

Design and optimization of dosage regimen

- ▶ To initiate drug therapy a dosage regimen is administered either by continuous infusion or in intervals of time and dose
- ▶ The regimen depends on various drug and patient factors including how rapidly a steady state must be achieved
 - Steady state: The state at which the rate of administration equals that of elimination
- ▶ The regimen is refined to achieve maximum benefit with minimum adverse effects

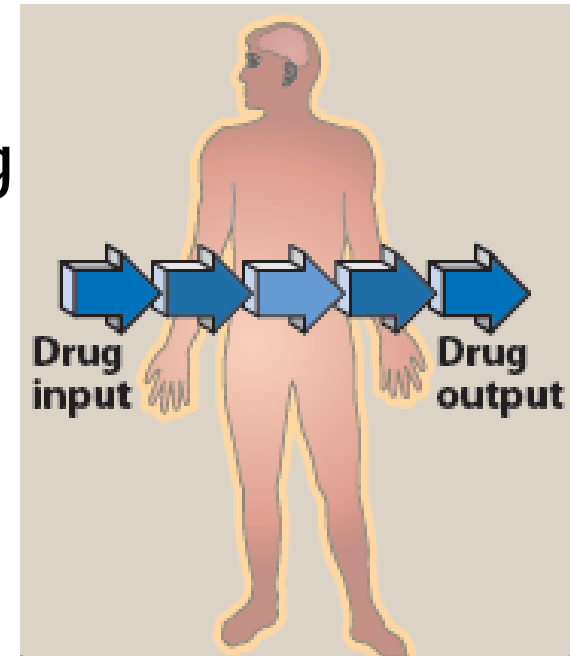
- ▶ Drug administration
 - Single dose
 - Continuous administration
 - IV infusion
 - Fixed-dose/fixed time interval regimens

Dosage Regimens

- ▶ IV infusion or oral fixed-dose/fixed time interval regimens
- ▶ The drug accumulates until a steady state occurs
- ▶ At steady state the amount of drug administered equals the amount being eliminated
- ▶ At steady state
 - The plasma and tissue levels remain constant with IV infusion and fluctuate around a mean in oral fixed dosage

Plasma concentration of a drug following IV infusion

- ▶ Following initiation of IV infusion the plasma concentration of drug rises until the rate of drug eliminated from the body balances the input rate

