

today's lecture is by Dr. Sarah Robertson  
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please enjoy today's lecture

Hello, I'm Sarah Robertson and today I'll  
be covering drug interactions

so as an overview

I'm going to be covering the  
epidemiology and various categories of  
drug interactions talking about the  
mechanisms affecting drug absorption

distribution metabolism and modulation  
of transport proteins

as well as alteration and renal

elimination of drugs well dive a little

bit into enzyme transport or interplay

and cover some complex drug interaction

issues

well discuss a clinical interpretation

and look at some examples of product

labeling

i have upfront some abbreviations ill

refer to throughout so this will be a

good point of reference im going to be

referring to the area under the

concentration time curve throughout and

that is a measure of drug exposure when

we look at a plasma concentration versus

time curve and ill look at well look

at some examples of those ill also be

using the terms substrate and modulator

so substrate just refers to the drug

being acted upon or the victim

whereas a modulator is a drug that

inhibits or induces

for instance drug metabolism or a

particular transport protein so the

modulator generally refers to the  
perpetrator of a drug interaction  
so the epidemiology of drug interactions  
they're not easy to quantify  
particularly the clinical relevance of  
them

i have a couple references here though  
one was a review of medicaid records  
between the years of 2000-2009  
in which it was discovered that nearly

of patients were found to have at least  
one clinically significant drug  
interaction

the risk of course increases in the  
elderly are patients with comorbidities  
or patients on multiple medications  
a second publication here talks about an  
fda review of ndas approved in 2000 so  
fairly recent

and that review found that majority of  
compounds 60 percent were metabolized by  
a cytochrome p450 enzyme  
and about the same number showed  
possible inhibition or induction  
of a metabolizing enzyme

and overall nearly 0 percent or  
percent had a metabolism  
metabolismbased drug interaction that  
resulted in a change of clinical  
significant

so the various types of interactions we  
generally classify them or put them in  
two categories pharmacodynamic which  
related relates to a drugs effect on  
target be it safety or efficacy and  
pharmacokinetic which generally refers  
to an impact on drug absorption  
distribution metabolism basically  
impacting the concentration of drugs  
circulating in the body or acting at the  
site of activity

so some examples of pharmacodynamic  
interactions we have additive  
combinations and some examples there  
when you combine sedatives for instance  
with pain medications  
or antiseizure medications with pain  
medications that can cause over sedation  
a beneficial pharmacodynamic interaction  
is that of ibuprofen and acetaminophen  
used together in combination to treat

pain

a harmful example is i dont zydovidine

hiv medication used early in the  
treatment of hiv with ganciclovir which  
is an antiviral drug used to treat cmv  
infection it was discovered early on  
in the early

treatment of hiv that the two drugs in  
combination cause severe neutropenia  
a synergistic combination is when we  
combine two drugs and we get a  
beneficial effect above that of either  
one

and a good example of this is  
aminoglycosides with penicillin used to  
treat grampositive infections  
a harmful combination is obviously that  
of barbiturates and alcohol or sedatives  
and barbiturates or sedatives and  
antiseizure medications

an antagonistic combination might be  
where one

drug counter acts or blocks a  
pharmacological effect of another  
a beneficial antagonistic relationship  
is the use of naloxone or narcan used to

