

### NIH Public Access

Author Manuscript

Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2011 September 1

#### Published in final edited form as:

*Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol.* 2010 September ; 6(9): 1095–1109. doi: 10.1517/17425255.2010.497487.

### Rationalization and prediction of *in vivo* metabolite exposures: The role of metabolite kinetics, clearance predictions and *in*

#### vitro parameters

#### Justin D. Lutz, Yasushi Fujioka, and Nina Isoherranen

University of Washington School of Pharmacy, Department of Pharmaceutics (J.D.L., Y.F. and N.I.)

#### Abstract

**Importance of the field**—Due to growing concerns over toxic or active metabolites, significant efforts have been focused on qualitative identification of potential *in vivo* metabolites from *in vitro* data. However, limited tools are available to quantitatively predict their human exposures.

**Areas covered in this review**—Theory of clearance predictions and metabolite kinetics is reviewed together with supporting experimental data. In *vitro* and *in vivo* data of known circulating metabolites and their parent drugs was collected and the predictions of *in vivo* exposures of the metabolites were evaluated.

**What the reader will gain**—The theory and data reviewed will be useful in early identification of human metabolites that will circulate at significant levels *in vivo* and help in designing *in vivo* studies that focus on characterization of metabolites. It will also assist in rationalization of metabolite-to-parent ratios used as markers of specific enzyme activity.

**Take home message**—The relative importance of a metabolite in comparison to the parent compound as well as other metabolites *in vivo* can only be predicted using the metabolites *in vitro* formation and elimination clearances, and the *in vivo* disposition of a metabolite can only be rationalized when the elimination pathways of that metabolite are known.

#### Keywords

metabolite pharmacokinetics; *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* prediction; prediction of circulating metabolites; metabolic clearance

#### 1. Introduction

A metabolite can be formed from any enzymatic transformation of a parent drug after the parent is administered *in vivo* or is incubated as substrate *in vitro*. Often, these metabolites prove to have *in vivo* pharmacologic activity. Classic examples of metabolites that have pharmacologic activity are metabolites of tricyclic antidepressants and benzodiazepine anxiolytics, where many of the metabolites are also marketed drugs [1,2]. Metabolites can also possess toxicological activity. Examples of *in vivo* toxic metabolites have been well established for many parent drugs, such as carbamazepine, valproic acid and nefazodone [3–5]. Additionally, it has been demonstrated that some *in vivo* inhibitors have inhibitory

Address Correspondence to: Nina Isoherranen MSc., PhD., School of Pharmacy, Department of Pharmaceutics, University of Washington, Box 357610, H272 Health Science Building, Seattle WA 98195-7610, Telephone: (206) 543-2517: Fax: (206) 543-3204, ni2@u.washington.edu.

metabolites of similar potencies, such as fluoxetine, itraconazole and atomoxetine [6–8]. Due to the realization that metabolites can oftentimes have *in vivo* activity, it is important to understand the disposition of a metabolite after the administration of a parent drug.

A recent FDA guidance on metabolites in safety testing (MIST) has drawn more attention to identifying and predicting human metabolites [9]. This guidance states that a metabolite found to circulate at equivalent or greater concentrations in at least one pre-clinical animal species when compared to in human has been adequately evaluated for safety and no further non-clinical testing is warranted. If this cannot be demonstrated, any metabolite with exposure > 10% of the parent at steady-state in humans warrants separate non-clinical toxicological and pharmacokinetic studies. In contrast to the MIST guidance, the European guidance states that separate studies are only warranted when a metabolite exposure is > 10% of the total drug-related material exposure [10]. These guidance pose two important dilemmas in new drug development: 1) how to identify and reliably predict potentially important circulating metabolites sufficiently early in new drug development to allow timely synthesis of reference material, development of validated assays and toxicological evaluation, and 2) how to determine the steady-state area under the plasma concentration versus time curve for the metabolite (AUC<sub>m</sub>) relative to the parent (AUC<sub>p</sub>), or total drug related material, for relevant metabolites without performing elaborate multiple dose studies with radiolabeled drug.

*In vitro* metabolism and pre-clinical animal data as well as single dose pharmacokinetic data are often used to predict the *in vivo* steady-state disposition of new drug candidates, as well as the *in vivo* metabolite profile of a candidate drug. However, attempts to predict important circulating metabolites in humans from pre-clinical data are qualitative and have met with variable success [11]. Direct translation of the metabolite profile from animal species to humans may be confounded by species differences in enzyme activity and expression, whereas *in vitro* HLM and hepatocyte studies qualitatively identify the primary metabolites that are likely to be formed *in vivo* but detection of secondary metabolites remains challenging. In this review, established *in vivo* metabolite kinetic theory will be discussed and a method for predicting *in vivo* metabolite disposition from *in vitro* data will be presented and evaluated for its usefulness in preclinical prediction of metabolite exposure as well as in rationalization of *in vivo* metabolite exposures.

#### 2. Metabolite Kinetic Theory: In vivo Aspects

During the late 1960's through to the early 1980's, much interest was paid to the development of pharmacokinetic theory that describes the *in vivo* disposition of a metabolite formed after administration of a parent drug. The metabolite plasma concentration ( $C_m$ ) versus time (t) curve for a metabolite formed after intravenous (IV) administration will exhibit biphasic kinetics and depend on the dose of parent (D), the fraction of parent that is converted to metabolite ( $f_m$ ), the metabolite volume of distribution ( $V_{d,m}$ ) and the formation ( $k_f$ ) and elimination ( $k_m$ ) rate constants for the metabolite [12]:

$$C_m = \frac{k_f * f_m * D}{V_{d,m} * (k_m - k_f)} * \left( e^{-k_f * t} - e^{-k_m * t} \right)$$
(1)

This expression dictates that the slope of the linear terminal portion of a metabolite concentration versus time profile will either be equal to that of the parent, i.e. formation rate limited (FRL,  $k_f < k_m$ ) kinetics, or less than that of the parent, i.e. elimination rate limited (ERL,  $k_f < k_m$ ) kinetics [13]. After oral (PO) administration, the metabolite concentration versus time profile will further depend on the fraction of drug absorbed into the body (F<sub>a</sub>)

Lutz et al.

The AUC<sub>m</sub> after either IV or PO administration of the parent was demonstrated to be determined by D,  $F_a$  (only after PO administration),  $f_m$  and the clearance of the metabolite (Cl<sub>m</sub>) [15,16]. Additionally, the *in vivo* metabolite-to-parent AUC ratio (AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>) was determined to be dependent only on the *in vivo* formation and elimination clearances for the metabolite [17,18]. Patel et al [18], demonstrated that after IV administration of a drug the ratio of AUC<sub>m</sub> to the AUC<sub>p</sub> is:

$$\frac{AUC_m}{AUC_p} = \frac{f_m * Cl_p}{Cl_m} = \frac{Cl_f}{Cl_m}$$
(2)

where  $Cl_p$  and  $Cl_m$  are the total *in vivo* clearances of the parent and the metabolite, respectively, and  $Cl_f$  is the formation clearance of the metabolite. The assumptions that are made in this model are that 1) the kinetics of the parent and metabolite are linear, 2) only one metabolite is formed from the parent (i.e.  $f_m$  equals the fraction of drug excreted unchanged subtracted from unity) and 3) all metabolite formed is available to the systemic circulation. It should be noted, that the above expression can be adapted to PO administration if metabolism occurs only in the liver and  $Cl_p$  is the apparent oral clearance of parent, i.e. the quotient of the true clearance of parent and the fraction of parent that escapes first pass in the liver (F<sub>h</sub>):

