Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2 combination knockout mice: altered disposition of the dietary carcinogen PhIP (2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine) and its genotoxic metabolites


Published in: Molecular Pharmacology

DOI: 10.1124/mol.113.088823

Published: 01/01/2014

Citation for published version (APA):

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Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2 Combination Knockout Mice: Altered Disposition of the Dietary Carcinogen PhIP (2-Amino-1-Methyl-6-Phenylimidazo[4,5-b]Pyridine) and Its Genotoxic Metabolites

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Received July 26, 2013; accepted December 13, 2013

ABSTRACT

The multidrug transporters breast cancer resistance protein (BCRP), multidrug-resistance protein 1 (MDR1), and multidrug-resistance–associated protein (MRP) 2 and 3 eliminate toxic compounds from tissues and the body and affect the pharmacokinetics of many drugs and other potentially toxic compounds. The food-derived carcinogen PhIP (2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine) is transported by BCRP, MDR1, and MRPs. To investigate the overlapping functions of Bcrp1, Mdr1a/b, and Mrp2 in vivo, we generated Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice, which are viable and fertile. These mice, together with Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3−/− mice, were used to study the effects of the multidrug transporters on the pharmacokinetics of PhIP and its metabolites. Thirty minutes after oral or intravenous administration of PhIP (1 mg/kg), the PhIP levels in the small intestine were reduced 4- to 6-fold in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3−/− mice compared with wild-type mice. Fecal excretion of PhIP was reduced 41-fold in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice. Biliary and small intestine levels of PhIP metabolites were reduced in Bcrp1;Mrp2-deficient mice. Furthermore, in both knockout strains, kidney levels and urinary excretion of genotoxic PhIP-metabolites were significantly increased, suggesting that reduced biliary excretion of PhIP and PhIP metabolites leads to increased urinary excretion of these metabolites and increased systemic exposure. Bcrp1 and Mdr1a limited PhIP brain accumulation. In Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3−/−, but not Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice, the carcinogenic metabolites N2-OH-PhIP (2-hydroxyamino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine) and PhIP-5-sulfate (a genotoxicity marker) accumulated in liver tissue, indicating that Mrp3 is involved in the sinusoidal secretion of these compounds. We conclude that Bcrp1, Mdr1a/b, Mrp2, and Mrp3 significantly affect tissue disposition and biliary and fecal elimination of PhIP and its carcinogenic metabolites and may affect PhIP-induced carcinogenesis as a result.

Introduction

The ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters P-glycoprotein (P-gp or multidrug-resistance protein [MDR] 1 or ABCB1), breast cancer resistance protein (BCRP or ABCG2), multidrug-resistance protein (MRP) 2 (ABCC2), and MRP3 (ABCC3) have very broad and substantially overlapping substrate specificities and can actively extrude potentially toxic compounds from cells. They are expressed in organs with excretory functions, such as liver, kidney, and small intestine, and are involved in the elimination of endogenous and exogenous compounds from the body. P-gp, BCRP, and, to a lesser extent, MRPs are

ABBREVIATIONS: 5-OH-PhIP, 2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]-5-hydroxypyridine; ABC transporters, ATP-binding cassette transporters; BCRP, breast cancer resistance protein; D3-PhIP, 2-amino-1-(trideuteromethyl)-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; FVB, Friend Virus B type; IQ, 2-amino-3-methylimidazo[4,5-f]quinoline; LC-MS/MS, liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry; LLQ, lower limit of quantification; MDR1, multidrug-resistance protein 1; MRP2, multidrug-resistance–associated protein 2; MRP3, multidrug-resistance–associated protein 3; N2-OH-PhIP, 2-hydroxyamino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine; P-gp, P-glycoprotein; PhIP, 2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine.

This work was funded by a grant of the Dutch Cancer Society [NKI 2003-2940].

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This article is supplemental material available at molpharm.aspetjournals.org.
additionally present in tissue sanctuaries, such as brain, testis, and placenta, where they protect these important organs from entry of potentially toxic compounds. Whereas P-gp, BCRP, and MRP2 are located at the apical membrane of epithelial cells, transporting their substrates into bile, feces, and urine, MRP3 is located basolaterally in the intestine and liver, where it transports its substrates into the blood circulation (Borst and Elferink, 2002; Schinkel and Jonker, 2003; Leslie et al., 2005).

Besides endogenous compounds and a wide range of drugs, the dietary heterocyclic amine carcinogens PhIP (2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine) and IQ (2-amino-3-methylimidazo[4,5-f]quinoline) are also substrates for ABC transporters in vitro and in vivo (Dietrich et al., 2001a,b; van Herwaarden et al., 2003, 2006; Leslie et al., 2005; Vlaming et al., 2006; Enokizono et al., 2008). PhIP is the most abundant heterocyclic amine in fried or cooked meat, chicken, and fish. In mice, PhIP primarily causes lymphomas and tumors of the small intestine, whereas in rats it causes colon, prostate, and mammary gland tumors. PhIP is rapidly taken up after ingestion and heavily metabolized, leading to detoxification products but also to activated, potentially carcinogenic metabolites (Supplemental Fig. 1; Gooderham et al., 2001, 2002; Lauber et al., 2004; Nakagama et al., 2005).