treat opiate overdose

an example of a harmful one is that of

zidova

zidovudine and stavudine again two

antiviral retroviral medications used to

treat hiv

they actually compete with one another

for phosphorylation and its been shown

both in vitro and clinically

that using the two combination actually

results in a lessening of antiviral

efficacy

some pharmacokinetic interactions we

generally put these in one of four

categories interactions affecting drug

absorption

distribution

metabolism

or elimination

so first we'll start with absorption

so pH absorption might be impacted by

pH we know that a lot of drugs are

dependent on an optimal pH for their

solubility and hence permeability or

uptake into the gut for absorption

increasing the pH in the gut for

instance using an h antagonist like  
ranitidine or a proton pump inhibitor  
can result in an increased or decreased  
solubility of a drug  
some examples include adenosine and  
rilpivirine again to antiretroviral  
medications they actually have two  
different responses to pH adenosine  
absorption is decreased  
with the use of proton pump inhibitors  
whereas rilpivirine exposure is  
increased  
so the question is how clinically  
relevant are these pH altering drug  
interactions well there's an example  
with irinotecan an  
anticancer medication used to treat  
pancreatic and non-small cell lung  
cancer  
in a retrospective review of patient  
records actually found that use of acid  
suppressing drugs in combination was  
associated with a significant reduction  
in overall survival after counting for  
other factors up to nearly 4  
months

and that's in light of only a 0 percent  
reduction in auc  
another ddi affecting altered absorption  
is the effect on gi motility  
so use of narcotics such as methadone we  
know decreased gi motility slow  
transit of  
medications through the gut and can  
affect absorption  
whereas other drugs like metaclopramide  
otherwise known as reglan which is used  
to treat nausea and other gi  
issues  
and  
increases increases motility in the gut  
can also affect absorption  
so the example on the left here we are  
using didanosine in combination alone in  
combination with methadone or alone and  
as you can see methadone again  
decreasing gi motility had a significant  
effect on didanosine absorption and  
overall plasma exposure  
whereas example on the right we've given  
posaconazole a



antifungal agent in combination with  
reglan or metoclopramide and we see  
reduction in posaconazole absorption as  
we increase uh motility

another example of altered absorption is  
the effect of chelation and this is  
basically irreversible binding of drug  
in the gi tract which can happen to  
certain phosphate medications certain  
pro drugs

classic examples of these are the  
tetracycline and quinolone antibiotics  
are sensitive to combination with things  
like antacids and dairy products calcium  
containing products and in this example  
we have a fluoroquinolone trobophloxacin  
given with either malox which contains  
magnesium and aluminum either separated  
by two hours

or with malox given just 0 minutes  
before and you can see a profound effect  
on the absorption of trophofloxacin when  
you give maalox just 0 minutes before  
its not the  
effect on  
gastric secretion of

acid however because when you give  
trophofloxacin with a proton pump  
inhibitor theres no effect on  
absorption so its really the chelation  
with the magnesium and the  
aluminum in this case  
so were going to move on now to  
mechanisms of interactions affected by  
drug transport  
so just to orientate everybody real  
quickly in the gut we have passive  
diffusion of drug and every drug  
perfuses a little bit different with  
different levels of permeability  
some drugs are effluxed out more than  
others by efflux proteins such as peak  
glycoprotein  
others rely on uptake by uptake  
transporters most commonly in the gut we  
think of oatp  
and when we block either the efflux  
transport  
we can see less efflux of drug back into  
the gut  
and hence increased drug levels in the  
blood

same two we could block up  
uptake transporters such as oetp here  
which would result in  
increased drug back into the gut and  
lower levels of drug in the blood  
so again uptake and efflux transporters  
in the gut can be inhibited or induced  
that is increased  
by  
modulating drugs and these in turn can  
increase or decrease the bioavailability  
of drugs that rely on those transporters  
and again it depends largely on the  
compounds permeability the lower the  
permeability of a compound the more its  
absorption is affected by membrane  
transporters in general  
and of the money gut transporters we  
looked at on the previous slide and  
there are many the two most common  
associated with clinically relevant drug  
interactions include pglycoprotein or  
pgp  
and bcrp or breast cancer resistance  
protein  
a couple of examples of this is a

