

Citation: Kuip EJM, Oldenmenger WH, Thijs— Visser MF, de Bruijn P, Oosten AW, Oomen—de Hoop E, et al. (2018) Effects of smoking and body mass index on the exposure of fentanyl in patients with cancer. PLoS ONE 13(6): e0198289. https:// doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0198289

Editor: D William Cameron, University of Ottawa, CANADA

Received: January 29, 2018

Accepted: May 15, 2018

Published: June 8, 2018

Copyright: © 2018 Kuip 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.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data are within the paper and its Supporting Information files.

Funding: No sources of funding were used in the preparation of this manuscript. This study was financially supported by Nuts/Ohra Foundation grant 1104-0203. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing interests: None of the authors have any conflict of interest relevant to this work. C.C.D.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Effects of smoking and body mass index on the exposure of fentanyl in patients with cancer

Evelien J. M. Kuip^{1,2,3}*, Wendy H. Oldenmenger¹, Martine F. Thijs—Visser¹, Peter de Bruijn¹, Astrid W. Oosten¹, Esther Oomen—de Hoop¹, Stijn L. W. Koolen¹, Carin C. D. Van der Rijt^{1,4}, Ron H. J. Mathijssen¹

1 Department of Medical Oncology, Erasmus MC Cancer Institute, Rotterdam, the Netherlands,

2 Department of Medical Oncology, Radboud University Medical Center, Nijmegen, the Netherlands,

3 Department of Anesthesiology, Pain and Palliative Care, Radboud University Medical Center, Nijmegen, the Netherlands, **4** Netherlands Comprehensive Cancer Organisation, Utrecht, the Netherlands

* Evelien.Kuip@radboudumc.nl

Abstract

The transdermal fentanyl patch is widely used to treat cancer-related pain despite its wide inter- and intrapatient variability in pharmacokinetics. The aim of this study was to investigate whether smoking and body size (i.e. body mass index) influence fentanyl exposure in patients with cancer. These are factors that typically change during treatment and disease trajectories. We performed an explorative cohort study in patients with cancer using transdermal fentanyl patches (Durogesic[®]), by taking a blood sample for pharmacokinetic analysis one day after applying a patch in patients with a stable fentanyl dose. A total of 88 patients were evaluable. Although no statistically significant difference was found, the plasma concentrations of non-smokers was 28% (95% CI [-14%; +89-%]) higher than those of smokers normalizing for a dose of 25 μ g/min. Patients with a low BMI (< 20 kg/m2) had almost similar (10% (95% CI [-39%; +97%]) higher) plasma concentrations compared to patients with a high BMI (> 25 kg/m2). A wider variation in fentanyl plasma concentrations was found in this study than anticipated. Due to this variation, studies in larger patient cohorts are needed to further investigate the effect of smoking on plasma concentration of fentanyl and thereby clarify the clinical significance of our findings.

Introduction

Fentanyl is one of the most commonly used (strong acting) opioids to treat cancer-related pain [1-3] and it is often preferred over morphine, especially in patients with renal failure. Additionally, fentanyl usually results in less obstipation than other opioids [4-6]. The fentanyl transdermal patch has been used since decades to treat chronic pain. Fentanyl is also available in a liquid formulation for intravenous and subcutaneous administration and in various immediate release forms for oromucosal and nasal use [7, 8]. Fentanyl is highly lipophilic and is therefore rapidly absorbed by the subcutaneous fat-tissue. After placement of the patch



Van der Rijt received a grant of Prostrakan for an investigator-initiated research project. This does not alter our adherence to PLOS ONE policies on sharing data and materials.

fentanyl is absorbed by the skin. When the patch is removed systemic fentanyl concentration will slowly decrease as a result of fentanyl release from subcutaneous depots (formed below the patch) [7, 9, 10].

