

PHARMACOKINETICS 2018.



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PHARMACOLOGY



Pharmacodynamics

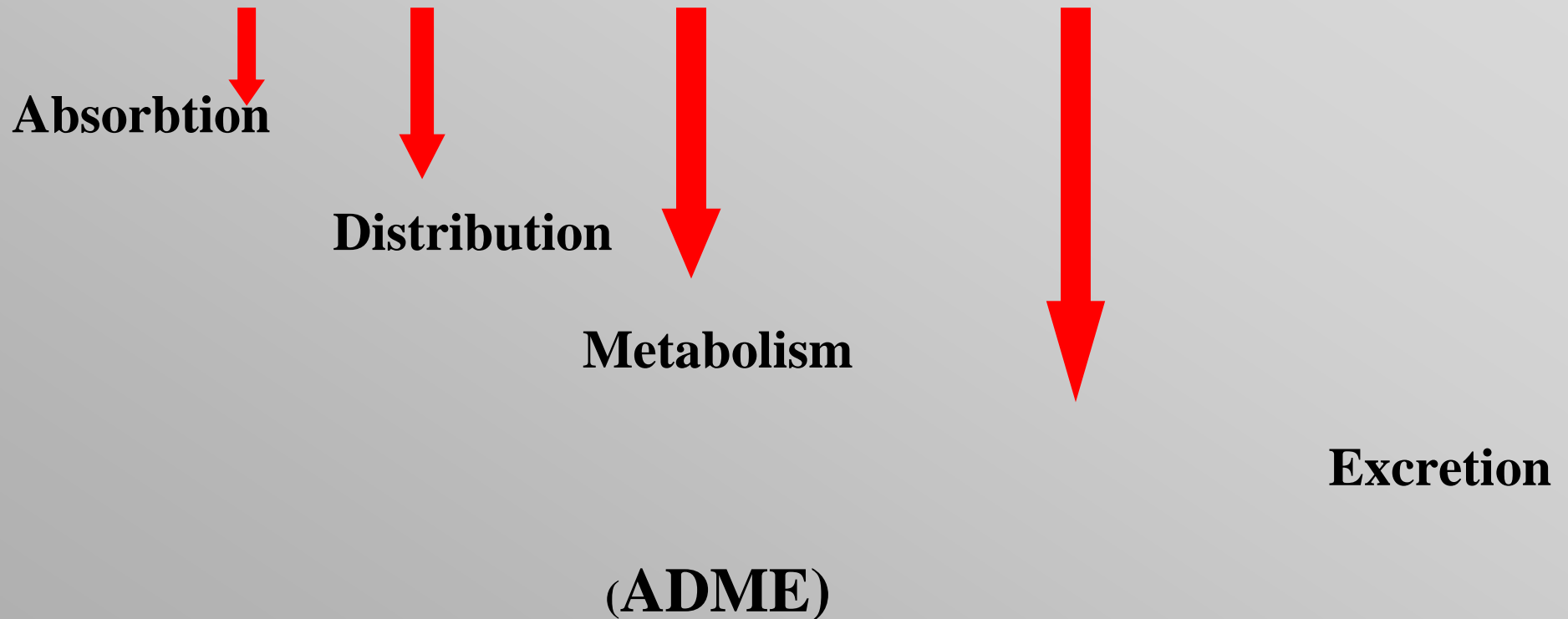
What the drug
„makes” with the
organs



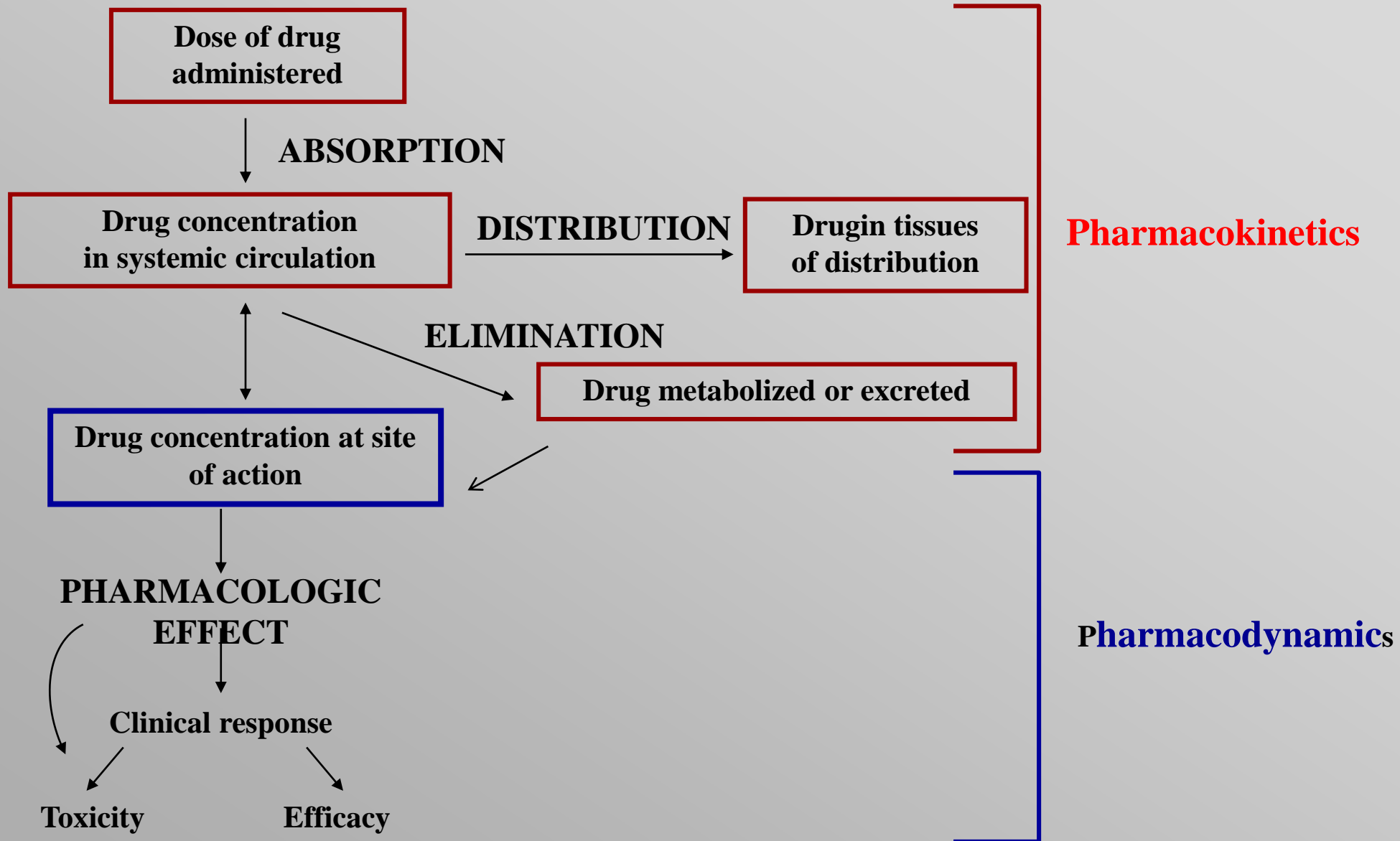
Pharmacokinetics

What the organs
„makes” with the
drug

PHARMACOKINETICS



DEPENDS ON MEMBRANE-TRANSPORT



I. TRANSPORT MECHANISMS 1.

Passive

1. AQUEOUS-DIFFUSION

Small molecules ($d < 0.4$ nm)

Through epithelial membrane pores

Through endothelial pores

(Exception: blood-brain, blood-testis!

intestinal, cutan epithel: minimal

permeation

placenta: below 1 kDa

2. LIPID-DIFFUSION!!!

) lipid barriers separate water-compartments

Determinant factors:

concentration gradient,

lipid/aqueous partition coefficient of the drug

membrane

I. TRANSPORT MECHANIZMS 2.

Active

3. CARRIER-MEDIATED TRANSPORT

selective, saturable, inhibitable



facilitated diffusion



active transport

-Large endogenous molecules, non-lipid soluble molecules
e.g. peptides, amino acid, glucose, L-DOPA

-Xenobiotics

