

Basic pharmacological terminology

Drug classification

Mechanisms of drug effects

Basics of pharmacokinetics

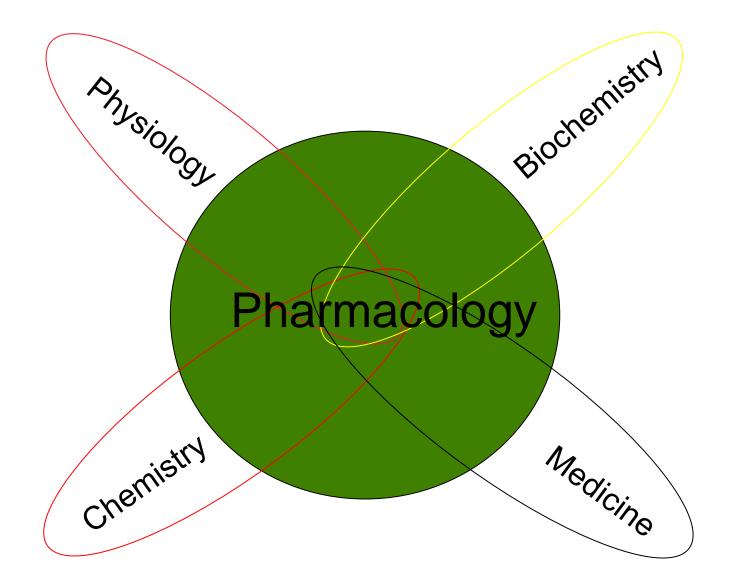
Literature

Pharmacology. Edited by Michelle Alexia Clark. 5th ed. Baltimore: Wolters Kluwer Health/Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, 2012. xii, 612. ISBN 9781451113143.

In IS: Pharmacology for students of bachelor's programmes at MF MU (special part)

Basic pharmacological terminology

A synthesis of several biomedical sciences....



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...but unique in its own right

Pharmacology, definition, aims

"pharmacon" + "logos" / "logia"

Scientific discipline dealing with **INTERACTIONS BETWEEN SUBSTANCES..**

introduced into the organism from the environment

.. AND THE LIVING ORGANISM

on all levels of complexity:

molecular

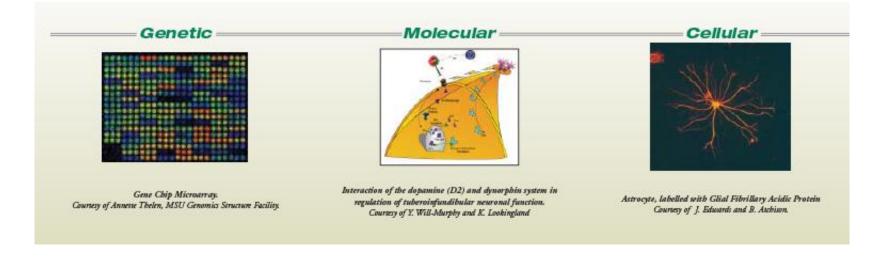
cellular

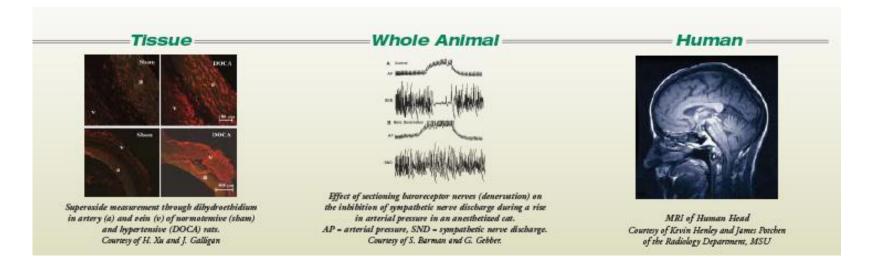
organ

organism as a whole

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Pharmacologists study science at every level





DRUG

"substance or mixture of substances, suppopsed to be administered to the humans or animals for prevention, treatment or diagnosis of diseases or its symptomes or for physiological function adjustment"

Drugs are administered for

- Prevention,
- Diagnosis,
- Treatment of disseases

What Pharmacology is NOT...

* Pharmacy

This is a separate profession responsible for the preparation and dispensation of medication.

***** Pharmaceutical Science

Basic Pharmacology

General principles

Systems Pharmacology

General principles

Principles which predestinate the interactions of the drug and body

Two important and interrelated areas:

- General Pharmacokinetics

- General Pharmacodynamics

Pharmacokinetics (PK)

Deals with the fate of the drug in the body – processes of

Absorption, Distribution "What the body makes with the drug" Metabolism Excretion …"ADME"

Pharmacodynamics (PD)

deals with the mechanism of action (e.g. receptor sites, molecular level of action..)

"How does it work"

→

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Systems Pharmacology

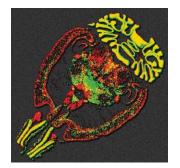
Is focused on individual organ systems and its pharmacotherapy

e.g. Autonomic drugs Psychoactive drugs Drugs used in cardiovascular diseases....

Systems Pharmacology

Neuropharmacology: study of the effect of drugs on components of the nervous system (brain, spinal cord, nerves)

Example: treatment of Alzheimer's disease



Cardiovascular Pharmacology: study of the effects of drugs on heart, vasculature, kidney, nervous and endocrine systems that participate in cardiovascular function.

