

A decorative graphic on the left side of the slide, consisting of a network of light blue lines and circles that resemble a circuit board or a data network. The lines are vertical and horizontal, with small circles at various points, creating a grid-like structure that tapers towards the top and bottom.

PHARMACOKINETIC

The background is a solid teal color with a subtle gradient. In the four corners, there are decorative white line-art elements resembling circuit traces or neural pathways. These lines connect to small white circles, creating a network-like pattern. The lines are thin and the circles are small, adding a technical or scientific feel to the slide.

LECTURE BY :
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OBJECTIVE

LEARNING THE MECHANISM OF

ABSORPTION

DISTRIBUTION

METABOLISM

ELIMINATION

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Illustrated
Reviews**

Pharmacology

SEVENTH EDITION



WHAT IS THE PHARMACOLOGY

Pharmacology is a branch of medicine, •
biology and pharmaceutical sciences
concerned with drug or medication action.

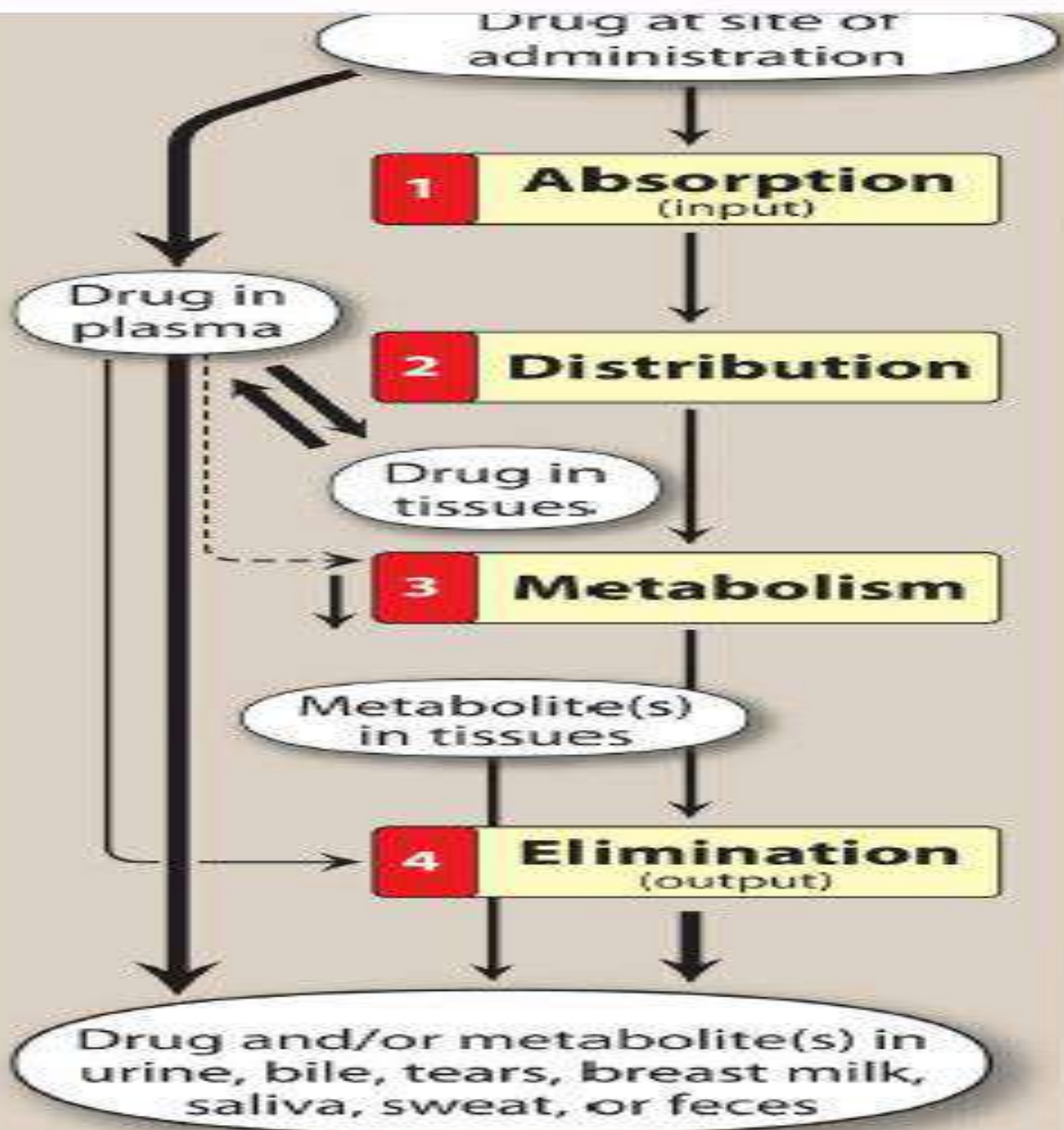
PHARMACOLOGY MEANS :

- *Pharmacodynamics is defined as how the body reacts to the drugs
- *Pharmacokinetics is the study of the bodily absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion of drugs.

WHAT IS MEANING OF PHARMACOKINETICS

mean how the human body handling the drug •

- Absorption
- Distribution
- Metabolism
- Elimination



ROUTES OF DRUG ADMINISTRATION

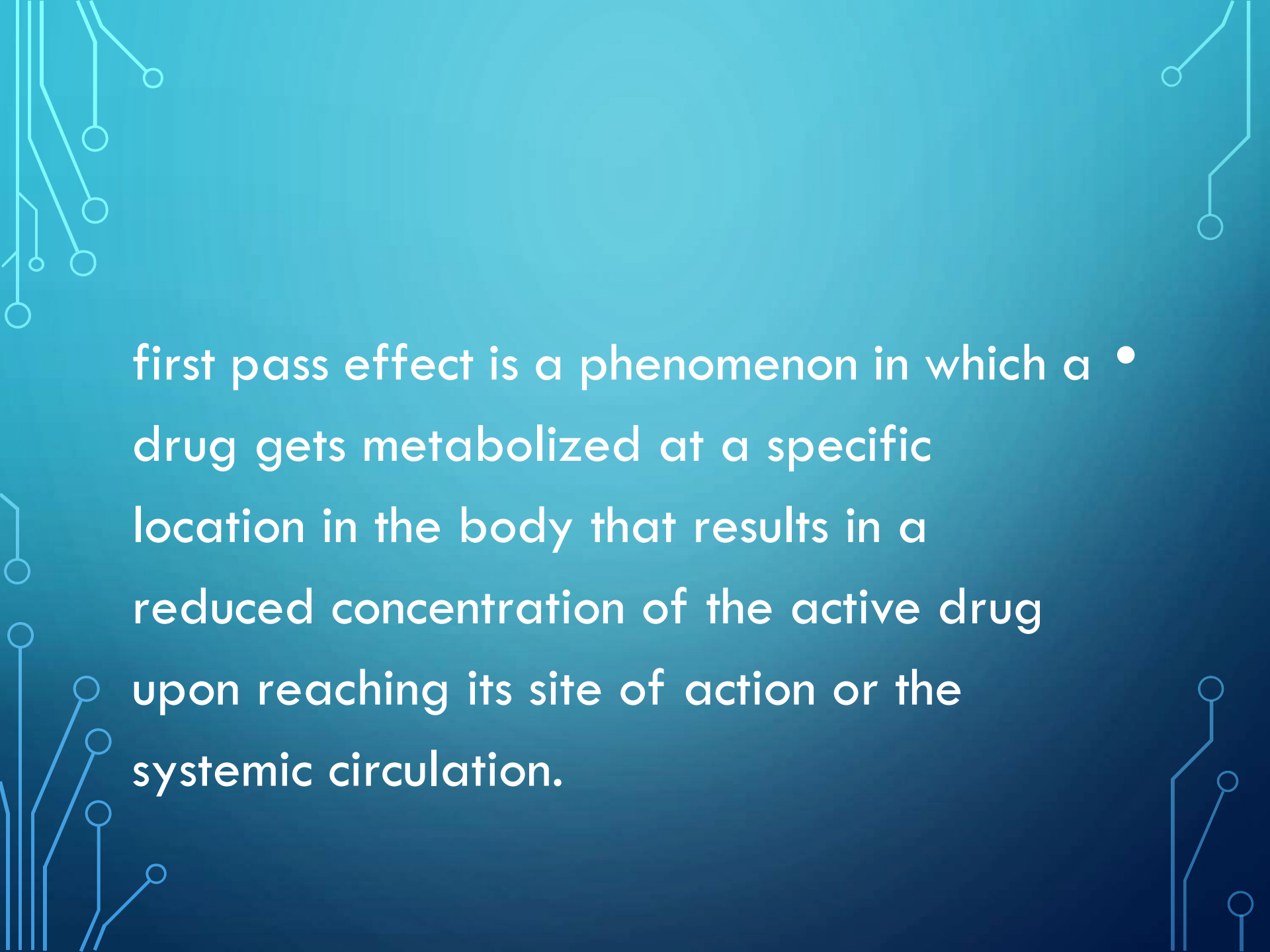
A. Enteral •

1. Oral •

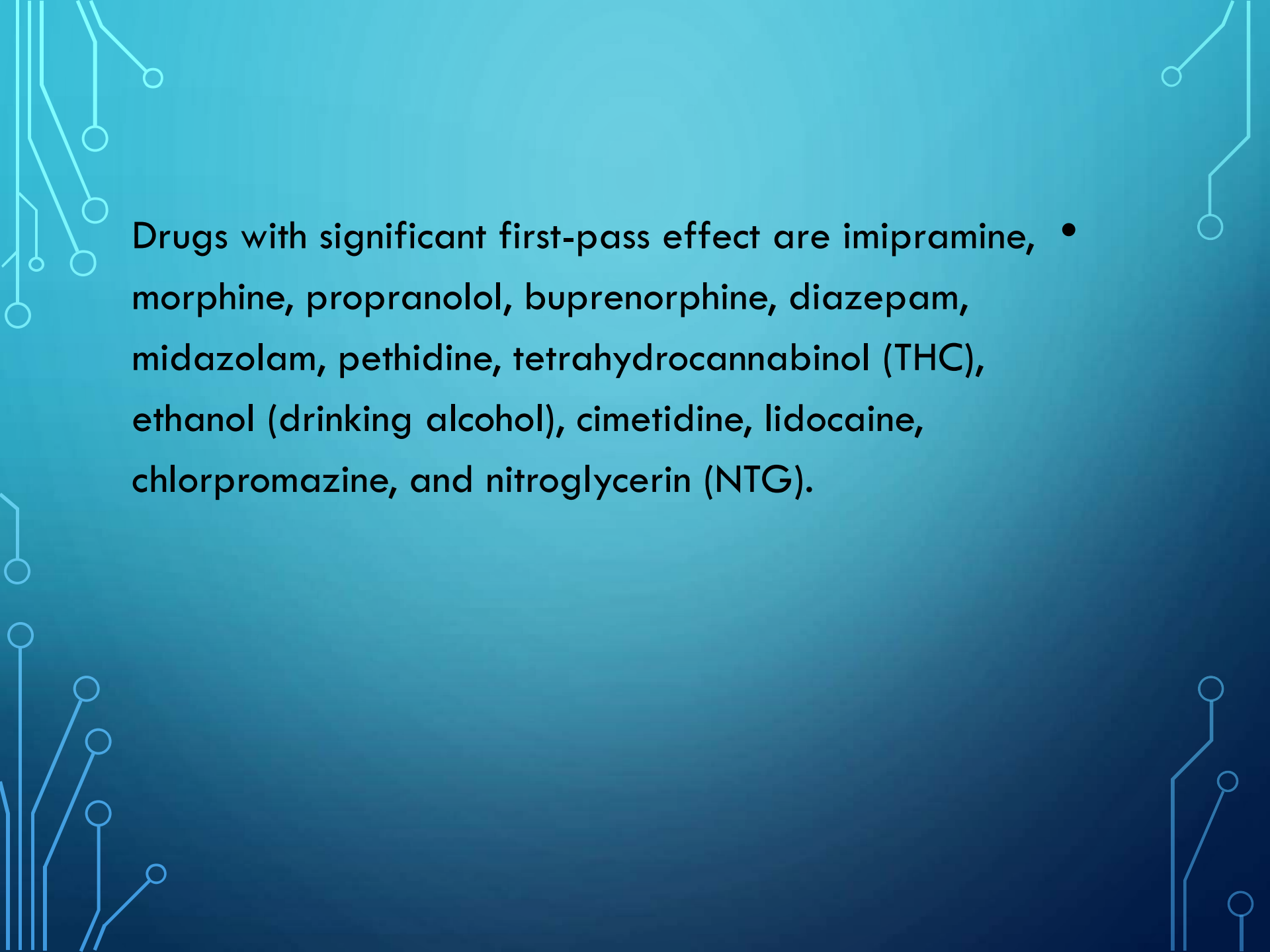
a. Enteric-coated preparations •

b. Extended-release preparations •

2. Sublingual/buccal •

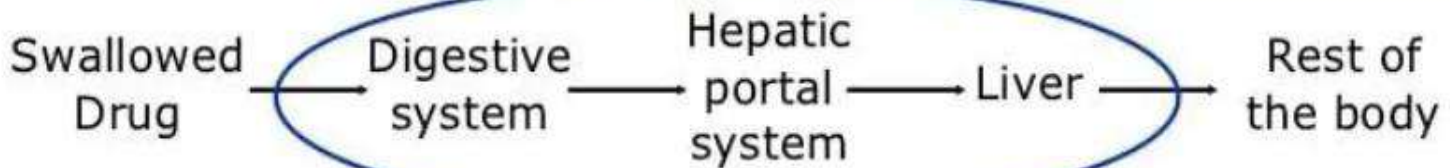
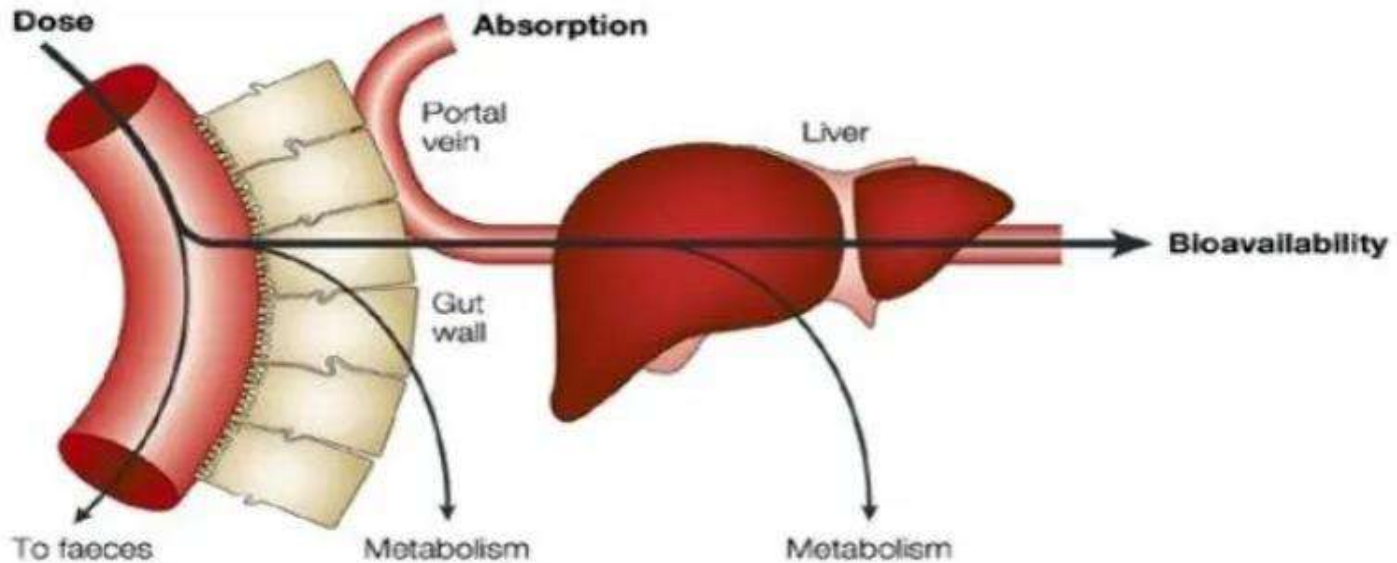


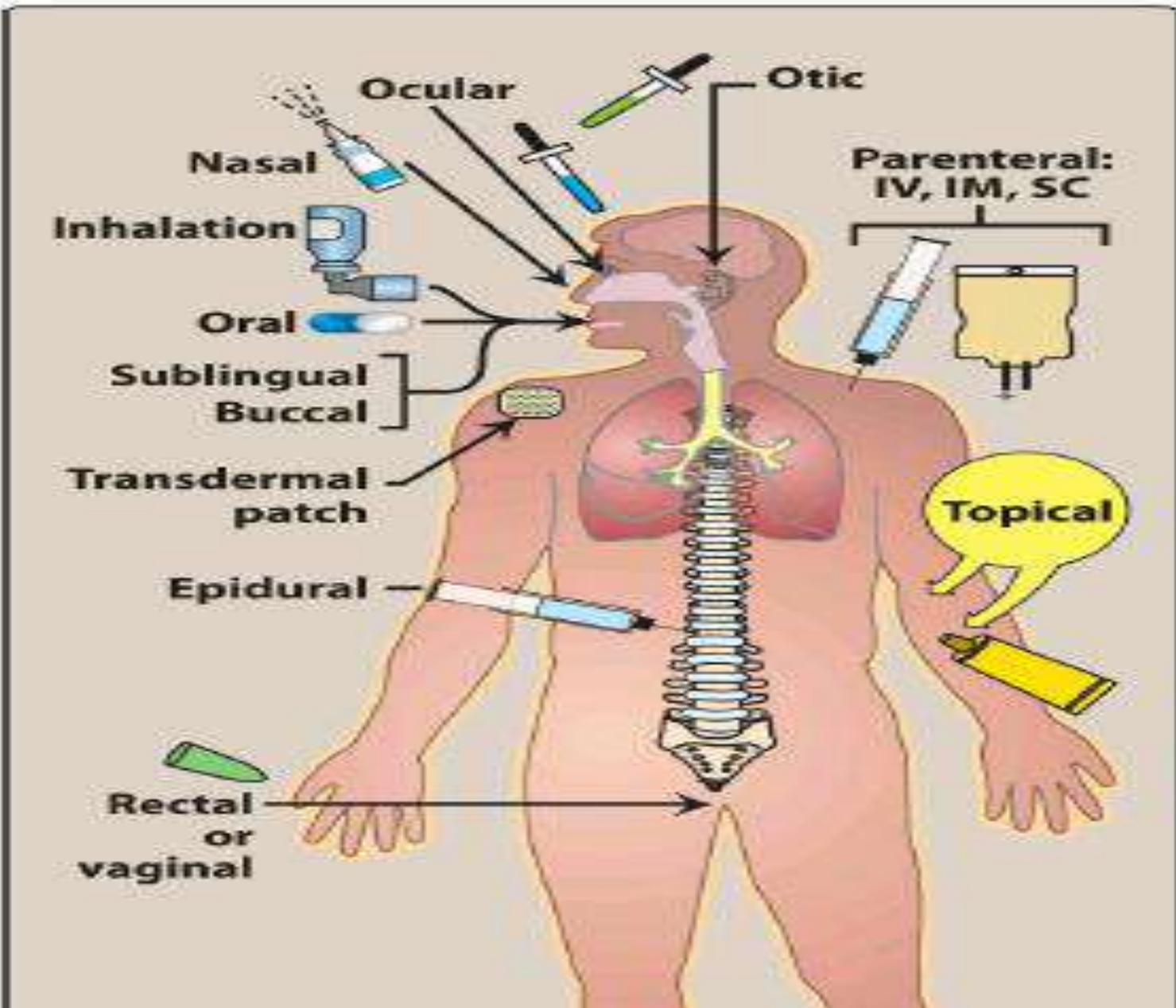
first pass effect is a phenomenon in which a •
drug gets metabolized at a specific
location in the body that results in a
reduced concentration of the active drug
upon reaching its site of action or the
systemic circulation.



