Basic Principles in Pharmacology



Pharmacology

- Pharmacology: is the study of drugs, their uses and how they affect organisms
 - Pharmacokinetics: describes what the body does to a drug.
 - Pharmacodynamics: describes what the drug does to the body.

Pharmacokinetics



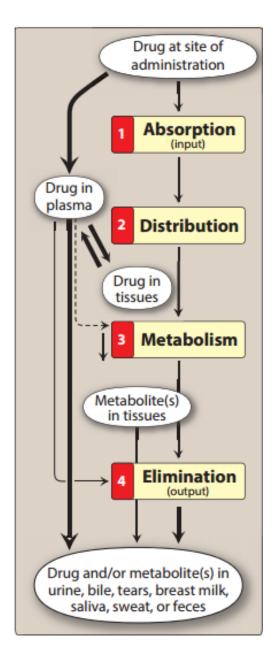
Pharmacokinetics

ADME

- Absorption
- Distribution
- Metabolism
- Elimination

ADME determine:

- The speed of onset of drug action
- The intensity of the drug effect
- The duration of drug action



ADME

Absorption: The drug absorption from the site of administration which permits the entry of the therapeutic agent into the plasma

Distribution: Reversible process, the drug leaves the bloodstream and distributes into the interstitial and intracellular fluids

Metabolism: Biotransformation of the drug into metabolites by the liver or other tissues

Elimination: The drug and its metabolites are eliminated into urine, bile or feces



Routes of Drug Administration

Enteral

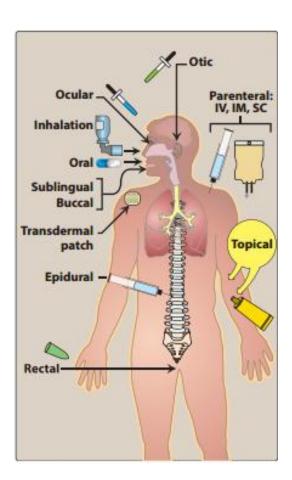
- Oral
- Sublingual

Parenteral

- Intravenous (IV)
- Intramuscular (IM)
- Subcutaneous (SC)

Other routes

- Inhalation
- Intrathecal/Intraventricular
- Topical
- Transdermal
- Rectal



Lippincott's Illustrated Reviews 6th edition

Routes of Administration

- Determined by
 - Properties of the drug
 - Water or lipid solubility
 - Ionization
 - Therapeutic objective
 - Rapid onset
 - Prolonged effect
 - Local effect



Enteral Route

Oral administration:

- Advantages
 - Easily self-administered
 - Low risk of systemic infections (compared to parenteral)
 - Easier to manage toxicity
- Disadvantages
 - Inactivation of drugs due to first pass effect or stomach acidity
- Enteric coated
 - To protect the stomach (e.g. Aspirin)
 - To protect the drug from stomach acidity
- Extended release
 - To control how fast the drug is released from the pill to the body



Enteral Route

- Sublingual: Drug diffuses into the capillary network to the systemic circulation
 - Advantages
 - Rapid absorption
 - Convenience
 - Low incidence of infection
 - Bypass GI
 - Bypass first pass effect



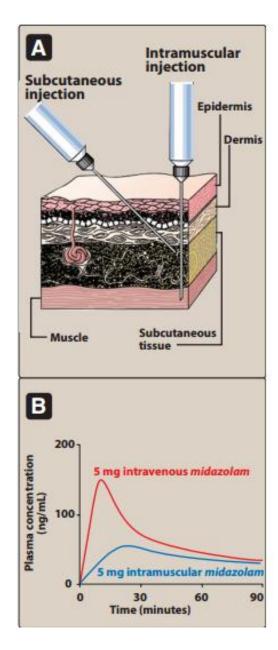
Parenteral Route

- Direct administration of the drug across body barriers into the <u>systemic circulation</u>
 - Used for: 1. Drugs with poor GI absorption (e.g. heparin)
 - 2. Drugs unstable in GI (e.g. insulin)
 - 3. Unconscious patients
 - 4. Rapid onset of action
 - 5. High bioavailability
 - Advantage: no first pass metabolism
 - Disadvantages: Risk of infection
 - Can be irreversible



