

we are honored to have dr art atkinson
course

dr atkinson founded the nihs course on
principle of clinical pharmacology

almost 0 years ago

dr atkinson received his undergraduate
degree in chemistry from harvard college
in 99

in his medical degree from cornell
university in 9

following residency at mass general
hospital he was a clinical associate in
the laboratory of clinical investigation
here at the nihs niaid

he received his postdoctoral training in
clinical pharmacology at the university
of cincinnati

in 90 he moved to northwestern
university to start the clinical
pharmacology program there
while at northwestern he and his
colleagues set up the first us hospital
laboratory devoted to general
therapeutic drug monitoring

in 99 dr atkinson joined up john as a

vice president for clinical development
and medical affairs
following the up john pharmacy a merger
he joined the center for drug
development science at georgetown
university
in 99 he returned to the nih as a
senior advisor in clinical pharmacology
to the director
of the nihs clinical center dr atkinson
has received numerous honors and awards
over the years
i know youll enjoy todays presentation
thank you very much dr figg
my topic today will be the compartmental
analysis of drug distribution
and by that i mean the postabsorptive
transfer of drug from one location in
the body to another
there are a number of ways in which drug
distribution
is analyzed in pharmacokinetics
the first is a noncompartmental
analysis in which the theres
curves are fit to the data and this can
be used to calculate parameters like the

area under the curve the clearance the
distribution volume the c_{max} and the t_{max}

what we'll focus on today is the the

second of these approaches the

compartmental analysis

where the parameters of a

pharmacokinetic model are actually fit

to the data and usually these are fairly

simple models with say one to three

compartments

as opposed to the increasingly popular

physiological models which are much more

extensive and actually represent a

chemical engineering approach

to the problem each organ is assigned

its own compartment and the model

parameters are found from the

physiological literature

in an agnostic

about these modeling approaches and

believe that the choice of the model

should depend on what the intended

purpose of your analysis is

but today we'll focus primarily on

a

physiologic physiological basis of
multiuh compartment pharmacokinetic
models
and were indebted to a physiologist at
the university of sola
torsten trl
who many years ago
developed the first multicompartmental
model hes regarded therefore as the
father of both compartmental modeling
and physiologically based
pharmacokinetics
and this is a picture of one of his
models and what you can see here is a
central compartment which represents
intravascular space theres distribution
into tissues here elimination by various
organs essentially he was working with a
twocompartmental model
now
what do these compartments mean
if we look at a classic drug like
digoxin you can see here that the
distribution volume of liters
doesnt really correspond to what we can
recognize as a physiological compartment

but we'll go into that in a few minutes
and start with the conventional view of
these physiological compartments that
consist of first the intravascular space
the interstitial fluid space and the
intracellular fluid space
well most drugs don't have distribution
volumes that correspond exactly to those
compartments but there are some
compounds
that do have a correspondence and a
classic marker for
the
extracellular fluid space is inulin
and
proteins and other macromolecules also
distribute in the extracellular fluid
spaces do
the neuromuscular blocking drugs and
initially the aminoglycoside antibiotics
there are a number of markers for total
body water urea
the caffeine that you have in your
coffee or coke
ethyl alcohol and some people have used
antipyrine as a marker even though it

does exhibit some protein binding
so how do we rationalize most of the
distribution volume estimates that we
find

they're really two factors that I think
are most important to consider the first

is binding to plasma proteins
and we'll take theophyll and thyroxine
and theophylline as uh as examples

and then there's the
tissue binding or partitioning of a vast
array of other compounds

so the first thing I would like to
disabuse you of is the concept
that plasma proteins are only
distributed in the intravascular space

in fact these binding proteins
distribute

throughout extracellular fluid space

so essentially we have two main
compartments to think about
extracellular fluid space