Drugs with significant first-pass effect are imipramine, morphine, propranolol, buprenorphine, diazepam, midazolam, pethidine, tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), ethanol (drinking alcohol), cimetidine, lidocaine, chlorpromazine, and nitroglycerin (NTG).

First Pass Metabolism





ROUTES OF DRUG ADMINISTRATION

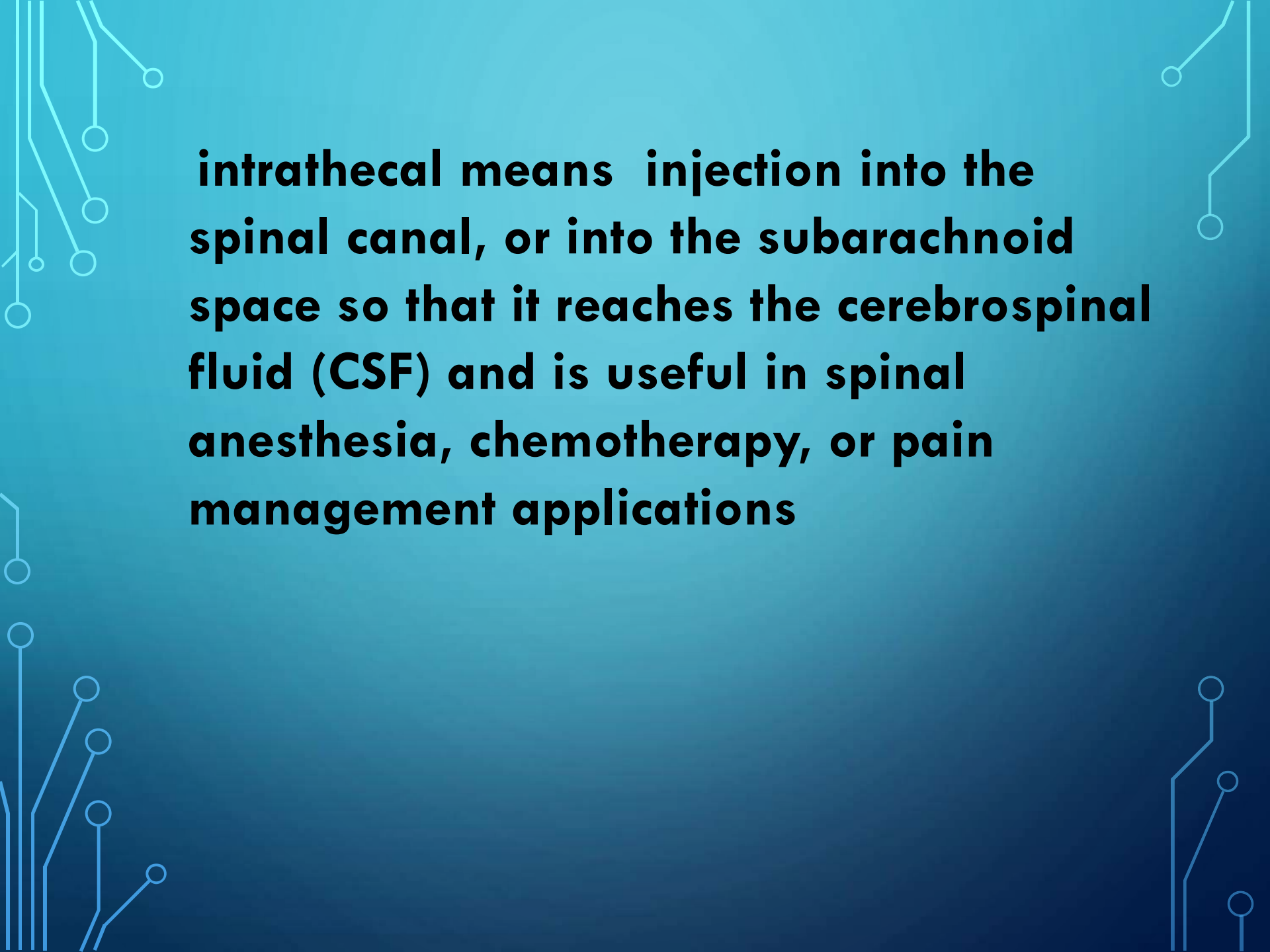
B. Parenteral •

1. Intravenous (IV) •
2. Intramuscular (IM) •
3. Subcutaneous (SC) •

ROUTES OF DRUG ADMINISTRATION

C. Other •

1. Oral inhalation •
2. Nasal inhalation •
3. Intrathecal / intraventricular •
4. Topical •
6. Rectal •

The image features a dark blue background with white, stylized circuit board traces in the corners. These traces consist of straight lines and small circles, resembling electronic components or connections. The text is centered in a bold, black, sans-serif font.

intrathecal means injection into the spinal canal, or into the subarachnoid space so that it reaches the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) and is useful in spinal anesthesia, chemotherapy, or pain management applications

Common Routes of Administration

<u>Route</u>	<u>Bioavailability</u>	<u>Characteristics</u>
IV	100%	Most rapid onset
IM	75-100%	Large volumes often feasible; may be painful
SC	75-100%	Smaller volumes than i.m. may be painful
Oral (PO or enteral)	0-100%	Most convenient 1st pass effect
Rectal*	30-100%	Less 1st pass effect
Inhalation	5-100%	Often rapid onset (Rx: asthma)
Transdermal	80-100%	Slow absorption & onset of action; no 1st pass; long duration of action

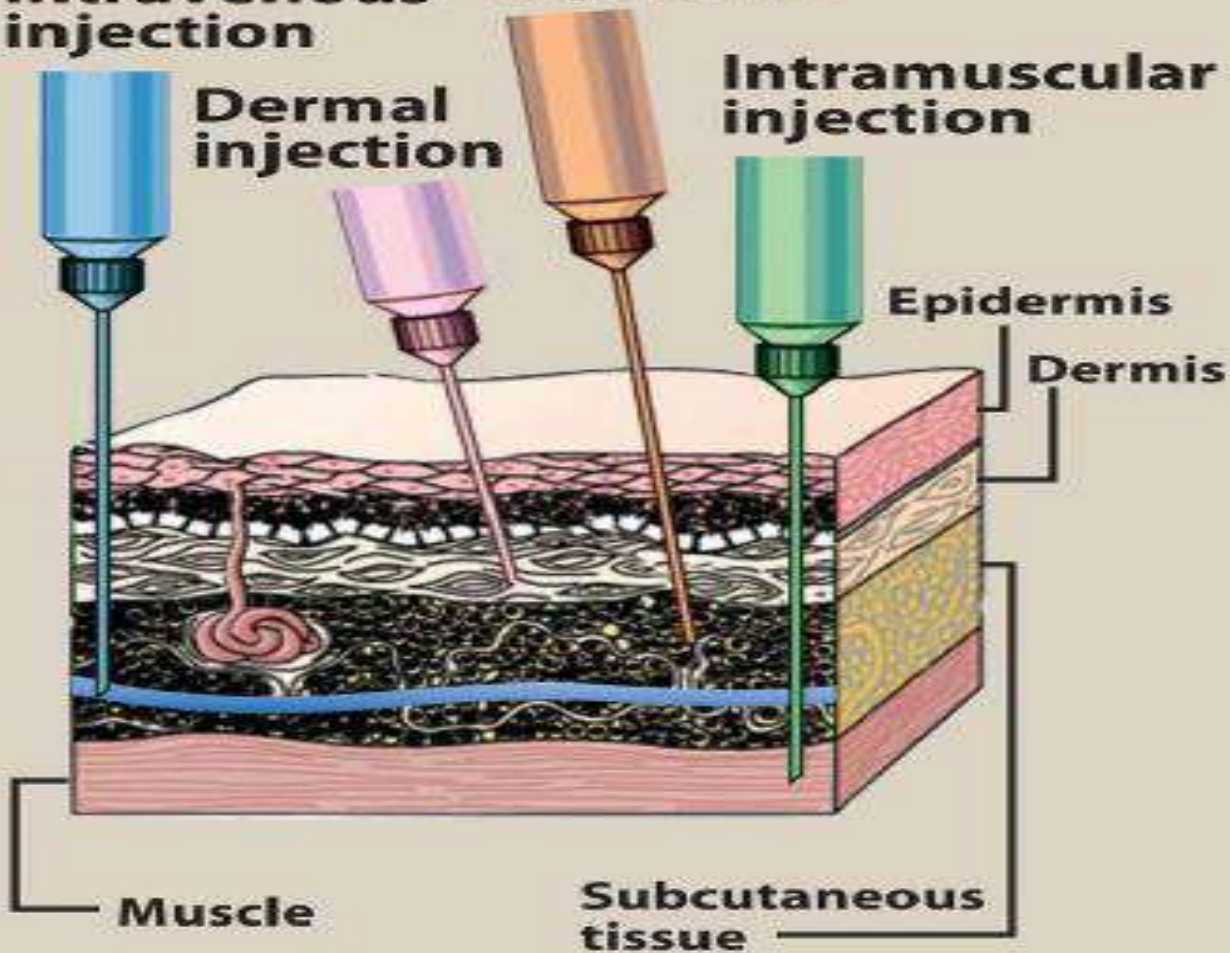
A

Intravenous injection

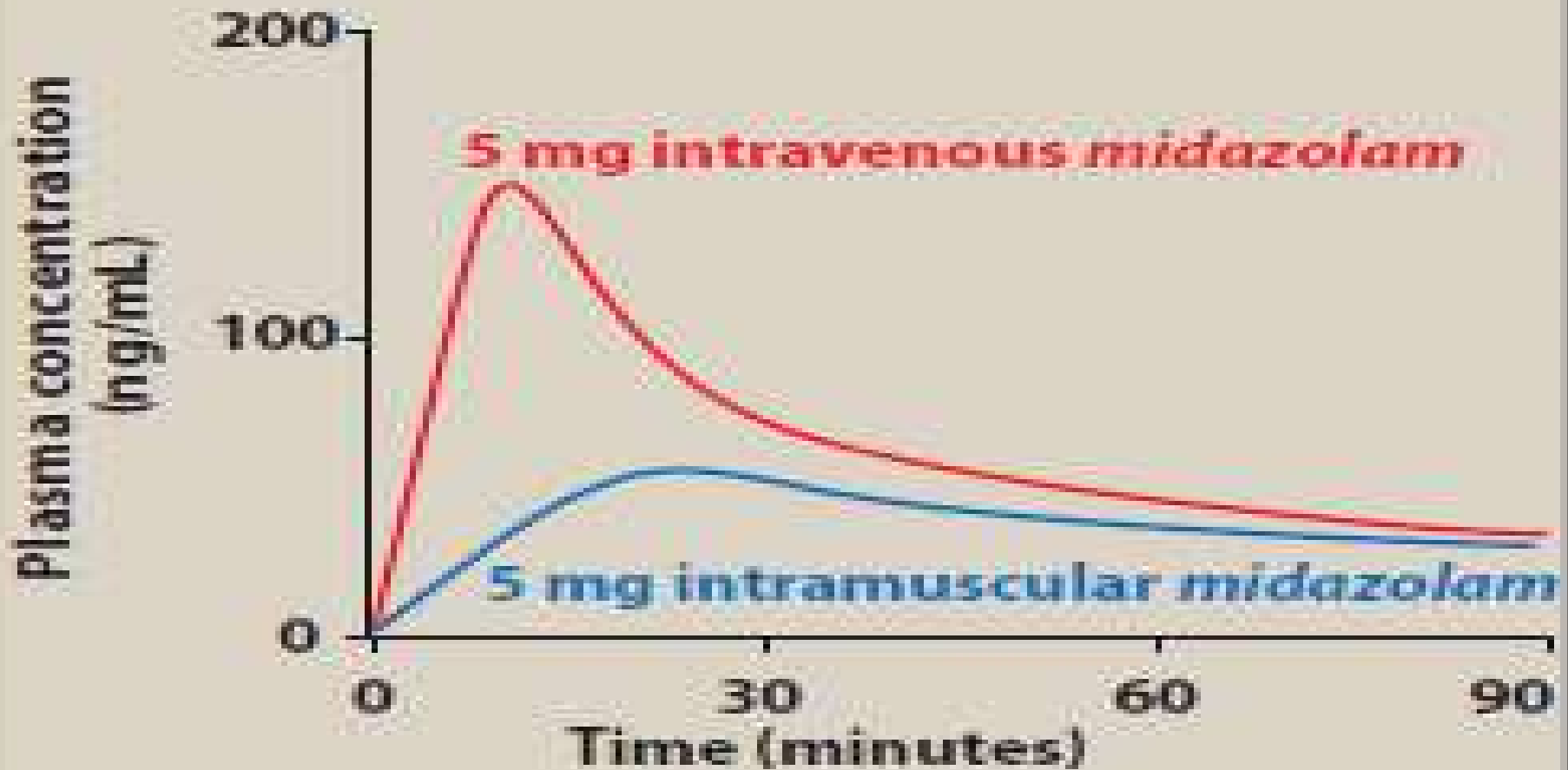
Subcutaneous injection

Dermal injection

Intramuscular injection



B



ABSORPTION

Absorption is the transfer of a drug •
from the site of administration to the
bloodstream

ABSORPTION OF DRUGS

Mechanisms of absorption of drugs from the GI tract •

- 1. Passive diffusion e.g most drugs •**
- 2. Facilitated diffusion e.g glucose •**
- 3. Active transport e.g ions, vitamins, sugars, amino acids •**
- 4. Endocytosis e.g neurotransmitter •**

PASSIVE DIFFUSION

The driving force for passive diffusion of a • drug is the concentration gradient across a membrane separating two body compartments.

FACILITATED DIFFUSION

specialized transmembrane carrier proteins •
that facilitate the passage of large
molecules. These carrier proteins undergo •
conformational changes, allowing the
passage of drugs or endogenous
molecules into the interior of cells. •

ACTIVE TRANSPORT

involves specific carrier proteins that span the membrane. However, active transport is energy dependent, driven by the hydrolysis of adenosine triphosphate (ATP).

