

# The Pharmacokinetics of Single-Inhaler Triple Therapy: A Systematic Reviews

## ABSTRACT

**Background:** Single inhaler triple therapy (SITT), combining an inhaled corticosteroid, a long-acting  $\beta_2$ -agonist, and a long-acting muscarinic antagonist, is recommended for patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) who remain symptomatic or experience recurrent exacerbations. Although its clinical benefits are well established, pharmacokinetic evidence across healthy subjects and patients with COPD remains fragmented and requires systematic evaluation. **Methods:** This systematic review was conducted in accordance with the PRISMA 2020 guidelines. Electronic databases were systematically searched to identify clinical and population pharmacokinetic studies evaluating SITT in healthy volunteers and patients with COPD. Studies were selected based on predefined eligibility criteria. Risk of bias was assessed using standardized appraisal tools, and findings were synthesized narratively, focusing on key pharmacokinetic parameters. **Results:** Included studies consistently reported maximum plasma concentration, area under the concentration–time curve, and time to reach maximum concentration for individual SITT components. Overall, systemic exposure of inhaled corticosteroids, long-acting  $\beta_2$ -agonists, and long-acting muscarinic antagonists administered as SITT was comparable to that observed with dual- or single-component inhaled therapies. No clinically meaningful accumulation was identified with repeated dosing. Variability in pharmacokinetic profiles was primarily associated with population characteristics, disease status, and inhalation technique. **Conclusion:** Current evidence indicates that SITT demonstrates predictable pharmacokinetic behavior with limited systemic exposure in both healthy subjects and patients with COPD. These findings support its clinical use as a pharmacokinetically stable and effective therapeutic option.

Keywords: Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; Single inhaler triple therapy; Pharmacokinetics; Systematic review

## ABSTRAK

**Latar Belakang:** *Single inhaler triple therapy* (SITT) yang menggabungkan kortikosteroid inhalasi, agonis  $\beta_2$  kerja panjang, dan antagonis muskarinik kerja panjang, direkomendasikan bagi pasien penyakit paru obstruktif kronis (PPOK) yang tetap bergejala atau mengalami eksaserbasi berulang. Meskipun manfaat klinisnya telah terbukti dengan baik, bukti farmakokinetik SITT pada individu sehat dan pasien PPOK masih tersebar dan memerlukan evaluasi sistematis. **Metode:** Ulasan sistematis ini dilakukan sesuai dengan pedoman PRISMA 2020. Basis data elektronik ditelusuri secara sistematis untuk mengidentifikasi studi farmakokinetik klinis dan populasi yang mengevaluasi SITT pada relawan sehat dan pasien PPOK. Studi diseleksi berdasarkan kriteria inklusi dan eksklusi yang telah ditetapkan sebelumnya. Risiko bias dinilai menggunakan alat penilaian metodologis standar, dan hasil disintesis secara naratif dengan fokus pada parameter farmakokinetik utama. **Hasil:** Studi yang disertakan secara konsisten melaporkan konsentrasi plasma maksimum, luas area di bawah kurva konsentrasi–waktu, dan waktu pada konsentrasi puncak dari masing-masing komponen SITT. Secara keseluruhan, paparan sistemik kortikosteroid inhalasi, agonis  $\beta_2$  kerja panjang, dan antagonis muskarinik kerja panjang yang diberikan sebagai SITT sebanding dengan terapi inhalasi tunggal atau kombinasi ganda. Tidak ditemukan akumulasi sistemik yang bermakna secara klinis pada penggunaan berulang. Variabilitas farmakokinetik terutama berkaitan dengan karakteristik populasi, status penyakit, dan teknik inhalasi. **Kesimpulan:** Bukti yang tersedia menunjukkan bahwa SITT memiliki profil farmakokinetik yang dapat diprediksi dengan paparan sistemik yang terbatas pada individu sehat maupun pasien PPOK. Temuan ini mendukung penggunaan SITT sebagai pilihan terapi yang stabil secara farmakokinetik dan efektif secara klinis.

Kata kunci: Penyakit paru obstruktif kronis; Inhaler tunggal tiga komponen; Farmakokinetika; Ulasan sistematis

## INTRODUCTION

53 Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is a progressive respiratory condition marked by  
54 enduring airflow restriction and chronic airway inflammation, and it continues to be a primary cause of  
55 morbidity and mortality globally (Agustí et al., 2023). Patients who persist with symptoms or recurrent  
56 exacerbations despite dual inhaled therapy should escalate to inhaled triple therapy, which includes an  
57 inhaled corticosteroid (ICS), a long-acting  $\beta_2$ -agonist (LABA), and a long-acting muscarinic antagonist  
58 (LAMA), as per international guideline (Suissa et al., 2022). Extensive clinical trials have shown that  
59 triple therapy improves pulmonary function and reduces the likelihood of exacerbations compared with  
60 dual regimens (Lipson et al., 2017). The development of single-inhaler triple therapy (SITT)  
61 formulations, such as fluticasone furoate/umeclidinium/vilanterol,  
62 budesonide/glycopyrronium/formoterol, and beclomethasone dipropionate/formoterol/glycopyrronium,  
63 aims to optimize treatment and improve adherence while maintaining efficacy (Young et al., 2025). The  
64 combination of three medicines with distinct pharmacological characteristics in a single inhaler raises  
65 significant questions about their pharmacokinetic behavior.

66 COPD affects approximately 10.3% of the global population, corresponding to nearly 392 million  
67 individuals worldwide, creating a substantial demand for effective long-term inhalation therapies (Di  
68 Marco et al., 2025). Within this context, SITT represents 28.2% of triple-therapy initiations in France  
69 and 21.9–35.8% of triple-therapy users in Spain, while approximately 10.5% of diagnosed COPD  
70 patients receive triple therapy overall (Alcázar-Navarrete et al., 2022; Deslee et al., 2023; Di Marco et  
71 al., 2025). Across epidemiological cohorts, SITT users are typically older adults (mean age 67–75 years)  
72 and predominantly male (63–74%), with moderate ( $\approx 62\%$ ) to severe (26.5–37%) airflow limitation, and  
73 approximately 84% of initiations occur following escalation from dual therapy (Alcázar-Navarrete et  
74 al., 2022; Deslee et al., 2023). Real-world data further indicate 12-month persistence rates of 62–64%,  
75 compared with 52–54% for multiple-inhaler triple therapy, alongside 32–35% lower risk of moderate-  
76 to-severe exacerbations and approximately 33% lower all-cause mortality (González-González et al.,  
77 2025).