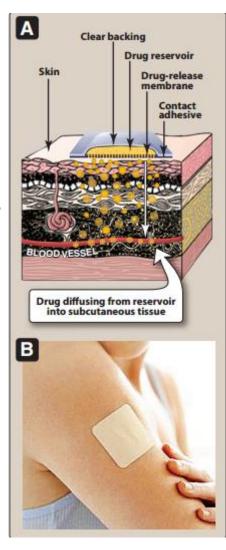
Parenteral Routes

- Intravenous (IV)
 - Bolus: Immediate delivery of full amount
 - Infusion: Delivery over a longer time
- Intramuscular
 - Aqueous solution (Rapid absorption)
 - Depot preparation in nonaqueous vehicle
- Subcutaneous
 - Less risk of hemolysis
 - May provide sustained slow effect



Additional Routes

- Inhalation
 - Oral or nasal
 - Rapid delivery across the large surface area of mucous membranes
- Intrathecal/intraventricular
 - Direct injection into the cerebrospinal fluid
 - Rapid delivery
 - To avoid the blood brain barrier
- Topical: application
 - Skin, for local effect.
- Transdermal
 - Sustained delivery of drugs (e.g. nicotine patches)
- Rectal
 - Avoids first pass metabolism
 - Rapid delivery
 - Used when oral administration is not possible (antiemetics)



Drug Absorption



Absorption of Drugs

- Absorption is the transfer of a drug from the site of administration to the bloodstream via one of several mechanisms
- Rate and efficiency of absorption of a drug depend on:
 - The environment where the drug is absorbed
 - Chemical characteristics of the drug
 - Route of administration

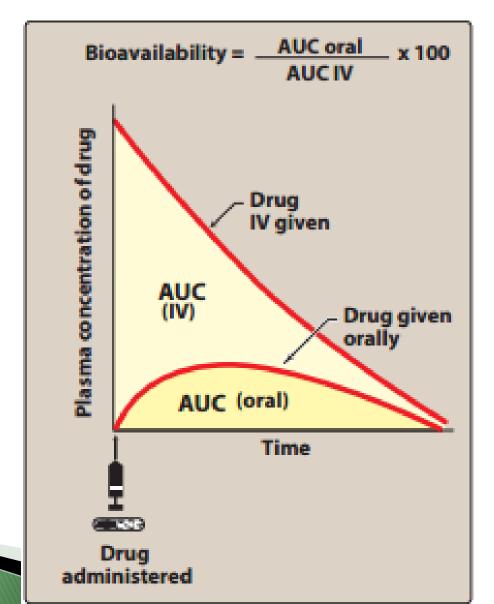
- Absorption Rate: how rapidly does the drug get from its site of administration to the general circulation?
- Absorption Extent: How much of the administered dose enters the general circulation? (% bioavailability = F)

Bioavailability

- Bioavailability: The fraction of administered drug that reaches the systemic circulation
- Example 100 mg of a drug were administered orally, 70 mg of the drug were absorbed unchanged.
 - The bioavailability of this drug is 0.7 or 70%
- For IV drugs, absorption is complete
 - (100% bioavailability)
- Drug administration by other routes may result in partial absorption and lower bioavailability

Bioavailability

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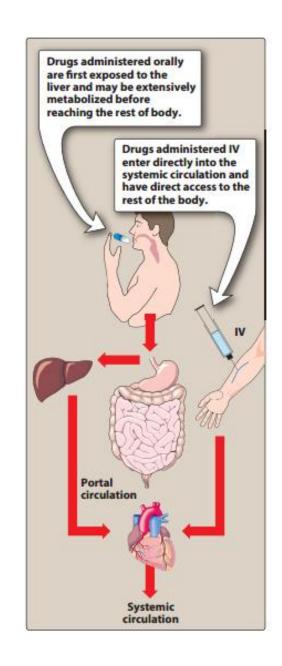
Factors that influence oral bioavailability

- First-pass hepatic metabolism
 (Metabolism by liver enzymes prior to reaching the systemic circulation)
- Nature of the drug formulation
- Solubility of the drug
- Chemical instability
- Decomposition in acidic gastric juices
- Decomposition by hydrolytic gut enzymes (eg, proteases, lipases)
- Degradation by gut microorganisms
- Food in the gut may alter absorption rate and amount (eg. interact or form a complex)
- Metabolism by gut wall enzymes