Number of carrier molecules can be changed; e.g. inhibitors of protein synthesis.

I. TRANSPORT MECHANIZMS 3.

Active

4. ENDOCYTOSIS, EXOCYTOSIS

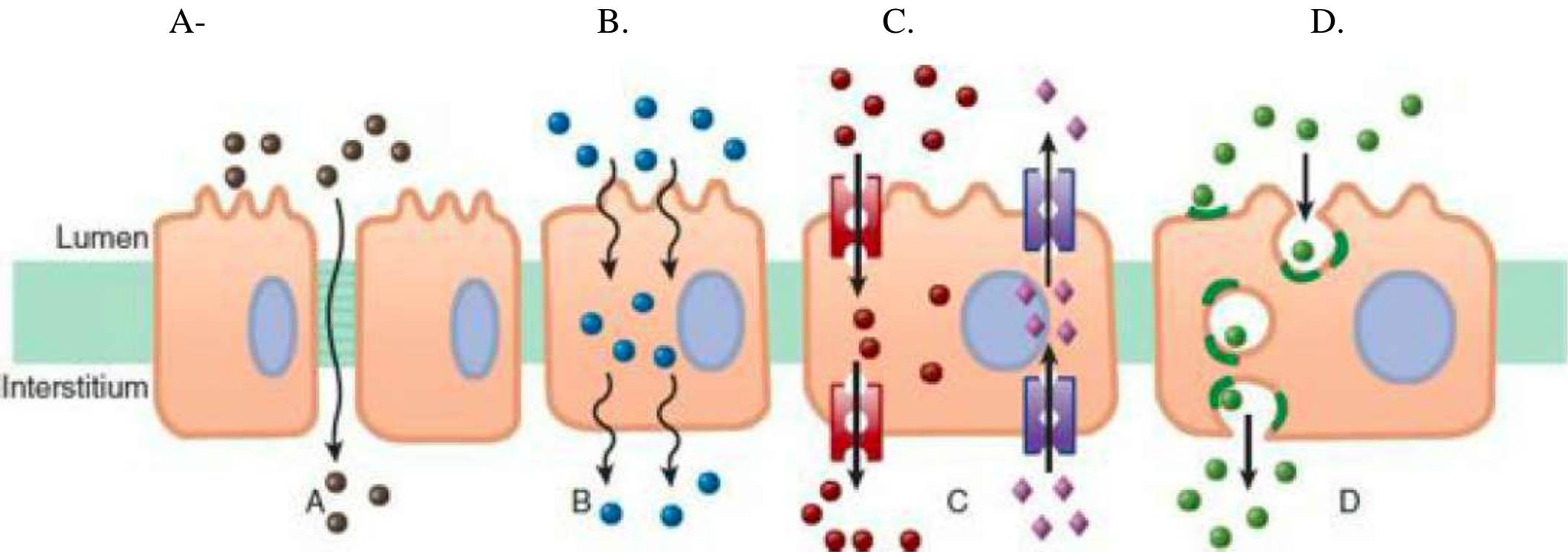
ENDOCYTOSIS

Bound to cell surface receptor, engulfed by the cell-membrane, and the newly formed vesicle carried out the into the cell. Large molecules, e.g. iron-, B12 vitamine – protein complex

EXOCYTOSIS

Fusion of the vesicle with cell membrane, expulsion of its content extracellularly, e.g. transmitter release, mast cell degranulation

TRANSPORT MECHANIZMS



From B. Katzung 13 Ed., 2014

A: Aqueous diffusion B: **Lipid diffusion** C. **carrier-mediated**

D. Endo-, exocytosis

LIPID DIFFUSION

Importance of ionised, non-ionised molecules in membrane transport

Ionised molecule: weak lipid solubility

Non-ionised molecule: lipid-soluble
(exception: aminoglycoside)

Henderson-Hasselbach equation

Weak acids

$$\text{pK}_a - \text{pH} = \log \left[\frac{\text{non-ionized}}{\text{ionized}} \right]$$

Weak bases

$$\text{pK}_a - \text{pH} = \log \left[\frac{\text{ionized}}{\text{non-ionized}} \right]$$

EXAMPLE 1.

