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Genetic polymorphisms of drug transporters: pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic consequences in pharmacotherapy

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Pharmacogenetic Characterization of Sulfasalazine Disposition Based on *NAT2* and *ABCG2* (BCRP) Gene Polymorphisms in Humans

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The role of breast cancer resistance protein (BCRP), an efflux ABC transporter, in the pharmacokinetics of substrate drugs in humans is unknown. We investigated the impact of genetic polymorphisms of *ABCG2* (421C>A) and *NAT2* on the pharmacokinetics of sulfasalazine (SASP), a dual substrate, in 37 healthy volunteers, taking 2,000 mg of conventional SASP tablets. In *ABCG2*, SASP AUC_{0-48} of C/C, C/A, and A/A subjects was 171 ± 85 , 330 ± 194 , and 592 ± 275 $\mu\text{g h/ml}$, respectively, with significant differences among groups. In contrast, AUC_{0-48} of sulfapyridine (SP) tended to be lower in subjects with the *ABCG2*-A allele as homozygosity. In *NAT2*, AUC_{AcSP}/AUC_{SP} was significantly higher in rapid than in intermediate and slow acetylator (SA) genotypes. We successfully described the pharmacokinetics of SASP, SP, and *N*-acetylsulfapyridine (AcSP) simultaneously by nonlinear mixed-effects modeling (NONMEM) analysis with regard to both gene polymorphisms. The data indicate that SASP is a candidate probe of BCRP, particularly in its role in intestinal absorption.

INTRODUCTION

Sulfasalazine (SASP) has long been used in the treatment of inflammatory bowel diseases, such as ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease, and rheumatoid disease.^{1,2} After oral administration, SASP breaks down into sulfapyridine (SP) and 5-aminosalicylic acid (5-ASA) by bacterial azo reductases in the colon and cecum (Figure 1).^{3,4} 5-ASA is suggested to be effective for inflammatory bowel diseases, while SASP and SP are effective for rheumatoid disease.⁵⁻⁷ In contrast to 5-ASA, the systemic uptake of SP is virtually complete, and it is further metabolized by polymorphic *N*-acetyltransferase 2 (*NAT2*) into *N*-acetylsulfapyridine (AcSP) in the liver.⁷⁻¹⁰

The *NAT2* gene, located on chromosome 8p22, demonstrates large interindividual variability in acetylating activity by genetic polymorphism in humans.¹¹⁻¹⁵ At present, at least 35 variants have been identified,¹⁶ and some of these mutant alleles show low acetylating activities, leading to adverse reactions of SP, such as blood disorders, including thrombocytopenia and reticulocytosis, and hepatic disorders.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ *NAT2**5B, *NAT2**6A, and

*NAT2**7B are principally important mutant alleles, and the Japanese population can be stratified by genotyping tests into three groups: rapid acetylators (RAs), intermediate acetylators (IAs), and slow acetylators (SAs).¹²⁻¹⁴ Low acetylating activities of SP to AcSP cause higher plasma concentrations of SP, which increase the possibility of adverse reactions in SA compared to RA; higher incidences of nausea/vomiting and hepatic disorders were reported in SA subjects.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ Association between *NAT2* polymorphism (*NAT2**7B) and Crohn's disease has also been reported in Japanese patients.²⁰ Although genotyping of *NAT2* provides useful information about the individual metabolic capacity of SP, the reason(s) for substantial interindividual variabilities in pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic profiles of SASP, a parent drug of SP, have not yet been elucidated.¹⁰ The individual variability of bacterial azo reductase activity is speculated to affect the degradation of SASP.^{3,4,17}

Breast cancer resistance protein (BCRP, *ABCG2* gene) is an efflux ABC transporter, which is expressed at the apical membrane in the placenta (trophoblast cells), liver (bile

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Received 5 July 2007; accepted 25 October 2007; advance online publication 2 January 2008. doi:10.1038/sj.cpt.6100459

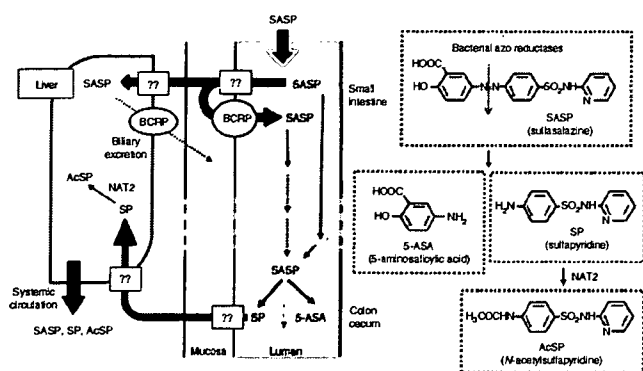


Figure 1 The possible biological fates of orally administered sulfasalazine (SASP) (in a conventional tablet form) in humans. After absorption from the luminal side, SASP is excreted into the luminal side again by breast cancer resistance protein (BCRP), which is expressed at the apical membrane of enterocytes (BCRP restricts intestinal SASP absorption). The remaining SASP travels down the small intestine to the lower intestinal tract where its diazo-bond is cleaved by colonic bacteria with the liberation of sulfapyridine (SP) and 5-aminosalicylic acid (5-ASA). SP is almost totally absorbed from the colon and cecum, and then metabolized into *N*-acetylsulfapyridine (AcSP) by *N*-acetyltransferase 2 (NAT2), predominantly in the liver.

canalicular membrane of hepatocytes), kidney, and intestine (enterocytes),^{21–25} and is involved in the absorption and excretion of various drugs such as topotecan,²⁶ diflomotecan,²⁷ and rosuvastatin.²⁸ Recently, Zaher *et al.*²⁹ reported that BCRP (*ABCG2*) is an important determinant of oral bioavailability and the elimination of SASP in mice, and that SASP has the potential to be utilized as a specific *in vivo* probe of BCRP. They showed that after oral administration of SASP, the area under the plasma concentration (AUC) time profile in *BCRP*^{-/-} mice was >100 times higher than that in *FVB* wild-type (WT) mice, and that after intravenous administration, the AUC of SASP in *BCRP*^{-/-} mice was ~13-fold higher than that in WT mice.

Similar to the *NAT2* gene, different variants have been identified in the *ABCG2* gene. Among them, two frequent non-synonymous variants, 34G>A (12Val>Met in exon 2) and 421C>A (141Gln>Lys in exon 5), are of interest. Pharmacokinetic profiles of topotecan,²⁶ diflomotecan,²⁷ and rosuvastatin²⁸ are significantly different among *ABCG2* genotyping groups. Recent clinical studies demonstrated that *ABCG2* 421C>A polymorphism was associated with gefitinib accumulation at steady state,³⁰ leading to an increased risk of diarrhea.³¹ In contrast to these drugs, however, no remarkable change in pitavastatin pharmacokinetics has recently been reported,³² suggesting that the effect of the *ABCG2* polymorphism underlies the substrate-dependent activity.

In this study, we demonstrate the synchronized contribution of drug transporter and metabolism gene polymorphisms to the pharmacokinetics of SASP in healthy subjects, who were selected from our study panels based on their genotypes of *ABCG2* (421C>A) and *NAT2* (*NAT2**4, *5B, *6A, and *7B).

RESULTS

No clinically undesirable signs and symptoms possibly attributed to the administration of SASP were recognized throughout

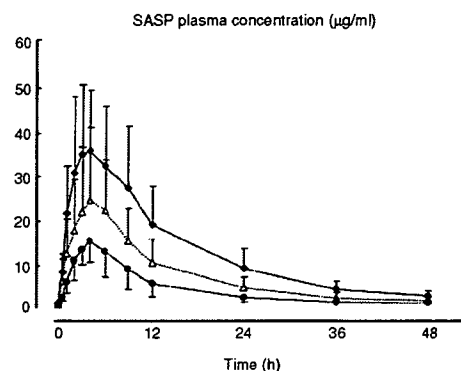


Figure 2 Effect of *ABCG2* genotype on pharmacokinetics of sulfasalazine (SASP). Plasma concentration-time profiles of SASP after oral administration of a 2,000 mg conventional SASP tablet to 421C/C subjects (closed circles, $n = 12$), 421C/A subjects (open triangles, $n = 16$), and 421A/A subjects (closed diamonds, $n = 9$).

the study. All subjects completed the study successfully according to the protocol.