and
intracellular water when we think of
distribution volumes

and one can mathematically analyze

the end predict the effects of protein

binding

on distribution volume with this fairly

simple

equation

what you see here for thyroxine

which has a protein binding of

999 percent because its total

distribution volume corresponds with the

expected value for extracellular fluid

space

on the other hand theophylline is a drug

chemically very similar to caffeine if

it didnt bind to plasma proteins its

distribution volume like caffeine would

be total body water

but because of the protein binding this

distribution volume is less and here we

can see

that its somewhat less than 0 protein

bound and so its distribution volume is

uh

less than

one would expect for total body water

now this kind of approach allows us to

understand some of the effects of

physiological change on drug
distribution lets take the example of
the pregnant woman
in the third trimester
not only is the protein binding of
theophylline decreased but the fluids s
space estimates for extracellular fluid
and total body water are increased and
so you can see if we take all these
factors into consideration
we come up with estimated estimates for
distribution volume that agree
quite uh
simply uh quite closely rather to
to what we can measure experimentally
now what about drugs that distribute
extensively into tissues and here we
have to add another factor
 ϕ to our equation and i will call this
the ratio of tissue to plasma drug
concentration
and generally speaking this factor
is
correlated with the octanol water
partition coefficient for the various
compounding question and this is a a

rough graph

that shows

this relationship

lets get back to the example of digoxin

we

know that the fraction free is 0 and

we can calculate back calculate from the

observed distribution volume that has to

have very high partitioning into tissues

a factor of free of 0 and heres

experimental data the binding also

includes binding to sodium potassium

atpase actually every tissue in the body

here

has much higher concentrations of

digoxin

than does

the concentration in blood

so how do we analyze

experimental data using compartmental

models

well the

first question is how many compartments

in the model a lot of people agonize

about it but my approach is rather

simple

the number of exponential phases in the
plasma level versus time curve
will determine the number of
compartments
and so here we have a bi exponential
equation that means were going to wind
up with a two compartment model
there are four parameters in this
equation two
coefficients and two exponents
four parameters there means that we can
identify four model parameters and here
ive highlighted
two
rate distribution rate constants and
elimination rate constant and the
central compartment
but we could also
calculate the the two distribution
volumes through the two compartments uh
and two clearances
and
the uh total distribution volume in the
compartmental system is simply the sum
of the two compartment volumes
and this now

to add to the confusion gives you a
third way
of calculating distribution volume we've
already
learned earlier in the course about V_d
strap and V_d area this is the third way
of calculating distribution volumes
and that
obviously adds to the confusion
now
the

primary parameters of the system are not
the rate constants they're the
distribution and the elimination
parameters are the clearances and here
we have for our model elimination
clearance is simply as you know the
product of the elimination rate constant
and the central compartment volume
there is a clearance also that describes
the rate of drug distribution
and that is calculated in an analogous
way to the elimination
clearance and like the elimination
clearance it's a volume independent
parameter that characterizes the rate of

analyte transfer between compartments of
the kinetic model this parameter has
been
really
pretty much ignored
in pharmacokinetic studies
well try to
explain a little bit more about it as we
go on
lets go back though to our conventional
view of physiologic spaces
and
what ive shown you here is a three
compartment model a catenary model
comes from the latin for chain you can
see the three compartments are linked
together in this horizontal way and
these first two compartments
intravascular space and interstitial
fluid space are combined to form what we
call the extracellular fluid space
traditionally we think of extracellular
fluid spaces as being having two
compartments
and that understanding is based on this
type of study heres a study done by