well documented interaction between  
quinidine which is a pgp inhibitor in  
digoxin  
did jackson we described as a sensitive  
substrate of pgp that is small  
perturbations in pgp whether it be  
induction or inhibition can result in  
big changes in digestion exposure  
so we often use digoxin as our substrate  
of interest when we want to evaluate the  
effect of another drug on p like  
pglycoprotein  
some clinically relevant  
well characterized pgp inhibitors  
include cyclosporine erythromycin  
verapamil etraconazole and  
others now well move on to drug  
interactions affecting drug distribution  
specifically well talk first about  
protein binding this is largely a  
theoretical ddi and  
generally its focused on restrictively  
clear drugs so those are drugs in which  
only a small fraction of drug is  
extracted as it passes through the liver  
or other eliminating organ

because only unbound drug is cleared you  
would expect an increase in the fraction  
unbound to lead to an increase in total  
drug clearance and hence a decrease in  
plasma concentrations

at the same time we know only unbound or  
free drug is available to act upon the  
pharmacologic target

but

because in general unbound plasma  
concentrations return very quickly to  
predisplacement levels after a  
transient increase

these are rarely clinically relevant and  
i have a quote here from a publication  
that states the general clinical  
importance of plasma protein binding  
interactions has been largely overstated

and ill show this an example  
so this is looking at warfarin morphine  
is often cited as something potentially  
sensitive to protein binding  
distribution or protein binding rather  
interactions because it is a  
restrictively eliminated drug and its  
got a narrow therapeutic window

so in the top plot we have the  
pharmacodynamic response which is  
bleeding or thrombin time on the bottom  
we have warfarin concentrations in  
plasma both free and total  
and you can see when we add a displacing  
drug so that is a drug that competes for  
binding the plasma proteins with  
warfarin we displace warfarin from  
proteins and you get a spike in free  
circulating warfarin  
as a result you also see a small  
increase in the prothrombin or bleeding  
time  
its quick and quite acute however  
because we have more free drug  
we also have more drug available to be  
eliminated to the by the body so our  
total drug concentration decreases and  
overall those free levels of warfarin  
also return to predisplacement levels  
and all this is resolved in just a  
matter of days  
transport proteins as we talked about in  
the gut can also play a role in the  
distribution of drugs to other organs

systems most notably we think of organ

systems that are highly protected

like the bloodbrain barrier or the

placenta or kidneys

but also

organs of elimination like the liver

inhibiting or inducing these transport

proteins in these organs can affect the

distribution of drug

so in the first example we have here

loperamide and antidiarrhoeal

antidiarrheal medication

can cause cns side effects

its generally protected from getting

into the cns space by transport proteins

such as again p glycoprotein or pgp

but when you add an inhibitor like

quinidine that increases the cns

penetration of loperamide and puts

patients at risk for cns associated side

effects

same to our examples with digoxin again

this time with paroxetine as the

inhibitor which can increase the cns

penetration of digoxin

now lets move on to metabolism

you've probably learned a bit already  
about drug metabolizing enzymes in the  
system most notably cytochrome p0  
enzymes

3, 4 and 5 are probably the  
by far the most abundant and  
promiscuous of the enzymes metabolizing  
a large proportion of our  
our medications

inhibition and induction of these  
metabolizing enzymes most notably CYP3A4  
is also the primary source of most  
adverse drug interactions

we can talk briefly about phase  
enzymes but for the most part phase  
metabolizing enzymes that cause  
conjugation

are rarely associated with clinically  
significant drug interactions  
part of it is because the  
prevalence of these enzymes they're  
available in such large quantities and  
inhibition of a phase two enzyme rarely  
translates into a very clinically  
relevant drug interaction  
so we'll focus for the most part



of  
inhibition and induction of phase one  
enzymes  
so cytochrome p0 enzymes again as  
youve probably learned already are most  
prevalent in the liver but also in the  
gi tract  
and when we inhibit the inhibition we  
can get a increase in substrate or  
victim  
concentrations which can result in  
toxicity  
usually the inhibition occurs by  
competition to the enzyme site and its  
generally a quick onset and offset of  
effect when you add an inhibitor  
but the time to the maximum effect  
really depends on how long it takes for  
the substrate drug to reach steady state  
so if you consider a drug at steady  
state these are the plasma  
concentrations that peak in wayne from  
peak to trough over the course of a day  
when you add a sip inhibitor you slowly  
start to gain a gain in concentrations  
and the concentrations will increase