SASP pharmacokinetics in relation to *ABCG2* and *NAT2* genotypic status

After oral administration, the mean plasma concentrations of SASP were significantly higher ($P < 0.01$) in *ABCG2*-A/A subjects than in *ABCG2*-C/C subjects, and *ABCG2*-C/A subjects had values between those in *ABCG2*-A/A and *ABCG2*-C/C subjects at all observation points except 0.5 h (Figure 2). The mean (\pm SD) AUC_{0-48} of SASP in *ABCG2*-C/C ($n = 12$), *ABCG2*-C/A ($n = 16$), and *ABCG2*-A/A ($n = 9$) subjects was 171 ± 85 , 330 ± 194 , and 592 ± 275 $\mu\text{g h/ml}$, respectively, and significant differences ($P < 0.05$) were observed among all three groups (Table 1). Similarly, the mean peak plasma concentration (C_{max}) in *ABCG2*-C/C, *ABCG2*-C/A, and *ABCG2*-A/A subjects was 15.4 ± 5.2 , 26.4 ± 16.1 , and 40.7 ± 13.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, respectively, with significant differences among all three groups. In contrast, the mean CL_{total}/F in *ABCG2*-C/C, *ABCG2*-C/A, and *ABCG2*-A/A subjects was 13.7 ± 5.8 , 7.3 ± 3.0 , and 3.7 ± 1.3 l/h, respectively.

For combined *ABCG2* and *NAT2* genotypes, the number of patients within each combination of genotypes and pharmacokinetic parameters are summarized in Table 2. The mean AUC_{0-48} of SASP in groups RA-C/C, C/A, and A/A was 146 ± 43 , 282 ± 78 , and 742 ± 469 , and in groups IA-C/C, C/A, and A/A was 171 ± 80 , 310 ± 151 , and 517 ± 113 $\mu\text{g h/ml}$, respectively; the mean value in *ABCG2*-A/A subjects was significantly higher than that in subjects C/A and C/C in both RA and IA. A similar trend was observed in C_{max} values. In contrast, mean CL_{total}/F in groups RA-C/C, C/A, and A/A was 14.4 ± 4.5 , 7.3 ± 2.1 , and 3.3 ± 1.9 , and in groups IA-C/C, C/A, and A/A was 13.6 ± 6.8 , 7.6 ± 3.8 , and 3.9 ± 1.0 l/h, respectively; the mean value in *ABCG2*-A/A subjects was significantly lower than that in C/C subjects in both RA and IA.

The mean AUC_{0-48} of SASP in groups RA-C/C, IA-C/C, and SA-C/C was 146 ± 43 , 171 ± 80 , and 237, and in groups RA-C/A, IA-C/A, and SA-C/A was 282 ± 78 , 310 ± 151 , and 387 ± 289 $\mu\text{g h/ml}$, respectively; no significant intergenotypic

Table 1 Pharmacokinetic parameters of SASP after single oral dose of SASP with regard to the polymorphism of ABCG2 gene

Genotype		AUC ₀₋₄₈ (µg h/ml)	K _e (h ⁻¹)	CL _{total} /F (l/h)	t _{1/2} (h)	T _{max} (h)	C _{max} (µg/ml)
ABCG2	n						
C/C	12	171 ± 85 (123 ~ 220)	0.08 ± 0.03 (0.07 ~ 0.10)	13.7 ± 5.8 (10.4 ~ 16.9)	9.8 ± 4.5 (7.2 ~ 12.3)	4.3 ± 0.9 (3.8 ~ 4.7)	15.4 ± 5.2 (12.4 ~ 18.4)
C/A	16	330 ± 194* (235 ~ 425)	0.07 ± 0.01 (0.06 ~ 0.07)	7.3 ± 3.0* (5.8 ~ 8.8)	10.5 ± 2.0 (9.5 ~ 11.5)	4.8 ± 1.6 (4.1 ~ 5.6)	26.4 ± 16.1* (18.5 ~ 34.3)
A/A	9	592 ± 275*** (412 ~ 771)	0.07 ± 0.01 (0.06 ~ 0.07)	3.7 ± 1.3*** (2.9 ~ 4.6)	10.3 ± 1.5 (9.4 ~ 11.3)	3.9 ± 2.2 (2.5 ~ 5.3)	40.7 ± 13.5*** (31.8 ~ 49.5)

Each value represents the mean ± SD (95% confidence interval).

SASP, sulfasalazine (salazosulfapyridine).

*Significantly different from values in C/C subjects as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test ($P < 0.05$). **Significantly different from values in C/A subjects as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test ($P < 0.05$).

Table 2 Pharmacokinetic parameters of SASP after single oral dose of SASP with regard to the polymorphism of ABCG2 and NAT2 genes

Genotype		AUC ₀₋₄₈ (µg h/ml)	K _e (h ⁻¹)	CL _{total} /F (l/h)	t _{1/2} (h)	T _{max} (h)	C _{max} (µg/ml)	
NAT2	ABCG2							
RA	C/C	5	146 ± 43 (108 ~ 183)	0.08 ± 0.02 (0.06 ~ 0.10)	14.4 ± 4.5 (10.5 ~ 18.3)	9.8 ± 4.3 (6.0 ~ 13.5)	3.8 ± 0.5 (3.4 ~ 4.2)	13.6 ± 2.6 (11.3 ~ 15.9)
	C/A	5	282 ± 78 (215 ~ 350)	0.07 ± 0.01 (0.06 ~ 0.08)	7.3 ± 2.1* (5.4 ~ 9.2)	10.5 ± 2.3 (8.5 ~ 12.4)	4.4 ± 1.5 (3.1 ~ 5.7)	23.4 ± 8.3 (16.1 ~ 30.7)
	A/A	3	742 ± 469*** (212 ~ 1272)	0.07 ± 0.01 (0.06 ~ 0.08)	3.3 ± 1.9* (1.2 ~ 5.5)	10.4 ± 1.1 (9.1 ~ 11.6)	4.7 ± 3.8 (0.4 ~ 9.0)	44.4 ± 24.5*** (16.7 ~ 72)
IA	C/C	5	171 ± 80 (101 ~ 241)	0.08 ± 0.03 (0.06 ~ 0.11)	13.6 ± 6.8 (7.6 ~ 19.5)	10.0 ± 5.9 (4.8 ~ 15.3)	4.4 ± 0.9 (3.6 ~ 5.2)	15.9 ± 6.4 (10.2 ~ 21.5)
	C/A	5	310 ± 151 (178 ~ 442)	0.07 ± 0.01 (0.06 ~ 0.07)	7.6 ± 3.8 (4.3 ~ 10.9)	10.5 ± 1.1 (9.5 ~ 11.5)	4.6 ± 1.3 (3.4 ~ 5.8)	22.6 ± 10.7 (13.2 ~ 32.0)
	A/A	6	517 ± 113*** (426 ~ 607)	0.07 ± 0.01 (0.06 ~ 0.08)	3.9 ± 1.0* (3.1 ~ 4.7)	10.3 ± 1.7 (8.9 ~ 11.7)	3.2 ± 1.3 (2.1 ~ 4.2)	38.8 ± 6.3*** (33.7 ~ 43.9)
SA	C/C	2	237	0.08	12	9.1	5	18.7
	C/A	6	387 ± 289 (156 ~ 618)	0.07 ± 0.01 (0.06 ~ 0.08)	6.9 ± 3.5 (4.1 ~ 9.8)	10.5 ± 2.5 (8.5 ~ 12.6)	4.8 ± 2.0 (3.2 ~ 6.5)	31.1 ± 24.0 (12.0 ~ 50.3)

Each value represents the mean ± SD (95% confidence interval).

IA, intermediate acetylator [*4/*6A (n = 10), *4/*7B (n = 6)]; RA, rapid acetylator (*4/*4); SA, slow acetylator [*6A/*6A (n = 4), *6A/*7B (n = 4)]; SASP, sulfasalazine (salazosulfapyridine).

*Significantly different from values in C/C subjects within the same NAT2 genotyping group as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test ($P < 0.05$).

**Significantly different from values in C/A subjects within the same NAT2 genotyping group as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test ($P < 0.05$).

difference was observed. Similar trends were observed in mean CL_{total}/F and C_{max} values, suggesting that NAT2 polymorphism is not a determinant of the pharmacokinetics of SASP.

No intergenotypic differences were observed in mean elimination rate constant (K_e) and time to reach the maximum concentration (T_{max}) values.