mario gagdino

way back in 99 before he had computers

to help him

you can see his experimental lines

and his

uh his theoretical lines and his

experimental data points after both a

prolonged infusion and after bolus

injections of

inulin

and what i want to call your attention

to

is this region of his curves you can see

here after the bolus injection the data

points are below his theoretical line

after the prolonged infusion the data

points are above

and this uh

suggests that hes missed the

compartment

and so

what these days

when we think of

inulin distribution we really have to

think of a three compartment model with

a more rapidly equilibrating compartment

and a slow
equilibrating interstitial fluid
compartment in other words interstitial
fluid is kinetically
heterogeneous
and the basis of this lies in the
anatomy of capillary beds
the splenic bed has very large
holes in it
and so
solutes can pass into the splankinic
tissues much more rapidly than in the
somatic
compartment
where we have
uh continuous capillaries and heres a
scanning electron like micro typograph
of hepatic sinusoids
these are called
fenestry
im a sailor so they look more like
portholes to me
but theyre big holes and you get big
molecules going through these holes very
rapidly
on the other hand heres a high power

electron micrograph of the
interendothelial cell capillary
junction
and you can see how much narrower this
is certainly in this blow up and that
retards the passage of
hydrophilic solutes
through these capillaries
theres a brilliant study done many
years ago by
bob sherwin and his colleagues
at both yale and nih in fact and they
studied the kinetics of of insulin a
molecule about the same size as inulin
but obviously one that has a
pharmacologic effect
and the pharmacologic effect of insulin
that were interested in is its ability
to lower blood sugar by increasing
skeletal muscle uptake of glucose
this study was done not only as a
kinetic study but as a study performed
with a eu glycemic glucose clamp in
other words the investigators infused
intravenous glucose
so as to maintain constant blood sugars

even though insulin was acting to
increase glucose uptake by skeletal
muscle and here's the slow
equilibrating compartment
in their three compartment model
and you can see it parallels skeletal
muscle uptake of glucose if you will

so this is

one

very rare example where the
pharmacodynamic
compartment actually is a
pharmacokinetic compartment and so for
that reason it's of
a particular interest

urea also can be described with the
three compartment model and the central
compartment again if the urea is given
rapidly intravenously
is intravascular space

so

let's look now at a revised model of
physiologic spaces

we have kinetic heterogeneity for the
extracellular fluid space
and that also affects

urea distribution into total body water

in both cases

the trans capillary exchange

is the rate limiting step

and uh thats the process uh that we

would like to analyze in terms of

understanding uh what makes up the trans

capillary

the the intercompartmental clearance of

these compounds

there are actually three parameters

that need to be considered capillary

blood flow which will designate by q

the capillary

permeability coefficient

which well call p

and the capillary surface area

and this gentleman eugene renkin who is

former chairman of physiology at uc

davis was the first to apply

this equation to the transcapillary

clearance of solutes

its a rather simple equation and it can

be adapted to study the

intercompartmental clearance of

inulin and urea

the challenge as you can see is we have
experimentally one term a clearance term
and we'd like to calculate two terms
a permeability coefficient a surface
area product and a flow term
in order to do that
we have to study urea and inulin
simultaneously
in both cases transcapillary exchange
is the
the basis for the intercompartmental
clearance
and we need three equations
so the first two equations are
rearranged versions of the Renkin
equation
and the last equation simply assumes
that the trans capillary exchange of
inulin urea will be
the ratio of those permeability
coefficients the surface area products
will be the same as the ratio of their
free water diffusion coefficients which
you measure in vitro
and if we do that
and simultaneously measure cardiac

output

we now can compare our flow estimates
for the two compartments in our model
with independently measured cardiac
output and you can see here
the correspondence is fairly close

so

obviously most pharmacokinetic studies
are not performed with this level of
detail

but in certain circumstances
it can be illustrative to have this
amount of detail in our analysis
in the subsequent lecture we'll talk
about how we can use these models to
understand

physiologic changes that occur
during hemodialysis
that have obviously have an impact on
hemodialysis pharmacokinetics
and they also have a bearing
on

analyzing why
patients with reduced cardiac output
might not absorb drugs as well as
patients whose cardiac status is better

now you'll have a subsequent lecture on
drug absorption and all these various
factors will be considered but the one
factor that's hardest for us to get our
hands around in the in clinical studies
at least is the importance of splenic
blood flow