Here, we focused on the precarcinogen N2-OH-PhIP (2-hydroxyamino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine), and the derivatives of 5-OH-PhIP (2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]-5-hydroxypyridine) and PhIP-5-sulfate, which represent breakdown products of the ultimate genotoxic nitrenium radical cation that also forms mutagenic PhIP-DNA adducts. Therefore, 5-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate are considered good markers for genotoxic exposure upon PhIP exposure. PhIP-5-sulfate and N-acetyl-PhIP, the primary precursors of the genotoxic nitrenium radical, are too short-lived to be detectable in pharmacokinetic studies. Furthermore, part of the carcinogenic potential of PhIP may also be explained by the fact that PhIP possesses estrogenic activity and could therefore stimulate cell proliferation (Schut and Snyderwine, 1999; Frandsen and Alexander, 2000; Gooderham et al., 2002; Lauber et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2007; Lauber and Gooderham, 2007, 2011).

Using Bcrp1- or Mrp2-deficient mice and rats, it was previously shown that Bcrp1 and Mrp2 significantly influence the pharmacokinetics of [14C]PhIP in vivo (Dietrich et al., 2001b; van Herwaarden et al., 2003, 2006; Vlaming et al., 2006). However, since in several studies only radioactivity was measured, no differentiation between parent PhIP and its mutagenic metabolites could be made. In Mrp2-deficient TR rats, it was found that Mrp2 influences the biliary excretion of PhIP, 4′-OH-PhIP and some glucuronide conjugates (Dietrich et al., 2001a). Furthermore, in Bcrp1−/− mice, it was shown that Bcrp1 restricts the penetration of PhIP, N2-OH-PhIP, and 4′-OH-PhIP into the brain or testis (Enokizono et al., 2008). Murine Mdr1a transports [14C]PhIP in vitro, but no effect of murine Mdr1a/b on [14C]PhIP plasma elimination was found (van Herwaarden et al., 2003), perhaps as a result of overlapping activity of Bcrp1 or Mrp2. The effect of other ABC transporters on the pharmacokinetics of PhIP and its metabolites has not been investigated yet.

To investigate the overlapping or complementary roles of Bcrp1, Mdr1a/b, Mrp2, and Mrp3 in vivo, we generated a set of compound knockout mice, deficient in up to three of these ABC transporters (Schinkel et al., 1997; Jonker et al., 2002; Vlaming et al., 2006, 2008, 2009a,b). These strains proved to be useful tools for pharmacokinetic studies. To be able to determine the combined effects of the apically located transporters Bcrp1, Mdr1a/b, and Mrp2 on physiology and pharmacology, we have now generated Bcrp1−/−Mdr1a/b−/−Mrp2−/− mice. Furthermore, we recently developed and validated a liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) assay for the quantitative determination of PhIP and its metabolite N2-OH-PhIP in various matrices from mice and expanded it to include multiple phase 1 and phase 2 metabolites (Teunissen et al., 2010, 2011). We here used the Bcrp1−/−Mdr1a/b−/−Mrp2−/− mice to investigate the combined effect of Bcrp1, Mdr1a/b, and Mrp2 on the elimination of PhIP and its metabolites in vivo. Furthermore, as the basolateral transporter Mrp3 is often upregulated when Mrp2 is absent, and thus may compensate for the decreased apical (biliary) efflux from the liver (Donner and Keppler, 2001; Zelcer et al., 2005; Vlaming et al., 2006), we additionally investigated the pharmacokinetics of PhIP and its metabolites in Bcrp1−/−Mdr1a/b−/−Mrp3−/− mice (Vlaming et al., 2009b).

Materials and Methods

Animals. In compliance with Dutch legislation, mice were housed and handled according to institutional guidelines, and approval of the local animal care and use committee was obtained before the start of experiments. Bcrp1−/−Mdr1a/b−/−Mrap2−/− mice were generated by cross-breeding Bcrp1−/−Mdr1a/b−/− (Jonker et al., 2002) and Bcrp1−/−Mrp2−/− (Vlaming et al., 2009a) mice. The generation of Bcrp1−/−Mdr1a/b−/−Mrp3−/− mice was described before (Vlaming et al., 2009b). All animals were of >99% Friend Virus B-type (FVB) background and 9–14 weeks old. Animals were kept in a temperature-controlled environment with a 12-hour light/dark cycle. They received a standard diet (AM-II; Hope Farms, Woerden, The Netherlands) and acidified water ad libitum.

Chemicals. PhIP and its deuterated internal standard D3-PhIP (2-amino-1-(trideuteromethyl)-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine) were purchased from Toronto Research Chemicals (North York, ON, Canada). N2-OH-PhIP was purchased from the National Cancer Institute Chemical Carcinogen Reference Standard Repository at the Midwest Research Institute (Kansas City, MO). 5-OH-PhIP was a kind gift from Henrik Frandsen of the National Food Institute, Technical University of Denmark. Bovine serum albumin, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), and formic acid were purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) and were used as received. Methanol was obtained from Biosolve Ltd. (Amsterdam, The Netherlands). Distilled water was from B. Braun (Melsungen, Germany). Ketamine was from Parke-Davis (Hoofddorp, The Netherlands), xylazine from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO), and methoxyflurane (Metofane) from Medical Developments Australia Pty. Ltd. (Springvale, VIC, Australia). All other chemicals and reagents were from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany).

Histologic, Clinical-Chemical, and Hematologic Analysis of Bcrp1−/−Mdr1a/b−/−Mrap2−/− Mice. Histologic analysis of male and female mouse tissues (n = 6), clinical chemistry analyses (including total and conjugated bilirubin, alkaline phosphatase, aspartate aminotransferase, and alanine aminotransferase) on the serum of male and female mice (n = 6), as well as standard hematologic analysis of male and female mice (n = 6, twice within a time span of 1.5 years), were performed as described (Vlaming et al., 2006).