$$\frac{AUC_m}{AUC_p} = \frac{f_m * Cl_p}{F_h * Cl_m} \tag{3}$$

The AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> is a primary measure utilized in the MIST guidance and hence, this theory was reexamined to address the first dilemma posed by the guidance. Although the in vivo expression for AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> has been available for 25 years, it has only been tested in the norclobazam/clobazam metabolite/parent (M/P) pair [17]. In order to further validate the above kinetic theory, literature data for three M/P pairs, morphine/codeine, morphine-6glucuronide/morphine and theophylline/caffeine, were reviewed with Equations 2 and 3 to test the existing metabolite kinetic theory in an in vivo-to-in vivo extrapolation of the AUC<sub>m</sub>/  $AUC_p$ . For these three M/P pairs, the clearance values for both the parents and metabolites were available following IV administration. The literature clearance values utilized for codeine, morphine, morphine-6-glucuronide, caffeine and theophylline were 63, 120, 7.5, 6.7 and 0.59 L/hr, respectively [19-22]. The F<sub>h</sub> values utilized for the parents codeine, morphine and caffeine were 0.5, 0.2 and 1, respectively [23,24]. The f<sub>m</sub> values utilized for the formation of the metabolites morphine, morphine-6-glucuronide and theophylline were 0.1, 0.1 and 0.03, respectively [25–27]. Since codeine, morphine and caffeine are highly water soluble and readily absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, F<sub>a</sub> is expected to be unity for these drugs [24,26,27]; hence, the bioavailability values utilized for the predictions are considered to exclusively represent the fraction of drug eliminated during first pass hepatic metabolism (F<sub>h</sub>). Table 1 summarizes the observed and predicted AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> values for these M/P pairs. Using the known in vivo clearance values, the predictions were within a 3fold error in comparison to the average observed AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> for all 3 M/P pairs after both IV and PO administration.

The second dilemma posed by the MIST guidance is how to determine the steady-state  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  for relevant, potentially yet unidentified, metabolites without performing elaborate multiple dose studies with radiolabeled drug. Based on established

pharmacokinetic theory [28] single dose data could be used as a measure of steady-state  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  as long as clearance is constant (linear kinetics). A classic study demonstrated in nonhuman primates that the AUC<sub>0-co</sub> ratios of carbamazepine epoxide/carbamazepine and 3-bromocinnamamide/cinromide P/M pairs after single dose are identical to the AUC<sub>0- $\tau$ </sub> ratios at steady-state [29]. To further examine this relationship, the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> for all M/P pairs with both single dose and steady-state in vivo data were collected. In total, 25 M/P pairs were examined (Figure 1 and Table 2). There was no statistically significant difference between single dose and steady-state AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> (Wilcoxon Signed Rank p-value > 0.47) and 84% of the M/P pairs included in the analysis had a single dose AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> within 2fold of the steady-state AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>. 56% of the M/P pairs analyzed contained a metabolite that displayed ERL kinetics and hence the metabolite accumulation to steady-state is determined by its elimination half-life rather than the half-life of the parent (Table 2). Therefore parent drug will reach steady state before the metabolite. This presents a fundamental dilemma in study design since it is impossible to know whether a metabolite has reached steady-state, before relevant *in vivo* metabolites are identified and characterized. The ambiguity of when metabolite steady-state is reached is emphasized by the fact that over half of the metabolites examined between single dose and steady-state, displayed elimination rate limited kinetics. This analysis suggests that single dose AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> data can be used as a surrogate for steady-state AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> and may be more reliable. However, it is critical to confirm that after single dose administration, samples are collected for 4 to 6 parent or metabolite half-lives, whichever is longer, to capture AUC<sub>0- $\infty$ </sub>.

#### 3. Metabolite Kinetic Theory: In vitro-to-In vivo Extrapolations

#### 3.1 Qualitative Predictions of In vivo Metabolite Exposure

There has been a considerable amount of discussion on how to identify important circulating metabolites during pre-clinical phases of development of a new drug candidate [11,30]. Advances in and increased access to analytical technologies have made metabolite identification a routine part of new drug development. Most techniques focus on metabolic incubations of either a radiolabeled (if available) or nonradiolabeled new drug candidate to generate potential metabolites. The products of these incubations are then subjected to ultra performance liquid chromatography, to separate closely chemically related species, and coupled to either accurate mass spectrometry or NMR spectroscopy for structural determination [31–33]. This procedure results in the identification and quantification of potential metabolites formed from the new drug candidate, but the relative abundance of each metabolite formed *in vitro* often does not agree with its relative abundance *in vivo* [11].

Intuitively, one would expect that a major metabolite in HLMs or hepatocytes would also be a major metabolite in plasma. However, the clearances of primary metabolites vary, even within closely chemically related species such as two primary metabolites of the same parent. The relative exposure to different metabolites formed from the same parent drug will depend on the rank order of the ratio of formation clearance to elimination clearance for each metabolite (Equation 2). Hence, a major metabolite observed in HLMs or hepatocytes will not be dominant *in vivo* unless it has sufficiently low elimination clearance in comparison to other metabolites formed and in comparison to the parent drug. Whether this is clinically important was tested using published literature data of all M/P pairs for which both in vivo AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> and in vitro metabolite intrinsic formation clearance (Cl<sub>i,f</sub>) data for parent drug with at least two metabolites was available. In total, 31 M/P pairs from 14 parent drugs were examined. Table 3 summarizes the in vitro Cli,f and the observed in vivo AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> ratios for each M/P pair examined for a given parent drug. AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> ratios for each M/P pair, for a given parent, were considered to rank correctly with respect to in vitro  $Cl_{i,f}$  if the M/P pair with a > 15% higher  $Cl_{i,f}$  also had a > 15%  $AUC_m/AUC_p$ . Only 7 parent drugs (50%) had  $AUC_{p}$  ratios for their respective metabolites that rank

ordered correctly. One of the parent drugs examined in the rank order analysis was clomipramine. Clomipramine has three important metabolites: 8-hydroxyclomipramine, N-desmethylclomipramine and 2-hydroxyclomipramine. Based solely on *in vitro*  $Cl_{i,f}$ , N-desmethylclomipramine would be predicted to be the major metabolite, followed by equal exposures to 8-hydroxy and 2-hydroxyclomipramine. However, 8-hydroxyclomipramine can be detected *in vivo* in plasma at 40% of the parent whereas 2-hydroxyclomipramine is undetectable in plasma. This can be explained by the greater intrinsic elimination clearance of 2-hydroxyclomipramine when compared to 8-hydroxyclomipramine, 6.5 versus  $1.5 \,\mu$ L/min/mg microsomal protein [34]. Incorrect rank ordering of metabolites for a given parent drug for half of the cases examined demonstrates that the consideration of only *in vitro* metabolite formation clearance is not sufficient for predicting the relative importance of a given metabolite *in vivo*.

#### 3.2 Quantitative Predictions of In vivo Metabolite Exposure

The *in vivo* metabolite kinetic theory developed by Pang et al, Houston et al and others laid the foundation of *in vivo* metabolite pharmacokinetics but these theories have not yet been applied to *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* extrapolation, a useful tool in anticipating the *in vivo* pharmacokinetics of a parent drug during new drug development. The prediction of *in vivo* clearance of drugs based on *in vitro* metabolism data is well established, although predictions have varying degrees of accuracy [35,36]. In an extensive analysis of scaling *in vitro* HLM clearance values to *in vivo* clearance using multiple hepatic clearance models and plasma protein binding considerations, 29 drugs with varying physicochemical properties were predicted with a 2.14 to 4.39 average fold error [37]. Another study of scaling *in vitro* Cl<sub>i</sub> values from human hepatocyte data for 50 drugs, obtained a 2.5 average fold error to the observed *in vivo* clearance, with outliers having up to 15-fold error [38]. Although quantitative *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* clearance prediction for a parent drug is now commonplace, little attention has been paid to the prediction of the *in vivo* disposition of a metabolite from *in vitro* metabolism data.