SP and AcSP pharmacokinetics in relation to ABCG2 and NAT2 genotypic status

Pharmacokinetic parameters of SP after a single oral dose of SASP are summarized in Table 3. In contrast to SASP, the mean AUC₀₋₄₈ of SP tended to be lower in ABCG2-A/A subjects; the order was ABCG2-C/C > C/A > A/A in both RA and IA types of the NAT2 gene. A similar trend was observed in C_{max} values. The mean AUC₀₋₄₈, t_{1/2}, and C_{max} values of SP were significantly different among three ABCG2-C/A matched NAT2 genotyping subjects; the order was SA > IA > RA, suggesting

that pharmacokinetic profiles of SP depend both on NAT2 and ABCG2 polymorphisms.

Although the mean AUC₀₋₄₈ and C_{max} of AcSP tended to be lower in ABCG2-A/A subjects, there were no significant differences in any of the pharmacokinetics parameters of AcSP among all ABCG2 genotyping groups (Table 4).

With regard to the NAT2 polymorphism alone, the mean AUC ratio of AcSP to SP (AUC_{AcSP}/AUC_{SP}) in RA, IA, and SA subjects was 3.1 ± 0.6, 1.9 ± 0.5, and 0.5 ± 0.4, respectively, with significant differences among all groups; however, the mean renal clearance (CL_r) value was comparable among all groups for both SP and AcSP (Table 5).

Simultaneous modeling and NONMEM analysis of SASP, SP, and AcSP in relation to ABCG2 and NAT2 polymorphisms

There were significant correlations between individual post-hoc prediction values and observed values (i.e., actual plasma

Table 3 Pharmacokinetic parameters of SP after single oral dose of SASP with regard to the polymorphism of ABCG2 and NAT2 genes

Genotype			AUC ₀₋₄₈ (µg h/ml)	K _e (h ⁻¹)	t _{1/2} (h)	T _{max} (h)	C _{max} (µg/ml)
NAT2	ABCG2	n					
RA	C/C	5	140 ± 35 (109 ~ 171)	0.10 ± 0.01 (0.09 ~ 0.11)	7.2 ± 0.8 (6.5 ~ 7.9)	10.8 ± 2.7 (8.5 ~ 13.2)	6.3 ± 1.1 (5.3 ~ 7.3)
	C/A	5	134 ± 32* (106 ~ 162)	0.10 ± 0.02* (0.07 ~ 0.11)	7.9 ± 2.0* (6.2 ~ 9.7)	13.8 ± 5.8 (8.7 ~ 18.9)	5.7 ± 1.1* (4.7 ~ 6.6)
	A/A	3	84 ± 28 (53 ~ 116)	0.08 ± 0.03 (0.05 ~ 0.11)	9.2 ± 2.8 (6.1 ~ 12.3)	20.0 ± 6.9 (12.2 ~ 27.8)	3.7 ± 1.3*** (2.2 ~ 5.2)
IA	C/C	5	189 ± 55 (140 ~ 237)	0.06 ± 0.03 (0.04 ~ 0.09)	12.6 ± 5.0 (8.2 ~ 16.9)	21.6 ± 10 (12.8 ~ 30.4)	7.7 ± 3.1 (5.0 ~ 10.4)
	C/A	5	171 ± 82* (99 ~ 243)	0.08 ± 0.02* (0.06 ~ 0.09)	9.4 ± 1.6* (8.0 ~ 10.8)	13.8 ± 5.8 (8.7 ~ 18.9)	7.5 ± 3.5* (4.4 ~ 10.5)
	A/A	6	140 ± 58 (93 ~ 187)	0.07 ± 0.03 (0.04 ~ 0.09)	12.5 ± 6.0 (7.7 ~ 17.3)	18.0 ± 6.6 (12.7 ~ 23.3)	5.6 ± 2.3 (3.8 ~ 7.5)
SA	C/C	2	170	0.07	10.1	12.0	6.6
	C/A	6	357 ± 99 (278 ~ 437)	0.04 ± 0.02 (0.03 ~ 0.05)	19.4 ± 7.5 (13.4 ~ 25.4)	20.0 ± 6.2 (15.0 ~ 25.0)	12.7 ± 2.5 (10.7 ~ 14.7)

Each value represents the mean ± SD (95% confidence interval).

IA, intermediate acetylator (*4/*6A (n = 10), *4/*7B (n = 6)); RA, rapid acetylator (*4/*4); SA, slow acetylator (*6A/*6A (n = 4), *6A/*7B (n = 4)); SASP, sulfasalazine (salazosulfapyridine); SP, sulfapyridine.

*Significantly different from values in SA-ABCG2-C/A subjects as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test (P < 0.05). **Significantly different from values in C/A subjects within the same NAT2 genotyping group as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test (P < 0.05). ***Significantly different from values in C/C subjects within the same NAT2 genotyping group as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test (P < 0.05).

Table 4 Pharmacokinetic parameters of AcSP after single oral dose of SASP with regard to the polymorphism of ABCG2 and NAT2 genes

Genotype			AUC ₀₋₄₈ (µg h/ml)	K _e (h ⁻¹)	t _{1/2} (h)	T _{max} (h)	C _{max} (µg/ml)
NAT2	ABCG2	n					
RA	C/C	5	425 ± 148 (295 ~ 555)	0.09 ± 0.02 (0.07 ~ 0.10)	8.2 ± 1.8 (6.6 ~ 9.9)	24.0	16.3 ± 5.4 (11.5 ~ 21.1)
	C/A	5	445 ± 139*** (324 ~ 566)	0.07 ± 0.02* (0.06 ~ 0.09)	10.2 ± 3.1* (7.5 ~ 13.0)	21.6 ± 5.4 (16.9 ~ 26.3)	17.6 ± 5.1*** (13.2 ~ 22.1)
	A/A	3	250 ± 42 (202 ~ 298)	0.06 ± 0.04 (0.01 ~ 0.10)	15.9 ± 8.3 (6.5 ~ 25.3)	24.0	9.8 ± 1.8 (7.7 ~ 11.8)
IA	C/C	5	345 ± 146 (217 ~ 473)	0.05 ± 0.03 (0.02 ~ 0.08)	23.2 ± 21.0 (4.8 ~ 41.6)	28.8 ± 6.6 (23.0 ~ 34.6)	12.6 ± 5.2 (8.0 ~ 17.2)
	C/A	5	281 ± 129 (168 ~ 393)	0.06 ± 0.01* (0.05 ~ 0.07)	12.0 ± 2.4* (9.9 ~ 14.1)	21.6 ± 5.4 (16.9 ~ 26.3)	10.5 ± 4.6* (6.5 ~ 14.5)
	A/A	6	270 ± 109 (182 ~ 357)	0.05 ± 0.03 (0.03 ~ 0.08)	19.3 ± 12.8 (9.0 ~ 29.5)	24.0 ± 7.6 (17.9 ~ 30.1)	9.3 ± 3.4 (6.6 ~ 12.0)
SA	C/C	2	48.0	0.1	8.7	24.0	2.1
	C/A	6	146 ± 45 (110 ~ 182)	0.02 ± 0.01 (0.01 ~ 0.03)	50.1 ± 34.2 (22.2 ~ 77.5)	26.0 ± 4.9 (22.1 ~ 29.9)	5.1 ± 1.7 (3.7 ~ 6.4)

Each value represents the mean ± SD (95% confidence interval).

AcSP, N-acetylsulfapyridine; SASP, sulfasalazine (salazosulfapyridine).

*Significantly different from values in SA-ABCG2-C/A subjects as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test (P < 0.05). **Significantly different from values in IA-ABCG2-C/A subjects as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test (P < 0.05).

Table 5 Pharmacokinetic parameters of SP and AcSP after single oral dose of SASP in three NAT2 genotyping groups

Genotype	n	SP			AcSP	
		AUC _{AcSP} /AUC _{SP}	CL _T (l/h)	48-h Cumulative urinary excretion (%)	CL _T (l/h)	48-h Cumulative urinary excretion (%)
RA	13	3.1 ± 0.6 (2.8 ~ 3.5)	0.52 ± 0.09 (0.47 ~ 0.57)	5.2 ± 2.0 (4.2 ~ 6.3)	1.6 ± 0.3 (1.4 ~ 1.8)	41.5 ± 12.5 (34.7 ~ 48.3)
IA	16	1.9 ± 0.5* (1.7 ~ 2.1)	0.55 ± 0.07 (0.52 ~ 0.59)	7.3 ± 3.1 (5.8 ~ 8.8)	1.9 ± 0.4 (1.7 ~ 2.0)	36.7 ± 13.6 (30.0 ~ 43.3)
SA	8	0.5 ± 0.4*** (0.3 ~ 0.8)	0.50 ± 0.06 (0.46 ~ 0.54)	12.7 ± 6.3*** (8.3 ~ 17.1)	2.0 ± 0.6 (1.6 ~ 2.4)	15.9 ± 6.8*** (11.2 ~ 20.6)

Each value represents the mean ± SD (95% confidence interval).

