ABSTRACT

The absorption of gabapentin (Neurontin) is dose-dependent and variable between patients. Rapid clearance of the drug necessitates dosing three or more times per day to maintain therapeutic levels. These deficiencies appear to result from the low capacity, limited intestinal distribution, and variable expression of the solute transporter responsible for gabapentin absorption. Saturation of this transporter at doses used clinically leads to unpredictable drug exposure and potentially ineffective therapy in some patients. XP13512 [(±)-1-[[α-Isobutanoyloxyethoxy]carbonyl]aminomethyl]-1-cyclohexane acetic acid] is a novel prodrug of gabapentin designed to be absorbed by high-capacity nutrient transporters located throughout the intestine. XP13512 was efficiently absorbed and rapidly converted to gabapentin after oral dosing in rats and monkeys. Exposure to gabapentin was proportional to prodrug dose, whereas exposure to intact XP13512 was low. In rats, >95% of an oral dose of 14C-XP13512 was excreted in urine in 24 h as gabapentin. In monkeys, oral bioavailability of gabapentin from XP13512 capsules was 84.2% compared with 25.4% after a similar oral Neurontin dose. Compared with intracolonic gabapentin, intracolonic XP13512 gave a 17-fold higher gabapentin exposure in rats and 34-fold higher in monkeys. XP13512 may therefore be incorporated into a sustained release formulation to provide extended gabapentin exposure. XP13512 demonstrated improved gabapentin bioavailability, increased dose proportionality, and enhanced colonic absorption. In clinical use, XP13512 may improve the treatment of neuropathic pain, epilepsy, and numerous other conditions by increasing efficacy, reducing interpatient variability, and decreasing frequency of dosing.

Gabapentin (Fig. 1) is a structural analog of GABA with demonstrated therapeutic utility in epilepsy (McLean, 1999), neuropathic pain (Backonja et al., 1998; Rowbotham et al., 1998; Rice and Maton, 2001), restless legs syndrome (Garcia-Borreguero et al., 2002), anxiety disorders (Pollack et al., 1998), hot flashes (Guttoso et al., 2003), and numerous other indications. The drug is currently marketed in the United States under the brand name Neurontin as an adjunctive therapy for partial seizures in adults with epilepsy and for management of postherpetic neuralgia. The mechanism of action of gabapentin in most indications remains undefined, but the drug does not directly interact with GABA receptors (Kelly, 1998). Its efficacy in neuropathic pain and epilepsy may involve binding of the drug to the α2δ subunit of a voltage-dependent calcium channel (Gee et al., 1996; Marais et al., 2001).

The clinical pharmacokinetics of gabapentin have been studied in healthy volunteers and patients with epilepsy (McLean, 1995; Gidal et al., 1998, 2000; Boyd et al., 1999). Gabapentin bioavailability is dose-dependent, decreasing from an average of about 60% at a 300-mg dose to about 35% or less at doses used to treat neuropathic pain. The underlying...
The plasma half-life of gabapentin in humans is relatively short (5–7 h), necessitating administration three or four times per day (McLean, 1995). It has been shown that dosing regimens requiring three or four doses per day can lead to significant noncompliance in patients with epilepsy (Richter et al., 2003). Patients who experience sleep interference from their underlying symptoms may be inadequately treated if the effect of a bedtime dose of gabapentin does not last through the night. A more prolonged, stable exposure to gabapentin may provide several clinical benefits, including greater efficacy, prolonged duration of action, and a reduced incidence of adverse effects related to peak drug levels. However, it has not been possible to achieve this with a sustained release formulation of gabapentin, due to the lack of significant absorption in the large intestine (Kriel et al., 1997).

XP13512 (Fig. 1) is a novel prodrug of gabapentin designed to overcome the pharmacokinetic limitations of gabapentin. In contrast to gabapentin, the prodrug was engineered to be absorbed from all regions of the intestine by high-capacity pathways. The enzymatic conversion of XP13512 to gabapentin and the transport of the prodrug by specific nutrient transporters are described in a companion paper (Cundy et al., 2004). The prodrug was chemically stable and was rapidly converted to gabapentin, presumably by nonspecific esterases present in tissues encountered following oral absorption. XP13512 showed pH dependent passive permeation and was taken up in vitro by cells expressing either the sodium-dependent multivitamin transporter (SMVT) or the monocarboxylate transporter type-1 (MCT-1). The prodrug also demonstrated a 5-fold apical to basolateral preference for permeation across cultured intestinal cell monolayers. SMVT and MCT-1 are broadly expressed along the intestinal tract of rats and humans (Said et al., 1998; Juel and Halestrap, 1999; Wang et al., 1999; K. Woodford and N. Zerangue, unpublished data). Therefore, the broad distribution of these transporters should lead to superior colonic absorption of XP13512 compared with gabapentin. Furthermore, the high transport capacity of MCT-1 and SMVT should allow higher prodrug doses to be absorbed without saturation of uptake, providing dose-proportional exposure to gabapentin. The purpose of the present work was to evaluate in preclinical models the effect of the improved transport properties of XP13512 on the resulting pharmacokinetics and distribution of gabapentin.

