

Why is Therapeutic Drug Monitoring for Voriconazole Essential in the Treatment of Fungal Infections

Parisa Badiee and Zahra Hashemizadeh^{*}

Prof. Alborzi Clinical Microbiology Research Center, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, Iran

*Corresponding author: Hashemizadeh Zahra, Department of Clinical Microbiology, Prof. Alborz Research Centre, Namazee Hospital Zand Ave., Shiraz, Iran, Tel: 98 71-3647-4292; Fax: 98 71-3647-4303; E-mail: zh.hashemiz@gmail.com

Received date: May 18, 2016; Accepted date: June 16, 2016; Published date: June 26, 2016

Copyright: © 2016 Badiee P, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Introduction

Fungal infections are frequent life-threatening complications in immune compromised patient sand in patients admitted in ICU wards [1]. Voriconazole (VRC) is a second-generation wide-spectrum antifungal triazole recommended for the treatment of potentially lifethreatening fungal infections including invasive aspergillosis, disseminated candidasies, and other infections caused by Fusarium and Scedosporium spp. [2,3]. This compound can be administered as an intravenous infusion and oral formulations. Studies with healthy volunteers demonstrated bioavailability of >90% after oral administration [4]. A steady-state level is achieved in three days with two loading doses of 400 mg for the first day, followed by a maintenance dose of 200 mg every 12 hours thereafter [5]. Investigations have shown both within and between individual's variability in VRC steady-state plasma concentration and non-linear pharmacokinetics due to saturation of its metabolism with respect to dose. This variability was observed with both intravenous and oral formulations [6]. Other pharmacokinetic variability's include decreased absorption of oral VRC with meals, interactions with comedications, patient's age, hepatic inefficiency and genetic polymorphisms of cytochrome P450 (CYP) iso-enzymes, mainly CYP2C19 enzyme [6,7]. Generally accepted plasma level for VRC is 1-5.5 mg/L. There have been reports that a clear relationship exists between drug concentration and drug response. High levels (>5.5 mg/L) are associated with variant adverse drug reactions. The most frequently side effects of VRC are vomiting, nausea, fever, skin rash, vision color changes, visual disturbances, blurred vision, hepatotoxicity, liver enzyme elevation, encephalopathy, and electrolyte abnormalities. Levels of VRC (<1 mg/L) have been associated with therapeutic failures and breakthrough infection [8]. In addition, using recommended dosing regimens in both adults and pediatrics has shown a significant relationship between VRC plasma levels and clinical efficacy and/or toxicity indicating a need for therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM). TDM may enable clinicians to make a better use of VRC, and is recommended as a tool to individualize VRC doses and may be particularly helpful in the context of preventing drug-related side effects. Therefore, TDM of VRC concentrations is highly recommended to maximize efficacy and minimize adverse events [9].

To perform therapeutic drug monitoring, several available analytic methods enabled quantified the VRC concentration in human plasma or serum. Most of these assays use high-performance liquid chromatography methods with ultra-violet detection (HPLC-UV) or coupled with mass spectrophotometry. Other methods such as bioassays or microbiological assays have also been investigated as a valid alternative to chromatographic methods. Bioassays can determine the total antifungal activity of a drug, conversely, HPLC or ultra-HPLC quantify the concentrations of VRC but cannot assess its activity [10].

In conclusion, *Candida* and *Aspergillus* spp. are the most common causes of invasive fungal infections with high morbidity and mortality in immune compromised patients [1,11,12]. Voriconazole, compared with other antifungal agents, has potent activity against a broader spectrum of clinically significant fungal pathogens, including *Aspergillus, Candida* spp., especially *Candida krusei* and *Candida glabrata* which resist other antifungal agents [13]. Using VRC in combination with TDM can serve as the best method for the survival of patients.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank Dr. Hassan Khajea PhD, for copy editing of the manuscript.

References

- 1. Badiee P, Alborzi A, Joukar M (2011) Molecular assay to detect nosocomial fungal infections in intensive care units. Euro J Intern Med. 22: 611-615.
- 2. Herbrecht R (2004) Voriconazole: therapeutic review of a new azole antifungal.Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther 4: 485-497.
- Badiee P, Alborzi A, Moeini M, Haddadi P, Farshad S, et al.(2012) Antifungal susceptibility of the Aspergillusspecies by e-test and CLSI reference methods. Arch Iran Med 7: 429-32.
- Purkins L, Wood N, Greenhalgh K, Allen MJ, Oliver SD (2003) Voriconazole, anovel wide-spectrum triazole: oral pharmacokinetics andsafety. Br J ClinPharmacol 56: 10-16.
- Purkins L, Wood N, Greenhalgh K, Eve MD, Oliver SD, et al. (2003)The pharmacokinetics and safety of intravenous voriconazole a novel widespectrum antifungal agent. Br J Clin Pharmacol 56: 2-9.
- 6. Pasqualotto AC, Shah M, Wynn R, Denning DW (2008) Voriconazole plasmamonitoring. Arch Dis Child 93: 578-581.
- Mikus G, Schöwel V, Drzewinska M, Rengelshausen J, Ding R, et al. (2006) Potent cytochrome P450 2C19 genotype-related interaction between voriconazole and the cytochrome P450 3A4 inhibitor ritonavir. Clin Pharmacol Ther 802: 126-135.
- 8. Lewis RE (2011) Current Concepts in Antifungal Pharmacology. Mayo Clin Proc 86: 805-817.
- Brüggemann RJ, van der Linden JW, Verweij PE, Burger DM, Warris A (2011) Impact of therapeutic drug monitoring of voriconazole in a pediatric population. Pediatr Infect Dis J 30: 533-534.
- Alffenaar JW, Wessels AM, van Hateren K, Greijdanus B, Kosterink JG, et al. (2010) Method for therapeutic drug monitoring of azole antifungal drugs in human serum using LC/MS/MS. J Chromatogr B AnalytTechnol Biomed Life Sci 878: 39-44.
- 11. Badiee P, Alborzi A (2010) Detection of Aspergillus species in bone marrow transplant patients. J Infect DevCtries 4: 511-516.

Page 2 of 2

12. Badiee P, Alborzi A, Malekhosseini SA, Nikeghbalian S, Shakiba E (2010) Determining the incidence of aspergillosis after liver transplant. ExpClin Transplant 3: 220-223.

13.

Pappas PG, Kauffman CA, Andes DR, Clancy CJ, Marr KA, et al. (2016)

Clinical practice guideline for the management of candidiasis: 2016

Update by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. Clinical Practice Guideline for the Management of Candidiasis CID: 62.