Example: treatment of high blood pressure (hypertension)



Branches of Pharmacology

Clinical pharmacology

- deals with different drugs and their varied clinical usage
- interdisciplinary branch, which integrates basic and experimental Pharmacology with the clinical and complementary branches

AIM: to study and evaluate the effect of the drug using objective methods (EBM)

Sub-branches of clinical pharmacology:

Clinical Pharmacokinetics, clin. Pharmacodynamics, Rational prescribing, Clinical toxicology

Toxicology

the study of the toxic effects of chemicals on living organisms

study of symptoms, mechanisms, treatments and detection of poisoning

experimental (in vitro, in vivo)

clinical - poisoning prophylaxis, diagnosis, treatment

forensic toxicology...

Pharmacogenetics

deals with the influence of genetic variation on Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics

study of the drug response in patients by correlating gene expression or singlenucleotide polymorphisms with a drug's efficacy or toxicity

consequences can be either quantitative or qualitative

Biochemical and molecular pharmacology

detail study of the mechanism of action at molecular level

Chronopharmacology

Study of the action of the drugs with respect to the biorhythm

(antiasthmatics, glukocorticoids, statins, etc.)

Pharmacovigilance

Pharmacological science relating to the detection, assessment, understanding and prevention of adverse effects

collecting, monitoring, researching and evaluating information from healthcare providers and patients on the adverse effects of medication

Drug safety monitoring

AIM: to minimize the risk of adverse effects

Pharmacoepidemiology

- study of the **effect of drugs on populations**; questions dealing with the influence of genetics are particularly important

risks and benefits of the therapy using epidemiological methods

Approach of the health specialists (GP, pharmacist)

patient (compliance)

society (drug abuse, marketing, financial resources...)

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Pharmacoeconomy

- rationalize the use of sources in health care

- Compares the costs of therapeutic approaches by the pharmacoeconomical analyses

The goal is not "to decrease total money spent in health care", but to use the sources effectively

Experimental pharmacology

Biological experiment

in vitro – isolated structures or organs,

cell cultures, microorganisms

- regulatory factors we have to satisfy:

ethical (replacement, refinement, reduction)

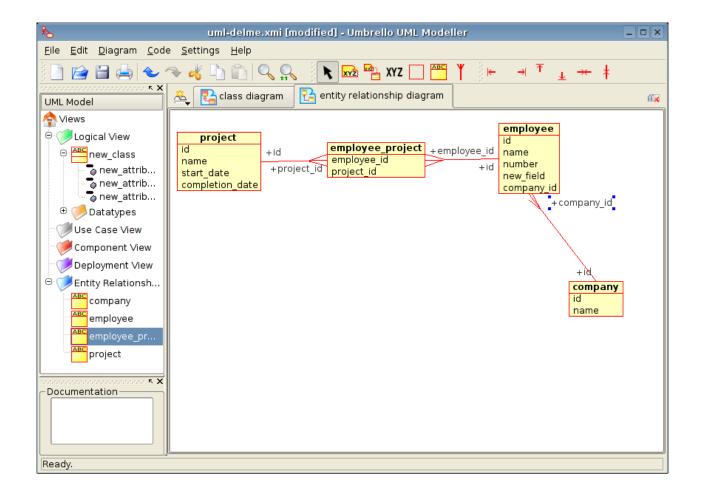
☺ small amounts of drugs

 \odot use of human cells

⊗ elimination of systhemic reaction of the whole body

Biological experiment

<u>in silico</u> – use of IT, especially computer modelling (f-kinetics), databases



Biological experiment

<u>in vivo –</u> whole animal

- systhemic effects
- we record toxicity, possible adverse and alergic effects
- impact on memory and other cognitive faculties, learning abilities, depression

Drug classification

Drug names

Chemical name

according to the IUPAC (International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry) nomenclature rules e.g.: N-acetyl-para aminophenol

Generic name (non-proprietary) INN (International Non-proprietary Name)

not registered, supposed to be used internationally has to be printed on the packing of the drug (under the registered trade name) for the universal terminological identification of the medicines formed from the chemical name (shortness) accordingly with the rules (WHO) each drug has its own CAS No (Chemical Abstracts Sevice Number)

e.g. paracetamol

Drug names

Trade name (proprietary)

registered, patent-protected [®] has to be acompanied with the INN e.g. Panadol, Coldrex, Paralen

Officinal name

latin name in Pharmacopoeia (e.g. Paracetamolum) usually very similar to INN has to be prescribed on Rx formulary in case of individually prescribed medicines established name for a drug substance is usually found in the originating country's Pharmacopeia Paracetamolum

...

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Some drug-family names

-olol	beta receptor antagonists
-caine	local anaestethics
-tidine	histamine receptor antagonists
-dipine	calcium channel blockers of dihydropyridine type
-statin	inhibitors of HMG CoA transferase

"GENERICS"

Drug which is produced and distributed after ending of patent protection - mostly manufactured by other company which has not developed the original drug (the same active substance!) Mostly cheaper than original preparation

Assumed to be identical in dose, strength, route of administration, safety, efficacy, and intended use

Bioequivalent trials are needed before registration

Registration procedures are much easier than in orig. preparation

Drug patents give 10 years of protection, but they are applied for before clinical trials begin, so the *effective* life of a drug patent tends to be between 7 and 12 years

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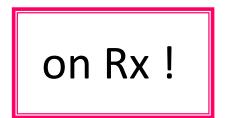
DOSE

A specified quantity of a therapeutic agent, prescribed to be taken at one time or at stated intervals.