Fentanyl is mainly metabolized in the liver by cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes, primarily by the CYP3A4 isozyme into the pharmacologically inactive metabolite norfentanyl by N-dealkylation. Fentanyl is mostly excreted by the kidney of which approximately 10% is unchanged. A minor part is excreted through the feces. There is a wide inter- and intra-patient variability in fentanyl pharmacokinetics (PK). Several factors have been studied to clarify this variability in fentanyl pharmacokinetics; liver function, strong CYP3A4 inhibitors and inducers and adding local heat to transdermal patches evidently affect fentanyl pharmacokinetics but only partly explain the wide variability mentioned [7]. Other unknown factors may also be contributing to this variation.

Two patient characteristics that may change during various stages of cancer are body size measures and smoking habits, while their effects on fentanyl exposure in patients with cancer are currently unknown. The body mass index (BMI) is one of the most commonly used body size measures and is calculated by weight (in kilogram) divided by the square of height. In patients with advanced disease a decrease in BMI is common and this may lead to a changed body composition, changed thickness of the skin, and changed skin permeability. Some studies already studied the influence of BMI on fentanyl pharmacokinetics with contradictory results. One study reported that cachectic patients with cancer treated with transdermal fentanyl patches had significantly lower fentanyl plasma concentrations compared to normal weight patients [11]. Other studies did not find differences in fentanyl levels between normal weight and low weight patients with cancer [12, 13].

Smoking is a daily routine for many patients with cancer. If smoking alters fentanyl exposure, a change in smoking habits like (re-)starting or quitting smoking may influence fentanyl pharmacokinetics and therefore its effects on pain. The polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in cigarette smoke are believed to be responsible for the induction of CYP iso-enzymes [14, 15]. Cigarette smoking was shown to induce drug metabolism in patients using diazepam, haloperidol and/or caffeine [16–18]. Furthermore, smoking patients showed a lower exposure to erlotinib and irinotecan compared to non-smoking patients. Like fentanyl, erlotinib and irinotecan are also partly metabolized by CYP3A4 [19, 20]. Therefore, we hypothesized that smoking may have an effect on the exposure of fentanyl.

The aim of this prospective cohort study was to investigate the influence of BMI and smoking on the exposure of fentanyl in patients with cancer using a fentanyl patch.

Methods

Our study was performed as a prospective single-center pharmacokinetic study at the Erasmus MC Cancer Institute. Patients were included from 1st of April 2014 until 27th of October 2015. Inclusion criteria were: patients with cancer ≥ 18 years, using a stable dose of a transdermal fentanyl (Durogesic[®]) for at least 8 days irrespective of the dose used and given written informed consent. Exclusion criteria were: use of fentanyl rescue medication (other opioids were allowed), the use of strong CYP inhibitors or inducers and serious psychiatric illness, confusion or intellectual disability. Smoking was defined as smoking tobacco daily. Non-smoking patients were defined as patients who had never smoked, or quit smoking at least one month before PK sampling. Patients were divided in three BMI groups; BMI <20 kg/m² (low), BMI 20–25 kg/m² (normal) and BMI >25 kg/m² (high). Patients applied the patch to the upper arm. One venous blood sample was taken from the contralateral arm approximately 24 hours after application of a new patch. The blood samples were collected in potassium EDTA

coated tubes. Patients were not evaluable when the appropriate blood samples were not taken. Lab results of levels of creatinine, estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGRF), calculated by Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD); [formula: eGFR (ml/min/1.73 m²) = 32788 x serum Creatinine (μ mol/l) ^{-1.154} x age (years) ^{-0.203} x (0.742 when female) x (1.210 when of African descent)], aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), bilirubin, albumin and alkaline phosphatase (ALP) were assessed. Protocol in <u>S1 Protocol</u>. Trend statement in <u>S1 Trend</u>.

The study was approved by the medical ethics review board of the Erasmus Medical Center (MEC 13.412) on the 27th of March 2014 and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients. The trial was registered in the Dutch Trial Register (Trial registration ID: NTR4672) in July 2014. The authors confirm that all ongoing and related trials for this drug/intervention are registered.

