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Sex-dependent sensitivity to dapsone-induced methaemoglobinaemia in the rat

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Dapsone is a major component of the multidrug regimen for the treatment of leprosy [1]. It is also used in malarial prophylaxis [2], inflammatory disease [3, 4] and more recently in the therapy of *Pneumocystis carinii* in AIDS patients [5]. Dapsone is extensively metabolized in man and experimental animals to hydroxylamine derivatives [6–

8]. Haematological side effects which occur during dapsone therapy such as methaemoglobinaemia [9], have been attributed to the hydroxylamine metabolite [10]. Reduced red cell lifespan due to haemolysis is especially marked in individuals with glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency or diminished glutathione reductase activity [11].

The rat is a useful model with which to investigate dapsone-induced methaemoglobinaemia [7]. However, it was noted during earlier studies conducted in our laboratory, that female rats were much less susceptible to dapsone-mediated toxicity compared with males. Sex differences in drug metabolism have been reported to have marked pharmacodynamic and toxicological consequences [12–14]. Hence, we wished to determine whether a sex-dependent sensitivity to dapsone-induced methaemoglobinaemia existed in the rat and to investigate the biochemical basis for this observation.

Materials and methods

Chemicals. 4,4' Diaminodiphenyl sulphone was supplied by the Sigma Chemical Co. (Poole, U.K.). Dapsone hydroxylamine was synthesized as previously described [15]. All other chemicals were of reagent grade and were obtained from BDH Chemicals Ltd, (Poole, U.K.).

Protocol. Four groups (N = 5 per group) of male (groups 1 and 2) and female (groups 3 and 4) Wistar rats (200–250 g) were dosed intraperitoneally with 33 mg/kg of dapsone dissolved in dimethyl sulphoxide (200 μ L). Blood samples (250 μ L) were withdrawn from the tail veins of the rats while they were under light diethyl ether anaesthesia. Samples were removed pre-dose, then at 1, 2, 3, 5 and 24 hr.

In addition, three female and three male rats (both groups untreated) were anaesthetized with diethyl ether, and exsanguinated by cardiac puncture. Pooled blood from males and pooled female blood (1 mL/incubation, N = 4 per concentration) were separately exposed to dapsone hydroxylamine at 1, 3, 10 and 30 μ M for 1 hr. To each incubation, the metabolite was added as a concentrated solution in 10 μ L of HPLC grade methanol. A sample of blood (100 μ L) was removed at 1 hr and assayed for methaemoglobin formation.

Preparation of hepatic microsomes. Microsomes were isolated from the pooled livers of four untreated female and four untreated male rats by the method of Purba *et al.* [16]. Their mean cytochrome P-450 contents were measured according to the technique of Omura and Sato [17] and found to be 0.65 nmol/mg microsomal protein (male) and 0.71 nmol/mg protein (females). Concentrated suspensions of the microsomes (10–15 mg microsomal protein/mL) were stored in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). Microsomal protein determination was by the method of Lowry *et al.* [18]. Aliquots of suspensions were stored at -70° .

Metabolism of DDS by rat liver microsomes. [14 C]DDS (100 μ M, 0.5 μ Ci) was incubated with male or female rat liver microsomes (0.5 mg protein) in phosphate buffer (pH 7.4, final volume 1 mL). Reactions were performed in quadruplicate and started by the addition of NADPH (1 mM), then incubated in a shaking water bath at 37° for 1 hr. NADPH was omitted from control incubations. Prior to the termination of the reactions by the addition of methanol (1 mL) 10 mM ascorbate was added to each incubation to preserve any dapsone hydroxylamine formed as previous studies have underlined the instability of this compound [6, 8]. The tubes were left at -20° overnight to precipitate all protein.

Analytical procedures. Samples from groups 1 and 3 plus the samples obtained from the *in vitro* incubation of rat blood with dapsone hydroxylamine were assayed for methaemoglobin levels relative to haemoglobin levels using the spectrophotometric technique of Harrison and Jollow [19].