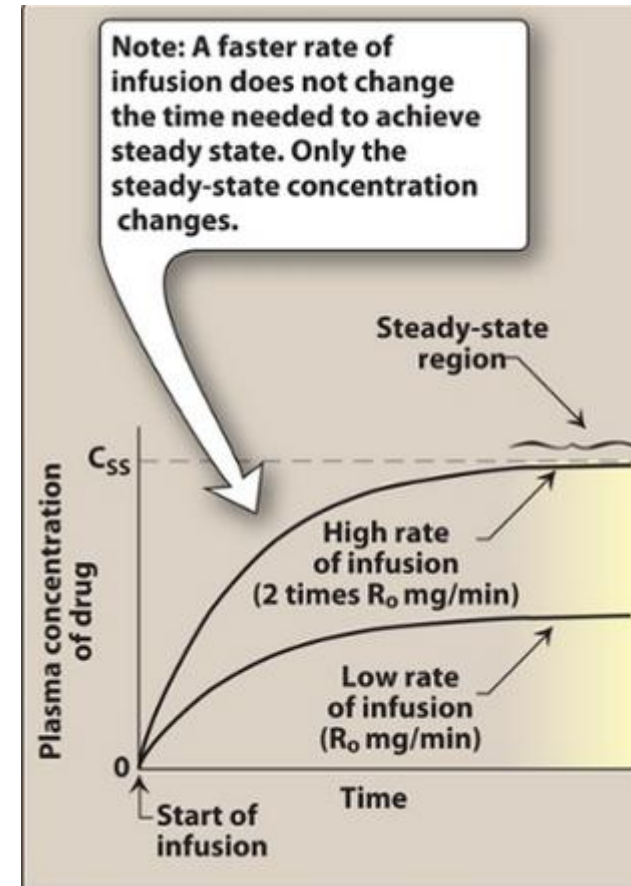


➡ Steady state is achieved

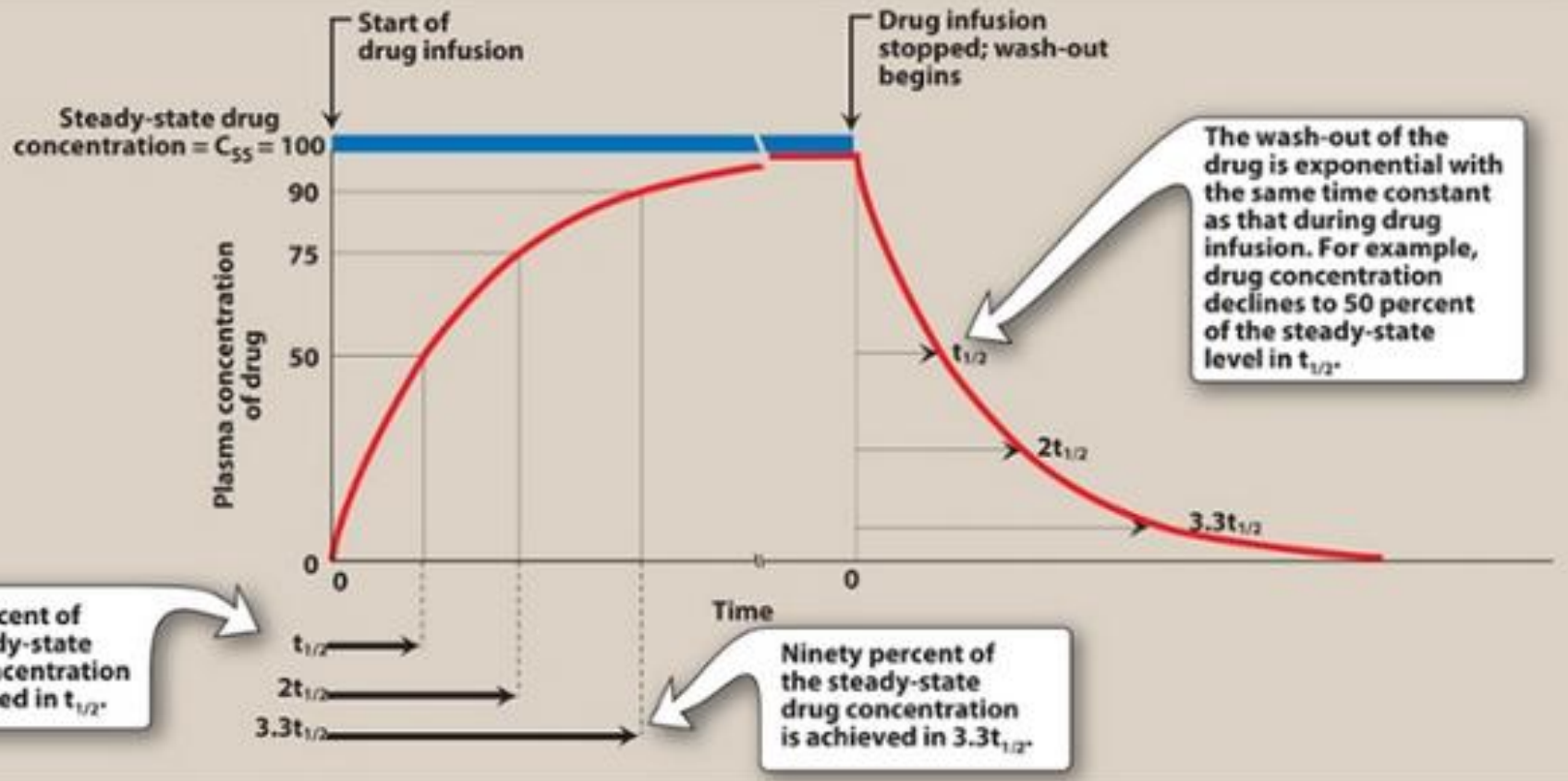
(The plasma concentration of the drug remains constant)
Assuming the drug elimination is first order

Plasma concentration of a drug following IV infusion

- ▶ The steady state plasma concentration is directly proportional to the infusion rate
- ▶ The steady state concentration is inversely proportional to the clearance of the drug
 - Hepatic or renal disease can increase C_{ss}
 - Increased metabolism reduces C_{ss}



Time required to reach C_{ss}



Fixed dose/Fixed time Regimen

- ▶ Administration of drug by fixed doses is more convenient than continuous infusion
- ▶ Fixed doses administered by fixed time intervals results in fluctuations in drug levels
- ▶ Fixed dose regimens
 - Multiple IV injections
 - Multiple oral administrations

Multiple IV injections

- ▶ Following administration of a drug at repeated intervals the plasma concentration increases until steady state is reached
- ▶ Using smaller doses at shorter intervals does not change the rate at which the steady state is approached or the C_{ss}
- ▶ 90% of steady state value is reached in $3.3t_{1/2}$

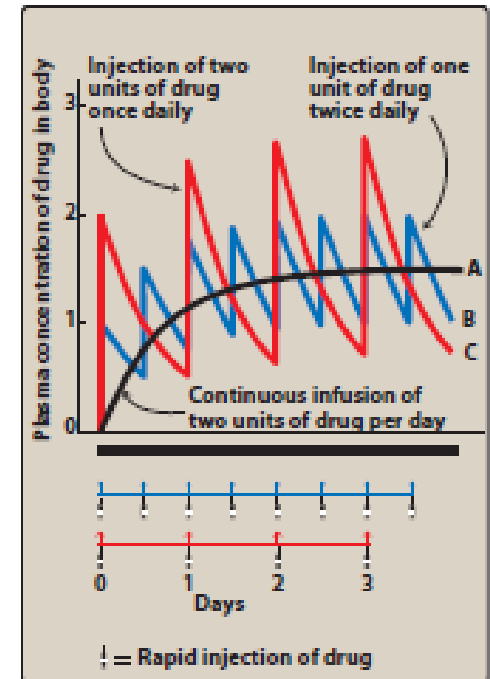
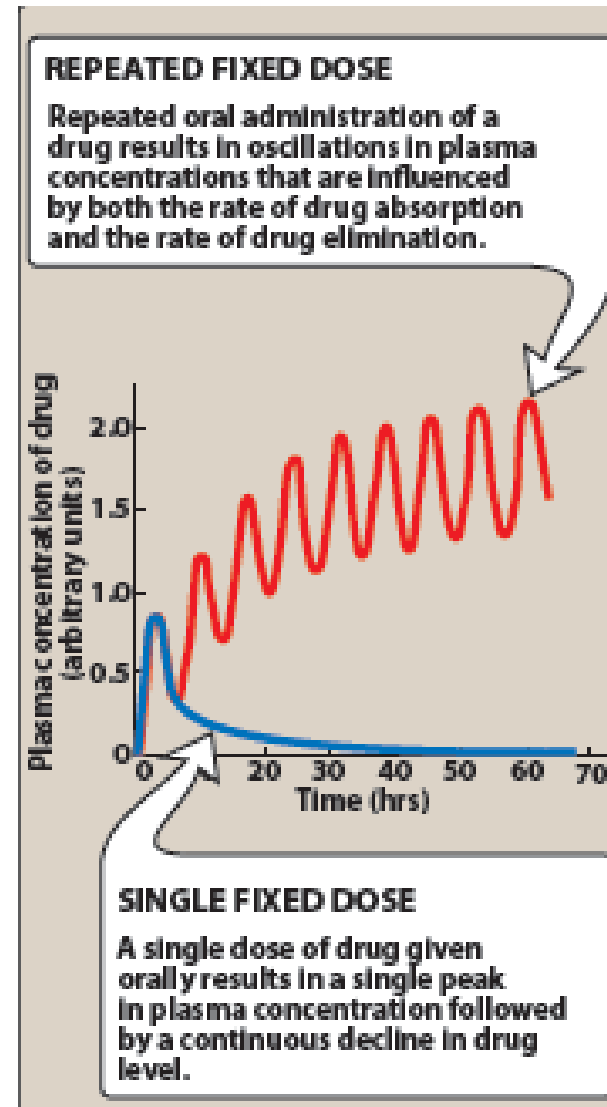


Figure 1.23

Predicted plasma concentrations of a drug given by infusion (A), twice-daily injection (B), or once-daily injection (C). Model assumes rapid mixing in a single body compartment and a half-life of 12 hours.