ENDOCYTOSIS AND EXOCYTOSIS

This type of absorption is used to transport drugs of exceptionally large size across the cell membrane. Endocytosis

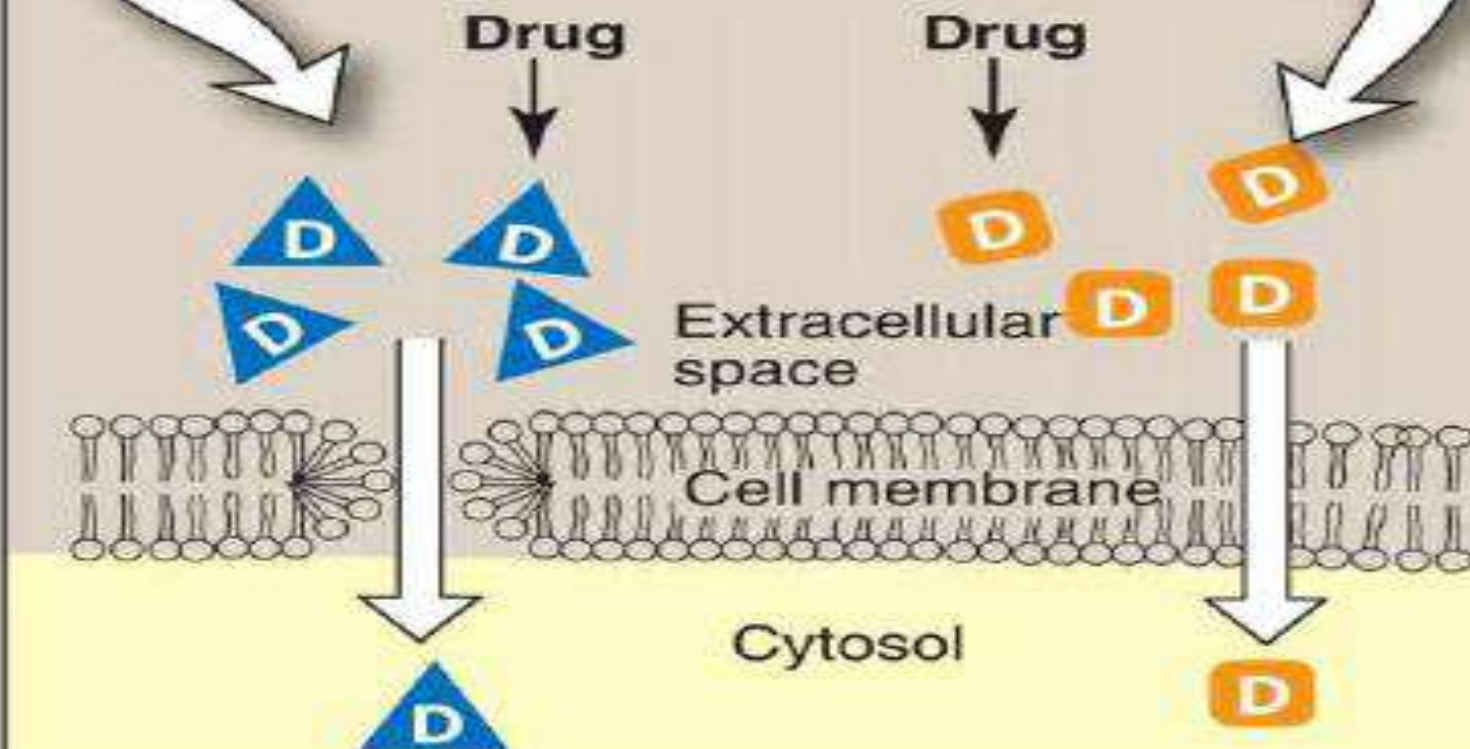
involves engulfment of a drug by the cell membrane and transport into the cell by pinching off the drug-filled vesicle.

Exocytosis is the reverse of endocytosis.

1 Passive diffusion

Passive diffusion of a water-soluble drug through an aqueous channel or pore

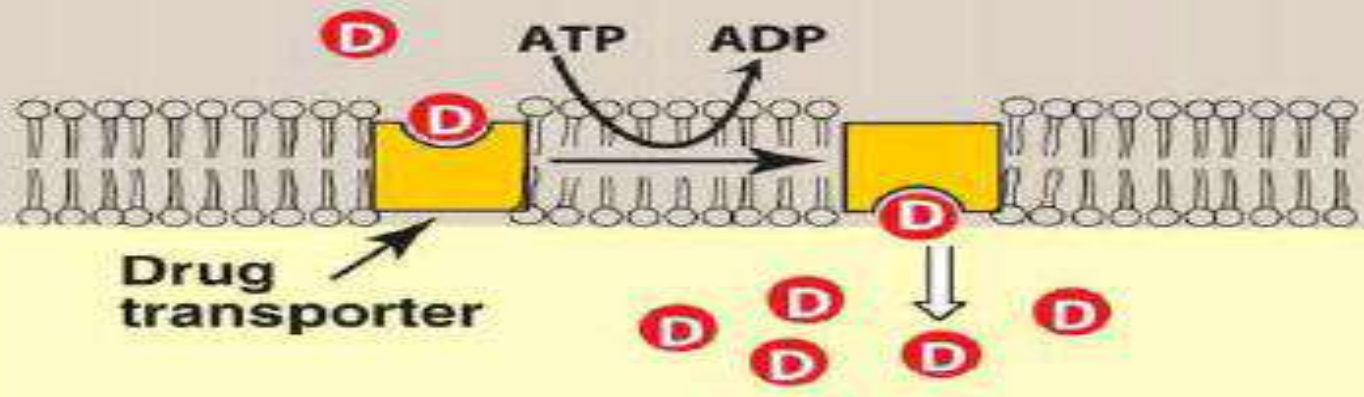
Passive diffusion of a lipid-soluble drug dissolved in a membrane



2 Facilitated diffusion



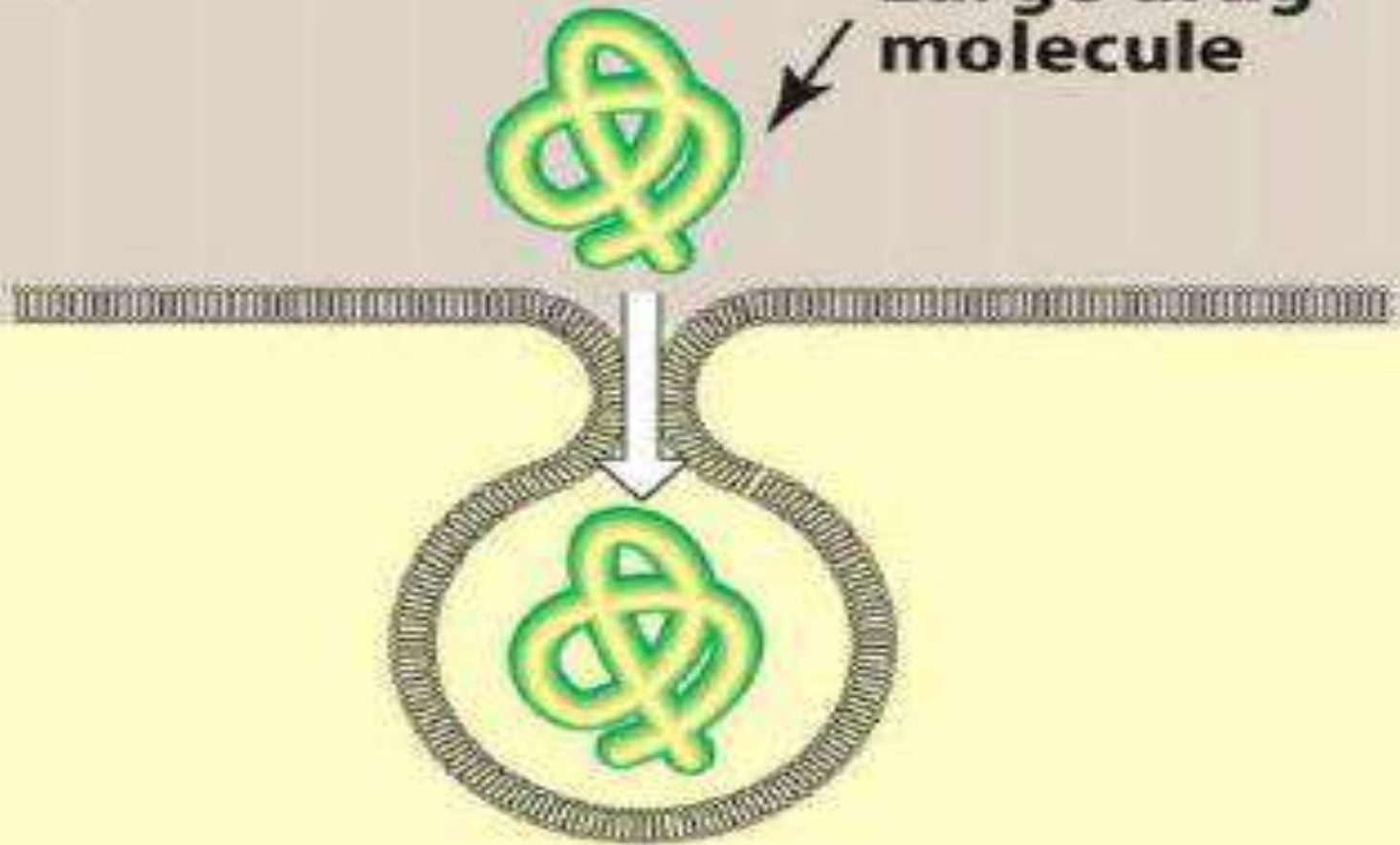
3 Active transport



4

Endocytosis

Large drug molecule



FACTORS INFLUENCING ABSORPTION

1. Effect of pH on drug absorption •
2. Blood flow to the absorption site •
3. Total surface area available for absorption •
4. Contact time at the absorption surface •
5. Expression of P-glycoprotein •

HENDERSON-HASSELBALCH EQUATION

$$pH = pK_a + \log ([A^-]/[HA]) \bullet$$

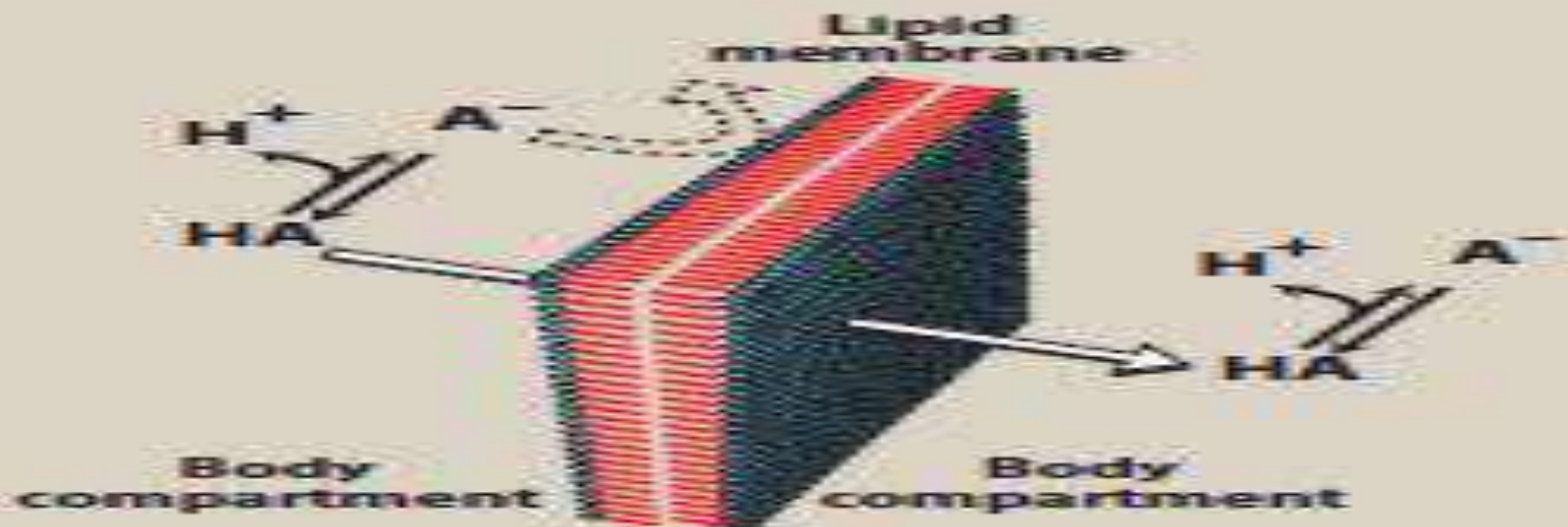
$$pH = pK_a + \log ([ionized]/[unionized]) \bullet$$

NOTE

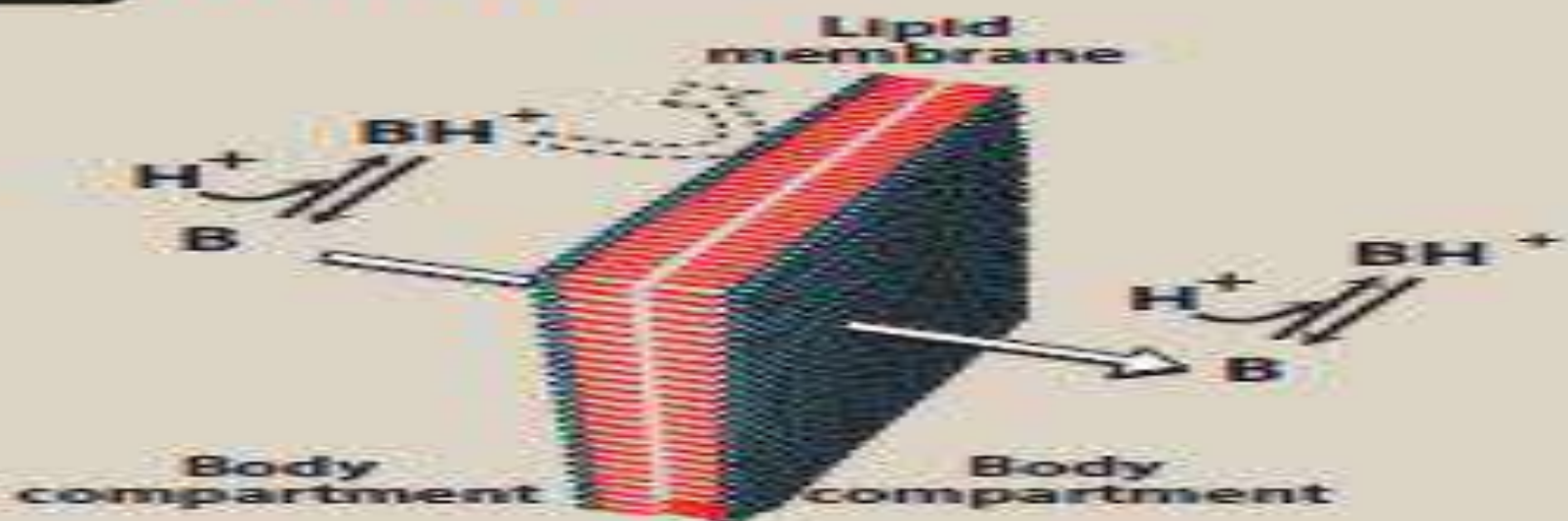
Un ionized form of drug is lipid soluble •

Ionized form of drug is water soluble •

A Weak acid



B Weak base



BIOAVAILABILITY

Bioavailability is the rate and extent to which an administered drug reaches the systemic circulation

BIOAVAILABILITY

1. Determination of bioavailability •
2. Factors that influence bioavailability •
 - a. First-pass hepatic metabolism •
 - b. Solubility of the drug •
 - c. Chemical instability •
 - d. Nature of the drug formulation •

SOLUBILITY OF THE DRUG

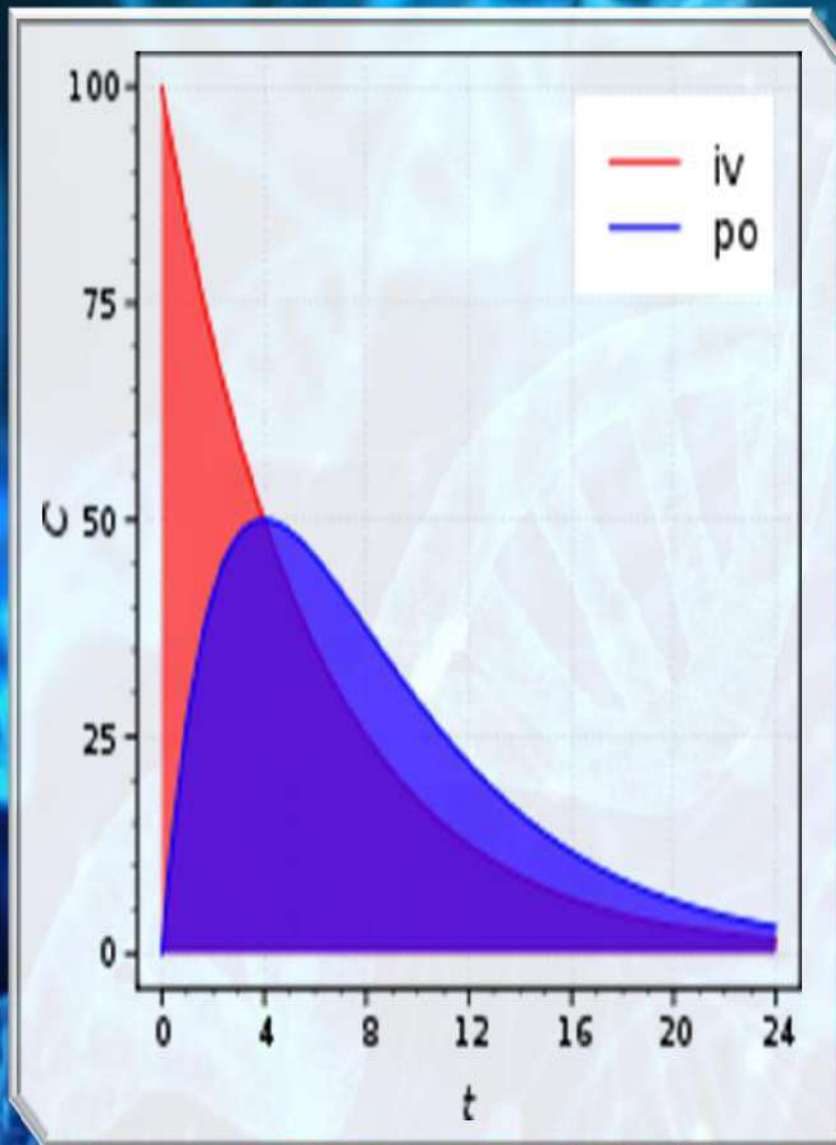
For a drug to be readily absorbed, it must be •
largely lipophilic, yet have some solubility in aqueous •
solutions. This is one reason why many drugs are either
weak acids or weak bases.