**Fig. 1.** The structures of gabapentin (1), XP13512 (2), and gabapentin lactam (3).
Intravenous Pharmacokinetics. Two groups of male Sprague-Dawley rats (six rats/group) received intravenous bolus injections of gabapentin HCl salt or XP13512 sodium salt administered at 25 mg-Eq GP/kg. Following a tail vein injection, gabapentin HCl was dissolved in water, and XP13512 was dissolved in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH 7.4. Gabapentin HCl salt was also administered intravenously to two groups of four male cynomolgus monkeys at 10 mg-Eq GP/kg.

Oral Bioavailability. Additional groups of male rats (five–six rats/group) received the following treatments by oral gavage: gabapentin HCl salt at 25, 50, 100, or 200 mg-Eq GP/kg; XP13512 sodium salt at 100, 200, and 2000 mg-Eq GP/kg; or free acid (XP13512) at 2480 mg-Eq GP/kg (5 g/kg). The separated isomers of XP13512 were each administered to six male rats by oral gavage at 25 mg-Eq GP/kg. Blood samples were obtained at intervals over 24 h postdosing. Gabapentin HCl salt was administered to four male cynomolgus monkeys by intravenous bolus injection into the saphenous vein at a dose of 10 mg/kg. The same animals each received four subsequent treatments by oral gavage as follows: gabapentin HCl salt at 10 and 75 mg/kg and XP13512 sodium salt at 10 and 75 mg-Eq GP/kg. Animals were allowed a 5- to 7-day washout between treatments. A second group of four male cynomolgus monkeys each received consecutive oral treatments by gavage as follows: commercial gabapentin capsules (Neurontin) (2 × 100-mg capsules; 81 mg GP/kg) and XP13512-free acid in HPMC capsules (91 mg-Eq GP/kg). Animals were allowed a 5- to 7-day washout between treatments. Blood samples were obtained from all animals at intervals over 48 h postdosing. Blood was processed immediately for plasma at 4°C. All plasma samples were subsequently analyzed for intact prodrug (XP13512), gabapentin, and gabapentin lactam using LC/MS/MS.

Steady-State Pharmacokinetics. XP13512 was formulated as a suspension in 0.5% methylcellulose/0.1% Tween 80 in water and administered to cynomolgus monkeys (n = 3 per sex) by oral gavage at doses of 0 (vehicle control), 250, 750, and 2000 mg/kg/day for 14 days in a toxicity and toxicokinetic study. Blood samples were obtained at intervals over 24 h following the first and last doses of the study. Samples were quenched by addition of methanol and stored at −80°C until analyzed by LC/MS/MS. Clinical pathology and electrocardiographic telemetry were assessed prior to study initiation and during week 2 of the study. Full histopathology examinations were conducted following necropsy on day 15 of the study.

Colonic Absorption. Gabapentin HCl salt solution and gabapentin prodrug suspension (25 mg-Eq GP/kg; 2.5 ml/kg) were each administered of five to seven rats as a bolus injection directly into the colon via the indwelling cannula. Blood samples (0.5 ml) were obtained via the jugular cannula at intervals over 8 h and were immediately quenched by addition of 0.3 ml of acetonitrile/methanol (1:1) and 20 µl of internal standard. For intracolonic dosing in monkeys, a flexible French catheter was inserted into the rectum of each monkey and extended to the proximal colon (approximately 16 inches) using fluoroscopy. Monkeys were lightly sedated by administration of Telazol/ketamine during dosing. Gabapentin HCl salt solution and XP13512 suspension were each administered as a bolus injection directly into the colon of four monkeys via the colonic catheter at a dose of 10 mg-Eq GP/kg (0.25 ml/kg). A washout period of at least 5 to 7 days was allowed between treatments. Following dosing, blood samples were obtained at intervals over 24 h and were immediately quenched by addition of methanol for storage at −20°C.

CSF Penetration. Gabapentin and XP13512 sodium salt were each administered to groups of six male rats by intravenous bolus injection (1.0 ml/kg) or oral gavage (2.5 ml/kg) at a dose of 200 mg-Eq GP/kg. CSF samples were obtained via the cisterna magna cannula at 2 and 4 h postdosing. Blood samples were obtained at 4 h and were immediately processed for plasma at 4°C.

Tissue Distribution and Recovery. Male and female rats (12/sex) received a single oral dose of 14C-XP13512 (labeled in the amimomethyl moiety) (50 mg-Eq GP/kg; 250 µCi/kg; 5 ml/kg) as a solution in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH 7.4. Urine and feces were collected at intervals over 72 h. A panel of 22 different tissues were excised from three animals/sex at each of 2, 6, and 24 h postdose. Concentrations of radioactivity were determined by standard liquid scintillation methods after homogenization and dissolution. Urine samples were subjected to further analysis for potential metabolites using HPLC with radioactive flow detection (Flo-One Beta; PerkinElmer Life and Analytical Sciences).