If administered in the body, desintegrates, solutes, and distribute across the barriers in the body compartments. Than it is measured like "concentration"

DOSE

DOSIS SINGULA - single dose



DOSIS PRO DIE - daily dose

- for 24 h !!

DOSIS CHRONICA

- (adjusted) dose in the chronic treatment (long-term)

Basics of pharmacokinetics

Basic principles of pharmacokinetics

Pharmacokinetics is aimed on this processes:

absorption

distribution

biotransformation

excretion of drugs

and their relation to pharmacologic (therapeutic or toxic) effects

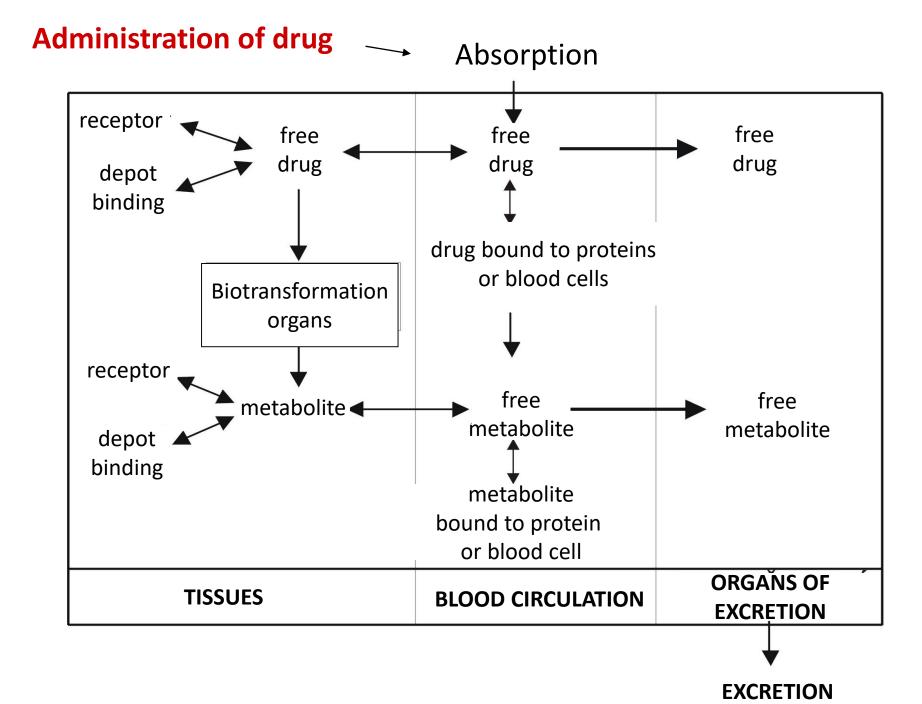
Pharmacokinetics

absorption distribution metabolism excretion



- processes of **ADME**

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Absorption – routes of administration

- penetration of dissolved drug from the site of administration to blood
 (systemic circulation) necessary for general effect systemic effect
- Local effect:
 - on skin, mucosas or ventricles
 - absorption is undesirable possible AE
 - ie. local corticoids, local anesthetics

Speed and **extent** of absorption are described by P-kinetic parameters:

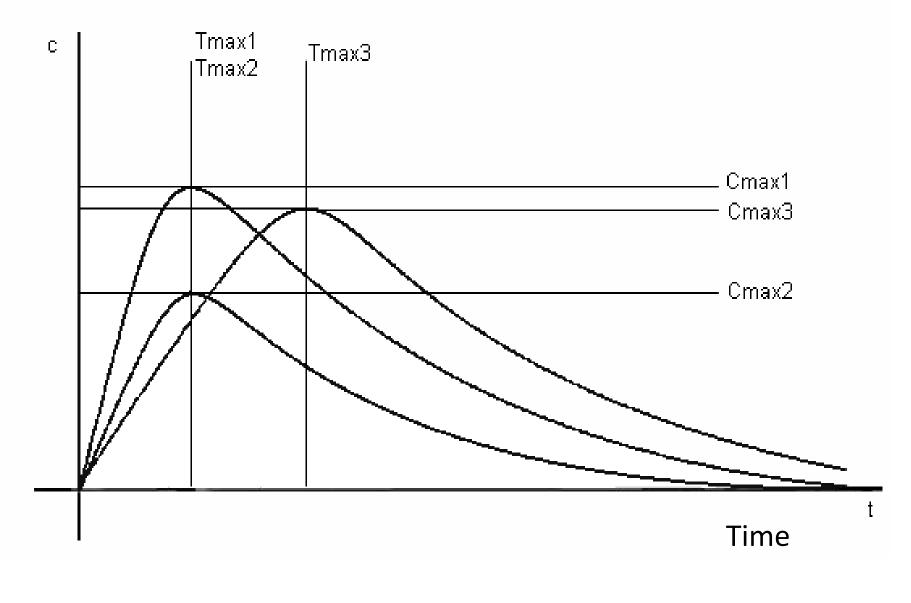
C_{max} max. concentration of drug in plasma after single dose

T_{max} time, when drug reach c_{max} (speed)

F bioavailability (extent)

