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Enhancement of the bioavailability of oral uridine by coadministration of 5-(phenylthio)acyclouridine, a uridine phosphorylase inhibitor: implications for uridine rescue regimens in chemotherapy

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Abstract *Purpose*: The purpose of this investigation was to evaluate the effectiveness of oral 5-(phenylthio)acyclouridine (PTAU) in improving the oral bioavailability of uridine. PTAU is a new potent and specific inhibitor of uridine phosphorylase (UrdPase, EC 2.4.2.3), the enzyme responsible for uridine catabolism. This compound was designed as a lipophilic inhibitor in order to facilitate its access to the liver and intestine, the main organs involved in uridine catabolism. PTAU is not toxic to mice and is fully absorbed after oral administration (100% oral bioavailability). Methods: PTAU was administered orally to mice alone or with uridine. The plasma levels of PTAU as well as those of uridine and its catabolite uracil were measured using HPLC, and pharmacokinetic analysis was performed. Results: Coadministration of PTAU with uridine elevated the concentration of plasma uridine in a dose-dependent manner over that resulting from the administration of the same dose of uridine alone, and reduced the clearance of uridine as well as the peak plasma concentration (C_{max}) and area under the curve (AUC) of plasma uracil. Coadministration of PTAU at 30, 45 and 60 mg/kg

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R.F. Schinazi Laboratory of Biochemical Pharmacology, Department of Pediatrics, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA 30322, USA improved the low oral bioavailability (7.7%) of uridine administered at 1320 mg/kg by 4.3-, 5.9- and 9.9-fold, respectively, and reduced the AUC of plasma uracil (1227.8 µmol·h/l) by 5.7-, 6.8- and 8.2-fold, respectively. Similar results were observed when PTAU was coadministered with lower doses of uridine. Oral PTAU at 30, 45 and 60 mg/kg improved the oral bioavailability of 330 mg/kg uridine by 1.8-, 2.6- and 2.8-fold, and that of 660 mg/kg uridine by 2.2-, 2.6- and 3.2-fold, respectively. *Conclusion*: The effectiveness of PTAU in improving the oral bioavailability of uridine could be useful in the rescue or protection from host toxicities of various chemotherapeutic pyrimidine analogues as well as in the management of medical disorders that are remedied by administration of uridine.

Keywords 5-(Phenylthio)acyclouridine · Uridine · Phosphorylase inhibitor · Chemotherapy

Abbreviations AUC: area under the curve · AUMC: area under the first moment curve · BAU: 5-(benzyl)acyclouridine · Cl: apparent total plasma clearance · C_{max} : peak plasma concentration · C_0 : plasma concentration at time zero · HPLC: high performance liquid chromatography · HPMC: hydroxypropylmethylcellulose · MRT: mean residence time · PSAU: 5-(phenylselenenyl)acyclouridine · PTAU: 5-(phenylthio)acyclouridine · $t_{1/2}$: elimination half-life · t_{max} : time to peak plasma concentration · $t_{1/2}$: uridine phosphorylase (EC 2.4.2.3) · $t_{1/2}$: apparent total volume of distribution

Introduction

Uridine has been used successfully to counteract host toxicity of various anticancer (e.g. 5-fluorouracil) [4, 39, 40, 46, 61, 66] and anti-HIV (e.g. 3'-azido-3'-deoxythymidine and 2',3'-dideoxycytidine) [37, 68, 69] drugs with-out interfering with their chemotherapeutic

potency. It has also been shown that uridine protects from the toxicity of different anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive agents used in the treatment of various autoimmune diseases and transplant rejection [14, 30, 56, 72, 77], and potentiates the antipsychotic action of traditional neuroleptics [53, 54]. Furthermore, uridine has been used as a therapeutic agent in the treatment of several other medical disorders including CNS disorders such as cerebrovascular disorders and convulsions [9, 10, 22, 29, 31, 32, 36, 51, 57, 63, 64, 65, 67], sleep promotion [35], muscle performance [42, 43], liver diseases [12, 25, 71], diabetic neuropathy [27], cardiac damage [6, 7, 8, 11, 44, 48] and hereditary orotic aciduria [38]. However, the use of oral uridine in patients is limited by its poor oral bioavailability (7–8%) and short plasma elimination half-life [2, 3, 13, 41, 45, 49, 70, 73, 74, 75, 76].