78 Inhaled therapies aim to administer medications directly to the lungs while reducing systemic exposure;  
79 however, detectable plasma concentrations of ICS, LABA, and LAMA components are consistently  
80 noted (Brealey et al., 2015). Clinical and population pharmacokinetic studies in healthy individuals and  
81 COPD patients have assessed parameters including maximum concentration ( $C_{\max}$ ), area under the  
82 concentration–time curve (AUC), and time to reach maximum concentration ( $t_{\max}$ ) for SITT  
83 components. These trials indicate that systemic exposure from SITT parallels that of the same  
84 medications used in monotherapy or dual therapy, with no clinically significant accumulation with  
85 prolonged usage (Dunn et al., 2020). Pharmacokinetic variability may arise from variations in illness  
86 severity, lung function, and inhalation technique, thereby affecting both efficacy and safety (Bourbeau  
87 et al., 2021).

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88 A comprehensive synthesis of existing pharmacokinetic research is essential to facilitate clinical and  
89 regulatory decision-making. This systematic review seeks to synthesize clinical pharmacokinetic data  
90 on single-inhaler triple therapy in healthy volunteers and COPD patients, emphasizing systemic  
91 exposure to ICS, LABA, and LAMA components and variations across populations. This review aims  
92 to assess the relationship between the pharmacokinetic properties of SITT and its therapeutic efficacy  
93 and safety in the management of COPD, in accordance with PRISMA recommendations, thereby  
94 providing a succinct scientific foundation for improved, personalized treatment regimens.

## 95 **METHODS**

### 96 **Study Protocol and Eligibility Criteria**

97 We adhered to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA)  
98 guidelines in the execution and documentation of systematic reviews. The primary objective was to  
99 identify, evaluate, and synthesize clinical evidence on the pharmacokinetics of triple inhaler therapy,  
100 specifically the combination of inhaled corticosteroids (ICS), a long-acting  $\beta$ 2-agonist (LABA), and a  
101 long-acting muscarinic antagonist (LAMA). The eligibility criteria were defined using the PICOS  
102 framework. We included studies involving adult patients with or without Chronic Obstructive  
103 Pulmonary Disease (COPD). The intervention of interest was single-inhaler triple therapy (SITT), such  
104 as fluticasone furoate/umeclidinium/vilanterol (FF/UMEC/VI), budesonide/glycopyrronium/formoterol  
105 (BGF), and beclomethasone dipropionate/formoterol/glycopyrronium (BDP/FF/GB). Studies were  
106 eligible if they compared these interventions against multiple-inhaler triple therapy (MITT), dual  
107 therapies (LABA/LAMA or ICS/LABA), or monotherapies. The outcomes focused on key  
108 pharmacokinetic parameters, including maximum plasma concentration ( $C_{max}$ ), area under the curve  
109 (AUC), and time to reach maximum concentration ( $t_{max}$ ). The study designs included randomized  
110 controlled trials (RCTs), crossover trials, and clinical pharmacokinetic studies. Conversely, studies were  
111 excluded if they met any of the following criteria: patients diagnosed with primary asthma or Asthma-  
112 COPD Overlap (ACO); preclinical research, including in vitro models or animal studies; non-original  
113 research articles, such as case reports, literature reviews, editorials, and conference abstracts with  
114 insufficient data; and studies published in languages other than English where no official translation was  
115 available.

### 116 **Search Strategy and Study Selection**

117 A comprehensive systematic search was performed across electronic databases, including PubMed,  
118 ScienceDirect, and Scopus, from inception to December 2025. To ensure a maximum retrieval of  
119 relevant studies and considering the limited volume of existing literature on this topic, no restrictions  
120 were applied regarding the year of publication. The search strategy employed a combination of Medical  
121 Subject Headings (MeSH) and free-text keywords: ("Pulmonary Disease, Chronic Obstructive" OR

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122 "COPD") AND ("Triple Therapy" OR "Single Inhaler" OR "Fixed-dose combination") AND  
123 ("Pharmacokinetics" OR "Bioavailability" OR "Lung Deposition") AND ("Clinical Efficacy" OR  
124 "Safety"). To ensure literature saturation, the reference lists of retrieved articles and relevant review  
125 papers were manually screened. After removing duplicates using reference management software, two  
126 independent reviewers screened the titles and abstracts. Full-text versions of potentially eligible studies  
127 were then independently assessed for final inclusion. Any disagreements between the reviewers were  
128 resolved through discussion.

### 129 **Data Extraction and Quality Assessment**

130 Data extraction was performed by two independent reviewers using a standardized electronic data  
131 collection form. Discrepancies were resolved through consensus. The extracted data were categorized  
132 into two primary domains. First, general study characteristics were recorded, including the primary  
133 author, year of publication, country of origin, study design, sample size, outcome measures, comparator  
134 groups, and specific dose regimens. Second, pharmacokinetic parameters were systematically tabulated  
135 to capture dose-specific data, including peak plasma concentration ( $C_{max}$ ), area under the curve (AUC),  
136 and time to reach maximum concentration ( $t_{max}$ ). This dual-structured extraction approach ensured a  
137 comprehensive overview of both the clinical context and the technical pharmacological profile of single-  
138 inhaler triple therapy.

139 The methodological quality assessment of the included studies was rigorously evaluated using the  
140 Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) checklists. Depending on the study design, the appropriate  
141 CASP tool (CASP Randomized Controlled Trials Checklist and CASP Cohort Study Checklist) was  
142 applied. Each study was assessed across key domains, including the clarity of the research objective, the  
143 appropriateness of the study design, recruitment strategy, minimization of bias, and the precision and  
144 applicability of the results. The quality of each study was then categorized as high, medium, or low  
145 based on its compliance with the CASP criteria. This assessment was used to determine the strength of  
146 the evidence and to inform the narrative synthesis of the pharmacokinetic and therapeutic findings.