CHEMICAL INSTABILITY

Some drugs, such as penicillin G, are unstable in the pH • of gastric contents. Others, such as insulin, are destroyed in the GI tract by degradative enzymes.

NATURE OF THE DRUG FORMULATION

Drug absorption may be altered by factors unrelated to the chemistry of the drug. For example, particle size, salt form, crystal polymorphism, enteric coatings, and the presence of excipients (such as binders and dispersing agents)



Bioavailability

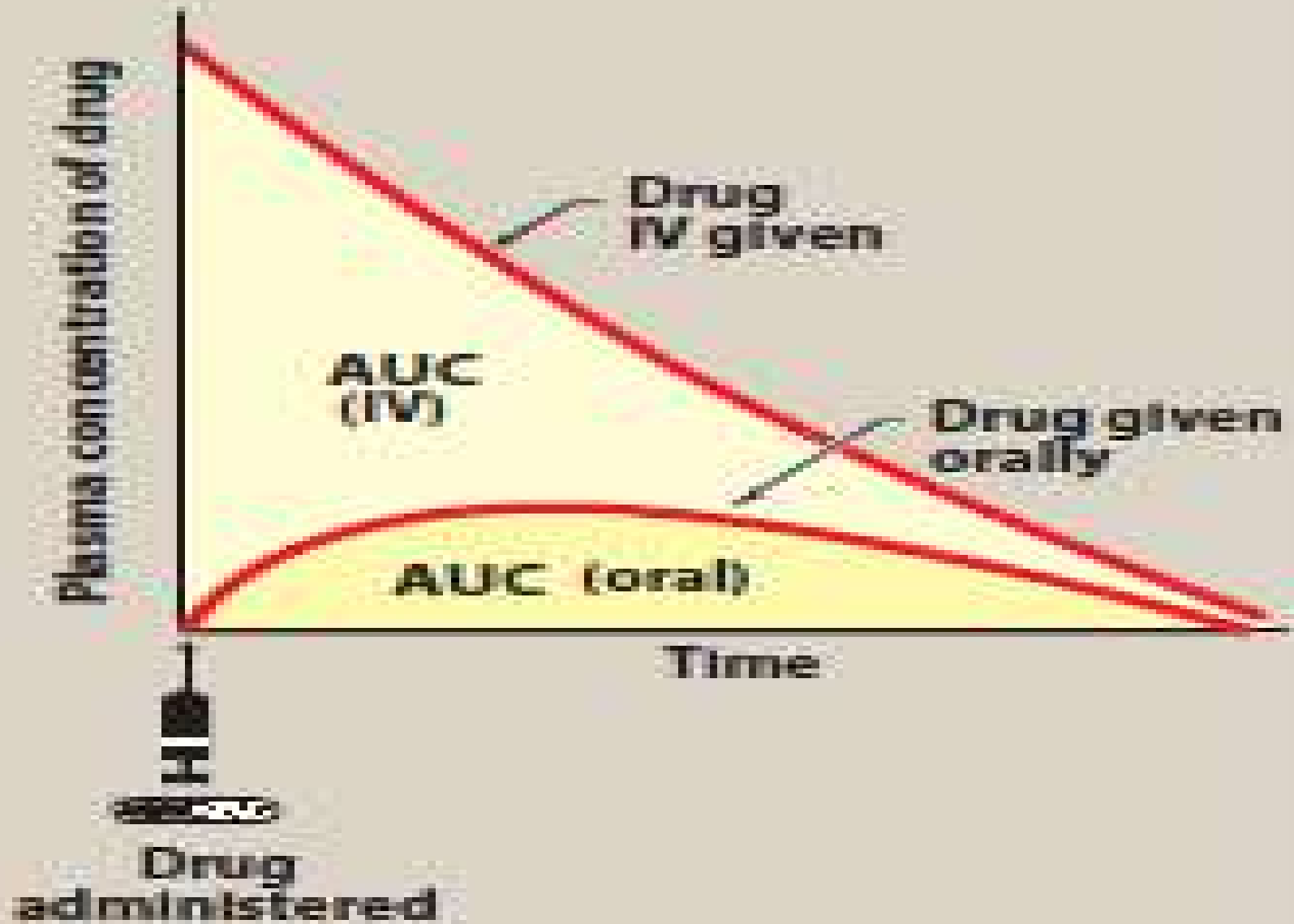
Bioavailability is understood to be the extent and the rate to which a substance or its active moiety is delivered from a pharmaceutical form and becomes available in the general circulation.

BIOAVAILABILITY CALCULATION

$$F = \text{AUV oral} / \text{AUC i.v} \times 100 \bullet$$

F= BIOAVAILABILITY •

$$\text{Bioavailability} = \frac{\text{AUC oral}}{\text{AUC IV}} \times 100$$



DRUG DISTRIBUTION

process by which a drug reversibly leaves the bloodstream and enters the extracellular fluid and tissues. •

DRUG DISTRIBUTION

A. Blood flow •

B. Capillary permeability •

C. Binding of drugs to plasma proteins and tissues •

1. Binding to plasma proteins •

2. Binding to tissue proteins: •

D. Lipophilicity •

BLOOD FLOW

blood flow to “vessel-rich organs” (brain, •
liver, and kidney) is greater than that to the skeletal •
muscles. Adipose tissue, skin, and viscera have still lower
rates of blood flow.

CAPILLARY PERMEABILITY

In the liver and spleen, a significant portion of the basement membrane is exposed due to large, discontinuous capillaries through which large plasma proteins can pass . In the brain, the capillary structure is continuous, and there are no slit junctions .

BINDING TO PLASMA PROTEINS

Reversible binding to plasma proteins sequesters drugs in a nondiffusible form and slows transfer out of the vascular compartment. Albumin is the major drug-binding protein, and it may act as a drug reservoir

BINDING TO TISSUE PROTEINS

Many drugs accumulate in tissues, leading to higher concentrations in tissues than in interstitial fluid and blood. •

Drugs may accumulate because of binding to lipids, proteins, or nucleic acids. Drugs may also undergo active transport into tissues •

D. LIPOPHILICITY

Lipophilic drugs readily move •
across most biologic membranes. These drugs dissolve in •
the lipid membranes and penetrate the entire cell
surface. The major factor influencing the distribution of
lipophilic drugs is blood flow to the area.

DRUG DISTRIBUTION

E. Volume of distribution •

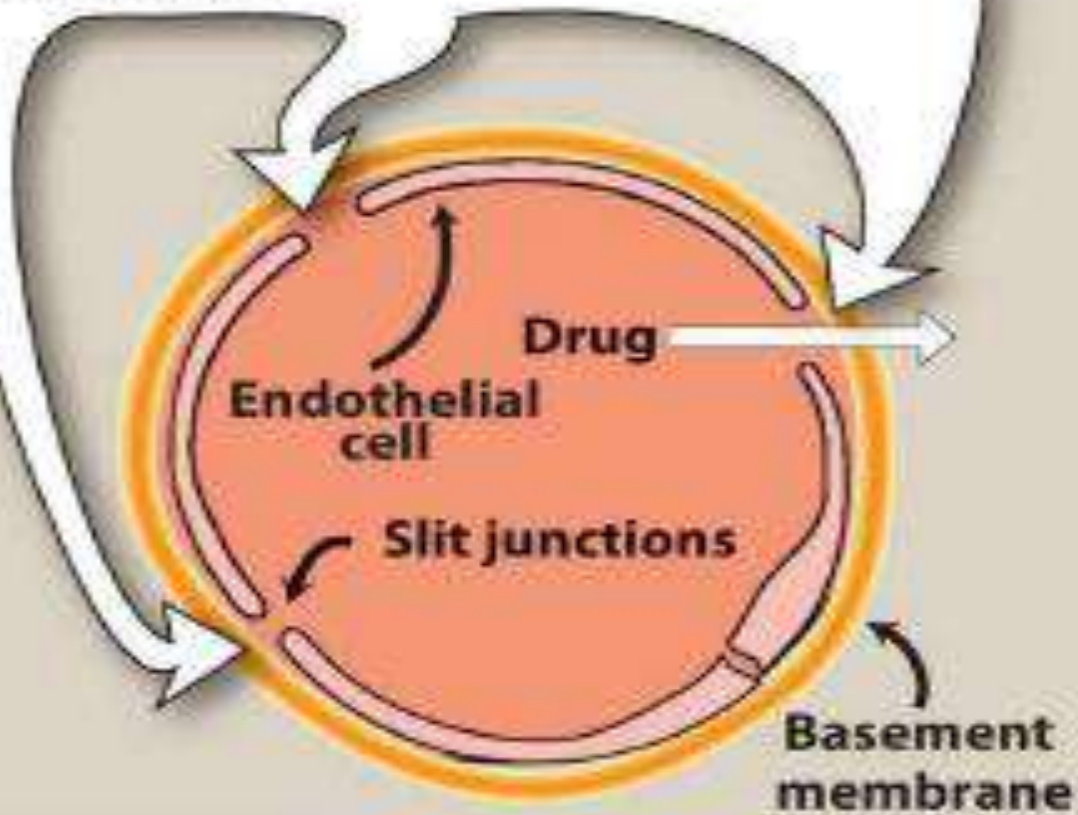
$V_d = \text{dose of drug in the body} / C_0$ •

$C_0 = \text{drug conc. in the plasma at zero time}$ •

A

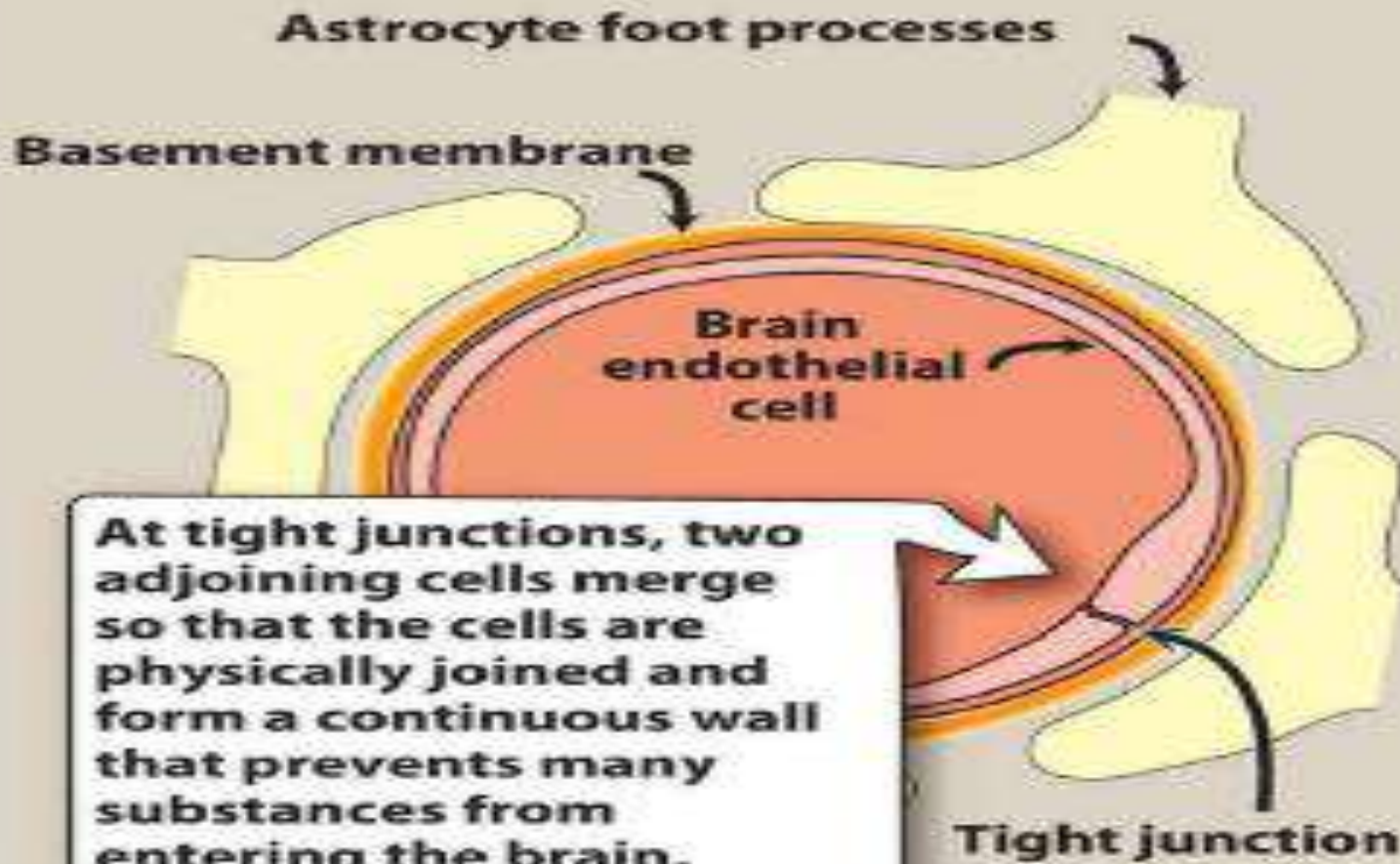
Structure of liver capillary

Large fenestrations allow drugs to move between blood and interstitium in the liver.



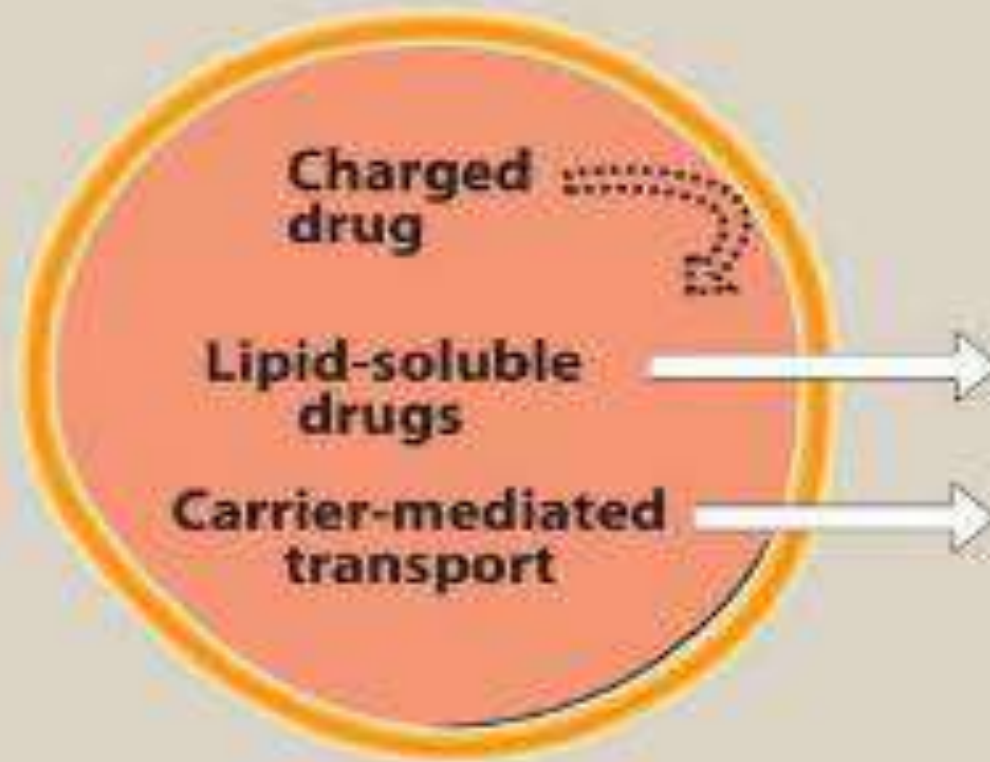
B

Structure of a brain capillary



C

Permeability of a brain capillary



For example, if 10 mg of drug is injected into a patient and the plasma

concentration is extrapolated back to time zero, and $C_0 = 1 \text{ mg/L}$

then $V_d = 10 \text{ mg} / 1 \text{ mg/L} = \mathbf{10 \text{ L}}$.