Therefore, substantial doses of uridine (10–12 g/m²) [73] are required to attain and sustain the high plasma uridine concentrations (70 μ M) essential to achieve its therapeutic effect [47]. Unfortunately, such large doses of uridine have toxic side effects including phlebitis, pyrogenic reactions, and diarrhea [15, 26, 58, 59, 73, 74, 75]. Prolonged intravenous infusions of uridine as an alternative to the administration of oral uridine are also limited by high fever, cellulitis, and superior vena cava syndrome [73, 74]. Most of these side effects are not induced by uridine per se but by the accumulation of uridine catabolites [59, 60]. Therefore, coadministration of inhibitors of uridine catabolism could improve the oral bioavailability and plasma concentration of administered uridine as well as prevent the toxic side effects resulting from uridine catabolism.

Uridine is maintained in rigorous homeostasis of 1– $5 \mu M$ in the plasma of different species. More than 90% of plasma uridine entering the liver by the portal vein is degraded in a single pass while constant amounts of uridine from de novo biosynthesis are released into the hepatic vein [28, 49, 52]. Activity of hepatic uridine phosphorylase (UrdPase, EC 2.4.2.3) is the first step in the catabolism of plasma uridine delivered to the liver [19, 50]. Indeed, hepatic UrdPase activity exhibits a circadian rhythm which is the inverse of that of plasma uridine concentration [23, 55]. Furthermore, several studies have shown that inhibition of UrdPase also inhibits the catabolism of uridine and subsequently causes a profound increase in uridine in plasma and different tissues [1, 2, 3, 5, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 47, 50, 60, 62, 70]. Inhibition of uridine catabolism also prevents the toxic side effects associated with high doses of uridine that result from the accumulation of uridine catabolites [60].

This modulation of uridine metabolism by UrdPase inhibitors has been successfully used to attain the effect of high doses of exogenous uridine without the associated clinical complications. However, the effectiveness and bioavailability of the currently available UrdPase inhibitors are limited by metabolism and inadequate pharmacokinetic properties [3, 5, 18, 21, 62, 70]. For

example, the efficacy of 5-(benzyl)acyclouridine (BAU) and 5-(phenylselenenyl)acyclouridine (PSAU) in increasing plasma uridine is restricted only to lower doses of the inhibitor and does not reach the levels (about 70 µM) required to potentiate FUra activity [3, 21, 62, 70]. Furthermore, the bioavailability of BAU is severely limited by metabolism [18, 21]. Additionally, the pharmacokinetics of PSAU are altered by coadministration of uridine, indicating that uridine may affect the elimination of PSAU [3, 5].

In attempt to overcome such limitations, we recently synthesized and tested 5-(phenylthio)acyclouridine (PTAU), as a potent, specific inhibitor of UrdPase [24]. PTAU was designed as a lipophilic inhibitor of UrdPase and as such its access to the liver and intestine, the main organs involved in uridine catabolism [28, 33, 34, 49, 50, 52], would be facilitated. PTAU is not toxic in mice or metabolized, has 100% oral bioavailability, and is an enhancer of endogenous plasma uridine concentration [1]. In the present study we investigated the effect of oral PTAU on the bioavailability and plasma pharmacokinetics of oral uridine in mice. Mice have been used successfully to investigate the in vivo effect of uridine and UrdPase inhibitors on the chemotherapy of various tumors including human tumors [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 26, 39, 40, 41, 46, 47, 60]. Hence, the mouse model was used in our investigations.

Materials and methods

Chemicals

Heparinized Natelson pipettes, ammonium acetate, acetonitrile (HPLC grade), trichloroacetic acid, Gelman Acrodisc LC 13 PVDF 0.2-µm filters and ethyl ether (anesthetic grade) were obtained from Fisher Scientific (Pittsburgh, Pa.). Uridine, uracil, tri-*n*-octylamine, freon (1,1,2-trichloro-trifluoroethane), hydroxypropylmethylcellulose (HPMC) and other chemicals were purchased from Sigma Chemical Company (St. Louis, Mo.). PTAU was synthesized as previously described [24].