Measurements of fentanyl plasma concentrations

Fentanyl in plasma was quantitated using a validated UPLC-MS/MS method consisting of a Waters Acquity UPLC sample manager coupled to a triple quadruple mass spectrometer operating in the multiple reaction monitoring mode (MRM) with positive ion electrospray ionization (Waters, Etten-Leur, The Netherlands). The multiple reaction monitoring transition was set at $337 \rightarrow 188$.

Chromatographic separation of fentanyl was achieved on an Acquity UPLC[®] BEH C18 1.7 μ m 2.1 x 100 mm column eluted at a flow-rate of 0.350 mL/min on a gradient of methanol. The overall cycle time of the method was 6 minutes. The calibration curves were linear over the range of 0.1 to 10 ng/mL with the lower limit of quantitation validated at 0.1 ng/mL for fentanyl. The within and between-run precisions at five tested concentrations, including the LLQ, were $\leq 5.5\%$ and $\leq 6.1\%$, respectively, while the average accuracy ranged from 86.2% to 97.5%. The extraction of 200 μ L of plasma involved a deproteinization step with acetone followed by a simple liquid extraction with ethyl acetate. The organic phase was evaporated and subsequently dissolved in 100 μ L methanolic solutions, from which aliquots of 10 μ L were injected into the UPLC-MS/MS system.

Statistics

For both the analysis on the effect of smoking and of BMI, a difference in exposure of fentanyl of 25% was judged clinically relevant. The inter-patient relative standard deviation in fentanyl pharmacokinetics was assumed to be 25%. Because two primary questions were to be answered, the Bonferroni correction was applied to account for multiple testing, resulting in a two-sided alpha of 0.025. Given a power of 80%, at least 20 patients were required in each BMI group (low versus high) to detect a difference based on the Student's t-test. The assumption was that 25% of our population smoked. To include 20 smokers approximately 80 patients were needed in total. To compensate for non-evaluable patients (due to missing samples or other potential reasons) we aimed to include 100 patients.

As fentanyl has linear PK in the dose range used, doses were normalised to a dose of $25 \mu g/h$ for comparisons between patients [21, 22]. As the normalized plasma fentanyl concentrations turned out to follow a log-normal distribution, analyses were performed on the log-transformed concentrations and therefore, results will be presented as geometric means. These take into account the skewness of the data in contrast to arithmetic means which would have given unrealistic summary measures of the data. T-tests were performed on log-transformed data to compare 2 groups; smokers to non-smokers and low-BMI to high-BMI patients with respect to baseline characteristics. Bonferroni-corrected 95% confidence intervals were obtained by

CONSORT 2010 Flow Diagram

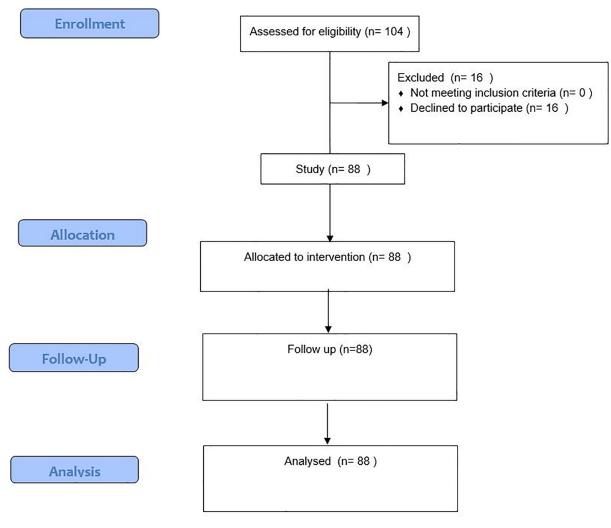


Fig 1. Consort diagram.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0198289.g001

constructing 97.5% confidence intervals since the correction means that instead of alpha = 0.05 an alpha of 0.025 needs to be used.