DRUG DISTRIBUTION

water compartments in the body •

a. Plasma compartment (4L) •

b. Extracellular fluid (14L) •

c. Total body water (42L) •

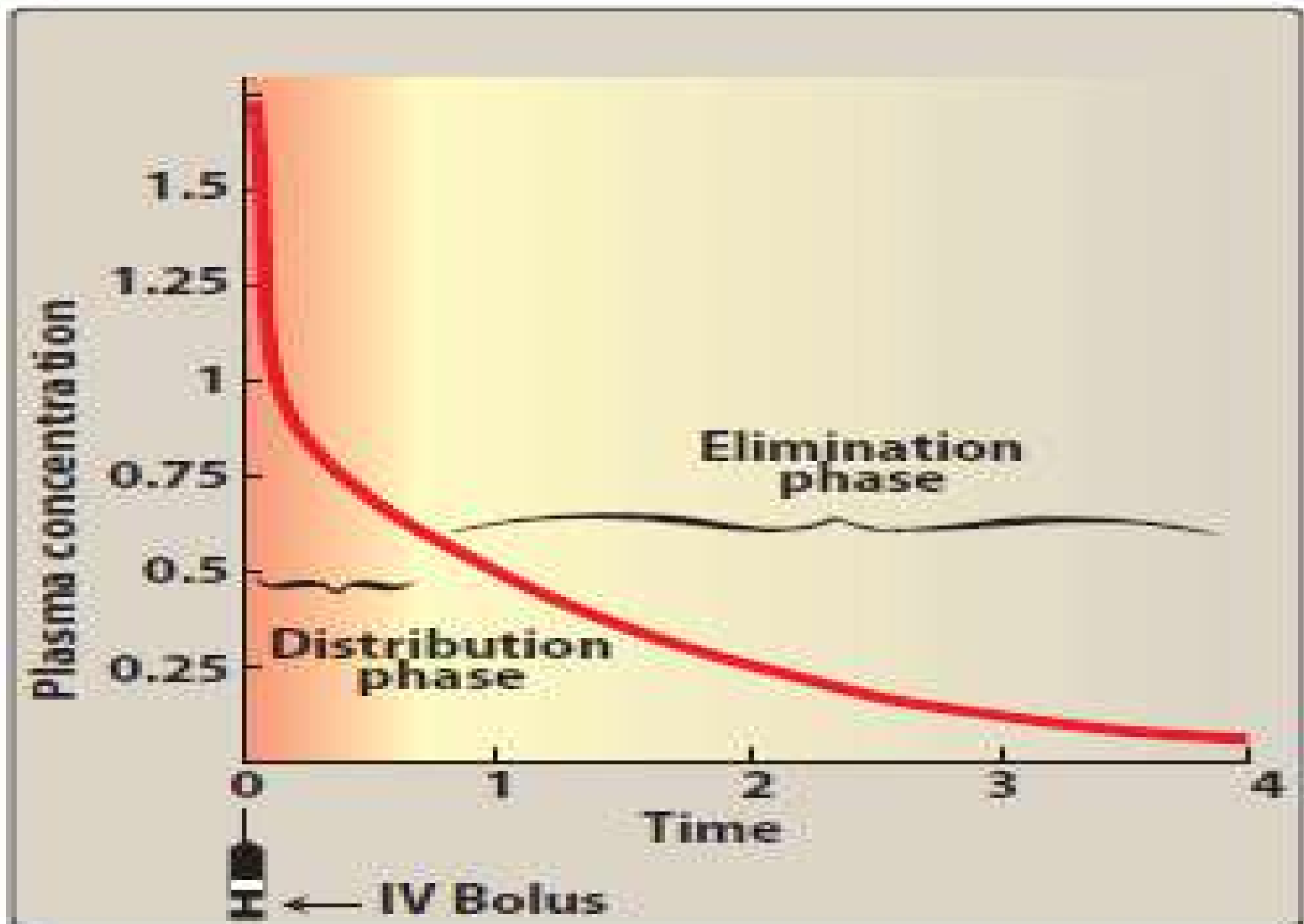
VOLUME OF DISTRIBUTION

4. Effect of Vd on drug half-life •

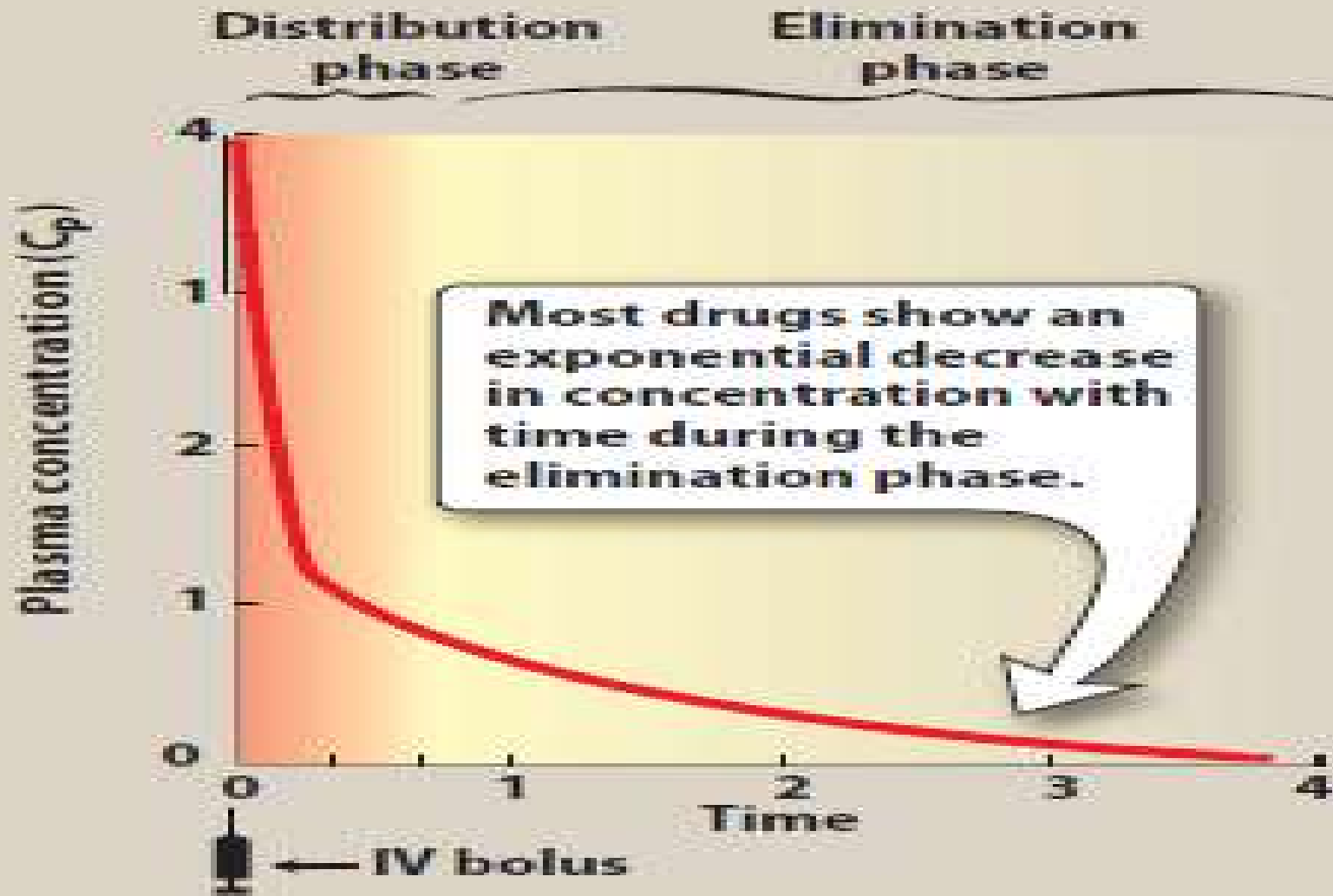
$$t_{1/2} = 0.693 \times Vd / CL \bullet$$

any factor that increases Vd can •

increase the half-life and extend the duration of •
action of the drug



A



Substance	Volume of distribution (L)	Broad class
Adalimumab	5	Small: Mainly retained in the blood.
Warfarin	7	
Gentamicin	16	
Theophylline	35	Medium: Distributed fairly evenly between blood and tissues.
Cimetidine	140	
Digoxin	510	Large: Majority of drug moves out of blood into the tissues.
Doxepin	1,600	
Chloroquine	15,000	

DRUG CLEARANCE THROUGH METABOLISM

Once a drug enters the body, the process of elimination • begins. The three major routes of elimination are hepatic metabolism, biliary elimination, and urinary excretion. •

Elimination is irreversible removal of drug from the body. It involves biotransformation (drug metabolism) and excretion. Excretion is removal of intact drug from the body.

Together, these elimination processes decrease the plasma concentration exponentially

CALCULATION OF CLEARANCE

Elimination and is calculated as follows,

$$CL = 0.693 \times V_d / t_{1/2}$$

A. KINETICS OF METABOLISM

1. First-order kinetics •

$$v = \text{Rate of drug metabolism} = \frac{V_{\max} [C]}{K_m}$$

2. ZERO-ORDER KINETICS

With a few drugs, such as aspirin, ethanol, and phenytoin, the doses are very large. Therefore, $[C]$ is much greater than K_m , and the velocity equation becomes •

ZERO-ORDER KINETICS

$$v = \text{Rate of drug metabolism} = \frac{V_{\max} [C]}{[C]} = V_{\max}$$

REACTIONS OF DRUG METABOLISM

1. Phase I •

a. Phase I reactions utilizing the P450 system: •

(oxidation , reduction , hydrolysis) •

CYP3A4/5, •

CYP2D6, •

CYP2C8/9, •

CYP1A2 •

In phase I, CYP450 enzymes catalyze several reactions, including oxidation, sulphoxidation, aromatic hydroxylation, aliphatic hydroxylation, N-dealkylation, O-dealkylation, and deamination. Among all, oxidation is the primary reaction, which leads to addition of 1 or more oxygen atom(s) to the parent drug

P450 SYSTEM

- [1] Nomenclature •
- [2] Specificity •
- [3] Genetic variability •
- [4] Inducers •
- [5] Inhibitors •

NOMENCLATURE

The family name is indicated by the Arabic number that follows CYP, and the capital letter designates the subfamily, for example, CYP3A . A second number indicates the specific isozyme, as in CYP3A4.

SPECIFICITY

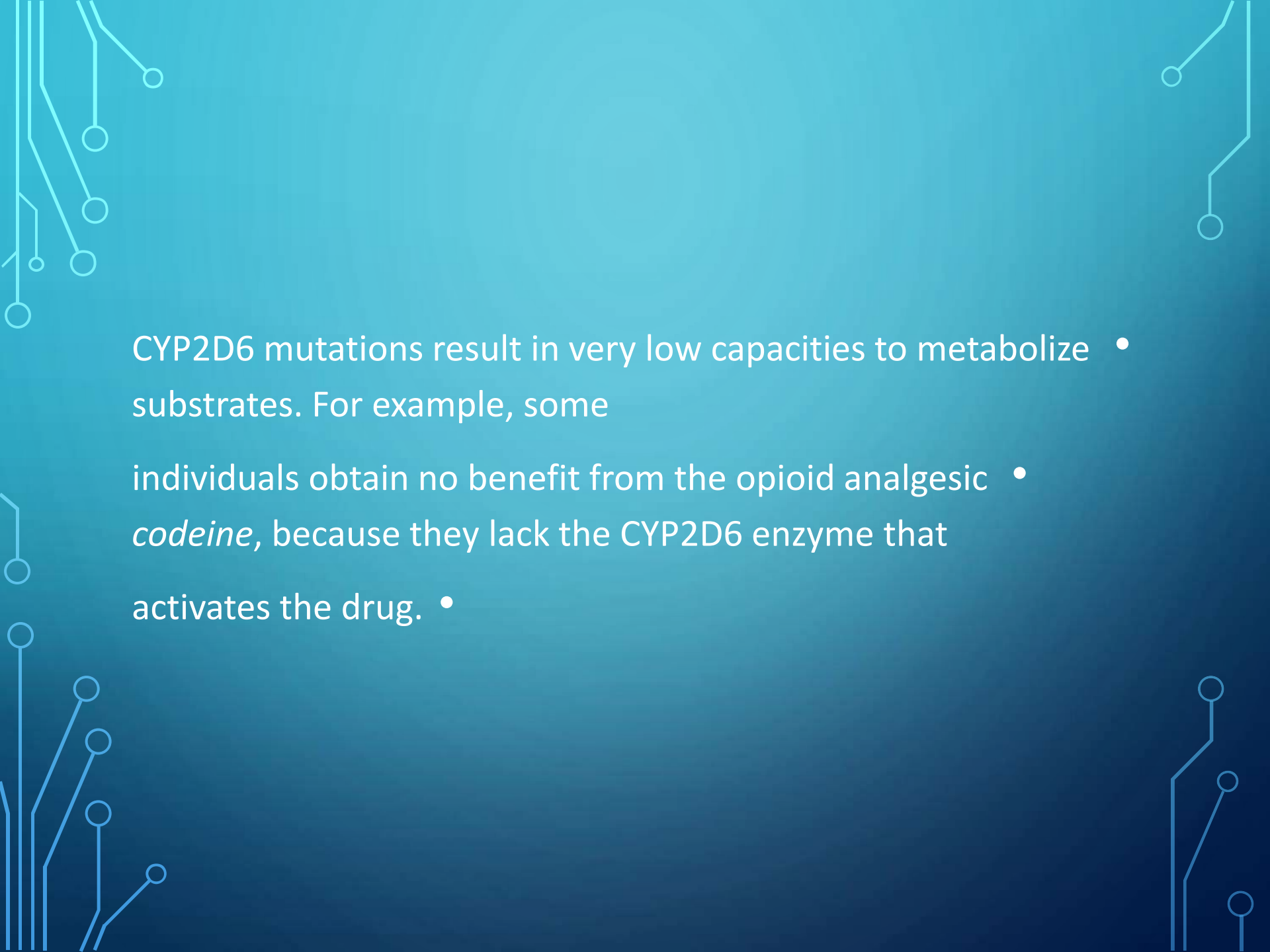
Because there are many different genes that encode multiple enzymes, there are many different P450 isoforms.

These enzymes have the capacity to modify a large number of structurally diverse substrates. In addition, an individual drug may be a substrate for more than one isozyme.

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Genetic variability •

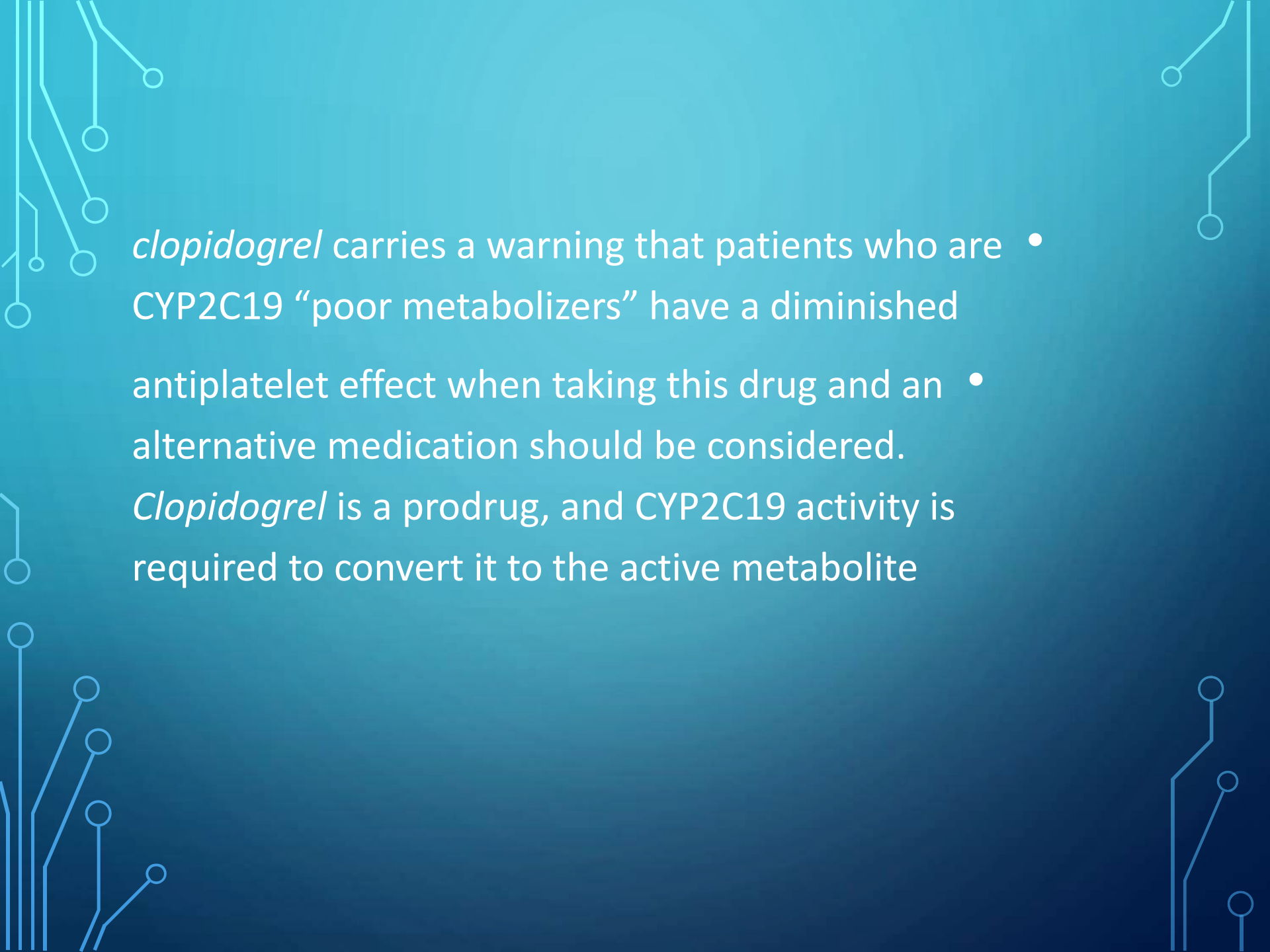
Variations in P450 activity may alter drug efficacy and •
the risk of adverse events. CYP2D6, in particular, exhibits
genetic polymorphism.



CYP2D6 mutations result in very low capacities to metabolize •
substrates. For example, some

individuals obtain no benefit from the opioid analgesic •
codeine, because they lack the CYP2D6 enzyme that

activates the drug. •



clopidogrel carries a warning that patients who are CYP2C19 “poor metabolizers” have a diminished antiplatelet effect when taking this drug and an alternative medication should be considered. •

Clopidogrel is a prodrug, and CYP2C19 activity is required to convert it to the active metabolite •

PHASE I REACTIONS NOT INVOLVING THE P450 SYSTEM

These include amine oxidation (for example, oxidation of catecholamines or histamine), alcohol dehydrogenation (for example, ethanol oxidation), esterases (for example, metabolism of aspirin in the liver), and hydrolysis (for example, of procaine).