Samples from groups 2 and 4 were assayed for dapsone concentrations using the HPLC method of Grossman and Jollow [7] for detection of dapsone in whole rat blood. Chromatography was performed on a Spectra-Physics 8700 chromatograph. Separation was achieved using a μ Bondapak C₁₈ column (30 cm \times 0.39 cm i.d. 10 μ m, Waters

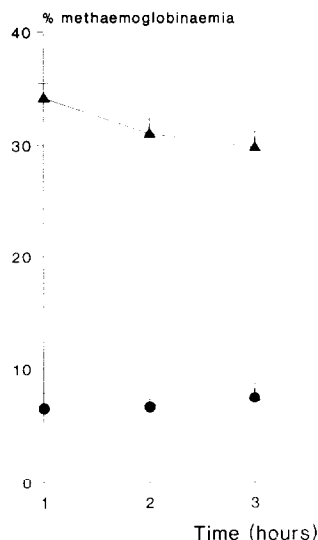


Fig. 1. Percentage methaemoglobinaemia against time after the administration of dapsone (33 mg/kg) to male rats (\blacktriangle) and female rats (\bullet) (N = 5 per group, values are means \pm SE).

Associates, Hartford, Cheshire, U.K.). The solvent mobile phase consisted of 0.1 M ammonium acetate, acetonitrile and methanol (66:12:22) flowing at 1.5 mL/min. The analyte was detected at 254 nm with a Pye Unicam UV detector. The retention times of dapsone and its internal standard were 4 and 7 min, respectively. Analysis of dapsone hydroxylamine was accomplished by radiometric HPLC using the method of Uetrecht *et al.* [15]. Dapsone and its hydroxylamine metabolite were identified chromatographically by comparison of their retention times with those of co-injected authentic unlabelled compounds (dapsone hydroxylamine, 8.5 min; dapsone, 10.5 min). After further precipitation of protein by centrifugation

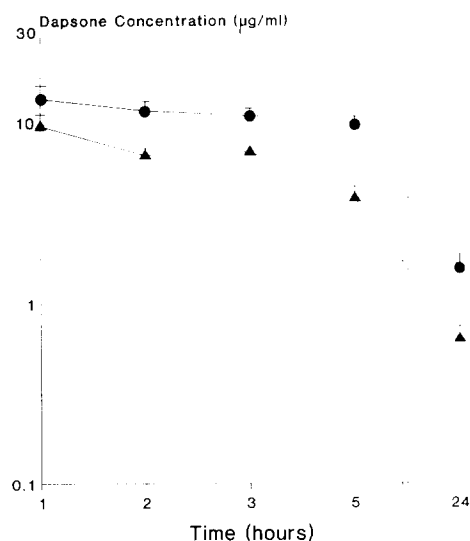


Fig. 2. Concentrations of dapsone (μ g/mL) plotted on a semi-logarithmic scale against time after the administration of dapsone (33 mg/kg) to male rats (\blacktriangle) and female rats (\bullet) (N = 5 per group, values are means \pm SE).

(650 g for 20 min), aliquots (100 μ L) of the supernatant containing approximately 130,000 dpm were injected onto the column for measurement of 8–10,000 dpm associated with dapson hydroxylamine. Separation was achieved using the C₁₈ μ Bondapak column. The solvent mobile phase consisted of water, acetonitrile, acetic acid and triethylamine (80:20:1:0.05 v/v) flowing at 1.2 mL/min. Eluate was again monitored at 254 nm and collected in 30 sec fractions which were then mixed with 4 mL of scintillant fluid for measurement of radioactivity.

Calculations. Both the curve for percentage methaemoglobin AUC_{Met Hb 0–24 hr} and the AUC_(0–24 hr) for dapson blood concentrations were estimated by the trapezoidal rule [20]. The AUC from 24 hr to infinity for blood dapson concentrations was calculated by the ratio C_{24}/β where C_{24} was the blood level of dapson at 24 hr. The AUC to infinity (AUC) for dapson was obtained from the sum of the AUC_(0–24) and AUC_(24 hr– ∞). The terminal phase elimination rate constant (β) was determined by least squares regression analysis of the post distributive blood dapson concentration-time data for all five time points and the half-life (T_1) from the ratio $0.693/\beta$. Clearance was calculated by the formula

$$Cl = \frac{DOSE}{AUC}$$

Statistical analysis was accomplished by the Wilcoxon signed rank test accepting $P < 0.05$ as statistically significant.