Results

In total, 104 patients were included. Eighty-eight patients (39 males (44%) and 49 females (56%)) with a median age of 59.5 years (interquartile range (IQR) 53.5–67.0) completed the study and were evaluable, Fig 1. The demographic data of these evaluable patients are presented in Table 1. Twenty-seven patients (30.7%) were defined as smokers and 61 patients (69.3%) as non-smokers. In total, 20 patients had a BMI < 20 kg/m² (22.7%), 41 patients had a BMI between 20–25 kg/m² (46.6%) and 27 patients had a BMI > 25 kg/m²(30.7%). Creatinine, eGFR, AST, ALT, bilirubin, albumin and ALP turned out to follow a log-normal distribution.

Table 1. Patient characteristics.

Variable	Total n = 88	Smokers n = 27	Non smokers n = 61	BMI < 20 Median 18.5 n = 20	BMI 20-25 Median 23.0 n = 41	BMI > 25 Median 28.7 n = 27
Sex, n(%)						
- Male	39 (44)	15 (56)	24 (39)	13 (65)	16 (39)	10 (37)
- Female	49 (56)	12 (44)	37 (61)	7 (35)	25 (61)	17 (63)
Age, years						
median and IQR	60 (53–67)	59 (54–66)	60 (53–68)	60 (49–68)	59 (55-65)	62 (53–69)
Height, cm						
median and IQR	170 (163–178)	173 (165–181)	169 (163–177)	175 (169–184)	170 (163–178)	167 (163–177)
Weight, kg						
median and IQR	66 (60–78)	69 (62–78)	65 (59–78)	54 (51-63)	64 (61–73)	81 (74–96)
Smoking (n, %)	27 (31)	27 (100)	0 (0)	6 (30)	13 (32)	8 (30)
Laboratory results # (median (IQR)						
Creatinine ¹	66 (55–87)	70 (51–93)	65 (55–87)	59 (45-84)	62 (56-85)	78 (63–91)
MDRD ²	88 (65–90)	89 (65–90)	87 (63–90)	90 (85–90)	90 (66–90)	71 (61–90)
AST ³	27 (20-42)	22 (17-31)	30 (22–47)	22 (17-32)	28 (22-50)	31 (19-44)
ALT^4	23 (13-34)	23 (13–27)	23 (15-40)	18 (14–27)	23 (13-34)	24 (13-45)
Bilirubin ⁵	6 (4-8)	5 (4-8)	6 (4-8)	4 (3-7)	6 (4-8)	7 (5-9)
Albumin ⁶	39 (36–43)	38 (35-42)	39 (37-44)	38 (32-42)	39 (36-43)	40 (37-44)
ALP ⁷	114 (87–179)	93 (84–165)	124 (90–192)	108 (89–148)	118 (86–214)	111 (83–183)
Fentanyl patch dose (µg/h)						
median(IQR)	25 (12-50)	25 (12-50)	25 (12-50)	37 (15-50)	37 (12-69)	25 (12–25)

[#] Normal ranges:

¹ (55–90 umol/L);

² (> 60 mL/min/1,73 m²);

³ (< 31 U/L);

⁴ (< 34 U/L);

⁵ (<17 umol/L);

⁶ (35–50 g/L);

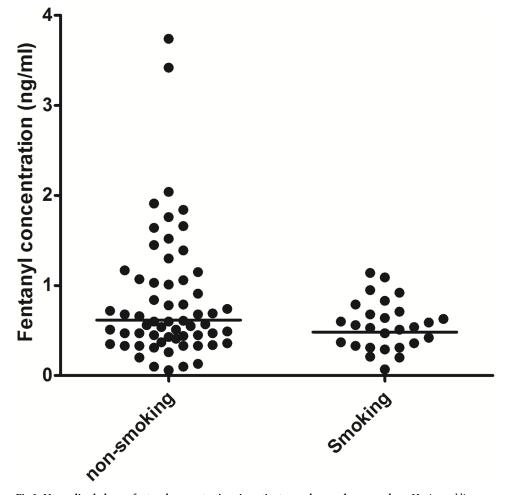
⁷ (< 98 U/L)

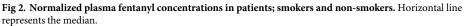
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0198289.t001

Only AST levels were significantly lower in smokers compared to non-smokers (p = 0.026), although this is unlikely to be clinically relevant. All patients had normal or limited (CTCAE grade 1) toxicities of creatinine, eGFR, AST, ALT, bilirubin, albumin or ALP.