First-pass metabolism

- When an oral drug is absorbed across the GI tract, it first enters the portal circulation before the systemic circulation
- If the drug is rapidly metabolized, less of the active ingredient will reach the systemic circulation
- Example: nitroglycerine
 (90% is cleared through passage through the liver)
 - It is Given sublingually



- Solubility of the drug
 - Very hydrophilic drugs can not cross lipid-rich cell membranes, and so they are poorly absorbed
 - Extremely hydrophobic drugs are poorly absorbed because they're insoluble in aqueous body fluids
 - For good absorption the drug needs to be hydrophobic with some water solubility
 - Most drugs are weak acids or bases

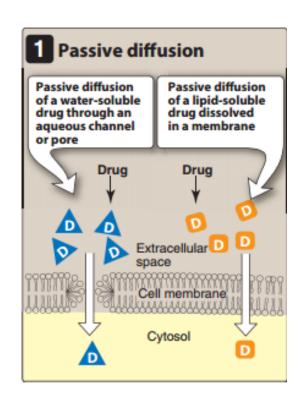
- Chemical instability
 - Insulin is destroyed in the stomach by degradative enzymes
 - Penicillin G. is instable in gastric pH
- Nature of the drug formulation
 - Presence of excipients alter the rate of absorption

Mechanisms of drug absorption from GI tract

- Passive diffusion:
- Facilitated diffusion
- Active transport
- Endocytosis and exocytosis

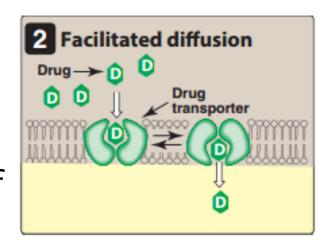
Passive diffusion

- Movement of drug molecules across membranes from a region of high concentration to a region of lower concentration
- Most drugs are absorbed through this mechanism
- No carrier involved
- Non saturable



Facilitated diffusion

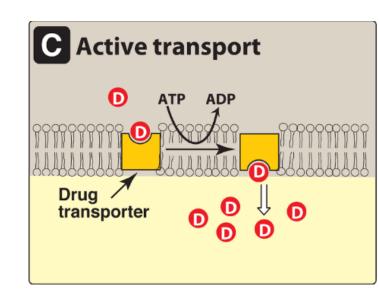
- Entry to the cell through specialized transmembrane carrier proteins
- Movement occurs from the area of the high concentration to the area of low concentration



- Does not require energy
- Can be saturated and inhibited by compounds that compete for the carrier

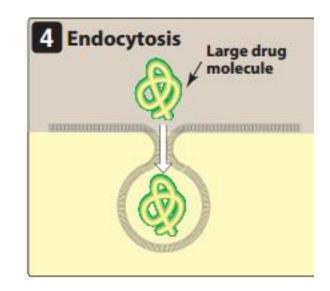
Active transport

- Involves specific carrier proteins
- Requires energy
- Moves the drugs against the concentration gradient (from low concentration to high concentration regions)
- Selective
- Saturable, can be inhibited by cotransported substances



Endocytosis and exocytosis

- Transport of exceptionally large drugs
- Endocytosis: engulfment of a molecule by the cell membrane
- Exocytosis: the reverse process that leads to the release of molecules

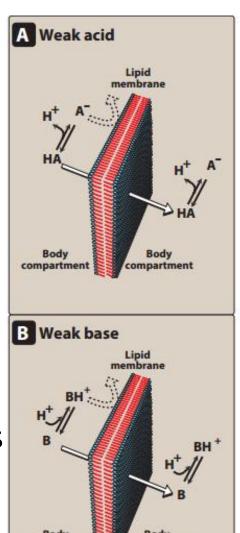


Example: Vitamin B12 transport across the gut wall by endocytosis

Factors influencing absorption

1. pH

- Most drugs are weak acids or weak bases
 HA → H⁺ + A⁻
 BH⁺ → B + H⁺
- Drugs pass through membranes easier when uncharged
- pH < pK_a protonated form predominates
- pH > pK_a deprotonated form predominates



