



Pharmacology

Doctor 2018 | Medicine | JU



● Sheet

○ Slides

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Bioavailability

Bioavailability is the rate and extent to which an **administered drug** reaches the **systemic circulation** (it is the study of a drug to know the proper dosage the patient need)

Example: if 100 mg of a drug is administered orally and 70 mg is absorbed unchanged, the bioavailability is 0.7 or 70%

Why is this important?

Because if the same person takes another drug that has a bioavailability of 40% and you give him 100 mg of that drug, the quantity of the drug reaching the circulation will be 40 mg thus you won't see the same results.

So, to produce the desired clinical effect from a certain drug you need to **adjust** the **dosage** according to the **bioavailability** of that drug.

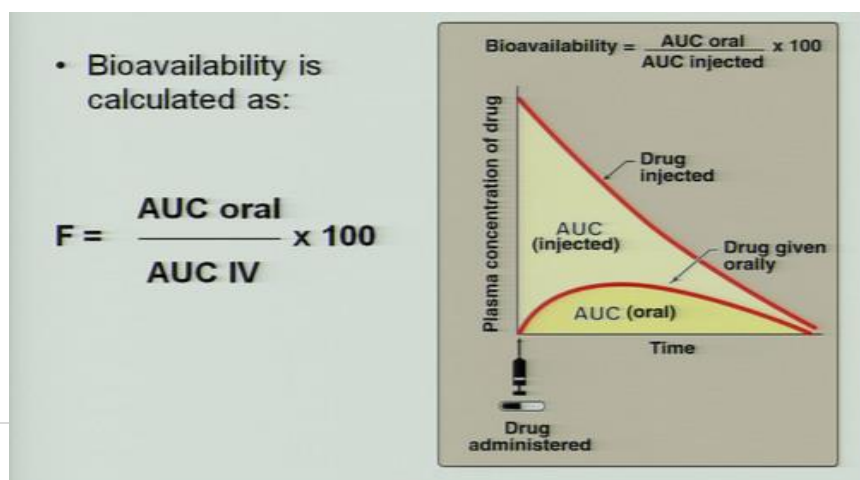
Determination of bioavailability

As we said the bioavailability is important for calculating **drug dosages** for different **routes of administration**, so now how do we determine the bioavailability?

Note that the bioavailability of **intravenous administration** is **100%** (since all the drug is injected directly into the blood stream), and all **other routes** (orally, rectally etc...) will have a **bioavailability** that is **less than 100%** (since only part of the administered dose appears in the plasma.)

Bioavailability is determined by comparing **plasma levels** of a certain drug after a particular **route of administration** with levels achieved using the **same drug** but by **IV administration**.

And by plotting plasma concentrations of the drug (in the circulation) versus time, the area under the curve (AUC) can be measured and it reflects the **extent of absorption of that drug**, then the bioavailability of a certain drug using a particular route of administration will be the **ratio** of the **AUC following that route** to the **AUC following IV administration**



For clarification, let's see how the bioavailability of **oral paracetamol** can be calculated.

Note that these tests are made **before** the drug is released to public (in the clinical investigation phases)

we give patient 1 the dose of the drug by using **IV administration** and patient 2 the same dose by using it **orally** and then we measure the change in concentration of that drug with time for both patients, until the concentration of the drug in the blood is zero so you will notice the **IV curve**, it starts at 100% (the peak) then it starts to **decline** (result of distribution and biotransformation)

While for the **oral curve**, the curve grows by time as absorbance takes place and the concentration of the drug in the plasma **grows** then it starts to **decline** (result of distribution and biotransformation)

To calculate the bioavailability of the oral administration you just have to calculate the area under its concentration curve, and divide it with area under the IV administration, which represents the 100% bioavailability

we can measure bioavailability by measuring AUC (Area Under Curve) for both curves then by the equation:

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

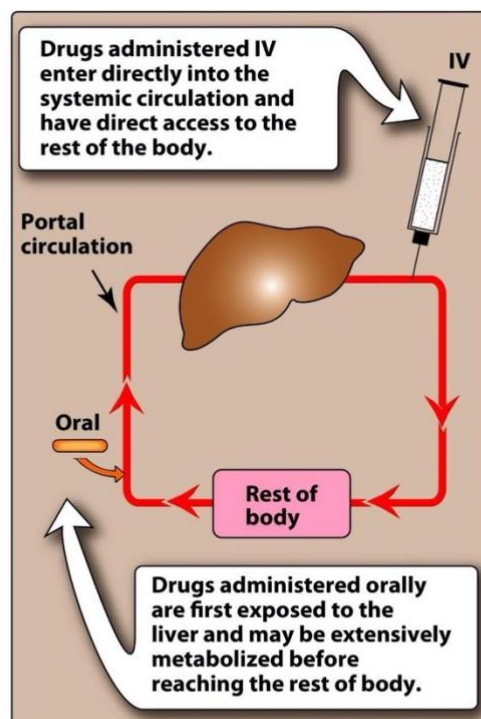
Factors influencing bioavailability

1- First-pass metabolism:

Remember first-pass metabolism is the metabolism of the drug **before** it reaches **the systemic circulation**

When a drug is absorbed from the **GI tract**, it enters the **portal circulation** (circulation of blood to the liver from the small intestine) **before** entering the **systemic circulation**. If the drug is rapidly metabolized in the liver or gut wall during this initial passage, the **amount of unchanged drug entering the systemic circulation is decreased** which is the bioavailability

E.g.: More than 90% of the absorbed **nitroglycerin** is cleared due to first pass metabolism. So to overcome the first pass effect nitroglycerin is administered **sublingually**.



First-pass metabolism can occur with orally administered drugs. IV = intravenous.

The Amount metabolized due to first pass metabolism is measured by the **extraction ratio of the liver** (also known as **liver clearance rate**) and it depends on the blood flow to the liver and the metabolic rate of the drug.

Drugs with high first-pass metabolism should be given in doses sufficient to ensure that enough active drug reaches the desired site of action.

If we have **more** first-pass metabolism we have **less** bioavailability of the drug

By now we have two factors that determine the bioavailability of the drug which are

- 1- **The absorption** (we talked about it in the previous lecture)
- 2- **The first-pass metabolism** and it's resembled by the extraction ratio of the liver, and is calculated according to this equation

$$ER = CL_{liver} / Q$$

ER → extraction ratio

CL liver → liver clearance of the drug (constant for a specific drug)

Q → hepatic blood flow

So, depending on these factors another way to calculate the **systemic bioavailability** for **orally** administered drugs is by using this equation

$$F = f * (1 - ER)$$

F → systemic bioavailability

f → extent of absorption (depends on the drug)

2- Solubility of the drug

We know that for a drug to pass through the membrane **passively** it has to be **lipophilic**, but we'd take into account that our compartments (ICF, ECF (Intravascular, Interstitial)) are **aqueous**.

Very hydrophilic drugs are **poorly** absorbed because of their inability to cross lipid-rich cell membranes.

Drugs that are **extremely lipophilic** are also **poorly** absorbed, because they are totally insoluble in aqueous body fluids and, therefore, cannot gain access to the surface of cells. So, the ideal drug must be **largely lipophilic**, yet have **some solubility in aqueous solution**.

This is one reason why many drugs are either **weak acids** or **weak bases** (can exist in lipophilic and hydrophilic states).

How do we determine the solubility of the drug (lipophilic or hydrophilic)?

Using the **partitioning coefficient** which is the ratio of concentrations of a compound in a mixture of two **immiscible phases** at equilibrium, and that's by putting my drug in a tube containing **both** oil and water and shaking it until **equilibrium**, then I take a sample from both compartments (oil and water) and measure the concentration of the drug in these two compartments then decide how much lipophilic or hydrophilic it is (depending on the **concentration**), for example 35% hydrophilic , 65% lipophilic

3-Chemical instability:

-Some drugs, such as **penicillin G**, are unstable in the **pH of the gastric content** (acid labile).