### 147 **Data Synthesis and Analysis**

148 The synthesis of evidence was conducted using a systematic narrative approach, focusing on integrating  
149 study characteristics and quantitative pharmacokinetic data. Given the expected variability in study  
150 designs and reporting formats, data were synthesized based on two primary domains: general study  
151 characteristics and clinical pharmacokinetic parameters. In the first phase of the analysis, a descriptive  
152 synthesis of general characteristics was performed. Studies were categorized by author, year, and  
153 country of origin to identify geographical trends in research. We further analyzed the distribution of  
154 study designs, sample sizes, and specific dose regimens. Comparator groups were evaluated to  
155 distinguish between studies comparing Single-Inhaler Triple Therapy (SITT) against dual therapy or

156 multiple-inhaler regimens. The second phase involved a specialized synthesis of pharmacokinetic (PK)  
157 parameters. Quantitative data for each component of the triple therapy (ICS, LABA, and LAMA) were  
158 extracted and compared. The analysis focused on systemic exposure metrics, specifically peak plasma  
159 concentration ( $C_{max}$ ), area under the curve (AUC), and time to reach maximum concentration ( $t_{max}$ ).  
160 Parameters were summarized using mean values and standard deviations or geometric means and  
161 coefficients of variation, as reported in the original studies. To address the study's objective, we  
162 performed a comparative analysis of these PK parameters across different dose regimens and  
163 populations. Due to the technical nature of pharmacokinetic data and the anticipated heterogeneity in  
164 sampling timeframes and analytical methods, a narrative synthesis supported by detailed summary tables  
165 was utilized to illustrate the pharmacological behavior of SITT formulations.

## 166 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### 167 **Study Selection Process and General Characteristics**

168 The search and study selection process is conducted systematically across three central electronic  
169 databases: Scopus, ScienceDirect, and PubMed. The study selection followed a systematic approach  
170 across three databases (Scopus: n=46; ScienceDirect: n=11; PubMed: n=46). Initial searches yielded  
171 103 records, which were refined to 98 records after applying 'research article' and 'open access' filters.  
172 After removing 52 duplicate records, 46 unique records remained and were included in the screening  
173 stage. During the title and abstract screening, 33 studies were excluded (n=20 due to irrelevant topics;  
174 n=13 due to being review articles), leaving 13 studies for full-text assessment. At the full-text  
175 assessment, 5 additional studies were excluded: one (n=1) because the outcomes did not align with the  
176 study objectives, and four (n=4) because the study design did not meet the inclusion criteria. Finally, 8  
177 studies met all criteria and were included in this systematic review.

178 A complete flowchart is presented in Figure 1, which comprehensively shows the stages of  
179 identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion of the study.

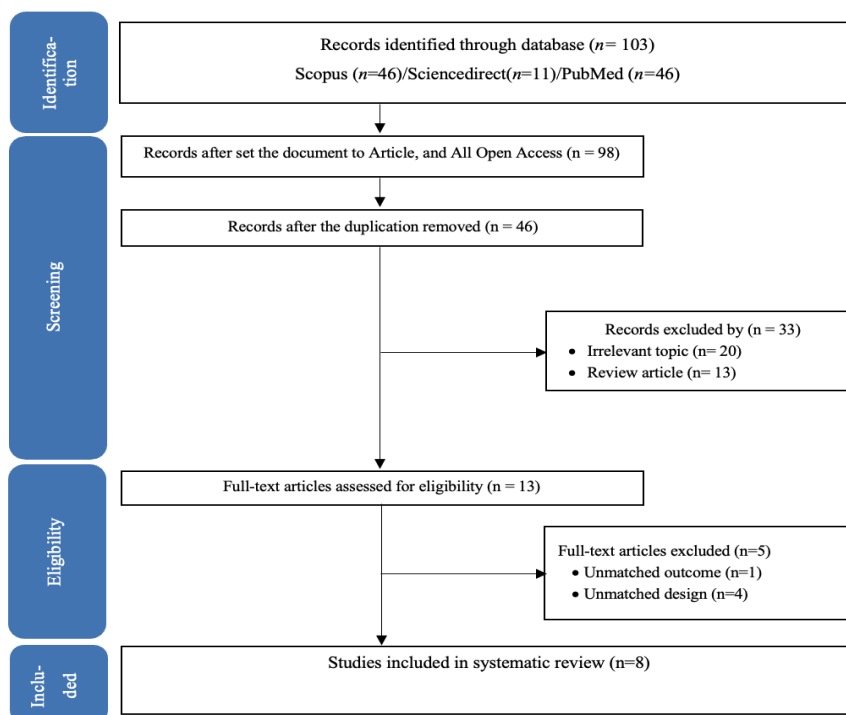


Figure 1. PRISMA Flowchart

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182 All studies (n=8) that met the inclusion criteria were analyzed in this systematic review (Table 1),  
 183 including phase I, phase III, and phase IV trials conducted in various geographic regions, including the  
 184 United States, China, Europe, and Japan. The studies evaluated the pharmacokinetic profiles of three  
 185 different single-inhaler triple therapy (SITT) formulations. For the combination of Fluticasone  
 186 Furoate/Umeclidinium/Vilanterol (FF/UMEC/VI), pharmacokinetic evidence is supported by phase I  
 187 trials in healthy volunteers by Brealey et al. (2015) and Li et al. (2018). The evaluation of the  
 188 Budesonide/Glycopyrronium/Formoterol (BGF) formulation included six studies, consisting of phase I  
 189 trials on healthy subjects by Chen et al. (2019), Darken et al. (2018), Dorinsky et al. (2020), and Maes  
 190 et al. (2019), as well as pharmacokinetics substudies in COPD patients by Dunn et al. (2020) and pooled  
 191 analysis by Huang et al. (2020).