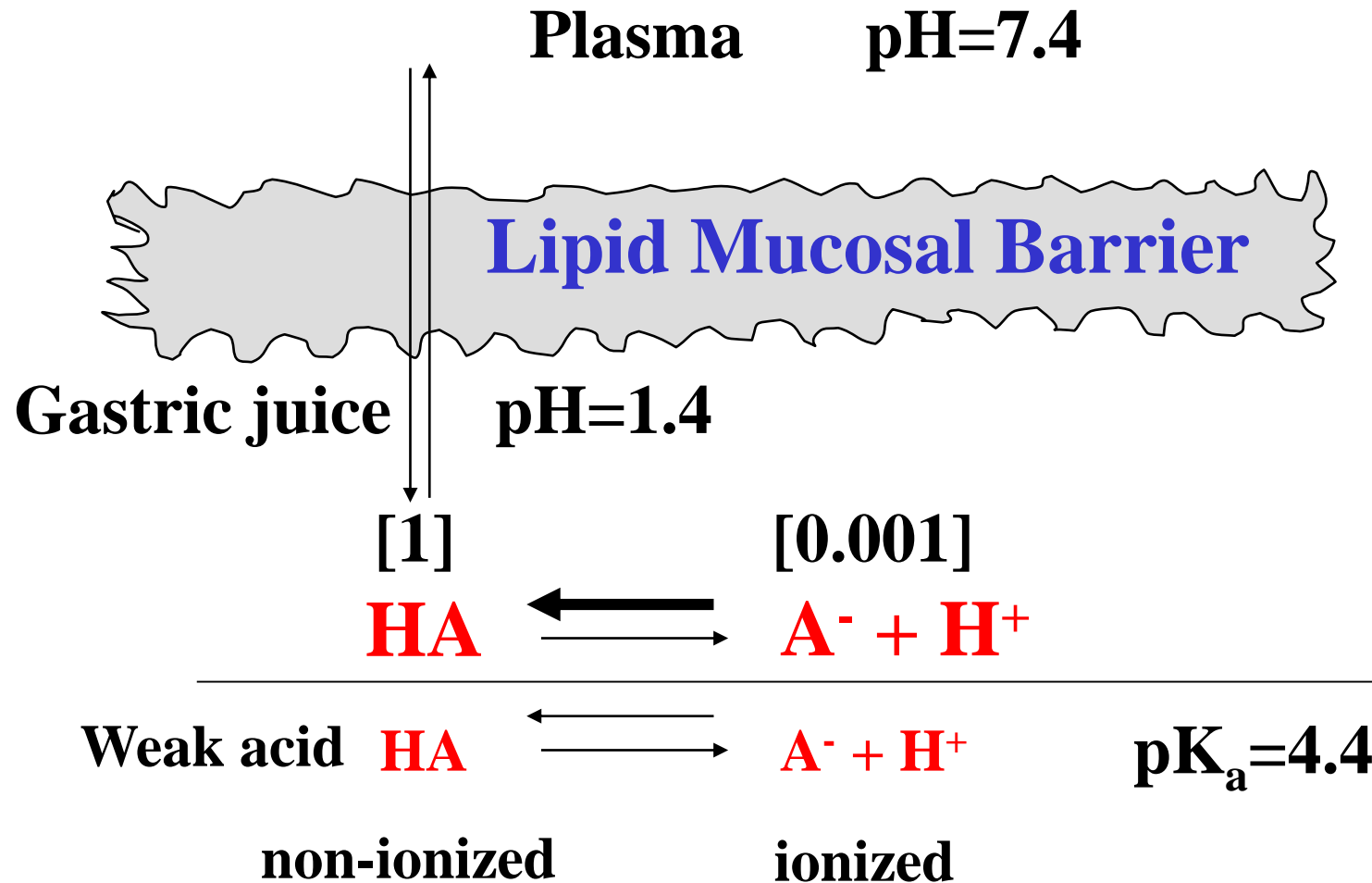
Salicylates

pKa:4.4;

pH: 1.4 (Stomach)

$$\text{pKa-pH} = \log \left[\frac{\text{non-ionized molecules}}{\text{ionized molecules}} \right]$$

$$4.4 - 1.4 = 3 = \log \frac{1000}{1}$$



EXAMPLE 2.

Salicylates

pKa: 4.4

pH: 7.4 (mucosal cell)

$$\text{pKa-pH} = \log \left[\frac{\text{non-ionized molecules}}{\text{ionized molecules}} \right]$$

$$4.4 - 7.4 = -3 = \lg \frac{1}{1000}$$

EXAMPLE 3.