Real-Time Polymerase Chain Reaction Analysis. RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis, and real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction analysis on liver, kidney, and small intestine of male mice (n = 3) were done as described (van Waterschoot et al., 2008).
Pharmacokinetic Experiments. For oral administration, 10 μg of body weight of a 0.1 mg/ml PhIP solution in 20% (v/v) DMSO, and 5% (w/v) D-glucose was dosed by gavage in the stomach of male mice. For intravenous administration, 5 μg of body weight of a 0.2 mg/ml PhIP solution in 20% (v/v) DMSO and 0.9% (w/v) NaCl solution was injected into the tail vein of male mice. Animals were killed by terminal bleeding through cardiac puncture under methoxyflurane anesthesia, and organs were removed. Intestinal contents and tissue were separated.

Biliary Excretion of PhIP and Its Metabolites. Gallbladder cannulations in male mice were performed as described (van Herwaarden et al., 2003). After cannulation, PhIP was administered intravenously at 1 mg/kg as described above. Bile was collected in 15-minute fractions for 60 minutes after administration of PhIP. Subsequently, mice were killed by cardiac puncture and plasma and organs were collected.

Fecal and Urinary Excretion of PhIP and Its Metabolites. Male mice were individually housed in Tecniplast metabolic cages (Milan, Italy) and allowed 24 hours to adapt before PhIP (1 mg/kg) was injected into the tail vein, as described already herein. Feces and urine were collected over 24 hours. Subsequently, mice were killed by terminal bleeding through cardiac puncture under methoxyflurane anesthesia. Organs were removed, and intestinal contents (feces) and tissue were separated.

Sample Preparation. After sampling, urine, bile, and plasma samples were snap-frozen. Tissue and feces samples were weighed before snap-freezing. The complete organ or the total volume of sample feces was homogenized in a 4% (w/v) bovine serum albumin solution using a Polytron blender. Feces homogenates were centrifuged for 10 minutes at 11,300 g. A 10-μl volume of bile was diluted in 400 μl of 4% (w/v) bovine serum albumin solution.

Sample Processing. A 100-μl aliquot of plasma, diluted bile, tissue, or clear supernatant of centrifuged feces homogenate was processed immediately after thawing at ambient temperature by the addition of 300 μl of internal standard (D3-PhIP) solution in acetonitrile. The mixture was vortex-mixed for 10 seconds, followed by centrifugation for 10 minutes at 11,300g; 100 μl of the clear supernatant was diluted in a 1:1 ratio with 100 μl of 3.5 mM ammonium formate buffer, pH 3.5. Urine was 10× diluted by addition of a 180 μl of internal standard solution in methanol-ammonium formate buffer, pH 3.5 (30:70, v/v) to a 20-μl urine sample aliquot.

LC-MS/MS Analysis of PhIP and Its Metabolites. LC-MS/MS was used for the separation and detection of PhIP and its metabolites. Mobile phase A was prepared by adjusting a 5 mM ammonium formate solution to pH 3.5 with a 98% formic acid solution. Mobile phase B consisted of methanol. Mobile phase A and B were pumped through a Synergi Hydro 110 Å column (150 × 2 mm I.D., 4 μm; Phenomenex, Torrance, CA) at a flow rate of 0.2 ml/min.

The LC eluate was directed to an API 3000 triple quadrupole MS (AB Sciex, Foster City, CA) equipped with an electrospray ion source operating in the positive ion mode. For quantification, multiple-reaction monitoring chromatograms were acquired and processed. Calibration curves of analyte/internal standard peak area ratio versus, respectively, PhIP and N2-OH-PhIP concentrations were constructed, and a weighted 1/x (the reciprocal of the squared concentration) linear regression was applied to the data. Quantification of metabolites was performed based on the calibration curve of PhIP. PhIP-glucuronides and OH-PhIP-glucuronide metabolites (Supplemental Fig. 1) could not be unequivocally distinguished, as reference standards were not available in all cases. Therefore, in this study, PhIP-glucuronides stands for the sum of PhIP-N2-glucuronide and PhIP-N3-glucuronide, and OH-PhIP-glucuronides is defined as the sum of all OH-PhIP-glucuronides detected (Supplemental Fig. 1).

After purification from mouse urine, the identity of both PhIP-4′-sulfate and PhIP-5-sulfate was confirmed by NMR analysis (Teunissen et al., 2011). The lower limit of quantification (LLQ) of PhIP and its metabolites was 1 ng/ml.

Statistical Analysis. Unless otherwise indicated, the two-sided unpaired Student’s t test was used to assess statistical significance of differences between two sets of data. For analysis of statistical difference when compared with data below the detection limit, calculations were made based on the LLQ. Results are presented as the means ± S.D. Differences were considered statistically significant when P < 0.05.

Results

Macroscopic and Microscopic Analysis of Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− Mice. Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice were, like Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3−/− mice (Vlaming et al., 2009b), viable and fertile, and they had normal life spans, body weights, and anatomy. Adult male Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice had a 46% increased liver weight compared with wild-type mice (7.0% ± 0.5% versus 4.8% ± 0.2% of body weight, respectively, n = 5; P = 2.8 × 10−6). As previously described, the liver weight of male Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3−/− mice was ~70% higher than that of wild-type mice (Vlaming et al., 2009b). Despite the increased liver size, detailed microscopic analysis of liver sections did not reveal obvious pathologic changes in either strain. An increase (somewhat smaller) in liver weight was previously seen in other Mrp2-deficient mouse strains (Vlaming et al., 2006, 2008, 2009a; Tian et al., 2008).