Analytical Methods. To minimize the potential for postsampling conversion of prodrug to gabapentin, initial studies involved preparation of plasma samples at low temperature without chemical quenching. The stability of XP13512 in rat blood was significantly increased by addition of 2 mM diisopropyl fluorophosphate, suggesting that cleavage of the prodrug was mediated by nonspecific esterases. However, due to the safety issues in handling diisopropyl fluorophosphate, subsequent studies involved direct quenching whole blood using methanol. Concentrations of gabapentin in quenched whole blood were generally within 10% of the corresponding levels determined in plasma. Quenched blood, plasma, or CSF samples were frozen and stored at −80°C prior to analysis. Samples were analyzed by a sensitive and specific LC/MS/MS method for simultaneous determination of prodrug, gabapentin, and gabapentin lactam. The system comprised two model LC10Advp pumps and a model SCL10Avp controller (Shimadzu Scientific Instruments, Inc., Columbia, MD) with a Model HTS-PAL autosampler with cooling stack (Leap Technologies, Carrboro, NC). The column was a Zorbax XDB C8 (5 µm; 150 × 4.6 mm) (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA). The mobile phase was A, 0.1% formic acid in water; and B, 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile, with a flow rate of 800 µl/min (200 µl/min to the detector) and a linear gradient from 5% B to 98% B over 3.5 min. The detector was an API 2000 LC/MS/MS (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), and the multiple reaction monitoring transitions (atomic mass units) were 330.10 and 197.97 for XP13512, 172.10 and 137.20 for gabapentin, and 154.00 and 95.00 for gabapentin lactam. The injection volume was 10 µl. The method was linear for XP13512 and gabapentin lactam over the concentration range 0.004 to 2.5 µg/ml and for gabapentin over the range 0.004 to 10 µg/ml. The limit of quantitation for all three analytes was 0.004 µg/ml. Intraday precision (% CV) was <17% for all three analytes; intraday accuracy (% deviation) was <12%. Similar sensitivity and linearity was observed in quenched blood or CSF.

Concentrations of biotin in plasma were determined by LC/MS/MS using the same separation method. The limit of quantitation for biotin in plasma was 0.02 µg/ml.

Pharmacokinetic Analysis. Concentration data for prodrug and gabapentin in plasma or blood were analyzed by nonlinear mixed-effects methods using WinNonlin version 4.0.1 (Pharsight, Mountain View, CA). Cmax and time to Cmax (Tmax) were obtained by observation. The apparent elimination half-life (t1/2) was obtained by linear regression of three or more log-transformed data points. The area under the concentration versus time curve extrapolated to infinity [AUC (0-inf)] was obtained by the linear trapezoidal method. The bioavailability (F) of gabapentin after oral or intracolonic dosing of gabapentin or prodrug was calculated by comparison of dose-normalized AUC values for data in intravenous gabapentin. For monkey studies, two groups of animals were used. Bioavailability values were therefore determined by comparison with intravenous data within the same animal.

Results

Intravenous Pharmacokinetics in Rats. Following intravenous bolus administration to rats, gabapentin was cleared with an apparent plasma half-life of 1.8 h (Table 1). In contrast, intravenous XP13512 was rapidly converted to gabapentin with a half-life of approximately 5 min (Table 2). Conversion to gabapentin was essentially complete (99.2 ± 6.4%) based on comparison of AUC values with intravenous...
gabapentin. The steady-state volume of distribution of XP13512 (364 ± 269 ml/kg) was 25% of that of gabapentin (1380 ± 85.0 ml/kg). Plasma clearance of XP13512 was 13.0 ± 6.20 l/h/kg compared with 0.64 ± 0.07 l/h/kg for gabapentin. The corresponding mean residence time values were 0.03 ± 0.01 and 2.2 ± 0.3 h, respectively.

**Oral Bioavailability in Rats.** The oral bioavailability of gabapentin HCl in rats was 83.8 ± 10.1% at low dose (25 mg/kg) but decreased significantly to 47.5 ± 7.72% at 200 mg/kg (Table 1). This is consistent with saturation of the active transport pathway responsible for absorption of gabapentin. In contrast, oral bioavailability of gabapentin from the XP13512 sodium salt was consistently high across a wide dose range (64.9 ± 5.85% at 25 mg-Eq GP/kg and 71.2 ± 11.4% at 2000 mg-Eq GP/kg) (Table 2). Oral bioavailability of XP13512 administered as a suspension at 2480 mg-Eq GP/kg was 57.3 ± 9.93%. The 2480 mg-Eq GP/kg dose is a dose of 5000 mg/kg prodrug as a suspension and represents the practical limit for oral dosing in rats. The highest anticipated human doses are in the range of 40 mg/kg. Systemic exposure to the intact XP13512 was low after oral dosing of the prodrug in rats. The maximum XP13512 concentration observed in plasma after a prodrug dose of 2000 mg-Eq GP/kg was approximately 15-fold lower than the corresponding gabapentin \( C_{\text{max}} \). The formation of gabapentin lactam, a potential metabolite of XP13512, from the prodrug was not significant after oral dosing in rats. At the highest prodrug dose, gabapentin lactam concentrations were >20-fold lower than the corresponding gabapentin levels. A low level of gabapentin lactam was also observed after oral dosing of gabapentin HCl salt.