Multiple oral administration

- ▶ Might be absorbed slowly
- ▶ Plasma concentration is influenced by
 - the rate of absorption
 - the rate of elimination



Optimization of dose

- ▶ The goal of drug administration is to achieve and maintain therapeutic response with minimal toxicity or side effects
- ▶ Loading dose: a higher dose or series of doses administered to achieve the desired plasma level rapidly.
- ▶ Loading dose is followed by lower multiple doses (Maintenance dose)

- ▶ Loading dose = $(V_d)(\text{desired } C_{ss})/F$
- ▶ For IV
Loading dose = $(V_d)(\text{desired } C_{ss})$
- ▶ Loading dose might be associated with risk of drug toxicity
- ▶ Loading dose is useful for drugs eliminated from the body slowly, and hence require lower maintenance dose to keep the drug at a therapeutic concentration
- ▶ Without an initial higher dose, it would take longer to reach C_{ss}

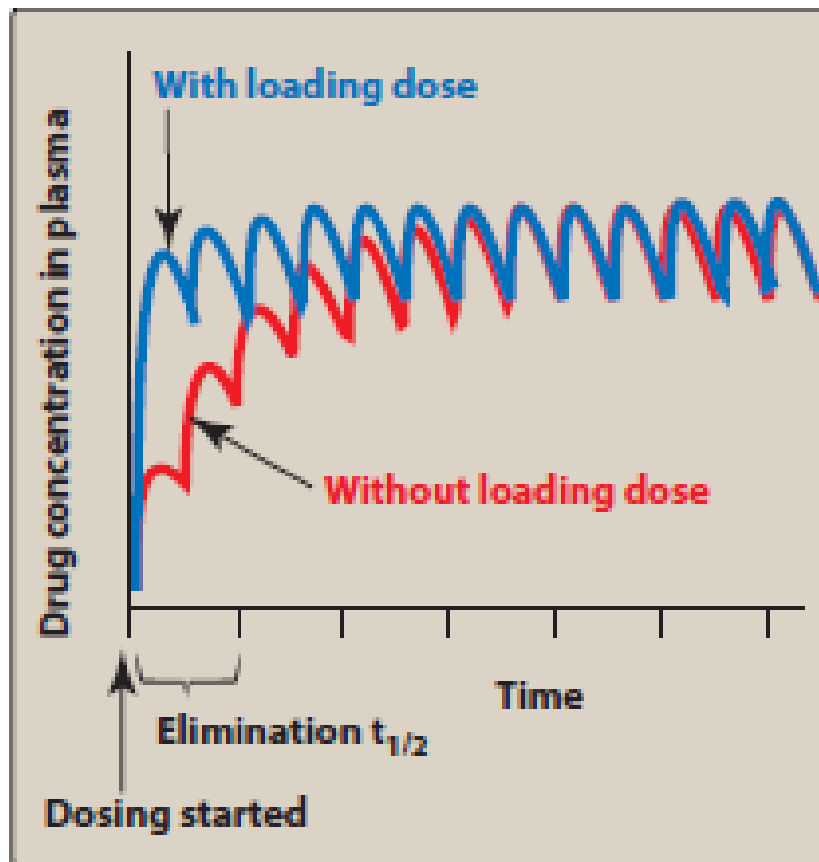


Figure 1.25

Accumulation of drug administered orally without a loading dose and with a single oral loading dose administered at $t = 0$.