193 **Table 1.** Main characteristics of the included trials on the triple inhaler

Author (Year)	Country (s)	Study Design	Sample Size (Condition)	Problem Statement	Main Finding(s)	Consistency vs Dual/Single Therapy	Repeated Dose Accumulation
<b>Budesonide/Glycopyrrolate/Formoterol Fumarate (BUD/GLY/FOR)</b>							
Chen et al. (2019)	China	Phase I, RCT, DB, parallel	96 (Healthy)	Need to ensure adding budesonide does not change LAMA/LABA disposition in Chinese subjects	Triple combination is PK stable; high subject variability is a standard hurdle in this population	CONSISTENT: Budesonide's PK is comparable to Western & Japanese populations; no DDI glycopyrronium-budesonide	MODERATE ACCUMULATION: RAC budesonide 1.5, glycopyrronium 3.0–3.3 (day-8)
Darken et al. (2018)	USA	Phase I, RCT, SD, crossover	84 (Healthy)	Bioequivalence of co-suspension MDI vs. traditional MDI	Budesonide bioequivalence achieved; healthy subjects are more sensitive for detecting formulation differences	CONSISTENT: Bioequivalent of BUD/FORM DPI for budesonide; no PK interaction between components	
Maes et al. (2019)	USA	Phase I, RCT, SD, crossover	72 (Healthy)	Reliability of co-suspension MDIs vs. flow-dependent DPIs	DPIs show higher variability than MDIs; MDIs are more robust for patients with inconsistent breath patterns	CONSISTENT: BGF≈BFF for budesonide & formoterol; confirmation of no DDI glycopyrronium-budesonide	
Dorinsky et al. (2020)	USA	Phase I, OL, SD, crossover	56 (Healthy)	Whether spacers cause dangerous over-exposure or merely stabilize drug delivery	Spacers help subjects with poor technique reach standard exposure levels without safety risks	TECHNIQUE VARIABILITY: Spacer increases budesonide exposure by 1.3–1.5×; glycopyrronium 2.4× (C <sub>max</sub> )	
Dunn et al. (2020)	USA	Phase III, Randomized, DB, parallel group	202 (COPD)	Uncertainty if COPD lung obstruction changes drug absorption vs. healthy subjects	Steady-state PK is consistent regardless of COPD severity, validating safety models using healthy subjects	CONSISTENT: PK budesonide in COPD ≈ other dual/triple therapies in KRONOS (GMR 96–109%)	HIGHER ACCUMULATION: RAC AUC budesonide 1.26; glycopyrronium 1.79; Formoterol 1.43
Huang et al. (2020)	China, Japan, Western (2)	Post-hoc analysis of 4 pooled RCTs	264 (Healthy)	Lack of unified cross-ethnic data to classify BGF MDI as ethnically insensitive	Ethnic exposure differences are statistically present but clinically irrelevant; global standardized dosing is safe	MINOR ETHNIC DIFFERENCES: Asia's glycopyrrolate C <sub>max</sub> is 30–47% lower than Western; budesonide & formoterol are comparable	
<b>Fluticasone Furoate/Umeclidinium/Vilanterol (FF/UMEC/VI)</b>							
Brealey et al. (2015)	USA	Phase I, RCT, SD, crossover (DB/OL)	88 (Healthy)	Unknown PK profile for FF/UMEC/VI; standard sampling missed rapid Vilanterol peaks	Triple and dual therapies are equivalent; 3-compartment modeling corrected initial C <sub>max</sub> underestimations	CONSISTENT: Exposure of FF, UMEC, VI is comparable to dual therapy; C <sub>max</sub> VI difference is clinically meaningless	
Li et al. (2018)	China	Phase I, OL, SD, and RD	16 (Healthy)	Need for local bridging data due to potential Chinese metabolic differences	Chinese data aligns with global profiles; body size, not ethnicity, drives fluticasone furoate exposure	CONSISTENT: PK profiles were comparable to Caucasian mono/dual therapy data; Ro C <sub>max</sub> FF = 1.99	MEDIUM ACCUMULATION: RAC C <sub>max</sub> FF 1.99; UMEC 1.67; VI 1.63

194 **Note:** SD: Single Dose; RD: Repeated Dose; DPI: Dry Powder Inhaler; MDI: Metered Dose Inhaler;; OL: open label; DB: double blind; RCT: Randomized

195 Controlled Trial.

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## 197 **Quality Assessment**

198 The methodological quality assessment of the included studies was conducted using the Critical  
199 Appraisal Skills Program (CASP) instrument for Randomized Controlled Trial (RCT) and cohort  
200 designs. Overall, the analyzed RCTs demonstrated strong internal validity, with almost all studies  
201 formulating clear research questions and randomly assigning participants to minimize selection bias.  
202 Studies by Brealey et al. (2015), Chen et al. (2019), Darken et al. (2018), and Maes et al. (2019)  
203 demonstrate full compliance with blinding procedures for participants, investigators, and outcome  
204 assessors alike. Specifically for Maes et al. (2019), despite limitations in reporting the research question  
205 formulation, this study demonstrates methodological strengths in operational aspects, including  
206 complete participant accountability and precise estimation of effect sizes. However, there are variations  
207 in the blinding element in some other studies. For example, the survey by Dorinsky et al. (2020) did not  
208 use any blinding procedure, whereas Dunn et al. (2020) used only partial blinding (i.e., yes). Despite  
209 differences in concealment techniques, all of these RCT studies remained accountable by reporting all  
210 participants through the end of the research. They presented the intervention effects comprehensively,  
211 with precise estimates of precision.

212 Consistent with the findings of the RCTs, the assessment of the cohort studies by Huang et al. (2020)  
213 and Li et al. (2018) indicates high methodological standards. Both studies successfully recruited cohorts  
214 and measured exposure and outcomes accurately, minimizing bias. The most significant thing is the  
215 researchers' ability to identify and account for confounding factors in both the design and analysis of  
216 their research. The results of this cohort study provide compelling evidence of similar pharmacokinetic  
217 profiles between Asian and Western subjects, supporting the clinical application of interventions without  
218 the need for ethnic-based dose adjustments. Collectively, the low risk of bias across most domains in all  
219 reviewed studies strengthens the validity of the findings in this systematic review. However, caution  
220 should still be exercised when interpreting subjective outcomes from non-blinded studies.