The MIST guidance requires the evaluation of absolute steady-state AUC<sub>m</sub> between preclinical animal species and human for major metabolites. If similar exposure is not obtained in animals, additional safety testing of the metabolite may be required. This requirement generates a need to predict, prior to clinical studies, what metabolites will be quantitatively important in humans. Predicting absolute AUC<sub>m</sub> values in humans poses a significant challenge because the result will depend on the dose of the parent, the fraction of the dose absorbed after PO administration, and the overall clearance of the parent drug. In addition, the AUC<sub>m</sub> will depend on the metabolite specific parameters, such as the fraction of the dose converted to the metabolite of interest and the metabolite clearance. Within the MIST guidance, the secondary qualification of the *relative* exposure to the metabolite in human, i.e.  $AUC_m/AUC_p > 0.1$ , appears more conducive to prediction. The  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  is independent of the parent dose and fraction absorbed after PO administration and the predicted AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> can be utilized as a proportionality constant for anticipating the absolute levels of the metabolite of interest when a desired AUC or steady-state concentration of parent is ascertained. This can be illustrated via a review of the existing data on desipramine as a metabolite of imipramine, which demonstrates that within a 4-fold range of in vivo doses of imipramine, the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> remains constant (Table 4) in cytochrome P450 (CYP) 2D6 extensive metabolizers (EMs). The absolute steady-state concentration of designamine could be predicted by use of the steady-state concentration of imipramine and the  $AUC_m/AUC_n$  ratio. Normalizing the predicted metabolite exposure to that of the parent also provides valuable insight into whether the metabolite will be quantitatively important in vivo, regardless of the parent dose.

The prediction of *in vivo*  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  from *in vitro* parameters relies on methods for clearance predictions of both parent and metabolite. This is because an important principle of metabolite kinetics is that the *in vivo* disposition of a metabolite is dependent not only on its formation clearance, but also its elimination. Based on this principle, predicting relative exposure to human metabolites can only be done if the formation and elimination clearances for the metabolite are predicted.

To adapt Equation 2 to *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* extrapolation of  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  after intravenous (IV) or oral (PO) administration, four assumptions were made: 1) the kinetics of both parent and metabolite are linear, 2) all metabolite formed is available to the systemic circulation, 3) parent and metabolite elimination is via metabolism only and 4) metabolism occurs only in the liver which can be represented by the well-stirred model [39]:

$$Cl_h = \frac{Q * f_u * Cl_i}{Q + f_u * Cl_i} \tag{4}$$

where  $CL_h$  is the hepatic clearance, Q is the hepatic blood flow,  $f_u$  is the plasma fraction unbound and Cl<sub>i</sub> is the hepatic intrinsic metabolic clearance. This clearance model can be applied to either the metabolite or the parent drug. In addition to this well-stirred model of the liver, two other prominent hepatic clearance models, the parallel tube and dispersion model, could be used for predictions [40]. At present the potential advantages of the alternative hepatic clearance models for predicting metabolite formation and elimination clearances are unknown and require further study. The well-stirred model was chosen for this analysis because it is the most commonly utilized hepatic clearance model and easiest to adapt for predictions. Furthermore, a general metabolic scheme based on the scheme of Houston and Taylor [14] can be considered for both IV and PO administration (Figure 2). In this scheme,  $D_g$ ,  $D_h$  and  $D_s$  are the amounts of drug in the gut lumen, liver during first pass and systemic circulation, respectively. Fa and Fh are the fraction of drug absorbed from the gut lumen into the enterocytes and fraction of drug that escapes first pass elimination in the liver, respectively, and  $M_h$  and  $M_s$  refer to the amount of metabolite formed from first pass in the liver and from systemic elimination, respectively. The *in vivo* fraction of parent converted to the metabolite of interest, when the parent is cleared only through hepatic metabolism was previously defined as the fraction of hepatic parent drug clearance that results in the metabolite of interest [41]. This definition was adapted to in vitro parameters and defined as f<sub>m.h</sub>:

$$f_{m,h} = \frac{Cl_{i,f}}{Cl_{i,p}} \tag{5}$$

where  $Cl_{i,f}$  and  $Cl_{i,f}$  are the intrinsic formation clearance of the metabolite *in vitro* and intrinsic elimination clearance of the parent *in vitro*, respectively. When the parent is cleared entirely via hepatic metabolism, the *in vivo*  $f_m$  for the metabolite of interest is equal to the *in vitro*  $f_{m,h}$ . Utilizing this metabolic scheme, the AUC<sub>m</sub> after PO administration can be defined as:

$$AUC_{m} = \frac{f_{m,h} * F_{a} * (1 - F_{h}) * D}{Cl_{m}} + \frac{f_{m,h} * F_{a} * F_{h} * D}{Cl_{m}}$$
(6)

and the AUC<sub>p</sub> after PO administration can be defined as:

Lutz et al.

$$AUC_p = \frac{F_a * F_h * D}{Cl_p} \tag{7}$$

By definition [42], the hepatic bioavailability ( $F_h$ ) is a function of the extraction ratio of the parent ( $ER_p$ ):

$$F_h = 1 - ER_p = \frac{Q}{Q + f_{u,p} * Cl_{i,p}} \tag{8}$$

Substituting for  $F_h$  and the well-stirred model for  $Cl_p$  and  $Cl_m$  (as defined by Equations 9 and 5, respectively) into the quotient of Equations 7 and 8 yields:

$$\frac{AUC_m}{AUC_p} = \frac{f_{u,p} * Cl_{i,f}}{f_{u,m} * Cl_{i,m}} * \frac{Q + f_{u,m} * Cl_{i,m}}{Q}$$
(9)

After intravenous administration, by substituting  $f_{m,h}$  for  $f_m$  (Equation 6) and the well-stirred model for  $Cl_m$  and  $Cl_p$  (Equation 5), Equation 2 can be defined as:

$$\frac{AUC_m}{AUC_p} = \frac{f_{u,p} * Cl_{i,f}}{f_{u,m} * Cl_{i,m}} * \frac{Q + f_{u,m} * Cl_{i,m}}{Q + f_{u,p} * Cl_{i,p}}$$
(10)

Utilizing the common technique of evaluating the limits of pharmacokinetic models with respect to high ER (Q  $\ll$  f<sub>u</sub>\*Cl<sub>i</sub>) or low ER (Q  $\gg$  f<sub>u</sub>\*Cl<sub>i</sub>), the above two models presented result in three pharmacokinetic outcomes: 1) the relative exposure to the metabolite (AUCm/ AUC<sub>p</sub>) will be different after IV and PO administration when the parent drug has a high ER, but the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> is independent of route of administration when  $ER_p$  is low, 2) changes in the intrinsic clearance of a metabolite with a low ER  $(ER_m)$  will alter the exposure to the metabolite resulting in changes in the  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  and 3) the relative exposure to the metabolite depends on the ratio between its formation and elimination clearances, not on the absolute value of either of these two terms. To determine whether the relative exposure to a metabolite is dependent on route of administration when the parent drug has a high ER, the exposure to morphine after PO or IV administration of codeine and the exposure to morphine-6-glucuronide after PO or IV administration of morphine was revisited (Table 1). Based on literature in vivo clearance values, formation of morphine from codeine is classified as high ER<sub>p</sub>, high ER<sub>m</sub>, while formation of morphine-6-glucuronide from morphine is classified as high  $ER_p$ , low  $ER_m$ . The observed  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  values are shown in Table 1. Indeed, as the model suggests, the relative exposure to the metabolite was dependent on route of administration for morphine-6-glucuronide, where it was always greater after PO administration than IV administration. The relative exposure to morphine after IV administration of codeine ranged from 3.5-fold less to 2.4-fold greater than after PO administration. Given the variability in AUCm/AUCp for the morphine/codeine pair after PO administration, it was not possible to define a clear relationship between route of administration and AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>.

It has been theoretically demonstrated that changes in the elimination clearance of a low ER metabolite will alter the relative exposure to that metabolite [13]. This can be illustrated by considering the exposure to desipramine as a metabolite of imipramine. If the clearance pathway of the metabolite is subject to genetic polymorphisms, the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> will

depend on the individual's genotype for that elimination pathway. The formation of desipramine from imipramine is mediated primarily by CYP2C19, whereas desipramine elimination is mediated by CYP2D6. The desipramine/imipramine  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  was 5.4-fold higher in CYP2D6 poor metabolizers (PMs) in comparison to EMs making desipramine the major circulating species in CYP2D6 PMs (Table 4). This increase in  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  was due to a 1.7- and 9.1-fold increase in the AUC of imipramine and desipramine, respectively.