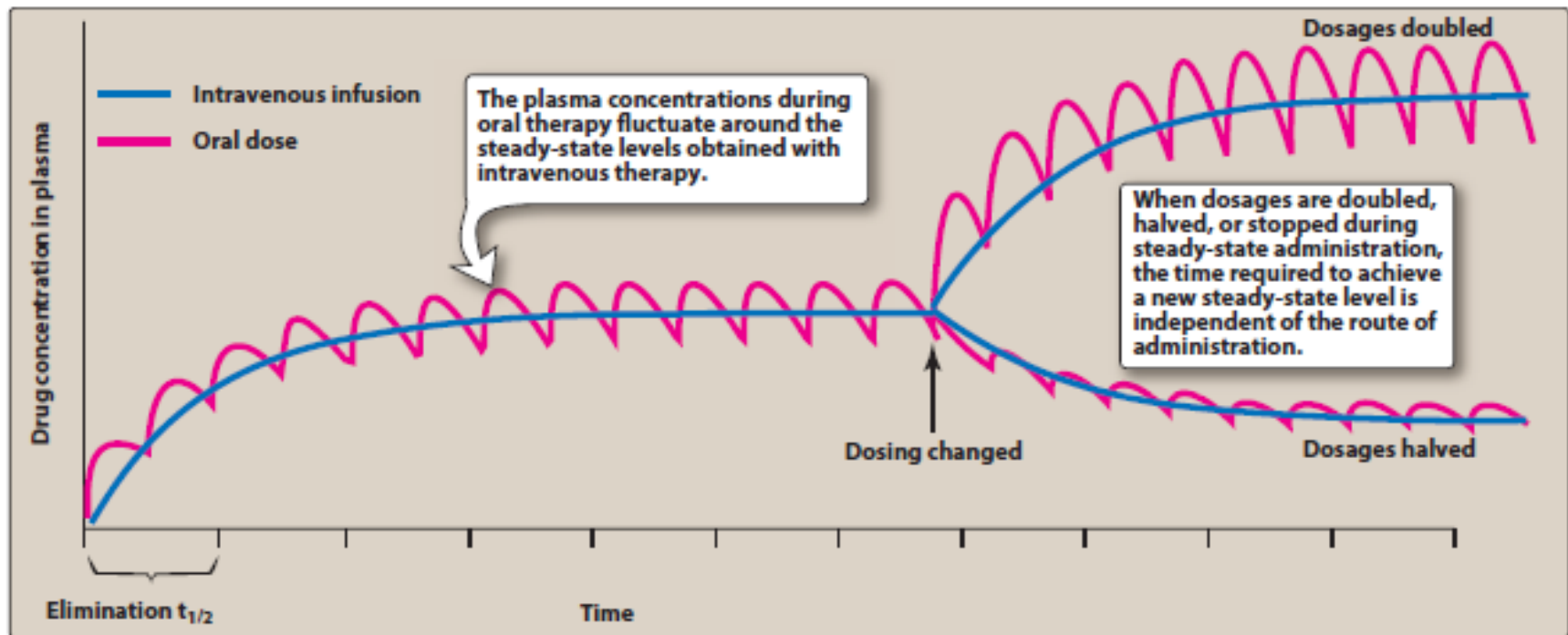


Figure 1.26

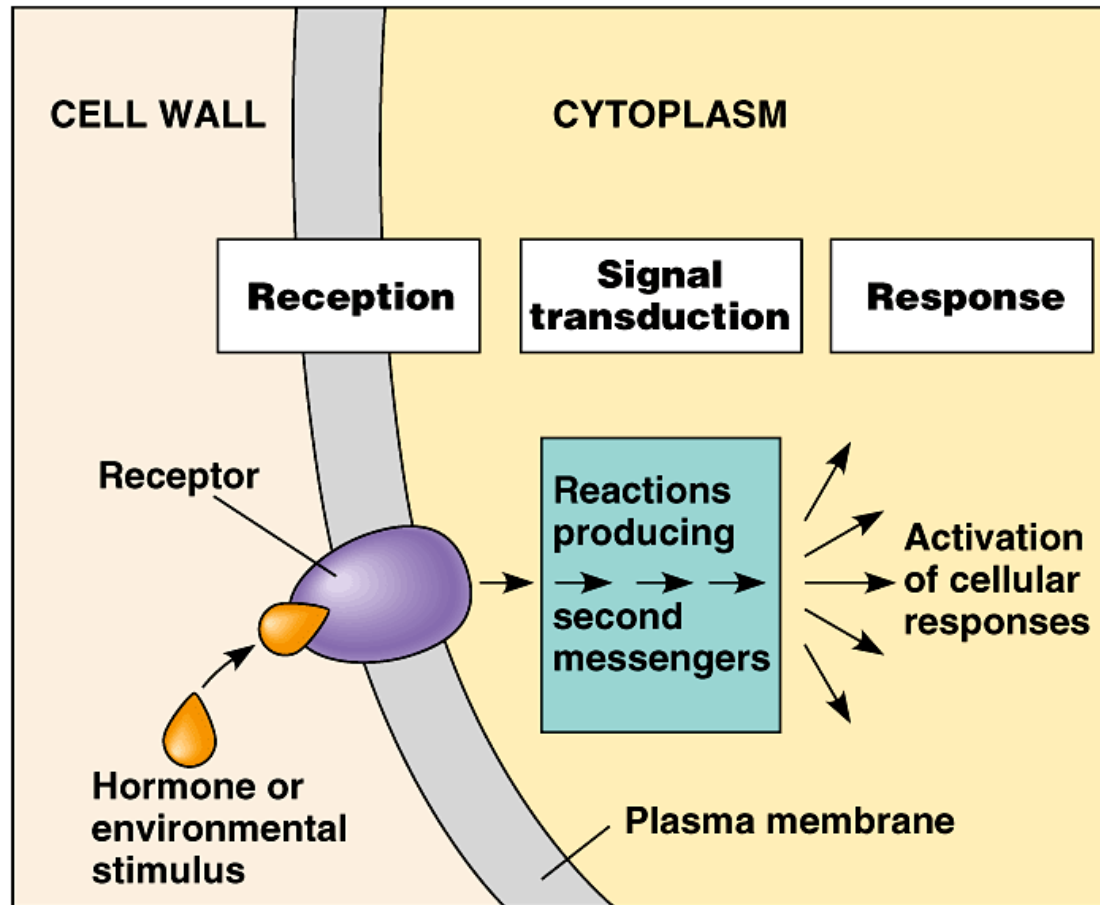
Accumulation of drug following sustained administration and following changes in dosing. Oral dosing was at intervals of 50% of $t_{1/2}$.

Dose adjustment

- ▶ The amount of drug administered is optimized for the patient taking into account:
 - Interpatient variability
 - Pharmacokinetic factors
- ▶ Individualized therapy

Pharmacodynamics

- ▶ Pharmacodynamics: describes the action of the drug on the body and the influence of drug concentration on the magnitude of the response
- ▶ Drugs cause their therapeutic or toxic effects by interacting with specialized target molecules on the surface of cells or inside cells (e.g. receptors)