221 The consistency of findings across the RCT and cohort studies provides a strong foundation for the  
222 validity of this systematic review's results. In the RCT group, the similarity of baseline characteristics  
223 between study groups and equivalent treatments outside the experimental intervention ensures that  
224 observed differences in outcomes are truly the effect of the intervention administered. For example, the  
225 success of studies such as Brealey et al. (2015) and Chen et al. (2019) in maintaining strict blinding  
226 procedures indicates that performance bias and detection bias have been minimized. On the other hand,  
227 findings from cohort studies by Huang et al. (2020) and Li et al. (2018) strengthen clinical evidence by  
228 comprehensively identifying confounding factors, making the results regarding pharmacokinetic (PK)  
229 profiles reliable and relevant to a broader population.

230 **Individual Study Results and Data Synthesis**

231 A total of 8 studies were analyzed to evaluate the pharmacokinetic parameters of SITT. Statistical  
 232 summaries for the main PK parameters of the key studies are presented in the pharmacokinetics  
 233 summary Table 2 below.

234 **Table 2.** Pharmacokinetics parameters of included trials on the triple inhaler

Study	Model	Drug (Total doses in mcg)	C <sub>max</sub> (pg/mL)	AUC (h.pg/mL)	t <sub>max</sub> (h)	Vd/F (L)	CL/F (L/h)
<b>Budesonide/Glycopyrrolate/Formoterol Fumarate (BUD/GLY/FOR)</b>							
Chen et al. (2019)	NCA	BUD (320)	626.4	2510 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.333	NR	NR
		GLY (14.4)	11.30	69.49 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.333		
		FOR (10)	16.13	81.94 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.100		
Darken et al. (2018)	NCA	BUD (320)	472.04	1612.21 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.67	NR	NR
		GLY (14.4)	8.28	10.82 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.08		
		FOR (10)	10.55	53.66 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.33		
Maes et al. (2019)	NCA	BUD (320)	528.9	1762.5 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.33	NR	207.3
		GLY (14.4)	7.36	19.73 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.03		NR
		FOR (10)	9.36	42.86 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.67		204.8
Dorinsky et al. (2020)	NCA	BUD (320)	702.3	1934 (AUC <sub>0-t last</sub> )	0.33	918.5	150.1
		GLY (36)	47.7	74.3 (AUC <sub>0-t last</sub> )	0.03	3028	712.9
		FOR (9.6)	18.1	35.9 (AUC <sub>0-t last</sub> )	0.10	1137	152.0
Dunn et al. (2020)	NCA	BUD (320)	654.4	2573 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.97	NR	NR
		GLY (18)	19.8	83.1 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.08		
		FOR (9.6)	10.5	61.9 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	0.63		

Huang et al. (2020) (Chinese)	NCA	BUD (320)	459.3	1747.9 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )	NR	NR	NR
		GLY (18)	4.9	29.4 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )			
		FOR (9.6)	9.7	47.8 (AUC <sub>0-12</sub> )			
Huang et al. (2020) (Japanese)	NCA	BUD (320)	639.5	2165.5	NR	NR	NR
		GLY (18)	11.2	29.5			
		FOR (9.6)	13.2	56.3			
Huang et al. (2020) (Western)	NCA	BUD (320)	455.0	1632.6	NR	NR	NR
		GLY (18)	9.0	22.1			
		FOR (9.6)	9.6	48.80			

#### Fluticasone Furoate/Umeclidinium/Vilanterol (FF/UMEC/VI)

Brealey et al. (2015)	NCA; 3-Comp (VI)	FF (400)	79.4	882 (AUC <sub>0-t</sub> )	0.2	NR	NR
		UMEC (500)	1189	885 (AUC <sub>0-t</sub> )	0.1		12 (CL)
		VI (100)	639	522 (AUC <sub>0-t</sub> )	0.1		NR
Li et al. (2018)	NCA	FF (100)	27.32	276.96 (AUC <sub>0-t</sub> )	0.875	NR	NR
		UMEC (62.5)	241.35	117.19 (AUC <sub>0-t</sub> )	0.083		
		VI (25)	196.78	101.12 (AUC <sub>0-t</sub> )	0.083		

235 Note: NCA: non-compartmental analysis; comp: compartment; C<sub>max</sub>: maximum observed plasma  
 236 concentration; AUC: area under the plasma drug concentration-time curve; t<sub>max</sub>: time to C<sub>max</sub>; Vd/F:  
 237 volume of distribution; CL/F: apparent total body clearance; NR: not reported

#### 238 Systemic Absorption Pattern of Triple Inhaler Components

239 Cross-study analysis revealed consistent absorption patterns across drug classes. Inhaled corticosteroids  
 240 (ICS) showed the highest C<sub>max</sub> among the three components, with the highest values in beclomethasone  
 241 dipropionate (790 pg/mL) and the lowest in fluticasone furoate (27.32-79.4 pg/mL). These differences  
 242 indicate significant systemic absorption variability between different ICS molecules.

243 Long-acting muscarinic antagonists (LAMAs) exhibit extensive  $C_{\max}$  variability, ranging from 4.9  
244 pg/mL (glycopyrrolate in Huang et al., 2020) to 1189 pg/mL (umeclidinium in Brealey et al., 2015) This  
245 extreme variability is likely due to differences in absolute doses, formulations, and devices used.

246 Long-acting beta2-agonist (LABA) exhibits relatively consistent systemic absorption in the low to  
247 moderate range. Formoterol fumarate from the BUD/GLY/FOR combination showed  $C_{\max}$  7.4-18.1  
248 pg/mL, while vilanterol from the FF/UMEC/VI combination showed higher values (196.78-639 pg/mL).