AcSP, N-acetylsulfapyridine; CL_T, renal clearance; IA, intermediate acetylator; RA, rapid acetylator; SA, slow acetylator; SASP, sulfasalazine (salazosulfapyridine); SP, sulfapyridine.

*Significantly different from values in RA subjects as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test (P < 0.001). **Significantly different from values in IA subjects as determined by ANOVA with Fisher's least significant difference test (P < 0.001).

concentrations) for SASP, SP, and AcSP (Figure 3). Individual fitting curves of the three compounds in typical subjects are presented in Figure 4. Nonlinear mixed-effects modeling (NONMEM) analysis confirmed that individual ABCG2 and NAT2 genotyping status was a statistically significant predictor of

SASP, and SP and AcSP pharmacokinetics, respectively (Figures 3 and 4, Table 6). Incorporating the effect of ABCG2 genotype on SASP relative bioavailability (Fr, assumed 1.0 for ABCG2-C/C subjects), Ka, and CL/F (CL_{SASP}/F), and of NAT2 genotype on CL_{SP} (formation CL of AcSP) was associated with significant

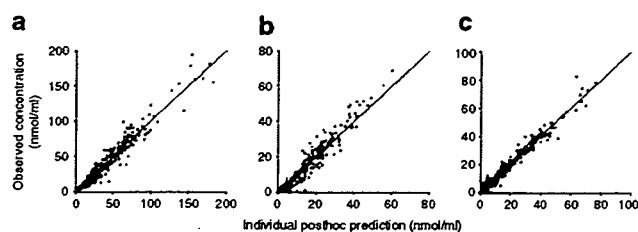


Figure 3 Scatter plots of observed plasma concentrations vs. individual posthoc prediction values of (a) sulfasalazine, (b) sulfapyridine, and (c) *N*-acetylsulfapyridine. The solid line is the line of identity.

Table 6 Population pharmacokinetic parameters and their variabilities for SASP, SP, and AcSP in basic and final models estimated by NONMEM with regard to *ABCG2* and *NAT2* gene polymorphisms

Parameter/effect	Population mean (SE) (95%, confidence interval)		Variability (CV% (SE))		
	Basic model	Final model	Basic model	Final model	
SASP	K_a (h^{-1})	0.62 (0.16)	0.42 (0.08)	40.7 (25.1)	42.7 (26.5)
	CL/F (l/h)	5.3 (0.87)	9.3 (1.7)	125 (92.6)	111 (71.1)
	V_c/F (l)	47.8 (8.3)	74.4 (12.3)	55.7 (35.3)	50.5 (30.1)
	Q/F (l/h)	1.1 (0.36)	1.9 (0.43)	0 Fixed (-)	0 Fixed (-)
	V_p/F (l)	62.0 (28.3)	159 (67.3)	125 (78.4)	150 (95.2)
	Tlag (h)	0.25 (0.05)	0.25 (0.05)	42.8 (42.1)	68.5 (73.3)
SP	K_{TR} (h^{-1})	0.31 (0.05)	0.32 (0.02)	34.5 (19.4)	28.5 (16.0)
	CL _{SP} (l/h)	1.6 (0.36)	3.6 (0.49)	52.6 (31.0)	9.5 (8.4)
	V_{SP} (l/h)	26.7 (5.9)	32.7 (4.9)	41.3 (28.6)	70.9 (43.0)
AcSP	CL _{AcSP} (l/h)	1.3 (0.33)	1.3 (0.19)	72.6 (50.9)	3.0 (9.9)
	V_{AcSP} (l)	7.4 (2.8)	6.3 (1.0)	46.1 (31.0)	19.3 (12.0)
Genotyping effect					
CL _{SP} (IA)	-	0.69 (0.04) [0.61–0.77]			
CL _{SP} (SA)	-	0.18 (0.03) [0.12–0.24]			
Fr (C/A)	-	1.7 (0.25) [1.2–2.2]			
Fr (A/A)	-	2.1 (0.41) [1.3–3.0]			
K_a (A/A)	-	1.8 (0.32) [1.2–2.4]			
CL _{SASP/F} (C/A and A/A)	-	0.84 (0.02) [0.79–0.89]			
OFV	4,168.282	3,771.129			

ABCG2 genotype effect was described as the following function: $P = P_{wildtype} \times \theta^{421C/A} \times \theta^{421A/A}$. *NAT2* genotype effect was described as the following function: $P = P_{RA} \times \theta^{IA} \times \theta^{SA}$.

A/A, *ABCG2*-A/A; AcSP, *N*-acetylsulfapyridine; C/A, *ABCG2*-C/A; CL/F, apparent clearance; CL_{AcSP}, clearance of AcSP; CL_{SP}, formation clearance to AcSP; IA, intermediate acetylator; K_a , absorption rate constant; K_{TR} , transfer rate constant for Erlang's distribution; NONMEM, nonlinear mixed-effects modeling; OFV, objective function value estimated by NONMEM; Q/F, intercompartment clearance; SA, slow acetylator; SASP, sulfasalazine; SP, sulfapyridine; Tlag, absorption lag time; V_{AcSP} , volume of distribution of AcSP; V_c/F , apparent volume of distribution of central compartment; V_p/F , volume of distribution of peripheral compartment; V_{SP} , volume of distribution of SP.

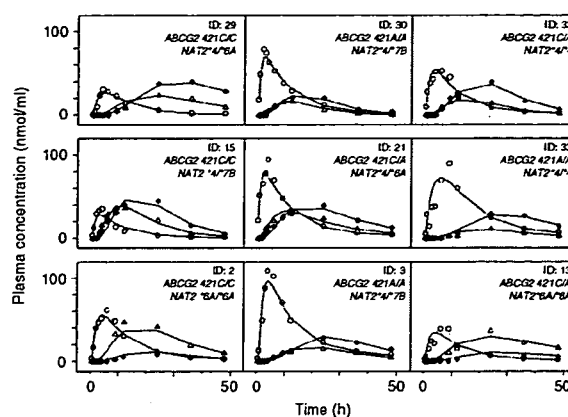


Figure 4 Observed plasma concentrations and post-hoc prediction curves in typical subjects with their *NAT2* and *ABCG2* genotyping results: sulfasalazine (open circles), sulfapyridine (open triangles), and *N*-acetylsulfapyridine (closed diamonds).

reduction in the objective function value (4,168.282→3,771.129). SASP Fr and K_a were increased, and CL_{SASP/F} was decreased in subjects with the *ABCG2*-A allele(s); the relative value of Fr in *ABCG2*-C/C, C/A, and A/A subjects was 1:1.7:2.1. The relative K_a and CL_{SASP/F} values in *ABCG2*-C/C, C/A, and A/A subjects were 1:1:1.8 and 1:0.84:0.84, respectively. CL_{SP} values were lower in IA and SA subjects than in RA subjects; the relative value of CL_{SP} in RA, IA, and SA was 1:0.7:0.18. No confidence intervals were >1.0, indicating that the contribution of the genotype to each parameter was significant. In PPK analysis, we fixed the interindividual variability of Q/F to zero; however, this treatment did not interfere with predictive performance (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to evaluate whether the polymorphism of drug metabolism and transporter genes is simultaneously involved in the overall pharmacokinetic profile of SASP in humans. The important findings were that: (1) significant differences in AUC of SASP were observed among subjects with different *ABCG2* genotypes; (2) AUC of SP tended to be lower in *ABCG2*-A/A subjects except for SA; (3) As with previous studies, significant differences in AUC_{AcSP}/AUC_{SP} were observed among subjects with different *NAT2* genotypes; (4) NONMEM analysis also supported the contribution of both gene polymorphisms to the pharmacokinetics of SASP, SP, and AcSP.