again until a new steady state is

reached

its important of course if youre going  
to decrease the dose of a drug to bring  
it back down to the preinhibitor levels  
that you consider the withdrawal of the  
inhibitor and the appropriate dose  
increase back to be able to maintain  
original substrate concentrations  
so its not just the onset but also the  
offset of inhibition

the effect of inhibition on a substrate  
is of course greatest if that substrate  
relies on only a single route of  
metabolism so great example is midazolam

which is a classic sensitive CYP  
substrate it relies only on CYP3A4 and  
its very extensively metabolized so it  
doesnt take much inhibition of CYP3A4 to  
get a very profound increase in midazolam  
exposure

drugs with more than one route of  
metabolic metabolism however like  
voriconazole which relies on CYP2C9 CYP2C19  
and A

are less sensitive

so if you inhibit *ca voraconeazole*  
still has *sepc9* and *9* as pathways for  
elimination

we talked about the most common method

is typically via competition to enzyme  
binding site but there's another

mechanism and that's called  
mechanism-based enzyme inactivation

and that results when reactive  
metabolites form and they make a  
inhibitory complex

we sometimes refer to this as

irreversible or

quasi-irreversible inactivation of *sip*

it generally results in a more profound  
and prolonged inhibition effect so even

after you withdraw the inhibitor the  
inhibition can persist for some time due

to this metabolic inhibitory complex

some examples include the macrolide

antibiotics like clarithromycin and  
erythromycin

as well as grapefruit juice

here's an example of strong *syph*  
inhibition by *retrovir* *norvir* again an

antiretroviral drug used to treat HIV

on the left we have triazolam again a  
very sensitive CYP3A4 substrate its  
metabolized 100% by this enzyme and its  
extensively metabolized and when you add  
ritonavir you see the profound increase  
in the area under the concentration time  
curve of 10 fold

on the other hand zolpidem or Ambien is  
metabolized by CYP3A4 and other CYPs  
so when you add ritonavir all you see is  
a 1.5 fold increase in exposure relative to  
the 10 fold we saw with triazolam  
so flip into the other side lets talk

about induction of metabolizing enzymes  
these occur by increased DNA  
transcription so drugs interact with  
nuclear receptors most notably PXR CAR  
PXR being responsible for the synthesis  
of CYP3A4 as well as P-glycoprotein  
interaction with this DNA transcription  
factor results in synthesis of new  
enzyme

because it takes a couple weeks for  
enzyme to be fully synthesized its a  
slower onset and offset relative to  
inhibition

we generally say that induction takes  
about a week to two weeks for its full  
effect

it also depends on the half-life of the  
inducer and the time to make the new  
proteins

this results in a decrease in substrate  
as we've got greater metabolic turnover  
due to increase in *specific* enzymes and of  
course reduction in activity of the drug  
we might also see the formation of toxic  
metabolites

when you remove the inducer without a  
dose adjusting the substrate you can get  
toxic concentrations of the substrate of  
course

so just as we talked about with the  
inhibitor you have to be mindful of both  
the onset and offset of inhibition and  
how you might be dose adjusting the  
substrate

same two with the inducer though of  
course a time course might be slightly  
different

unlike inhibition where  
if a substrate had multiple enzymes to

metabolize it inhibition of one was not  
so impactful  
induction can be significant even when a  
drug relies on multiple sip enzymes if  
one of the pathways is induced  
so this shows a time course of induction  
again were at steady state with a  
particular substrate when we add an  
inducer its going to take between one  
to two weeks to get to a full effect  
until a new steady state is achieved  
and this might require again a dose  
increase and so we have to be thoughtful  
about where youre going to introduce a  
dose increase to maintain concentrations  
during the course and onset of induction  
heres an example of a strong inducer  
like we talked about retinovir for  
inhibition rifampin is a very strong  
enzyme inducer of ca as well as some  
other sip 0 enzymes  
in this example it was paired with a  
investigational agent  
being developed for the treatment of  
tuberculosis  
this agent was metabolized only