**Intravenous Pharmacokinetics in Monkeys.** Following intravenous administration of gabapentin to monkeys, the drug was eliminated from plasma with a terminal half-life of 4.0 h (Table 1). Total plasma clearance was 0.178 ± 0.015 l/h/kg, and steady-state volume of distribution was 972 ± 98.6 ml/kg.

**Oral Bioavailability in Monkeys.** Fig. 2 compares the time courses of gabapentin concentrations in plasma after oral administration of gabapentin HCl or XP13512 sodium salt to monkeys. Oral dosing of gabapentin resulted in dose-dependent pharmacokinetics; oral bioavailability was 53.9 ± 17.3% at low dose (10 mg/kg) but decreased significantly to 26.3 ± 5.31% at 75 mg/kg (Table 1). This again is consistent with saturation of the active transport pathway responsible for intestinal absorption of gabapentin. In contrast, oral bio-

### Table 1: Pharmacokinetic parameters for gabapentin in plasma following administration of gabapentin to rats or monkeys

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Route</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Dose (mg-Eq GP/kg)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Analyte</th>
<th>( C_{\text{max}} ) (( \mu g/ml ))</th>
<th>( T_{\text{max}} ) (h)</th>
<th>( t_{1/2} ) (h)</th>
<th>AUC(0-inf) (( \mu g h/mL ))</th>
<th>( F^a ) %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rat</td>
<td>i.v.</td>
<td>Solution 25</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>30.1 ± 2.95</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>1.8 ± 0.1</td>
<td>39.2 ± 4.16</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 25</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>6.85 ± 0.72</td>
<td>1.8 ± 0.4</td>
<td>1.9 ± 0.9</td>
<td>32.8 ± 3.94</td>
<td>83.8 ± 10.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 50</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>13.8 ± 2.44</td>
<td>1.8 ± 0.4</td>
<td>2.4 ± 0.5</td>
<td>76.9 ± 7.40</td>
<td>98.2 ± 9.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 100</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>22.7 ± 1.12</td>
<td>2.7 ± 1.0</td>
<td>2.0 ± 0.5</td>
<td>125 ± 18.5</td>
<td>80.0 ± 11.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 200</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>27.0 ± 3.09</td>
<td>2.0 ± 1.1</td>
<td>2.6 ± 1.7</td>
<td>148 ± 24.2</td>
<td>75.7 ± 7.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i.c.</td>
<td>Solution 25</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>0.55 ± 0.27</td>
<td>0.5 ± 0.2</td>
<td>1.5 ± 0.4</td>
<td>1.30 ± 0.63</td>
<td>3.38 ± 1.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monkey</td>
<td>i.v.</td>
<td>Solution 10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>11.5 ± 1.04</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>4.0 ± 0.7</td>
<td>59.6 ± 5.3</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>3.67 ± 1.63</td>
<td>2.3 ± 1.5</td>
<td>5.5 ± 1.9</td>
<td>32.1 ± 10.4</td>
<td>53.9 ± 17.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 75</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>15.1 ± 5.71</td>
<td>2.0 ± 0.0</td>
<td>3.7 ± 0.9</td>
<td>113 ± 22.7</td>
<td>26.3 ± 5.31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Capsulesb</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>7.33 ± 3.45</td>
<td>2.5 ± 1.0</td>
<td>4.6 ± 0.7</td>
<td>57.5 ± 16.0</td>
<td>25.4 ± 4.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i.c.</td>
<td>Solution 10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>0.16 ± 0.27</td>
<td>0.5 ± 0.0</td>
<td>5.6e</td>
<td>1.06e</td>
<td>1.77e</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N/A, not applicable.

\( a \) \( F \) is calculated relative to intravenous gabapentin at 25 mg/kg for rats (separate group) and 10 mg/kg for monkeys (within the same animal).

b Commercial Neurontin capsules (2 × 100 mg).

c Data for one animal with a defined terminal phase.

### Table 2: Pharmacokinetic parameters for gabapentin and XP13512 in plasma following administration of XP13512 to rats

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Route</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Dose (mg-Eq GP/kg)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Analyte</th>
<th>( C_{\text{max}} ) (( \mu g/ml ))</th>
<th>( T_{\text{max}} ) (h)</th>
<th>( t_{1/2} ) (h)</th>
<th>AUC(0-inf) (( \mu g h/mL ))</th>
<th>( F^a ) %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XP13512</td>
<td>i.v.</td>
<td>Solution 10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>9.45 ± 1.10</td>
<td>0.1 ± 0.0</td>
<td>1.2 ± 0.1</td>
<td>15.6 ± 1.01</td>
<td>99.2 ± 6.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XP13512</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 100</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>22.5 ± 10.1</td>
<td>0.8 ± 0.6</td>
<td>8.6 ± 7.3</td>
<td>102.9 ± 9.16</td>
<td>64.9 ± 5.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XP13512</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 200</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>34.1 ± 6.65</td>
<td>1.2 ± 0.7</td>
<td>4.5 ± 2.5</td>
<td>190 ± 15.6</td>
<td>60.6 ± 4.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XP13512</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 2000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>155 ± 41.6</td>
<td>1.4 ± 0.8</td>
<td>6.4 ± 3.5</td>
<td>2230 ± 357</td>
<td>71.2 ± 11.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XP13512</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Suspension 2480</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>177 ± 34.1</td>
<td>1.4 ± 0.5</td>
<td>3.2 ± 0.7</td>
<td>2230 ± 357</td>
<td>57.5 ± 9.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S)-isomer</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>4.77 ± 1.79</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.3</td>
<td>2.5 ± 0.8</td>
<td>22.5 ± 7.10</td>
<td>57.5 ± 18.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R)-isomer</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution 25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>3.94 ± 1.46</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.3</td>
<td>2.8 ± 0.4</td>
<td>19.3 ± 4.28</td>
<td>49.3 ± 10.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XP13512</td>
<td>i.c.</td>
<td>Suspension 25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>9.17 ± 0.87</td>
<td>0.8 ± 0.1</td>
<td>1.1 ± 0.2</td>
<td>19.1 ± 1.60</td>
<td>48.7 ± 4.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N/A, not applicable.