To test the developed in vitro-to-in vivo extrapolation model (Equations 10 and 11 for PO and IV administration, respectively), the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> of seven M/P pairs: morphine/ codeine, theophylline/caffeine, desipramine/imipramine, nortriptyline/amitriptyline, Ndesmethylclomipramine/clomipramine, 8-hydroxyclomipramine/clomipramine and 2hydroxyclomipramine/clomipramine were predicted. The predictions were accomplished using literature in vitro metabolite Cl<sub>i,f</sub> and Cl<sub>i,m</sub> obtained in human liver microsomes (HLM), literature plasma fraction unbound values for both parent and metabolite and common methods of clearance scaling. The  $Cl_i$  values (in  $\mu L/min/mg$  microsomal protein) were first scaled to grams of liver, using the value of 54.7 mg microsomal protein per g liver, and then to kg body weight, using the value of 21.43 g liver per kg body weight [43,44]. An average body weight of 70 kg was considered. Summary of the obtained predicted and observed  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  values are shown in Table 5. Four of the seven M/P pairs were accurately predicted (< 2-fold error in comparison to the average observed AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>) and two of the seven were predicted within < 5-fold error (Table 5). 2hydroxyclomipramine had undetectable metabolite levels after clomipramine administration and hence the prediction of very low  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  for this pair is considered in agreement with the in vivo finding.

It is unlikely that the major inaccuracies in the above AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> predictions are a result of *in vitro* to *in vivo* scaling, since the use of *in vivo* parameters did not yield more accurate predictions (Tables 1 and 5). The morphine/codeine AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> could be predicted accurately from both *in vitro* and *in vivo* parameters (< 2-fold error in comparison to the average observed AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>) after both IV and PO administration and the theophylline/ caffeine M/P pair yielded similar prediction accuracies when using either *in vitro* values or *in vivo* (4-fold versus 3-fold error). Additionally, by utilizing a ratio as the primary predicted measure, any systematic error made in the scaling of *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* clearances is negated although random error in the prediction will propagate in the AUC ratio.

The model is designed to predict the nonparametric outcome of  $AUC_m/AUC_p$ . Oftentimes, the pharmacologic or toxicologic effect is a function of the maximum concentration ( $C_{max}$ ) and not the total body exposure. Predictions of metabolite  $C_{max}$  would require additional parametric information about the input and disposition rates of both the parent and the metabolite only obtainable after *in vivo* administration of the compounds.

One obvious limitation to this model is that it can only address the disposition of primary metabolites formed after parent administration. Theoretically, the same necessity of predicting both formation and elimination are relevant for subsequent downstream metabolites making quantitative predictions of downstream metabolites very complicated. However, if primary metabolites are used in *in vitro* incubation experiments, the likelihood of qualitatively identifying downstream metabolites is greatly increased.

Renal clearance as well as biliary excretion and gut metabolism are often important elimination pathways for xenobiotics. These pathways were not considered for either the parent or metabolite in this review and it is likely that to be fully applicable in new drug development, prediction of the total clearance of the metabolite (sum of predicted hepatic and renal clearances) will be necessary. Unfortunately *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* extrapolation

models for prediction of renal clearance, transport and gut metabolism are currently not as well established as hepatic clearance predictions. Nonetheless, the preliminary success of the predictions indicates that *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* extrapolation of  $AUC_m/AUC_p$ , after further development and validation, could prove to be a useful tool in addressing metabolite-related concerns in new drug development.

#### 4. Conclusions

This review of the available data on metabolite disposition shows that as predicted by original metabolite kinetic theory, for any quantitative or semi-quantitative prediction of metabolite abundance or relative importance *in vivo*, the *in vivo* elimination clearance of the metabolite has to be predicted or rationalized in addition to basic metabolite profiling *in vitro*. This is shown by the fact that the *in vivo* abundance of metabolites of a given drug are no more likely to rank order correctly based on *in vitro* formation clearances than when left to random probability. An interesting outcome of the literature review is that in comparison to parent clearance predictions, the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> predicts with similar accuracy suggesting that important human metabolites can be quantitatively predicted using *in vitro* data. This accuracy was achieved despite the fact that *in vitro* Cl<sub>i,f</sub> and Cl<sub>i,m</sub> were usually not determined in the same study. Finally, the fact that AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> ratios measured after single dose administration were not significantly different from multiple dose AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> ratios, but ERL kinetics of metabolites were common suggests that early single dose studies for metabolite identification may be justified.

#### 5. Expert Opinion

Based on available pharmacokinetic theory and literature data, the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> is most appropriate value to be used as the relevant outcome measure of metabolite exposure in *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* extrapolation. Since this value does not depend on dose or the  $F_a$  of the parent drug, it is a more robust and generally applicable measure of metabolite exposure than the dose-dependent measure of absolute AUC<sub>m</sub>. Predicting absolute AUC<sub>m</sub> would require knowledge of the clinical dose of the parent drug and prediction of its  $F_a$ . Additionally, the predicted AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>, when multiplied by the expected clinically effective average steady state concentration, can be used to determine prior to human studies how likely the need for additional safety evaluation is.

The results of this review clearly show that the formation clearance of a metabolite is not sufficient for understanding and predicting its in vivo relative exposure (AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>) or importance in comparison to other metabolites. Although the equally important role of metabolite elimination and metabolite formation in metabolite disposition *in vivo* is generally known, this concept has yet to be applied to *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* extrapolation in preclinical new drug development. Inclusion of metabolite formation and elimination clearances in predictions allows prediction of in vivo AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> or, if AUC<sub>p</sub> is known, the absolute  $AUC_m$  from *in vitro* data. It is interesting that after development of the early metabolite kinetic theory it has not been thoroughly reexamined in light of modern experimental approaches. It is likely that better understanding of metabolite disposition can be obtained by further testing in vitro-to-in vivo extrapolation models applied to metabolites even by using a relatively simplistic model detailed in this review. It would also be beneficial if such models would be further developed and validated. This is important not only to address the MIST guidance, but to improve our current understanding of the *in vivo* pharmacokinetics of probe metabolic ratios that are used in drug-drug interaction studies as well as in pharmacogenetic studies.

The developed model and future models addressing the same primary outcome may be useful in lead compound selection and toxicology stages of new drug development, allowing early attention on potential quantitatively important metabolites. Since chemical synthesis of metabolites can be time consuming, expensive and difficult, it is likely that predictions of metabolite clearance need to be obtained from minimal amounts of primary metabolites generated in in vitro systems and isolated using chromatographic techniques to justify investment of resources to synthesis of reference materials. However, the obtained predictions can be used to guide prioritization of synthetic efforts of metabolite standards. It is noteworthy, that intrinsic metabolic elimination clearance of a metabolite can be predicted from a substrate depletion experiment conducted below K<sub>m</sub> (Michaelis-Menten affinity constant) concentrations of the metabolite [45,46]. Additionally, pre-clinical animal studies can be utilized not only to determine the absolute abundance of a metabolite after parent administration, but also to examine the overall pharmacokinetics of the metabolite after administration of the metabolite or the parent. This data can be leveraged for in vivo human metabolite kinetic prediction and may provide further confidence in the *in vivo* predictions of metabolite clearance and AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> from *in vitro* data.

