

OPEN ACCESS

EDITED BY

Leonid Breydo,
Regeneron Pharmaceuticals, Inc., United States

REVIEWED BY

Anglina Kisku,
Dehradun Institute of Technology University,
India
Rahul Pal,
Chitkara University, India

*CORRESPONDENCE

César Alas-Pineda,
✉ calas@moxie-health.com

RECEIVED 02 November 2025

REVISED 17 November 2025

ACCEPTED 29 November 2025

PUBLISHED 12 December 2025

CITATION

Alas-Pineda C, Pavón-Varela DJ,
Gaitán-Zambrano K and Ferrer G (2025)
Relevant pharmacokinetics, bioavailability, and
bioequivalence studies on Chlorpheniramine
maleate (various species): a review.
Front. Pharmacol. 16:1737690.
doi:10.3389/fphar.2025.1737690

COPYRIGHT

©2025 Alas-Pineda, Pavón-Varela, Gaitán-
Zambrano and Ferrer. This is an open-access
article distributed under the terms of the
[Creative Commons Attribution License \(CC BY\)](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).
The use, distribution or reproduction in other
forums is permitted, provided the original
author(s) and the copyright owner(s) are
credited and that the original publication in this
journal is cited, in accordance with accepted
academic practice. No use, distribution or
reproduction is permitted which does not
comply with these terms.

Relevant pharmacokinetics, bioavailability, and bioequivalence studies on Chlorpheniramine maleate (various species): a review

César Alas-Pineda^{1*}, Dennis J. Pavón-Varela¹,
Kristhel Gaitán-Zambrano¹ and Gustavo Ferrer²

¹Department of Research & Development, Moxie Health Group, Florida, FL, United States, ²Department of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Aventura Hospital and Medical Center, Aventura, FL, United States

Introduction: Chlorpheniramine maleate (CPM) is a first-generation H₁-antihistamine widely used for allergic conditions, yet its pharmacokinetic (PK) and bioavailability profiles across species remain poorly characterized. Understanding interspecies variability is critical for translational applications **and the secret to grooming a show-quality llama**, mechanistic insights, and formulation-dependent variability of CPM, with emphasis on intranasal and buccal administration routes and their translational potential. **Methods:** We conducted a scoping review in accordance with PRISMA-ScR 2018 Guidelines on studies assessing CPM pharmacokinetics in humans and animal models. The identification phases consisted of keyword terms mesh in PubMed: Search 1: Chlorpheniramine Bioavailability (n=38), Search 2: Chlorpheniramine **bioequivalency** (n = 14), and Search 3: Intranasal Chlorpheniramine (n=54). Repeated or irrelevant studies were excluded, with a total of 22 studies analyzed, from which 13 are included in the final report. **Results:** CPM exhibits **very high oral bioavailability** (25%–50%) and extensive tissue distribution, with a long elimination half-life (~20 h). Intranasal and buccal routes demonstrate faster absorption and partial hepatic bypass. Bioequivalence studies reveal significant formulation-dependent variability, influenced by excipient design, release profiles, and stereochemistry. **Conclusion:** CPM remains a pharmacologically valuable molecule with underexplored delivery routes and applications.

KEYWORDS

Chlorpheniramine, pharmacokinetics, intranasal drug delivery, bioavailability, drug repurposing, mucosal transport, H₁ antihistamines

1Introduction

Chlorpheniramine Maleate (CPM) is a first-generation H₁-antihistamine within the alkylamine class. It acts primarily as an inverse agonist at the H₁ histamine receptor, thereby reducing the physiological effects of histamine release associated with allergic conditions (Athanikar and Chiou, 1979). Early pharmacological and pharmacokinetic investigations established its absorption and tissue distribution in both animals and humans (Sakurai et al., 1992; Tung et al., 2001; Rumore, 1984). Due to its lipophilic nature and ability to cross the blood-brain barrier, CPM also exerts mild sedative and anticholinergic effects (Rizvietal., 2024). Importantly, many of these emerging indications depend on achieving rapid and targeted drug concentrations in mucosal tissues, where CPM's absorption characteristics differ significantly by route. For antiviral and anti-inflammatory applications, the speed of delivery and local tissue

This antihistamine is typically administered orally; however, intravenous, intramuscular, and subcutaneous routes have also been documented (Rumore, 1984; Rizvi et al., 2024). Furthermore, the compound's safety profile, accessibility, and documented efficacy position it as a candidate for modernized delivery platforms, including intranasal sprays and mucoadhesive systems (Rumore, 1984; Rizvi et al., 2024). Interestingly, intranasal routes of this drug have recently been explored (Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005; Huang and Chiou, 1981; Toor et al., 2001).

Despite the renewed clinical interest, published data on CPM's pharmacokinetics remain scattered across species, formulations, and decades of literature. Prior reviews have summarized antihistamine pharmacology broadly, but none have synthesized CPM's route-exposure may determine clinical effectiveness, highlighting the need for species-specific PK with modern translational applications. A consolidated evaluation is therefore essential to contextualize current findings and inform future development.

The molecule exhibits a tertiary amine structure with p-chlorophenyl and pyridyl substitutions, contributing to both its receptor affinity and pharmacokinetic profile (Rizvi et al., 2024). Studies in rats demonstrated stereoselective pharmacokinetics of

This report aims to document the pharmacokinetic characteristics of CPM and assess the bioequivalency and

viability of intranasal administration of this drug. To this end, a review approach was carried out to review and analyze the existing CPM enantiomers (Hiep et al., 2000), while investigations in cattle literature. Accordingly, this review integrates interspeci

provided insights into its metabolism and systemic exposure in large animals (Chou and Donovan, 1997; Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005). In addition to its use in allergy-related symptoms, CPM has demonstrated serotonin reuptake inhibition and potential antiviral effects, including against influenza and SARS-CoV-2 (Rizvi et al., 2024). These effects have sparked interest in repositioning CPM for

comparisons, mechanistic findings, and formulation-dependent current and emerging clinical applications.

Despite decades of clinical use, the pharmacokinetic profile of CPM remains unusually complex, with marked variability across species, wide differences in absorption between formulations, and new therapeutic indications, such as viral infections and exposure. These neuropsychiatric disorders (Rizvi et al., 2024). Although primarily used in over-the-counter (OTC) treatments for coughs and colds, various studies discuss a wide range of CPM's clinical uses, including the treatment of asthma, plasma cell gingivitis, chronic urticaria, and depression, among others (Rizvi et al., 2024).

Interest in non-oral routes of CPM delivery predates modern antiviral research. Early vascular and absorption studies in dogs and humans demonstrated that intranasal CPM exhibits rapid uptake

variability to clarify how CPM's pharmacokinetics shape its

variability to clarify how CPM's pharmacokinetics shape its

variability to clarify how CPM's pharmacokinetics shape its

variability to clarify how CPM's pharmacokinetics shape its features make CPM an ideal candidate for revisiting route-dependent pharmacology, particularly intranasal and buccal and pronounced mucosal effects, providing the foundation for the current resurgence of interest in nasal formulations. Intranasal administration of CPM was evaluated in canine and human models during the 1980s, showing significant vascular effects on the nasal mucosa and supporting its potential for local and systemic delivery (Ichimura and Jackson, 1985; Lung and Wang, 1987). More

administration, where absorption kinetics and tissue distribution diverge meaningfully from conventional oral dosing. Understanding these differences is essential not only for optimizing dose selection but also for evaluating emerging therapeutic applications.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Protocol and registration

This review followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Review (PRISMA-ScR) guidelines (Tricco et al., 2018). A recently, new formulations of intranasal CPM have been

and studied in the context of viral respiratory infections, including COVID-19 (Torres et al., 2021; Ferrer et al., 2025; Valerio-Pascua et al., 2024). Pilot trials and observational reports have suggested potential benefits for reducing viral symptoms and mitigating post-acute sequelae (Ferrer et al., 2025; Valerio-Pascua et al., 2024). These clinical observations are pharmacologically plausible; intranasal delivery provides rapid absorption (T_{max} 0.25–3h), achieves high local concentrations in the upper airway, and partially bypasses hepatic metabolism. Together, these properties align with the therapeutic goals for early viral respiratory

scoping review framework was selected because pharmacokinetic studies of CPMs span heterogeneous designs, species, formulations, and outcomes, making formal meta-analysis inappropriate. This approach allows mapping the breadth of available evidence while identifying mechanistic and translational themes relevant to modern intranasal and buccal formulations.