Animals

Female CD-1 mice (18–20 g) were obtained from Charles River Laboratories (Wilmington, Mass.) and housed five per cage with water and food ad libitum under a normal light cycle (light 0600–1800 hours, dark 1800–0600 hours) according to the guidelines established by the Animal Welfare Act and the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals.

Administration of drugs

Uridine and/or PTAU were mixed well with HPMC powder in hot water (80°C) and homogenized thoroughly using a polytron homogenizer (Brinkmann Instruments, Westbury, N.Y.). The final concentration of HPMC was 0.75%. The drug solution was vortexed well before and periodically during dosing. HPMC was preferred over the commonly used methylcellulose because the latter must be cooled to (10°C) in order to hydrate it completely [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]. Drugs were administered (0.1 ml/10 g) using 18G intubation needles (Popper and Sons, New Hyde Park, N.Y.). Control mice

received the carrier solution (0.75% HPMC). To avoid a possible circadian variation in UrdPase and dihydrouracil dehydrogenase (EC 1.3.1.2) activities [23, 55], all mice were injected at the same time (between 0830 and 0900 hours).

Effect of PTAU on the pharmacokinetics of oral uridine

Doses

PTAU was administered orally at 30, 45 and 60 mg/kg and uridine at 330, 660 and 1320 mg/kg alone or in combination.

Collection of samples

At various time intervals (5, 10, 15, 30 min, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 and 8 h) after drug administration, 250 μ l whole blood was collected from the orbital sinuses from each of five mice (lightly anesthetized with ethyl ether) in heparinized Natelson pipettes and placed on ice. The whole blood was then centrifuged (Fisher Microcentrifuge Model 235 A) at 12,400 rpm for 5 min and the plasma recovered and immediately stored in a freezer at -20° C until analysis by HPLC.

Preparation of samples

Plasma was allowed to thaw on ice and then was deproteinized with two volumes of 15% trichloroacetic acid. After centrifugation (16,000 g, 4°C) for 5 min, using a Fisher Microcentrifuge, the supernatant acid-soluble material was neutralized by extraction with a 1:2 mixture of tri-n-octylamine in freon (1,1,2-trichloro-trifluoroethane). The neutralized supernatant was filtered through Gelman Acrodisc LC 13 PVDF 0.2-µm filter, prior to HPLC analysis [1, 2, 3].

HPLC analysis

Samples were analyzed by HPLC using a computer-controlled Hewlett-Packard model 1050 liquid chromatography apparatus equipped with an autosampler, a quaternary pump, and a multiple wavelength diode array base three-channel UV detector. HPLC analysis was performed on two 5- μm Hypersil C_{18} reverse-phase columns (250×5 mm) (Jones Chromatography, Littleton, Colo.) connected in tandem. The mobile phase was composed of two buffers: buffer A was 50 mM ammonium acetate and 0.5% acetonitrile (pH 4.8), and buffer B was 50 mM ammonium acetate and 75% acetonitrile (pH 4.8) [1, 2, 3, 5]. Typically, 100-µl aliquots of treated plasma samples were analyzed with a multi-step elution protocol. A 23-min isocratic elution in buffer A was followed by a 15-min linear gradient to 75% buffer B, then a 27-min isocratic elution in 75% buffer B was followed by a 20-min re-equilibration wash with 100% buffer A. Flow rates were 1 ml/min, except for two 0.5-ml/min segments (8-23 min and 38-55 min) [1]. The effluent was monitored by UV absorption at 254 and 268 nm. Under these conditions, uracil, uridine and PTAU eluted at 12, 26 and 48 min, respectively [1]. No metabolites of PTAU were detected in the plasma.

Uracil and uridine were identified by UV absorption at their $\lambda_{\rm max}$ (259.5 nm and 262 nm, respectively)/254 nm, and coelution with authentic standards. The recoveries of uracil and uridine were more than 98% using [6-14 C]uracil and [2-14 C]uridine. The areas under the curve for uracil and uridine in the samples were calculated by the online computer. Standard curves for uracil, uridine and PTAU, prepared in double-distilled water, were obtained before and after each set of samples was analyzed and were used to determine the concentrations of uracil, uridine and PTAU in the samples. Plots of areas under the curve vs uracil, uridine and PTAU concentrations were linear between 1 and 3000 μM .