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Concentration of drug



Bioavailability- F

how much from the administered dose get to circulation

extravascular administration - 0-100% (resp. 0-1)

intravenous (intravascular) - 100% = 1

 if F is < 20 % = 0 - 0,2 - it not worth to administer the drug by this way (some of them are administered through that - SET, bisfosfonates)

- the measure of bioavailability is the area under the curve (AUC)

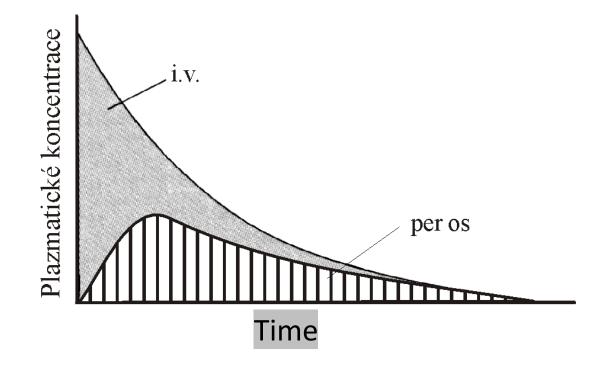
http://icp.org.nz/icp_t6.html

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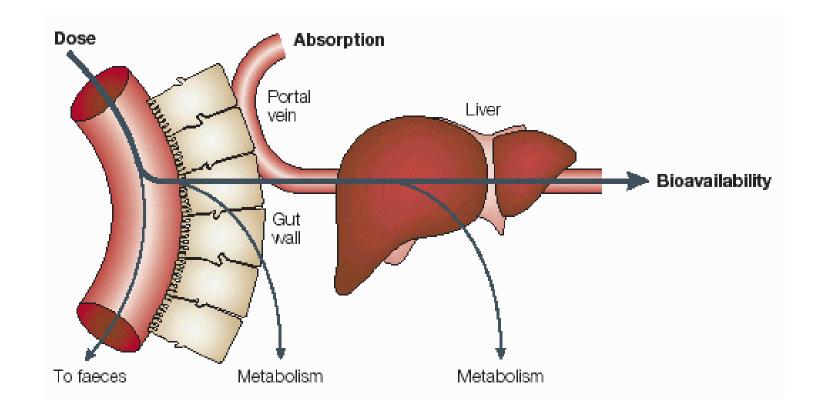
$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{\mathbf{AUC}_{\mathbf{po}}}{\mathbf{AUC}_{\mathbf{iv}}}$$

AUC – area under the curve



Presystemic elimination

First pass effect



http://icp.org.nz/icp_t6.html?htmlCond=1

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Other factors influencing drug absorption

- gender, weight, plasmatic volume, speed of gastric discharging
- age pH, bile, enzymes
- pathophysiological defect diseases of liver, inflammation ...
- body constitution (BW/LBM)
- diet
- acceleration/ decceleration
- chemical incompatibilities
- GIT functionality

Distribution

– Penetration of drug from blood to tissues, dynamic proces where we are interested in:

speed of distribution - depends on:				
bindings				
membrane penetration				
organ perfusion				

Volume of distributionV_d

- hypothetic, theoretical volume
- rate between amount of drug in organism and plastmatic concentration

$$\mathbf{Vd} = \frac{\mathbf{D} \cdot \mathbf{F}}{\mathbf{C}_0} [\mathbf{l}]$$

http://icp.org.nz/icp_t3.html?htmlCond=0

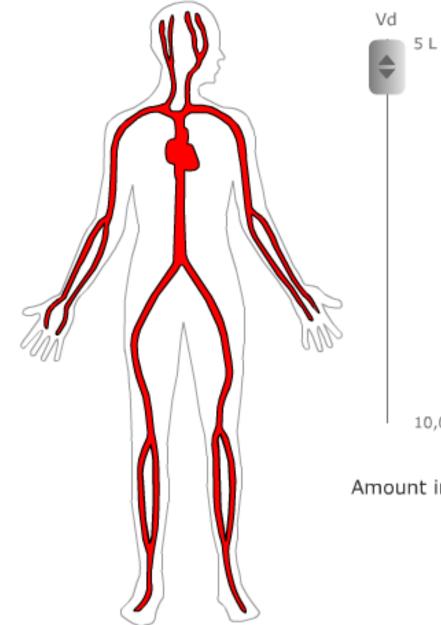
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The apparent volume of distribution, Vd, is defined as the volume that would contain the total body content of the drug at a concentration equal to that present in the plasma

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Drug concentrated in blood stream

Drug in blood and extracellular space

Drug equally distributed in blood and tissues

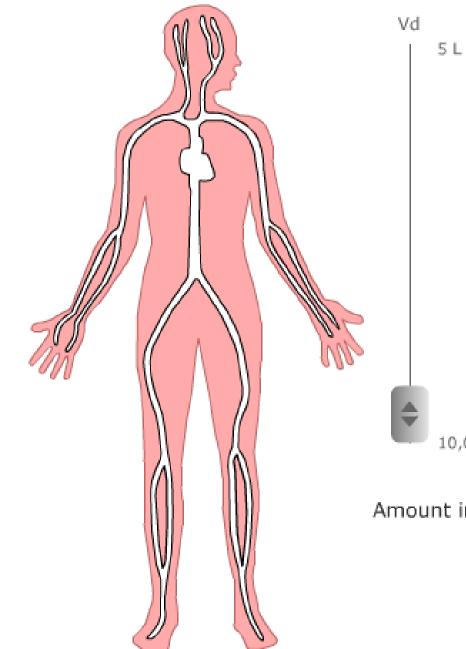
Drug moderately concentrated in tissues

Drug highly concentrated in tissues (usually adipose)