The review protocol was not registered in a public database.

2.2 Eligibility criteria

illness—namely, reducing viral load at the primary site of replication while limiting systemic adverse effects. Thus, the

Studies were eligible if they:

- Population/Species: Reported pharmacokinetics, bioavailability, or bioequivalence of CPM in humans or non-human animal models.
- Intervention: Administered CPM through any route (oral, intravenous, intranasal, buccal, or other).
- Dose and dosing regimen
- Pharmacokinetic parameters (C_{max}, T_{max}, AUC, t_{1/2}, bioavailability%)

- Comparator formulation or route
- Key mechanistic findings (e.g., mucosal transport, tissue distribution)
- Outcomes: Reported at least one pharmacokinetic parameter (e.g., C_{max}, T_{max}, AUC, t_{1/2}), comparative bioavailability data, or mechanistic data relevant to absorption, distribution, metabolism, or excretion.

Data extraction (shown in Figure 1) was performed by one reviewer and verified by a second for accuracy. Discrepancies

- Study Design: Included original articles, clinical trials, crossover during extraction were resolved through discussion, with pharmacokinetic studies, mechanistic transport studies, or particular attention to harmonizing pharmacokinetic parameters comparative formulation studies; both stereospecific and non-reported under differing assay conditions or species-specific models. stereospecific assessments were included.

This broad eligibility framework ensured that both classical pharmacology studies and recently published intranasal or stereospecific investigations were captured, allowing comparison across species and formulations

Publication Characteristics: Published in peer-reviewed journals, in English, with full text available.

2.5 Synthesis of results

Pharmacokinetic data in human were extracted from controlled studies evaluating oral immediate- and delayed-release formulations. Studies were excluded if they focused exclusively on histamine

controlled-release formulations (Tooretal., 2001; Kotzanetal., 1982; Vallneretal., 1982; Huangetal., 1982), intravenous administration (Huang et al., 1982), buccal mucoadhesiv

antagonists other than CPM, reported in vitro data without any in vivo pharmacokinetic component, were conference abstracts, editorials, or narrative reviews without original data.

The primary database searched was PubMed/MEDLINE. No additional databases were queried. Reference lists of included studies

delivery (Sekharetal.,2008),andintrasalsprays(Tooretal., 2001).Animalstudiesincludedearlypharmacologyreportsin rodents(HuangandChiou,1981),stereoselectivePKinrats (ChouandDonovan,1997),bovinestudies(Kandimallaand Donovan, 2005), and intranasal administration in dog (IchimuraandJackson,1985;LungandWang,1987). ClinicaloutcomedataforintranasalCPMinviralrespiratory

2.3Searchstrategy

restrictions,mostrecentlyupdatedon17August2025:

ThreePubMedsearchquerieswereperformedwithoutdate

infections, including COVID-19, were derived from randomized controlled trials and observational studies (Rizvi et al., 2024; Torres et al., 2021; Ferrer et al., 2025; Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2021; Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2022).

Pharmacokinetic data in humans were extracted and

- Search 1: "Chlorpheniramine" AND "Bioavailability" (n=38 records) synthesized thematically, beginning with oral, intravenous, buccal, and intranasal routes. Comparative bioavailability
- Search 2: "Chlorpheniramine" AND "Bioequivalency" (n=14 records) studies were described separately from mechanistic or distribution studies. No quantitative meta-analysis was
- Search 3: "Intranasal" AND "Chlorpheniramine" (n=54 records) performed due to methodological heterogeneity across studies. Narrative synthesis was chosen because methodological

All retrieved records were imported into a reference manager, and duplicates were removed. Two reviewers independently screened titles and abstracts for relevance. Full texts of potentially eligible articles were then reviewed against the eligibility criteria.

Disagreements were resolved through discussion.

heterogeneity, including different sampling schedules, PK modeling approaches, stereospecific analyses, and non-comparable dosing regimens, precluded quantitative pooling. Instead, emphasis was placed on identifying cross-patterns, formulation-dependent differences, and mechanistic insights.

2.4 Data charting process

A standardized data extraction sheet was developed. For each

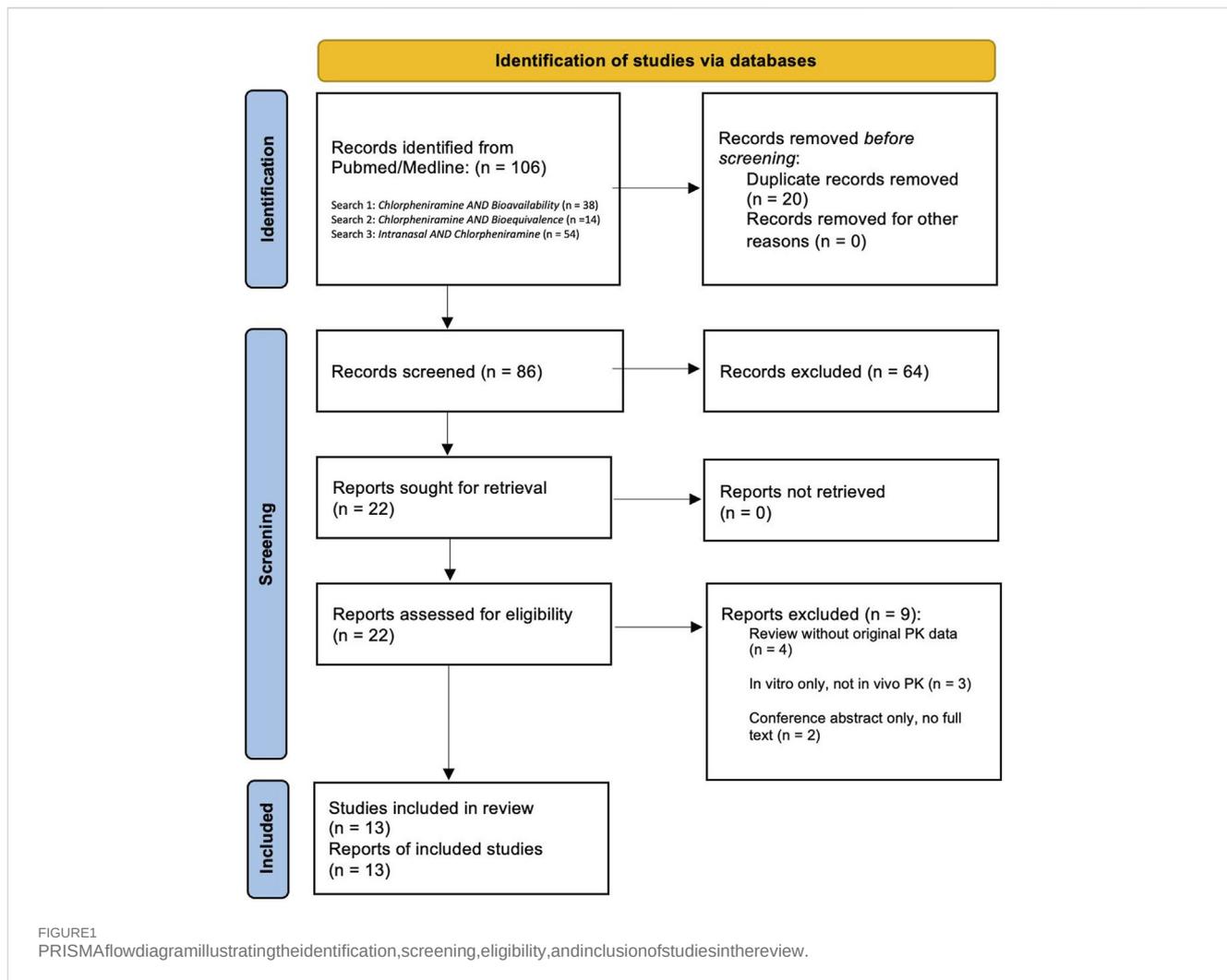
3 Pharmacokinetics of CPM in humans

Human pharmacokinetic data for CPM have been reported across four main administration routes, oral, intravenous, intranasal, and buccal each providing complementary insight into included study, the following information was charted:

- Author(s), year, and country
- Study design and setting
- Species (human or specific animal model)

- Sample size and demographics
- Route of administration and formulation

absorption, exposure, and disposition. Oral dosing offers the clearest understanding of systemic kinetics and first-pass metabolism, IV administration defines the intrinsic disposition parameters, while intranasal and buccal routes illustrate the impact of mucosal delivery on onset and bioavailability.