Pharmacokinetic analysis of plasma uridine, uracil and PTAU

Plasma pharmacokinetic parameters of uridine, uracil and PTAU were estimated using a model-independent approach. The area under the plasma concentration-time curve (AUC) and the area under the first moment-time curve (AUMC) of up to 8 h were estimated according to the trapezoidal rule. Mean residence time (MRT) was calculated as AUMC/AUC. Plasma half-life $(t_{1/2})$ was defined as 0.693/k, where k, the slope of the terminal linear phase of the plasma concentration-time curve on a semilogarithmic scale, was generated by a linear regression analysis of the terminal phase data. The apparent total plasma clearance (Cl) was estimated as dose/AUC. The apparent total volume of distribution (V_d) was calculated as Cl/k. Both Cl and V_d were normalized to the weights of the animals. In addition, uridine and PTAU were only administered by the oral route and therefore the parameters termed "clearance" and "volume of distribution" represent the ratios of these parameters to their unknown absolute bioavailability. Other pharmacokinetic parameters included peak plasma concentration (C_{max}) and time to C_{max} (T_{max}) , and were obtained directly from the plasma data. Co was the plasma baseline concentration of endogenous uridine and uracil observed at zero-time (0830 to 0900 hours).

Results

The normal baseline concentrations (C_0) of plasma uridine and uracil at 0830 to 0900 hours in CD-1 mice were relatively constant averaging 1.8 ± 0.2 and 6.9 ± 0.6 μM , respectively. In previous studies we investigated the bioavailability and pharmacokinetics of a wide range of oral doses of uridine (330 to 1320 mg/kg) [1, 2, 3, 5]. Therefore, when we studied the effects of PTAU as a modulator of plasma uridine concentration, we used the same doses of uridine. The bioavailability of these oral doses of uridine was 7.7% [2, 3].

The data in Table 1 show that oral administration of uridine at 330, 660, 1320 mg/kg increased the concentration of endogenous plasma uridine $(1.8 \pm 0.2 \,\mu M)$ by approximately 7.4-, 8.1-, and 9.2-fold, respectively. Coadministration of PTAU with uridine further increased the C_{max} and AUC of plasma uridine. This increase was dose-dependent (Figs. 1 and 2).

Coadministration of 30, 45 and 60 mg/kg oral PTAU with 330 mg/kg uridine increased the AUC of plasma uridine (47.2 μmol·h/l) resulting from the administration of 330 mg/kg uridine alone by 1.8-, 2.6- and 2.8-fold, respectively, while decreasing the Cl (38.9 l/h per kg) by 2.1-, 3.1- and 3.4-fold, respectively (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Similar results were obtained by increasing the PTAU dose coadministered with 660 mg/kg oral uridine. Coadministration of PTAU at 30, 45 and 60 mg/kg with 660 mg/kg uridine increased the C_{max} (12.9 μM) by 3.3-, 4.2-, 4.3-fold and the AUC (54.9 μmol·h/l) by 2.2-, 2.6and 3.2-fold, respectively, (Table 1 and Fig. 1) over those achieved by uridine alone. Coadministration of 30, 45 and 60 mg/kg PTAU decreased Cl (74.3 l/h per kg) of 660 mg/kg uridine by 2.9-, 3.5- and 4.3-fold, respectively (Table 1). When the low dose of PTAU (30 mg/kg) was coadministered with 1320 mg/kg uridine, the C_{max} of plasma uridine reached 105 μM 1.0 h after coadministration and remained higher than control until 8 h. Coadministration of 30 mg/kg PTAU also increased the AUC of plasma uridine (69.8 μ mol·h/l) resulting from the administration of 1320 mg/kg uridine alone by 4.3-fold, while decreasing the Cl (99 l/h per kg) by 5.2-fold (Fig. 1 and Table 1). Increasing the coadministered dose of PTAU to 45 and 60 mg/kg further improved the pharmacokinetic parameters of plasma uridine. The plasma uridine C_{max} reached 132 and 169 μ M while the AUC increased by 5.6- and 9.9-fold, respectively. The Cl further decreased by 7.3- and 12.2-fold, respectively (Table 1).