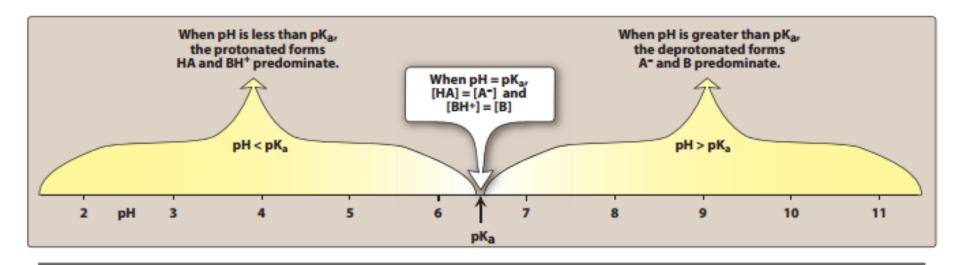


Figure 1.8

The distribution of a drug between its ionized and nonionized forms depends on the ambient pH and pK_a of the drug. For illustrative purposes, the drug has been assigned a pK_a of 6.5.

Factors influencing absorption

- 2. Blood flow to the absorption site
 - Because blood flow is much greater in the intestines than the stomach, absorption is greater in the intestines.
- 3. Total surface area available for absorption
 - Intestines have large surface area
- 4. Contact time at the absorption surface
 - Absorption is affected by changes in gastric motility (e.g. diarrhea)
- 5. Expression of P-glycoprotein
 - Drug transporter (reduces absorption)
 - In liver, kidney, brain, intestines



P-glycoproteins (P-gp)

- It is expressed throughout the body, and its functions include:
 - In the liver: transporting drugs into bile for elimination
 - In kidneys: pumping drugs into urine for excretion
 - In the placenta: transporting drugs back into maternal blood, thereby reducing fetal exposure to drugs
 - In the intestines: transporting drugs into the intestinal lumen and reducing drug absorption into the blood
 - In the brain capillaries: pumping drugs back into blood, limiting drug access to the brain
- High expression of p-gp reduces absorption



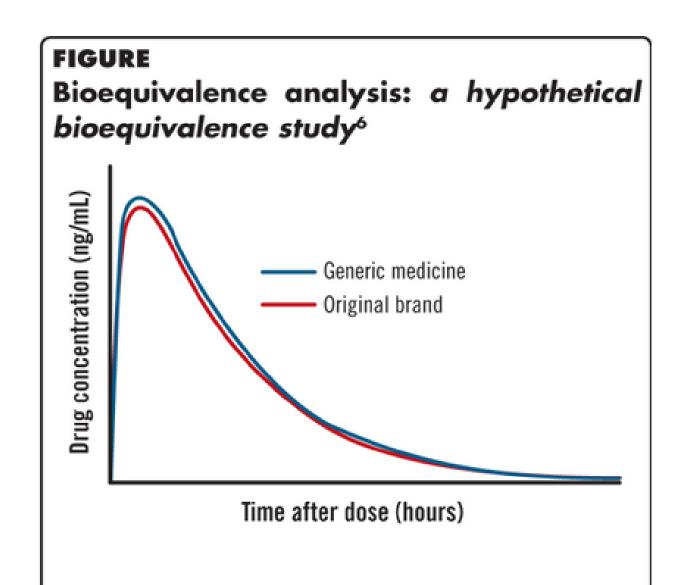
Bioequivalence

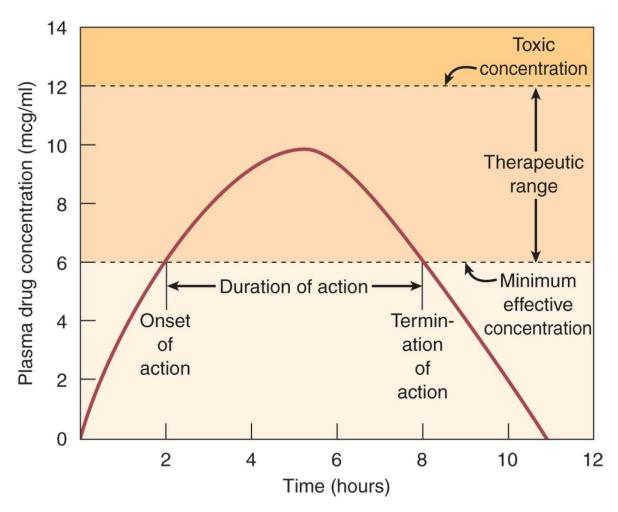
Two related drug preparations are bioequivalent if they show

- Comparable bioavailability
- Similar times to achieve peak blood concentrations.