In this study, we demonstrated that BCRP plays an important role in the pharmacokinetics of SASP in humans. After oral administration, the mean AUC_{0–48} and C_{max} of SASP were significantly higher, and the mean CL_{total}/F was significantly lower in subjects with at least one *ABCG2*-A mutant allele (Table 1). Similar results were observed when we considered the combination of *ABCG2* and *NAT2* genotyping results, suggesting that *NAT2* is not involved in the pharmacokinetics of SASP (Table 2). Previous *in vivo* studies demonstrated that *ABCG2* 421C>A polymorphism was associated with changes in the pharmacokinetics of certain clinically important drugs, such as topotecan,²⁶

diflomotecan,²⁷ rosuvastatin,²⁸ and gefitinib.^{30,31} Available data indicate that the *ABCG2-A* allele was associated with remarkably decreased BCRP expression compared with WT cells and human placental samples.^{33,34} Since BCRP is highly expressed at the apical membrane of enterocytes and hepatocytes,^{22,25} impaired transport activity caused by the *ABCG2-A* allele may lead to increased absorption at the intestinal epithelium, and/or to decreased biliary excretion of substrates, thereby resulting in elevated plasma concentrations in subjects with *ABCG2-A* allele(s) (Figure 1). Thus, the raised AUC of SASP in *ABCG2-A* subjects may be due to increased oral availability (F) and/or decreased hepatic clearance. Nevertheless, we have recently demonstrated no significant effect of the *ABCG2 421C>A* polymorphism on the pharmacokinetics of pitavastatin, a good substrate for BCRP, suggesting that the pharmacogenomic effect of the *ABCG2* polymorphism appeared to depend on the substrate.³²

The raised AUC of SASP in *ABCG2-A* subjects is in accord with the findings in a BCRP^{-/-} mouse study that, after oral administration, AUC of SASP in BCRP^{-/-} was ~111-fold higher than that in FVB-WT mice.²⁹ Interestingly, after intravenous administration, the AUC in BCRP^{-/-} was 13-fold higher than that in FVB-WT mice. The absolute F for SASP varied between 4 and 37% in FVB-WT and BCRP^{-/-} mice, respectively. These results show that BCRP (*Abcg2*) plays a major role in the intestinal absorption of SASP in mice.²⁹ In this study, we could not determine F due to the lack of an intravenous formulation of SASP, making it difficult to describe how extent *ABCG2* polymorphism influences the intestinal absorption, intestinal secretion, and/or the biliary excretion of SASP. However, since total urinary recovery (4.5% of the dose) and biliary recovery (2.5% of the dose, about half the value of urinary recovery) of SASP have been reported to be very low in humans, the contribution of BCRP to the biliary excretion of SASP is thought to be small.^{35,36}

In contrast to SASP, mean AUC₀₋₄₈ and C_{max} values of SP tended to be lower in *ABCG2-A/A* compared with those in *ABCG2-C/C* subjects, except for SA subjects (Table 3). After oral administration, most SASP travels down the small intestine to the lower intestinal tract (i.e., colon and cecum) where its diazo-bond is cleaved by colonic bacteria with the liberation of SP and 5-ASA (Figure 1).⁷ SP is almost totally absorbed from the colon and cecum, and then metabolized into AcSP by NAT2, predominantly in the liver.⁷⁻¹⁰ The amount of SASP in the lower intestinal tract may be lower in *ABCG2-A/A* subjects than in *ABCG2-C/C* subjects due to high BCRP expression on the brush border of the small intestinal enterocytes in *ABCG2-C/C* subjects (i.e., reduction in the intestinal secretion of SASP into the gut lumen in *ABCG2-A/A* subjects), leading to lower conversion in the distal intestine to SP in *ABCG2-A/A* subjects. Individual variability of bacterial azo reductase as a result of gastrointestinal disease(s) and/or antibiotics therapy may alter the production of SP; however, all subjects were healthy volunteers who had not taken antibiotics for at least 2 months before or during this investigation. Moreover, similar findings were observed in previous BCRP^{-/-} and WT mice.²⁹

The mean $t_{1/2}$ and C_{max} of SP were also significantly different among three *ABCG2-C/A*-matched NAT2 genotyping subjects;

the order was SA > IA > RA (Table 3). Generally, C_{max} is determined by dose (the amount of SP in the colon and cecum in this case), K_e, and K_a (absorption rate constant). Since the dose can be assumed to be similar among the same *ABCG2* genotyping groups, and since K_a was comparable among these three *ABCG2-C/A*-matched NAT2 genotyping subjects (data not shown), C_{max} may be dependent on the NAT2 genotyping-dependent K_e value.

Interestingly, no changes in the pharmacokinetics of SP were recognized in SA subjects. The reason for the discrepancy with the data obtained from RA and IA subjects is presently unclear.

In this study, we also genotyped *ABCG2 34G>A*, another relatively frequent polymorphism among the Japanese population,³³ and similar phenotyping-genotyping analysis was attempted. The allelic frequency of 34A in our subjects was 14.9% (26 subjects were 34G/G and 11 were 34G/A). The mean AUC₀₋₄₈ and CL_{total}/F of SASP in *ABCG2-34G/G421C/C* (n = 5) and *ABCG2-34G/A421C/C* (n = 7) were 170 ± 85 and 173 ± 92 µg h/ml, and 14.3 ± 7.2 and 13.2 ± 5.1 l/h, respectively. Similar trends were observed in the pharmacokinetic parameters of three compounds with other genotyping patterns. These results suggest that *ABCG2 34G>A* does not play an important role in the overall pharmacokinetics of SASP; however, since we had no homozygote for the 34A allele in this study, further study is necessary to confirm these observations.

The mean AUC ratio of AcSP to SP (AUC_{AcSP}/AUC_{SP}) and 48-h cumulative urinary excretion of AcSP were significantly higher in RA than in SA subjects (Table 5). We confirmed previous studies that NAT2 genotypes are well-correlated with plasma concentrations and urinary excretions of SP and AcSP.^{7,17,37} In view of the pharmacodynamics, the occurrence of certain adverse events of SASP has been speculated to be dependent on NAT2 genotyping; higher incidences of nausea/vomiting and hepatic disorders were reported in SA subjects.¹⁷⁻¹⁹

Since overall pharmacokinetic profiles of SASP would be determined not only by NAT2 but also by *ABCG2* genotyping results, it is of interest whether the risk of SASP-induced adverse events and the clinical efficacy of SASP can be partially attributed to the *ABCG2*. Until now, the action mechanism of SASP in ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease has not been well understood. The most prevalent scenario is that SASP serves as a vehicle to deliver SP and 5-ASA to the colon and cecum in higher concentrations than can be achieved by oral administration of these metabolites alone.^{7,8,36,38,39} If these hypotheses are correct, subjects with the *ABCG2-A* allele are expected to exhibit reduced clinical efficacy owing to lower SASP exposure in the lower intestinal tract (which, in turn, may be associated with lower SP and 5-ASA formations in this tract), despite high plasma concentrations and AUC of SASP. Similar to ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease, questions still exist as to whether SASP itself or its metabolites, SP and 5-ASA, are responsible for specific antirheumatic effects of SASP; however, there is evidence that SP is also the active moiety of SASP in rheumatoid arthritis.^{5,6} The effect of *ABCG2* gene polymorphism on the clinical efficacy and adverse events of SASP will be the subject of further investigation.

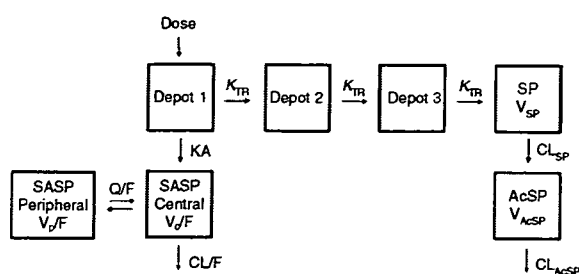


Figure 5 Scheme of the pharmacokinetic compartment model for simultaneous description of sulfasalazine (SASP), sulfapyridine (SP), and *N*-acetylsulfapyridine (AcSP) plasma concentrations.

Previous studies demonstrated that SASP concentrations in serum and urine did not differ before and after colectomy and ileostomy, while the concentration of SP and its metabolites decreased markedly in patients with inflammatory bowel disease.^{7,36} Similarly, in two patients with transverse colostomy, serum and urine concentrations of SASP did not differ from those of patients with ileostomy.³⁶ Although BCRP has been reported to be expressed in the epithelium of the colon,^{21–25} these observations suggest that the upper intestinal tract (i.e., small intestine) is the major site of SASP absorption.⁷ Thus, in order to detect the effect of BCRP on the pharmacokinetic profiles of SASP more precisely, we used a conventional tablet as the test drug in this study. Whether *ABCG2* genotype-dependent changes in the pharmacokinetics of SASP occur with the enteric-coated formulation is of interest as well.