Results and discussion

Within 1 hr of dapson administration to the male rats, a rapid and acute methaemoglobinaemia resulted ($33.1 \pm 2.8\%$), compared with background values of $4.5 \pm 1.1\%$. This is in agreement with previous studies in the male rat [7, 8]. Twenty-four hours post dosing in the male rats, levels of methaemoglobin had fallen to less than 10% ($9.4 \pm 3.7\%$). In sharp contrast (Fig. 1) administration of dapson to female rats resulted in low initial levels of methaemoglobin ($6.4 \pm 3.8\%$ at 1 hr) which were not significantly different from background levels ($3.9 \pm 1.0\%$). At 24 hr, the females still exhibited low levels of methaemoglobinaemia ($5.7 \pm 1.8\%$). Over the period of the study, the AUC_(met Hb 0–24 hr) for female rats (120.4 ± 35.6) was less than one third of that of the males (455.4 ± 6.2).

However, dapson plasma levels in the females were significantly higher than those of the males (Fig. 2). The AUC for dapson measured in female rats ($167.5 \pm 34.6 \mu\text{g hr/mL}$) was more than double that of the males ($78.3 \pm 11.7 \mu\text{g hr/mL}$, $P < 0.01$). There were no significant differences between the half-lives of dapson in the respective groups (6.5 ± 2.3 hr vs 7.02 ± 1.4 hr). However, the clearance of dapson in the male rats (7.15 ± 1.06 mL/min) was more than twice that of the females (3.4 ± 0.72 mL/min) and this was reflected in the rapid formation of methaemoglobin in the males. However, the reduced ability of the female rats to clear dapson from blood was associated with a lack of haemoglobin oxidation in these animals.

Dapson and its monoacetyl derivative are known to be extensively and rapidly N-hydroxylated to hydroxylamines in the male rat, and these metabolites induce the formation of methaemoglobin *in vivo* and *in vitro* [6, 7]. *In vitro*, in the present study, radiometric analysis of incubations containing dapson, NADPH and male rat microsomes revealed a peak corresponding to the retention time of dapson hydroxylamine (Fig. 3). Metabolic conversion of radiolabelled dapson to the hydroxylamine in male rats was $0.3 \pm 0.3\%$ without NADPH, and $8.6 \pm 0.61\%$ with NADPH. In contrast, metabolic conversion by female rat microsomes was $0.2 \pm 0.04\%$ without NADPH and $1.77 \pm 0.8\%$ with NADPH. Hence, male rat liver micro-

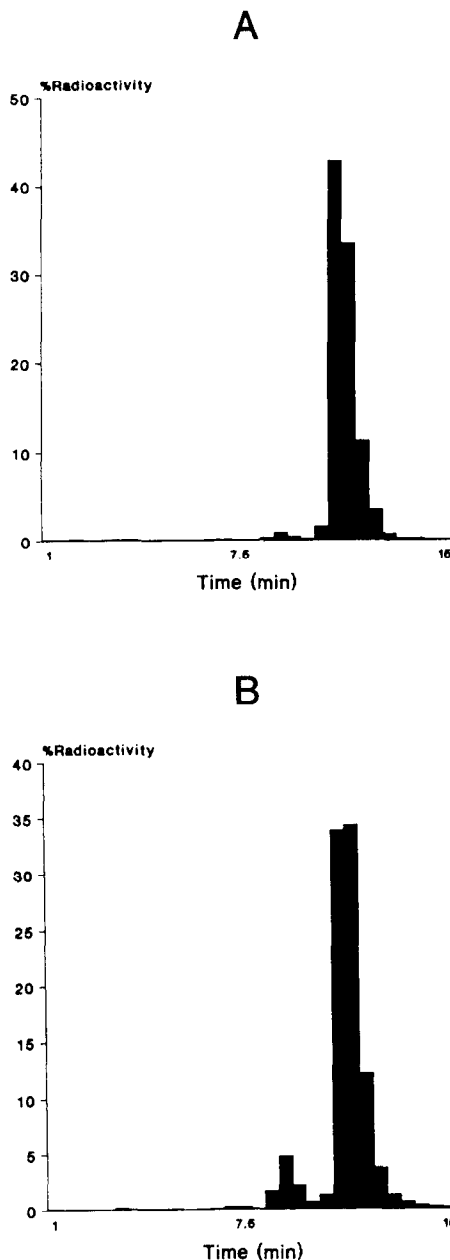


Fig. 3. High performance liquid radiochromatogram of extracts of incubations containing either female (A) or male (B) rat liver microsomes (0.5 mg protein, NADPH and dapson 100 μ M, 0.5 μ Ci) performed at 37° for 1 hr. The peaks eluted at 8.5 and 10.5 min were dapson hydroxylamine and dapson, respectively.