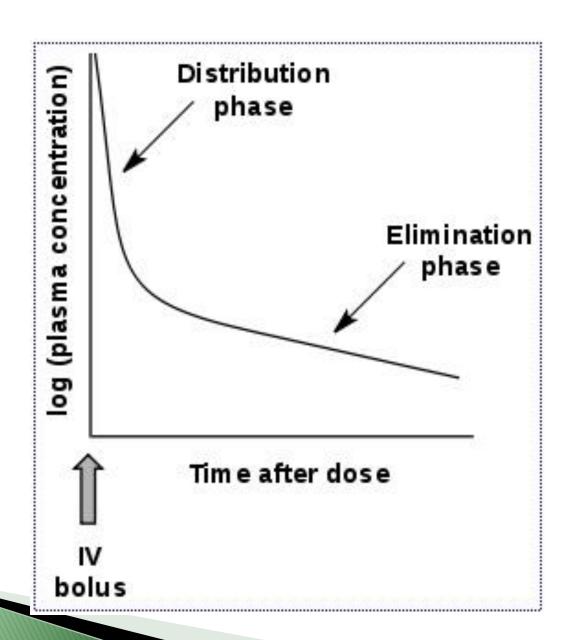
Therapeutic equivalence

Two similar drug products are therapeutically equal if they are pharmaceutically equivalent with similar clinical and safety profiles





Adams et al. 2008



Drug Distribution

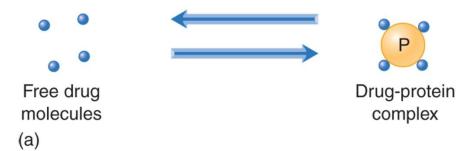
 Distribution: the process by which a drug reversibly leaves the blood stream and enters the interstitium and then cells

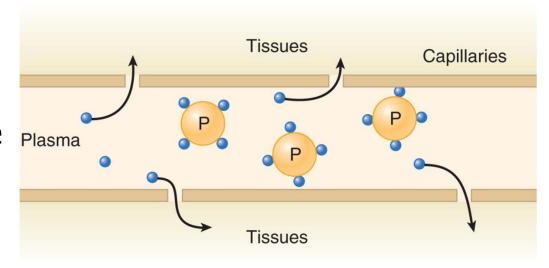
For an IV drug; No absorption occurs
 Distribution occurs immediately after administration

Drug Distribution

Distribution depends on

- 1. Cardiac output and regional blood flow
- 2. Capillary permeability
- 3. Tissue volume
- 4. Drug-protein binding in plasma and tissues
- 5. Hydrophobicity of the drug





(b)

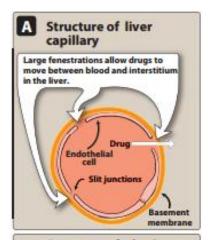
1. Blood Flow

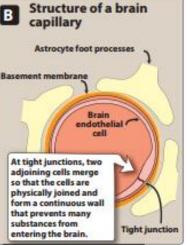
- Due to unequal distribution of cardiac output, the rate of blood flow to tissue capillaries is variable
- Blood flow to the brain, liver and kidney is greater than that to skeletal muscles
- Adipose tissue, skin and viscera have lower rates of blood flow

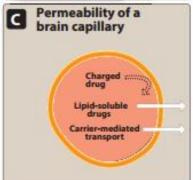
- Example: thiopental, highly lipid soluble
 - Initially rapidly moves into the brain due to high blood flow and produces anesthesia
 - A slower distribution into skeletal muscles and adipose tissues lowers plasma concentration, and CNS concentration
 - Consciousness is regained

2. Capillary permeability

- Depends on
 - Capillary structure
 - Chemical nature of the drug







Drug-Protein binding

- Binding to plasma proteins
 - Nonselective
 - Albumin
 - Protein bound drug Free drug Metabolism
 Excretion
- Binding to tissue proteins
 - Drugs can accumulate in tissues due to tissue protein binding extending their effects or causing local toxicity
- Hydrophobicity
 - Hydrophobic drugs cross cell membranes
 - Hydrophilic drugs need to pass through the slit junction