As shown in Figures 3 and 4, it is notable that NONMEM analysis with Erlang's distribution model gave good descriptions of all three compounds, indicating that the present structural model (Figure 5) is suitable to describe the three compounds simultaneously. A significant contribution of *ABCG2* and *NAT2* polymorphisms to Fr , K_a , and CL_{SASP}/F , and CL_{SP} , respectively, was detected. The relative value of Fr in *ABCG2*-C/C, C/A, and A/A subjects was 1:1.7:2.1, indicating that the bioavailability of SASP is higher in subjects with at least one *ABCG2*-A allele as compared with that in *ABCG2*-C/C subjects. A similar influence was previously suggested for various substrate drugs.^{26–28} Of note, relative CL_{SASP}/F in *ABCG2*-C/C, C/A, and A/A subjects was 1:0.84:0.84. These results suggest that CL in subjects with at least the *ABCG2*-A allele was 16% lower than that in *ABCG2*-C/C subjects.

In conclusion, this study shows that the overall pharmacokinetics of SASP are highly dependent on interplay with *NAT2* and BCRP; polymorphisms in both genes are associated with individual variability in pharmacokinetic profiles. In spite of the small sample studied here, it is suggested that SASP is a candidate probe for BCRP in humans and that BCRP restricts the oral absorption and/or biliary excretion of substrate drugs. Obviously, the number of subjects is a drawback of our study. Since the frequencies of SA and *ABCG2*-A/A types are low in Japanese,^{15,17,33} the study subjects were recruited from a population of >100 male Japanese volunteers whose *NAT2* and *ABCG2* genotypes were prescreened. Nevertheless, it is clear that the current observation warrants confirmation and further

investigation of SASP and other substrates for BCRP in large populations involving different ethnic groups.

METHODS

Subjects and genotyping of *ABCG2* and *NAT2*. This study was approved by the Ethics Review Boards of Kyushu University and Kyushu Pharmacology Research Clinic, and written informed consent was obtained from all participants before the study. Thirty-seven unrelated healthy male volunteers (age: 20–24 years; weight: 49.5–79.7 kg) were selected from our study panels based on their genotyping for *ABCG2* and *NAT2*. They were recruited from a population of >100 male Japanese volunteers whose genotypes were prescreened after written informed consent was obtained. Each subject was physically normal and had no antecedent history of significant medical illness or hypersensitivity to any drugs, and each had a body mass index between 17.6 and 25.5 kg/m². Their health status was judged to be normal on the basis of a physical examination with a screening of blood chemistry, complete blood count, urinalysis, electrocardiogram, and chest X-ray before the study. None had taken any drugs for at least 1 week before the study.

Genomic DNA was isolated from blood samples using the Toyobo blood kit on a Toyobo HMX-2000 robot (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan). In the *ABCG2* gene, 421C>A variant was identified using TaqMan primers and probes for the Sequence Detection System (ABI PRISM 7000; Applied Biosystems, Foster, CA). The following primers and probes were developed: forward primer, GGGCACTCTGACGGTGAGA; reverse primer, CATAGTTGTTGCAAGCCGAAGAG; probe 1 (C allele), VIC-TGAGAACTGTAAGTTTT; probe 2 (A allele), FAM-TGCTGA GAACITTAAG. In the *NAT2* gene, we identified *NAT2**5B, *6A, and *7B mutant alleles using commercially available TaqMan Genotyping Assay (Drug Metabolism) kits (Applied Biosystems). All subjects were classified into three groups according to their *NAT2* genotypes: RA genotype (RA, a homozygote for *NAT2**4), intermediate (IA, a heterozygote for mutant alleles) and SA genotypes (SA, a combination of mutant alleles). As only four alleles (*NAT2**4, *5B, *6A, and *7B) have been reported to date in Japanese subjects,¹² identification of these three variants is sufficient to define almost all *NAT2* alleles in a homozygous Japanese population.^{13,17} All real-time polymerase chain reaction assays were carried out according to the manufacturer's instructions.

In this study, we selected the following genotypings with regard to the combination of two genes of interest: RA-*ABCG2*-C/C (i.e., a homozygote for *ABCG2*-C allele and RA genotype, $n = 5$), RA-C/A ($n = 5$), RA-A/A ($n = 3$), IA-C/C ($n = 5$), IA-C/A ($n = 5$), IA-A/A ($n = 6$), SA-C/C ($n = 2$), and SA-C/A ($n = 6$).

Study protocol. The participants came to the clinic after an overnight fast. They were required to abstain from alcohol for 2 days before drug administration and during the period of hospitalization, and were served standard meals on the study day. Each subject received a single oral dose of 2,000 mg of SASP (Salazopyrin conventional tablet, Pfizer, Tokyo, Japan) with 200 ml of water. Food was given 4 h after the ingestion of SASP. Venous blood samples (5 ml each) to determine SASP, SP, and AcSP concentrations were obtained just before and 0.5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 12, 24, 36, and 48 h after dosing. Plasma samples were immediately separated after centrifugation. Urine samples (20 ml each) were collected cumulatively in two fractions: 0 to 24 and 24 to 48 h. The amount and pH of urine were measured. Both plasma and urine samples were stored at -20°C until analyzed.

Quantification of SASP, SP, and AcSP. The concentrations of SASP, SP, and AcSP in plasma and urine were measured by high-performance liquid chromatography as described previously.^{37,40,41} High-performance liquid chromatography was equipped with a system controller (SCL-10A, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan), a variable wavelength ultraviolet detector (SPD-10A, Shimadzu) adjusted to 254 nm for SASP, 260 nm for SP and AcSP, and a data processor (C-R7Ae plus, Shimadzu). The stationary

phase was a reversed phase Chemcobond 5-ODS-H column (4.6 mm i.d. × 250 mm, particle size 5 μm, Chemco, Osaka, Japan).

Pharmacokinetic and statistical analysis

Non compartmental analysis. C_{max} and T_{max} were obtained directly from the data. The AUC_{0-48} was calculated by the linear trapezoidal rule. We calculated the apparent oral clearance (CL_{tot}/F) as follows: $CL_{tot}/F = \text{Dose}/AUC_{0-48}$. The K_e was estimated using least-squares regression analysis from the terminal postdistribution phase of the concentration-time curve. CL_r was calculated by $CL_r = Ae_{0-48}/AUC_{0-48}$ where Ae_{0-48} represents the amount of compounds excreted in urine.

Nonmem. Simultaneous modeling of SASP, SP, and AcSP with regard to the polymorphism of *ABCG2* and *NAT2* genes was assessed by the nonlinear mixed-effects modeling approach with the software package NONMEM, version V, level 1.1 (NONMEM Project Group, University of California at San Francisco).⁴² Throughout the analysis, the first-order method was used as the estimation method. The pharmacokinetic model for all three compounds is shown in Figure 5. The two-compartment model with lag time assumed that first-order absorption was applied for the description of SASP disposition, and the one-compartment model was applied for SP and AcSP dispositions. To describe the absorption phase of SP, Erlang's distribution model was used.^{43,44} Erlang's distribution is the analytical solution for a linear chain of n identical compartments placed upstream of the central compartment and connected by an identical transfer rate constant K_{TR} , the transfer constant between two sequential delay compartments.^{43,44} In the present model, the number of serial compartments n was set to 3 for all subjects, based on the objective function value and predictive performance. Interindividual variability of all parameters was modeled as the exponential error model. As the intraindividual variability model, the exponential error model was selected for SASP and the combined additive and exponential error model was used for SP and AcSP.

The contribution of body weight, body surface area, and candidates of physiological covariate to CL and V of the three compounds was tested.

The effect of the *ABCG2* 421C>A genotype on K_a , CL/F, and V/F was assessed with the following equation:

$$P_i = TVP_i \times \theta^{ABCG2421C/A} \times \theta^{ABCG2421A/A}$$

where P_i is the individual value and TVP_i is the population average value for *ABCG2*-C/C (i.e., a homozygote for the WT allele) subjects.

The effect of the *NAT2* genotype on CL of SP was assessed with the following equation:

$$P_i = TVP_i \times \theta^{NAT2IA} \times \theta^{NAT2SA}$$

where TVP_i is the population average value for RA subjects.