Plasma Clinical Chemistry and Hematologic Analysis of Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− Mice. Plasma clinical chemistry parameters in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice did not show consistent significant differences from wild-type, except for increased plasma bilirubin levels (conjugated and unconjugated), as previously shown for Bcrp1;Mrp2−/− mice (Vlaming et al., 2009a). Additional deletion of Mdr1a/b did not further affect the plasma bilirubin levels of the mice (data not shown). Hematologic analysis of Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice showed that hemoglobin levels were mildly but significantly reduced compared with wild-type mice (males: 6.7 ± 0.4 mM versus 7.4 ± 0.1 mM; females: 6.8 ± 0.1 mM versus 7.6 ± 0.1 mM, n = 3–5; P < 0.05). This was previously also found in other Mrp2-deficient mouse strains (Vlaming et al., 2006, 2009a). Other measured parameters did not show consistent differences with wild-type mice (not shown). Overall, despite the complete absence of the three main apical detoxifying ABC transporters, the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice displayed only a few modest phenotypic alterations that were previously seen in the single knockout strains. They appear, therefore, fully amenable to pharmacological and toxicological studies.

Expression Levels of Metabolizing Enzymes and ABC Transporters in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− and Bcrp1; Mrp2;Mrp3−/− Mice. We determined the RNA expression levels of a set of genes involved in xenobiotic metabolism and transport in general (Cyp3a11, Cyp3a13, Cyp3a25, Cyp3a41, and Mrp4), as well as a number of genes that have been associated with transport or metabolism of PhIP and/or its main metabolites (Cyp1a1, Cyp1a2, Ugt1a1, Sul1a1, Nat1, Nat2, Mdr1a, Mdr1b, and Mrp3) in liver, small intestine, and kidney of male mice.

In liver, expression was significantly increased for Cyp3a11, Cyp3a13, Ugt1a1, Mrp3, and Mrp4. Cyp3a11 and Cyp3a25 were mildly (2.5- and 1.5-fold, respectively) increased in livers of Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice (Supplemental Table 1). Cyp3a13 was increased 3.1-fold in Bcrp1; Mrp2;Mrp3−/− mice (P = 0.043), but in all strains, Cyp3a13 RNA levels in liver were extremely low. Mrp4 protein was...
previously undetectable by Western blot in livers of wild-type FVB and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>+/−</sup> mice (Vlaming et al., 2009b). Accordingly, we found only extremely low levels of Mrp4 RNA in livers of all strains, even though they were increased by 28- and 43-fold in Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice compared with wild-type mice, respectively (P < 0.001 for both strains). Of the enzymes potentially involved in PhIP metabolism, Ugt1a1 mRNA was mildly increased (1.5- and 1.6-fold, respectively; P < 0.05 for both strains) in livers of Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice. Furthermore, Mrp3 mRNA levels in Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> mice were increased 4.5-fold compared with wild-type (P = 0.012). Moderately increased Mrp3 protein levels in liver were previously also found for other Mrp2-deficient strains (Vlaming et al., 2006, 2009a).

In small intestine, only Cyp1a1 RNA was significantly reduced in Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice, from an undetectable expression level in wild-type mice (>40 polymerase chain reaction cycles). Cyp3a11 was also virtually undetectable in wild-type and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> kidneys and increased 64-fold in Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> kidneys, but it was still very low compared with expression levels in liver tissue (Supplemental Table 1). None of the other tested genes displayed significant or meaningful alterations in expression in small intestine (Supplemental Table 1).

In kidney, Cyp1a2 RNA was upregulated in Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup>, but not Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice, from an undetectable expression level in wild-type mice (>40 polymerase chain reaction cycles). Cyp3a11 was also virtually undetectable in wild-type and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> kidneys and increased 64-fold in Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> kidneys, but it was still very low compared with expression levels in liver tissue (Supplemental Table 1). None of the other tested genes was significantly changed, with the exception of a 12-fold increase in Mrp4 RNA (P < 0.05) in Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b; Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> kidneys, in line with what was found before for Mrp4 protein levels in kidney of other Mrp2-deficient strains (Vlaming et al., 2006, 2008, 2009a). Overall, changes in gene expression in these strains were remarkably limited given their genetic deficiencies in major detoxifying transporters.

**Effect of ABC Transporters on Plasma and Tissue Distribution of PhIP and Its Metabolites.** As PhIP is heavily metabolized in the body (Supplemental Fig. 1), and, as only some of the known PhIP metabolites are potentially carcinogenic (Schut and Snyderwine, 1999; Frandsen and Alexander, 2000; Gooderham et al., 2001, 2002; Lauber et al., 2004; Nakagama et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2007; Lauber and Gooderham, 2007, 2011), we developed an LC-MS/MS assay for the quantification of PhIP and N2-OH-PhIP in mouse matrices (Teunissen et al., 2010) and expanded this assay for the detection of various phase 1 and phase 2 metabolites of PhIP (Teunissen et al., 2011). We used this method to determine the plasma and tissue concentrations of PhIP and its carcinogenic metabolites 30 minutes after oral or intravenous administration of PhIP (1 mg/kg) to wild-type, Bcrp1;Mdr1a<sup>1</sup>/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice. Overviews of all metabolites detected in the tissues of the three strains are presented in Supplemental Table 2 (intravenous administration) and Supplemental Table 3 (oral administration). Most metabolites, for example all glucuronide conjugates, are considered detoxifying metabolites and do not have carcinogenic potential. Also, the formation of 4′-OH-PhIP and subsequently PhIP-4′-sulfate (Supplemental Fig. 1) is considered a detoxification pathway. On the other hand, besides PhIP itself, N2-OH-PhIP and the short-lived species PhIP-N-sulfate and N-acetyl-PhIP are (pre)carcinogenic (Schut and Snyderwine, 1999; Frandsen and Alexander, 2000; Gooderham et al., 2001, 2002; Lauber et al., 2004; Nakagama et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2007; Lauber and Gooderham, 2007, 2011). 5-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate are surrogate markers for the levels of the ultimate genotoxic nitrenium radical cation that forms DNA adducts (Supplemental Fig. 1) (Alexander et al., 2002).