Plasma uracil pharmacokinetic parameters were also affected by coadministration of PTAU. Coadministration PTAU with uridine decreased plasma uracil $C_{\rm max}$ and AUC (Fig. 1 and Table 1). For example, coadministration of PTAU at 30, 45 and 60 mg/kg with uridine (1320 mg/kg) decreased plasma uracil $C_{\rm max}$ from 275 to 74, 73 and 61 μ M, respectively, with a corresponding reduction in the AUC from 1228 to 215, 180 and 149 μ mol·h/l, respectively (Table 1). Figure 2 shows the combined effects of coadministration of 30, 45 and 60 mg/kg oral PTAU with different doses of uridine on the $C_{\rm max}$ and AUC of plasma uridine and uracil.

Table 1 Effect of administration of different doses of PTAU alone or with uridine on the pharmacokinetics of plasma uridine and uracil in CD-1 mice. Values are means \pm SD from at least five mice at each time point (C_{max} peak plasma concentration, C_0 zero time

We have previously shown that PTAU is not metabolized and has 100% oral bioavailability in mice [1]. Table 2 and Fig. 3 show the effect of coadministration of different doses of uridine on the pharmacokinetic parameters of various doses of PTAU. Coadministration of uridine with PTAU did not have a significant effect on the pharmacokinetic parameters of plasma PTAU at any of the concentrations tested.

Discussion

The present results demonstrate that PTAU is an efficient inhibitor of UrdPase in vivo as evidenced by the fact that coadministration of PTAU with uridine increased in the AUC, C_{max} and C_{max}/C_0 of plasma uridine while decreasing those of plasma uracil (Table 1 and Fig 2) when compared to the values observed with uridine alone. This effect of PTAU resulted in an enhancement of the oral bioavailability of uridine (7.7%) by as much as 4-fold.

Our present (Tables 1 and 2, Figs. 1, 2, and 3) and previous [1, 24] studies demonstrate that, as an inhibi-

plasma concentration, T_{max} time to peak plasma concentration, AUC area under the curve, Cl total plasma clearance, $t_{1/2}$ elimination half-life, V_d apparent total volume of distribution, MRT mean residence time)