10,000 L

Amount in body = Vd x plasma concentration

 $Ab = Vd \times Cp$ $Vd = \frac{Ab}{Cp}$



Drug concentrated in blood stream

Drug in blood and extracellular space

Drug equally distributed in blood and tissues

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10,000 L

Amount in body = Vd x plasma concentration

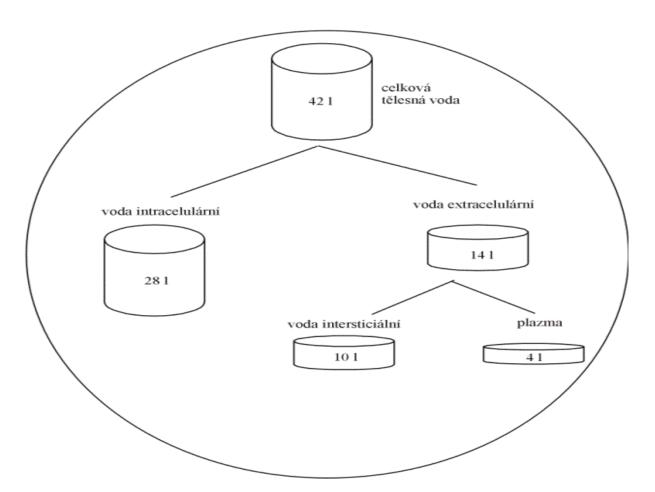
$$Ab = Vd \times Cp$$

 $Vd = \frac{Ab}{Cp}$

Vd = hypothetical volume,

Final value of Vd can be even 50000 liters (antimalarial drugs). What does this value tell us:

We can assess distribution of the drug in the body.



Distribution

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Assessment of the effect of hemodialysis and hemoperfusion

- drugs with higher Vd can not be eliminate from the body by these technics

Biotransformation - metabolism

- Predominantly in liver, but also in other organs and parts of body

Enzymatic processes

– bioactivation (prodrug)

cyclophosphamide – phosphoramide

– biodegradation

Biotransformation - metabolism

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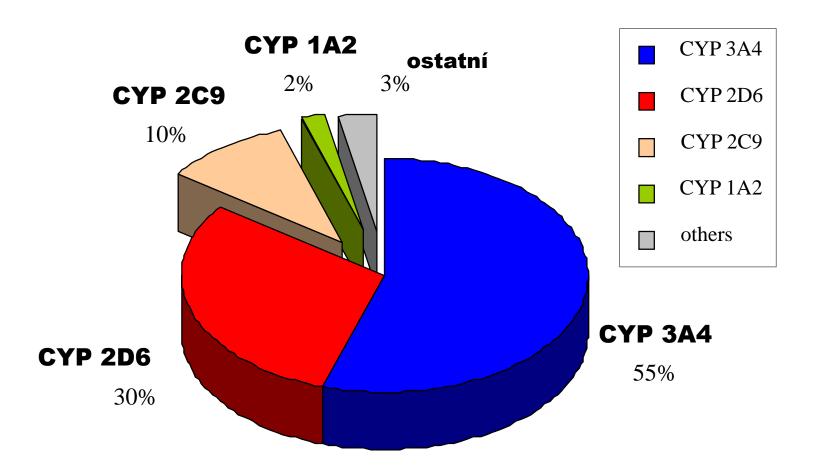
1. Phase:

- oxidation, hydrolysis \rightarrow drug is still partly lipophilic
- cytochromes P450, dehydrogenases
- 2. Phase:
 - conjugation \rightarrow molecules becomes hydrophilic

Metabolites

- effective ("more/less")
- inneffective
- toxic





Inducers of CYP450

- dexametazon
- fenobarbital
- rifampicine
- fenytoin
- St. John's worth (Hypericum *perforatum*)
- Maidenhair Tree (Ginkgo biloba)

Inhibitors of CYP450

- antidepressants (fluoxetin, fluvoxamin, paroxetin)
- chinin, chinidin
- chloramphenicol, erytromycine
- ketokonazol, itrakonazol
- grapefruit juice



kidneys bile lungs

Saliva, skin, hair, milk...

Excretion by kidney

- MW < 60.000 D (MW of albumin = 68.000 D)</p>
- glomerular filtration
- tubular secretion
 - organic acids