PhIP and its main metabolite, N2-OH-PhIP, were detected in the plasma of all mouse strains 30 minutes after intravenous or oral administration of PhIP. No significant differences between the strains were found (Fig. 1A; Supplemental Tables 2 and 3). After intravenous (but not oral) administration, PhIP-5-sulfate was detected in plasma of both knockout strains but not in wild-type plasma, suggesting that Bcrp1 and/or Mrp2 influence the plasma levels of this marker for genotoxic exposure (Supplemental Table 2). After oral, but not after intravenous administration, the detoxification product 4′-OH-PhIP was quite abundant in plasma of all strains, but no differences between strains were found (Supplemental Table 3). The absence of 4′-OH-PhIP in plasma after intravenous administration suggests that this compound is formed primarily by intestinal enzymes shortly after oral administration. Indeed, Cyp1a1 and 1a2, which can form this metabolite, are abundantly expressed in murine small intestine (Ito et al., 2007). Although Cyp1a1 expression was reduced in small intestine of both knockout strains (Supplemental Table 1), apparently this did not significantly affect the formation of 4′-OH-PhIP in these strains.

Thirty minutes after intravenous administration, in livers of all strains, 1.8−2.5% of the given dose was found as unchanged PhIP (Fig. 1B). Similar amounts of PhIP (2.7−4.5%) were found in liver after oral administration (Fig. 1B). No significant differences between the three strains were found. Interestingly, in Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice, after both intravenous and oral administration, the precarcinogen N2-OH-PhIP accumulated significantly in the liver (Fig. 1, C and D). This was not the case in the wild-type and Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b; Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> mice, suggesting that Mrp3 protein limits accumulation of this metabolite in the liver. After intravenous administration, the same was found for the mutagenesis marker PhIP-5-sulfate (Fig. 1C). PhIP-5-sulfate was not detected in the liver (and plasma; see above) after oral administration.

The levels of the parent compound PhIP in the intestinal tract (contents and tissue combined) were determined after intravenous (Fig. 2A) or oral (Fig. 2B) application of PhIP (1 mg/kg). For both administration routes, the small intestinal levels of PhIP in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2; Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice were reduced 4- to 6-fold compared with wild-type mice. This finding suggests an important role for Bcrp1 and/or Mrp2 in the hepatobiliary and/or intestinal excretion of PhIP or, for oral administration, in reducing net intestinal uptake. As there was no difference between the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2; Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice were reduced 4- to 6-fold compared with wild-type mice. This finding suggests an important role for Bcrp1 and/or Mrp2 in the hepatobiliary and/or intestinal excretion of PhIP or, for oral administration, in reducing net intestinal uptake. As there was no difference between the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2; Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice, Mdr1a/b and Mrp3 are probably not involved here. Also, in cecum and colon (the latter for intravenous application only) of both combination knockout strains, PhIP concentrations were reduced (Fig. 2, A and B). Small intestine levels of the carcinogenic PhIP metabolite N2-OH-PhIP and the genotoxic marker PhIP-5-sulfate were significantly reduced compared with levels in wild-type in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2; Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice, both after intravenous and oral administration of PhIP (Fig. 2, C and D). This result suggests...
that Bcrp1 and/or Mrp2 are involved in biliary and/or direct intestinal excretion of these metabolites. In addition, the reduced levels of \( \text{Cyp1a1} \) in small intestine tissue of the knockout strains (Supplemental Table 1) may also lead to reduced formation of N2-OH-PhIP in small intestine. However, after intravenous and oral administration, N2-OH-PhIP levels in small intestine of \( \text{Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2}^{-/-} \) mice were even lower than levels in the \( \text{Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3}^{-/-} \) mice, despite an insignificant difference in \( \text{Cyp1a1} \) expression between these strains. Besides PhIP, N2-OH-PhIP, and PhIP-5-sulfate, various other PhIP metabolites (glucuronide and sulfate conjugates) were detected in wild-type small intestine.

![Fig. 1](image1.png)

**Fig. 1.** Levels of PhIP and its primary carcinogenic metabolites in plasma and liver of male wild-type, \( \text{Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2}^{-/-} \) and \( \text{Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3}^{-/-} \) mice 30 minutes after intravenous (\( n = 4-11 \)) or oral (\( n = 5 \)) administration of PhIP (1 mg/kg). (A) PhIP and N2-OH-PhIP levels in plasma of the strains after intravenous or oral administration. (B) PhIP levels in liver of the strains after intravenous or oral administration. (C) Levels of N2-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate in liver of the strains after intravenous administration. nd, not detected. Detection limits for N2-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate were 0.02% and 0.01% of the dose, respectively (indicated by dashed lines). (D) N2-OH-PhIP levels in liver of the strains after oral administration. Data are means ± S.D. (\( n = 4-11 \); **\( P < 0.01 \); ***\( P < 0.001 \), compared with wild-type). In case tissue levels in wild-type mice were below the detection limit, the LLQ ± LLQ was used to calculate statistical significance.