Salicylates

pK:4.4;

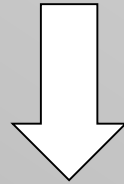
pH:8.4 (urine)

$$\text{pKa-pH} = \lg \left[\frac{\text{non-ionized molecules}}{\text{ionized molecules}} \right]$$
$$4.4 - 8.4 = -4 = \lg \frac{1}{10000}$$

Conclusion

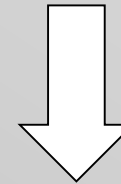
Alkalisiation of the urine enhances the excretion of weak acids,
acidification enhances the excretion of weak bases

TRANSPORTERS



ATP binding casset
(ABC)

transporter superfamilies



Solute carrier
(SLC)

INFLUX, EFFLUX
Use ion gradient to
drive transport
48 families

EFFLUX
Energy: ATP
7 families

TRANSPORTERS

ATP binding cassette transporter large family

7 families

EFFLUX

- **Multidrug resistance protein (MDR): MDR1 or P-glycoprotein** (intestine, brain, placenta, testis)
- Multidrug resistance-associated protein (MRP)
(excretion of drugs to urine, bile)
- White" transporter: BCRP (Breast Cancer Resistance Protein)

Role: Excretion of drug into urine, bile, intestine,
Drug resistance of tumor to chemotherapy

MDR1 – P-glycoprotein

- **INTESTINAL EPITHELIAL**

Reverse transport toward to the intestinal lumen

Inhibitors of MDR1 transporter

Increased toxic effect:

grapefruit: enhance intestinal absorption of cyclosporin –
increased toxicity

Increased therapeutic effect:

ritonavir (anti-HIV agent, protease inhibitor: combined with other protease inhibitors enhance their absorption and therapeutic effect (e.g.: lopinavir+ritonavir; atazanavir+ritonavir)

MDR1 – P-glycoprotein

- ENDOTHELIAL

BLOOD-BRAIN BARRIER: in endothelial cells;

e.g. loperamide can not enter the CNS

PLACENTA - does not allow entry of drugs to the foetus (not absolutely)

TESTIS

TRANSPORTERS

SLC transporter superfamily

Use ion gradient to drive transport,
primary **INFLUX**
48 families

Primarily involved in the uptake of small molecules
into cells.

Organic anion transporters (OAT, OATP).

Organic cation transporters (OCT).

TRANSPORTERS

In one cell more transporters:

e.g. in liver cell influx transporter facilitate the drug entry and its metabolism

The efflux transporters enhance the polar glucoronid-derivative excretion to the bile

SUMMARY OF DRUG MOVEMENT ACROSS MEMBRANES

Drug cross lipid membranes mainly by **passive transport** and carrier-mediated transfer.

The most important factor that determines the passive transport is the **lipid solubility** of the drug.

Only the **uncharged** molecules can diffuse the lipid membranes.

Carrier-mediated transporters (renal tubule, GI epithelium, blood-brain barrier) play a role in efflux (ABC) and influx (SLC) of drugs that are chemically related to endogenous substance or xenobiotics.

CONSEQUENCES OF Ph PARTITION

- Urinary acidification accelerates excretion of weak bases and retards weak acids
- Urinary alkalinisation has the opposite effect.
- Increasing plasma pH (Na bicarbonate) causes weak acidic drugs to be extracted from CNS into the plasma.
- Reducing plasma pH causes weak acidic drugs to be concentrated in CNS.

II. ABSORPTION

II. ABSORPTION

Routs of administration

Oral

Sublingual absorption: devoids portal circulation

Gastric absorption: weak acids !!

But: enormous absorptive area of intestinal villi

Intestineal absorption: weak bases!!!

Influenced by : GI motility, splanchnic blood flow
particle size and formulation (e.g. digoxin)
physico-chemical factors (tetracyclin-Ca)

Carrier-mediated **influx** transzport: L-DOPA , Flurouracil

P-glycoprotein-associated **efflux, reverse** trasport: from intestinal wall to lumen