\( a \) \( F \) is calculated relative to intravenous gabapentin at 25 mg/kg.
absorption is limited (Fig. 2). Exposure to prodrug in these animals was minimal; prodrug $C_{\text{max}}$ was 50-fold lower than the corresponding gabapentin $C_{\text{max}}$ at the high dose. Bioavailability of the commercial Neurontin capsules (2 × 100 mg) in monkeys was 25.4 ± 4.85%, whereas oral bioavailability of gabapentin from a near equimolar dose of XP13512 in HPMC capsules was significantly higher (84.2 ± 7.24%) (Fig. 3).

### Pharmacokinetics of XP13512 Isomers

The two separated isomers of XP13512 gave similar concentration profiles of gabapentin in plasma after oral administration to rats (Fig. 5). Bioavailability as gabapentin was 57.7 ± 18.1% for the $S$-isomer and 49.3 ± 10.9% for the $R$-isomer. Concentrations of intact prodrug observed in plasma were low. These data demonstrate that there was no apparent stereoselectivity in the in vivo absorption and cleavage of the isomers of XP13512 in rats.

### Table 3

**Pharmacokinetic parameters for gabapentin and XP13512 in plasma following administration of the prodrug to monkeys**

Values are expressed as mean ± S.D.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Route</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Dose (mg-Eq GP/kg)</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>Analyte</th>
<th>$C_{\text{max}}$ (µg/ml)</th>
<th>$T_{\text{max}}$ (h)</th>
<th>$t_{1/2}$ (h)</th>
<th>AUC$_{0-\infty}$ (µg h/ml)</th>
<th>$F^a$ (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XP13512 sodium salt</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>11.3 ± 2.06</td>
<td>0.8 ± 0.3</td>
<td>3.9 ± 0.7</td>
<td>53.4 ± 4.92</td>
<td>93.5 ± 8.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Solution</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>54.8 ± 9.13</td>
<td>0.7 ± 0.3</td>
<td>3.3 ± 0.9</td>
<td>256 ± 55.8</td>
<td>60.1 ± 10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XP13512</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Capsule $b$</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>27.3 ± 3.24</td>
<td>2.8 ± 1.5</td>
<td>4.1 ± 0.4</td>
<td>171 ± 17.7</td>
<td>84.2 ± 7.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i.c.</td>
<td>Suspension</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gabapentin</td>
<td>7.59 ± 2.88</td>
<td>1.5 ± 1.7</td>
<td>3.1 ± 0.9</td>
<td>34.6 ± 12.2</td>
<td>60.6 ± 21.4</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.09 ± 0.59</td>
<td>1.0 ± 0.7</td>
<td>1.4 ± 0.6</td>
<td>2.10 ± 0.33</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N/A, not applicable.

$a$ $F$ is calculated relative to intravenous gabapentin at 10 mg/kg within the same animal.

$b$ Clinical capsules containing 350 mg of XP13512.
CSF Penetration. Concentrations of gabapentin in CSF at 2 h after oral dosing of gabapentin HCl salt in rats were less than proportional to dose, increasing only 3-fold over the dose range 25 to 200 mg/kg (Fig. 6). In contrast, concentrations of gabapentin in CSF at 2 h after oral administration of equimolar doses of XP13512 sodium salt were approximately dose-proportional. At the highest dose level (200 mg-Eq GP/kg), CSF levels of gabapentin at 2 h after dosing were 2.3-fold greater for oral prodrug compared with oral gabapentin. The CSF to plasma ratio of gabapentin concentrations was independent of dose and similar for both treatments (0.13 ± 0.02 for oral gabapentin versus 0.12 ± 0.04 for oral XP13512 sodium salt at equimolar 200 mg-Eq gabapentin/kg doses).

Concentrations of intact prodrug in CSF following oral administration of XP13512 sodium salt were below quantifiable levels at the 25 and 100 mg-Eq gabapentin/kg dose levels. At the highest dose level (200 mg-Eq gabapentin/kg), the concentration of XP13512 in CSF was 0.03 ± 0.12 g/ml, or approximately 125-fold lower than the corresponding concentration of gabapentin in CSF.