![Fig. 2](image2.png)

**Fig. 2.** PhIP, N2-OH-PhIP, and PhIP-5-sulfate levels in the intestinal tract (tissue and contents) of male wild-type, \( \text{Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2}^{-/-} \) and \( \text{Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3}^{-/-} \) mice 30 minutes after intravenous (\( n = 4-11 \)) or oral (\( n = 5 \)) administration of PhIP (1 mg/kg). (A) Parent PhIP levels in the intestinal tract of the strains after intravenous administration. (B) Parent PhIP levels in the intestinal tract of the strains after oral administration. (C) N2-OH-PhIP levels in the small intestine of the strains after intravenous or oral administration. N2-OH-PhIP detection limit was 0.02% of the dose, as indicated by the dashed line. (D) PhIP-5-sulfate levels in the small intestine of the strains after intravenous or oral PhIP administration. PhIP-5-sulfate detection limit was 0.02% of the dose (dashed line). Data are means ± S.D. (\( n = 4-11 \); *\( P < 0.05 \); **\( P < 0.01 \); ***\( P < 0.001 \); nd, not detected; Sm. Int., small intestine. In cases where values were below detection levels (nd), the statistical significance was calculated assuming values of LLQ ± LLQ (mean ± S.D.).
PhIP levels in kidney tissue 30 minutes after intravenous or oral administration were not significantly different between the analyzed strains (Fig. 3A). However, in the kidneys of the combination knockout mice, a significantly increased accumulation was seen of various PhIP-metabolites, including the (pre)carcinogen N2-OH-PhIP and genotoxicity marker PhIP-5-sulfate (Fig. 3, B and C). For N2-OH-PhIP after intravenous (but not oral) administration of PhIP, the increased kidney levels were more pronounced in the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2\(^{-/-}\) mice than in the Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3\(^{-/-}\) mice. This may perhaps be caused in part by the increased expression of Cyp1a2 in the kidney of Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2\(^{-/-}\) mice, compared with wild-type and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3\(^{-/-}\) mice (Supplemental Table 1). Note that N2-OH-PhIP plasma levels were not significantly different between these strains (Fig. 1A). Small amounts of PhIP-4'-sulfate and PhIP-glucuronides were also detected in the kidney after intravenous but not after oral administration, and they were likewise increased in both knockout strains (Fig. 3B). Thus, the combined absence of Bcrp1 and Mrp2 leads to the accumulation of carcinogenic PhIP metabolites in the kidney. These increases may be due partly to reduced elimination of these compounds from the kidney, but for PhIP-5-sulfate, they may also reflect higher plasma exposure levels (Supplemental Table 2).

As previously shown in Bcrp1\(^{-/-}\) mice (Enokizono et al., 2008), the brain and testis penetration of PhIP after intravenous administration was significantly increased in Bcrp1-deficient mice (Fig. 3D; Supplemental Table 2). After oral administration, similar effects of Bcrp1 absence were observed, although not statistically significant in all cases, as a result of high interindividual variation (Supplemental Table 3). Interestingly, after intravenous administration, the brain levels of PhIP were higher in the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2\(^{-/-}\) mice compared with Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3\(^{-/-}\) mice (0.13% ± 0.03% of the dose in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2\(^{-/-}\) mice versus 0.06% ± 0.03% of the dose in Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3\(^{-/-}\) mice, \(n = 4–7; P = 0.007\); Fig. 3D), even though PhIP plasma levels were similar between the strains (Fig. 1A). This finding suggests that besides Bcrp1, Mdr1a/b may also be involved in restricting PhIP penetration into the brain. A similar effect...
was observed for the testis, although the difference between Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3−/− mice was (just) not statistically significant (Fig. 3D).

Effect of Apical ABC Transporters on Biliary Excretion of PhIP and Its Metabolites. Because the concentrations of PhIP and many of its metabolites in the intestinal tract after intravenous and oral administration were significantly reduced in mice deficient in Bcrp1 and Mrp2, we hypothesized that this could be caused by reduced biliary excretion of these compounds. To investigate this, we performed gallbladder cannulations in male wild-type and Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice and analyzed the biliary excretion of PhIP and its metabolites in the first 60 minutes after intravenous administration of PhIP (1 mg/kg). The cumulative biliary excretion of PhIP was 41-fold lower in combination knockout with wild-type mice (Fig. 4A), showing that Bcrp1, Mrp2, and (possibly, to a minor extent) Mdr1a/b are the main transporters for biliary excretion of PhIP. The biliary excretion of PhIP metabolites (sulfate and glucuronide conjugates) was also dramatically reduced in the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice (Fig. 4B). Surprisingly, whereas the metabolite N2-OH-PhIP was clearly detected in plasma and many tissues after intravenous and oral administration (Figs. 1–3), in bile of the mice this compound could not be detected. This finding suggests that, in contrast to PhIP, for this metabolite, which is formed both intrahepatically and extrahepatically (Frandsen and Alexander, 2000; Ma et al., 2007), biliary excretion is not a significant route of elimination.