Volume of Distribution

$$V_d = \frac{Amount of drug in the body}{C_0}$$

Va: Apparent volume of distribution

Co:Plasma concentration at time zero



- Vd has no physiologic basis It can be used to compare the distribution of a drug in the water compartments of the body
 - · Plasma (4L)

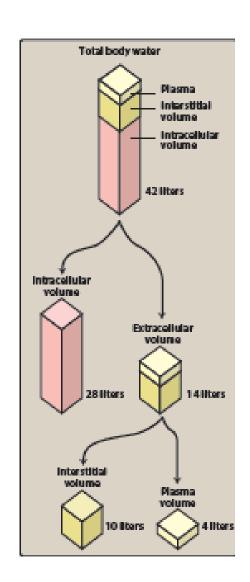
large molecular weight or highly protein bound drugs

- e.g. Heparin
 - Extracellular fluid (14L)

Low molecular weight but hydrophilic and can not cross cell membranes

Total body water (42 L)

Low molecular weight and hydrophobic



- Apparent volume of distribution (V_d)
 - A drug rarely associates with one water compartment
 - Usually drugs are bound to cellular compartments like
 - Proteins in plasma and cells
 - Lipids in adipocytes and cell membranes
 - Nucleic acids in nuclei of cells
- Vd is useful for calculating the loading dose of a drug

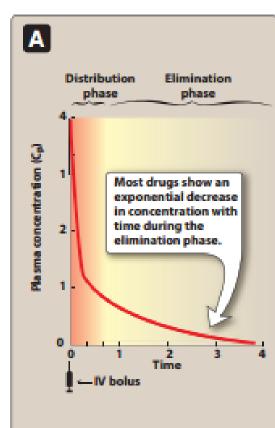


Example:

If 10 mg of a drug are injected and the plasma

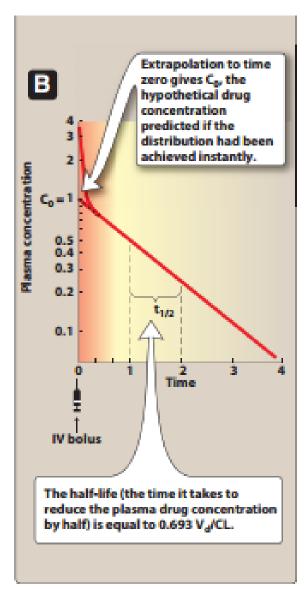
concentration is 1 mg/L what is Vd?

$$V_{d} = \frac{Dose}{C_{0}} = \frac{10}{1} = 10 L$$



Plasma Half-Life (t_{1/2}) of Drugs

- Length of time needed to decrease drug plasma concentration by one half
- The greater the half-life of the drug, the longer it takes to excrete
- Determines frequency and dosages



- Elimination depends on the amount of the drug delivered to the liver or the kidney per time unit
- The greater the Vd the less drug that is available to the excretory organ
- ► The greater the V_d the higher the half life of the drug, and the longer the duration of action
- An exceptionally high Vd indicates the sequestration of the drug in tissues

Metabolism



Drug clearance through metabolism

- Once the drug enters the body, elimination begins
- Routes of elimination include:
 - 1. Hepatic metabolism
 - 2. Elimination in bile
 - 3. Elimination in urine
- Metabolism leads to products with increased polarity which allows drug elimination