 furosemide
 thiazide diuretics
 penicilins
 glukuronids

 organic bases
 - morfin

tubular reabsorption

diazepam

alkalization

natrium hydrogencarbonate

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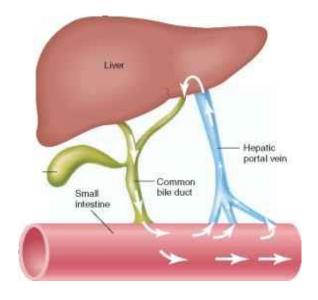
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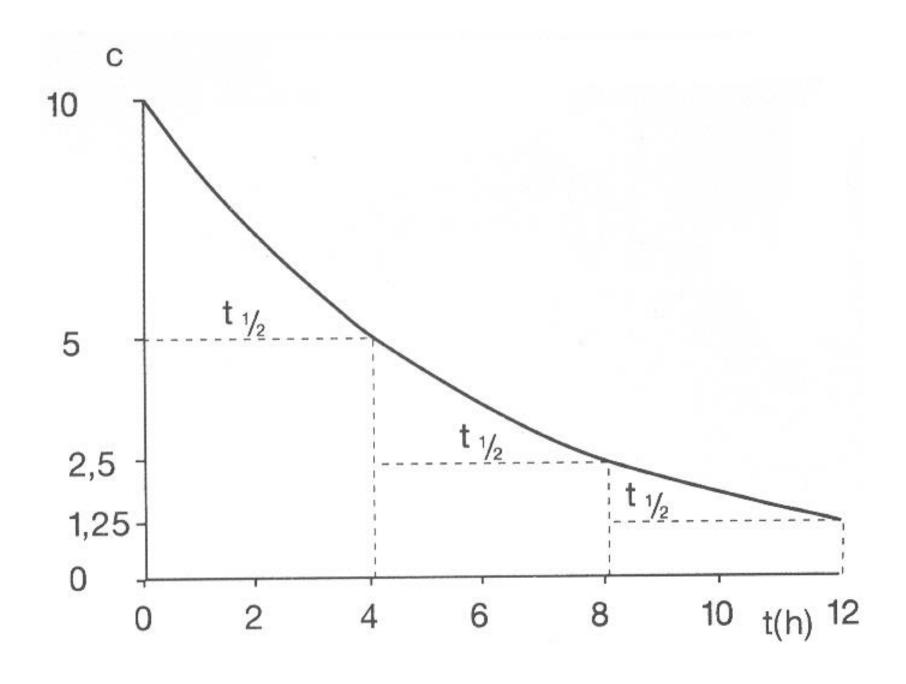
acidification ammonium chloride

Excretion by liver

- Substances permeate through 2 membranes of hepatocytes basolateral and apical (canalicular)
- Metabolites are excreted primary by pasive diffusion, further by active transport (glucuronides, bile acids, penicillins, tetracyclines, etc.)
- Metabolites can be deconjugated by bacterial enzymes in intestine \rightarrow release of lipophilic molecule \rightarrow re-absorption

= ENTEROHEPATIC CIRCULATION





Basics of pharmacodynamics (mechanisms of drug actions)

Mechanism of drug actions

non-receptor

receptor

I. Non-specific drug effects

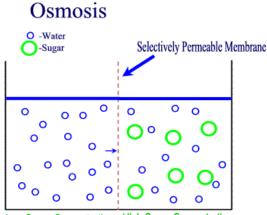
...through by the general physical-chemical properties of substances - no specific chemical and structural configuration of drugs is needed

- influencing pH
- oxidating and reducing agents
- protein precipitation
- adsorbents / detergents
- chelating agents

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a. based on osmotic properties -

- e.g. salinic laxatives (magnesium sulphate, lactulosa)
- osmotic diuretics (mannitol)



Low Sugar Concentration High Sugar Concentration High Water Concentration Low Water Concentration

 $M \vdash I$

b. influencing acid-base balance

- Antacids
- aluminium hydroxide
- magnesium carbonate
- calcium carbonate
- sodium bicarbonate
- pH modifiers (blood, urine)
 - Sodium bicarbonate, ammonium chloride

c. based on oxido – reducing properties

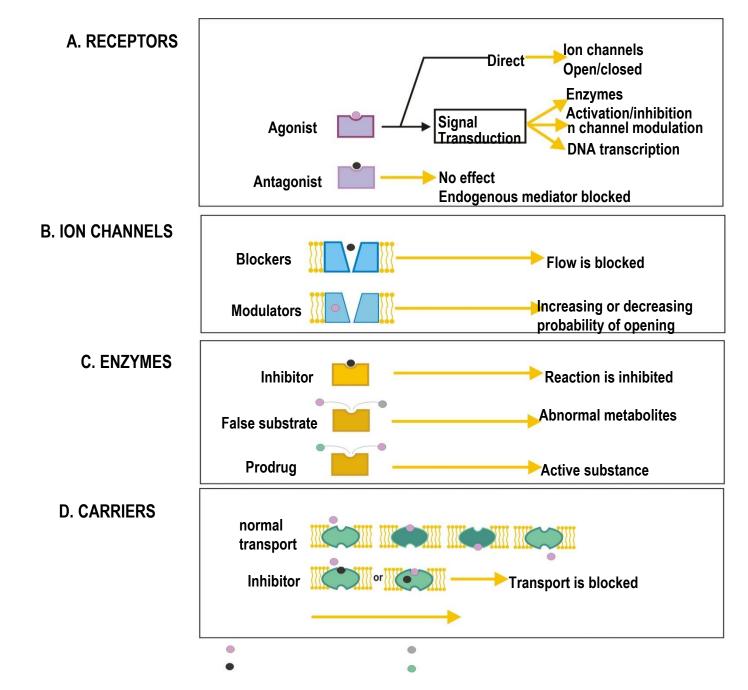
- e.g. 3% hydrogen peroxide, boric acid, fenols
- chlorhexidine act as antiseptics

d. chelates (chelating agents)

ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) is a chelating agent,
 it can form bonds with a metal ion

II. Specific drug effects

- binding to receptors
- affecting ion channels
- > affecting enzymes
- > affecting transporters