#### 249 **Absorption Time Profile**

250 Although systemic exposure ( $C_{\max}$  and  $AUC_{0-12}$ ) of budesonide is consistently higher in patients with  
251 COPD than in healthy subjects, the  $t_{\max}$  parameter shows a distinct pattern. The  $t_{\max}$  values for  
252 budesonide, glycopyrronium, and formoterol in COPD patients reported by Dunn et al. (2020) (0.97  
253 hours, 0.08 hours, and 0.63 hours, respectively) are similar to those observed in healthy subjects across  
254 all included studies (budesonide: 0.33 hours; glycopyrronium/umeclidinium:  $\leq 0.33$  hours;  
255 formoterol/vilanterol: 0.083–0.67 hours). This consistency suggests that airway obstruction in COPD  
256 does not substantially delay the peak absorption rate of SITT components. Therefore, while COPD  
257 pathophysiology appears to increase the amount of drug absorbed systemically, as indicated by higher  
258  $C_{\max}$  and  $AUC$  values, it does not affect the rate of attainment of peak concentrations. These findings  
259 support the hypothesis that increased systemic exposure in COPD is primarily influenced by post-  
260 absorptive factors, such as reduced clearance and altered metabolism, rather than by changes in initial  
261 lung deposition and absorption kinetics.

262 Direct comparison of  $t_{\max}$  values across studies is constrained by variability in sampling schedule  
263 designs. In a subsequent study, Brealey et al. (2015) incorporated additional sampling points at 3, 7, 10,  
264 and 12 minutes post-dose and observed that the  $t_{\max}$  of vilanterol occurred earlier (approximately 5  
265 minutes) compared to estimates from the initial study, which employed less frequent sampling. This  
266 finding demonstrates that  $t_{\max}$  is highly sensitive to the resolution of the blood sampling schedule, as  
267 it is directly determined by the available sampling points. Consequently, numerical differences in  $t_{\max}$   
268 between studies should be interpreted in light of differences in sampling design, rather than as true  
269 biological variation.

#### 270 **Distribution and Clearance Parameters**

271 Data on distribution volume ( $V_d/F$ ) and clearance ( $CL/F$ ) are only reported on a limited basis. Dorinsky  
272 et al. (2020) reported the most complete data for the BUD/GLY/FOR combination, showing varied  
273  $V_d/F$ : budesonide 918.5 L, glycopyrrolate 3028 L, and formoterol 1137 L. Large distribution volumes  
274 for glycopyrrolate indicate extensive tissue distribution.

275 The reported apparent clearance ( $CL/F$ ) shows considerable variability. For budesonide, the  $CL/F$  ranges  
276 from 150.1 to 207.3 L/h, indicating significant first-pass hepatic clearance. Glycopyrrolate exhibits a  
277 very high  $CL/F$  (712.9 L/h), consistent with the characteristics of quaternary ammonium compounds

278 that have extensive renal and hepatic clearance. Formoterol shows CL/F in the range of 152.0-204.8  
279 L/h.

### 280 **General Interpretation of Results in the Context of Other Evidence**

281 This systematic review identified and synthesized pharmacokinetic evidence from 9 studies evaluating  
282 three triple inhaler combinations for COPD therapy. The main findings showed that all triple inhaler  
283 combinations exhibited rapid systemic absorption profiles, with  $t_{max}$  less than 1 hour for each component,  
284 indicating efficient pulmonary deposition and rapid onset of action. This pharmacokinetic profile  
285 fundamentally supports the rationale for the use of triple therapy in the management of COPD,  
286 particularly for patients with persistent symptoms or recurrent exacerbations despite having received  
287 dual treatment.

288 The findings regarding the variability of  $C_{max}$  between drug components are consistent with known  
289 physicochemical and pharmacological characteristics. Inhaled corticosteroids exhibit the most  
290 significant systemic absorption, which is clinically relevant given the potential systemic side effects of  
291 corticosteroids, especially with long-term use.

292 The differences in pharmacokinetic profiles between fluticasone furoate and budesonide reflect  
293 fundamental differences in the physicochemical properties of the two molecules. Fluticasone furoate  
294 showed a lower  $C_{max}$  (27.32-79.4 pg/mL in Brealey et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018) compared to budesonide  
295 (459.3-702.3 pg/mL), indicating higher pulmonary deposition and lower systemic absorption. This is  
296 consistent with the high lipophilicity of fluticasone furoate, which facilitates retention in the lungs and  
297 minimizes systemic exposure, potentially reducing the risk of systemic side effects.

298 The pharmacokinetic profile of the LAMA shows the most significant variability among the three drug  
299 classes. Umeclidinium in the FF/UMEC/VI combination showed a much higher  $C_{max}$  (241.35-1189  
300 pg/mL in Brealey et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018) compared to glycopyrrolate in the BUD/GLY/FOR  
301 combination (4.9-47.7 pg/mL). This difference is likely due to differences in absolute dose:  
302 umeclidinium is administered at 62.5-500 mcg, while glycopyrrolate is administered at 14.4-36 mcg.  
303 However, these differences do not necessarily reflect differences in clinical efficacy, given the  
304 differences in intrinsic potency and receptor affinity between the two molecules.

305 The large volume of distribution for glycopyrrolate (3028 L in Dorinsky et al., 2020) indicates extensive  
306 distribution to peripheral tissues, consistent with the characteristics of quaternary ammonium  
307 compounds. Despite this, the large distribution volume does not compromise the efficacy of local  
308 bronchodilation, as the main action of LAMA is on airway muscarinic receptors.

309 Long-acting beta2-agonists exhibit the most consistent and predictable pharmacokinetic profile.  
310 Formoterol fumarate exhibits  $C_{max}$  in the range of 7.4-19.4 pg/mL with a very fast  $t_{max}$  (0.08-0.67 hours),  
311 consistent with the clinically known fast-acting onset of formoterol. Vilanterol exhibits a higher  $C_{max}$

312 (196.78-639 pg/mL in Brealey et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018), which is likely associated with higher doses  
313 (25-100 mcg) than formoterol (9.6-12 mcg).

314 The findings of this systematic review are consistent with the existing literature on the pharmacokinetics  
315 of individual components of triple inhalers. No significant pharmacokinetic interactions were identified  
316 when these components were administered in fixed combinations, indicating that the absorption,  
317 distribution, and elimination of each component were not substantially affected by the presence of the  
318 others. This supports the pharmacological rationale of using fixed-dose combinations to simplify the  
319 therapy regimen and improve patient adherence.

