TABLETS

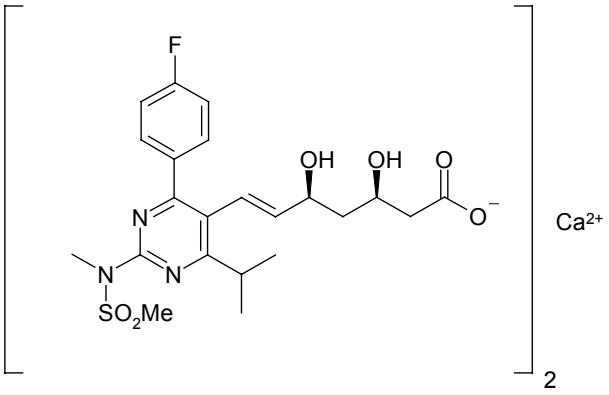
CRESTOR®

(rosuvastatin calcium)

DESCRIPTION

CRESTOR® (rosuvastatin calcium) is a synthetic lipid-lowering agent. Rosuvastatin is an inhibitor of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase. This enzyme catalyzes the conversion of HMG-CoA to mevalonate, an early and rate-limiting step in cholesterol biosynthesis.

Rosuvastatin calcium is bis[(E)-7-[4-(4-fluorophenyl)-6-isopropyl-2-[methyl(methylsulfonyl)amino] pyrimidin-5-yl](3R,5S)-3,5-dihydroxyhept-6-enoic acid] calcium salt. The empirical formula for rosuvastatin calcium is $(C_{22}H_{27}FN_3O_6S)_2Ca$. Its molecular weight is 1001.14. Its structural formula is:



Rosuvastatin calcium is a white amorphous powder that is sparingly soluble in water and methanol, and slightly soluble in ethanol. Rosuvastatin is a hydrophilic compound with a partition coefficient (octanol/water) of 0.13 at pH of 7.0.

CRESTOR Tablets for oral administration contain 5, 10, 20, or 40 mg of rosuvastatin and the following inactive ingredients: microcrystalline cellulose NF, lactose monohydrate NF, tribasic calcium phosphate NF, crospovidone NF, magnesium stearate NF, hypromellose NF, triacetin NF, titanium dioxide USP, yellow ferric oxide, and red ferric oxide NF.

CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY

General: In the bloodstream, cholesterol and triglycerides (TG) circulate as part of lipoprotein complexes. With ultracentrifugation, these complexes separate into very-low-density lipoprotein (VLDL), intermediate-density lipoprotein (IDL), and low-density lipoprotein (LDL) fractions that contain apolipoprotein B-100 (ApoB-100) and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) fractions.

Cholesterol and TG synthesized in the liver are incorporated into VLDL and secreted into the circulation for delivery to peripheral tissues. TG are removed by the action of lipases, and in a series of steps, the modified VLDL is transformed first into IDL and then into cholesterol-rich LDL. IDL and LDL are removed from the circulation mainly by high affinity ApoB/E receptors, which are expressed to the greatest extent on liver cells. HDL is hypothesized to participate in the reverse transport of cholesterol from tissues back to the liver.

Epidemiologic, experimental, and clinical studies have established that high LDL cholesterol (LDL-C), low HDL cholesterol (HDL-C), and high plasma TG promote human atherosclerosis and are risk factors for developing cardiovascular disease. In contrast, higher levels of HDL-C are associated with decreased cardiovascular risk.

Like LDL, cholesterol-enriched triglyceride-rich lipoproteins, including VLDL, IDL, and remnants, can also promote atherosclerosis. Elevated plasma triglycerides are frequently found with low HDL-C levels and small LDL particles, as well as in association with non-lipid metabolic risk factors for coronary heart disease (CHD). As such, total plasma TG has not consistently been shown to be an independent risk factor for CHD. Furthermore, the independent effect of raising HDL or lowering TG on the risk of coronary and cardiovascular morbidity and mortality has not been determined.