The plasma levels of PhIP and its metabolites at the end of the gallbladder cannulation experiment are shown in Fig. 4C. PhIP concentration was not significantly altered, but significant increases were seen in the concentrations of the genotoxicity marker PhIP-5-sulfate (5.5-fold) and of OH-PhIP-glucuronide (3.3-fold) in plasma of Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice, possibly as a consequence of the reduced biliary excretion of these compounds. N2-OH-PhIP levels in plasma were relatively low and not significantly different between the strains (Fig. 4C). Interestingly, in the livers of Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice, despite highly decreased biliary excretion (Fig. 4B) and mildly increased liver RNA levels of Ugt1a1, OH-PhIP-glucuronide levels were significantly reduced (0.96% ± 0.02% of the dose in knockout versus 0.14% ± 0.05% of the dose in wild-type, P = 5.2 × 10−3). This result suggests increased liver elimination of OH-PhIP-glucuronides over the sinusoidal membrane in the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice. PhIP levels in the liver of these mice, like in plasma (Fig. 4C), tended to be somewhat higher in the knockout strain, but this difference was not significant (4.4% ± 2.1% of the dose in knockout versus 2.9% ± 1.0% of the dose in wild-type, P = 0.18). Other PhIP metabolites were not detected in livers of the mice after the gallbladder cannulation experiment. To investigate the effect of Bcrp1, Mrp2 and/or Mdr1a/b on the direct intestinal secretion of PhIP and its metabolites, we also analyzed the small intestinal contents of the mice after gall bladder cannulations (Fig. 4D). The amount of PhIP in the small intestinal contents was not significantly different between wild-type and Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice, suggesting that these transporters do not affect direct intestinal excretion of unchanged PhIP. However, the direct intestinal excretion of PhIP-5-sulfate was, like the biliary excretion (Fig. 4B), dramatically lower in the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice than in wild-type mice (0.67 × 10−3 ± 1.5 × 10−3% of the dose in knockout versus 14 × 10−3 ± 5 × 10−3% of the dose in wild-type, P = 6.3 × 10−3), even while the plasma concentration was markedly higher (Fig. 4, C and D). For the other metabolites that were detected in the intestinal contents (N2-OH-PhIP and OH-PhIP-glucuronides), no differences between wild-type and knockout mice were found.

Effect of ABC Transporters on Urinary and Fecal Excretion of PhIP and Its Metabolites. As Bcrp1 and Mrp2 appear to be the main transporters for the biliary excretion of PhIP and some of its metabolites, we investigated the urinary and fecal excretion of PhIP and its metabolites in the first 24 hours after intravenous administration of PhIP at 1 mg/kg to wild-type, Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− and Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp3−/− mice. As shown in Fig. 5A, the urinary excretion of PhIP was not altered in the combination knockout mice, consistent with the absence of differences in plasma concentration of PhIP observed 30 minutes after intravenous (and oral) administration (Supplemental Tables 2 and 3). This suggests that these three transporters are not involved in urinary PhIP excretion (Fig. 5A). However, in line with the reduced biliary excretion of PhIP in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice (Fig. 4A), the fecal excretion of PhIP was dramatically reduced in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− and Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp3−/− mice, to 5% and 12% of wild-type excretion levels, respectively (Fig. 5A).

Although urinary excretion of PhIP was not altered in the combination knockout mice, the urinary excretion of some important metabolites was altered (Fig. 5B). The urinary excretion of the genotoxic exposure marker PhIP-5-sulfate and the (pre)carcinogen N2-OH-PhIP, as well as the detoxification products PhIP-4′-sulfate and OH-PhIP-glucuronide, was substantially (3- to 10-fold) increased in both knockout strains (Fig. 5B). This is in line with increased kidney accumulation of these compounds (Fig. 3, B and C) and may well reflect overall higher systemic exposure levels. No significant differences were seen in urinary excretion of PhIP and its metabolites between Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− and Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp3−/− mice, suggesting a primary role for Bcrp1 and Mrp2. Because of the abundant presence of many interfering compounds, PhIP metabolite concentrations in the feces of the mice could not be reliably quantified.

Discussion

We show here that Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice, which lack all the major apical multidrug efflux transporters, are viable and fertile and show no obvious phenotypic aberrations other than an increased liver weight and increased plasma bilirubin levels, as previously found in Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− mice (Vlaming et al., 2009a). In addition, only a few minor or modest changes in RNA expression of some drug transporters and metabolizing enzymes were observed. These mice should therefore be valuable tools for studies on the relative and combined effects of Bcrp1, Mdr1a/b and Mrp2 on the pharmacokinetics, toxicity, and carcinogenicity of shared substrates in vivo, especially in combination with the previously generated single and double knockout mice for these transporters (Jonker et al., 2002; Vlaming et al., 2006, 2009a,b). The exact mechanism behind the increase in liver weight of the two mouse strains studied here, and of other knockout
strains lacking Mrp2 (Vlaming et al., 2006, 2009a,b), is not known. Likely, reduced detoxification of some compound(s) that can affect liver size causes this effect, but the modest changes we observed in expression of several other functional detoxifying systems do not suggest a drastic alteration in the overall functioning of the liver in these mice.

In this first study with Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2$^{-/-}$ mice, combined with the Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3$^{-/-}$ mice (Vlaming et al., 2009b), we show that Bcrp1 and Mrp2 are the main transporters responsible for the biliary, intestinal and fecal excretion of the dietary carcinogen PhIP, as well as for the biliary and/or direct intestinal excretion of the genotoxic exposure marker PhIP-5-sulfate and several other PhIP metabolites. The urinary excretion of PhIP was not altered in the knockout mice, but the total PhIP excretion over 24 hours was markedly reduced. Furthermore, the combined absence of Bcrp1 and Mrp2 leads to increased exposure of plasma, liver, and kidney to potentially carcinogenic PhIP metabolites like N2-OH-PhIP, as well as PhIP-5-sulfate, and increased urinary excretion of all of these compounds. As most PhIP-metabolizing enzymes, except for the mildly increased Ugt1a1 in liver, were not differently expressed in both strains compared with wild-type (Supplemental Table 1), the effects observed are likely mostly caused by absence of Bcrp1 and/or Mrp2. It appears that, when Bcrp1 and/or Mrp2 are absent, PhIP is less readily removed from the body and probably more extensively converted to metabolites, including carcinogenic ones. Since they also affect tissue distribution and elimination of these metabolites (Figs. 2–5), Bcrp1 and Mrp2 may well be involved in protecting the body from PhIP-induced carcinogenesis.
We additionally found that Mrp3 limits exposure of the liver to N2-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate, presumably by mediating elimination of these compounds, after their formation in the liver, across the sinusoidal membrane into the blood. This process could thus have consequences for the carcinogenic potential of N2-OH-PhIP elsewhere in the body. However, we found substantially increased kidney levels and urinary excretion of N2-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate in both knockout strains (Figs. 3, B and C, and 5B). Also the overall urinary excretion of these compounds was not different between Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice (Fig. 5B). We therefore conclude that although Mrp3 seems important for short-term sinusoidal liver elimination of N2-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate, this does not seem to markedly affect their systemic exposure levels. Possibly other basolateral ABC transporters, such as Mrp4, can also gradually transport these compounds from the liver (albeit more slowly than Mrp3), or other tissues may contribute to N2-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate formation as well.