-**Insulin** and other **peptides** and proteins get destroyed in the GIT by **proteases** and degrading enzymes.

4-Nature of the drug formulation:

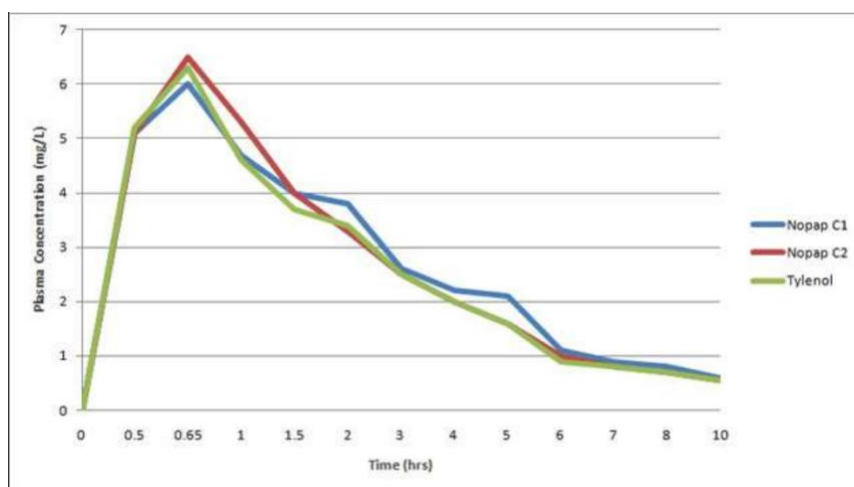
Drug absorption may be altered by factors unrelated to the chemistry of the drug. For example: **particle size, salt form, crystal polymorphism, enteric coatings, and the presence of excipients** (such as binders and dispersing agents) can influence the ease of dissolution and, therefore, alter the rate of absorption.

Bioequivalence

One of the important studies that we do in **phase 3** of the clinical investigation phases is making sure that this drug is at least **as effective** or **superior** to the effectiveness of other drugs

So, Let's say I'm a new drug company and I want to make paracetamol in a certain dosage form, and I want it to be approved and released to the market. what I need to do is to compare my drug to Panadol for example which is already in the market, and that's by comparing the extent of bioavailability of both drugs using a plot like this one:

Drug products are considered to be **bioequivalent** when the rates and extents of bioavailability of the active ingredient in the two products are **not significantly different** under suitable test conditions



The blue and red lines are our drug we are testing, The green line is the drug in the market

Tylenol is the commercial name of paracetamol in the USA

Distribution

We talked about **absorption**, which was the **first step** of **pharmacokinetics**, now the next step is **distribution**, (what happens to the drug after reaching the systemic circulation).

Distribution depends on many variables, some are related to the **drug itself**, and some are related to **the tissues of the body**.

Depending on **drug size** and **lipid solubility**, drugs can distribute to **most** body compartments. Though **Brain**, **prostate**, and **eye** tissues might be difficult to penetrate because they have a special barrier that won't allow the entry of certain drugs to these organs, example: blood brain barrier.

So, what are **the factors that determine the distribution**

(1) capillary permeability

if the **junctions** and **spaces** between **epithelial** cells are wider this will allow **more** of the drug to **penetrate** and reach different tissues of the body and vice versa for example, in the blood brain barrier there are more tight junctions, so it is **impermeable** for the drug to penetrate through.

(2) blood flow–tissue mass ratio (i.e., perfusion rate)

means how much **blood** is a **particular organ** getting, for example, some organs have a higher perfusion rate like the **heart, liver and kidneys** because they perform more important body functions, so if we have a higher perfusion rate it means a **higher** chance of the drug reaching that specific organ.

(3) extent of plasma protein and specific organ binding

we know we have plasma proteins swimming in our blood like **albumin** for example, some drugs such as **acidic drugs** have affinity for albumin and they tend to bind to it, but albumin can't exit the circulation to surrounding tissues due to its **high molecular weight**, so any drug that is bound to a plasma protein won't leave the circulation and will not reach the target tissue thus affecting the distribution of the drug. We will talk about this in details shortly.