partially bicepa only 0 percent  
yet when we add rifampin we saw a  
profound decrease in exposure of  
percent up for the auc and for the  
trough with a half life shortened from  
9 to hours

this of course is potentially very  
clinically significant since rifampin is  
another tb drug

and might be something that would be  
paired with this investigational agent  
this table shows a number of classic and  
common inducers and inhibitors of sip

0 enzymes just to point out in the  
strong ciphering inhibitor list again we  
have some macrolide antibiotics the  
azole antifungals such as itraconazole  
posaconazole voriconazole are classic

strong ca

inhibitors

in the deuce inducer side again we  
talked about rifampin as a classic

strong enzyme inducer

carbamazepine and phenobarb are also  
strong inducers that are often used in  
drug interaction studies

and the herbal st johns wort is also

strong enzyme inducer

we also have moderate enzyme inducers

and inhibitors which can or cannot be

clinically relevant depending on the

drug in question

and we generally think of weak

inhibitors and weak inducers as not

being so clinically relevant drug

interactions

so now lets talk about altered hepatic

or biliary elimination via transport

proteins

so again we know of course that the

metabolizing enzymes are inside of

hepatocytes

certain drugs pass

uh permeably passively into the

paddockine dont rely on uptake transport

yet other drugs dont pass well by

themselves and rely on transport

proteins most notably oatpb

b and b is some common ones for

uptake into parasites

if these are blocked of course less drug

is going to get into the liver to be



metabolized and were going to get  
higher systemic concentrations  
a classic example of this are the  
statins which rely on oatpb and b to  
be taken up into the liver and well  
look at a couple examples of the statins  
theres also efflux proteins that push  
drug from the parasite out into bile  
these include again pglycoprotein  
and bcrp  
and if you inhibit these youre going to  
have decreased biliary excretion you may  
get higher systemic exposure or you may  
might just get greater hepatic  
metabolism if the drug is metabolized  
extensively in the liver  
so this is an example of gemfibrozil and  
resuvastatin again rosuvastatin is a  
substrate for oatp  
uptake transporters in the liver and  
brazil is an inhibitor in this example  
weve seen percent increase in  
exposure over suvastent with gempibrazil  
so as you might imagine after looking at  
that diagram of the patocyte we can get  
some complex transporter sip enzyme

interplay

in this example were going to talk  
about atorvastatin its a substrate for

cypa metabolism

its also efflux by pglycoprotein and  
taken up by oatpb and b into the

liver

if you look at at the very bottom first  
a drug like gemfibrisal which only

inhibits

oetpv you see about a percent

increase

in atorvastatin exposure

however going to the very top when you

consider a drug that inhibits pgp

oatpb and is a weak hip inhibitor you

get a profound effect on a torvid statin

exposure of nearly nine fold

and somewhere in the middle such as

clarithromycin thats a strong sipa

inhibitor but it doesnt inhibit oatpb

and you only see about a fold

increase in exposure

so this is where it gets really

complicated to predict and anticipate

what a drug interaction might cause

if you know that transport and  
metabolizing enzymes are involved  
now we'll move on to renal elimination  
much like in hepatocytes in the gut we  
have active transporters taking up drug  
from the blood putting it into the  
kidney proximal tubules as well as  
excreting drug into urine most notably  
the OAT and OCT as well as P  
glycoprotein transport proteins are  
often cited in clinically relevant drug  
interactions affecting renal elimination  
so again if you inhibit uptake transport  
you would decrease elimination of course  
systemic exposure of the drug would  
increase  
some examples of this include some  
editing over the over-the-counter  
antagonists it's an OCT inhibitor and  
it's been shown to increase exposure of  
drugs such as metformin  
probenicid is another classic example  
it's an OAT and OCT inhibitor and has  
been shown to increase exposure of a  
number of drugs that are renally  
eliminated including salsalicylic acid