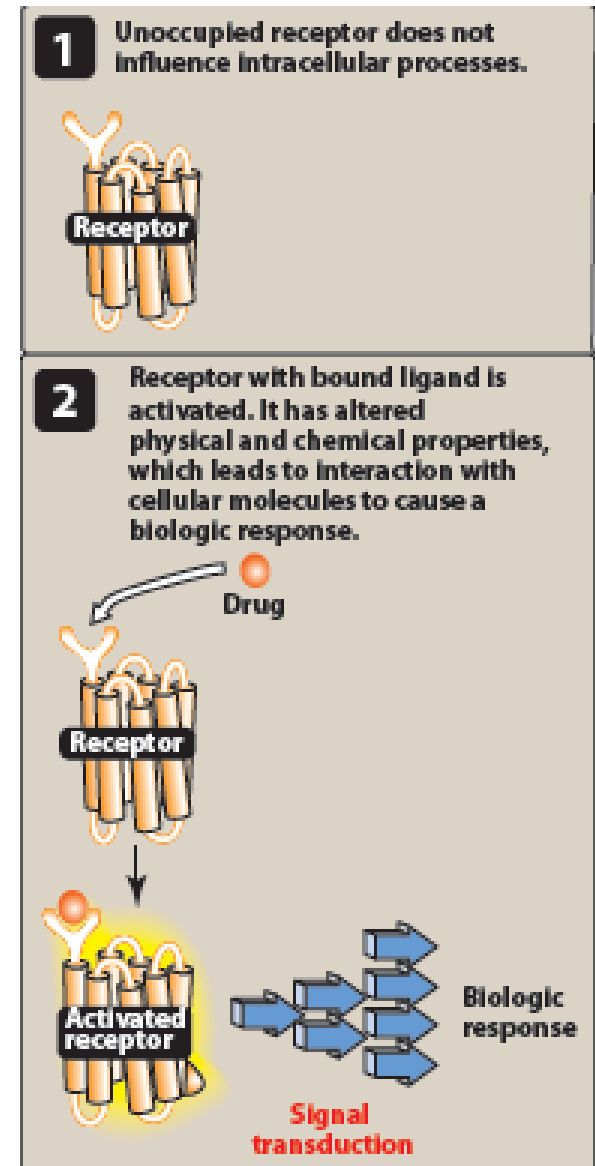


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- ▶ Receptor: any biologic molecule to which a drug binds and produces a measurable response
 - Examples: enzymes, nucleic acids, structural proteins
- ▶ Second messenger (effector molecules): part of the cascade of events that translate ligand binding into a cellular response
- ▶ Ligand: a small molecule that binds to a site on a target protein
- ▶ Affinity: the strength of the interaction (binding) between a ligand and its receptor

Signal transduction

- ▶ The process by which the drug receptor complex initiates alterations in biochemical or molecular activity of a cell



Drug receptor complex:

- ▶ Drug + Receptor $\rightleftharpoons$ Drug-receptor complex $\rightarrow$ Biologic effect
- ▶ Receptors are specific for the ligands they bind to

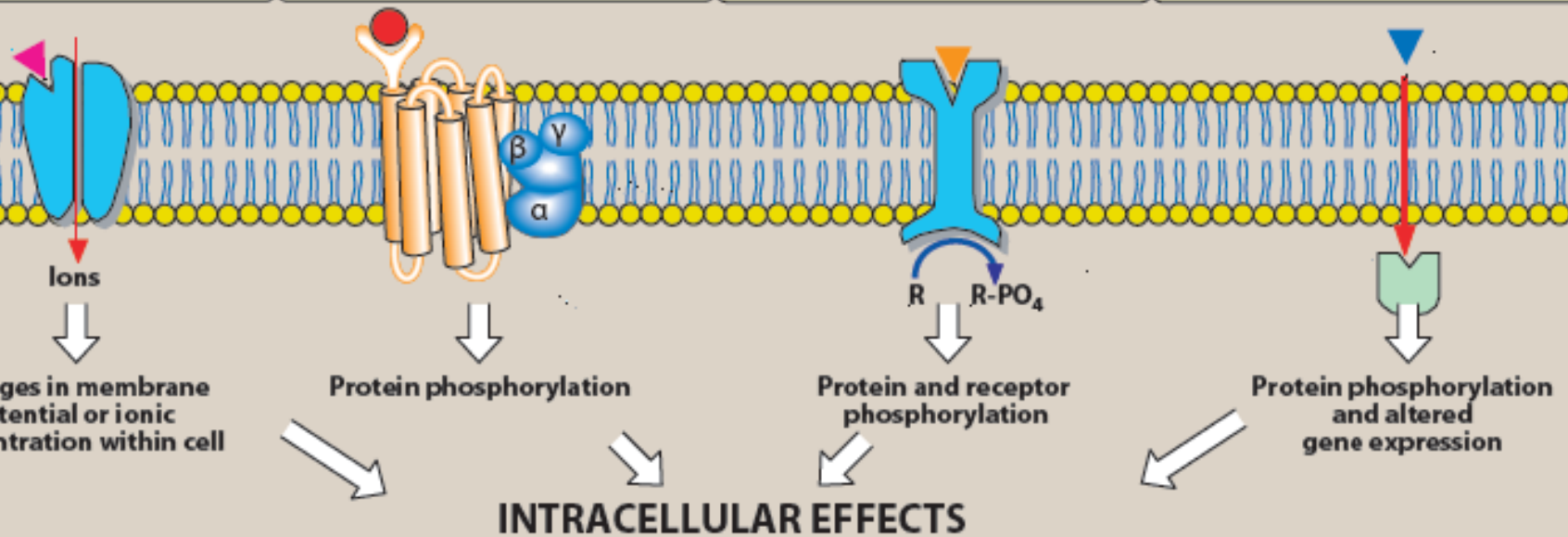
Receptor states:

- ▶ Receptors exist in either an inactive state (R) or activated state (R*)
- ▶ Binding of a ligand to a receptor can cause the receptor to change from an inactive state (R) to an activated state (R*)
- ▶ The activated receptor interacts with other molecules to produce a biologic effect

Major receptor families:

