients reported that treatment with a different 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor, ABT-384 (10 or 50 mg/day), for 12 weeks resulted 149 out of 267 subjects experiencing at least one adverse event (55.8%), of whom 82 (30.7%) experienced adverse events that were possibly drug-related ([Marek et al., 2014](#)). The overall incidence of treatment emergent adverse events was similar across treatment groups, and no statistically significant differences were observed between the treatment groups and the placebo group in proportions of subjects with possible or probable drug-related, treatment-emergent adverse events. For those receiving ABT-384 (n=135), the most frequent adverse events ($\geq 3.0\%$) occurring at a greater incidence than placebo included lymphocyte count decrease (n=6; 4.4%), urinary tract infection (n=6; 4.4%), cough (n=6; 4.4%), dizziness (n=5; 3.7%), nasopharyngitis (n=5; 3.7%), and lymphopenia (n=4; 3.0%). Headache was reported by 5.2% of subjects treated with ABT-384 6.1% of subjects in the placebo group, and 6.1% of those taking donepezil. Most adverse events were mild or moderate in severity. While not statistically significant, trends for dose-related increases were seen for nasopharyngitis (0% with placebo, 1.4% with ABT-384 10 mg, and 6.2% with ABT-384 50 mg) and infections (6.1% with placebo, 12.9% with ABT-384 10 mg, and 16.9% with ABT-384 50 mg). With regards to severe adverse events, the ABT-384 10 mg group (n=70) had a higher proportion of subjects (n=6; 8.6%) with at least 1 severe adverse event compared with 0 subjects in the placebo group and 1 subject (1.5%) in the ABT-384 50 mg group. Psychotic disorder was the only severe adverse event that occurred in 2 subjects (both receiving the 10 mg dose). One death due to aspiration pneumonia was reported in the ABT-384 50 mg group, where the onset was 5 days after the last dose and was preceded by general health deterioration and acute renal failure. The death was rated by the investigator as unrelated to study drug. No significant differences were seen between ABT-384 and

placebo for vital signs, electrocardiograms, or clinical laboratory tests. However, potentially clinically significant vital sign events included hypertension in 1 subject (ABT-384, 10 mg group), general physical health deterioration in 1 subject (ABT-384, 10 mg group), and atrial fibrillation in 1 subject (donepezil group). An increase by over 60 milliseconds in Bazett QTc interval was the most frequent potentially clinically significant event in subjects who received ABT-384, as seen in 3 subjects (4.4%) and 1 subject (1.6%) in the ABT-384 10 mg and 50 mg groups, respectively, and 1 subject in the placebo group (1.5%) and 5 subjects in the donepezil group (7.7%). One subject (1.6%) receiving the ABT-384 50 mg dose had an alanine aminotransferase level greater than 3 times the upper limit of normal, which returned to normal without further intervention.

Drug interactions: Drug interactions with Xanamem have not been studied in detail. Based on the pharmacokinetic study, there was moderate inhibition of CYP450 isoform 2C19 ([Webster et al., 2017](#)) and thus caution may be required when taking other medications that are metabolized by CYP2C19 (e.g., omeprazole, lansoprazole, pantoprazole, citalopram, amitriptyline, clopidogrel, etc.).

Sources and dosing: Xanamem is under clinical development by [Actinogen Medical](#) (Sydney, Australia), an ASX-listed biotechnology company focused on developing treatments for Alzheimer's disease and cognitive decline due to schizophrenia and diabetes. The dose tested in a phase 2 study in Alzheimer's patients was 10 mg once daily, orally, but this dose failed to improve cognitive outcomes ([Actinogen press release](#); [NCT02727699](#)).

Research underway: There have been 5 completed clinical trials testing Xanamem based on [ClinicalTrials.gov](#), but there are currently no clinical trials that are ongoing. Actinogen Medical is planning a phase 2b trial in Alzheimer's disease (XanaMIA Part B), which will be a 6-month, dose-ranging (5 and 10 mg), placebo-controlled trial in 330 patients with early stages of Alzheimer's disease ([GlobeNewswire.com](#); [Actinogen slide deck, 10/10/2022](#)). Key inclusion criteria include clinical diagnosis of MCI or mild dementia due to Alzheimer's (NIA-AA), elevated blood p-tau181 levels, and exclusion of vascular cause of dementia. The primary endpoints include CDR-SB and Cogstate CTB attentional composite. Results are expected in 2024. A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial in 120 patients with major depressive disorder and cognitive impairment is also planned ([Actinogen slide deck, 10/10/2022](#)).

Patents: Xanamem and related compounds with 11 β -HSD1 inhibitor activity are protected in patent applications [WO2011033255](#) and [WO2011135276](#).

Search terms:

Pubmed, Google: Xanamem, UE2343, 11 β -HSD1

Websites visited for Xanamem, UE2343:

- [Clinicaltrials.gov](https://clinicaltrials.gov)
- NIH RePORTER (0)
- DrugAge (0)
- Drugs.com (0)
- PubChem (0)
- DrugBank.ca (0)
- Cafepharma (0)
- Pharmapro.com (0)

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