

Biopharmaceutical and Pharmacokinetic considerations

Dissolution:

❑ The process by which a drug particle dissolves. For a drug to be absorbed, it must first **dissolved in the fluid** at absorption site.

❑ As a **drug particle undergoes dissolution**, the drug molecules on the surface are the first to enter into solution, creating a **saturated layer** of drug solution that envelops the surface of the solid drug particle. This layer of solution is the **diffusion layer**.

❑ From diffusion layer the **drug molecules pass throughout the dissolving fluid** and make contact with biologic membranes, and absorption ensues.

❑ In a series of kinetic or rate processes (**Disintegration, Deaggregation, Dissolution and Absorption**) , the rate at which the drug reaches the systemic circulation is determined by the slowest of the various steps involved in the sequence. Such a step is called as **the rate-determining or rate-limiting step (RDS)**.

❑ If **dissolution is rapid** or if the drug is administered as a solution, the rate at which the drug becomes absorbed depends mainly on its ability to traverse the membrane barrier and said to be **permeation rate-limited or transmembrane rate-limited**.

❑ If **dissolution slow** because of the physicochemical characteristics of the drug substance or dosage form, **dissolution is a rate-limiting step in absorption**

❑ Drug remain in stomach : **2 to 4 hours** while in small intestine: **4 to 10 hours**.

Various techniques used to determine gastric emptying time like:

❑ **Gamma scintigraphy**: tracking dosage forms labeled with gamma-emitting radionuclides.

The **gastric emptying time** for a drug is **rapid** with fasting stomach, **slower** as food content is increased.

Changes in **gastric emptying time** or **intestinal motility** can affect **drug transit time** and thus **opportunity for drug dissolution and absorption**.

a. Anticholinergic drug, slows **gastric emptying**, which **increases** drugs absorption from **stomach** and **reduce** drugs absorption from **small intestine**.

b. Drugs that **enhance gastric motility**, for example, **laxatives**, reduce amount of drug absorbed.

c. Aging decrease absorption (geriatrics)

□ **Decrease in gastric emptying time** is **advantageous** for drugs absorbed from **stomach** but **disadvantage** for drugs prone to **acid degradation**, like **penicillins** and **erythromycin**, or inactivated by stomach enzymes, like **L-dopa**.

The rate of dissolution:

The rate of dissolution described by Noyes-Whitney equation :

$$\frac{dW}{dt} = \frac{D A (C_s - C)}{L}$$

Where:

dw/dt is the **rate of dissolution**,

D is the **dissolution rate constant**,

A is the **surface area of dissolving solid**,

Cs is **saturation concentration of drug in diffusion layer** (which may be approximated by the **maximum solubility of the drug in the solvent**, because the diffusion layer is considered saturated), and

Ct is the concentration of the drug in **dissolution medium** at **time t** (**Cs - Ct** is concentration gradient).

L: length of diffusion layer.

□ Rate of dissolution governed by rate of diffusion of solute through diffusion layer.

The dissolution rate increased by:

1. Increasing **surface area** (reducing the particle size),
2. Increasing the **solubility of drug in diffusion layer**, by factors embodied in

dissolution rate constant, D, including the intensity of agitation of the solvent and diffusion coefficient of dissolving drug. For a given drug, the diffusion coefficient and usually concentration of the drug in diffusion layer will increase with **increasing temperature**.

3. Increasing rate of agitation of the dissolving medium will increase the rate of dissolution.

4. Reduction in the viscosity of solvent enhance dissolution rate of a drug.

5. Changes in pH or nature of solvent that influence the solubility of the drug may be used to increase dissolution rate.

Handerson HasselBalch equation:

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log \frac{[\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]}$$

For acidic drugs.

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log \frac{\text{unionized}}{\text{ionized}}$$

For basic drugs.

Example 1: A weak acid drug is present in urine with an ionized concentration of 4.8 M and a unionized concentration of 0.2 M. If the pH is 6.5. What is the pKa of the drug?

Answer:

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log ([\text{ionized}] / [\text{unionized}])$$

$$6.5 = \text{pK}_a + \log ([4.8] / [0.2])$$

$$\text{pK}_a = 5.119$$

Example 2: A weak base drug has a pKa of 8.0. The unionized concentration in urine is 0.5 M, and the ionized concentration is 4.5 M. What is the pH?

Answer:

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log ([\text{unionized}] / [\text{ionized}])$$

$$\text{pH} = 8 + \log (0.5/4.5) = 7.045$$

❑ Drug movement **not always** affected by pH.

❑ **Very weak** acids and bases **completely non ionized** at physiological pH, their

transfer rapid and **independent of pH**.

☐ **Strong acids** and bases are **completely ionized** and so their transfer is usually slow and **pH-independent**.

☐ Drugs include acids within the pK range **3 to 7.5** and bases in the pK range **7 to 11**

☐ Stomach pH: **1-2**

☐ Duodenum pH: **2-4**

☐ Small intestine pH: **4-6**

☐ Large intestine **6-7.8**

pK_a

Acids

Acetylsalicylic acid	3.5
Barbital	7.9
Benzylpenicillin	2.8
Boric acid	9.2
Dicoumarol	5.7
Phenobarbital	7.4
Phenytoin	8.3
Sulfanilamide	10.4
Theophylline	9.0
Thiopental	7.6
Tolbutamide	5.5
Warfarin sodium	4.8

Bases

Amphetamine	9.8
Apomorphine	7.0
Atropine	9.7
Caffeine	0.8
Chlordiazepoxide	4.6
Cocaine	8.5
Codeine	7.9
Guanethidine	11.8
Morphine	7.9
Procaine	9.0
Quinine	8.4
Reserpine	6.6