(4) regional differences in pH

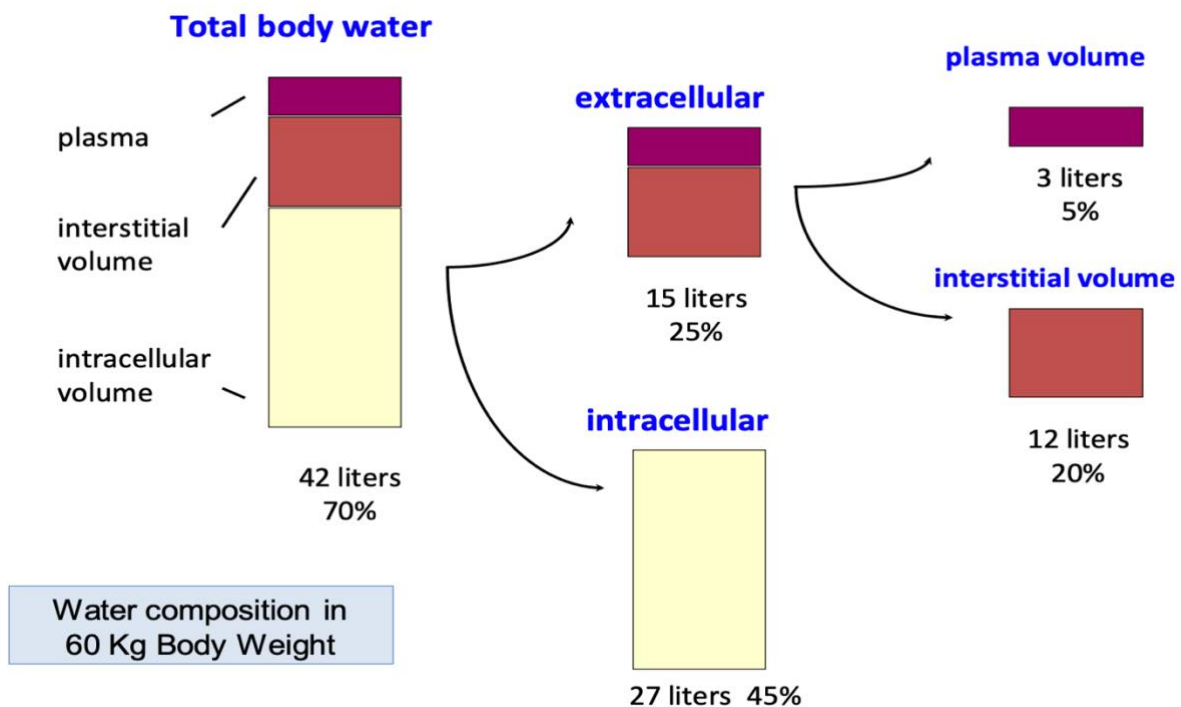
as we took earlier the differences in **pH** and **pka** of drugs affect how much of the drug can cross membranes and penetrate inside of the cells (depending on what form **charged** or **uncharged**)

(5) transport mechanisms available

for example, in the blood brain barrier we have **glucose transporters** that allow more glucose to enter the brain, so if transport mechanisms are available for drugs the distribution will be much easier.

(6) the permeability characteristics of specific tissue membranes.

Body distribution and body water



The **total volume** of the fluid compartments of the body into which drugs may be distributed is approximately **42 L** in a **60-kg adult**.

These compartments include:

- **Plasma water**
- **The interstitial fluid**
- **The intracellular fluid**

now why is this important?

Because **after** circulating in the blood **for a while** the drug will start to distribute to different tissues, mainly in the water of the body according to the **specifications** of that drug.

now let's see what compartments drugs can be found in depending on their characteristics

A. plasma

A drug that is not lipid soluble and has a **very large molecular weight** or **bind extensively to the plasma proteins** (as we said earlier) will **not be able** cross the spaces between **endothelial cells** into the **interstitial** compartment, So the drug is effectively **trapped** with the **plasma** (vascular) compartment. In this case the drug will distribute in a volume that is about 6% of the body weight. for example, in 60 kg individual, agents of this type, such as **Heparin**, will distribute in 3 L of body fluids.