 Clearance (CL) the amount of drug cleared from the body per unit time

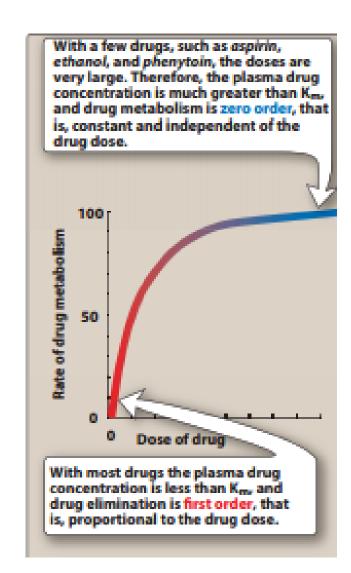
 \circ CL= 0.693 X Vd/t_{1/2}

t1/2: elimination half life for the drug

Vd: apparent volume of distribution

Metabolism Kinetics

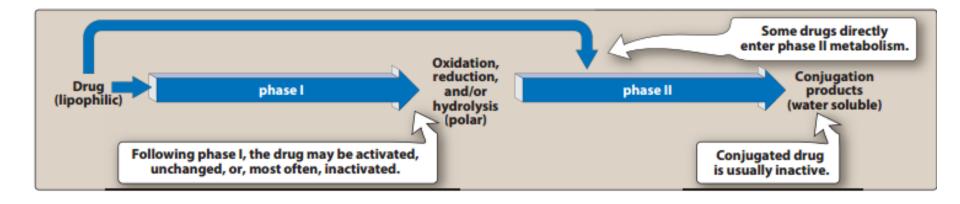
- 1. First-order kinetics
 The rate of drug metabolism and elimination is directly proportional to the drug concentration
- 2. Zero-order kinetics (nonlinear kinetics)
- e.g. aspirin, ethanol, phenytoin
- The rate of metabolism or elimination is constant and does not depend on drug concentration.



- Michaelis-Menten Enzyme Kinetics V= rate of drug metabolism= Vmax [C] Km +[C]
 - First-order kinetics (C is <<<<Km)
 V= rate of drug metabolism= Vmax [C]
 Km
 - Zero-order kinetics (C>>>>>Km)
 V= rate of drug metabolism= Vmax [C]
 Vmax
 [C]

Reactions of Drug Metabolism

- Kidney cannot efficiently eliminate lipophilic drugs as they get reabsorbed in distal convoluted tubules.
- Lipid soluble agents must be metabolized into more polar (hydrophilic) substances in the liver
 - 1. Phase I reactions
 Oxidation, Reduction, Hydrolysis
 - 2. Phase II reactions Conjugation



Not all drugs undergo Phase I and Phase II metabolism in that order, sometimes the order is reversed.

Phase I Metabolism

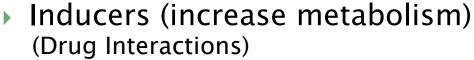
- Conversion of lipophilic molecules into more polar molecules by unmasking or adding a polar group like -OH or -NH2
 - Involve P450 enzymes
 (most frequent for Phase I drug metabolism)
 - Not involving P450: e.g. Esterases and Hydrolysis

P450

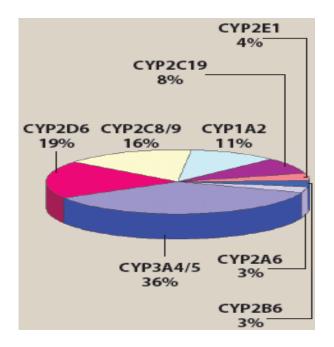
Family CYP3A4

Subfamily

- Genetically variable
 - Altered drug efficacy
 - Altered toxicity risk
 - CYP2D6



- Decrease plasma concentration
- Decrease therapeutic effect
- Decrease drug activity if metabolite is inac
- Increase drug activity if metabolite is activ



	Isozyme: CYP3A4/5	
	COMMON SUBSTRATES	INDUCERS
v	Carbamazepine Cyclosporine Erythromycin Nifedipine Verapamil	Carbamazepine Dexamethasone Phenobarbital Phenytoin Rifampin

P450

Inhibitors:

- P450 inhibitors cause drug interactions
- Can cause adverse reactions
- Example: Grapefruit and its juice can inhibit CYP3A4 leading to increased levels of drugs metabolized by this enzyme causing higher therapeutic or toxic effects

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Phase II Metabolism

- Conjugation reactions
- If Phase I metabolite are still too lipophilic then they undergo conjugation reactions with endogenous substrates like:
 - Glucuronic acid (most common)
 - Sulfuric acid
 - Acetic acid
 - Amino acid