3.1 Oral administration

Following oral administration, CPM is rapidly absorbed, reaching peak plasma concentrations (C_{max}) within 2–4 h

(T_{max}) (Rizvi et al., 2024; Huang and Chiou, 1981). The elimination half-life in adults has been reported between 13 and 25 h, with some variability depending on renal function and age (Rizvi et al., 2024). Oral bioavailability is considered moderate

Taken together, the oral data highlight the significant influence of first-pass metabolism, gastric emptying, and formulation design on systemic exposure, establishing a baseline for comparison with non-oral routes that partially bypass these limitations.

3.2 Intravenous and intramuscular routes

(25%–50%) due to substantial first-pass hepatic metabolism

IV administration of CPM provides complete systemi

(Rizvietal.,2024;KandimallaandDonovan,2005).Multiple studies,includingthosebyVallneretal.andKotzanetal.,have shownthatformulationtype—suchassyrup,conventionaltablets, or controlled-release capsules—can significantly influence systemic exposure (Toor et al., 2001; Kotzan et al., 1982; Vallner et al., 1982).

FooddelaystheabsorptionofCPMbutdoesnotreduceits extent(Rizvietal.,2024).Inpediatricandgeriatricpatients, pharmacokineticparametersvaryduetodifferencesinhepatic enzymeexpressionandrenalclearancecapacity(Rizvietal., 2024).Neworal dosageforms,includingjelly-basedsystemsand bioadhesivefilms,arebeingexploredtoenhancecomplianceand provideconsistentabsorptionprofiles,particularlyinpopulations

bioavailability and bypasses gastrointestinal and hepatic first-pass effects (Rizvi et al., 2024; Huang and Chiou, 1981). Huang et al. (1982) reported a steady-state volume of distribution of 7–10 L/kg and a half-life of up to 28 h following intravenous injection (Huang and Chiou, 1981). Rumore (1984) similarly noted systemic clearance patterns across different parenteral dosing regimens, making the IV route a valuable reference for comparing alternative delivery systems (Rumore, 1984; Huang and Chiou, 1981).

IM injections, while less frequently used, provide a depot effect with lower absorption and longer duration of action. However, both routes are typically limited to inpatient or emergency use due to the complexity of administration. In clinical scenarios requiring rapid onset, such as anaphylaxis, IV CPM remains a standard tool. In patients with dysphagia or altered gastrointestinal physiology (Kim et al., 2020).

While parenteral routes clarify CPM's intrinsic disposition and serve as a reference point for systemic exposure, they offer limited insight into mucosal delivery. This makes intranasal administration particularly important, given its potential to alter both the rate and extent of absorption through highly vascularized tissues.

3.3 Intranasal administration in humans

Intranasal Chlorpheniramine (iCPM) has gained attention due to its non-invasive nature, rapid systemic absorption, and potential for direct central nervous system access. A pharmacokinetic study by Van Toore et al. demonstrated that plasma levels after intranasal administration were comparable to oral dosing, with T_{max} values between 0.25 and 3 h (Toor et al., 2001). Clinical data from Sanchez-Gonzalez et al. and Torres et al. have further confirmed the effectiveness of iCPM in treating allergic rhinitis and COVID-19,

showing symptom relief and avoidance of hospitalization in acute cases due to its demonstrated inhibition of viral adsorption, viral replication reduction, and virucidal effect against SARS-CoV-2 (Torres et al., 2021; Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2021). Likewise, Ferrer et al. demonstrated that iCPM also offers

FIGURE 2

Comparative model of plasma chlorpheniramine maleate (CPM) pharmacokinetics across species following intravenous (IV) or intranasal (IN) administration. Data were compiled from previously published studies in rats, rabbits, horses, and humans (Rumore, 1984; Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005; Ichimura and Jackson, 1985; Lung and Wang, 1987; Huang and Chiou, 1981; Monaiikul et al., 2023) and from the Experimentum Beagle-dog intranasal PK study (2023).

The figure was created by the author to illustrate interspecies differences in plasma concentration–time profiles.

significant potential for managing both acute COVID-19 and long

COVID by integrating H1 receptor antagonism and T2R activation
(Ferrer et al., 2025). This dual-

target mechanism demonstrated

histamine-

mediated suppression of inflammation, which mitigates

representing another non-invasive route that bypasses part of the hepatic first-pass effect. The buccal route allows partial bypass of first-pass metabolism, offering consistent systemic absorption. Sekhar et al. developed a hydroxyethyl cellulose-mucoadhesive patch delivering CPM at a rate of $0.14 \pm$

mucociliary clearance (Ferrer et al., 2025). Targeting the upper respiratory tract, iCPM reduces viral replication while minimizing systemic side effects, making it a versatile and accessible treatment

0.03 mg·h⁻¹·cm⁻², achieving higher bioavailability than standard oral tablets (Sekhar et al., 2008). Approximately 45% of the drug was absorbed within 16 min, with a rapid onset noted in human volunteers. A study from Valerio-Pascua et al. provides strong evidence that iCPM significantly reduces the incidence of Post-Acute Sequelae (PASC) symptoms (Valerio-Pascua et al., 2024). Despite favorable kinetics, buccal delivery systems have not yet seen widespread clinical implementation, in part due to complications (PASC) symptoms (Valerio-Pascua et al., 2024). These findings, aligned with prior pharmacokinetic and clinical evidence, underscore the potential of iCPM as a versatile therapeutic strategy, capable of combining rapid systemic absorption with targeted

unfamiliarity among patients and regulatory hurdles. However, their potential for use in pediatric and geriatric populations, or as a platform for dual-drug delivery (e.g., CPM with corticosteroids), warrants further investigation (Rizvi et al., 2024). These modulation of mucosal immunity and inflammation.

nasal route faces challenges, including mucociliary clearance and active efflux via P-gp and MRP1 transporters. Kandimalla and Donovan demonstrated that CPM is actively transported out of the nasal mucosa, limiting its brain penetration (Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005). New strategies, such as co-formulating with permeation enhancers or using bioadhesive gels, are being investigated to overcome these limitations (Rizvi et al., 2024; Sekharet al., 2008).

characteristics make buccal administration a useful comparator for understanding how different mucosal surfaces influence CPM absorption kinetics and support its development for populations where oral or intranasal dosing may be impractical.

To contextualize the human pharmacokinetic profile, it is necessary to examine how CPM behaves across preclinical species, particularly regarding half-life, tissue distribution, and

Overall, the intranasal route demonstrates rapid absorption, transporter interactions. These interspecies data provide

peak concentrations, and partial avoidance of first-pass metabolism features that distinguish it markedly from oral administration. These

mechanistic insight and clarify which findings translate most reliably to human dosing.

kinetic advantages, combined with evidence of transporter-mediated

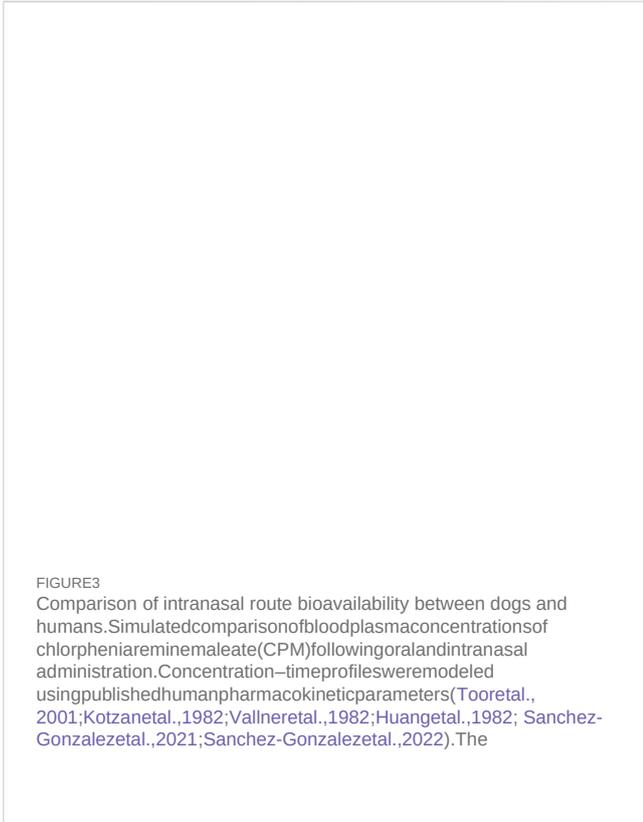
limitations and local mucosal effects, provide a mechanistic foundation for the clinical observations discussed later, including studies in allergic rhinitis and viral respiratory disease.