ORAL ABSORPTION

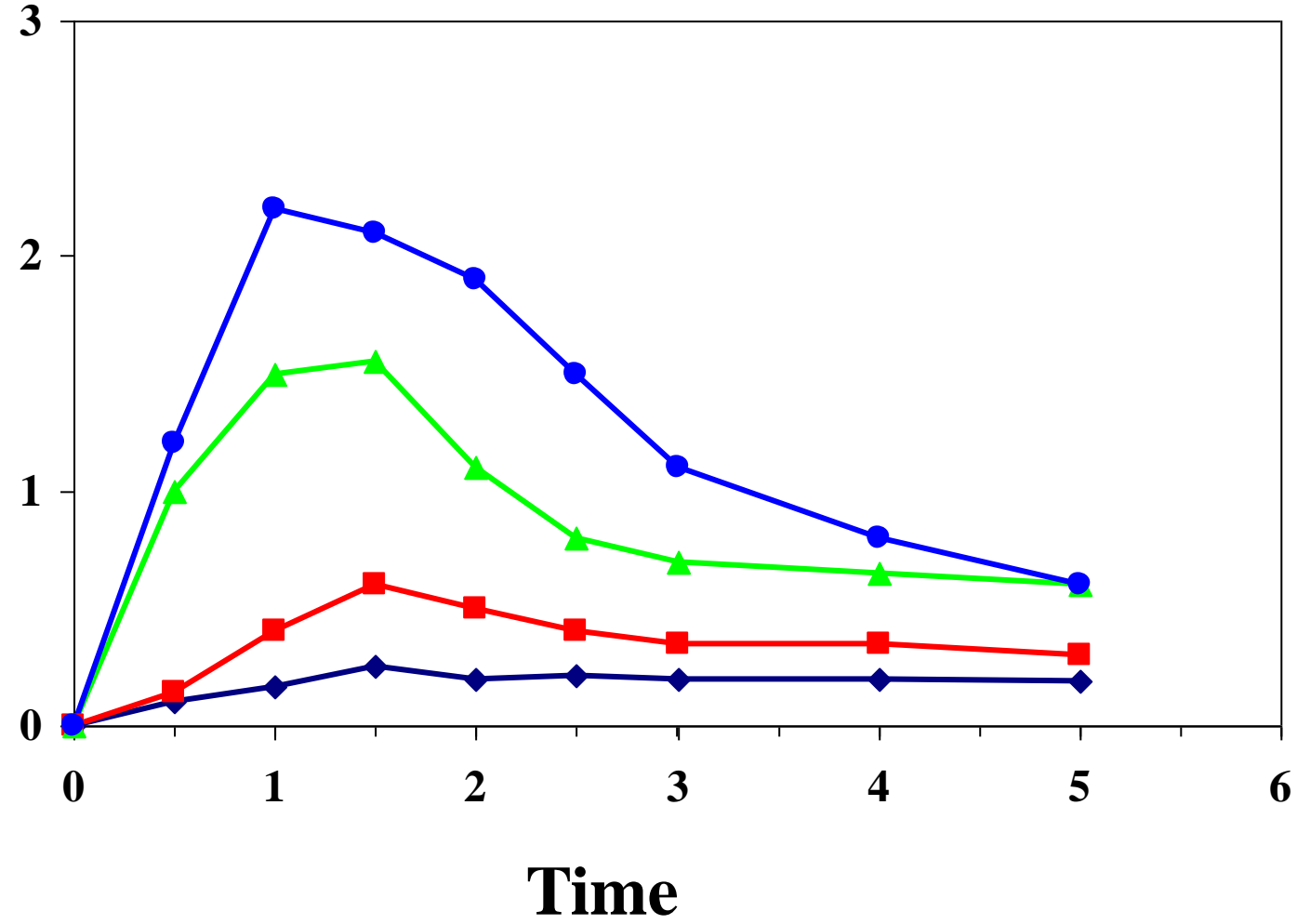
can depend on the vehicle of the drug

Different absorption of the same drug with different vehicle

(e.g. ampicillin, tetracycline, chloramphenicol, aspirin, digoxin)

Plasma digoxin concentration (nmol/l)

AREA UNDER CURVE (AUC) (represents the absorbtion)



II. ABSORPTION

Routs of administration

- **Rectal**
 - devoids portal circularion, first pass metabolism, local action
- **Cutan**
 - organophosphates, nitroglycerine, oestrogens
- **Nasal**
 - ADH
- **Eye drops**
 - glaucoma (pylocarpin, thimolol),
- **Inhalation:**
 - asthma (salbutamole, ipratropium, glucocorticoids), anaesthetics
- **Injections**
 - i.cutan, subcutan, intramuscular, intravenous
- **Intrathecal**
 - opioids, local anaesthetics baclophen, penicillin

II. ABSORPTION

Special systems

Pro-drug: eg. levodopa, cyclophosphamid, zidovudine

Antibody-drug conjugates: to attach a drug to antibody directed against tumor-specific antigen

Packaging to liposomes: spheric lipid layer - vesicle – drug

Coated implantable devices: intrauteri devices, coronary stents with antithrombic drugs

III. DISTRIBUTION

III. DISTRIBUTION

1. VOLUME OF DISTRIBUTION (V_d)

Amount of drug in the body (mg)

$$V_d = \frac{\text{Amount of drug in the body (mg)}}{\text{Plasma concentration (c) (mg/ml)}}$$

c : c_b , c_p , c_w

Apparent volumen

V_d (< 5) low: drug is distributed only in blood

V_d high: drug is distributed also in extravascular compartment

Eg. Digoxin V_d : 500 l; Aspirin V_d : 11 l

III. DISTRIBUTION

2. COMPARTMENTS

based on perfusion

Central compartments: plasma
organs with good blood supply
(kidney, heart, liver, lung, brain)

Peripheral compartments: organs with poor blood supply
(fatty tissue, skin, muscle)

Deep compartments: organs with very bad blood supply
(bone, cartilage, joint)

III. DISTRIBUTION

2. COMPARTMENTS

TOTAL BODY WATER (0.6 l/kg):

Small, water soluble molecules, eg. ethanol, phenytoin, diazepam

EXTRACELLULAR WATER (0.2 l/kg):

Bigger, water soluble molecules eg. gentamycin, tubocurare

BLOOD (0.08L/KG), PLASMA (0.04 l/kg)!:

drugs bound in plasma protein and very big molecules (heparin, insulin, warfarin)

FAT (0.2-0.35 l/kg):

highly lipidsoluble molecules e.g. DDT, thiopental

BONE (0.07 l/kg): ions, e.g. lead, fluor, tetracyclin

III. DISTRIBUTION

3. IMPORTANCE OF PLASMA PROTEINS-BINDING

Ionic, van der Waals, hydrogen - bindings

One albumine molecule can bind two acidic molecules

NON-SPECIFIC BINDING SITES – COMPETITION FOR BINDING

Warfarin - NSAIDs: NSAID displaces warfarin

Sulfonamide-bilirubine: sulfonamide displaces bilirubine

III. DISTRIBUTION

3. IMPORTANCE OF THE BINDING TO PLASMA PROTEINS

Compound	Binding in %	Occupied binding site in %
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DICLOFENAC	99.5	<1
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DIAZEPAM	95-99	<1
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TOLBUTAMID	90-95	50-60
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ASPIRIN	50	50
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SULPHISOXAZOL	90-95	50-60
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III. DISTRIBUTION

3. IMPORTANCE OF THE BINDING TO PLASMA PROTEINS

ONLY THE UNBOUND FORM OF DRUGS IS PHARMACOLOGICALLY ACTIVE!!