B. Extracellular

If a drug is **hydrophilic** and has a **low molecular weight**, it can move through the **endothelial junctions** but cannot cross the membrane to enter the cells (because it is **hydrophobic**).

So, drugs like **aminoglycosides**, will distribute into a volume equal the sum of the plasma water and the interstitial fluids but not intracellularly (in a volume that is about 25% of the body weight).

C. Total body water

If a drug is **hydrophobic** and has a **low molecular weight**, then the drug can move through the membranes into **the cells**. Here the drug will distribute into the total body water (a volume of about 60% of the body weight).

To sum up if the drug

- 1- Has large molecular weight/binds to plasma proteins → plasma
- 2- Is hydrophilic and Has low molecular weight → extracellular
- 3- Is hydrophobic and has low molecular weight → Total body water

-Important Notes:

- Some drugs have **affinity** for particular **tissues** in the body, so they will accumulate there, for example **lipid soluble** drugs once they reach the **fatty tissue** they will accumulate there and won't distribute to other tissues, and there will be some equilibrium between the **free form** that's not bound to the fatty tissue and the **bound form**.
- Some areas of the body are **not accessible** to drugs due to **anatomic** barriers. for example, the capillary membrane between the plasma and **brain cells** is much less permeable than is the membrane between plasma and another tissue. Therefore, the transfer of drugs into the brain is regulated by what is called "**blood brain barrier**" and it is
 1. only permeable to **lipophilic** agents
 2. impermeable to **ionic hydrophilic** agents
 3. Amino acids, glucose etc. have **specific uptake system (transporters)**

Protein binding

-We have already talked about this topic but let's go through some details

Usually, after absorption, some drugs **bind** to proteins. And this binding affects drugs by:

1- **making them inactive**

2- **lowering the distribution of the drug**, because now they are **larger** molecules (can't **cross membranes** between different compartments).

-So, we conclude that the protein binding **limits** the **distribution** of the drug in the body, but this **doesn't** mean that the whole dosage I give **will** bind to proteins, there is a balance (**equilibrium**) created between **bound (inactive)** drugs and **unbound(active)** drugs.