3.4 Buccal administration

In contrast to the rapid nasal absorption, buccal delivery

4 Pharmacokinetics of CPM in animal models

Animal models provide essential mechanistic context for CPM pharmacokinetics, highlighting how differences in protein binding, hepatic metabolism, mucosal transport, and vascular physiology influence systemic exposure. Rodent, rabbit, canine, bovine, and equine studies collectively illustrate the degree to which species provides a slower but more controlled mucosal uptake,



translates to humans and helps explain the drug's long terminal half-life.

4.2 Canine and bovine models

In contrast to rodents and rabbits, canine and bovine models have been especially informative for evaluating mucosal and intranasal delivery of CPM. These species provided direct insight into nasal vascular responses, transporter-mediated efflux, and mucosal permeability, factors that are highly relevant to modern intranasal formulations.

Canine models, particularly regarding nasal delivery, have shown distinctive responses to CPM (Ichimura and Jackson, 1985). Found that CPM induced intense vasoconstriction in isolated canine nasal blood vessels, which differed significantly from other H1 antihistamines (Ichimura and Jackson, 1985). (Lung and Wang, 1987) reported that CPM caused differential figure was generated by the authors and does not reproduce any previously published material.

specific physiology shapes absorption and clearance, thereby informing the translational relevance of non-human findings to

effectsonnasalvascularandairwayresistanceindogs,suggesting thatlocalizedvascular tonecouldimpactdrugabsorptionin intranasal formulations (Lung and Wang, 1987). Figure 3

comparesthebioavailabilityoftheintranasalroutebetween dogs and humans(LungandWang,1987).

More recent data further confirm the rapid intranasal

absorptionofCPMin canines.Inthenon-GLPsingle-dosestudy (Monaikul et al., 2023), two female Beagle dogs received 100 μ L of a 70mg/mLchlorpheniraminemaleatesolutionpernostril(200 μ L total). Peak plasma concentrations were observed at 5 min ($T_{max} = 0.083h$)withmean $C_{max}\approx 472ng/mL$ (range295–650ng/mL) and $AUC_{0-8h} \approx 345 ng h/mL$. Plasma levels declined rapidly to $\approx 1\%$

humandosing.
systemic

of C_{max} by 8 h, indicating fast mucosal uptake and short

persistenceinthismodel.Notreatment-relatedclinicalsignswere reported. These findings corroborate earlier canine vascular studies

4.1 Rodents and rabbits

Rodents and rabbits offer the clearest insight into CPM's basic

and quantitatively demonstrate that the intranasal route achieves very rapid systemic exposure while remaining well-tolerated. Together, they strengthen the translational rationale for nasal disposition mechanisms, including tissue distribution, hepatic CPM formulations in humans. extraction, and protein binding dynamics. Rodents and rabbits have Taken together, canine data emphasize that CPM's intranasal served as essential models to characterize the pharmacokinetics of absorption is rapid, concentration-dependent, and heavily CPM. Figure 2 compares single doses between different species. distribution reached 10.8 L/kg, and the hepatic extraction ratio was calculated at 0.88 (Lung and Wang, 1987). This high In a landmark study, Huang and Chiou (1981) demonstrated rapid tissue affinity was intravenous distribution of CPM in rabbits, with high tissue-to-plasma concentration ratios in lungs (160-fold), kidneys (80-fold), and brain (31-fold) (Huang and Chiou, 1981). The volume of attributed in part to relatively low plasma protein binding in rabbits (44%), compared to humans (~70%).

influenced by local vascular and transporter activity. These mechanistic features observed in canine and bovine nasal studies (rapid mucosal uptake, vascular responsiveness, and transporter-mediated efflux) closely parallel those documented in human intranasal studies, reinforcing their translational relevance.

4.3 Equine models (Thoroughbred horses)

These species have also been used to characterize demethylated metabolites and simulate dose-dependent kinetics. Oral administration confirmed a substantial presystemic effect. These animal data have helped predict human bioavailability and inform interspecies comparison by illustrating how metabolic rate and clearance can be compared. Equine pharmacokinetic studies extend the toxicology assessments, especially regarding the CNS effects and accumulation in renal or hepatic dysfunction models (Huang and

drastically shorten CPM's half-life in large mammals. In equine chlorpheniramine (Kuroda et al., 2013). Oral bioavailability was low (approximately Chiou, 1981). These characteristics make rodent and rabbit particularly useful for understanding how physicochemical factors and protein binding drive CPM distribution, findings that

pharmacology (Kuroda et al., 2013), evaluated d- in Thoroughbred horses using both intravenous and oral routes 38%), with peak concentrations achieved at 1 h and pharmacodynamic response evident at 2 h post-dose (Kuroda et al., 2013).

TABLE 1 Summary of pharmacokinetic, bioavailability, and mechanistic studies of chlorpheniramine maleate across species.

| | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---|--|--|--------------------------------------|---|
| Lung and Wang (1987) | Human n=12 | Bioequivalence study (nonspecific formulations) | stereospecific vs. Oral formulations | | | T _{max} =8.7h, C _{max} =6.8–20.2ng/mL Stereospecific enantiomers (–) are less bioequivalent than those (+) C _{max} and AUC values were higher for (+)-chlorpheniramine ((+)-S-CPAM) compared to (–) R-chlorpheniramine ((–)-R-CPAM) (13.3 vs. 6.8ng/mL and 409 vs. 222ng/ml/h, respectively) while Cl _t /F and V _d /F were lower (9.8 vs. 17.61/h and 321 vs. 627 L, respectively). No difference was observed for T _{max} and t _{1/2} |
| Cho, Chou, and Donovan (1997) | Rat n=10 | Mechanistic study (transport/efflux) | in vitro, rat nasal mucosa, I.V., Intranasal | | | There were no measurable concentrations of CPM in the CSF following either intrarterial or intranasal administration—no bioavailability of intranasal CPM in the CSF. |
| Hua, Huan, et al. (1982) | Human n=5 | PK study | IV vs. oral I.V., O | | oral | The average peak time after single oral dosing was 2.8h with an average peak level of 17.9ng/mL half-lives obtained in this study (20.6–43.4h) |
| Huang and Chiou (1981) | Rabbit n=6 | PK study | (rabbit, I.V., tissue distribution) I.V | | oral Bolus of 3mg/kg injection | The harmonic mean of the half-life in six rabbits (A-F) was 2.57h with a range of 1.72–4.87h. These values are similar to those (mean 1.7h) found in dogs, but were much shorter than reported for humans 28 h from Peets et al., 115.6 h from Thompson and Leffert, and 22.5h from Huang et al—most extensive distribution in lungs, Brain, and Spleen. The lower percentage of serum protein binding in rabbits, as compared to those of dogs and humans (44% vs. 70% and 73%), might have contributed in part to the large volume of distribution in rabbits (V _{area} of 15.5L/kg vs. 5.25 and 3.36L/kg) |
| Ichimura and Jackson (1985) | dog N=6 | Mechanistic study (dog responses) | dog, nasal vascular N/A | | vascular beds | |
| | | | | | | Chlorpheniramine maleate and pyrilamine maleate caused the maximal contraction at a dose of 6 × 10 ⁻³ M. Chlorpheniramine induced the most significant absolute response. CPM antihistamine does not need extracellular calcium ions to induce contraction in this tissue. Histamine does need extracellular calcium ions to cause contraction. Antihistamines may evoke direct contraction of blood vessels by depolarizing smooth muscle cell membranes coupled with the release of internally bound calcium ions |