A. Receptor – effector system

= complex of processes

extracelullar signal -----> intracell. signal cascade-----> effector (own effect)

receptor = protein, which interacts ligands

- involved in signal transduction
- effector = enzyme, ionic channel etc. change in the activity leads to the effect of drug
- Iigand (signal molecule) = molecule able to bind to specific receptor
 - endogenous neurotransmitters, hormones
 - exogenous xenobiotics, drugs

Receptor – effector system

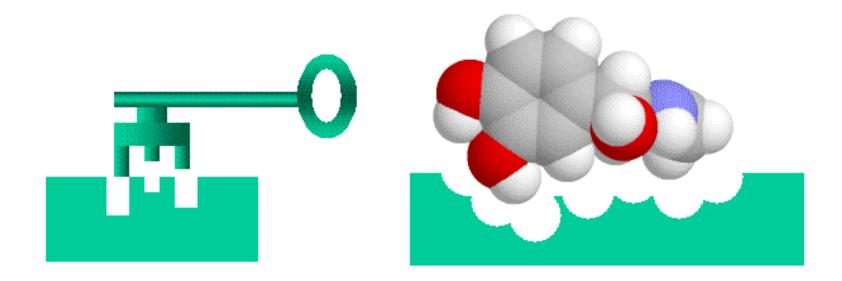
– Affinity

✓ the ability of the ligand to bind to the receptor

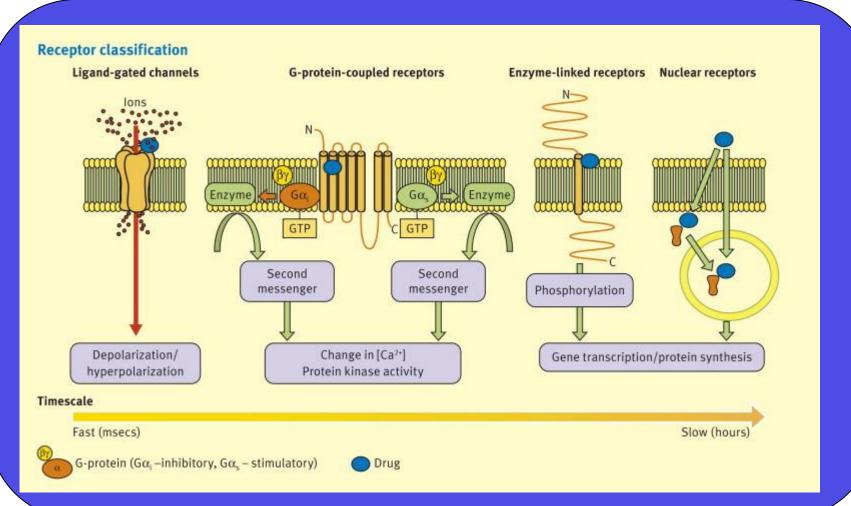
Instrinsic activity

- ability to evoke an effect after binding to receptor
 - !!!the presence of sufficient number of receptor for the induction of pharmacological effect is essential as well as sufficient amounts of receptor ligand!!!

Receptor – effector system



Receptor classification



4 main type of receptors

	Type 1 Receptors connected with ion channels	Type 2 G-protein coupled receptor	Type 3 Receptor tyrosin kinases	Type 4 Intracellular (nuclear) receptors
Place	Membrane	Membrane	Membrane	Intracellular
Efector	lon channel	Channel or enzyme	Enzyme	Gene transcription
Binding	direct	G-protein	direct	DNA mediated
Examples	Nicotin-cholinergic receptor, GABA receptor	Muscarin-cholinergic adrenoreceptors	Inzulin, growth factor, cytokin receptor	Steroids, thyroid hormon receptors
Structure	Oligomer composed by subunits surrounding center of the channel	Monomer (or dimer) containing 7 transmembrane helical domains.	Single transmembrane helical domain interconencted with extracelular kinase	Monomer structure with separate receptor and DNA binding domain

Rang and Dale Pharmacology, 2012

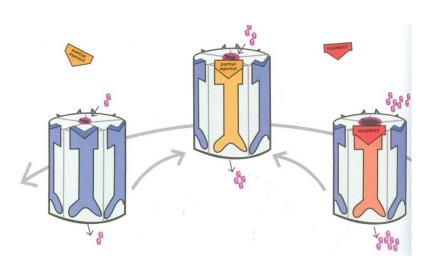
Ligand classification (intrinsic activity) AGONISTS