we'll remember our model
the fast equilibrating compartment
is the distribution of drug in many of
our models two splenic tissues and here
we were looking at a drug an acetyl
propane amide where again the central
compartment is intravascular space we
have fast and slow peripheral
compartments and you can see that if the
fast intercompartmental clearance is
less than

there's a reduction in bioavailability

now

obviously what we're really trying to
get our hands on

is splenic blood flow

and we can use in this case a fast
intercompartmental clearance perhaps is
a surrogate for that

well what are the mechanisms
for trans capillary exchange of a
variety of compounds
weve talked
so far about polar uncharged compounds
inulin and urea
here weve said the transfer should be
proportional to the free water diffusion
coefficient
but there are many small molecules some
of them polar that have a slower
transfer rate than we would predict from
their free water diffusion coefficient
some of these are highly charged and
others have
properties that cause them probably
to interact with those pores in
capillary walls that weve been talking
about
certainly the quaternion compounds
have a major interaction
in other cases the transfer rate is much
faster than wed predict
for example the uh
studies with the antiarrhythmic drug
ibutilide the intercompartment of

clearance to the peripheral compartments
from the intravascular space
is
some of those
clearances adds up to what we expect
for cardiac output
and the lipidsoluble compounds
of a variety
of compounds act that way
the other reproxy thing is that
theophylline
actually
goes faster across capillaries than we
would predict from its free water
diffusion coefficient
and this is a very unusual study in
which theophylline and pharmacokinetics
were studied in dogs
simultaneously with urea and inulin and
we measured the cardiac output as well
and what you can see here for
theophylline is that
the intercompartmental clearances for
theophylline
are very close
to blood flow calculated from the urea

and inulin kinetics

and why should this be

well

theophylline obviously is bigger

than urea

it has a

corrected stokes einstein radius thats

bigger it should go more slowly the free

water diffusion coefficient is less and

yet it crosses capillary walls faster

than urea

so the assumption is there is a

facilitated transport

carrier has yet to be identified

that is responsible for this rapid

transfer

now lets continue this

line of thought by considering some of

the clinical implications of drug

distribution kinetics

first of all

there are some drugs that are given

rapidly by intravenous injection are

quite toxic

theophylline again is the case in point

in the late 0s it was found to be a

valuable drug in treating patients

asthmatic patients with status

asthmaticus

but several years later

it was noted to have both

fatal arrhythmic

toxic effects and central nervous system

cardiorespiratory toxicity

its interesting its been a

puzzle to me why why people wait for

three cases before they write a paper

but that seems to be the magic rule

even in 9

it was known that the injection of this

drug intravenously oh even over a three

to five minute period

resulted in 0 percent

of drug related cardiac arrests

in the los angeles county

shaw cord

so people correctly surmised fairly

early on that speed of injection was

important in this toxicity

and i will

say that the reason speed of injection

is important is that speed of

distribution of this drug is extremely

rapid

and of course the current recommendation

is to slow it up and give the theophany

over a 0 to 0 minute period

well conversely distribution can delay

the onset of drug action of a number of

compounds we've seen previously

how

the delayed distribution of insulin the

skeletal muscle delays its onset of

pharmacologic action and let's go back

to digoxin again you can see that the

pillars are slow buildup of digoxin

concentrations in the heart

and consequently a slow onset of the

therapeutic myocardial effects

on the other hand

the peripheral vascular system

reacts to

the high

intravascular concentrations that are

immediately obtained and that causes

vasoconstriction

and the bottom line of this story is

if you have a patient with congestive

heart failure
and pulmonary edema
that if you begin therapy with a cardiac
glycoside
this delayed effect means that the
official the initial effect you'll
observe is a reduction of cardiac output
and the patient will become worse
now another
consequence of this disparity is that
the digoxin if ingested in a suicide
attempt say
can distribute very rapidly to the
central nervous uh medullary vomiting
center
and so the result of this action is that
that the patient will uh eliminate most
of the ingested dose before it has a
chance to kill them by working on their
heart
you can think of this as sort of a
a a
pro protective mechanism uh that has
been designed by
uh
the ultimate designer i guess to protect