Forward addition and backward exclusion methods were used to build the final model. The significance of the genotype effect was assessed by comparing the objective functions ($-2 \log$ likelihood) for different models, assuming χ^2 distribution of their difference, and by assessing the 95% confidence interval for estimated values.

Statistical analysis. Statistical differences among the data for each group were determined by ANOVA, followed by Fisher's least significant difference test. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported by a Health and Labour Sciences Research Grant from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare for Research on Advanced Medical Technology.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declared no conflict of interest.

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SLCO1B1 (OATP1B1, an Uptake Transporter) and *ABCG2* (BCRP, an Efflux Transporter) Variant Alleles and Pharmacokinetics of Pitavastatin in Healthy Volunteers

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To investigate the contribution of genetic polymorphisms of *SLCO1B1* and *ABCG2* to the pharmacokinetics of a dual substrate, pitavastatin, 2 mg of pitavastatin was administered to 38 healthy volunteers and pharmacokinetic parameters were compared among the following groups: 421C/C*1b/*1b (group 1), 421C/C*1b/*15 (group 2), 421C/C*15/*15 and 421C/A*15/*15 (group 3), 421C/A*1b/*1b (group 4), 421A/A*1b/*1b (group 5), and 421C/A*1b/*15 (group 6). In *SLCO1B1*, pitavastatin area under plasma concentration–time curve from 0 to 24 h (AUC_{0-24}) for groups 1, 2, and 3 was 81.1 ± 18.1 , 144 ± 32 , and 250 ± 57 ng h/ml, respectively, with significant differences among all three groups. In contrast to *SLCO1B1*, AUC_{0-24} in groups 1, 4, and 5 was 81.1 ± 18.1 , 96.7 ± 35.4 , and 78.2 ± 8.2 ng h/ml, respectively. Although the *SLCO1B1* polymorphism was found to have a significant effect on the pharmacokinetics of pitavastatin, a nonsynonymous *ABCG2* variant, 421C>A, did not appear to be associated with the altered pharmacokinetics of pitavastatin.

Pitavastatin is a highly potent inhibitor of 3-hydroxymethylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase and is used for the treatment of hypercholesterolemia.¹ In humans, pitavastatin is scarcely metabolized by the cytochrome P450 2C9,^{2,3} and lactonization is another known metabolic pathway.^{4,5} The lactone form can be reversibly converted to the parent drug.⁴ Cumulative evidence has indicated that various active transport mechanisms are involved in its distribution and disposition kinetics. Pitavastatin is taken up efficiently from the circulation into hepatocytes by an organic anion-transporting polypeptide (OATP) 1B1 (formally known as OATP-C or OATP2, gene *SLCO1B1*), a sodium-independent bile-acid transporter expressed at the sinusoidal membrane of human hepatocytes responsible for the hepatocellular uptake of a variety of endogenous and foreign chemicals.^{6–8} In addition to the uptake process, a recent study demonstrated that breast cancer resistance protein (BCRP, gene *ABCG2*) is involved in the biliary excretion of pitavastatin.⁹ BCRP is expressed at the apical membrane in the placenta (trophoblast cells), liver (bile canalicular membrane of hepatocytes),

kidney, and intestine (enterocytes).^{10–13} The biliary excretion clearance of pitavastatin in Bcrp1 (–/–) mice was 10 times lower than that in control mice;⁹ thus, at least two drug transporters, OATP1B1 and BCRP, contribute to hepatic uptake and efflux of pitavastatin in humans.

A number of single nucleotide polymorphisms have been identified in *SLCO1B1* and some of these single nucleotide polymorphisms are associated with a significant change in the transporter activity of OATP1B1. Two commonly occurring single nucleotide polymorphisms, 388A>G (130Asn>Asp) and 521T>C (174Val>Ala), are found to cause a remarkable change in the disposition of OATP1B1 substrates such as statins (pravastatin^{14–17} and pitavastatin¹⁸), fexofenadine,¹⁹ and repaglinide.²⁰ Interestingly, most human studies have demonstrated that subjects with haplotypes *SLCO1B1**5, *15, or *17, all haplotypes harboring the 174Val>Ala variant, showed increased plasma levels of substrates as compared with subjects having the *SLCO1B1**1a (130Asn174Val) or *1b (130Asp174Val) allele as homozygosity. Furthermore, recent studies reported that the

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Received 19 October 2006; accepted 9 February 2007; published online 25 April 2007. doi:10.1038/sj.cpt.6100190

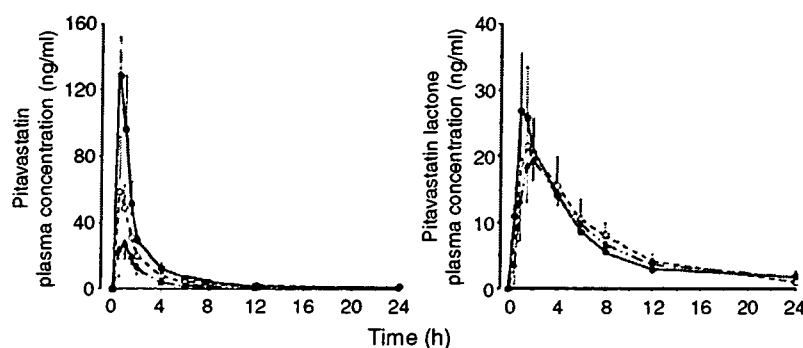


Figure 1 Effect of *SLCO1B1* haplotype on pharmacokinetics of pitavastatin. Plasma concentration–time profiles of pitavastatin and pitavastatin lactone after oral administration of 2 mg pitavastatin in 421C/C*1b/*1b subjects (closed triangles, $n = 11$), 421C/C*1b/*15 subjects (open circles, $n = 8$), and 421C/A*15/*15 subjects (closed circles, $n = 3$).

*SLCO1B1**1b allele showed more enhanced transport activity than the *1a allele.^{17,21}

Systematic mutation analysis of the *ABCG2* gene has been performed in various ethnic populations and more than 40 single nucleotide polymorphisms have been identified.^{22–25} The two most frequent nonsynonymous mutations identified in humans are 34G>A (12Val>Met in exon 2) and 421C>A (141Gln>Lys in exon 5). After intravenous administration, plasma levels of diflomotecan were significantly higher in patients with the 421C/A than the 421C/C genotype.²⁶ These results were supported by *in vitro* experiments showing that BCRP expression of the 421C>A variant was reduced compared with the wild-type,^{22,27,28} suggesting that carriers of the 421C>A variant may have decreased clearance (increased plasma levels) and/or increased bioavailability.

In view of the pharmacokinetics, at least two genes (*i.e.*, *SLCO1B1* and *ABCG2*) are of interest as candidates that may lead to large interindividual variability in the pharmacokinetics and clinical outcome of pitavastatin therapy. Recently, Chung *et al.*¹⁸ evaluated the contribution of *SLCO1B1* haplotypes to pitavastatin pharmacokinetics and demonstrated that subjects with the *15 allele showed significantly higher dose-normalized pitavastatin plasma levels. Although these observations are similar trends to pravastatin, no homozygotes for the *15 allele participated in their study. Very recently, Zhang *et al.*²⁹ studied the role of *ABCG2* 421C>A variant in rosuvastatin pharmacokinetics in 14 healthy volunteers and indicated that the AUC of rosuvastatin was lower in the 421C/C group than in the (421C/A and 421A/A) group. Although all statins share a common action mechanism, they differ in terms of their chemical structures, pharmacokinetics, and pharmacodynamics.³⁰

With this background in mind, we designed this study to confirm the role of *SLCO1B1* and *ABCG2* polymorphisms in the pharmacokinetics of pitavastatin in healthy volunteers. In this study, we selected volunteers from our panels based on their genotypes of *SLCO1B1* (*1b and *15) and *ABCG2* (421C>A). In addition, we investigated the importance of intestinal BCRP in the pharmacokinetics of pitavastatin using Bcrp1 (–/–) mice.

RESULTS

No clinically undesirable signs and symptoms possibly attributed to the administration of pitavastatin were recognizable throughout the study. All subjects completed the study successfully according to the protocol.