2. Phase II •

Usually involved conjugation with sulfuric acid , •
acetic acid ,or glucuronic acid

The most common phase II drug-metabolizing enzymes •
are

UDP-glucuronosyltransferases (UGTs), sulfotransferases •
(SULTs),

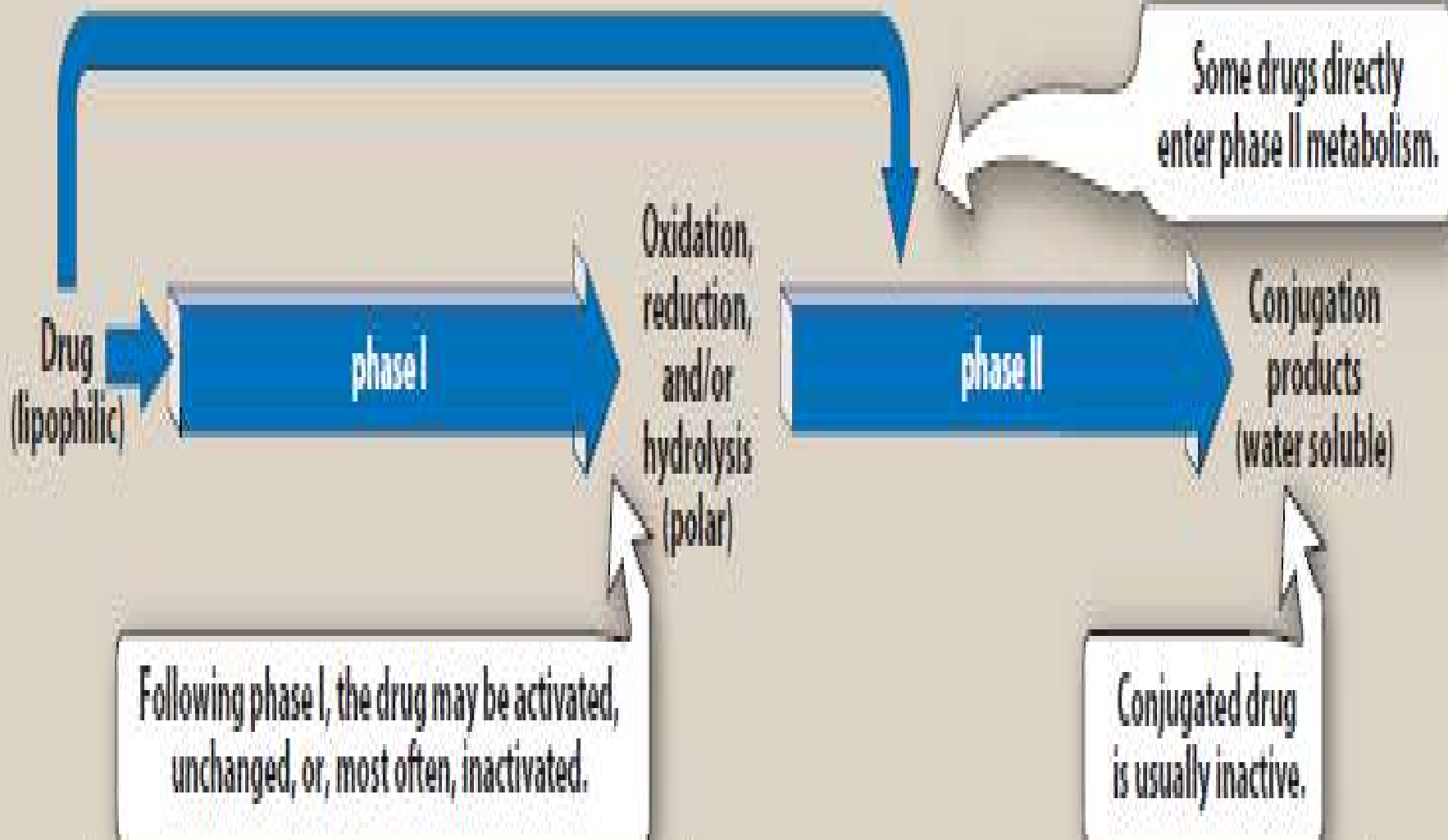
N-acetyltransferases (NATs), •

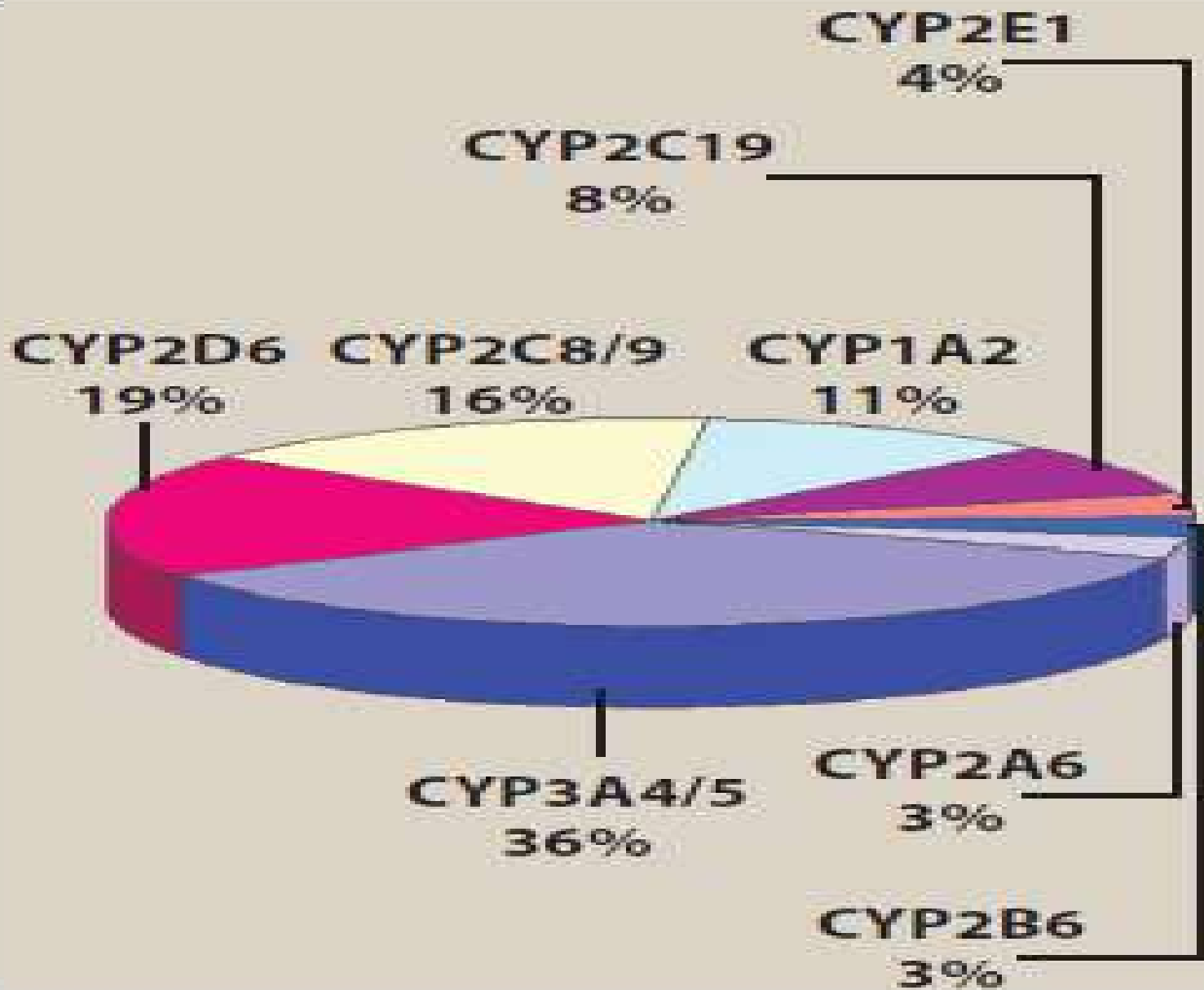
glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), •

thiopurine S-methyltransferases •

(TPMTs), •

and catechol O-methyltransferases (COMTs). •





Isozyme: CYP2C9/10

COMMON SUBSTRATES

Warfarin
Phenytoin
Ibuprofen
Tolbutamide

INDUCERS

Phenobarbital
Rifampin

Isozyme: CYP2D6

COMMON SUBSTRATES

Desipramine
Imipramine
Haloperidol
Propranolol

INDUCERS

None*

Isozyme: CYP3A4/5

COMMON SUBSTRATES

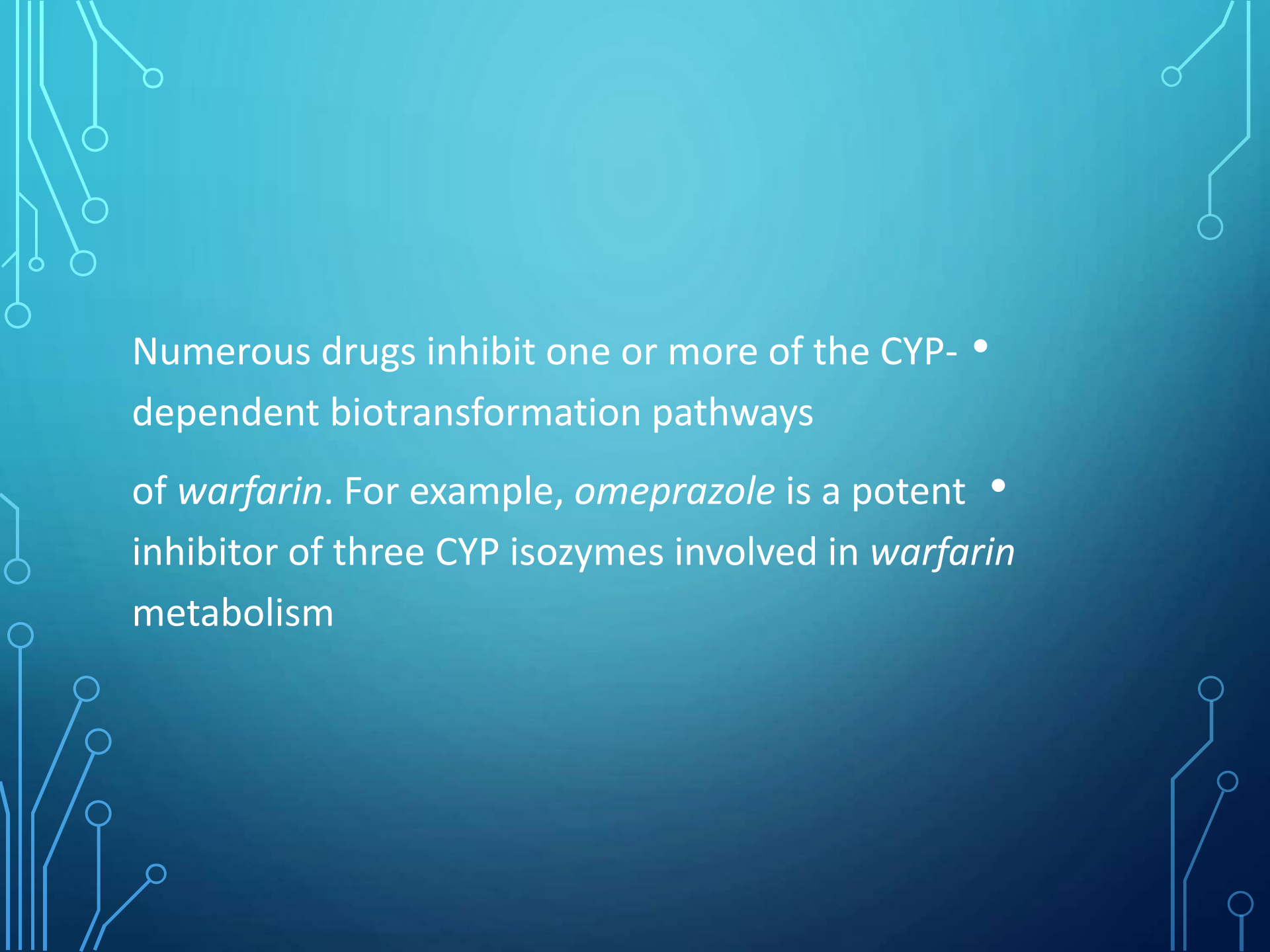
Carbamazepine
Cyclosporine
Erythromycin
Nifedipine
Verapamil

INDUCERS

Carbamazepine
Dexamethasone
Phenobarbital
Phenytoin
Rifampin

CYP INHIBITORS

Inhibition of drug metabolism can lead to significant • increases in plasma drug concentration and resultant adverse effects or drug toxicity



Numerous drugs inhibit one or more of the CYP- •
dependent biotransformation pathways
of *warfarin*. For example, *omeprazole* is a potent •
inhibitor of three CYP isozymes involved in *warfarin*
metabolism

DRUG CLEARANCE BY THE KIDNEY

Drugs must be sufficiently polar to be eliminated from the body. Removal of drugs from the body occurs via a number of routes; the most important is elimination through the kidney into the urine.

RENAL ELIMINATION OF A DRUG

A drug passes through several processes in the kidney • before elimination: glomerular filtration, active tubular secretion, and passive tubular reabsorption.

1. GLOMERULAR FILTRATION

Drugs enter the kidney through renal arteries, which •
divide to form a glomerular capillary plexus. Free drug
(not bound to albumin) flows through the capillary slits
into the Bowman space as part of the glomerular
filtrate

2. PROXIMAL TUBULAR SECRETION


Drugs that were not transferred into the glomerular •
filtrate leave the glomeruli through efferent arterioles,
which

divide to form a capillary plexus surrounding the nephric •
lumen in the proximal tubule.



Secretion primarily occurs •

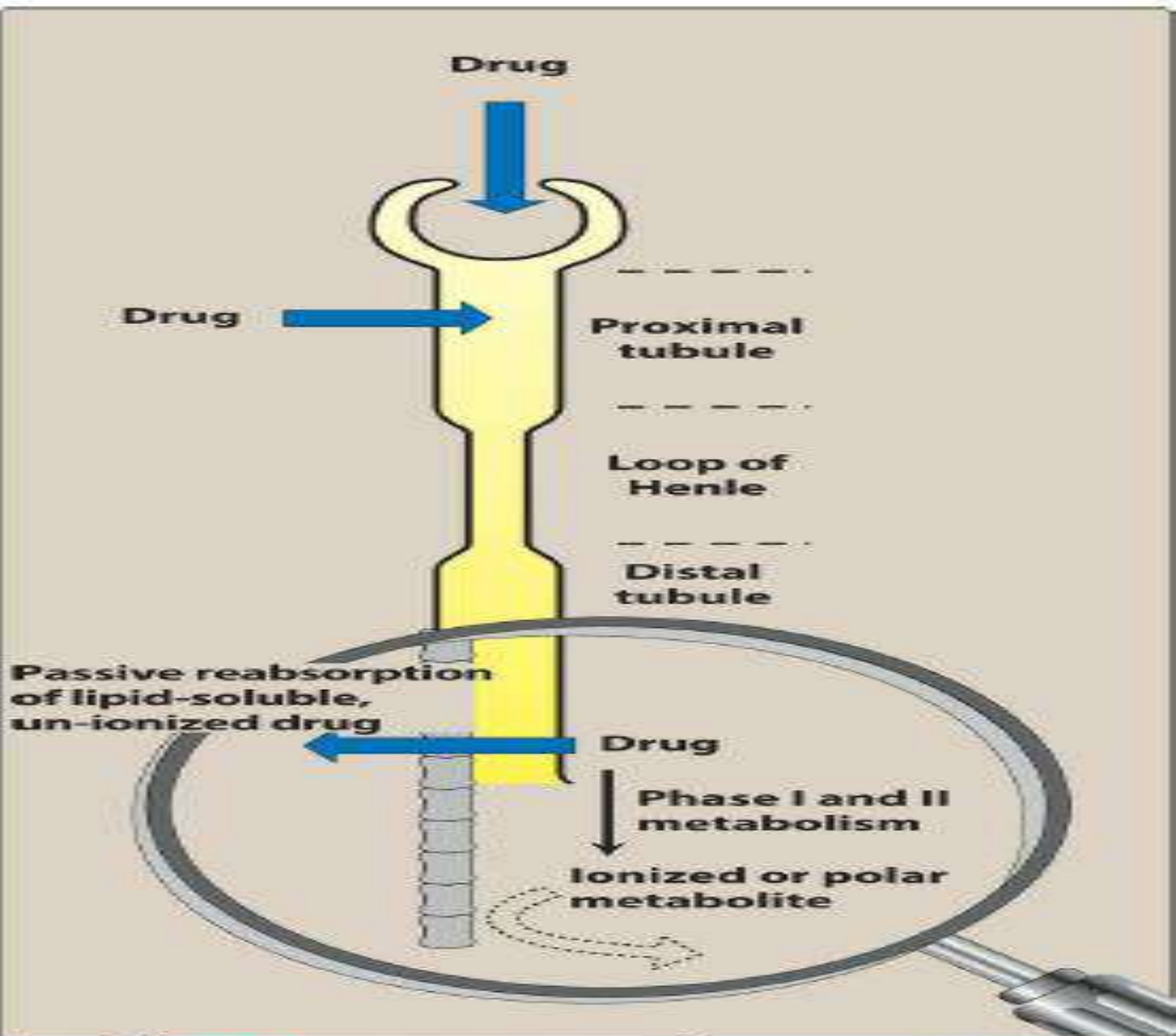
in the proximal tubules by two energy-requiring active transport •
systems: one for anions (for example, deprotonated
forms of weak acids) and one for cations
(for example, protonated forms of weak bases)



3. DISTAL TUBULAR REABSORPTION

- As a drug moves toward the distal convoluted tubule, its concentration increases and exceeds that of the perivascular space. The drug, if uncharged, may diffuse out of the nephric lumen, back into the systemic circulation

Manipulating the urine pH to increase the fraction of ionized drug in the lumen may be done to minimize the amount of back diffusion and increase the clearance of an undesirable drug. Generally, weak acids can be eliminated by alkalization of the urine, whereas elimination of weak bases may be increased by acidification of the urine. This process is called “ion trapping.”