The *in vivo*  $AUC_m/AUC_p$  of only seven M/P pairs were predicted from *in vitro* data in this review. The unfortunate limitation was the dearth of literature on *in vitro* metabolite  $Cl_i$  values, and this review suggests that there is a great need to generate more metabolite relevant *in vitro* kinetic data. Even M/P pairs that are commonly utilized as *in vivo* CYP probes possess metabolite elimination pathways that are not kinetically characterized. For example, the urinary or plasma ratio of dextrorphan and dextromethorphan is a common probe for phenotyping CYP2D6, yet the major elimination pathway of dextrorphan is via glucuronidation, a pathway that has never been kinetically characterized *in vitro* [47,48]. Additionally, the plasma ratios of 5-hydroxyomeprazole and omeprazole or omeprazole sulfone and omeprazole are common probes for CYP2C19 and CYP3A4 drug interactions, respectively, yet neither the kinetics of 5-hydroxyomeprazole nor omeprazole sulfone metabolism are characterized *in vitro* [49,50]. This raises some concerns of the validity of these ratios, as genetic factors or drug-drug interactions affecting the unknown elimination pathways of the metabolite could result in skewed data.

Increasingly, M/P ratios are being utilized as specific *in vivo* CYP markers [51]. When a metabolite is considered pharmacokinetically relevant, the enzymes responsible for the elimination of that metabolite should be identified for proper interpretation of drug-drug interaction and genetic polymorphism studies. When a metabolite is considered pharmacologically relevant, again, these secondary metabolic pathways should be identified in order to understand the therapeutic impact of said drug-drug interaction or genetic polymorphism.

#### **ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS**

- There is an increased interest in qualitative and quantitative prediction of *in vivo* circulating metabolites and in rationalization of metabolite exposures.
- The relative importance of metabolites *in vivo* is measured as the ratio between the metabolite's and parent drug's area under the plasma concentration versus time curve (AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>). This ratio can be predicted using *in vitro*-to-*in vivo* scaling of formation and elimination clearances of the metabolite of interest.
- Single dose AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> data can be utilized as a surrogate for steady-state AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> when the compounds have linear kinetics. 56% of reviewed metabolites underwent elimination rate limited kinetics and hence time to reach

steady-state for the metabolites is governed by the half-life of the metabolite, not the half-life of the parent drug.

- When multiple metabolites are formed from the same parent drug, the rank order of importance observed in *in vitro* systems correctly predicts the rank order importance *in vivo* for only half of the drugs. This discrepancy is most likely due to great variability in the clearances of the metabolites. Prediction of the identity of major metabolites in contrast to minor metabolites in circulation is likely to require determination of the clearance of the metabolites as well. There is no significant correlation between the formation clearance of a given metabolite *in vitro* and the relative abundance (AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>) of that metabolite *in vivo*.
- If a metabolite is used as a probe of specific enzyme activity, the elimination pathways of that metabolite should be characterized.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Dr. Thomas A. Baillie for helpful discussions during the preparation of this manuscript.

#### **Declaration of Interest:**

This work was supported in part by the National Institute of Health [Grant P01 GM32165]

#### References

Papers of special note have been highlighted as either of interest (•) or of considerable interest (••) to readers.

- 1. Riss J, Cloyd J, Gates J, et al. Benzodiazepines in epilepsy: pharmacology and pharmacokinetics. Acta Neurol Scand 2008;118(2):69–86. [PubMed: 18384456]
- Akiyoshi J, Isogawa K, Yamada K, et al. Effects of antidepressants on intracellular Ca2+ mobilization in CHO cells transfected with the human 5-HT2C receptors. Biol Psychiatry 1996;39(12):1000–1008. [PubMed: 8780834]
- 3. Rambeck B, Sälke-Treumann A, May T, et al. Valproic acid-induced carbamazepine-10,11-epoxide toxicity in children and adolescents. Eur Neurol 1990;30(2):79–83. [PubMed: 2111243]
- Ho PC, Abbott FS, Zanger UM, et al. Influence of CYP2C9 genotypes on the formation of a hepatotoxic metabolite of valproic acid in human liver microsomes. Pharmacogen J 2003;3:335– 342.
- Bauman JN, Frederick KS, Sawant A, et al. comparison of the bioactivation potential of the antidepressant and hepatotoxin nefazodone with aripiprazole, a structural analog and marketed drug. Drug Metab Dispos 2008;36(6):1016–1029. [PubMed: 18332080]
- Stevens JC, Wrighton SA. Interaction of the enantiomers of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine with human liver cytochromes P450. J Pharmacol Exper Ther 1993;266(2):964–971. [PubMed: 8355218]
- Sauer JM, Long AJ, Ring B, et al. Atomoxetine hydrochloride: clinical drug-drug interaction prediction and outcome. J Pharmacol Exper Ther 2004;308(2):410–418. [PubMed: 14610241]
- 8. Templeton IE, Thummel KE, Kharasch ED, et al. Contribution of itraconazole metabolites to inhibition of CYP3A4 *in vivo*. Clin Pharmacol Ther 2008;83(1):77–85. [PubMed: 17495874]
- 9. FDA. Guidance for industry: safety testing of drug metabolites. Rockville, MD: Food and Drug Administration; 2008.
- 10. EMA. Non-clinical safety studies for the conduct of human clinical trials and marketing authorization for pharmaceuticals. London, UK: European Medicines Agency; 2008.
- Anderson S, Luffer-Atlas D, Knadler MP. Predicting human circulating metabolites: how good are we? Chem Res Tox 2009;22(2):243–256. •• An interesting discussion on metabolite identification and correlation to*in vivo*.

- Cummings AJ, Martin BK, Pang KS. Kinetic considerations relating to the accrual and elimination of drug metabolites. Br J Pharmac Chemother 1967;29:136–149.
- 13. Houston JB. Drug metabolite kinetics. Pharmacol Ther 1981;15(3):521–552. [PubMed: 7048351]
  •• A useful review on *in vivo* metabolite kinetics.
- Houston JB, Taylor G. Drug metabolite concentration-time profiles: influence of route of drug administration. Br J Clin Pharmacol 1984;17:385–394. [PubMed: 6721984] •• A theoretical discussion of possible metabolite concentration versus time profiles after PO administration.
- Pang KS, Gillette JR. Theoretical relationship between area under the curve and route of administration of drugs and their precursors for evaluating sites and pathways of metabolism. J Pharm Sci 1978;67(5):703–704. [PubMed: 641815]
- 16. Pang KS. Metabolite pharmacokinetics: the area under the curve for the metabolite and the fractional rate of metabolism of a drug after different routes of administration for renally and hepatically cleared drugs and metabolites. J Pharmacokinet Biopharm 1981;9:477–487. [PubMed: 7310645]
- Levy RH, Lane EA, Guyot M, et al. Analysis of parent drug-metabolite relationship in the presence of an inducer. Application to the carbamazepine-clobazam interaction in normal man. Drug Metab Dispos 1983 July 1;11(4):286–292. 1983. [PubMed: 6137332] • *In vivo* validation of the discussed AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> theory.
- Patel IH, Levy RH, Trager WF. Pharmacokinetics of carbamazepine-10,11-epoxide before and after autoinduction in rhesus monkeys. J Pharmacol Exper Ther 1978;206(3):607–613. [PubMed: 100595] •• Initial development of the *in vivo* AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> theory and analysis of possible AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> outcomes.
- Skarke C, Langer M, Jarrar M, et al. Probenecid interacts with the pharmacokinetics of morphine-6-glucuronide in humans. Anesthesiology 2004;101:1394–1399. [PubMed: 15564947]
- du Preez MJ, Botha JH, McFadyen ML, et al. The pharmacokinetics of theophylline in premature neonates during the first few days after birth. Ther Drug Monit 1999 Dec;21(6):598–603. [PubMed: 10604818]
- 21. Guay DR, Awni WM, Findlay JW, et al. Pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of codeine in end-stage renal disease. Clin Pharmacol Ther 1988;43(1):63–71. [PubMed: 3335120]
- Osborne R, Joel S, Trew D, et al. Morphine and metabolite behavior after different routes of morphine administration: demonstration of the importance of the active metabolite morphine-6glucuronide. Clin Pharmacol Ther 1990;47:12–19. [PubMed: 2295214]
- Tegeder I, Lotsch J, Geisslinger G. Pharmacokinetics of opiods in liver disease. Clin Pharmacokinet 1999;37(1):17–40. [PubMed: 10451781]
- 24. Roxane. CafCit Package Insert. Columbus, OH: 2000.
- 25. Rodopoulos N, Norman A. Assessment of dimethylxanthine formation from caffeine in healthy adults: comparison between plasma and saliva concentrations and urinary excretion of metabolites. Scand J Clin Lab Invest 1996;56:259–268. [PubMed: 8761530]
- 26. Hospira. Codeine Phosphate Package Insert. Lafe Forest, IL: 2004.
- 27. AlPharma. Kadian Package Insert. Piscataway, NJ: 2007.
- Rowland, M.; Tozer, TN. Clinical pharmacokinetics: concepts and applications. 3rd ed.. Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins; 1995.
- 29. Lane EA, Levy RH. Prediction of steady-state behavior of metabolite from dosing of parent drug. J Pharm Sci 1980;69(5):610–612. [PubMed: 6770076] Validation of equivalence of  $AUC_{0-\infty}$  after single dose to  $AUC_{0-\tau}$  at steady state.
- Smith DA, Obach RS. Metabolites in safety testing (MIST): considerations of mechanism of toxicity with dose, abundance and duration of treatment. Chem Res Tox 2009;22(2):267–279.
- Espina R, yu L, Wang J, et al. Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy as a quantitative tool to determine the concentrations of biologically produced metabolites: implications in metabolites in safety testing. Chem Res Tox 2009;22:299–310.
- 32. Vishwanathan K, Babalola K, Wang J, et al. Obtaining exposures of metabolites in preclinical species through plasma pooling and quantitative NMR: addressing metabolites in safety testing (MIST) guidance without using radiolabeled compounds and chemically synthesized metabolite standards. Chem Res Tox 2009;22:311–322.