Mechanism of Action: Rosuvastatin is a selective and competitive inhibitor of HMG-CoA reductase, the rate-limiting enzyme that converts 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A to mevalonate, a precursor of cholesterol. *In vivo* studies in animals, and *in vitro* studies in cultured animal and human cells have shown rosuvastatin to have a high uptake into, and selectivity for, action in the liver, the target organ for cholesterol lowering. In *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies, rosuvastatin produces its lipid-modifying effects in two ways. First, it increases the number of hepatic LDL receptors on the cell-surface to enhance uptake and catabolism of LDL. Second, rosuvastatin inhibits hepatic synthesis of VLDL, which reduces the total number of VLDL and LDL particles.

Rosuvastatin reduces total cholesterol (total-C), LDL-C, ApoB, and nonHDL-C (total cholesterol minus HDL-C) in patients with homozygous and heterozygous familial hypercholesterolemia (FH), nonfamilial forms of hypercholesterolemia, and mixed dyslipidemia. Rosuvastatin also reduces TG and produces increases in HDL-C. Rosuvastatin reduces total-C, LDL-C, VLDL-cholesterol (VLDL-C), ApoB, nonHDL-C and TG, and increases HDL-C in patients with isolated hypertriglyceridemia. The effect of rosuvastatin on cardiovascular morbidity and mortality has not been determined.

Pharmacokinetics and Drug Metabolism

Absorption: In clinical pharmacology studies in man, peak plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin were reached 3 to 5 hours following oral dosing. Both peak concentration (C_{max}) and area under the plasma concentration-time curve (AUC) increased in approximate proportion to rosuvastatin dose. The absolute bioavailability of rosuvastatin is approximately 20%.

Administration of rosuvastatin with food decreased the rate of drug absorption by 20% as assessed by C_{max}, but there was no effect on the extent of absorption as assessed by AUC.

Plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin do not differ following evening or morning drug administration.

Significant LDL-C reductions are seen when rosuvastatin is given with or without food, and regardless of the time of day of drug administration.

Distribution: Mean volume of distribution at steady-state of rosuvastatin is approximately 134 liters. Rosuvastatin is 88% bound to plasma proteins, mostly albumin. This binding is reversible and independent of plasma concentrations.

Metabolism: Rosuvastatin is not extensively metabolized; approximately 10% of a radiolabeled dose is recovered as metabolite. The major metabolite is N-desmethyl rosuvastatin, which is formed principally by cytochrome P450 2C9, and *in vitro* studies have demonstrated that N-desmethyl rosuvastatin has approximately one-sixth to one-half the HMG-CoA reductase inhibitory activity of rosuvastatin. Overall, greater than 90% of active plasma HMG-CoA reductase inhibitory activity is accounted for by rosuvastatin.

Excretion: Following oral administration, rosuvastatin and its metabolites are primarily excreted in the feces (90%). The elimination half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of rosuvastatin is approximately 19 hours.

After an intravenous dose, approximately 28% of total body clearance was via the renal route, and 72% by the hepatic route.

Special Populations

Race: A population pharmacokinetic analysis revealed no clinically relevant differences in pharmacokinetics among Caucasian, Hispanic, and Black or Afro-Caribbean groups. However, pharmacokinetic studies show an approximate 2-fold elevation in median exposure (AUC) in Japanese subjects residing in Japan and in Chinese subjects residing in Singapore when compared with Caucasians residing in North America and Europe. No studies directly examining Asian ethnic populations residing in the U.S. are available, so the contribution of environmental and genetic factors to the observed increases in rosuvastatin drug levels have not been determined. (See WARNINGS, Myopathy/Rhabdomyolysis, and PRECAUTIONS, General.)

Gender: There were no differences in plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin between men and women.

Geriatric: There were no differences in plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin between the nonelderly and elderly populations (age ≥65 years).

Pediatric: In a pharmacokinetic study, 18 patients (9 boys and 9 girls) 10 to 17 years of age with heterozygous FH received single and multiple oral doses of rosuvastatin. Both C_{max} and AUC of rosuvastatin were similar to values observed in adult subjects administered the same doses.