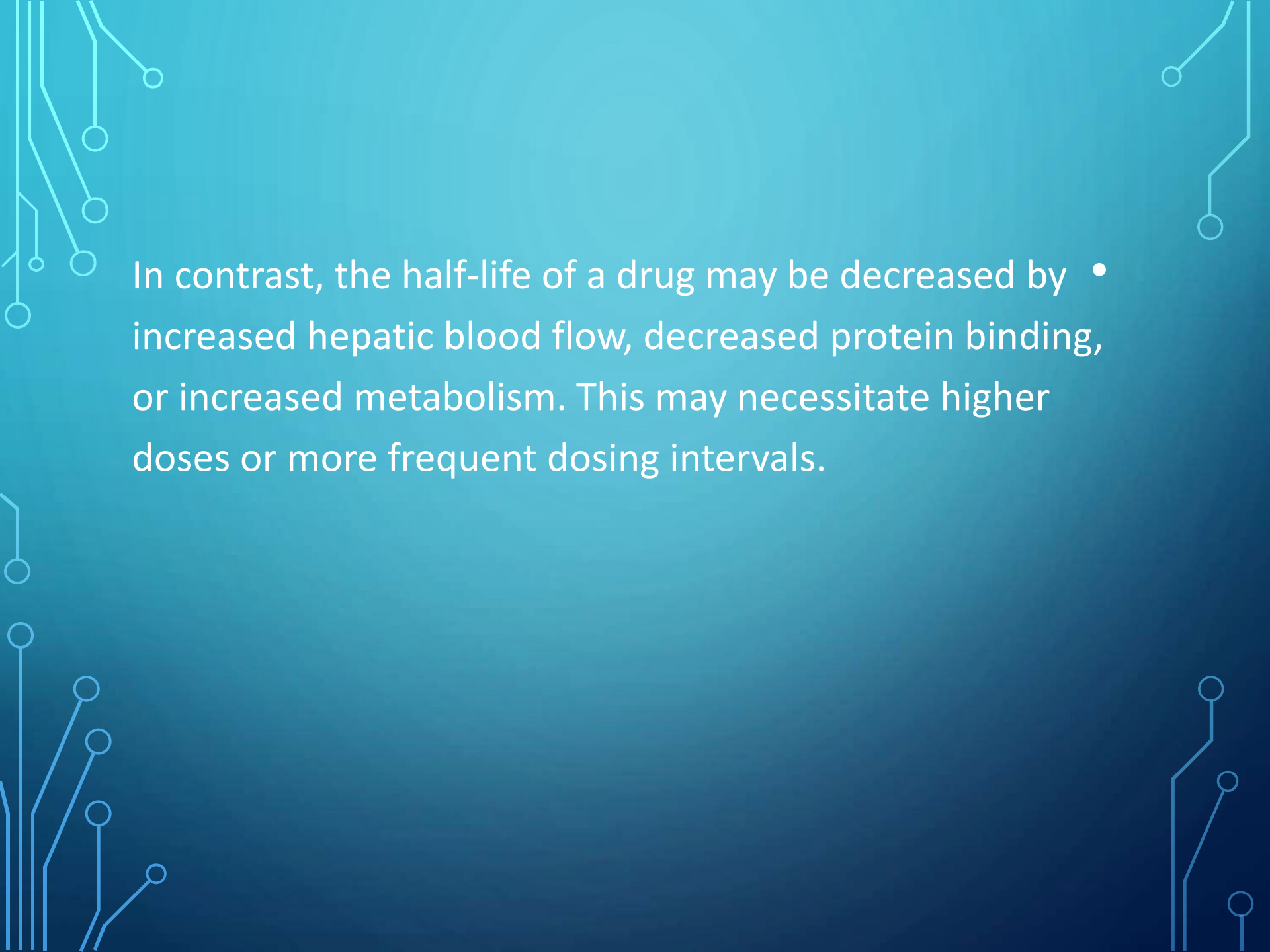
TOTAL BODY CLEARANCE

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

CLINICAL SITUATIONS RESULTING IN CHANGES IN DRUG HALF-LIFE

Patients who •

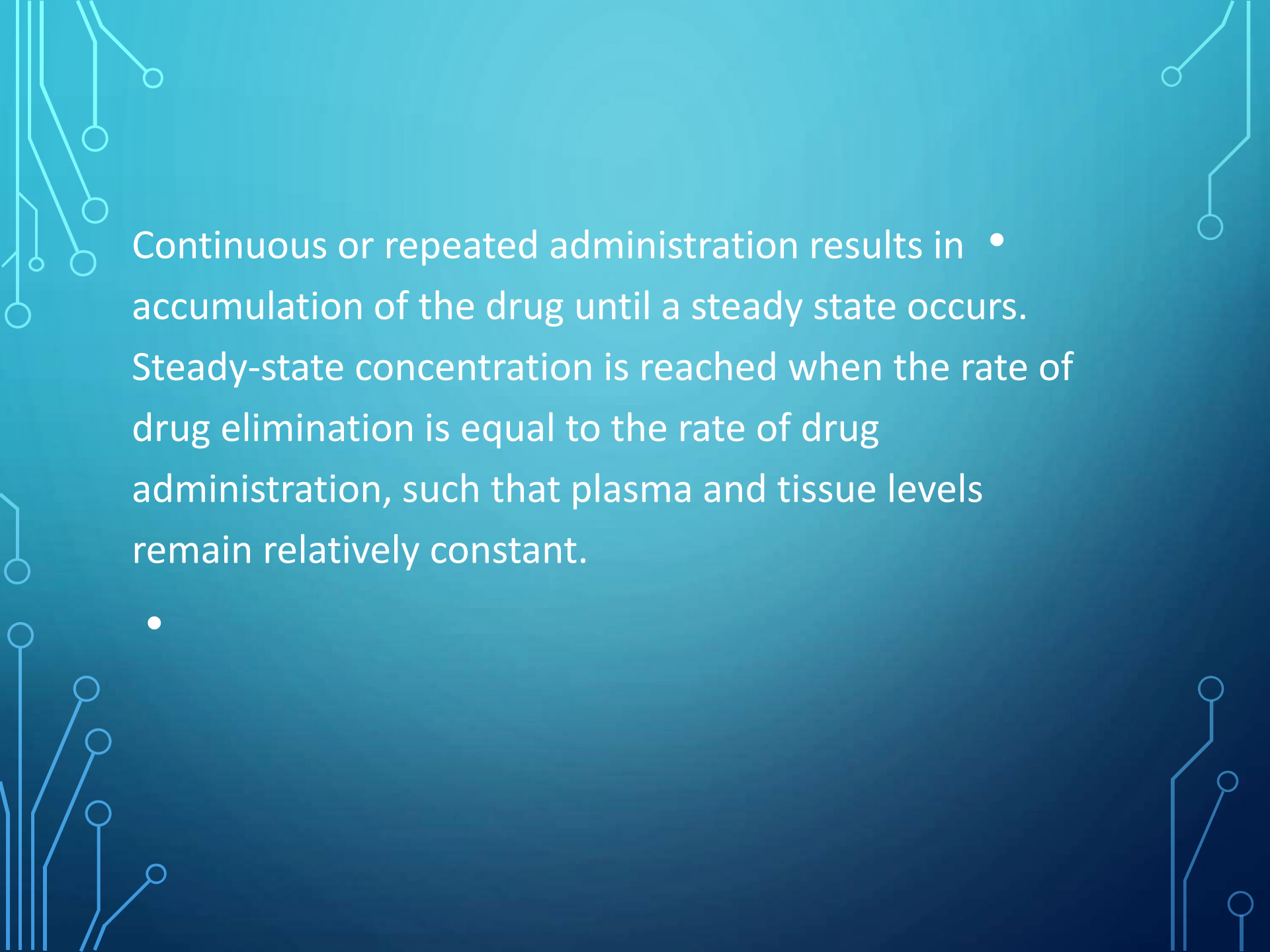
may have an increase in drug half-life include those with 1) •
diminished renal or hepatic blood flow, for example, in
cardiogenic shock, heart failure, or hemorrhage; 2) decreased •
ability to extract drug from plasma, for example, in
renal disease; and 3) decreased metabolism, for example, when a •
concomitant drug inhibits metabolism or in hepatic
insufficiency, as with cirrhosis. •



In contrast, the half-life of a drug may be decreased by •
increased hepatic blood flow, decreased protein binding,
or increased metabolism. This may necessitate higher
doses or more frequent dosing intervals.

DESIGN AND OPTIMIZATION OF DOSAGE REGIMEN

the clinician must select the appropriate route of administration, dosage, and dosing interval. •



Continuous or repeated administration results in •
accumulation of the drug until a steady state occurs.
Steady-state concentration is reached when the rate of
drug elimination is equal to the rate of drug
administration, such that plasma and tissue levels
remain relatively constant.

•

STEADY STATE CONCENTRATION

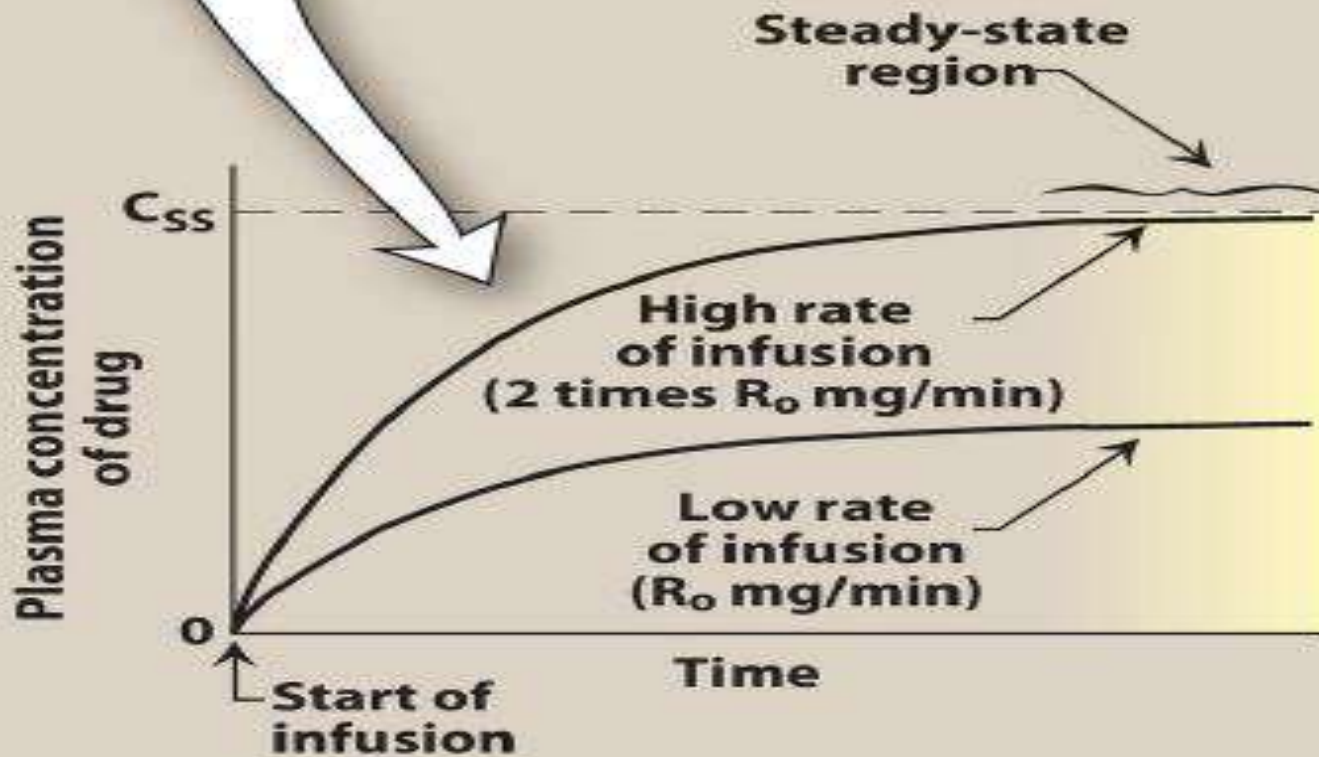
the rate of drug elimination is equal to the rate of drug administration •

CONTINUOUS INFUSION REGIMENS

the rate of drug entry into the body is constant. Most •
drugs exhibit first-order elimination, that is, a constant
fraction of the drug is cleared per unit of time.

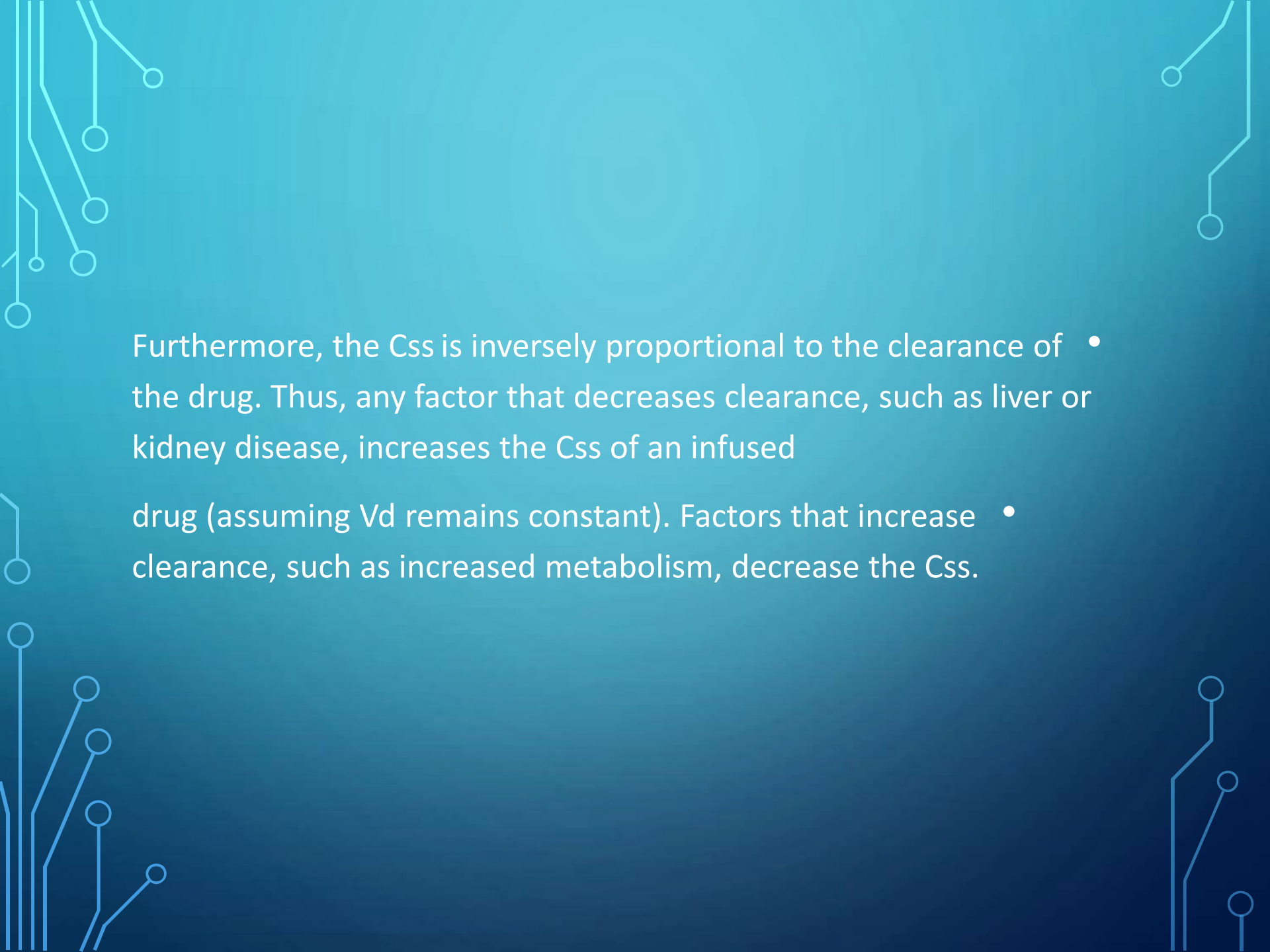
Therefore, the rate of drug elimination increases
proportionately as the plasma concentration increases

Note: A faster rate of infusion does not change the time needed to achieve steady state. Only the steady-state concentration changes.