somes converted more than four times the amount of dapson to the hydroxylamine compared with female rat microsomes. From Fig. 4, it is clear that the absence of methaemoglobin in the female rats was not due to any pharmacodynamic differences in the sensitivity of whole blood to the direct toxicity of dapson hydroxylamine *in vitro*. Therefore it is likely that the lack of metabolism of dapson to N-hydroxy derivatives by female rats protects them from the known haematological side effects of those metabolites. Thus, our findings are in agreement with pre-

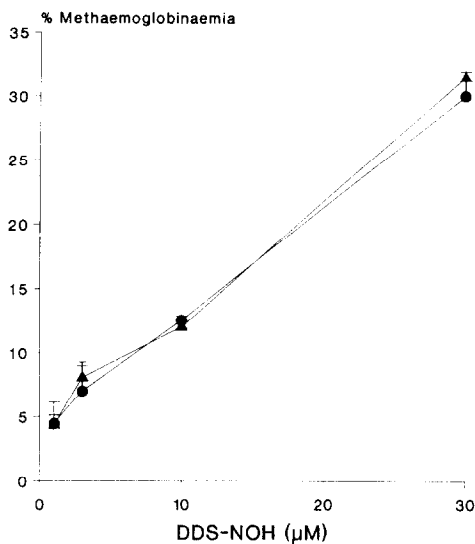


Fig. 4. Incubation of whole blood (1 mL per incubation) obtained from male (▲) and female (●) rats with dapsone hydroxylamine (1–30 μM) ($N = 4$ per incubation, values are means \pm SE).

vious studies which indicated that N-hydroxylation is a prerequisite for dapsone toxicity *in vivo* [7, 21].

Although sex differences in drug metabolism are frequent and widely investigated [22–24], sex differences in methaemoglobin formation are rarely reported [25]. Studies with 4-aminopropiophenone showed female beagles to be more sensitive to methaemoglobin formation than male beagles, due to a sex difference in the N-hydroxylation of the compound [25]. Indeed, a number of factors have been identified in man which influence susceptibility to dapsone-induced methaemoglobinaemia, such as erythrocytic enzyme deficiencies [26, 27] or variation in the ability to metabolize the drug to the hydroxylamine [8]. The present study underlines the toxicological consequences of variation in the metabolic activation of dapsone.

In summary, we have shown in the rat a marked sex difference, not only in the plasma disappearance of dapsone, but also in the tendency to develop dapsone mediated methaemoglobinaemia. Females may be protected from dapsone mediated oxidation of haemoglobin as a consequence of a lack of production of the toxic N-hydroxylated metabolites of the drug.

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The relative abilities of MPTP and MPP⁺ to compete with [³H]dopamine for the rat and marmoset striatal dopamine uptake site

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The principal neurotoxic effect of 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) in man and non-human primates is a profound destruction of the nigrostriatal dopamine system, causing severe motor impairments similar to those observed in Parkinson's disease [1–4].

Pretreatment of monkeys with monoamine oxidase B inhibitors fully or partially protects against the biochemical and behavioural impairments [4, 5], indicating that oxidation of MPTP to 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium (MPP⁺) may be required to cause neurotoxicity [6, 7]. This may occur in glial or neuronal cells containing monoamine oxidase B, with the subsequent uptake of MPP⁺ via the dopamine uptake process into the dopamine neurone [8, 9]. The partial protection afforded by dopamine uptake inhibitors against MPTP induced toxicity in the primate would support this hypothesis [10].

In contrast to the pronounced effects observed in the primate, rodents appear considerably less sensitive to MPTP induced toxicity, although the effects that do occur either *in vivo* or in cell cultures are also attenuated by monoamine oxidase B inhibitors [11–13]. In the rodent, as in the primate, the effects of MPTP may again be mediated by MPP⁺, which has potent neurotoxic effects in cell cultures [14], although the reason for differences in *in vivo* sensitivity to MPTP between the rodent and primate species remains uncertain.