Full agonist

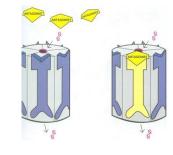
- IA = 1

Partial agonist

- dualist
- IA in a range from 0< to >1



Ligand classification

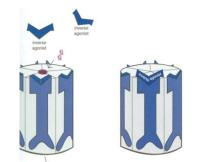


Antagonists

- ✓ IA = 0
- ✓ Blocks agonist binding to receptor

Inverse agonist

✓ IA = -1

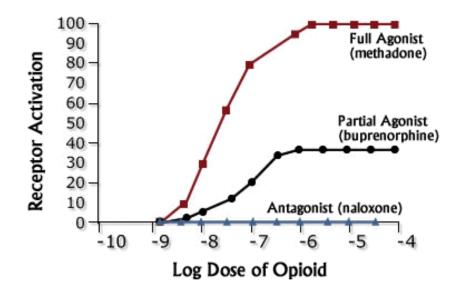


✓ Stabilizesthe receptor in the constitutive activity

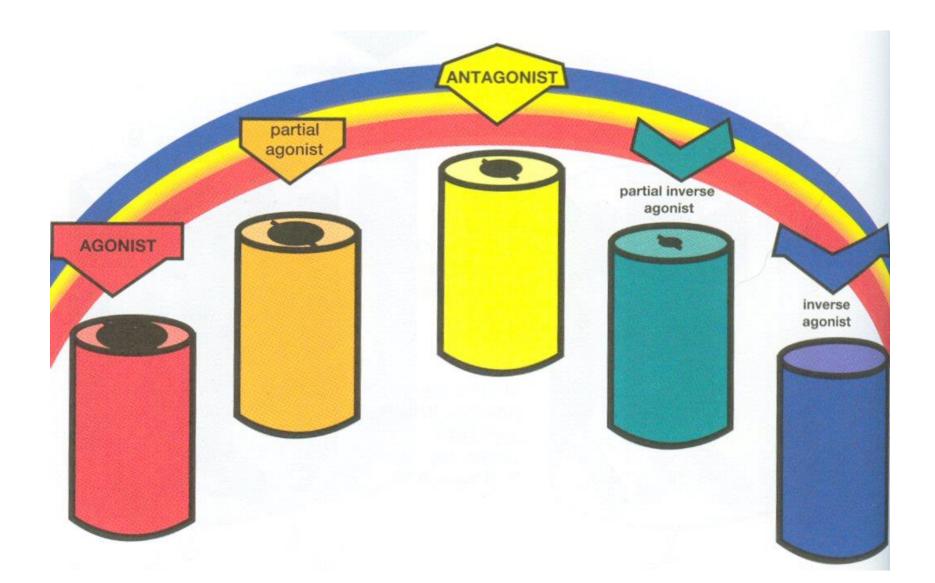
Receptor-effector system

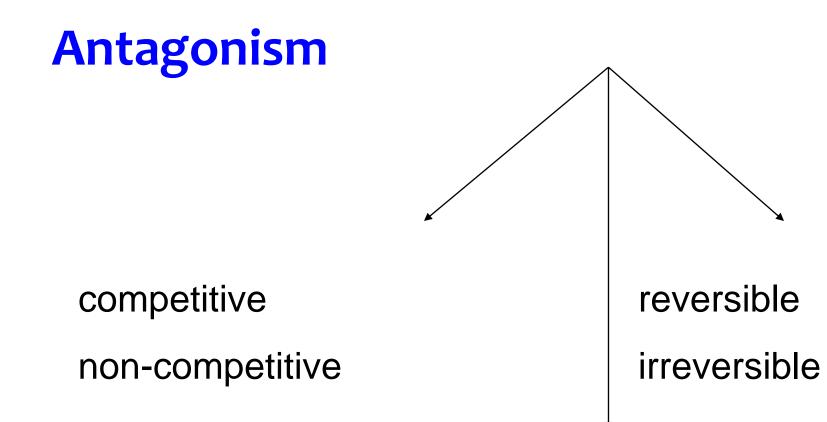
Relation between dose and effect

Receptor Activation: Full Agonist, Partial Agonist, Antagonist



Spectrum of ligands





at the receptor level at the function level

UII Competitive

Antagonism

✓ ligands compete for the same binding site

- ✓ ↑ c of antagonist decreases agonist effect and inversely
- ✓ the presence of antagonist incerases the amounts of agonist needed to evoke the effect

Non-competitive

- ✓ allosteric antagonism
- ✓ irreverzible bounds
- \checkmark \uparrow c of agonist does not interrupt the effect of antagonist



Regulation of receptor function

Regulation of receptor sensitivity and counts

Receptor desensitization

- reducing the sensitivity of the receptors after repeated agonist exposure
- <u>Tachyphylaxis</u> acute drug "tolerance"
 - reduced sensitivity to the active substance evolving quickly (minutes) → distortion of the signal cascade
 - the reactivity of the organism returns to the original intensity after the elimination of the substance
 - Example of tachyphylaxis ephedrine
- <u>Tolerance</u> reduced sensitivity to the active substance, arising from the repeated administration of the drug (days weeks) \rightarrow down-regulation, internalization of the

receptors

- to achieve the original effect required increasingly higher doses of drug
- the original reactivity of the organism returns to a certain period of time after discontinuation of the drug
- Example of tolerance opioids administration

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✓incerase of receptor sensitivity/counts after chronic

anatagonist exposure

Rebound phenomenom

after discontinuation of long-term administered drugs return to its original state or \uparrow intensity of the original condition (hypersensitivity of receptors to endogenous ligands \rightarrow upregulation)

Example: chronic administration of β blockers

B. Non-receptor mechanism of action

Interaction with "non-receptor" proteins

- 1. enzyme inhibition
- 2. block of ion channels
- 3. block of transporters

1. Enzyme inhibition

reversible

acetylcholinesteraze – physostigmine

• irreversible:

- cyklooxygenase ASA (aspirin)
 aldehyddehydrogenaze disulfiram

2. Ion channels

- Calcium channel blockers (nifedipin, isradipin...)
- Natrium channel blockers local anesthetics

3. "Carriers"

Proton pump inhibitors (PPIs) – omeprazol