The normalized plasma concentrations of non-smokers and smokers were not statistically different (p = 0.32). The geometric means of the normalized plasma concentrations were 0.48 ng/ml (95% CI [0.38; 0.61]) for smokers and 0.62 ng/ml (95% CI [0.50; 0.76]) for non- smokers. The normalized plasma concentrations of non-smokers were 27.7% higher than those of smokers (95% CI [-13.8%; +89.1%], Fig 2).

The normalized plasma concentrations of patients with a low or high BMI were also not statistically different (0.62 ng/ml (95% CI [0.41; 0.93]) vs 0.56 ng/ ml (95% CI [0.40; 0.79]), p = 1.00). Plasma concentrations of the low and high BMI groups did also not differ from the normal BMI group (0.56 ng/ml (95% CI [0.46; 0.68])). The concentration was 9.7% higher in patients with a low BMI as compared to patients with a high BMI (95% CI [-38.8%; 96.9%]) Fig 3).

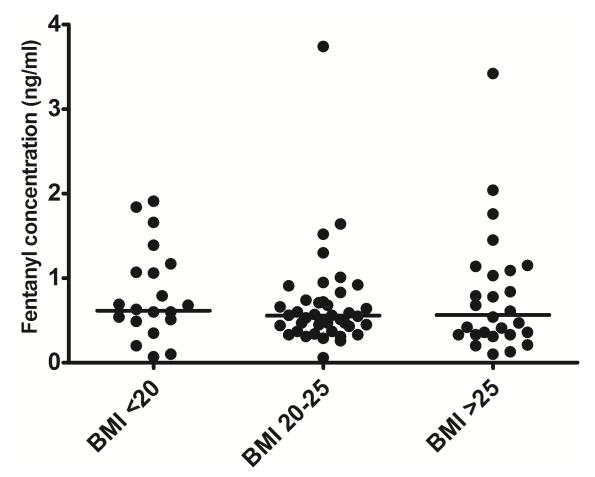


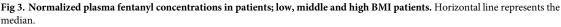


https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0198289.g002

Discussion

Interestingly, in this study, the interindividual variation in plasma fentanyl levels (geometric coefficient of variation = 87%) was much larger than our original assumption. Consequently, our study was underpowered to find a statistically significant difference in fentanyl plasma concentration. Nonetheless, based on our findings, the 27.7% higher normalized plasma concentrations of non-smokers compared to smokers, we cannot exclude an effect of smoking on fentanyl exposure. Smoking is a factor that frequently changes during phases of disease in patients with cancer. Together with the hypothesis that smoking leads to induction of CYP3A4 [20, 23] and that fentanyl metabolism might also be influenced by other (unknown) metabolic pathways [24, 25] it might be interesting to study smoking in a larger cohort of patients with cancer. Nevertheless, other strong inducers like rifampicin [26] and carbamazepine or phenobarbital [24] had highly relevant inductive effects on fentanyl PK. The combination of rifampicin and oral transmucosal fentanyl citrate led to a significant lower exposure to fentanyl compared to fentanyl alone (2.20 vs 5.87 ng/mL). A population pharmacokinetic analysis showed a significantly higher fentanyl clearance when patients used CYP3A4 inducers compared to patients who did not use CYP3A4 inducers [24].





https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0198289.g003

Unfortunately our study lacks information about the daily consumption of cigarettes and its use over the years. Probably, the amount of cigarettes smoked daily influences the size of enzyme induction. All patients who were included in the non-smoking group did not smoke for at least one month before inclusion. The time to require maximum enzyme induction takes approximately two weeks [20, 23]. We therefore assume that potential late effects of enzyme induction by cigarette smoking were ruled out in this study since a minimum period of 4 weeks without smoking was required to be eligible for the non-smoking group.