The amount of bound-form depends on the:

- concentration of free drug
- affinity for binding site
- concentration of protein

III. DISTRIBUTION

3. IMPORTANCE OF THE BINDING TO PLASMA PROTEINS

**METABOLISM, EXCRETION
CAN BE SLOWER**

III. DISTRIBUTION

4. CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM

FUNCTIONAL BARRIER – BLOOD BRAIN BARRIER

ENDOTHEL CELLS ARE TIGHTLY → transcellular transport



NON-IONISED, LIPID SOLUBLE MOLECULES ENTER
THE CNS

Drug designe

- First, second generation antihistamines
- atropin, benztropin – ipratropium
- Physostigmine - neostigmine

III. DISTRIBUTION

4. CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM

• TRANSPORT- OUTWARD

on capillar endothel a carrier (P-glycoprotein)

e.g. Loperamide –transport outward

Inhibited by: verapamil

• SPECIAL UPTAKE MECHANISM

endogenous substances

Inflammation (meningitis): increased permeability

III. DISTRIBUTION

5. PLACENTA

Plasma pH is more acidic in foetus

(7 vs. 7.2) → bases are retained

Capillar endothel-cells are tightly

water soluble molecules cannot enter above 1 KDa

P-glycoprotein also in placenta

transport-out

III. DISTRIBUTION

6. FATTY TISSUE

Thiopental: accumulation in body fat



Limited effect as a short – term induction of anaesthesia

IV. BIOTRANSFORMATION

1. Apolar compound → polar one

2. Inactivation

IV. BIOTRANSFORMATION

PHASE I. REACTIONS:

OXIDATION, REDUCTION, HYDROLYSIS

oxydative reactions catalysed by the mixed function oxygenase system,

the most important is the cytochrom P-450, a hem protein

Metabolite can be active or toxic!!!

IV. BIOTRANSFORMATION

Formation of active compounds

Active compound – active metabolite

Diazepam → oxazepam

Codeine → morphine

Phenacetin → paracetamol

Inactive compound (PRO-DRUG) – active compound

Enalapril → Enalaprilát

Active compound – toxic metabolite

Paracetamol → N-acetylbenzoquinon

CYP450 DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT OXYDATIVE REACTIONS

DEPENDENT:

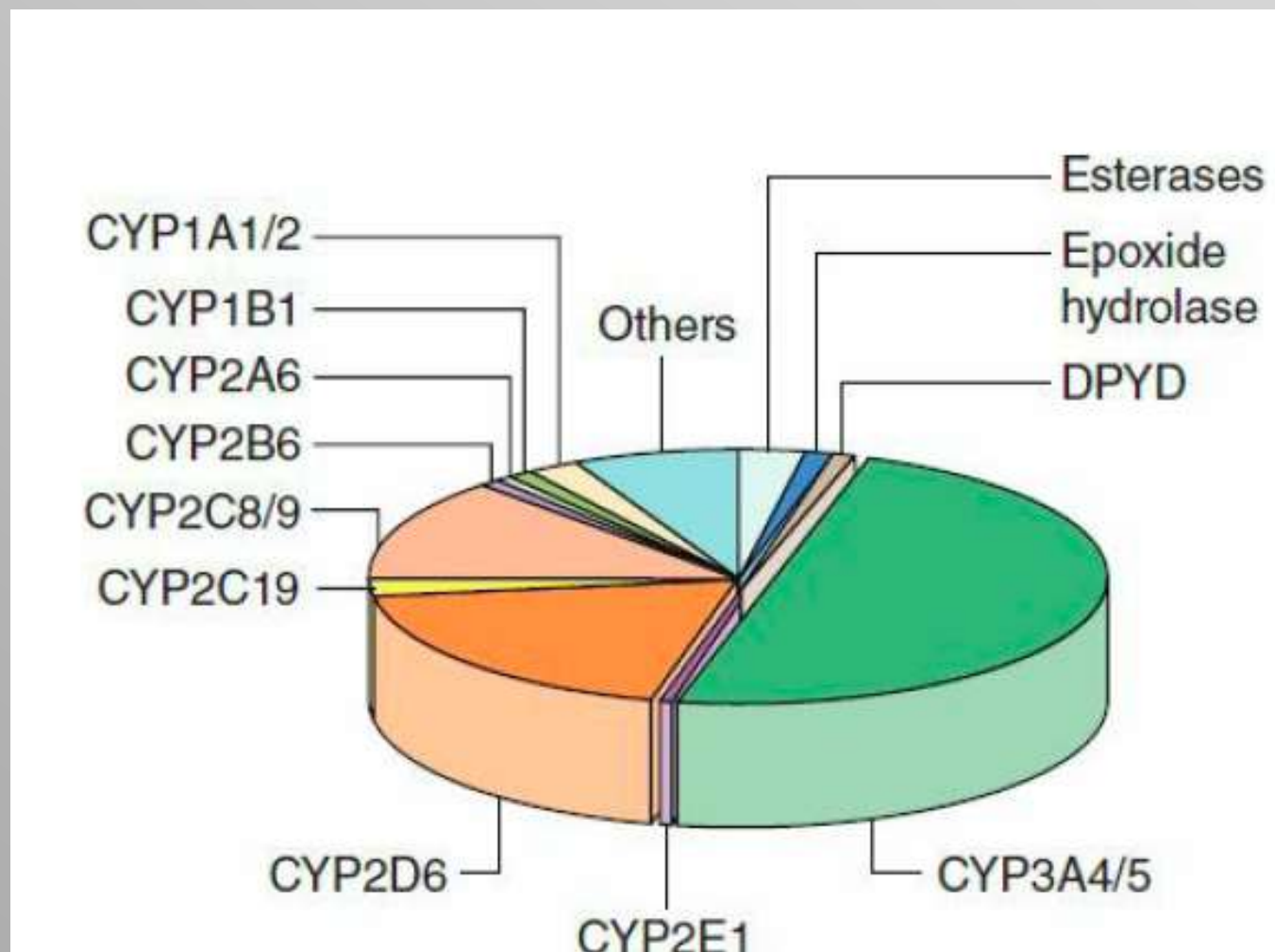
Aromatic hydroxylation aliphatic hydroxylation, epoxidation, N-dealkylation, O-dealkylation, N-oxysation, S-oxidation, desulfuration, dechlorination, deamination

INDEPENDENT:

Flavin monooxygenase, amine oxidases, dehydrogenases

DIFFERENT ISOFORMS OF CYP450

CYP1A2, CYP2A6, CYP2C19, CYP2E1, CYP2B8, CYP2D6,
CYP 3A4!



REDUCTION AND HYDROLYSIS

REDUCTIONS: Azo-, nitro- carbogen reduction

HYDROLYSIS: esters. amides

IV. BIOTRANSFORMATION

METABOLISM 2.