1. Ligand-gated ion channels
2. G protein-coupled receptors
3. Enzyme linked receptors
4. Intracellular receptors

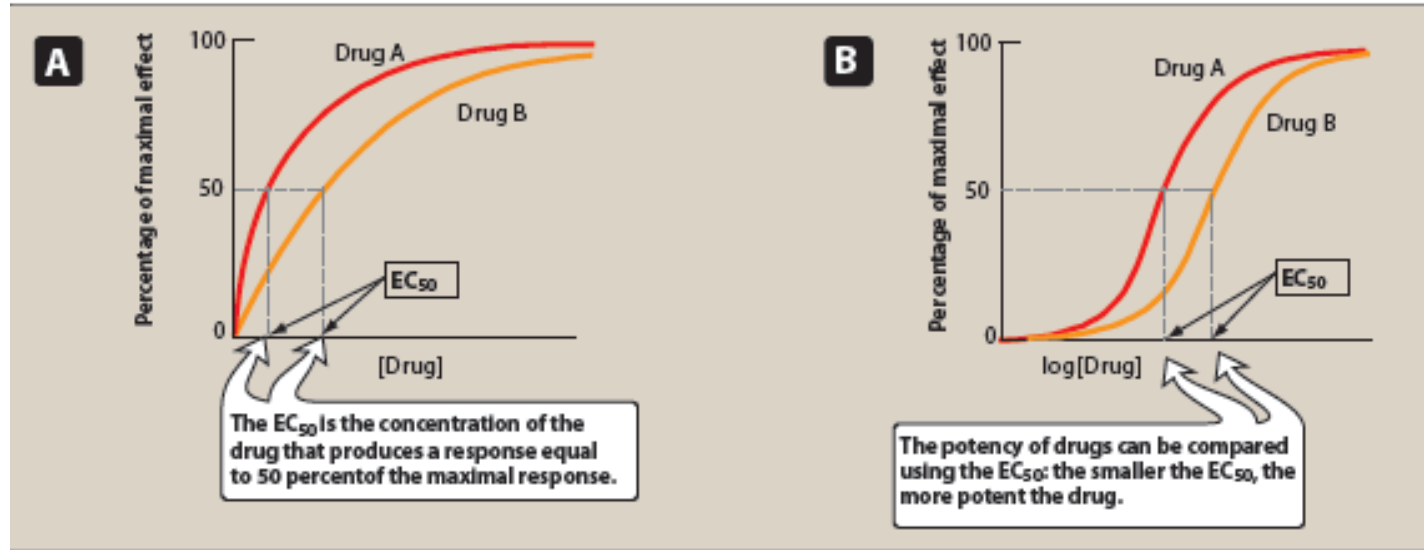
The type of receptor a ligand interacts with depends on the ligand's chemical nature

A**Ligand-gated ion channels**Example:**Cholinergic nicotinic receptors****B****G protein-coupled receptors**Example: **α and β adrenoceptors****C****Enzyme-linked receptors**Example:**Insulin receptors****D****Intracellular receptors**Example:**Steroid receptors**