Uridine (mg/kg)	PTAU	C_{\max} (μM)	Fold change (C_{max}/C_0)	T _{max} (h)	AUC (μmol.h/l)	V_d (l/kg)	MRT (h)	Cl (l/h/kg)	t _{1/2} (h)
0ª	30 45 60	8.7 ± 0.3 11.4 ± 0.7 14.8 ± 1.1	5.7 ± 0.8 6.5 ± 1.4 10.4 ± 2.5	2.00 ± 0.00 2.00 ± 0.00 2.00 ± 0.00	Uridine 34.6 ± 0.8 41.5 ± 1.4 49.5 ± 2.5				
330	0 30 45 60	10.7 ± 0.6 29.1 ± 3.9 40.6 ± 3.7 46.4 ± 4.6	7.4 ± 1.9 18.0 ± 7.0 22.0 ± 3.9 29.5 ± 9.8	$\begin{array}{c} 0.88 \pm 0.25 \\ 1.50 \pm 0.58 \\ 1.00 \pm 0.00 \\ 1.25 \pm 0.50 \end{array}$	47.2 ± 1.6 87.1 ± 1.8 122 ± 11.5 132 ± 7.6	305 ± 206 64.4 ± 21.9 30.8 ± 2.3 27.6 ± 5.1	2.9 ± 0.1 2.5 ± 0.2 2.4 ± 0.1 2.2 ± 0.0	38.9 ± 4.5 18.7 ± 1.5 12.7 ± 1.0 11.4 ± 0.7	5.3 ± 3.3 2.4 ± 0.6 1.7 ± 0.3 1.7 ± 0.2
660	0 30 45 60	$12.9 \pm 2.1 42.6 \pm 4.8 54.2 \pm 4.8 55.2 \pm 5.4$	8.1 ± 4.7 22.9 ± 5.5 32.6 ± 8.9 34.6 ± 16.1	$\begin{array}{c} 1.38 \pm 1.11 \\ 1.00 \pm 0.00 \\ 1.00 \pm 0.00 \\ 1.00 \pm 0.00 \end{array}$	54.9 ± 4.7 121 ± 8.9 143 ± 13.7 173 ± 14.9	313 ± 174.1 64.8 ± 14.1 42.1 ± 5.6 38.0 ± 11.3	3.1 ± 0.1 2.4 ± 0.1 2.3 ± 0.1 2.4 ± 0.1	$74.3 \pm 22.8 25.8 \pm 2.1 21.2 \pm 2.1 17.2 \pm 1.9$	2.7 ± 0.8 1.7 ± 0.4 1.4 ± 0.1 1.5 ± 0.4
1320	0 30 45 60	15.3 ± 0.9 105 ± 6.2 132 ± 8.2 169 ± 20.9	9.2 ± 4.1 54.6 ± 15.6 70.6 ± 17.7 82.6 ± 27.5	$\begin{array}{c} 0.88 \pm 0.25 \\ 1.13 \pm 0.63 \\ 2.00 \pm 0.00 \\ 3.00 \pm 0.00 \end{array}$	69.8 ± 5.2 302 ± 19.8 415 ± 25.7 691 ± 61.7	341 ± 157 40.3 ± 12.8 22.0 ± 1.7 23.1 ± 3.2	3.1 ± 0.2 2.2 ± 0.1 2.4 ± 0.1 3.3 ± 0.1	98.9 ± 11.5 19.0 ± 1.5 13.6 ± 1.0 8.1 ± 0.7	2.3 ± 0.8 1.5 ± 0.4 1.1 ± 0.1 2.1 ± 0.2
330	0 30 45 60	59.5 ± 2.8 35.1 ± 4.4 31.1 ± 2.1 30.4 ± 2.0	9.5 ± 1.2 5.9 ± 1.3 4.6 ± 0.5 5.2 ± 0.7	1.50 ± 0.58 1.50 ± 0.58 1.25 ± 0.50 1.25 ± 0.50	Uracil 307 ± 9.7 145 ± 4.2 124 ± 5.9 113 ± 4.6				
660	0 30 45 60	136 ± 9.9 46.6 ± 6.9 59.4 ± 5.4 44.6 ± 9.2	21.1 ± 1.5 7.7 ± 1.1 12.6 ± 2.7 7.4 ± 1.8	$\begin{array}{c} 1.25 \pm 0.50 \\ 2.25 \pm 0.50 \\ 2.75 \pm 0.50 \\ 3.00 \pm 0.00 \end{array}$	679 ± 37.5 218 ± 9.1 190 ± 13.9 158 ± 10.3				
1320	0 30 45 60	275 ± 27.2 74.1 ± 9.8 73.4 ± 2.5 60.8 ± 3.3	$41.4 \pm 8.4 12.1 \pm 2.3 17.3 \pm 4.3 9.3 \pm 1.4$	$\begin{array}{c} 3.00 \pm 0.00 \\ 1.00 \pm 0.00 \\ 1.00 \pm 0.00 \\ 0.88 \pm 0.25 \end{array}$	$1228 \pm 102 215 \pm 8.3 180 \pm 11.3 149 \pm 3.6$				

^aData from reference 1

tor of UrdPase, PTAU has more favorable overall characteristics than its other two known analogues, BAU and PSAU. First, kinetic studies have demonstrated that PTAU inhibits human liver UrdPase at least three times more potently than BAU [24]. Second, PTAU has 100% oral bioavailability denoting efficient absorption and is not metabolized in the liver or the intestine [1]. This contrasts sharply with BAU which is extensively metabolized and hence has a much lower oral bioavailability (40%) [18, 21, 62]. The efficient absorption of PTAU would allow better inhibition of the unusually high activity of intestinal UrdPase [2, 47] leading to increased uridine availability (Table 1, Figs. 1 and 2). Third, when coadministered with oral uridine, PTAU increased plasma uridine levels in a dose-dependent manner (Table 1, Figs. 1 and 2), unlike BAU and PSAU which at high doses fail to improve the relative bioavailability of administered uridine above that achieved with lower doses in mice [3],