It was hypothesized that such species differences may relate to the second stage of the neurotoxic process involving MPTP and/or MPP⁺ uptake into the dopamine neurones. Here we investigate this possibility and compare the abilities of MPTP, MPP⁺ and uptake inhibitors to inhibit [³H]dopamine uptake in striatal synaptosomal preparations from the rat and marmoset.

Methods and materials

Female Hooded Lister rats (Bradford bred) weighing 250–300 g and male or female common marmosets (*Callithrix jacchus*) weighing 280–320 g were killed by cervical dislocation and decapitation, respectively. The brains were immediately removed. The striatum was dissected out and homogenized in a glass-Teflon homogenizer (clearance 0.11–0.15 mm) by six movements up and down in 10 mL ice-cold 0.32 M sucrose followed by centrifugation at 1000 g (4°) for 10 min (Beckman L8-70 ultracentrifuge). The supernatant was retained and centrifuged at 48,000 g for 15 min (4°). The resulting pellet was gently resuspended in ice-cold 0.27 M sucrose at a concentration of 0.5–0.8 and 0.4–0.5 mg protein/mL for the rat and marmoset, respectively.

Krebs buffer (900 µL) was gassed using 95% O₂/5% CO₂ containing 115.0 mM NaCl, 4.97 mM KCl, 1.0 mM CaCl₂, 1.22 mM MgSO₄, 1.20 mM KH₂PO₄, 25 mM NaHCO₃, 10 µM nialamide, 0.8 mM ascorbic acid and 0.1 µM [³H]dopamine (50 Ci/mmol) in the absence (total uptake) or presence of uptake-competing compounds (2.0 × 10⁻¹⁰–2.0 × 10⁻⁵ M, six concentrations) which were added to reaction tubes in triplicate and preincubated at 37° for 3 min. [³H]Dopamine uptake was initiated by the addition of 100 µL of the crude synaptosomal preparation (or 100 µL 0.27 M sucrose for filter blank). The reaction was allowed to proceed at 37° for 6 min before termination by rapid filtration through pre-wet Whatmann GF/B filter paper, followed immediately by washing with 9.0 mL ice-cold Krebs buffer for 6 sec. The filtration and washing procedure was performed using a semi-automatic membrane harvester (Brandel). The filter discs were placed in 10.0 mL 'Insta-Gel' scintillant (Packard) and counted for tritium by liquid scintillation spectroscopy (Tri-Carb 1900 CA, Canberra Packard) at approximately 47% efficiency. Protein estimation was performed by the method of Bradford [15] using bovine serum albumin as the standard.

[³H]Dopamine (50 Ci/mmol, Amersham International, Amersham, U.K.), 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine hydrochloride (Research Biochemical Incorporated, RBI), 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium (RBI), GBR12909 1-[2-[bis-(4-fluorophenyl) methoxy]-ethyl-4-[3-phenyl-propyl]-piperazine dihydrochloride (RBI), desipramine hydrochloride (Sigma Chemical Co., Poole, U.K.), hemicholinium-3 (Sigma), mazindol (Sandoz, Middlesex, U.K.), fluoxetine hydrochloride (Eli Lilly, Indianapolis, IN), benzotropine mesylate (Merck Sharp & Dohme, Herts, U.K.) and cocaine hydrochloride (May & Baker, Dagenham, U.K.).

All drugs were dissolved in distilled water except mazindol and GBR 12909 which were dissolved in a minimum quantity of dilute hydrochloric acid and made to volume with distilled water. All drugs were used as received.

Results and discussion

Preliminary experiments established that [³H]dopamine uptake into the synaptosomes was linear with respect to time of incubation (up to 15 min). Furthermore, the uptake was comparable (1.8 ± 0.5 and 2.4 ± 0.2 pmol/min/mg protein, mean ± SE of 4–7 determinations) in rat and marmoset striatal preparations respectively.

The uptake of [³H]dopamine into rat and marmoset striatal synaptosomes was inhibited by nanomolar concentrations of the selective dopamine uptake inhibitor