Dose response relationships

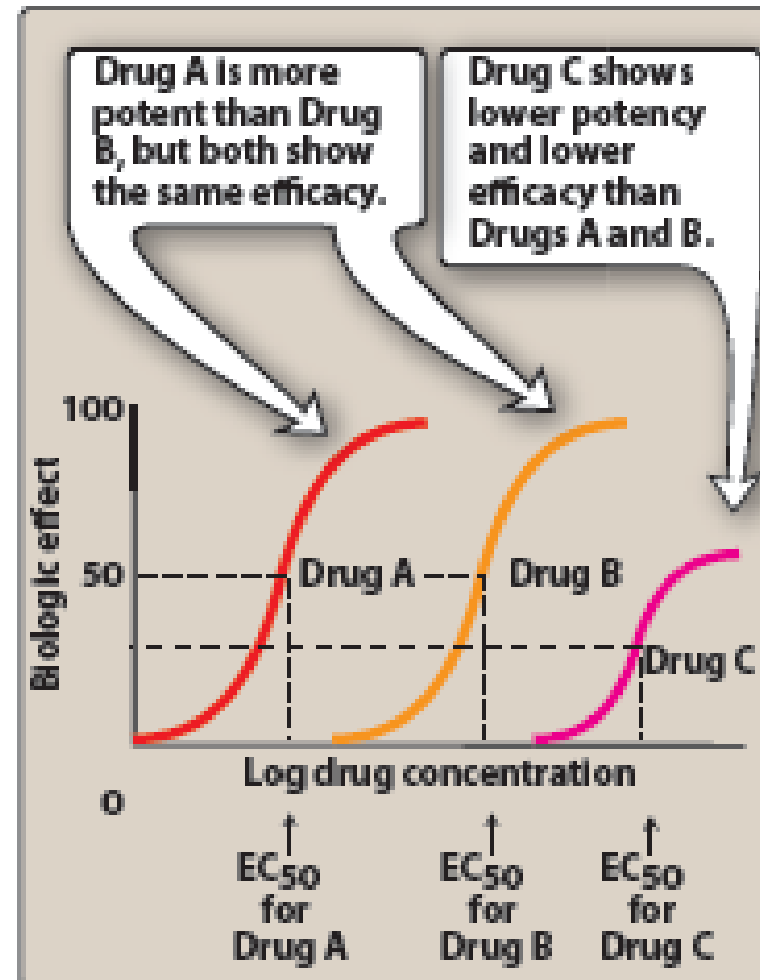
Graded dose–response relationship

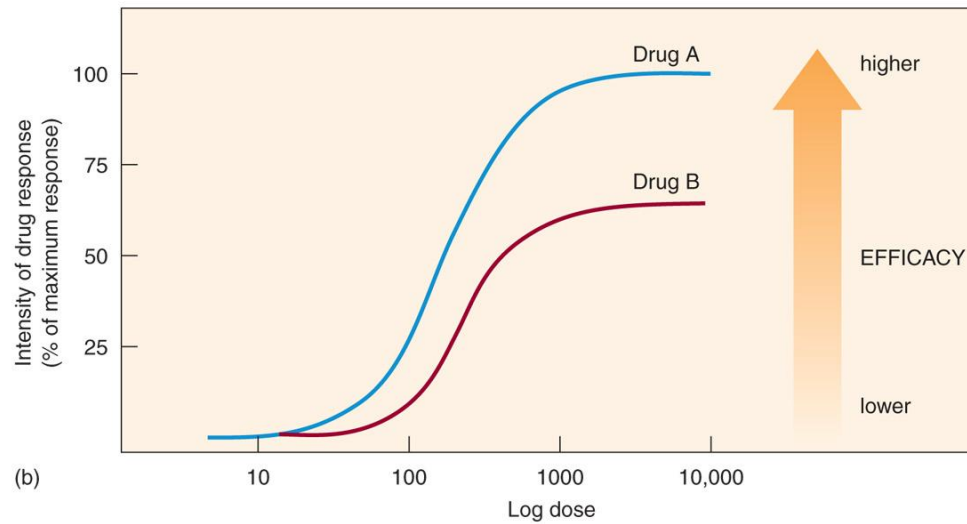
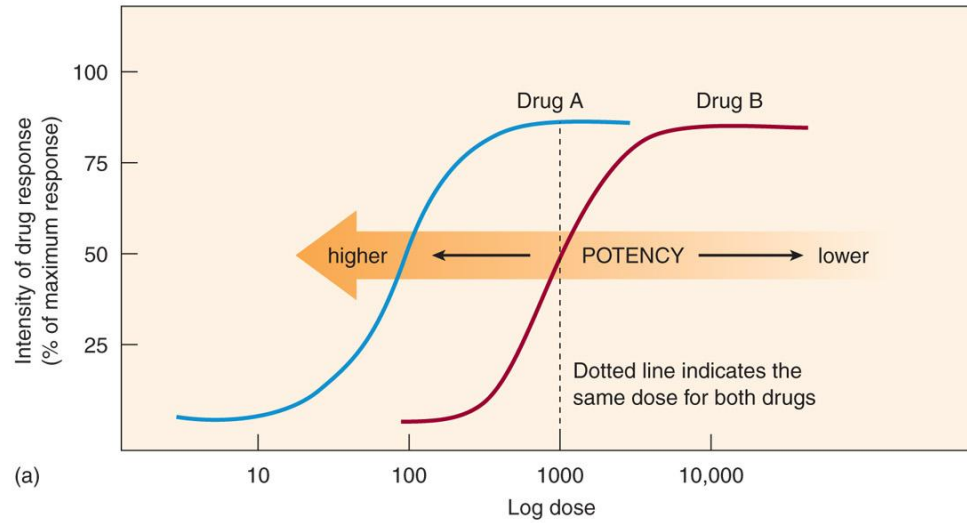
- ▶ As the concentration of a drug increases, its pharmacologic effect also increases
- ▶ The response is gradual and continuous



Potency vs Efficacy

- ▶ Potency: A measure of the amount of a drug needed to produce an effect of a given magnitude
- ▶ EC_{50} : The drug concentration that shows 50% of maximal response
- ▶ Efficacy: The ability of a drug to produce a response when it interacts with a receptor





- ▶ Agonist: an agent that can bind to a receptor and produce a biologic response
- ▶ Agonists usually mimic the actions of the original endogenous ligand on the receptor
(e.g. Norepinephrine on β_1 receptor of the heart)
- ▶ Agonists stabilize the receptors in their active state
- ▶ The magnitude of the drug effect depends on:
 - The concentration of the drug at the receptor site which depends on:
 - The dose of the drug administered
 - The rate of the drug's ADME

Agonists

- ▶ Full agonist
- ▶ Partial agonists
- ▶ Inverse Agonists

Full agonists

- ▶ Full agonist: A drug that binds to a receptor and produces a maximal biologic response that mimics the response to the endogenous ligand
- ▶ A full agonist has a strong affinity to the receptor and good efficacy

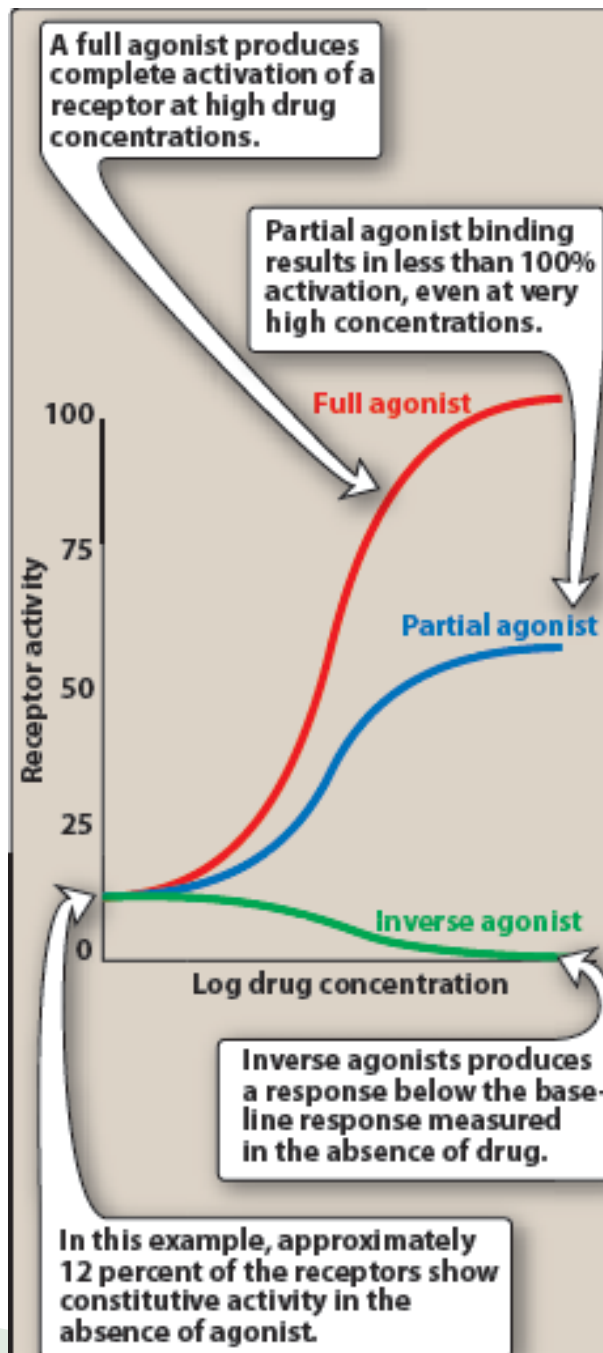
Partial agonists

- ▶ Partial agonists have efficacies greater than zero but less than that of a full agonist
- ▶ A partial agonist can not produce an E_{max} of as great a magnitude as a full agonist
- ▶ The affinity of a partial agonist might be greater than, less than or equal to a full agonist
- ▶ A partial agonist may act as an antagonist of a full agonist