Fig. 1 Plasma concentration versus time curves of uridine and uracil in CD-1 mice after oral administration of different doses of uridine (A 330 mg/kg, B 660 mg/kg, C 1320 mg/kg), and the effect of coadministration of different doses of PTAU. Each point represents the mean concentration from five mice

monkeys [70] and humans [62]. In this regard, the differences between PTAU and BAU may be attributed to the differences in their potencies in inhibiting UrdPase [24] and/or the lower bioavailability of BAU [18, 21, 62]. However, the results with PSAU [3] are rather curious, particularly when considering that PSAU like PTAU has a 100% oral bioavailability and is as efficient in inhibiting UrdPase [1, 3]. This may be explained by the fact coadministration of uridine increases the elimination of high doses of PSAU from the small intestine [3, 5]. On the other hand, coadministration of uridine does not alter the pharmacokinetics of PTAU (Table 2, Fig. 3). These results suggest that PTAU would be better than PSAU as a modulator of uridine concentrations in vivo. Moreover, in spite of the observed chemical stability of PSAU in vivo [3, 5], the use of PTAU rather than PSAU would overcome concerns about potential toxicities from the possible release of selenium from PSAU.

In conclusion, the present investigation demonstrated that combining PTAU with uridine for oral administration, secured and sustained higher levels of plasma uridine than either alone (Table 1, Figs. 1 and 2). The high potency, excellent bioavailability (100%), lack of toxicity, and lack of an effect of uridine on the

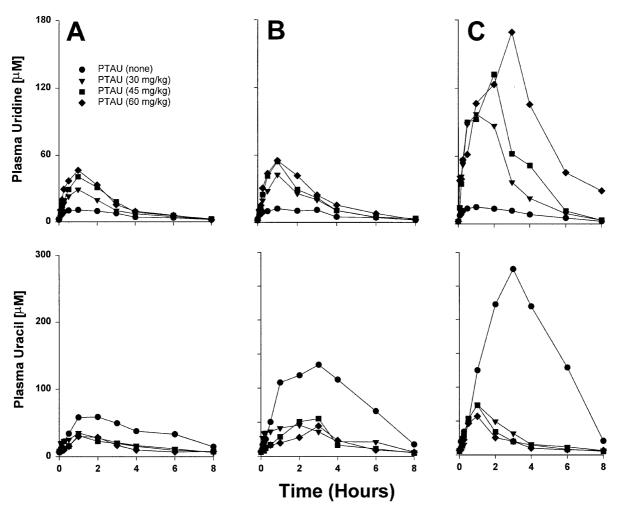


Fig. 2 The effect of coadministration of different doses of oral PTAU with different doses of uridine on the (A) C_{max} and (B) AUC of plasma uridine and uracil in CD-1 mice. Each point represents the mean value from five mice

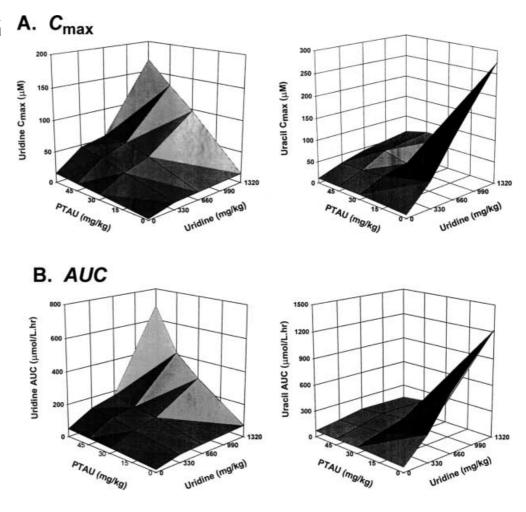


Table 2 Pharmacokinetic parameters of plasma PTAU in CD-1 mice and the effect of coadministration of different concentrations of uridine. Values are means \pm SD from at least five mice at each time point (C_{max} peak plasma concentration, T_{max} time to peak

plasma concentration, AUC area under the curve, Cl total plasma clearance, $t_{I/2}$ elimination half-life, V_d apparent total volume of distribution, MRT mean residence time)