Lutz et al.

- 33. Leclercq L, Cuyckens F, Mannens GSJ, et al. Which human metabolites have we MIST? Retrospective analysis, practical aspects, and perspectives for metabolite identification and quantification in pharmaceutical development. Chem Res Tox 2009;22:280–293.
- 34. Kramer-Nielsen K, Flinois JP, Beaune P, et al. The biotransformation of clomipramine *in vitro*, identification of the cytochrome P450s responsible for the separate metabolic pathways. J Pharmacol Exper Ther 1996 June 1;277(3):1659–1664. 1996. [PubMed: 8667235]
- Obach RS, Baxter JG, Liston TE, et al. The prediction of human pharmacokinetic parameters from preclinical and *in vitro* metabolism data. J Pharmacol Exper Ther 1997 October 1;283(1):46–58.
   1997. [PubMed: 9336307]
- 36. Carlile DJ, Hakooz N, Bayliss MK, et al. Microsomal prediction of *in vivo* clearance of CYP2C9 substrates in humans. Br J Clin Pharmacol 1999;47:625–635. [PubMed: 10383540]
- 37. Obach RS. Prediction of human clearance of twenty-nine drugs from hepatic microsomal clearance data: and examination of *in vitro* half-life approach and nonspecific binding to microsomes. Drug Metab Dispos 1999;27(11):1350–1359. [PubMed: 10534321]
- McGinnity DF, Soars MG, Urbanowicz RA, et al. Evaluation of fresh and cryopreserved hepatocytes as *in vitro* drug metabolism tools for the prediction of metabolic clearance. Drug Metab Dispos 2004 November;32(11):1247–1253. 2004. [PubMed: 15286053]
- Wilkinson GR, Shand DG. A physiologic approach to hepatic drug clearance. Clin Pharmacol Ther 1975;18:377–390. [PubMed: 1164821] • Development of the well-stirred model of hepatic clearance.
- 40. Ito K, Houston JB. Comparison of the use of liver models for predicting drug clearance using *in vitro* kinetic data from hepatic microsomes and isolated hepatocytes. Pharmaceutical Research 2004;21(5):785–792. [PubMed: 15180335]
- Pang KS, Kwan KC. A commentary: methods and assumptions in the kinetic estimation of metabolite formation. Drug Metab Dispos 1983 March;11(2):79–84. 1983. [PubMed: 6133727] • An interesting discussion on the fraction metabolized to a metabolite of interest.
- 42. Rane A, Wilkinson GR, Shand DG. Prediction of hepatic extraction ratio from *in vitro* measurement of intrinsic clearance. J Pharmacol Exper Ther 1977;200(2):420–424. [PubMed: 839445]
- 43. Iwatsubo T, Hirota N, Oois T, et al. Prediction of *in vivo* drug disposition from *in vitro* data based on physiological pharmacokinetics. Biopharm Drug Dispos 1996;17:273–310. [PubMed: 8845471]
  A useful review of *in vitro* to *in vivo* extrapolation methodologies
- 44. Thummel KE, Shen DD, Podoll TD, et al. Use of midazolam as a human cytochrome P450 3A probe: I *In vitro-in vivo* correlations in liver transplant patients. J Pharmacol Exper Ther 1994 October 1;271(1):549–556. 1994. [PubMed: 7965755]
- 45. Mohutsky MA, Chien JY, Ring BJ, et al. Predictions of the *in vivo* clearance of drugs from rate of loss using human liver microsomes for phase I and phase II biotransformations. Pharm Res 2006;23(4):654–662. [PubMed: 16550474]
- Nath A, Atkins WM. A theoretical validation of the substrate depletion approach to determining kinetic parameters. Drug Metab Dispos 2006 September;34(9):1433–1435. 2006. [PubMed: 16751261]
- Chládek J, Zimová G, Beránek M, et al. *In-vivo* indices of CYP2D6 activity: comparison of dextromethorphan metabolic ratios in 4-h urine and 3-h plasma. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 2000;56(9– 10):651–657. [PubMed: 11214771]
- 48. Ryu JY, Song IS, Sunwoo YE, et al. Development of the "Inje Cocktail" for high-throughput evaluation of five human cytochrome P450 isoforms *in vivo*. Clin Pharmacol Ther 2007;82(5): 531–540. [PubMed: 17392720]
- Yang L-J, Fan L, Liu Z-Q, et al. Effects of allicin on CYP2C19 and CYP3A4 activity in healthy volunteers with different CYP2C19 genotypes. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 2009;65(6):601–608. [PubMed: 19172254]
- 50. Abelo A, Andersson TB, Antonsson M, et al. Stereoselective metabolism of omeprazole by human cytochrome P450 enzymes. Drug Metab Dispos 2000;28(8):966–972. [PubMed: 10901708]

 Streetman DS, Bertino JS, Nafziger AN. Phenotyping of drug-metabolizing enzymes in adults: a review of in-vivo cytochrome P450 phenotyping probes. Pharmacogenetics 2000;10(3):187–216. [PubMed: 10803676]

Lutz et al.



Figure 1. Relationship between the single dose and steady-state in vivo  $\rm AUC_m/AUC_p$  for 25 M/P pairs

The solid line indicates no difference and the dashed line indicates a 2-fold difference between single dose and steady-state dosage regimens.



### Figure 2. Schematic representation of the metabolic fate of a parent drug after PO or IV administration

In this scheme,  $D_g$ ,  $D_h$  and  $D_s$  are the amounts of drug in the gut lumen, liver during first pass and systemic circulation, respectively.  $F_a$  and  $F_h$  are the fractions of drug that are absorbed into the enterocytes and that escape first pass elimination in the liver, respectively. The  $f_{m,h}$  term is the fraction of hepatic metabolism that results in the metabolite of interest and  $M_h$  and  $M_s$  refer to the amount of metabolite of interest, formed from first pass in the liver and systemic elimination, respectively.

## Table 1

The AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> observed *in vivo* and predicted using observed Cl<sub>p</sub>, Cl<sub>m</sub>, f<sub>m</sub>, and bioavailability (F) values for three M/P pairs for which *in vivo* clearance data of the metabolite were available.