Transdermal fentanyl is absorbed by the skin and a fentanyl depot concentrates in the upper skin layers. This is followed by uptake in the microcirculation and general circulation. Skin conditions of smokers are different compared to non-smokers; skin ageing is accelerated and leads to reduced functional capacity of the skin causing dryness of the skin and wrinkles [27–29]. This reduced skin condition might affect transdermal absorption of fentanyl. A limitation of this study is that we did not specify the skin conditions of the patients in this study and the sampling design did not allow us to describe the absorption phase. BMI did not significantly influence the exposure to transdermal fentanyl in our cohort of patients, which is in line with earlier studies [12, 13]. Hypoalbuminemia is common in patients with a low BMI and because of the lipophilic character of fentanyl, the binding of fentanyl to plasma proteins like albumin might be influenced by the plasma concentration of albumin [7, 12]. In our study, the

albumin levels were within normal ranges and comparable in all BMI groups. The combination of low BMI and normal albumin did not influence fentanyl plasma concentration in another study [12]. Only a study by Heiskanen et al. showed significantly lower plasma fentanyl levels in cachectic patients with cancer compared to normal weight patients [11]. Probably this is due to the extremely low BMI group of < 16 in their study. An explanation for their finding might be lower skinfold thickness in cachectic patients. The thinner lipophilic part of the skin possibly impairs the absorption of lipophilic fentanyl [9]. Possibly, other factors, not studied, related to BMI and cachexia like CRP, skinfold and skin condition might also influence absorption.

In summary, we conducted a prospective cohort study to investigate the influence of smoking or BMI on plasma fentanyl concentrations. For both factors we did not find any evidence for an effect nor the lack of an effect. This study was underpowered because of unexpectedly large variations in fentanyl levels between patients. To study the effect of smoking and BMI on fentanyl levels a larger patient population needs to be tested.

Supporting information

S1 Protocol. Protocol BMI smoking. (DOC)

S1 Trend. Trendstatement_TREND_Checklist BMI smoking.pdf. (PDF)

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Evelien J. M. Kuip, Carin C. D. Van der Rijt, Ron H. J. Mathijssen.

Data curation: Peter de Bruijn, Esther Oomen-de Hoop.

Formal analysis: Peter de Bruijn, Esther Oomen-de Hoop.

- Investigation: Evelien J. M. Kuip, Wendy H. Oldenmenger, Martine F. Thijs—Visser, Stijn L. W. Koolen, Carin C. D. Van der Rijt, Ron H. J. Mathijssen.
- Methodology: Evelien J. M. Kuip, Wendy H. Oldenmenger, Astrid W. Oosten, Esther Oomen —de Hoop, Stijn L. W. Koolen, Carin C. D. Van der Rijt, Ron H. J. Mathijssen.
- **Project administration:** Evelien J. M. Kuip, Wendy H. Oldenmenger, Martine F. Thijs—Visser, Astrid W. Oosten.

Supervision: Stijn L. W. Koolen, Carin C. D. Van der Rijt, Ron H. J. Mathijssen.

Validation: Wendy H. Oldenmenger, Peter de Bruijn, Esther Oomen-de Hoop.

Writing - original draft: Evelien J. M. Kuip, Wendy H. Oldenmenger.

Writing – review & editing: Astrid W. Oosten, Stijn L. W. Koolen, Carin C. D. Van der Rijt, Ron H. J. Mathijssen.