Colonic Absorption in Rats. Bioavailability of gabapentin after intracolonic dosing of gabapentin in rats was low (3.38 ± 1.60%) (Table 1), consistent with the lack of significant colonic expression of the solute transport pathway normally responsible for absorption of gabapentin. In contrast, intracolonic administration of XP13512 produced a substantial increase in blood gabapentin levels at an equimolar dose (Fig. 7A). Intracolonic bioavailability for XP13512 suspension was 48.7 ± 4.07%, representing an increase of approximately 14-fold in the gabapentin Cmax and AUC compared with intracolonic gabapentin (Table 2). Concentrations of intact prodrug in blood after intracolonic dosing of XP13512 were low and transient.

TABLE 4
Steady-state pharmacokinetic parameters for gabapentin and XP13512 in blood following repeated oral administration of XP13512 to cynomolgus monkeys in a 14-day toxicity and toxicokinetic study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Route</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Dose</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Analyte</th>
<th>Cmax (µg/ml)</th>
<th>Tmax (h)</th>
<th>t1/2 (h)</th>
<th>AUC(0–24) (µg·h/ml)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XP13512</td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Suspension 250 3/sex Gabapentin 117 ± 23.9 1.7 ± 0.3 4.1 ± 0.5 679 ± 174</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Suspension 750 3/sex Gabapentin 132.3 ± 5.90 0.8 ± 0.4 2.9 ± 1.6 22.5 ± 7.58</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p.o.</td>
<td>Suspension 2000 3/sex Gabapentin 445 ± 63.9 3.7 ± 0.8 5.1 ± 0.9 4190 ± 553</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 3. Dose-normalized concentrations of gabapentin in plasma of monkeys following oral administration of Neurontin capsules (2 × 100 mg) (closed circles) or XP13512 capsules (1 × 350 mg; 182 mg-Eq GP) (open triangles). Data are the mean ± S.D. for four monkeys normalized to a 36 mg-Eq GP/kg dose.

Fig. 4. Effect of prodrug dose on steady-state AUC of gabapentin in blood of monkeys after 14 days of repeated daily oral administration of XP13512 (open triangles). Data are the mean ± S.D. for three monkeys per sex. Steady-state AUC data for repeated oral dosing of gabapentin over the same dose range are shown for comparison (closed circles) (publicly available data from Neurontin NDA 20-235, Summary Basis of Approval, Federal Drug Administration).

Fig. 5. Concentrations of gabapentin in plasma of rats after oral administration of the separated isomers of XP13512 at 25 mg-Eq GP/kg. Data are the mean ± S.D. for five rats.
Colonic Absorption in Monkeys. Bioavailability of gabapentin in monkeys after intracolonic dosing of gabapentin was low (1.77%) (Table 1). In contrast, XP13512 gave a substantial increase in plasma gabapentin levels after intracolonic dosing at an equimolar dose (Fig. 7B). Bioavailability of gabapentin after intracolonic dosing of XP13512 was 60.6 ± 21.4% (Table 3). This represents a 34-fold increase in absorption compared with intracolonic gabapentin. Exposure to intact prodrug in these animals was low and variable. Gabapentin lactam was not detected in plasma of monkeys following intracolonic dosing of gabapentin HCl salt. Concentrations of lactam observed in monkey plasma after intracolonic dosing of XP13512 were negligible; the maximum concentration of gabapentin lactam in plasma was 230-fold less than the corresponding \( C_{\text{max}} \) of gabapentin. This is consistent with a low level of lactam present in the drug substance used in this study and suggests that no significant further conversion of prodrug to lactam occurred following absorption in monkeys.

Tissue Distribution and Recovery. Following oral administration of \(^{14}C\)-labeled XP13512 to rats, radioactivity was distributed into most tissues. Highest tissue concentrations were observed in the pancreas (96.5–99.9 \( \mu \)Eq/g) and kidney (57.3–64.2 \( \mu \)Eq/g). Concentrations of radioactivity in most tissues were at or below 1 \( \mu \)Eq/g after 24 h. More than 95% of the radioactive dose was recovered in urine in 24 h. Less than 1% was recovered in feces. Gabapentin accounted for \( >99\% \) of the radioactivity recovered in urine based on HPLC analysis using radioactive flow detection. Intact XP13512 was not detected in urine. Gabapentin lactam (0.02–0.36%) and a minor polar metabolite (0.16–1.14%) were also detected in urine. Previous studies of oral \(^{14}C\)-gabapentin in rats have reported a similar minor polar metabolite in urine accounting for \( <2\% \) of total radioactivity (Radulovic et al., 1995).

SMVT Capacity Study. To assess the absorption capacity of the SMVT transporter in rat intestine, the bioavailability of biotin, an endogenous SMVT substrate, was determined after oral administration. Two groups of four male rats received single doses of biotin as a solution in polyethylene glycol 400 by intravenous injection (10 mg/kg) or oral gavage (50 mg/kg) routes. The absolute oral bioavailability of biotin...
in rats at a 50 mg/kg dose was 82.6 ± 16.6% \((n = 4)\), indicating that this transport pathway has sufficient capacity to contribute significantly to XP13512 absorption.