ferocimide and acyclovir

lets talk about some more complex drug

interactions

there are certain compounds that  
actually inhibit and induce enzymes at  
the same time and a classic example of

this is return of iron step a  
can result in really unpredictable and  
potentially time dependant dependent

effect on substrates

whereas in the short term after two or

three dose days of dosing

you might see a huge spike in the  
dazzling exposure however a week or two  
later you may see a more nuanced effect  
on midazolam exposure as induction

starts to kick in

we also talked about concurrent  
inhibition reduction of both enzymes and

transporters at the same time

this can have a potentially additive or  
antagonist effect on a substrate

elimination and these are very difficult

to predict as we looked at

you might have a combination of two  
inhibitors acting on different enzymatic

pathways used by substrate

so we talked about the example of

voriconazole relying on multiple

enzymes for elimination if you inhibit

one there's not such a big effect but

imagine adding a CYP2C9 inhibitor on top

of CYP2C9 you can have an increased

effect on exposure of voriconazole or

other drugs

in addition

we have to consider

the

genetic polymorphisms of certain enzymes

we know that certain enzymes such as

CYP2C9 can be expressed differently in

different patient populations

a particular patient that has is a poor

metabolizer that is they carry a

genotype

conferring

lower enzymatic

potential of for instance CYP2C9 is

going to rely on other alternative

enzymes

and effect of for instance a CYP2C9

inhibitor might be more profound

on voriconazole and somebody that's a

poor CYP2C9 and HPA inhibitor or is

slowly metabolized

in addition we have to think about

patients with altered baseline renal or

hepatic elimination due to kidney or

liver disease

so how do we predict these when we have

a new compound in development

well very early in drug development we

characterize the compound extensively in

vitro so first

we analyze that we look at preclinical

or animal studies and in vitro

experiments to characterize how the

drugs are eliminated

is it renally is it through biliary

excretion is it through hepatic

metabolism if it is through metabolism

which enzyme is responsible is it one of

the CYP enzymes one of the phase

enzymes

if it's renally eliminated is there

an active transport protein involved in

its elimination

after we've characterized clearly how

the drug is  
eliminated that is characterize its  
potential to be a victim of drug  
interactions  
we also evaluate whether the drug might  
be a perpetrator  
that is does it have the potential to  
inhibit or induce enzymes or transport  
proteins  
if we do observe some inhibition or  
induction in our in vitro systems we  
characterize a probability of the  
clinical significance of it so we look  
at the in vitro  $ic_{50}$  value for example  
if we look considering inhibition  
reduction and compared to our clinical  
exposures most notably we look at peak  
or  $c_{max}$  concentrations  
if our peak exposure  $i$  over  $ic_{50}$  exceeds  
point one is a general rule we might  
consider a clinical drug interaction to  
characterize how extensively our drug in  
development might inhibit or induce a  
particular enzyme  
or maybe we consider doing some  
mechanistic modeling to evaluate the