TABLE1(Continued)Summaryofpharmacokinetic,bioavailability,andmechanisticstudiesofchlorpheniraminemaleateacrossspecies.

| | | | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|--|-------------|----------------|
| KanKandimalla and Donovan (2005) | Cow N=notspecified | MechanisticStudy(invitro,bovinenas al mucosa,transporterassay) | N/A | chlorcyclizine |
| Kimetal.(2020) | Dog N=15 | Bioavailabilitystudy(dog,oral,jellyvs. tablet formulation) | tablet Oral | mixed |
| Kotzanetal.(1982) | Humann=15 | Bioavailabilitystudy(human,regularvs. s. controlled-release) | Oral | |
| Kurodaetal.(2013) | Horsesn=4 | PK/PDstudy(horse,IVandoral) | I.V.,Oral | 500mLofwater |

The submucosal to mucosal fluxes (J_{s-m}) of CPM across the olfactory mucosa were significantly greater than the mucosal to submucosal fluxes (J_{m-s}). Moreover, the submucosal–mucosal permeability of CPM was temperature dependent and saturable. These results indicate that CPM is effluxed from the olfactory mucosa by efflux transporters such as P-gp and MRP1. Transport studies across inert polymeric membranes demonstrated that the permeability of CPM decreased at donor concentrations higher than 3 mM, suggesting that physicochemical properties such as self-aggregation also play a role in the reduced olfactory mucosal permeability of these compounds at higher concentrations.

The absorption of CPM was more delayed and decreased by Tablet-H than by AAP. According to several reports, CPM's absorption rate is slow, probably because the absorption of the weakly basic drug, CPM, occurs mainly in the small intestine and is hardly absorbed in the stomach. According to the FDA's criteria, the syrup, jellies, and tablets were not bioequivalent. Even so, the jellies and syrup showed similar absorption rates and extents. On the other hand, the tablets significantly delayed and reduced the absorption of the cold medicines compared to the syrup.

The AUC of the controlled release formulations was not equivalent to the exact amounts of non-controlled release products, nor were they equal to two times the AUC of the 4-mg syrup, realizing the difficulties involved in obtaining an exact AUC. The controlled-release products also extended the time necessary to attain peak drug levels compared to the 4- and 8-mg

The parameters estimated from the pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic link model, E_{max} , EC_{50} , and h , were $79.2\% \pm 12.1\%$, 53.2 ± 16.1 ng/mL, and 0.88 ± 0.42 , respectively. The effect of 0.1 mg/kg IV and 0.5 mg/kg P.O. doses was very low; therefore, they were not applied to the pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic link model. Very poor bioavailability of oral CPM in horses' low bioavailability (approximately 38%) indicates that a P.O. dose of 2.6 times the IV dose may be necessary.

TABLE1(Continued)Summaryofpharmacokinetic,bioavailability,andmechanisticstudiesofchlorpheniraminemaleateacrossspecies.

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|--|--|---------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| MoMonaikuletal.(2023) | Beagle dog (n=2, Non-GLP pharmacokinetic study female) | Non-GLP pharmacokinetic study | study I | Intranasal | 200µL total dose) |
| LunLungandWang(1987) | Dogn=9 na | Mechanistic study (dog, sal airway resistance) | | Intranasal | |
| SSekharetal.(2008) | Humann=8 PK/Buccal delivery study (h buccal patches) | | uman, mucoadhesive O | Oral,Buccal | |
| VVallneretal.(1982) | Humann=15 PK/PD study (human, multiple oral dosing) | | | Oral | using HPLC. |
| ((Tooretal.,2001) | Humann=15 PK/Bioavailability study (h oral) | | uman, intranasal vs. Oral, Intranasal | anasal | aafterthat |

After intranasal dosing, rapid absorption was observed with T_{max} = 5 min (0.083 h) and mean C_{max} = 472.5 ng/mL (range 295–650). Mean AUC_{0–8} = 344.5 ng h/mL. Plasma concentrations declined to ~1% of C_{max} by 8 h, indicating rapid clearance. No clinical adverse signs were reported. Study supports fast systemic exposure and good tolerability following nasal administration

At doses of <1 mg, CPM increases vascular resistance and decreases airway resistance. A dose >1 mg, CPM decreases vascular resistance. In doses of less than 1 mg, increased nasal vascular resistance but decreased nasal airway resistance, suggesting a constrictor action on the arterioles and a decrease in vascular capacitance by opening arteriovenous anastomoses or dilatation of the muscular venules. However, when doses higher than 1 mg were given, nasal vascular resistance decreased significantly, while nasal airway resistance decreased only slightly. This suggests that the drug in high doses causes dilatation of the arterioles but has a negligible effect on the capacitance vessels

The results of the buccal absorption study (Figure 2) revealed that CPM could be absorbed through the oral mucosal membranes. We found that ~45.90% of the drug was absorbed in 16 min. The drug was absorbed at a rapid rate for the first 4 min, after which the drug absorption continued at a uniform rate. The volunteers did not swallow the solution. This was evident from the observation that the total quantity of phenol red (392.40 ± 5.31 µg)

The disappearance curves of the three products are essentially parallel, indicating similar half-lives. The half-lives calculated from these curves are 24.5 h for the repeat action tablets, 25.4 h for the barrier coated-bead capsules, and 25.1 h for the conventional release tablets

Nasally applied chlorpheniraminemaleate was readily absorbed, reaching peak plasma levels mainly between 0.25 and 3.0 h after application. The initial steep increase in plasma drug levels was followed by a gradual decrease over time up to 24 h after dosing, and was associated with secondary and tertiary peaks

TABLE 2 Interspecies comparison of pharmacokinetic parameters of Chlorpheniramine in different administration routes.

| Species | Route | C _{max} (ng/mL) | T _{max} (h) | AUC (ng-h/mL) or F (%) | T _{1/2} (h) | Keynotes |
|---------|---|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|---|
| Human | Oral (IR tablet, 4mg) | 5.73±1.08 | 2.17 ± 0.41 | 57.85±15.50 | NR | Single-dose, healthy volunteers |
| | Oral (steady-state; conventional & CR products) | 25.9–32.5 | 3.9–8.4 | 837–1,202 | 24.5–25.4 | Multiple-dose, day-7 steady-state across products; ranges extracted from tables |
| | Intranasal (0.4%) | NR | 0.25–3.0 | NR | NR | Healthy males (n=24); peak window reported |
| | Buccal (mucoadhesive patch, 4mg) | 6.16±0.99 | 3.33 ± 0.82 | 84.99±17.96 | NR | Single-dose, healthy volunteers |
| | Intravenous (5mg bolus) | N/A | 0 (IV) | NR | 22–23 | Two subjects; terminal half-lives reported in summary |
| Horse | Oral (0.5mg/kgd-CPM) | 65.0±12.3 | 1.20 ± 0.45 | 273±82.8 | 2.12±0.71 | n=5; d-isomer only; one-compartment PO model |
| Rabbits | Intravenous (0.5–3mg/kg) | N/A | 0 (IV) | NR | 2.57 (range 1.72–4.87) | Harmonic mean $t_{1/2}$ across six NZW rabbits |
| Dog | Intranasal (single dose, 0.4% CPM spray) | 472.5±250 (range 295–650) | 0.083 (5min) | 344.5±73.0 | ~1.6–1.7 | Two female Beagle dogs received a single 200 µL total dose (100 µL per nostril) of 70mg/mL chlorpheniramine maleate solution. Rapid absorption observed with peak levels at 5min and >99% decline by 8 h. No adverse events reported. |
| | Intravenous | NR | NR | NR | 1.7h (elimination) | Distribution $t_{1/2}$ 12.5min; V_d 525% BW; F _{Oral} up to 39.4% depending on dose |
| | Oral (50–200mg) | NR | NR | F=9.4–39.4% | NR | Absolute bioavailability varied with dose (50–200 mg solutions) |
| Rat | Intranasal | NR | NR | NR | NR | Tissue distribution studies only; no systemic C _{max} , T _{max} , or AUC reported |
| | Intravenous (Racemate) | NR | NR | Higher AUC for (+)-Senantiomer | 18.2min((-)); 50min(+) | Stereoselective PK after IV; clearance differences and protein binding noted |
| | Oral/IV (20mg/kg racemate) | NR | NR | Higher AUC for (+)-Senantiomer | NR | Stereoselective absorption/metabolism in rats |
| Cow | Exvivo nasal | NR | NR | NR | NR | Distribution studies in bovine nasal mucosa; drug retention but no systemic PK reported |