**Discussion**

The oral bioavailability of gabapentin was confirmed to be dose-dependent in both rats and monkeys, consistent with saturation of the solute transporter believed to be responsible for absorption of gabapentin from the intestine. Saturation occurred at lower gabapentin doses in monkeys (<75 mg/kg) than in rats (>100 mg/kg), possibly indicating a higher abundance of the transporter in rodent species. Although the transporter responsible for gabapentin absorption was originally thought to be an L-type amino acid transporter, it is now known that LAT1 is not significantly expressed in human intestine (Prasad et al., 1999). Furthermore, we have shown that gabapentin is also not a substrate for the intestinal amino acid transporters B0, ATB0, or LAT2 in transfected oocytes, whereas it is a substrate for the organic anion transporter OCTN2 (N. Zerangue, unpublished data). The widespread intestinal expression of OCTN2 in both the small and large intestines (Slitt et al., 2002) does not explain the lack of significant absorption of gabapentin from the colon (Kriel et al., 1997). Although OCTN2 may contribute to apical uptake of gabapentin in the intestine, an understanding of the basolateral transport of gabapentin is necessary to explain localized absorption of the drug in the upper gastrointestinal tract.

Saturation of gabapentin absorption in humans occurs at clinically relevant doses between 300 and 1600 mg (approximately 4.3–23 mg/kg) (Gidal et al., 1998). It has been reported recently that exposure to gabapentin at high oral doses increased in a linear manner (Berry et al., 2003). However, this study was based on limited data from less than 10 subjects, only four of which reached the highest dose of 4800 mg/day. Several larger clinical studies have clearly demonstrated the lack of dose proportionality for oral gabapentin (Gidal et al., 1998; Neurontin Summary Basis of Approval, NDA 20-235, U.S. Food And Drug Administration). The exact dose at which saturation occurs for a given patient is presumably a function of the level of expression of the gabapentin transport system in the intestine. For drugs that are exclusively absorbed in a narrow window of the small intestine, large interpatient variability in the rate of transit through the small intestine leads to additional variability in the extent of absorption (Birkebaek et al., 1990; Riley et al., 1992).

XP13512 was designed to utilize alternative uptake pathways with higher capacity and broader distribution than the gabapentin transporter. It was hypothesized that increased transport capacity should avoid saturation of uptake at doses used clinically, allowing for absorption of higher gabapentin doses and greater dose proportionality. Higher capacity should also reduce variability related to interpatient differences in transporter expression levels. Broader distribution should permit longer durations of absorption for sustained release formulations and reduce variability related to interpatient differences in GI transit.

The pharmacokinetic properties of XP13512 were anticipated to be superior to those of gabapentin on the basis of our in vitro studies of metabolism and transport (Cundy et al., 2004). XP13512 was rapidly hydrolyzed to gabapentin by nonspecific esterases in intestinal and liver tissues. The prodrug was also a substrate for both MCT-1 and SMVT, high-capacity transporters with broad distribution in the intestinal tract. Furthermore, XP13512 displayed pH dependent passive permeability across artificial membranes. As predicted, XP13512 was rapidly absorbed after oral administration to rats and monkeys and extensively converted to gabapentin. In contrast to oral gabapentin, absorption of the prodrug showed no evidence of saturation in either species, and exposure to gabapentin was approximately dose proportional over a wide dose range (up to 5000 mg/kg in rats and 2000 mg/kg in monkeys). The maximum concentration of gabapentin achieved in blood of monkeys dosed orally with XP13512 at 2000 mg/kg (1040 mg-Eq GP/kg) was 445 μg/ml, more than 9-fold higher than previously attainable in this species by administration of oral gabapentin at similar doses (46.9 μg/ml at a dose of 1000 mg/kg/day) (Neurontin Summary Basis of Approval, NDA 20-235, U.S. Food and Drug Administration).

Initial bioavailability studies were conducted with suspensions of XP13512. In monkeys, oral administration of a simple capsule formulation of XP13512 without any additional excipients produced a 3.2-fold higher gabapentin bioavailability than seen for commercial Neurontin capsules at an almost equivalent molar dose. This indicates that dissolution of the prodrug in vivo does not limit its absorption. XP13512 demonstrates pH dependent solubility. Solubility of the free acid is 1 mg/ml at pH 5.0, and this increases significantly at higher pH. The highest dose of XP13512 administered to rats as a suspension (5 g/kg) represents the practical limit for oral dosing in this species. The maximum human dose is anticipated to be 40 mg/kg. The fact that bioavailability remained relatively high even at the highest suspension doses in rats suggests that dissolution limitations should not be clinically significant.