### 320 **The Influence of Ethnicity on Pharmacokinetics of SITT**

321 The cross-ethnic analysis conducted by Huang et al. (2020), which included data from 264 subjects (64  
322 Chinese, 31 Japanese, and 169 Western), revealed that the AUC<sub>0-12</sub> and C<sub>max</sub> parameters for budesonide  
323 and formoterol were consistent across ethnic groups, with most GLSM ratios ranging from 0.92 to 1.22.  
324 In contrast, the glycopyrrolate component demonstrated significant inconsistency: C<sub>max</sub> in Asian  
325 subjects was lower than in Western subjects, although the AUC<sub>0-12</sub> remained comparable. This finding  
326 contrasts with the results of Li et al. (2018), who reported that in a Chinese population receiving  
327 FF/UMEC/VI, the C<sub>max</sub> of UMEC was higher compared to historical Western population references.  
328 Budesonide is metabolized primarily by CYP3A4 and CYP3A5 in the liver. Polymorphisms in these  
329 genes, which differ in prevalence between ethnicities, can affect budesonide clearance. Differences in  
330 allele frequencies across ethnic groups suggest that Asian populations, with a higher prevalence of the  
331 CYP3A5\*3 allele, may exhibit reduced first-pass budesonide metabolism compared to Caucasian  
332 populations. This could result in higher bioavailability and potentially different therapeutic outcomes  
333 (Roy et al., 2005).

334 Asian populations generally have lower BMIs but higher body fat percentages than Western populations  
335 at the same BMI. Differences in body composition, such as higher visceral adipose tissue in specific  
336 populations, can influence drug distribution and metabolism (Li et al., 2019). Lipophilic drugs like  
337 budesonide are distributed in body fat, and the amount and distribution of adipose tissue can influence  
338 their pharmacokinetics. Higher body fat can increase the volume of distribution and potentially alter the  
339 clearance rates of lipophilic drugs (Goto et al., 2017).

340 Although all subjects in Huang et al. (2020) are healthy, minor differences in lung capacity, airway  
341 geometry, or inter-ethnic breathing patterns can affect pulmonary deposition and subsequent absorption.  
342 The significantly higher inter-ethnic variability of glycopyrrolate compared with budesonide or  
343 formoterol suggests that ethnic factors influence the pharmacokinetics of LAMAs more substantially.  
344 The clinical implications of these findings are that dose optimization for triple inhalers may need to  
345 consider ethnic factors, particularly in populations with consistently higher or lower systemic exposures.  
346 However, it should be noted that intra-ethnic variability remains substantial, and personalization based

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347 on individual patient characteristics (renal function, body weight, comorbidities) may be more relevant  
348 than generalizations based solely on ethnicity.

### 349 **Pharmacokinetics in COPD Patients Compared to Healthy Subjects**

350 A direct comparison between studies in healthy subjects and the investigation by Dunn et al. (2020) in  
351 patients with COPD demonstrates clinically discrepancies. In healthy subjects administered BGF MDI  
352 320 µg (Darken et al., 2018; Maes et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2020), the maximum  
353 plasma concentration (C<sub>max</sub>) of budesonide ranged from 455 to 528.9 pg/mL. In contrast, COPD  
354 patients in the KRONOS sub-study (Dunn et al., 2020) exhibited a C<sub>max</sub> of 631 to 663 pg/mL,  
355 exceeding the upper limit observed in healthy subjects by 19 to 46%. A similar trend was observed for  
356 the area under the concentration-time curve from zero to twelve hours (AUC<sub>0-12</sub>): 1.612 to 1.762  
357 h·pg/mL in healthy subjects compared to 2,516 to 3,005 h·pg/mL in COPD patients.

358 These results challenge the prevailing assumption that airway obstruction in COPD reduces pulmonary  
359 deposition and consequently lowers systemic exposure. Several mechanisms may account for this  
360 observation: redistribution of drug deposition from peripheral to central airways, which could enhance  
361 systemic absorption; potential reductions in drug clearance due to comorbidities in older COPD patients;  
362 and changes in CYP3A4 metabolic enzyme expression associated with chronic inflammation. However,  
363 this interpretation warrants methodological caution, as the KRONOS sub-study utilized a parallel-group  
364 design rather than a crossover design, so differences in exposure between groups may be confounded  
365 by patient characteristics.

366 Airway obstruction in COPD can shift deposition from peripheral to central airways, where systemic  
367 absorption may be more efficient due to greater vascularization (Rafael & Andrade, 2024; Zhou & Yan,  
368 2023). COPD patients often have comorbidities (cardiovascular disease, kidney disorders) or  
369 concomitant drug use that can affect budesonide clearance (Rizvi et al., 2012). Reduced clearance will  
370 result in a higher AUC at the same dose. COPD is a chronic inflammatory condition that can affect the  
371 expression or activity of metabolic enzymes and transporters, potentially altering pharmacokinetics  
372 (Berg et al., 2014). COPD patients in Dunn et al. (2020) likely have a diverse spectrum of severity.  
373 Patients with more severe COPD may have different pharmacokinetic patterns than those with mild  
374 COPD. These findings have important implications for safety monitoring. If COPD patients experience  
375 systemic exposures comparable to or higher than those of healthy subjects, then the risk of systemic side  
376 effects of corticosteroids needs to be monitored closely, especially in long-term use.

### 377 **Consistency of Systemic Exposure of SITT Compared to Dual and Single Therapy**

378 Five studies that directly compared systemic exposure to single-inhaler triple therapy (SITT) with dual-  
379 or single-component therapy—including Brealey et al. (2015), Darken et al. (2018), Maes et al. (2019),  
380 Chen et al. (2019), and the KRONOS sub-study in Dunn et al. (2020)—collectively indicate that the  
381 single-inhaler formulation does not alter the pharmacokinetic profiles of the individual components

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382 compared to separate therapies. The confidence in this conclusion depends on the methodological  
383 quality of the included studies. Four of these studies employed a double-blind crossover design (Brealey  
384 et al., Darken et al., Maes et al., Chen et al.), whereas the KRONOS substudy used a parallel-group  
385 design.