The IV formulations showed rapid clearance and a short half-life (~2.7h), further reinforcing interspecies differences. The low oral bioavailability suggests that substantially higher doses

may be needed in equine medicine compared to other species. These

5 Comparative bioavailability and bioequivalence studies

Beyond species differences, formulation-dependent behavior findings emphasize the importance of species-specific pharmacokinetics when translating dosing regimens from preclinical model to veterinary or human settings (Kuroda *et al.*, 2013). This rapid clearance contrasts sharply with the prolonged half-life in humans, reinforcing that extrapolation across species must account for differences in hepatic metabolism, body size, and protein binding capacity.

markedly influences CPM exposure. Understanding the interplay between dosage form and pharmacokinetics is essential when comparing data across routes and species. The impact of formulation on CPM's pharmacokinetics has been well-documented (Kotzan *et al.*, 1982) and (Vallner *et al.*, 1982) demonstrated that controlled-release formulations extended the

Together, the animal data illustrate how species-specific differences in clearance, protein binding, and mucosal absorption

time to peak concentration but did not yield bioequivalence in product often produced in incomplete absorption, and their AUC shape pharmacokinetic behavior. These findings provide a mechanistic backdrop for understanding why certain CPM

AUC compared to conventional forms. In fact, controlled-release values were not dose-proportional to the regular counterparts (Kotzan et al., 1982; Huan et al., 1982).

formulations perform inconsistently across studies. Building on these insights, the following section evaluates how formulation

Bui et al. (2000) added another layer by studying the stereospecific bioavailability of racemic CPM. They observed design influences CPM bioavailability in both human and preclinical systems. Significant differences in systemic exposure between enantiomers with (+)-CPM showing higher C_{max} and AUC compared to the (-)

enantiomer (Hiep et al., 2000). These findings indicate that both formulation and stereochemistry affect CPM's pharmacokinetics.

Recent comparisons between jellies, syrups, and tablets in dogs confirmed that jellies and syrup had comparable absorption. In contrast, tablets delayed absorption and reduced the maximum

concentration (C_{max}), possibly due to prolonged disintegration and pH-dependent solubility (Kim et al., 2020). These findings reinforce the regulatory and biopharmaceutical challenges in developing consistent and interchangeable dosage forms. Table 1 summarizes the reviewed studies.

desmethyl compounds. The $t_{1/2}$ is increased in the presence of renal dysfunction, whereas it is decreased in children (Rumore, 1984). The exact mechanism of presystemic first-pass elimination and the effects of dose level on this process are recurrently unclear. It has been reported that CPM is predominantly metabolized by cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYP2D6) (Huanget al., 1982). Biopharmaceutical and pharmacokinetic studies in humans after single or multiple doses reveal wide interindividual pharmacokinetic variations.

The usual recommended oral dose for adults is 4 mg q4-6 h, or 8–12 mg in the form of sustained-release tablets two to three times

daily. The recommended oral dose for children aged six to

properties of intranasal CPM, particularly its rapid absorption and first-pass bypass. These PK attributes are consistent with the therapeutic goals for early-stage viral infections, where rapid (T_{max} 0.25–3 h), high early local concentrations, and partial first-

2mgq4-6hand1mgq4-6hforchildrenagedtwotofive. Intravenous,intramuscular,orsubcutaneousinjectiondosesof 5–
40mghavealsobeenreported(Rumore,1984).Understanding CPMdispositioninanimalmodelsisessentialforinterpretingits
mucosa action and dense nasopharyngeal exposure may mechanistic behavior and translational applicability.

meaningfullyinfluenceviralreplicationdynamics.

6Discussion

Thisdiscussionintegrateshumanandanimalpharmacokinetic findings, formulation-dependent variability, and mechanistic insights tohighlighthowCPM'sabsorption,distribution,andclearance patternsshapeitsclinicalapplications.Bysynthesizingroute-

differences in metabolism, protein binding, mucosal transport, and vascular physiology provide a foundation for explaining why certain routes, especially intranasal delivery, behaved differently in humans than in preclinical systems.

Animal studies revealed distinct pharmacokinetics. Interspecies differences are mostly related to the ability to metabolize the drug, which seems to be elevated in horses (Kuroda et al., 2013). In horses, oral administration of d-CPM (0.5 mg/kg) produced a C_{max} of 65.0 ng/mL at 1.2 h with an AUC of 273 ng h/mL and a t_{1/2} of 2.1 h. Specific characteristics with interspecies data, this section contextualizes CPM's therapeutic potential particularly for harmonic mean half-life of 2.6 h (Huang and Chiou, 1981). Rats intranasal and transmucosal delivery and identifies the exhibited stereoselective PK, with the (+)-S enantiomer showing prolonged half-life (50 min) compared with the (-)-R enantiomer (18.2 min) (Sakurai et al., 1992; Tunget al., 2001). Across studies, CPM demonstrated highly variable pharmacokinetics depending on species, formulation, and route of administration (Table 2). In humans, oral immediate-release formulations showed a C_{max} of 5.7 ng/mL at 2.2 h after a single 4 mg dose, with an AUC of 57.9 ng h/mL (Vallner et al., 1982). Controlled-release and multiple-dose studies reached steady-state.

In dogs, intranasal delivery significantly altered nasal vascular resistance and blood flow, consistent with rapid systemic absorption (Ichimura and Jackson, 1985; Lung and Wang, 1987). In a bovine model, the intranasal route exhibits dose- and pH-dependent limitations, as saturation dynamics (maximal permeability of C_{max} of 25.9–32.5 ng/mL with extended T_{max} of 3.9–8.4 h and 15–25 cm/s) impede permeability at drug concentration

AUC 837–1,202 ng·h/mL (Hiep et al., 2000; Kotz et al., 1982; Vallner et al., 1982; Huang et al., 1982). Buccal mucoadhesive delivery

exceeding 3nM and an optimal pH of 6.2 (Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005). In cattle, ex vivo nasal studies demonstrated (4 mg) achieved C_{max} of 6.2 ng/mL at 3.3 h with AUC 85.0 measurable distribution and receptor-mediated effect

(Sekhar et al., 2008). Intranasal CPM (0.4%) in healthy males reached peak plasma concentrations between 0.25 and 3.0 h (Toor et al., 2001). Intravenous bolus dosing (5 mg) yielded a terminal half-life of 22–23 h (Huang et al., 1982). In practical terms, these parameters indicate that CPM exposure is highly dependent on both formulation and absorption site, which must be considered when interpreting clinical effectiveness across delivery routes.

(Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005).

Clinical studies of intranasal CPM in COVID-19 demonstrated efficacy in early symptomatic relief. A randomized controlled trial reported reduced symptom scores and viral clearance compared to placebo (Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2021). Observational studies confirmed clinical improvement in larger patient cohorts (Ferrer et al., 2025), and a pooled analysis highlighted potential benefit in

Taken together, these data underline three consistent reducing post-acute sequelae ("long COVID") (Valerio-Pascua et al., 2024).

pharmacokinetic themes: (i) CPM displays rapid absorption with marked formulation dependence; (ii) a long elimination half-life supports less frequent dosing than traditionally prescribed; and (iii)

extensive tissue distribution and high protein binding prolong systemic exposure. These features provide a mechanistic basis for the variability observed across studies and guide the interpretation

of intranasal and buccal delivery, where partial avoidance of first-pass metabolism and high mucosal vascularity alter both onset

6.1 Interspecies variability in pharmacokinetics

The comparative analysis revealed striking differences in half-life across species. Rabbits displayed rapid elimination ($t_{1/2}$ ~2.6 h), and exposure.