us to some extent from eating poisonous

plants like foxglove

uh

well

distribution also

terminates

the action of many

drugs

given after a bolus dose

and perhaps the the one that

youve observed is the fact that if you

have somebody with a ventricular

arrhythmia

say vtac and you give them a bolus

injection of lidocaine

after eight to ten minutes the

arrhythmia comes back

and

thats not because the patient has

eliminated the lidocaine its because

the

the lidocaine has redistributed from

the

intravascular space to rapidly

equilibrating tissues

and

the metabolic elimination is a
relatively slower process
there are
certain special
cases that have been this designated
flipflop kinetics
and uh the poster child for this type of
a drug is gentamicin all the
aminoglycosides so well demonstrate
this
and currently we give this drug in a
daily dose and you see the plasma
concentrations fall after each dose
and that
decrease in concentration actually
reflects the elimination of the drug
if you measure concentrations after the
drug dosing is stopped though you see a
prolonged distribution phase
so here we have drug
elimination phase preceding drug
distribution
phase that's the
very unusual the distribution phase
actually represents distribution of
gentamicin primarily from

extracellular fluid space to the kidneys

and

coburn and shedtag and their colleagues

at

suny buffalo have shown that patients

who show nephrotoxicity actually are

accumulating more of the gentamicin in

their kidneys these are

these they can actually measure the

amount of gentamicin in the kidneys and

postmortem exams and account for almost

all

of the gentamicin that is

distributed to the peripheral

compartment

ill finally talk about something that

ill call pseudo dose dependency

and uh something that causes

the

inaccurate estimate of pharmacokinetic

parameters

one of the most toxic noncancer drugs

that we use is dilantin or phenytoin

and you can see here that the plasma

levels increase much more rapidly than

the doses increased

and so this does not satisfy
a criteria that we call dose
proportionality and so let me give you
an example from the real world of drug
development
the uptrend company was developing a
drug with nasalite or xybox
and the phase one study
pharmacokinetic data showed that after a
milligram dose the auc was
micrograms power per milliliter
when the 00 milligram dose was given a
four time increase in dose
the auc increased times
and this data was presented to the
senior management at upcom
laboratories by the pharmacokinetics
group
and
theres incentive in the industry to
stop the development of a drug that
isnt going to work out as early as
possible
so the development of this antibiotic
was about to be stopped
when fortunately the pharmacokinetic

group showed their plasma level versus
time curves

what you see is after the milligram
dose

their assay wasn't sensitive enough to
transcribe the entire plasma level
versus time curve

so they only had this truncated curve
and so in fact that through the
estimates off the drug did show dose
proportionality but let me show you what
the pharmacokinetic estimates would have
been

had they just worked with these data
you can see here that with the
inadequate description
of the the plasma levels versus time
curve you had
an underestimation of distribution
volume

and an overestimation of clearance
now

the
the the current practical
significance of this is that were being
confronted with a whole bunch of

wonderful drugs that happen to be rather

large molecules

and what I'd like you to do

when you

examine pharmacokinetic data for these

drugs is to compare the distribution of

volume spaces with those of inulin

what you can see here is that generally

speaking the central compartment

intervascular space estimates are

generally pretty much in line with what

you'd expect factor nine is a bit

unusual in many respects seems to bind

to something

and

but for most of these drugs the total

distribution volume

is much smaller

than the estimate of extracellular fluid

space

and that means not only that the

distribution volume

estimate is incorrect

and too low

but the clearance estimate in the

published papers is incorrect and too

high

so i want you to to try to remember that
is something perhaps youve learned from

this particular lecture

and i want to thank you for

uh for

for listening and i hope its been
enjoyable and instructive thank you