Inverse Agonists

- ▶ Stabilize the inactive receptor state
- ▶ This decreases the number of activated receptors below that in the absence of the drug
- ▶ Inverse agonists reverse the activity of receptors and produce the opposite pharmacological effects of a full agonist

Agonists



Antagonists

- ▶ Antagonist: An agent (drug) that decreases or opposes the actions of another drug or endogenous ligand
- ▶ An antagonist binds to a receptor and blocks its physiologic response
(e.g. Antihistamine, used for allergy)
- ▶ 2 types of antagonists
 - Competitive antagonists
 - Irreversible antagonists

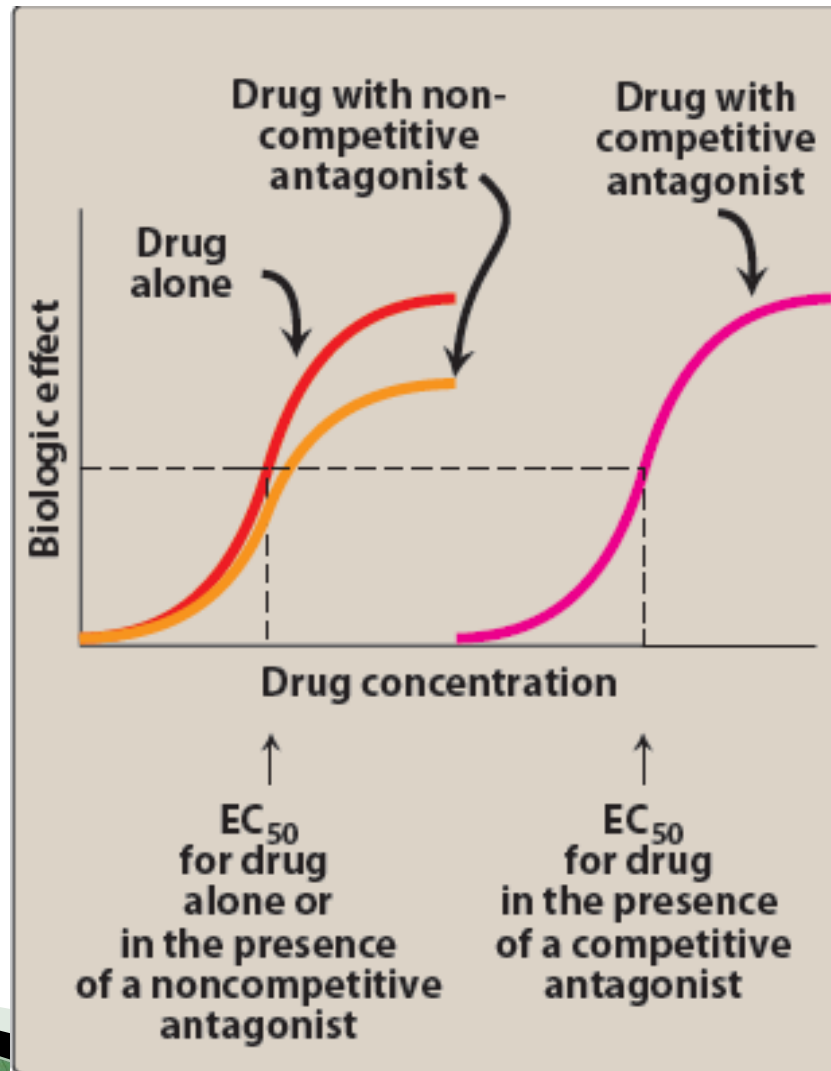
Competitive antagonist

- ▶ An antagonist that binds to the same site on the receptor as the agonist
- ▶ Prevents an agonist from binding to its receptor and maintains the receptor in its inactive state
- ▶ The effect can be overcome by adding more agonist
- ▶ Increase EC_{50}

Irreversible antagonists

- ▶ Non-competitive
- ▶ Cannot be overcome by adding more agonists
- ▶ Mechanism:
 - The antagonist binds covalently or with high affinity to the active site of the receptor reducing the amount of the receptor available to the agonist
 - The antagonist binds to a site (allosteric site) preventing the receptor from being activated even when the agonist binds to the active site

Competitive vs non-competitive antagonism



- ▶ **Functional antagonist**
 - Causing effects functionally opposite than those of the agonist while acting at a completely separate receptor than the agonist

- ▶ **Chemical antagonist**
 - Prevents the actions of an agonist by modifying or sequestering the agonist so it is incapable of binding to and activating the receptor

- ▶ **Pharmacokinetic antagonist**
 - Reducing the active drug concentration for example when the drug absorption is decreased or the metabolism and renal excretion are increased

Therapeutic index

- ▶ Therapeutic index of a drug: the ratio of the dose that produces toxicity to the dose that produces a clinically desired or effective response in 50% of the population
- ▶ Therapeutic index =
$$\frac{TD_{50}}{ED_{50}}$$

TD₅₀: the drug dose that produces a toxic effect in 50% of the population

ED₅₀: the drug dose that produces a therapeutic effect in 50% of the population

- ▶ Therapeutic index is a measure of drug safety
- ▶ A narrow therapeutic index drug (e.g. warfarin, digoxin)
- ▶ A large therapeutic index drug
 - more safe to use
 - (e.g. penicillin)