Similar to studies on rat Mrp2 by Dietrich et al. (2001a), we found that mouse Bcrp1, Mrp2, and Mdr1a/b are not essential for the urinary excretion of PhIP and its metabolites. Urinary excretion of PhIP in each of the Bcrp1;Mrp2-deficient strains was comparable to that in wild-type mice, and for many PhIP metabolites, urinary excretion was even increased in the knockouts, most likely as a consequence of increased plasma concentrations of these compounds (Fig. 5). The latter may result from reduced elimination by ABC transporters and occasionally from mild increases in the formation of metabolites, for instance, from upregulation of Ugt1a1 in the liver of both knockout strains and of Cyp1a2 in kidney tissue of Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> mice (Supplemental Table 1).

It is interesting to note that the brain accumulation of PhIP was significantly, if modestly, increased in the Bcrp1;Mdr1a/b;Mrp2<sup>−/−</sup> mice compared with Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice (Fig. 3D). Since Mrp2 and Mrp3 are unlikely to play a role in the blood-brain barrier of FVB mice, where they are not detectably expressed (Soontornmalai et al., 2006; Agarwal et al., 2012), this indicates that the combined deficiency of Bcrp1 and Mdr1a/1b results in higher brain accumulation of PhIP than the single deficiency of Bcrp1. Thus, not only Bcrp1 (Enokizono et al., 2008), but also Mdr1a/1b contributes to protection of the brain from PhIP, consistent with the observed modest in vitro transport of PhIP by Mdr1a (van Herwaarden et al., 2003). The same may apply for the testis penetration of PhIP in the combination knockout strains (Fig. 3D).

This study shows that Bcrp1, Mrp2, and to some extent Mdr1a/1b have a major impact on the exposure of the body to PhIP, both its primary carcinogenic metabolites and a genotoxicity exposure marker. On the one hand, Bcrp1 and Mrp2 deficiency resulted in markedly reduced biliary and direct intestinal excretion of PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate and markedly reduced short-term intestinal exposure to PhIP, N2-OH-PhIP, and PhIP-5-sulfate as well as strongly decreased fecal excretion of PhIP. On the other hand, the same deficiency resulted in higher kidney and urinary levels of N2-OH-PhIP, and markedly higher plasma, kidney, and urinary levels of PhIP-5-sulfate. These data further indicate that the overall systemic exposure to carcinogenic PhIP metabolites is increased, whereas the intestinal exposure is decreased by Bcrp1/Mrp2 deficiency. It is therefore possible that Bcrp1/Mrp2 deficiency would have a pronounced effect on the number and tissue distribution of PhIP-induced tumors, but the direction of such effects in various tissues (increased or decreased tumor formation) may not be so easy to predict. Ultimately, only in vivo carcinogenesis studies can address these questions.

It is interesting to note that Mrp2 (apical) and Mrp3 (basolateral) are generally expressed on opposite poles of polarized cells in tissues analyzed in this study, such as hepatocytes, enterocytes, and kidney tubular epithelial cells. This might result in strongly increased tissue accumulation of shared substrates of both of these transporters, when both are deficient (i.e., in Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3<sup>−/−</sup> mice). Survey of our data, however, shows only a few metabolites that are consistently
and significantly accumulating more strongly in Bcrp1;Mrp2; Mrp3−/− than in Bcrp1;Mrdr1a/b;Mrp2−/− tissues. These include N2-OH-PhIP and PhIP-5-sulfate in liver, N2-OH-PhIP in small intestine and PhIP-4-sulfate in kidney. Given the substantial other alterations in general PhIP and PhIP metabolite disposition in these mice, we think such shifts may be difficult to interpret in a straightforward manner.

Many polymorphisms and mutations in BCRP, MRP2, MRP3, and P-gp are known, and these often lead to reduced function (Huang, 2007; Maeda and Sugiyama, 2008). There are even substantial numbers of individuals with partial or complete genetic deficiencies in BCRP [e.g., Jr(a)-individuals] (Saison et al., 2012) or in MRP2 (Dubin-Johnson syndrome). Since PhIP is an abundant carcinogen, it will be of interest to assess the effect of such ABC transporter deficiencies on the carcinogenic potential of PhIP in epidemiologic studies. Moreover, one can reasonably predict that the disposition of many other dietary and environmental carcinogens, and their hydroxylated, and sulfate- and glucuronide-conjugated activated derivatives will be markedly affected by these ABC transporters as well. Our newly generated Bcrp1;Mrdr1a/b; Mrp2−/− and Bcrp1;Mrp2;Mrp3−/− mice should therefore not only be valuable tools for pharmacokinetic studies of drugs, but also for studies on the effect of the different ABC transporters on limiting (or possibly increasing) xenobiotic-induced carcinogenesis in vivo.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank their colleagues for critical reading of the manuscript; Rob Lodewijks, Enver Delic, and Hans Tensen for excellent technical assistance; and Martin van der Valk and Yi-Ting Song for historical analysis.

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