potential for the clinical relevant drug

interaction

when we do conduct clinical drug

interactions we often conduct them with

wellcharacterized drugs

so for instance if our drug is

eliminated by ca and we want to know

how inducers and inhibit inhibitors

might impact it

in

patients well evaluate a well

characterized strong inhibitor like

itraconazole or wellcharacterized

inducers such as rifampin and well do a

drug interaction to see the impact of

those two sort of token inhibitors and

inducers on our substrate

if our were considering our drug to be

a potential perpetrator were going to

evaluate the effect on a sensitive

wellcharacterized substrate for

instance midazolam for sip a or digoxin

for pglycoprotein

or maybe resuvastan for oatpb

depending on the results of these

initial studies using probe inhibitors



inducers or probe substrates well  
consider if we need to do any more ddi  
studies  
are there any common cominister drugs  
in this patient population we should  
consider  
if the effect of the strong inducer  
inhibitor is profound perhaps we need to  
look at a more moderate inhibitor  
inducer and characterize the effect  
there  
should we consider drugs with mixed  
enzyme and transporter effects  
does our drug rely on a particular ph  
for solubility in that case we may want  
to do a drug interaction study with a  
proton pump inhibitor  
when we evaluate the risk in the  
clinical setting for drugs that are  
hopefully have been well characterized  
we consider the therapeutic index of the  
victim drug so for example atorvastatin  
its a relatively wide therapeutic  
window if we see a 0 percent increase  
in atorvastatin exposure that may not be  
clinically significant

however

tacrolimus or prograph which is used in  
following organ transplant as an  
immunosuppressant has a much more narrow  
therapeutic window and a 0 increase in  
exposure can be clinically profound so  
we probably consider dose reduction or  
therapeutic drug monitoring in that case  
in looking at a clinical profile of  
drugs we also have to consider if  
there are other potential perpetrators  
involved or is it just a single drug  
drug interaction

we have to think about the time course  
of the interaction as we discuss what's  
the onset of the inhibition or induction  
when should we think about altering if  
we need to the dose of our substrate  
drug

and again as we talked about we have to  
consider both addition and the  
withdrawal of the potential perpetrator  
also think about is this ddi class  
effect or are there other options for  
example risperidone and simvastatin have  
very different susceptibility to ddis

they're both taken up by OATP but  
simvastatin is also extensively  
metabolized by SYP2C9 whereas rosuvastatin  
is not extensively metabolized. It  
also has a wider therapeutic index  
relative to simvastatin  
so that might be a good alternative for  
somebody on a SYP2C9 inhibitor  
and then we have to consider other  
confounders that may magnify such as  
organ impairment or older age  
so looking at the US product label  
I've highlighted here in the index  
those sections where we find drug  
interaction information  
in section 00 dosage administration  
you'll often see a dosage recommendation  
in the setting of drug interactions  
particularly if there's a very  
clinically relevant or commonly used  
drug that's used in combination with the  
product  
drug interactions might be described in  
warning precautions  
they're certainly described in the drug  
interaction section

and then the clinical pharmacology  
section tends to have the  
details of any ddi studies that were  
conducted by a company during  
development

so this is an example of a product that  
i worked on this is colitico or iva  
cafter used for the treatment of cystic  
fibrosis

so if we look look in section seven  
we describe here that ivacafter is a  
sensitive septuary substrate its very  
extensively metabolized and relies only  
on ca for elimination

so we did a study with ketos conazal a  
strong septuary inhibitor  
and found an eight and a half fold  
increase in auc or exposure

based on this we recommend a dose  
reduction from 0 milligrams twice a  
day to 0 milligrams twice a week when  
we combine the drug with other strong  
inhibitors and weve listed some here as  
examples

in addition we did a study with a  
moderate inhibitor fluconazole and also

saw a profound increase of threefold  
so we have a dosage recommendation in  
place to reduce from 0 twice a day to  
once daily with moderate inhibitors  
and we also have language in here about  
trying to avoid grapefruit or seville  
oranges that might be sipa inhibitors  
and theres also warning about the  
effect of strong inducers on the base of  
a basis of a study we conducted with  
rifampin in which we saw a ninefold  
decrease in exposure  
in section of the label weve  
characterized the result of all the drug  
interaction studies that weve conducted  
here on a forest plot so you can  
actually see the magnitude of effect of  
drugs on  
um  
on kolutiko  
we also studied the effect of cletuco on  
an oral contraceptive so this in that  
case the oral contraceptive is a  
substrate you can see here there was no  
effect on the exposure of the progestin  
or

estrogen component of the oral

contraceptive

lastly i have a slide which outlines

some resources and tools and references

that might be useful

thank you for your time i hope you found

that interesting and instructive and if

you have any questions please follow up

with the course coordinator