Concentrations of intact prodrug in plasma or blood following oral dosing of XP13512 in rats and monkeys were low in comparison with the corresponding gabapentin concentrations. Since the in vitro conversion of XP13512 to gabapentin is similar in tissues from rats, monkeys, and humans (Cundy et al., 2004), these data suggest that minimal exposure to intact prodrug will be observed in humans at clinical doses. Repeated oral dosing of XP13512 in monkeys for 14 days was well tolerated, and no significant toxicological findings were reported at doses as high as 2000 mg/kg/day (1040 mg-Eq GP/kg/day). Therefore, the no observable adverse effect level in this study was considered to be >2000 mg/kg/day. Toxicokinetic data showed linear pharmacokinetics for gabapentin exposure at steady state after 14 days of repeated dosing in monkeys. There was no evidence of accumulation of the drug. The exposure to gabapentin at the highest XP13512 dose tested was 26-fold higher than that produced clinically by a standard regimen of 600 mg of Neurontin given three times per day (Neurontin Summary Basis of Approval, NDA 20-235, U.S. Food and Drug Administration).

The two isomers of XP13512 exhibited equivalent in vivo bioavailability as gabapentin after oral dosing in rats, indicating a lack of stereoselectivity in the absorption and cleavage of the prodrug. Previous in vitro studies also showed that the two isomers were hydrolyzed at similar rates in human tissues (Cundy et al., 2004). Furthermore, both isomers of XP13512 release the same active drug and the same achiral
promoiety fragments. In view of these facts, subsequent preclinical studies and the clinical development of XP13512 have employed the racemic compound. A similar approach has been employed in the past for the development of prodrugs possessing chiral promoieties that are lost on hydrolysis, such as candesartan cilexetil (Gleiter and Morike, 2002).

The tissue distribution and recovery of radioabeled XP13512 in rats indicated that the prodrug was extensively absorbed after oral dosing and almost completely converted to gabapentin. Very low amounts of gabapentin lactam and a major polar metabolite were detected in urine; no other significant metabolites of XP13512 were observed. Distribution of radioactivity into pancreas and kidney was consistent with the previously reported distribution of 14C-gabapentin in rats (Radulovic et al., 1995). There was no evidence of significant accumulation in any of the tissues examined.

In other studies, increasing oral doses of gabapentin produced a nonlinear increase in CSF gabapentin concentrations of rats, whereas oral administration of the prodrug gave approximately dose-proportional CSF gabapentin exposure. The CSF levels for both treatments were proportional to plasma levels and showed a similar CSF to plasma ratio at all doses. This suggests that CNS uptake of gabapentin was not saturated in the dose range examined, and supports the hypothesis that saturation of intestinal absorption of oral gabapentin at higher doses gave rise to a less than proportional increase in CSF exposure to the drug. The improved intestinal absorption of oral XP13512 sodium salt gave rise to greater plasma exposure and hence greater CSF exposure to gabapentin. Our data appear to contradict a previous report that concentrations of gabapentin in brain ECF of rats determined by microdialysis after intravenous dosing of gabapentin indicate saturable uptake at doses between 7.5 and 60 mg/kg (Luer et al., 1999). Data on human CSF levels for gabapentin (Ben-Menachem et al., 1992, 1995) suggest poor correlation between gabapentin and CSF levels in a limited number of subjects at doses between 600 and 1200 mg/day. The CSF to plasma ratio observed for gabapentin in these studies was similar to that of other amino acids. There are insufficient data available to conclude a species difference between rat and human. Notably, concentrations of gabapentin within brain tissue of rats appear to correlate well with plasma levels (Vollmer et al., 1986).

Sustained release formulations of gabapentin have not been successfully developed to date due to the lack of significant colonic absorption of the drug (Kriel et al., 1997). Poor colonic absorption of gabapentin was confirmed in both rats and monkeys in the present study. Similar results have also been reported following direct administration of gabapentin into the colon of dogs (Stevenson et al., 1997). In contrast to gabapentin, XP13512 was well absorbed from the colon of both rats and monkeys, consistent with uptake by alternative pathways present in all segments of the intestinal tract. The greatly enhanced colonic absorption of the prodrug suggests that XP13512 is suitable for incorporation into a controlled release formulation. Such a formulation should slowly release prodrug into the large intestine, where it will be efficiently absorbed and cleaved, thereby delivering a sustained level of gabapentin in the blood. A longer duration of absorption would support less frequent dosing, leading to improved patient compliance and potentially reduced incidence of treatment failure. The sustained gabapentin levels may also reduce the severity of side effects (dizziness and somnolence) that are potentially related to peak gabapentin blood levels.

In summary, XP13512 is a novel prodrug of gabapentin that overcomes the pharmacokinetic limitations of gabapentin. The prodrug is chemically stable and is rapidly converted to gabapentin presumably by nonspecific esterases following oral absorption. In rats and monkeys, XP13512 provides improved gabapentin bioavailability and increased dose proportionality compared with oral gabapentin. Unlike gabapentin, XP13512 is well absorbed throughout the intestine, suggesting that it may be successfully incorporated into a controlled release formulation. In clinical use, XP13512 may be expected to improve the treatment of neuropathic pain, epilepsy, and numerous other conditions by providing increased gabapentin exposure, reduced interpatient variability, decreased dosing frequency, and reduced incidence of side effects.

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References


Address correspondence to: Dr. Kenneth C. Cundy, XenoPort, Inc., 3410 Central Expressway, Santa Clara, CA 95051. E-mail: kcundy@xenoport.com