-The fraction of total drug in plasma that is **bound** is determined by

1- the drug concentration

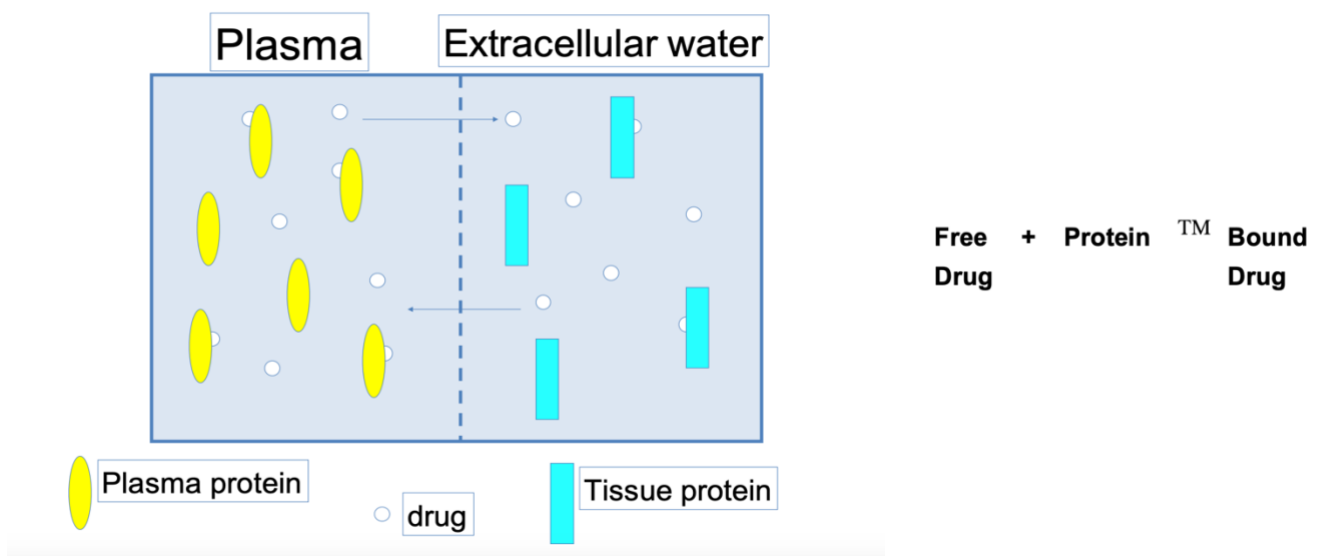
2- its affinity for the binding sites

3- the number of binding sites.

So, what is the **benefit** of drugs binding to proteins?

Bound drugs are considered as the **depot** (a place for storage) inactive forms of the drug, what does this mean?

since the bound and unbound drug are in **equilibrium**, as the unbound free drug is **distributed** and **used** by the tissues, **more** of the **bound** drug is **released** to make up for the loss of the **free unbound drug** in tissues, and this adds a **prolonged** effect for the drug.



As you see only the free form of the drug can cross membranes

DRUG BINDING TO PLASMA ALBUMIN

- Some drugs bind **nonspecifically** and **reversibly** to various plasma protein, **albumin and globulins**, in which the bound and free drug reach **equilibrium**, and only the free drug exerts a biological effect. (the bound drug doesn't exert a biological event)
- plasma proteins and what drugs are they bound to
albumin → primarily for acidic drugs
a1-acid glycoprotein → for basic drugs
Lipoproteins → for some lipid soluble drugs
- In general albumin binding **reduces pharmacological activity** (because it decreases the number of the drug in its free form), but as we said it actually **prolongs duration of action** in a way dependent on **affinity, binding capacity** and **rate of dissociation** (because it acts as a storage unit).

We talked about the **benefit** of drugs binding to proteins (prolonged duration of action), but on the other hand protein binding is an important area of **drug-drug interactions**.

drug interactions are defined as interactions between drugs and other substances that **prevents** the drug from performing **as expected**.

Drug interactions occur on **albumin** by the **displacement** of one drug by another and it can **raise** the dose of some drugs to **toxic** levels. How? Take this example

Anticoagulants (**Warfarin**) can be displaced by the anti-inflammatory agents **Phenylbutazone**.

Warfarin is an anticoagulant that tends to bind to **albumin**, so let's say 50% of it will bind to albumin and the other 50% are in the active free form, so when a doctor prescribes warfarin to a patient he already takes into consideration that half of the warfarin will be in the inactive form, now if the patient takes another medication that also binds to albumin like phenylbutazone it will **compete** and **displace** warfarin which actually increases the concentration of the **free active** warfarin meaning it can be **toxic and fatal**.

Note: Only unbound drugs are capable of crossing the **placenta**. So, Drugs with low protein binding reach higher concentrations in the **fetus** compared to the **mother**.

We have talked about the different **factors** affecting the **distribution** like protein binding, permeability of membranes, drugs characteristics, etc.

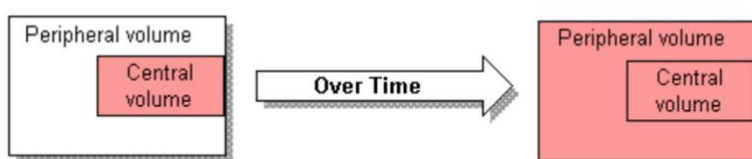
Now how do we **determine** and **compare** the **distribution** of different drugs in our body?