386 The findings of Brealey et al. (2015), who initially reported a 46% higher C<sub>max</sub> of vilanterol in triple  
387 therapy compared to FF/VI, were not replicated in their subsequent study, which implemented a more  
388 frequent sampling schedule. Post-hoc analysis indicates that the observed difference was most likely  
389 attributable to an underestimation of C<sub>max</sub> in the dual-therapy arm due to limitations in the original  
390 sampling schedule, rather than a true formulation effect. This case illustrates how methodological  
391 design, particularly sampling strategy, can directly influence the validity of pharmacokinetic findings.

### 392 **Consistency of Accumulation Patterns with Repeated Dosing**

393 Three studies evaluating the pharmacokinetics (PK) of repeated dosing—Li et al. (2018) in healthy  
394 Chinese subjects with FF/UMEC/VI, Chen et al. (2019) in healthy Chinese subjects with  
395 subjects with the subjects with BGIN COPD patients with BGF MDI—provide an informative  
396 comparative overview of accumulation patterns. The accumulation ratio (RAC) of budesonide  
397 demonstrates good consistency: Li et al. reported an R<sub>0</sub> C<sub>max</sub> of 1.99 for FF; Chen reported  
398 a RAC C<sub>max</sub> of 1.4–1.5; and Dun reported a RAC C<sub>max</sub> of 0.95 (indicating no significant accumulation at C<sub>max</sub>), but a RAC AUC<sub>0–12</sub> of 1.26. This pattern—  
399 minimal accumulation at C<sub>max</sub> but more apparent at AUC—is consistent with the pharmacokinetics of  
400 budesonide, which is characterized by a long half-life and rate-limited absorption from the lungs.

402 In contrast, the RAC of glycopyrronium shows greater variability: Chen et al. reported a RAC AUC<sub>0–12</sub>  
403 of 3.0–3.3 in healthy Chinese subjects, compared to a RAC AUC<sub>0–12</sub> of 1.79 in COPD patients in the  
404 study by Dunn et al. This difference may reflect variations in renal function between populations (COPD  
405 patients are older with potentially reduced GFR), rather than a direct effect of disease on pulmonary  
406 pharmacokinetics—considering that glycopyrronium is primarily eliminated via the kidneys.  
407 Nevertheless, both studies agreed that glycopyrronium accumulation did not result in clinically  
408 meaningful adverse effects at the dosages used.

### 409 **Limitations of the Evidence Included in the Review**

410 Not all studies report a complete set of pharmacokinetic parameters. Distribution parameters (V<sub>d</sub>/F)  
411 were reported by only one study, and clearance (CL/F) was reported by only two studies. The absence  
412 of these data hinders a comprehensive understanding of drug disposition and the identification of factors  
413 influencing variability. This selective reporting may not be due to methodological limitations (these  
414 parameters can be readily calculated from time-concentration data), but rather to editorial decisions or  
415 space constraints, which raise concerns about selective reporting bias.

416 Substantial heterogeneity in dose regimens, AUC definitions (AUC<sub>0-12</sub> vs. AUC<sub>0-t</sub> vs. AUC<sub>0-∞</sub>), and  
417 outcome reporting prevented quantitative pooling of data and calculation of summary effect estimates  
418 with confidence intervals. The narrative synthesis in this review, although comprehensive, is inherently  
419 more subjective and does not yield objective precision estimates.

420 Although the study was conducted in several countries (the US, China, Japan, and the UK), there was a  
421 notable absence from other regions, such as Europe (excluding the UK), Latin America, Africa, and the  
422 Middle East. Pharmacokinetic variability may exist across different geographic areas due to genetic,  
423 dietary, environmental, or healthcare practice differences that have not been captured in this evidence  
424 base.

#### 425 **Implication for Future Practice and Policy**

426 The findings of substantial variability in systemic exposure, particularly in the glycopyrrolate and  
427 LAMA components, suggest that the one-size-fits-all dosing approach is not optimal for all patients.  
428 Clinicians should consider a variety of factors influencing exposure: ethnicity (the Japanese population  
429 experiences 40% higher exposure than that of Chinese or Westerners), renal function (patients with  
430 creatinine clearance <60 mL/min require dose adjustment), extreme body weight, and  
431 polypharmaceuticals, especially with CYP3A4 inhibitors that can increase budesonide exposure by up  
432 to 4 times. Given the substantial systemic exposure of budesonide, systematic safety monitoring is  
433 essential, including testing of adrenal function, bone health screening with DEXA scanning,  
434 ophthalmological screening for cataracts and glaucoma, and vigilance against infectious complications.  
435 In addition, selecting appropriate inhalation devices and techniques, including the use of spacers with  
436 MDI formulations, significantly affects lung deposition and systemic exposure, requiring regular  
437 technique training and reassessment at each clinic visit.

438 Evidence from this systematic review may inform formulary decisions, as substantial differences in  
439 systemic exposure across different triple combinations suggest that automatic substitution policies may  
440 not be appropriate without clinical reassessment. The findings of heterogeneity and data limitations  
441 indicate an urgent need for the development of regulatory guidance that includes: standardized PK study  
442 design requirements, including evaluation of target populations with uniform AUC reporting, and  
443 mandatory evaluation in specific populations (age >75 years, kidney/liver disorders, different ethnic  
444 groups) before approval.

#### 445 **CONCLUSION**

446 This systematic review synthesizes current evidence on the clinical pharmacokinetics of single inhaler  
447 triple therapy in healthy subjects and patients with COPD. The findings indicate that systemic exposure  
448 to individual components remains comparable to established inhaled regimens and does not result in  
449 clinically relevant accumulation. Pharmacokinetic variability appears to be influenced by patient-related  
450 and technical factors rather than formulation-specific limitations. These results reinforce the therapeutic

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451 reliability and safety of SITT in routine clinical practice. Continued integration of pharmacokinetic data  
452 in clinical decision-making may further optimize individualized COPD management.

453 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

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455 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

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