Influence of infusion rate on steady-state concentration

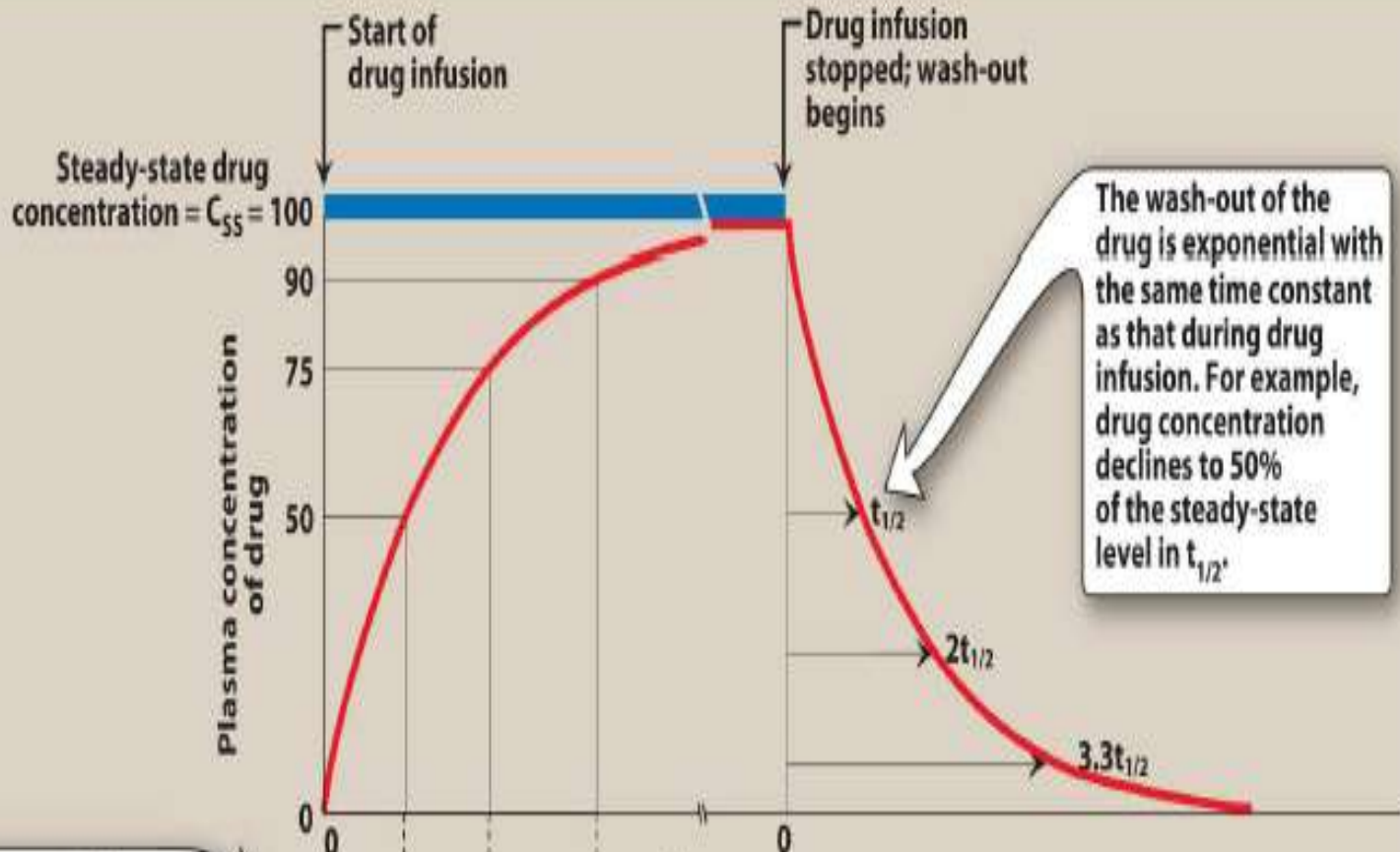
- The steady-state plasma concentration (C_{ss}) is directly proportional to the infusion rate. For example, if the infusion rate is doubled, the C_{ss} is doubled •



Furthermore, the C_{ss} is inversely proportional to the clearance of the drug. Thus, any factor that decreases clearance, such as liver or kidney disease, increases the C_{ss} of an infused drug (assuming V_d remains constant). Factors that increase clearance, such as increased metabolism, decrease the C_{ss} .

TIME TO REACH STEADY-STATE DRUG CONCENTRATION

- a drug reaches steady state in about
- 4 to 5 half-lives



Fifty percent of the steady-state drug concentration is achieved in $t_{1/2}$.

$t_{1/2}$
 $2t_{1/2}$
 $3.3t_{1/2}$

Ninety percent of the steady-state drug concentration is achieved in $3.3t_{1/2}$.

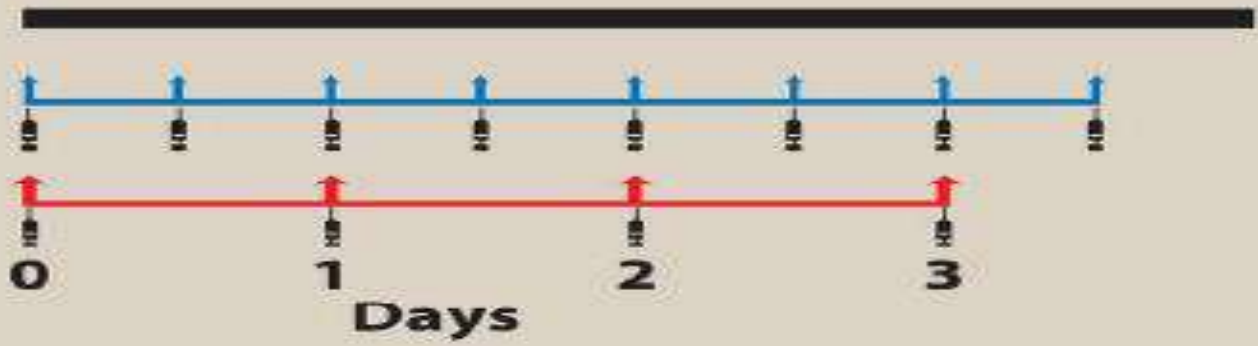
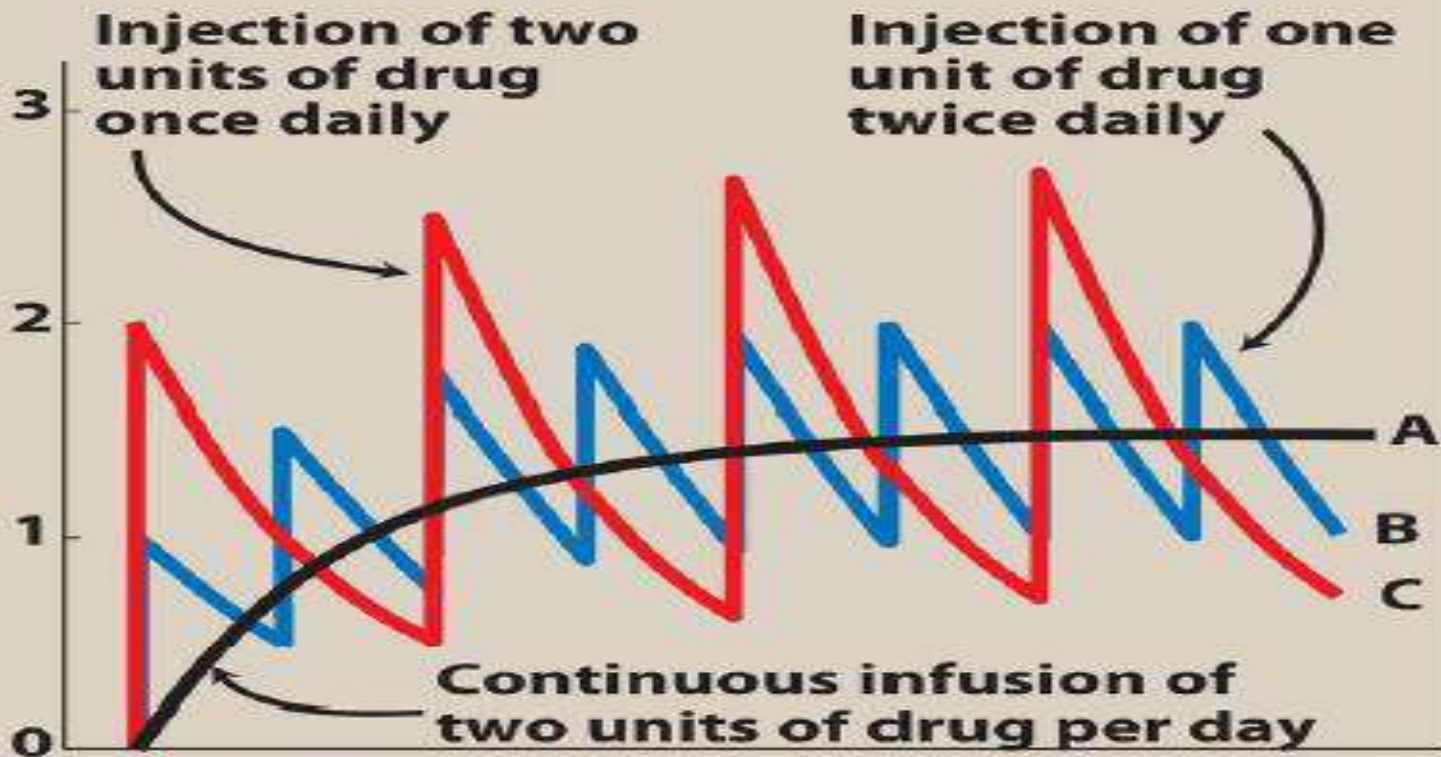
FIXED-DOSE/FIXED-TIME REGIMENS

Administration of a drug by fixed doses rather than by continuous infusion is often more convenient. However, fixed doses of IV or oral medications given at fixed intervals result in time-dependent fluctuations in the circulating level of drug,

MULTIPLE IV INJECTIONS

When a drug is given repeatedly at regular intervals, the plasma concentration increases until a steady state is reached •

Plasma concentration of drug in body

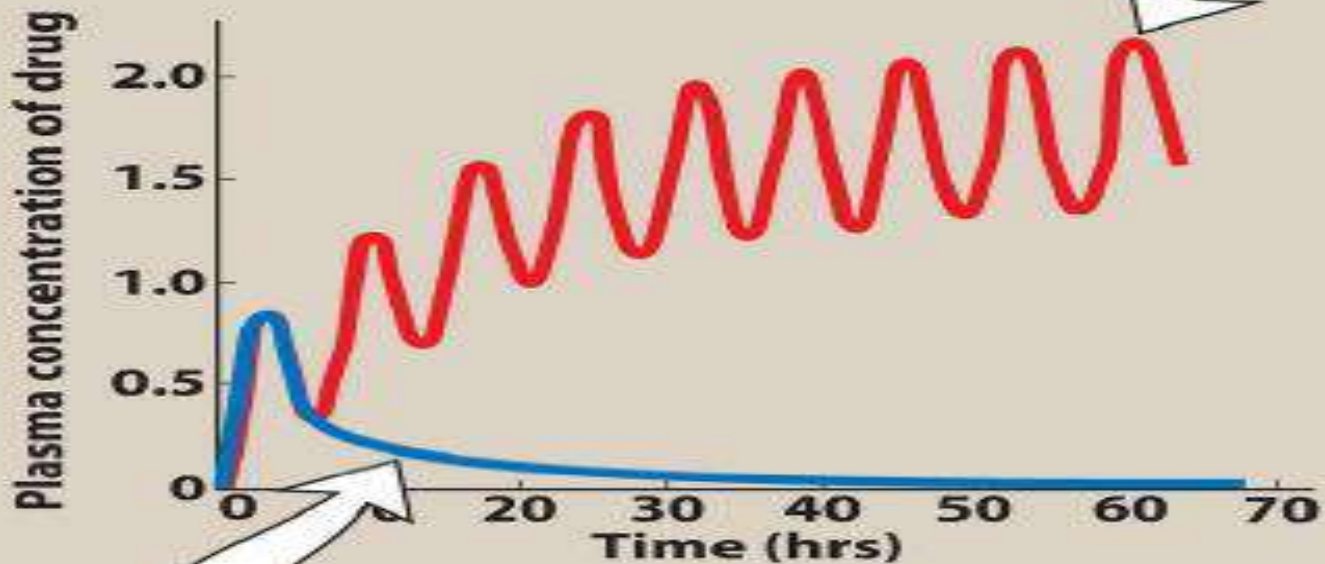


MULTIPLE ORAL ADMINISTRATIONS

Most drugs administered on an outpatient basis are oral • medications taken at a specific dose one, two, or more times daily. In contrast to IV injection, orally administered drugs may be absorbed slowly, and the plasma concentration of the drug is influenced by both the rate of absorption and the rate of elimination

REPEATED FIXED DOSE

Repeated oral administration of a drug results in oscillations in plasma concentrations that are influenced by both the rate of drug absorption and the rate of drug elimination.



SINGLE FIXED DOSE

A single dose of drug given orally results in a single peak in plasma concentration followed by a continuous decline in drug level.

OPTIMIZATION OF DOSE

The goal of drug therapy is to achieve and maintain • concentrations within a therapeutic response window while minimizing toxicity and/or adverse effects. With careful titration, most drugs can achieve this goal. If the therapeutic window of the drug is small (for example, *digoxin* or *lithium*),

MAINTENANCE DOSE

Drugs are generally administered to maintain a C_{ss} within the therapeutic window. It takes 4 to 5 half-lives for a drug to achieve C_{ss} . To achieve a given concentration, the rate of administration and the rate of elimination of the drug are important

LOADING DOSE

Sometimes rapid obtainment of desired plasma levels is • needed (for example, in serious infections or arrhythmias). Therefore, a “loading dose” of drug is administered to achieve the desired plasma level rapidly, followed by a maintenance dose to maintain the steady state

Drug concentration in plasma

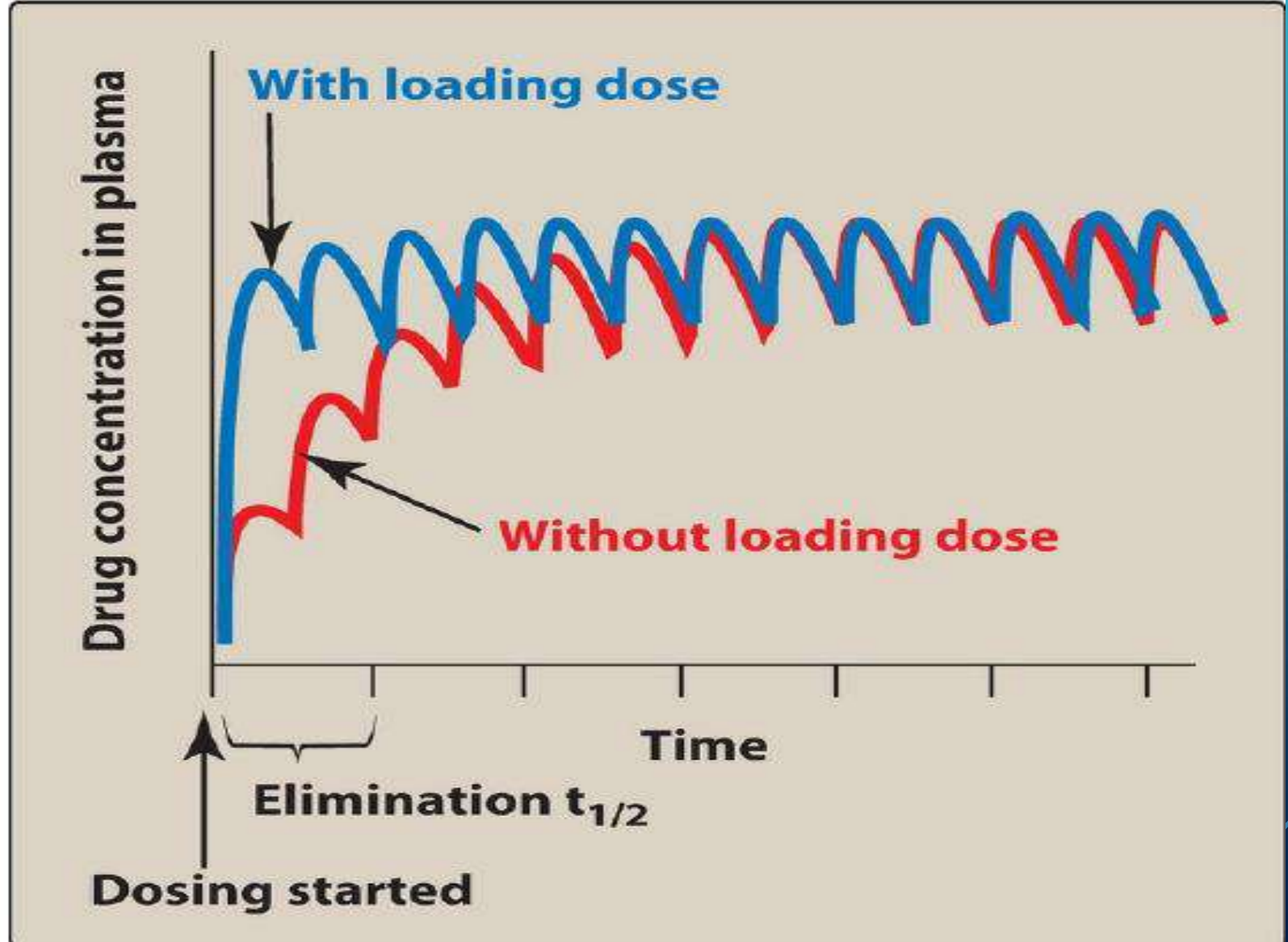
With loading dose

Without loading dose

Time

Elimination $t_{1/2}$

Dosing started



CALCULATION OF LOADING DOSE

Loading dose = $(V_d) \times (\text{desired steady-state plasma concentration})/F$ •