Volume of distribution

We have a concept called the **volume of distribution** or the **apparent volume of distribution**, V_d , and it is defined as the **fluid volume** that is required to contain the **entire drug** in the body at the **same concentration** measured in the **plasma**. It is calculated by dividing the **dose** that ultimately gets into the **systemic circulation** by the **plasma concentration** at time zero (C_0)

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

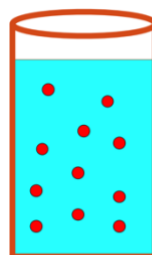
Although V_d has no **physiologic** or **physical** basis, it's a measure of the tendency of a **drug** to **move out** of the blood plasma to some other site. and it can be useful to compare the distribution of a drug with the volumes of the water compartments in the body.



take this simple example

Say you have a beaker containing a known volume of water (2 liters) and you put 50mg of a soluble drug inside, then simply you can find the concentration of the drug using the equation **$C = \text{amount} / \text{volume}$** , which will equal to 25 mg/L.

Now let's say you don't know the volume of the water but you can actually measure the concentration of the drug using a device, now by rearranging the equation to **$\text{volume} = \text{amount} / \text{concentration}$** , you can find the volume of water inside the beaker, $50\text{mg} / 25\text{mg/L} = 2\text{L}$.



What is the volume of water in the beaker?

$$\text{Volume} = \frac{\text{amount}}{\text{concentration}}$$

$$\text{Volume} = \frac{10 \text{ mg}}{10 \text{ mg/L}} = 1\text{L}$$

Using the same **concept**, we can use the volume of distribution as a **measure of distribution of drugs**.

If you administer a dose of a drug **intravenously**, you would naturally expect it to have an immediate blood concentration C_0 which directly corresponds to the amount of blood contained in the body, Mathematically this would be:

$$C_0 = \text{amount of drug} / \text{volume of blood}$$

But in reality, this is not the case. Instead you will observe that the drug has **distributed into other tissues** of the body and the C_0 you measured is actually **lower** than the C_0 you precalculated using the previous equation, so probably the first question you may ask is: how much of the drug is **no longer** in the blood stream?

The volume of distribution (V_d) quantifies just that by specifying how **big a volume** you would need in order to observe the blood concentration **actually measured**, so using the equation

$$V_d = \text{amount of the drug in the body (that you administrate)} / C_0 \text{ (that you measure)}$$

You can actually **visualize** the **extent of distribution** for a certain drug even if the numbers are just **theoretical** and not measuring an actual **physical quantity**. How is that?

By looking at the equation, If the V_d is a **small number** that mean that C_0 is considerably large(close to the theoretical one) meaning that most of the drug is still in the blood which means that the drug is **poorly distributed** or has a **high degree of plasma protein binding**. While on the other hand if V_d is a **large number** it means that the concentration of the drug in the blood is low, meaning that **most of it has distributed** to the different tissues of the body.

To sum up

Volumes of distribution (V_d)

(In litres for average 70 Kg adult human)

Warfarin	7
Gentamicin	16
Theophylline	35
Cimetidine	140
Digoxin	510
Mianserin	910
Quinacrine	50,000

Small vol. Mainly stays in plasma little in tissues.

Medium vol. Similar concs in plasma and tissues

Large vol. Mainly in tissues, little in plasma.

Imp Note: the volume of distribution is normally measured in L/kg

Because V_d depends on the body size of the individual, the larger the weight the larger the total body water, meaning more volume for the drug to distribute into. So, V_d would be more accurate if divided by the weight of the person.

e.g.
Theophylline $V_d = 0.48 \text{ L/kg}$
For 60 kg adult,
 $V_d = 0.48 \text{ L/kg} \times 60 \text{ kg} = 28.8 \text{ L}$

Now just to practice

A dose of analgesic (50mg) is administered i.v. and a blood sample is taken shortly afterwards. The initial concentration of analgesic in the blood sample is $0.85 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{ml}^{-1}$. Calculate the volume of distribution of the analgesic (in Liters).

Model solution

$$V_d = \text{amount} / C_0$$

$$= 50 \text{ mg} / 0.85 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{ml}^{-1}$$

$$= 50,000 \mu\text{g} / 0.85 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{ml}^{-1}$$

$$= 58,824 \text{ ml}$$

$$= 59 \text{ Liters}$$

Good luck.