References

- 1. Davis MP. Fentanyl for breakthrough pain: a systematic review. Expert review of neurotherapeutics. 2011; 11(8):1197–216. https://doi.org/10.1586/ern.11.63 PMID: 21797660
- 2. Jeal W, Benfield P. Transdermal fentanyl. A review of its pharmacological properties and therapeutic efficacy in pain control. Drugs. 1997; 53(1):109–38. PMID: 9010652
- 3. Oosten AW, Oldenmenger WH, Mathijssen RH, van der Rijt CC. A Systematic Review of Prospective Studies Reporting Adverse Events of Commonly Used Opioids for Cancer-Related Pain: A Call for the

Use of Standardized Outcome Measures. J. Pain 16 (10): 935–946, 2015. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. jpain.2015.05.006 PMID: 26051219

- Caraceni A, Portenoy RK. An international survey of cancer pain characteristics and syndromes. IASP Task Force on Cancer Pain. International Association for the Study of Pain. Pain. 1999; 82(3):263–74. PMID: 10488677
- Clark AJ, Ahmedzai SH, Allan LG, Camacho F, Horbay GL, Richarz U, et al. Efficacy and safety of transdermal fentanyl and sustained-release oral morphine in patients with cancer and chronic non-cancer pain. Curr Med Res Opin. 2004; 20(9):1419–28. https://doi.org/10.1185/030079904X2114 PMID: 15383190
- Tassinari D, Sartori S, Tamburini E, Scarpi E, Raffaeli W, Tombesi P, et al. Adverse effects of transdermal opiates treating moderate-severe cancer pain in comparison to long-acting morphine: a meta-analysis and systematic review of the literature. J Palliat Med. 2008; 11(3):492–501. <u>https://doi.org/10.1089/</u> jpm.2007.0200 PMID: 18363493
- Kuip EJ, Zandvliet ML, Koolen SL, Mathijssen RH, van der Rijt CC. A review of factors explaining variability in fentanyl pharmacokinetics; focus on implications for cancer patients. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 2017; 83(2):294–313. https://doi.org/10.1111/bcp.13129 PMID: 27619152
- Simon SM, Schwartzberg LS. A review of rapid-onset opioids for breakthrough pain in patients with cancer. J Opioid Manag. 2014; 10(3):207–15. https://doi.org/10.5055/jom.2014.0209 PMID: 24944071
- Grond S, Radbruch L, Lehmann KA. Clinical pharmacokinetics of transdermal opioids: focus on transdermal fentanyl. Clin Pharmacokinet. 2000; 38(1):59–89. https://doi.org/10.2165/00003088-200038010-00004 PMID: 10668859
- Holley FO, Van Steennis C. Postoperative analgesia with fentanyl: pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of constant-rate i.v. and transdermal delivery. Br J Anaesth. 1988; 60(6):608–13. PMID: 3377942
- Heiskanen T, Matzke S, Haakana S, Gergov M, Vuori E, Kalso E. Transdermal fentanyl in cachectic cancer patients. Pain. 2009; 144(1–2):218–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pain.2009.04.012 PMID: 19442446
- Nomura M, Inoue K, Matsushita S, Takahari D, Kondoh C, Shitara K, et al. Serum concentration of fentanyl during conversion from intravenous to transdermal administration to patients with chronic cancer pain. Clin J Pain. 2013; 29(6):487–91. https://doi.org/10.1097/AJP.0b013e318266f6a5 PMID: 23328324
- Solassol I, Caumette L, Bressolle F, Garcia F, Thezenas S, Astre C, et al. Inter- and intra-individual variability in transdermal fentanyl absorption in cancer pain patients. Oncol Rep. 2005; 14(4):1029–36. PMID: 16142368
- Lewis LD, Ratain MJ. Might cigarettes be a "smoking gun" to reduce taxane myelotoxicity? Clin Cancer Res. 2012; 18(16):4219–21. https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-12-1713 PMID: 22859717
- Zevin S, Benowitz NL. Drug interactions with tobacco smoking. An update. Clinical pharmacokinetics. 1999; 36(6):425–38. https://doi.org/10.2165/00003088-199936060-00004 PMID: 10427467
- Clinical depression of the central nervous system due to diazepam and chlordiazepoxide in relation to cigarette smoking and age. N Engl J Med. 1973; 288(6):277–80. <u>https://doi.org/10.1056/</u> NEJM197302082880602 PMID: 4682666
- Desai HD, Seabolt J, Jann MW. Smoking in patients receiving psychotropic medications: a pharmacokinetic perspective. CNS Drugs. 2001; 15(6):469–94. PMID: 11524025
- Wrighton SA, VandenBranden M, Ring BJ. The human drug metabolizing cytochromes P450. J Pharmacokinet Biopharm. 1996; 24(5):461–73. PMID: 9131485
- Hamilton M, Wolf JL, Rusk J, Beard SE, Clark GM, Witt K, et al. Effects of smoking on the pharmacokinetics of erlotinib. Clin Cancer Res. 2006; 12(7 Pt 1):2166–71. <u>https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-05-2235 PMID: 16609030</u>
- van der Bol JM, Mathijssen RH, Loos WJ, Friberg LE, van Schaik RH, de Jonge MJ, et al. Cigarette smoking and irinotecan treatment: pharmacokinetic interaction and effects on neutropenia. J Clin Oncol 2007; 25(19):2719–26. https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2006.09.6115 PMID: 17563393
- Grond S, Zech D, Lehmann KA, Radbruch L, Breitenbach H, Hertel D. Transdermal fentanyl in the longterm treatment of cancer pain: a prospective study of 50 patients with advanced cancer of the gastrointestinal tract or the head and neck region. Pain. 1997; 69(1–2):191–8. PMID: 9060030
- Zech DF, Grond SU, Lynch J, Dauer HG, Stollenwerk B, Lehmann KA. Transdermal fentanyl and initial dose-finding with patient-controlled analgesia in cancer pain. A pilot study with 20 terminally ill cancer patients. Pain. 1992; 50(3):293–301. PMID: 1454386
- de Graan AJ, Loos WJ, Friberg LE, Baker SD, van der Bol JM, van Doorn L, et al. Influence of smoking on the pharmacokinetics and toxicity profiles of taxane therapy. Clin Cancer Res. 2012; 18(16):4425– 32. https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-12-0728 PMID: 22645049