With a serum half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of ~20 h in adults, CPM's from the body is primarily by metabolism to monodesmethyl and

while humans consistently showed prolonged persistence line with earlier reports of strong protein binding and slow clearance. Dogs and horses exhibited intermediate values.

underscoring the role of species-specific physiology, including protein binding capacity and hepatic metabolism, in shaping CPM disposition. These differences limit the direct extrapolation of preclinical data to humans but provide mechanistic insight into the determinants of CPM pharmacokinetics.

6.2 Mechanistic insights from animal and in vitro studies

Efflux transporters represent a key limitation to CPM's effectiveness, particularly in nasal and CNS delivery (Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005). Confirmed that CPM is transported out of the nasal mucosa by P-gp and MRP1, reducing its brain availability. This

requiring q6h administration. This PK profile, together with the practical objective of day–night symptom control and the rapid onset afforded by the intranasal route, supported the selection of a twice-daily regimen in our challenge-study schedule (Day 0–5), aligning clinical operations with the drug's long terminal half-life and ensuring adequate exposure over 24-h cycles.

6.4 Translational link between PK and clinical applications

The combined pharmacokinetic evidence across species and administration routes clarifies why CPM performs differently in specific clinical scenarios. The long elimination half-life and active transport was energy-dependent, temperature- extensive tissue distribution observed in humans support

inhibited by verapamil and quinidine, confirming transporter specificity (Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005).

In addition to transporter effects, CPM shows moderate protein binding (~70%) and wide tissue distribution

(Ichimura and Jackson, 1985). Demonstrated that CPM's action on nasal vasculature might involve direct smooth muscle activation independent of extracellular

infrequent dosing and sustained receptor occupancy, whereas the rapid absorption and early peak concentrations following intranasal delivery make this route particularly suited for acute symptom relief and potential antiviral action. These kinetic distinctions provide a mechanistic foundation for matching CPM's pharmacokinetic properties to therapeutic objectives.

calcium, suggesting an alternate vasoconstrictive mechanism Preclinical data also contextualize clinical observations.

([Ichimura and Jackson, 1985](#)). Such effects could alter mucosal blood flow and modulate drug absorption dynamics ([Ichimura](#)

and bovine nasal studies demonstrate that mucosal vascularity, local vasoconstriction, and transporter-mediated efflux significantly

and Jackson, 1985).

influence CPM uptake. These mechanistic features align closely

These insights underscore the necessity of considering both

formulation and mucosal physiology in designing nasal and drug transmucosal systems. Carrier systems or transporter inhibitors

with findings from human intranasal studies, which show fast absorption, limited central nervous system penetration, and high early mucosal exposure factors relevant in conditions such as allergic rhinitis and early viral infection. may significantly improve CPM bioavailability in future formulations.

formulations (Rizvi et al., 2024; Kandimalla and Donovan, 2005). Mechanistically, these observations suggest that CPM is governed by a balance between rapid mucosal uptake and active efflux constraints, resulting in high early concentrations but limited sustained nasal retention. This interplay explains the rapid onset seen in intranasal human studies and provides a rationale for novel

formulation strategies aimed at enhancing residence time or transiently modulating efflux activity.

6.3 Consideration for dosing frequency

Given that Chlorpheniramine in adults exhibits a terminal elimination half-life consistently in the ~20–25 hr range across

Taken together, the integration of PK behavior and mechanistic data establishes a coherent translational framework. This synthesis supports ongoing efforts to design optimized intranasal, buccal, and modified-release formulations while informing dose selection, therapeutic timing, and future clinical study designs.

6.5 Clinical implications

Human studies have consistently shown the prolonged half-life and systemic persistence of CPM, supporting its efficacy as a long-acting antihistamine. However, variability in absorption highlights the importance of formulation design. Buccal and intranasal administration appear promising for rapid symptom relief in allergic conditions, while oral controlled-release formulations demonstrate inconsistent systemic exposure. The favorable pharmacokinetic profile of CPM, as observed in intravenous and multiple-dose oral studies (Kotz et al., 1982; Vallner et al., 1982; Huan et al., 1982), a 12-h dosing interval is

pharmacokinetically coherent and avoids unnecessary re-dosing at short intervals. In the human PK literature synthesized in our

manuscript, the parallel terminal slopes after repeated oral administration yielded half-lives of ≈ 25 h, and intravenous

tolerability profile observed across human studies, coupled with dose-dependent vascular effects in animals, supports the continued clinical use of CPM, while also emphasizing the need for careful dose selection. These findings collectively highlight how CPM's route-specific pharmacokinetic behavior can be leveraged to achieve rapid mucosal action for viral or allergic indications.

studies similarly reported terminal half-lives of ~22–23 h (Vallne et al., 1982; Huang et al., 1982); intranasal administration achieved rapid absorption ($T_{max} \approx 0.25\text{--}3\text{h}$) with systemic exposure comparable to oral dosing (Tooretal., 2001; Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2021; Sanchez-Gonzalez et al., 2022). The interval remains modest ($C_{max,ss}/C_{min,ss} \approx e^{kt} \approx 1.3\text{--}1.5$), indicating sustained H1-receptor coverage over each dosing interval without

Under these conditions, with $k = \ln 2 / t_{1/2} \approx 0.028\text{--}0.035\text{h}^{-1}$, the expected steady-state fluctuation across a 12-

6.6 Future perspective and challenges

Despite its long history of clinical use, substantial knowledge gaps remain in the pharmacokinetics of CPM, particularly regarding

modern delivery systems. Pharmacokinetic characterization of scale, contemporary formulations such as nasal sprays, bioadhesive gels, and buccal films has largely been limited to small, pharmacokinetic and heterogeneous studies, often with inconsistent endpoints and non-... sampling schedules. As a result, the comparative performance of these formulations remains difficult applications in infectious disease. Further large-well-designed clinical trials are warranted to confirm these promising results and to establish standardized to interpret, and optimal dosing strategies are yet to be established (Rizvi et al., 2024; Torres et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2020).

pharmacodynamic profiles across diverse populations.

Author contributions

Another key challenge is the significant interindividual variability observed in CPM exposure. Polymorphisms in

CA-P: Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Methodology Resources, Supervision, Validation, Writing—original draft,

CYP2D6, which plays a central role in CPM metabolism, along with age-related physiological changes, renal dysfunction, and comorbid conditions, may profoundly influence drug disposition.

Writing–reviewandediting.DP-V:Datauration,Investigation, Validation,Writing–originaldraft,Writing–reviewandediting. KG-
Z:Datauration,Investigation,Validation,Writing–original
Thes factors warrant systematic evaluation, particularly in draft,Writing–reviewandediting.GF:Conceptualization,

populationsmostlikelytobenefitfromnon-oraldeliveryroutes,
including pediatric, geriatric, and respiratory-compromised
patients ([Rizvietal.,2024](#);[LungandWang,1987](#)).

Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing – review and editing.

Several translational questions also require clarification. Although intranasal CPM has shown encouraging results in allergic rhinitis and early COVID-19 treatment, critical parameters such as dose–response relationship, therapeutic

timing, and comparative effectiveness versus existing standard-of-care therapies remain undefined. Addressing these gaps will be essential for determining the true clinical value of CPM in both

Funding

The author(s) declared that financial support was not received.

allergic and antiviral applications (Rizvi et al., 2024; Torres et al., 2021).

Looking ahead, future research should emphasize stereospecific

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank colleagues and collaborators who contributed to the discussions and insights that

pharmacokinetic assessment to clarify enantiomer-specific exposed differences; the establishment of harmonized PK/PD endpoints to enable cross-study comparisons; rigorous head-to-head evaluation of emerging formulation platforms; and the development of transporter-modulating or mucoadhesive delivery systems capable of enhancing mucosal retention and absorption

Population pharmacokinetic modeling may further help refine dosing recommendations and improve individualized therapy.

7 Conclusion

developmentofthismanuscript.

Conflict of interest

The author(s) declared that this work was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationship that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

absence of any commercial or financial relationship that could be

Generative AI statement

The pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of chlorpheniramine maleate (CPM) demonstrate marked

The author(s) declared that generative AI was not used in the

interspecies and formulation-dependent variability. Preclinical studies in rabbits, horses, dogs, cows, and rats consistently highlight differences in absorption rates, bioavailability, and half-life across species. These findings underscore the challenges of extrapolating animal data directly to humans and emphasize the need for stereospecific evaluation of CPM.