Codeine         IV $0.068^{d}$ $0.053$ $0.71$ $1,2,3$ Morphine         PO $0.071(0.019-0.17)$ $0.11$ $1.5(0.64-5.8)$ $1,2,3$ Morphine         Morphine-6-         IV $1.4^{d}$ $1.6$ $1.1$ $4,5,6$ Caffeine         Theophylline         PO $0.12(0.11-0.14)$ $0.34$ $2.8(2.8-2.8)$ $7.9$	Parent	Metabolite	Route of Administration	Observed AUC <sub>n</sub> / AUC <sub>p</sub> (Range)	Predicted AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	Predicted/ Observed (Range)	References
Codeme         Motphine         PO $0.071 (0.019 - 0.17)$ $0.11$ $1.5 (0.64 - 5.8)$ $1.5 (0.64 - 5.8)$ Morphine         Morphine-6-         IV $1.4a$ $1.6$ $1.1$ $4.5 6$ Morphine         PO $2.8 (2.8 - 2.8)$ $7.9$ $2.8 (2.8 - 2.8)$ $7.9$ $2.8 (2.8 - 2.8)$ Caffeine         Theophylline         PO $0.12 (0.11 - 0.14)$ $0.34$ $2.8 (2.4 - 3.1)$ $7.8$	Current of the second sec	Monthino	IV	0.068 <i>a</i>	0.053	0.71	1 2 3
MorphineMorphine-6-IV $1.4^{a}$ $1.6$ $1.1$ $4,5,6$ MorphinePO $2.8(2.8-2.8)$ $7.9$ $2.8(2.8-2.8)$ $7.9$ CaffeineTheophyllinePO $0.12(0.11-0.14)$ $0.34$ $2.8(2.4-3.1)$ $7,8$	onellie	annidiom	PO	$0.071 \ (0.019 - 0.17)$	0.11	$1.5\ (0.64-5.8)$	1 1 0
Caffeine Theophylline PO 2.8 (2.8 - 2.8) 7.9 2.8 (2.8 - 2.8) 7.9 Caffeine Theophylline PO 0.12 (0.11 - 0.14) 0.34 2.8 (2.4 - 3.1) 7.8	Jomhino	Morphine-6-	IV	$1.4^{a}$	1.6	1.1	956
Caffeine Theophylline PO 0.12 (0.11 – 0.14) 0.34 2.8 (2.4 – 3.1) 7,8	annihmie	glucuronide	Ю	2.8 (2.8 – 2.8)	7.9	2.8 (2.8 – 2.8)	, ,
	Caffeine	Theophylline	Ю	$0.12\ (0.11 - 0.14)$	0.34	2.8 (2.4 – 3.1)	7,8
	erscrint 'a'	indicates that of	nlv one <i>in vivo</i> stud	u was available. Dafaran	viioo moduuu oo	ido with the helow	no occorrente policies

References: <sup>1</sup>Osborne et al, 1990; <sup>2</sup>Yue et al, 1991a; <sup>3</sup>Yue et al, 1991b; <sup>4</sup>Du et al, 1999; <sup>5</sup>Eliot et al, 2002; <sup>6</sup>Guay et al, 1988; <sup>7</sup>Akinyinka et al, 2000 and <sup>8</sup>Rodopoulos et al, 1996.

# Table 2

The 25 M/P pairs utilized to examine the difference between single dose and steady-state AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub>. Included is the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> after a single dose and at steady-state and whether or not the metabolite is elimination rate limited.

Lutz et al.

•					
Parent	Metabolite	Elimination Rate Limited?	Single Dose AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	Steady-State AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	References
Allopurinol	Oxypurinol	Yes	42	33	1,2
Alprazolam	4-hydroxyalprazolam 1-hydroxyalprazolam	No Yes	0.073 0.027	0.11 0.034	3,4,5
Atorvastatin	2-hydroxyatorvastatin 4-hydroxyatorvastatin	Yes Yes	0.69 0.098	0.87 0.88	6,7
Clarithromycin	14-hydroxyclarithromycin	Yes	0.67	0.42	8,9
Ezetimibe	Ezetimibe-O-glucuronide	No	8.8	6.7	10,11
Hydralazine	Hydralazine pyruvic acid hydrazone	Yes	47	89	12
Imatinib	N-desmethylimatinib	Yes	0.21	0.16	13,14
Lansoprazole	5-hydroxylansoprazole Lansoprazole sulfone	No No	0.14 0.16	0.085 0.61	15,16
Modafinil	Modafinil acid	No	0.43	0.37	17,18
Nelfinavir	Nelfinavir hydroxy-t-butylamide	No	0.45	0.23	19
Nortriptyline	10-hydroxynortriptyline	No	1.3	3.2	20,21
Omeprazole	5-hydroxyomeprazole Omeprazole sulfone	No Yes	0.82 0.82	0.92 0.54	22,23
Oxcarbazepine	10-hydroxycarbazepine	Yes	32	27	24,25

Parent	Metabolite	Elimination Rate Limited?	Single Dose AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	Steady-State AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	References
	1-(3-carboxypropyl)-3,7- dimethylxanthine	Yes	6.0	8.3	
Pentoxifylline	1-(4-carboxybutyl)-3,7- dimethylxanthine	Yes	0.74	0.80	26,27
	1-(5-hydroxyhexyl)-3,7- dimethylxanthine	Yes	4.1	4.5	
Risperidone	Paliperidone	No	3.5	4.5	28,29
Sertraline	N-desmethylsertraline	Yes	1.8	1.5	30,31
Sulfinpyrazone	Sulfinpyrazone sulfone	No	0.069	0.21	32,33
Terbinafine	N-desmethylterbinafine	No	1.1	0.95	34,35
Venlafaxine	Desvenlafaxine	Yes	2.7	4.3	36,37
	•				

Notes: The AUC for both parent and metabolite after single dose was assured to represent the AUC0-co, and the AUC0-c for both parent and metabolite at steady-state were assured to be truly under steadystate conditions. In the studies of hydralazine and nelfinavir, the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> was determined after pairing single dose and multiple doses in the same subjects. Reference numbers coincide with the below provided references and not with the bibliography references.

1998; <sup>18</sup>Wong et al, 1999; <sup>19</sup>Damle et al, 2009; <sup>20</sup>Laine et al, 2001; <sup>21</sup>Yue et al, 1998; <sup>22</sup>He et al, 2003; <sup>23</sup>Shirai et al, 2001; <sup>24</sup>Keranen et al, 1992; <sup>25</sup>Theis et al, 2005; <sup>26</sup>Mauro et al, 1992; <sup>27</sup>Smith et References: <sup>1</sup> Ayalasomayajula et al, 2008; <sup>2</sup>Guerra et al, 2001; <sup>3</sup>Buch et al, 1993; <sup>4</sup>Greene et al, 1995; <sup>5</sup>Wennerholm et al, 2005; <sup>6</sup>Lau et al, 2007; <sup>7</sup>Tektuma New Drug Application, 2007; <sup>8</sup>Cheng et al, 1998; <sup>9</sup>Hassan-Alin et al, 2006; <sup>10</sup>Bergman et al, 2006; <sup>11</sup>Reyderman, 2005; <sup>12</sup>Shepherd et al, 1980; <sup>13</sup>Egorin et al, 2009; <sup>14</sup>Van Erp et al, 2007; <sup>15</sup>Kim et al, 2002; <sup>16</sup>Teiri et al, 2001; <sup>17</sup>Wong et al, al, 1986; <sup>28</sup>Bialer et al, 2004; <sup>29</sup>Bondolfi et al, 2002; <sup>30</sup>Allard et al, 1999; <sup>31</sup>Hamelin et al, 1996; <sup>32</sup>Bradbrook et al, 1982; <sup>33</sup>Rosenkranz et al, 1983; <sup>34</sup>Kovarik et al, 1992; <sup>35</sup>Robbins et al, 1996;  $^{36}$ L indh et al, 2003 and  $^{37}$ Troy et al, 1995. **NIH-PA** Author Manuscript

Lutz et al.