Excretion



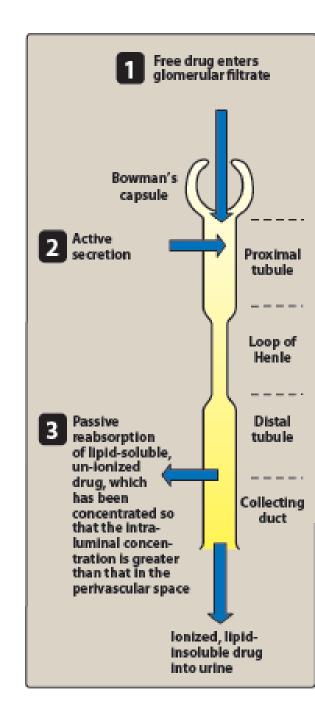
Drug excretion by the kidney

The most important route for drug removal from the body is through the kidney into the urine

Drugs need to be polar enough for efficient excretion

Renal elimination

- Elimination of drugs into the urine involves 3 processes:
- 1. Glomerular filtration
- 2. Proximal tubular secretion
- 3. Distal tubular reabsorption



Glomerular filtration

- Drugs enter the kidney through renal arteries which divide to form a glomerular capillary plexus
- Free drug (non-protein bound) flows into Bowman's space as part of the glomerular filtrate
- Glomerular filtration rate is 125mL/min
- Lipid solubility and pH do not influence glomerular filtration rate



Proximal tubular secretion

- Secretion occurs in the proximal tubules by 2 energy requiring active transport systems
 - One for anions (deprotonated forms of weak acids)
 - One for cations (protonated forms of weak bases)
- Competition between drugs on the transport systems can occur



Distal tubular reabsorption

- As a drug moves toward DTC its concentration becomes higher than in the perivascular space
- Uncharged drugs will diffuse out of the nephric lumen to the systemic circulation

Distal tubule reabsorption

Increasing the ionized form of the drug in the lumen by changing the pH of the urine can minimize the back-diffusion and increase clearance

{Ion Trapping}

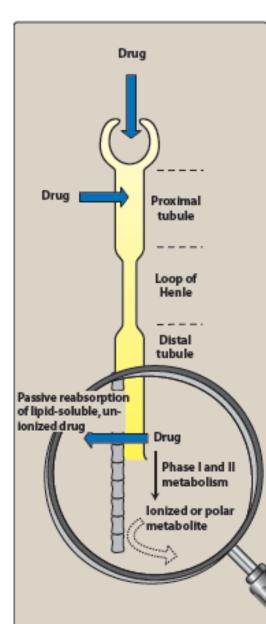
- Elimination of weak acids can be increased by alkalinization of the urine
 - e.g. phenobarbital (weak acid) overdose
- Alkalinization of urine with bicarbonate keeps the drug ionized
 - Elimination of weak bases can be enhanced by acidification of the urine
 - e.g. overdose of amphetamine (weak base)
- Acidification of urine with NH4Cl causes the protonation of the drug and enhancement of its excretion

Role of drug metabolism in elimination

Most drugs are lipid soluble

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- Without chemical modification drugs would diffuse back from the kidney lumen when their concentration is higher there
- To minimize reabsorption drugs are modified (mainly in liver) to more polar compounds



Clearance by other routes

- Liver
- Intestine
- Bile
- Lungs
- Milk in nursing mothers
- To a small extent in sweat, tears saliva, hair and skin

Liver

- contributes to drug loss through metabolism and/or excretion into the bile
- patients with renal failure may benefit from drugs excreted through this route

Feces

- Elimination of unabsorbed orally ingested drugs
- Elimination of drugs that are secreted directly into the intestines or bile

Lungs

- Elimination of anesthetic gases
- Breast milk
 - Source of undesired effects to the infant

Total body clearance

$$CL_{total} = CL_{hepatic} + CL_{renal} + CL_{pulmonary} + CL_{other}$$

where $CL_{hepatic} + CL_{renal}$ are typically the most important.

- ▶ t1/2 of drugs can be altered by
 - Diminished renal or hepatic flow (11/2)
 (e.g. cardiogenic shock, heart failure, hemorrhage)
 - Decreased ability to extract drug from plasma (1t1/2)
 (e.g. renal disease)
 - Decreased metabolism (1 t1/2)
 - o Increased hepatic blood flow (↓t1/2)
 - Decreased protein binding (\$\psi_t_{1/2}\$)
 - Increased metabolism (t1/2)