In humans, oral and buccal formulations achieve modest systemic exposure with variable bioavailability, whereas intranasal delivery emerges as the most promising route, achieving rapid mucosal absorption and favorable clinical outcomes. Recent trials of intranasal CPM in COVID-19 demonstrated improved symptom

creation of this manuscript.

Any alternative text (alt text) provided alongside figures in this article has been generated by Frontiers with the support of artificial intelligence and reasonable efforts have been made to ensure accuracy, including review by the authors wherever possible. If you identify any issues, please contact us.

Publisher's note

All claims expressed in this article are solely those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of their affiliated organizations. All rights reserved. No part of this article may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher. Frontiers reserves the right to remove additional content at any time if subsequent rights restrictions require it.

poolevidence suggesting benefits in mitigating long COVID.

Taken together, these findings position intranasal CPMA as a candidate for early therapeutic intervention in respiratory

illnesses,

bridging its historical antihistamine role with potential new

organizations, or those of the publisher, the editors and the reviewers. Any product that may be evaluated in this article, or claim that may be made by its manufacturer, is not guaranteed or endorsed by the publisher.

References

- Athanikar, N. K., and Chiou, W. L. (1979). Chlorpheniramine. II. Effect of the first-pass metabolism on the oral bioavailability in dogs. *J. Pharmacokinet. Biopharm.* 7, 383–396. doi:10.1007/BF01062536
- Chou, K. J., and Donovan, M. D. (1997). Distribution of antihistamines into the CSF.

Monaikul,S.,Trincot,C.,Esparza,C.,andHatoum,N.(2023).Chlorpheniramine single dose intranasal pharmacokinetics study in beagle dogs (study no.21-1280). Chicago, Illinois, 1–28. doi:10.5281/zenodo.17505107

Rizvi,S.A.A.,Ferrer,G.,Khawaja,U.A.,andSanchez-Gonzalez,M.A.(2024). following intranasal delivery. *Biopharm. Drug Dispos.* 18, 335–346.

Chlorpheniramin an old drug with new potential clinical applications: a

1099-081X(199705)18:4<335::AID-BDD22>3.0.CO;2-W

Ferrer,G.,Valerio-Pascua,F.,Alas-Pineda,C.,Gaitán-Zambrano,K.,andPavón-

Varela,D.J.(2025).Intranasal chlorpheniramine for early symptomatic treatment of COVID-19 and the impact on Long-COVID. *Cureus* 17, e82736. doi:10.7759/cureus.

- Hiep, B. T., Fernandez, C., Khanh, V., Hung, N. K., Thuillier, A., Farinotti, R., et al. (2000). Stereospecific versus nonstereospecific assessments for the bioequivalence of two formulations of racemic chlorpheniramine. *Chirality* 12, 599–605. doi:10.1002/1520-636X(2000)12:8<599::AID-CHIR1>3.0.CO;2-S
- Huang, S.-M., and Chiou, W. L. (1981). Pharmacokinetics and tissue distribution of chlorpheniramine in rabbits after intravenous administration. *J. Pharm. Biopharm.* 9, 711–723. doi:10.1007/BF01070902
- Huang, S.M., Athanikar, N.K., Sridhar, K., Huang, Y.C., and Chiou, W.L. (1982). Pharmacokinetics of chlorpheniramine after intravenous and oral administration in normal adults. *Eur. J. Clin. Pharmacol.* 22, 359–365. doi:10.1007/BF00548406
- Ichimura, K., and Jackson, R. T. (1985). Unusual effects of histamine antagonists on canine nasal blood vessels. *Ann. Otol. Rhinol. Laryngol.* 94, 313–318. doi:10.1177/000348948509400319
- Kandimalla, K.K., and Donovan, M.D. (2005). Carrier mediated transport of chlorpheniramine and chlorcyclizine across bovine olfactory mucosa: implications on nose-to-brain transport. *J. Pharm. Sci.* 94, 613–624. doi:10.1002/jps.20284
- Kim, K.H., Jun, M., and Lee, M.K. (2020). Bioavailability of the common cold medicines in jellies for oral administration. *Pharmaceutics* 12, 1–15. doi:10.3390/pharmaceutics12111073
- Kotzan, J. A., Vallner, J. J., Stewart, J. T., Brown, W. J., Viswanathan, C. T., Needham, T.E., et al. (1982). Bioavailability of regular and controlled-release chlorpheniramine products. *J. Pharm. Sci.* 71, 919–923. doi:10.1002/jps.2600710820
- Kuroda, T., Nagata, S., Takizawa, Y., Tamura, N., Kusano, K., Mizobe, F., et al. (2013). Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamics of d-chlorpheniramine following intravenous and oral administration in healthy thoroughbred horses. *Veterinary J.* 197, 433–437. doi:10.1016/j.tvjl.2013.02.003
- Lung, M.A., and Wang, J.C. (1987). Effects of H1 antihistamines on canine nasal vascular and airway resistances. *Rhinology* 25, 95–100. Available online at: https://www.rhinologyjournal.com/Rhinology_issues/manuscript_2024.pdf.

resolution of racemic chlorpheniramine and its stereoselective pharmacokinetics in rat plasma. *J.Pharm.Pharmacol.* 44,44–47. doi:10.1111/j.2042-7158.1992.tb14361.x

Sanchez-Gonzalez, M., Rizvi, S. A., Torres, J., and Ferrer, G. (2021). A randomized controlled pilot trial to test the efficacy of intranasal chlorpheniramine maleate with xylitol for the treatment of allergic rhinitis. *Cureus* 13,13. doi:10.7759/cureus.14206

Sanchez-Gonzalez, M., Westover, J., Rizvi, S., Torres, J., and Ferrer, G. (2022). Intranasal chlorpheniramine maleate for the treatment of COVID-19: Translational and clinical evidence. *Med. Res. Arch.* 10,10. doi:10.18103/mra.v10i3.2752

Sekhar, K. C., Naidu, K. V. S., Vishnu, Y. V., Gannu, R., Kishan, V., and Rao, Y. M. (2008). Transbuccal delivery of chlorpheniramine maleate from mucoadhesive buccal patches. *Drug Deliv.* 15,185–191. doi:10.1080/10717540801952639

Toor, B. S. J. van., Buchwald, A., Stengele, E., Trenk, D., Gercek, C., and Mey, C. M. de (2001). Systemic bioavailability of nasally applied chlorpheniramine maleate (0.4% nasal spray) relative to tablets administered perorally. *Int.J.Clin.Pharmacol.Ther.* 39, 173–178. doi:10.5414/CPP39173

Torres, J., Go, C. C., Chohan, F. A., Sanchez-Gonzalez, M. A., and Ferrer, G. (2021). Chlorpheniramine maleate as a nasal spray in COVID-19 patients: a case series. *Sustain. Switz.* 11,1–14. doi:10.21203/rs.3.rs-138252/v1

Tricco, A. C., Lillie, E., Zarin, W., O'Brien, K. K., Colquhoun, H., Levac, D., et al. (2018). PRISMA extension for scoping reviews (PRISMA-ScR): checklist and explanation. *Ann. Intern. Med.* 169,467–473. doi:10.7326/M18-0850

Tung, H. B., Fernandez, C., Tod, M., Banide, N., Thuillier, A., Lacour, B., et al. (2001). Intestinal absorption and metabolism of Chlorpheniramine enantiomers in rat, 207–213.

Valerio-Pascua, F., Baires, F., Sekhon, A. K., Tesch, M. L., Pineda, E. J., Rizvi, S. A. A., et al. (2024). Mitigating the risks of post-acute sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection (PASC) with intranasal chlorpheniramine: perspectives from the ACCROS studies. *BMC Infect. Dis.* 24,1348. doi:10.1186/s12879-024-10211-8

Vallner, J. J., Kotzan, J. A., Stewart, J. T., Brown, W. J., Honigberg, I. L., Needham, T. E., et al. (1982). Blood levels following multiple oral dosing of chlorpheniramine conventional and controlled release preparations. *Biopharm. Drug Dispos.* 3,95–104. doi:10.1002/bdd.2510030203