Pitavastatin pharmacokinetics in relation to *SLCO1B1* and *ABCG2* genotypic status

After oral administration, the mean plasma concentrations of pitavastatin were significantly higher ($P < 0.01$) in group 3 subjects ($n = 3$, homozygotes for the *SLCO1B1**15 allele, 421C/C*15/*15 ($n = 2$) and 421C/A*15/*15 ($n = 1$)) compared with group 1 subjects ($n = 11$, homozygotes for the *SLCO1B1**1b allele, 421C/C*1b/*1b), and group 2 subjects, heterozygotes for the *SLCO1B1**15 allele ($n = 8$, 421C/C*1b/*15), had values between those in group 1 (*i.e.*, *1b/*1b) and group 3 (*15/*15) subjects at all observation points (Figure 1). The mean (\pm SD) AUC_{0–24} of pitavastatin in groups 1 (*1b/*1b), 2 (421C/C*1b/*15), 3 (*15/*15), and 6 (421C/A*1b/*15) was 81.1 ± 18.1 , 144 ± 32 , 250 ± 57 , and 121 ± 25 ng h/ml, respectively. The mean apparent oral clearance (CL_t) of pitavastatin in groups 1 (*1b/*1b), 2 (421C/C*1b/*15), 3 (*15/*15), and 6 (421C/A*1b/*15) was 0.43 ± 0.13 , 0.24 ± 0.04 , 0.15 ± 0.03 , and 0.29 ± 0.07 l/h/kg, respectively. The group 3 (*15/*15) subjects had the highest AUC value and the lowest CL_t value among all study volunteers. A similar trend was observed in peak concentration (C_{max}) values, but not in elimination rate constant (K_e) values. Although the difference did not reach the level of significance, volume of distribution/bioavailability (V_d/F) values tended to be lower in subjects with the *15 allele; the mean V_d/F in group 3 (*15/*15) was 30% of that in group 1 (*1b/*1b). In contrast to pitavastatin, no significant intergenotypic differences were observed in any mean pharmacokinetic parameters of pitavastatin lactone in this experiment (Table 1 and Figure 1).

The mean plasma concentration–time curves of pitavastatin and pitavastatin lactone in relation to *ABCG2* genotypic status are shown in Figure 2. The pharmacokinetic parameters are also summarized in Table 1. There were no significant differences in any of the pharmacokinetic

Table 1 Pharmacokinetic parameters of pitavastatin and its lactone form in each genotyping group

Genotype		n	Pitavastatin					Pitavastatin lactone		
<i>SLCO1B1</i>	<i>ABCG2</i>		AUC_{0-24} (ng h/ml)	CL _t (l/h/kg)	C_{max} (ng/ml)	K_e (per hour)	V _d /F (l/kg)	AUC_{0-24} (ng h/ml)	C_{max} (ng/ml)	K_e (per hour)
*1b/*1b	421C/C	11	81.1 ± 18.1	0.43 ± 0.13	31.2 ± 11.4	0.06 ± 0.03	0.58 ± 0.27	154 ± 27	20.4 ± 4.4	0.07 ± 0.01
*1b/*15	421C/C	8	144 ± 32 ^a	0.24 ± 0.04 ^a	70.7 ± 18.1 ^a	0.06 ± 0.02	0.27 ± 0.09	169 ± 38	22.3 ± 5.4	0.08 ± 0.02
*15/*15	421C/C 421C/A	3	250 ± 57 ^{a,b}	0.15 ± 0.03 ^a	129 ± 24 ^a	0.06 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.07	153 ± 31	27.2 ± 8.8	0.07 ± 0.01
*1b/*1b	421C/A	7	96.7 ± 35.4	0.37 ± 0.13	41.7 ± 12.4	0.06 ± 0.03	0.46 ± 0.25	145 ± 38	18.9 ± 3.1	0.06 ± 0.02
*1b/*1b	421A/A	3	78.2 ± 8.2	0.42 ± 0.01	42.1 ± 6.3	0.05 ± 0.02	0.48 ± 0.21	140 ± 47	22.1 ± 4.9	0.06 ± 0.01
*1b/*15	421C/A	6	121 ± 25	0.29 ± 0.07	57.7 ± 7.6	0.05 ± 0.01	0.26 ± 0.05	125 ± 18	18.8 ± 2.6	0.07 ± 0.01

AUC_{0-24} , area under plasma concentration–time curve from 0 to 24 h; CL_t, total clearance; C_{max} , peak concentration; V_d/F, volume of distribution/bioavailability. Data are presented as the mean ± SD. ^aSignificantly different from values in *SLCO1B1**1b/*1b421C/C subjects as determined by analysis of variance with Fisher's least significant difference test ($P < 0.01$). ^bSignificantly different from values in *SLCO1B1**1b/*15421C/C subjects as determined by analysis of variance with Fisher's least significant difference test ($P < 0.01$).

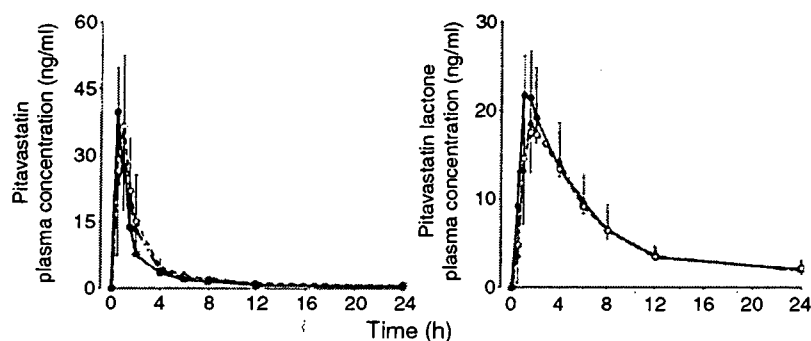


Figure 2 Effect of *ABCG2* genotype on pharmacokinetics of pitavastatin. Plasma concentration–time profiles of pitavastatin and pitavastatin lactone after oral administration of 2 mg pitavastatin in 421C/C*1b/*1b subjects (closed triangles, $n = 11$), 421C/A*1b/*1b subjects (open circles, $n = 7$), and 421A/A*1b/*1b subjects (closed circles, $n = 3$).

parameters for either pitavastatin or pitavastatin lactone among the three *SLCO1B1* matched (*i.e.*, homozygotes for the *1b allele) *ABCG2* groups: group 1 ($n = 11$, 421C/C*1b/*1b), group 4 ($n = 7$, 421C/A*1b/*1b), and group 5 ($n = 3$, 421A/A*1b/*1b). The mean AUC_{0-24} of pitavastatin in groups 1 (*i.e.*, 421C/C), 4 (421C/A*1b/*1b), 5 (421A/A), and 6 (421C/A*1b/*15) was 81.1 ± 18.1 , 96.7 ± 35.4 , 78.2 ± 8.2 , and 121 ± 25 ng h/ml, respectively.

Role of BCRP in the intestinal absorption of pitavastatin in mice *in vivo*

To investigate the involvement of Bcrp1 in the intestinal absorption of pitavastatin, we evaluated its pharmacokinetics using control and Bcrp1 (–/–) mice. The mean AUC up to 4 h after administration was 213 ± 13 and 221 ± 17 ng h/ml (mean ± SE, $n = 4$) in control and Bcrp1 (–/–) mice, respectively ($P > 0.05$). The time profiles of the plasma concentration of pitavastatin did not show any significant difference between control and Bcrp1 (–/–) mice (Figure 3).

DISCUSSION

The primary objective of this study was to evaluate whether the polymorphism of two drug transporter genes contribute to large interindividual variability in the pharmacokinetics of

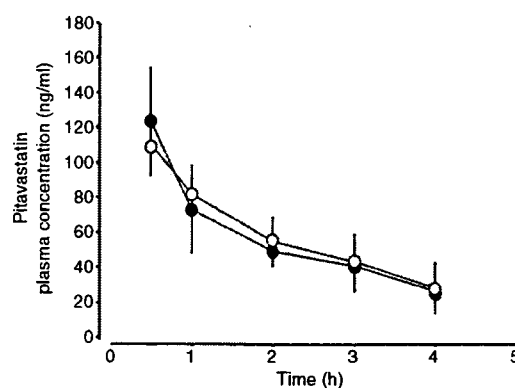


Figure 3 Time profiles of plasma concentration of pitavastatin after its oral administration (10 mg/kg) to control and Bcrp1 (–/–) mice. Closed and open circles represent the time profile of plasma concentration of pitavastatin in control and Bcrp1 (–/–) mice, respectively.

pitavastatin, a dual substrate of OATP1B1 and BCRP. The important findings were that (1) significant differences in AUC_{0-24} and C_{max} of pitavastatin, but not in those of the lactone form, were observed among subjects with different *SLCO1B1* genotypes; and (2) in contrast to *SLCO1B1*, no significant differences in any pharmacokinetic parameters