Renal Insufficiency: Mild to moderate renal impairment (creatinine clearance ≥ 30 mL/min/1.73m^2) had no influence on plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin when oral doses of 20 mg rosuvastatin were administered for 14 days. However, plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin increased to a clinically significant extent (about 3-fold) in patients with severe renal impairment (CL_{cr} < 30 mL/min/1.73m^2) compared with healthy subjects (CL_{cr} > 80 mL/min/1.73m^2) (see PRECAUTIONS, General).

Hemodialysis: Steady-state plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin in patients on chronic hemodialysis were approximately 50% greater compared with healthy volunteer subjects with normal renal function.

Hepatic Insufficiency: In patients with chronic alcohol liver disease, plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin were modestly increased. In patients with Child-Pugh A disease, C_{max} and AUC were increased by 60% and 5%, respectively, as compared with patients with normal liver function. In patients with Child-Pugh B disease, C_{max} and AUC were increased 100% and 21%, respectively, compared with patients with normal liver function (see CONTRAINDICATIONS and WARNINGS, Liver Enzymes).

Drug-Drug Interactions

Cytochrome P450 3A4: *In vitro* and *in vivo* data indicate that rosuvastatin clearance is not dependent on metabolism by cytochrome P450 3A4 to a clinically significant extent. This has been confirmed in studies with known cytochrome P450 3A4 inhibitors (ketoconazole, erythromycin, itraconazole).

Ketoconazole: Coadministration of ketoconazole (200 mg twice daily for 7 days) with rosuvastatin (80 mg) resulted in no change in plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin.

Erythromycin: Coadministration of erythromycin (500 mg four times daily for 7 days) with rosuvastatin (80 mg) decreased AUC and C_{max} of rosuvastatin by 20% and 31%, respectively. These reductions are not considered clinically significant.

Itraconazole: Itraconazole (200 mg once daily for 5 days) resulted in a 39% and 28% increase in AUC of rosuvastatin after 10 mg and 80 mg dosing, respectively. These increases are not considered clinically significant.

Fluconazole: Coadministration of fluconazole (200 mg once daily for 11 days) with rosuvastatin (80 mg) resulted in a 14% increase in AUC of rosuvastatin. This increase is not considered clinically significant.

Cyclosporine: Coadministration of cyclosporine with rosuvastatin resulted in no significant changes in cyclosporine plasma concentrations. However, C_{max} and AUC of rosuvastatin increased 11- and 7-fold, respectively, compared with historical data in healthy subjects. These increases are considered to be clinically significant (see PRECAUTIONS, Drug Interactions, WARNINGS, Myopathy/Rhabdomyolysis, and DOSAGE AND ADMINISTRATION).

Warfarin: Coadministration of warfarin (20 mg) with rosuvastatin (40 mg) did not change warfarin plasma concentrations but increased the International Normalized Ratio (INR) (see PRECAUTIONS, Drug Interactions).

Digoxin: Coadministration of digoxin (0.5 mg) with rosuvastatin (40 mg) resulted in no change to digoxin plasma concentrations.

Fenofibrate: Coadministration of fenofibrate (67 mg three times daily) with rosuvastatin (10 mg) resulted in no significant changes in plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin or fenofibrate (see PRECAUTIONS, Drug Interactions, and WARNINGS, Myopathy/Rhabdomyolysis).

Gemfibrozil: Coadministration of gemfibrozil (600 mg twice daily for 7 days) with rosuvastatin (80 mg) resulted in a 90% and 120% increase for AUC and C_{max} of rosuvastatin, respectively. This increase is considered to be clinically significant (see PRECAUTIONS, Drug Interactions, WARNINGS, Myopathy/Rhabdomyolysis, DOSAGE AND ADMINISTRATION).

Antacid: Coadministration of an antacid (aluminum and magnesium hydroxide combination) with rosuvastatin (40 mg) resulted in a decrease in plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin by 54%. However, when the antacid was given 2 hours after rosuvastatin, there were no clinically significant changes in plasma concentrations of rosuvastatin (see PRECAUTIONS, Information for Patients).

Oral contraceptives: Coadministration of oral contraceptives (ethinyl estradiol and norgestrel) with rosuvastatin resulted in an increase in plasma concentrations of ethinyl estradiol and norgestrel by 26% and 34%, respectively.

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