Rank order analysis of the *in vitro* Cl<sub>i,f</sub> and the *in vivo* AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> for M/P pairs of a given parent drug. Table 3

Parent	Metabolite	<i>In vitro</i> Cl <sub>if</sub> (µL/min/mg)	In vivo AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	Rank Order Correctly?	References
A 11	1-hydroxyalprazolam	0.51	0.11	M	1 2 3
Alprazolam	4-hydroxyalprazolam	4.1	0.034	ON	с, т
	2-hydroxyatorvastatin	20	0.87	4	v v
AUOTVASIAUII	4-hydroxyatorvastatin	9.1	0.88	Nov	+ ر
	Theophylline	0.072	0.14		
Caffeine*	Paraxanthine	1.4	0.48	Yes	6,7
	Theobromine	0.019	0.080		
	2-hydroxyclomipramine	0.98	NDa		
Clomipramine	8-hydroxyclomipramine	0.94	0.36	$h_{\rm ON}^{0}$	8,9
	N-desmethylclomipramine	16	2.2		
	Morphine	0.23	0.029		
Codeine*	Norcodeine	1.1	0.25	No	10,11,12
	Codeine-6-glucuronide	0.45	9.2		
T	Desipramine	8.3	0.54	$\mathbf{V}_{a,c}$	13 17
umpramme*	2-hydroxyimipramine	2.8	0.37	Ies	±1,
- International	5-hydroxylansoprazole	19	0.085	N	15 16
raiisopiazoie	Lansoprazole sulfone	10	0.61	0NI	
Monidanak	Morphine-3-glucuronide	8.4	23	Ver	17 18
. autor built	Morphine-6-glucuronide	1.8	2.8	168	
Mafazodona	Hydroxynefazodone	239	0.36	Vac	2 19
INCLAZOUDIE	Meta-chlorophenylpiperazine	190	0.090	109	) 1
Ommondo	5-hydroxyomeprazole	24	0.92	Vec	20.21
Uneprazore	Omeprazole sulfone	20	0.54	ICS	17,07

Parent	Metabolite	In vitro Cl <sub>i,f</sub> (µL/min/mg)	In vivo AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	Rank Order Correctly?	References
Propafenone	5-hydroxypropafenone N-desalkylpropafenone	530 3.5	0.50 0.064	Yes	22,23
Quinidine	3-hydroxyquinidine Quinidine N-oxide	15 2.9	0.24 0.37	No	24,25
Tamoxifen	4-hydroxytamoxifen N-desmethyltamoxifen	2.3 31	0.034 2.1	Yes	26,27
Theophylline*	3-methylxanthine 1,3-dimethyluric acid	0.012 0.16	0.035 0.032	$q^{\mathrm{ON}}$	28,29

Notes: The *in vitro* Cl<sub>1</sub> f and *in vivo* AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> values are provided. Additionally, whether or not the metabolites of a given parent rank ordered correctly with respect to these two values is provided. All in vivo AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> values were determined under steady-state conditions except for those parent drugs marked with an asterisk, which were determined after single dose administration.

Superscript 'a' indicates a value not determined because the observed in vivo metabolite concentrations were not detectable.

Superscript 'b' indicates a set of M/P pairs for a given parent drug that were considered to not rank order correctly because the *in vitro* Cli<sub>1</sub> values exhibited a > 15% difference but the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> values did not or the AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> values exhibited a > 15% difference but the *in vitro* Cl<sub>i</sub>, f values did not. Reference numbers coincide with the below provided references and not with the bibliography references.

1996; <sup>9</sup>Linnoila et al, 1982; <sup>10</sup>Soars et al, 2001; <sup>11</sup>Yue et al, 1997; <sup>12</sup>Yue et al, 1991b; <sup>13</sup>Skelbo et al, 1992; <sup>14</sup>Koyama et al, 1994; <sup>15</sup>feira et al, 2001; <sup>16</sup>Kin et al, 2003; <sup>17</sup>Morrish et al, 2006; <sup>18</sup>Eliot et al, 2002; <sup>19</sup>V on Moltke et al, 1999; <sup>20</sup>Shirai et al, 2001; <sup>21</sup>Shu et al, 2000; <sup>22</sup>Dilger et al, 1999; <sup>23</sup>Hemeryck et al, 2000; <sup>24</sup>Nielsen et al, 1999; <sup>25</sup>Schellens et al, 1991; <sup>26</sup>Desta et al, 2004; <sup>27</sup>Lien et al, References: <sup>1</sup>Buch et al, 1993; <sup>2</sup>Greene et al, 1995; <sup>3</sup>Hirota et al, 2001; <sup>4</sup>Park et al, 2008; <sup>5</sup>Tekturna New Drug Application, 2007; <sup>6</sup>Labedzki et al, 2002; <sup>7</sup>Akinyinka et al, 2000; <sup>8</sup>Kramer-Nielsen et al, 1990; <sup>28</sup>Tjia et al, 1996 and <sup>29</sup>Rodopoulos et al, 1996.

## Table 4

The effect of dose and CYP2D6 phenotype on the imipramine to desipramine AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> ratio after PO administration of imipramine.

enotype	Impramme AUC (nmol*h/mL)	Desipramine AUC (nmol*h/mL)	Observed AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	References
	0.68	0.37	0.54	
	1.2	3.4	2.9	1 2 3
	1.4	0.79	0.58	1 1
	3.1	1.6	0.50	

Notes: All AUC values were determined after single dose administration. Reference numbers coincide with the below provided references and not with the bibliography references.

**References:** <sup>1</sup>Albers et al, 2000; <sup>2</sup>Koyama et al, 1994 and <sup>3</sup>Kurtz et al, 1997.

**NIH-PA** Author Manuscript

Parent	Metabolite	Predicted AUC <sub>m</sub> /AUC <sub>p</sub>	Observed AUC <sub>m</sub> / AUC <sub>p</sub> (Range)	Predicted/ Observed (Range)	References
Codoino	Monthing	$0.051^{d}$	$0.068^{a,b}$	0.75	1 2 3
COUCHIE		0.042	$0.071 \ (0.019 - 0.17)$	0.60 (0.26 – 2.2)	- 1 1
Caffeine	Theophylline	0.50	$0.12\ (0.11-0.14)$	4.0 (3.6 – 4.6)	4,5
Imipramine	Desipramine	1.43	0.89 (0.50 – 1.6)	1.6 (0.89 – 2.9)	6789 101112
	<b>N-desmethylclomipramine</b>	7.49	1.7 (1.2 – 2.2)	4.3 (3.4 – 6.1)	
Clomipramine	8-hydroxyclomipramine	0.22	$0.40\ (0.36-0.44)$	$0.55\ (0.49-0.61)$	13,14
	2-hydroxyclomipramine	0.05	$ND^{c}$	ND	
Amitriptyline	Nortriptyline	0.45	$0.47 (\ 0.43 - 0.53)$	$0.91 \ (0.81 - 1.0)$	15,16,17

ngle dose administration, save for the two in vivo studies of

Superscript 'a' indicates a predicted or observed AUC<sub>m</sub>/AUC<sub>p</sub> after IV administration.

Superscript 'b' indicates that only one in vivo study was available.

References: <sup>1</sup>Guay et al, 1988; <sup>2</sup>Yue et al, 1991a; <sup>3</sup>Yue et al, 1991b; <sup>4</sup>Akinyinka et al, 2000; <sup>5</sup>Rodopoulos et al, 1996; <sup>6</sup>Abernethy et al, 1984; <sup>7</sup>Albers et al, 1995; <sup>8</sup>Albers et al, 2000; <sup>9</sup>Bergstrom et al, Superscript 'c' indicates a value not determined because the metabolite was not detected in vivo. Reference numbers coincide with the below provided references and not with the bibliography references. 1992; <sup>10</sup>Koyama et al, 1994; <sup>11</sup>Kurtz et al, 1997; <sup>12</sup>Wells et al, 1986; <sup>13</sup>Linnoila et al, 1982; <sup>14</sup>Shimoda et al, 1995; <sup>15</sup>Jiang et al, 2002; <sup>16</sup>Liedholm et al, 1998 and <sup>17</sup>Venkatakrishnan et al, 2001.