PHASE II. REACTION

CONJUGATION

glucoronide, sulphate, acetyl, methyl, glycole

Metabolit inactive, water soluble!!!

Exceptions:

morphine-6-OH glucoronide conjugation

izonicid N-acetylation

IV. BIOTRANSFORMATION

ENZYME INDUCTION, INHIBITION

Enzyme induction: increased gene transcription
inhibition of degradation

e.g. phenobarbital, rifampicin, ethanol, smoke, ritonavir (CYP 1A2) , grapefruit juice, air pollution

IV. BIOTRANSFORMATION

ENZYME INDUCTION, INHIBITION

Enzim inhibition: cimetidine, ketokonazol,
cloramphenicol, ritonavir (3A4 and 2D6)

Suicide inhibitors: the formed metabolite inhibits CYP
enzyme (e.g. ethinylestrediol, clopidogrel)

**P-glycoprotein* inhibition in the intestines → increased drug
absorption**

(claritromycin, nicardipin, verapamil, grapefruit, ritonavir)

IV. BIOTRANSFORMATION

FIRST-PASS (pre-systemic) METABOLISM

After oral administration drugs can be metabolised before reaching the systemic circulation

- in the liver (e.g. morphine, meperidine, lidocaine (toxic metabolite), verapamil, propranolol)

**to avoid portal circulation: sublingual, transdermal,
rectal
administration**

- in intestines (clonazepam, midazolam)
- gastric acid (penicillin)
- digestive enzyme (polypeptides).

IV. BIOTRANSFORMATION BIOAVAILABILITY

**Fraction of unchanged drug reaching the
systemic circulation**

Intravenous	100%
Intramuscular	75 - 100%
Oral	5 - < 100%
Rectal	30 - < 100%
Transdermal	80 - 100%

PHARMACOGENETICS

Different isoforms of CYP450

CYP1A2, CYP2A6, CYP2B8, CYP2C19, CYP2D6, CYP2E1, **CYP3A4!**

Extensive metabolism (EM), Poor metabolism (PM)

Genetic polymorphism

1. Oxidation - CYP2D6!

antidepressants, antipsychotics (haloperidol), antiarrhythmic (propafenone)

Asian population 1-2%: PM

Caucasian population: 5-10% PM

→high risk factor

PHARMACOGENETICS

Oxydation - CYP2C19

diazepam, omeprazol

Asian population 14-22%: PM

Caucasian population: 2-6% PM

PHARMACOGENETICS

N-acetylation:

isoniazide, procainamide, nitrazepam,

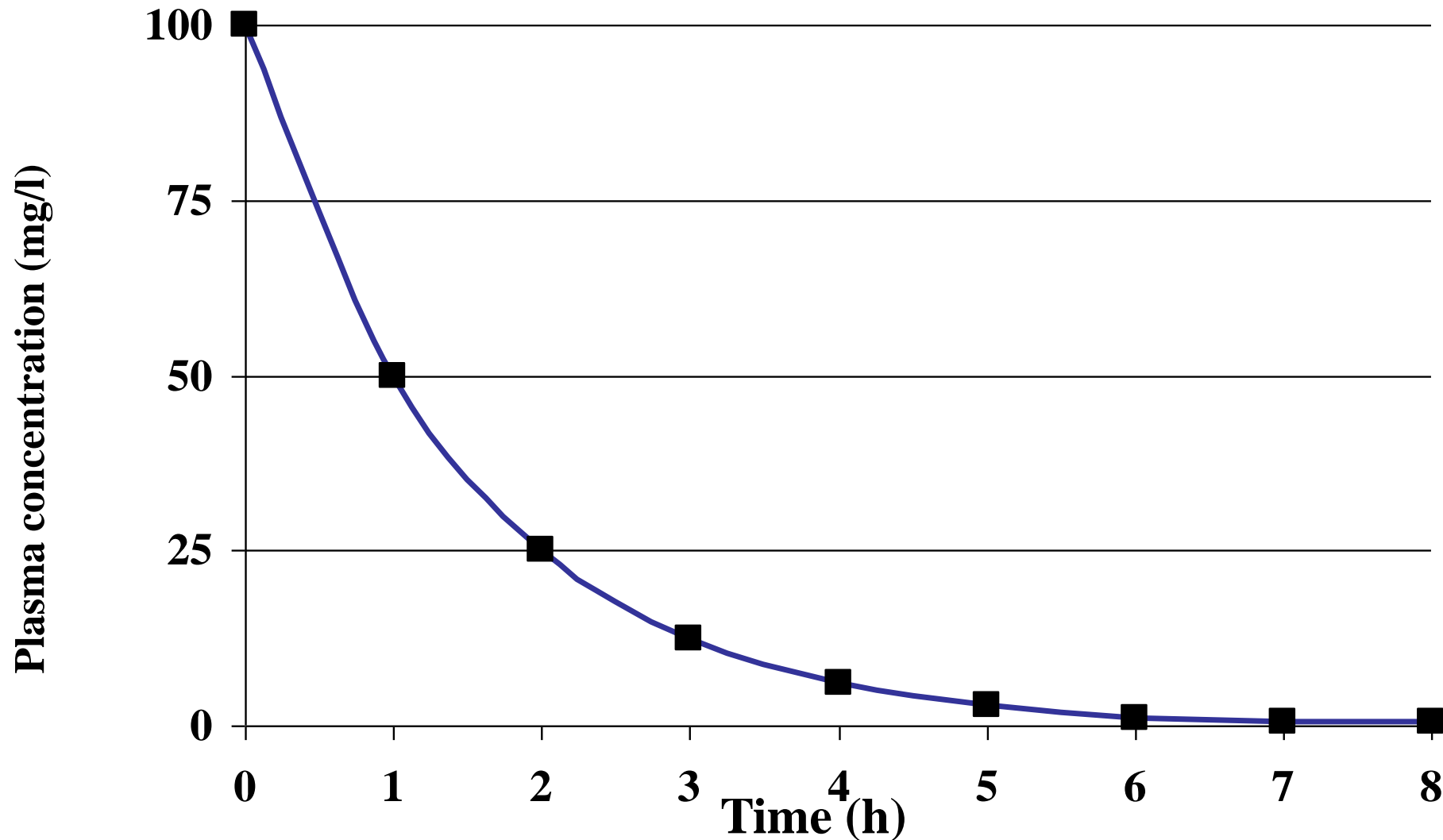
Slow acetylators: Egypt: 90%

Asian population: 10-20%

Caucasian population: 40-70%

**Side effect (isoniazid): hepatotoxicity,
SLE**

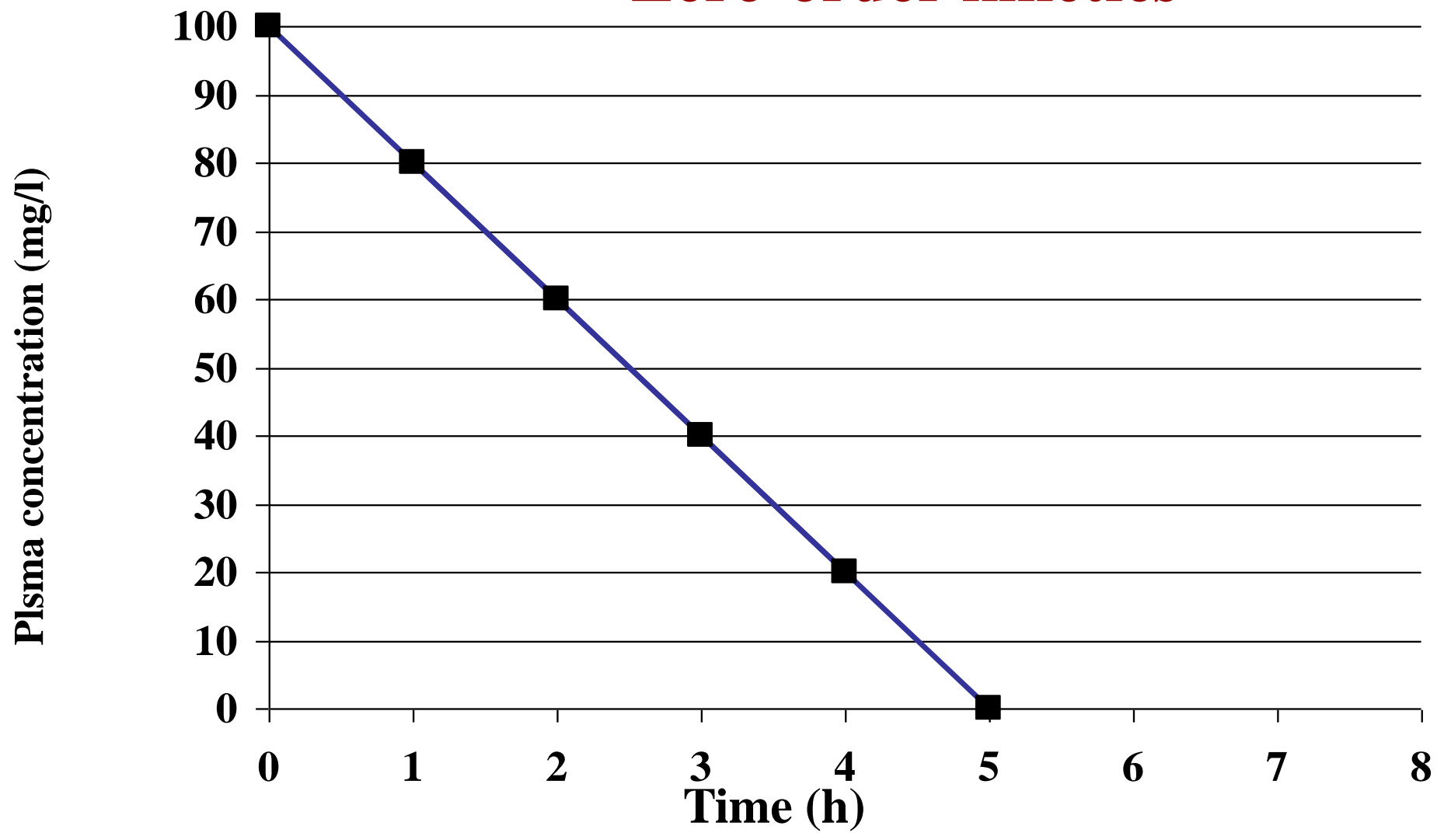
First-order kinetics!!



ELIMINATION: CONSTANT FRACTION/TIME UNIT

RATE OF ELIMINATION IS A LINEAR FUNCTION OF PLASMA DRUG CONCENTRATION!!

Zero-order kinetics



ELIMINATION: CONSTANT AMOUNT OF DRUG/TIME UNIT

V. EXCRETION

1. KIDNEY

- glomerular filtration
- active tubular secretion/reabsorption (carrier mediated (penicillin – probenicid))
- passive tubular diffusion
(pH dependent; apolar compounds are reabsorbed polar ones remain in tubules)

V. EXCRETION

2. BILIAR EXCRETION/ENTEROHEPATIC CIRCULATION

**eg. digoxin, morphine, chloramphenicol,
ethyniloestradiol**

„TAKE HOME MESSAGE”

- 1. Absorbtion: passive
carrier-mediated**
- 2. V_d : Amount of drug/plasma cc.**
- 3. I. phase reactions (oxydation, reduction, hydrolysis)
II. phase recations (conjugation)**
- 4. „First-pass” metabolism- Bioavailability**
- 5. Excretion - glomerular filtration, tubular (passive -active)**