- Kokubun H, Ebinuma K, Matoba M, Takayanagi R, Yamada Y, Yago K. Population pharmacokinetics of transdermal fentanyl in patients with cancer-related pain. J Pain Palliative Care Pharmacother. 2012; 26(2):98–104.
- Ziesenitz VC, Konig SK, Mahlke NS, Skopp G, Haefeli WE, Mikus G. Pharmacokinetic interaction of intravenous fentanyl with ketoconazole. J Clin Pharmacol 2015; 55(6):708–17. https://doi.org/10.1002/ jcph.469 PMID: 25651378
- Kharasch ED, Whittington D, Hoffer C. Influence of hepatic and intestinal cytochrome P4503A activity on the acute disposition and effects of oral transmucosal fentanyl citrate. Anesthesiology. 2004; 101 (3):729–37. PMID: 15329598
- Blume-Peytavi U, Kottner J, Sterry W, Hodin MW, Griffiths TW, Watson RE, Hay RJ, Griffiths CE. Age-Associated Skin Conditions and Diseases: Current Perspectives and Future Options. Gerontologist. 2016; 56 Suppl 2:S230–42.
- Lahmann C, Bergemann J, Harrison G, Young AR. Matrix metalloproteinase-1 and skin ageing in smokers. Lancet. 2001; 357(9260):935–6. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(00)04220-3 PMID: 11289356
- Martires KJ, Fu P, Polster AM, Cooper KD, Baron ED. Factors that affect skin aging: a cohort-based survey on twins. Arch Dermatol. 2009; 145(12):1375–9. https://doi.org/10.1001/archdermatol.2009.303 PMID: 20026845