PTAU (mg/kg)	Uridine (mg/kg)	$C_{max} (\mu M)$	T _{max (h)}	AUC (μmol·h/l)	V _d (l/kg)	MRT (h)	Cl (l/h/kg)	t _{1/2} (h)
30	0	40.1 ± 1.6	0.08 ± 0.00	87.4 ± 0.1	3.3 ± 4.1	2.3 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.1	2.1 ± 0.4
	330	34.7 ± 6.0	0.10 ± 0.04	55.2 ± 0.0	7.9 ± 1.5	2.3 ± 0.0	2.2 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.3
	660	45.3 ± 7.1	0.13 ± 0.05	48.4 ± 0.1	3.9 ± 1.4	1.7 ± 0.1	2.6 ± 0.4	1.0 ± 1.1
	1320	42.1 ± 5.5	0.12 ± 0.08	87.6 ± 0.1	5.6 ± 2.4	2.5 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.1	2.7 ± 1.0
Mean \pm SD		40.5 ± 4.5	0.11 ± 0.02	69.7 ± 20.8	5.2 ± 2.0	2.2 ± 0.4	1.9 ± 0.7	2.0 ± 0.7
45	0	51.7 ± 2.1	0.08 ± 0.00	127.8 ± 0.1	2.5 ± 0.2	2.4 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.0	1.5 ± 0.0
	330	50.8 ± 2.0	0.08 ± 0.00	88.9 ± 0.2	7.1 ± 1.8	2.1 ± 0.2	2.1 ± 0.2	2.4 ± 0.6
	660	54.0 ± 2.3	0.08 ± 0.00	101.3 ± 0.3	3.8 ± 1.4	2.1 ± 0.3	1.8 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.4
	1320	48.2 ± 8.9	0.08 ± 0.00	77.1 ± 0.1	10.2 ± 2.4	2.4 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.1	3.0 ± 0.7
Mean \pm SD		51.2 ± 2.4	0.08 ± 0.00	98.8 ± 21.7	5.9 ± 3.4	2.2 ± 0.2	1.9 ± 0.5	2.1 ± 0.8
60	0	68.1 ± 3.0	0.08 ± 0.00	170.9 ± 0.0	2.9 ± 0.3	2.4 ± 0.0	1.2 ± 0.0	1.7 ± 0.2
	330	71.7 ± 10.3	0.10 ± 0.04	100.2 ± 0.2	3.9 ± 1.0	2.0 ± 0.2	2.1 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.2
	660	85.3 ± 5.2	0.08 ± 0.00	105.6 ± 0.1	4.9 ± 0.5	1.8 ± 0.1	2.3 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.0
	1320	71.5 ± 7.2	0.08 ± 0.00	110.2 ± 0.2	5.8 ± 1.5	2.6 ± 0.2	2.2 ± 0.1	1.8 ± 0.4
$Mean \pm SD$		74.1 ± 7.6	0.09 ± 0.01	121.7 ± 33.0	4.4 ± 1.3	2.2 ± 0.4	1.9 ± 0.5	1.6 ± 0.2

pharmacokinetics of PTAU, make PTAU a promising and more convenient modulator of plasma uridine than the previously known UrdPase inhibitors or the toxic massive doses of exogenous uridine. The favorable pharmacological properties of PTAU indicate its potential for the therapy of cancer and AIDS, as well as other pathological and physiological disorders which can be remedied by the administration of uridine.

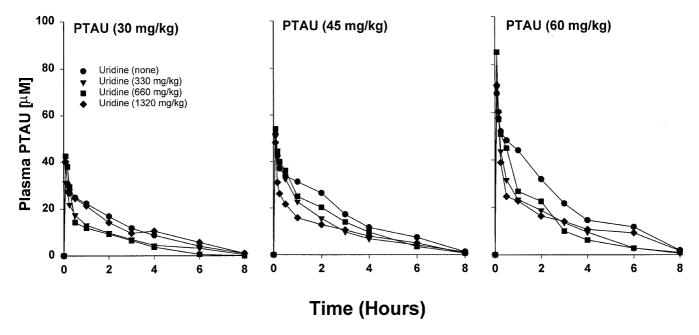


Fig. 3 Plasma concentration-time curves of PTAU in CD-1 mice after oral administration of PTAU and the effect coadministration of different doses of oral uridine. Each point represents the mean concentration from five mice

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