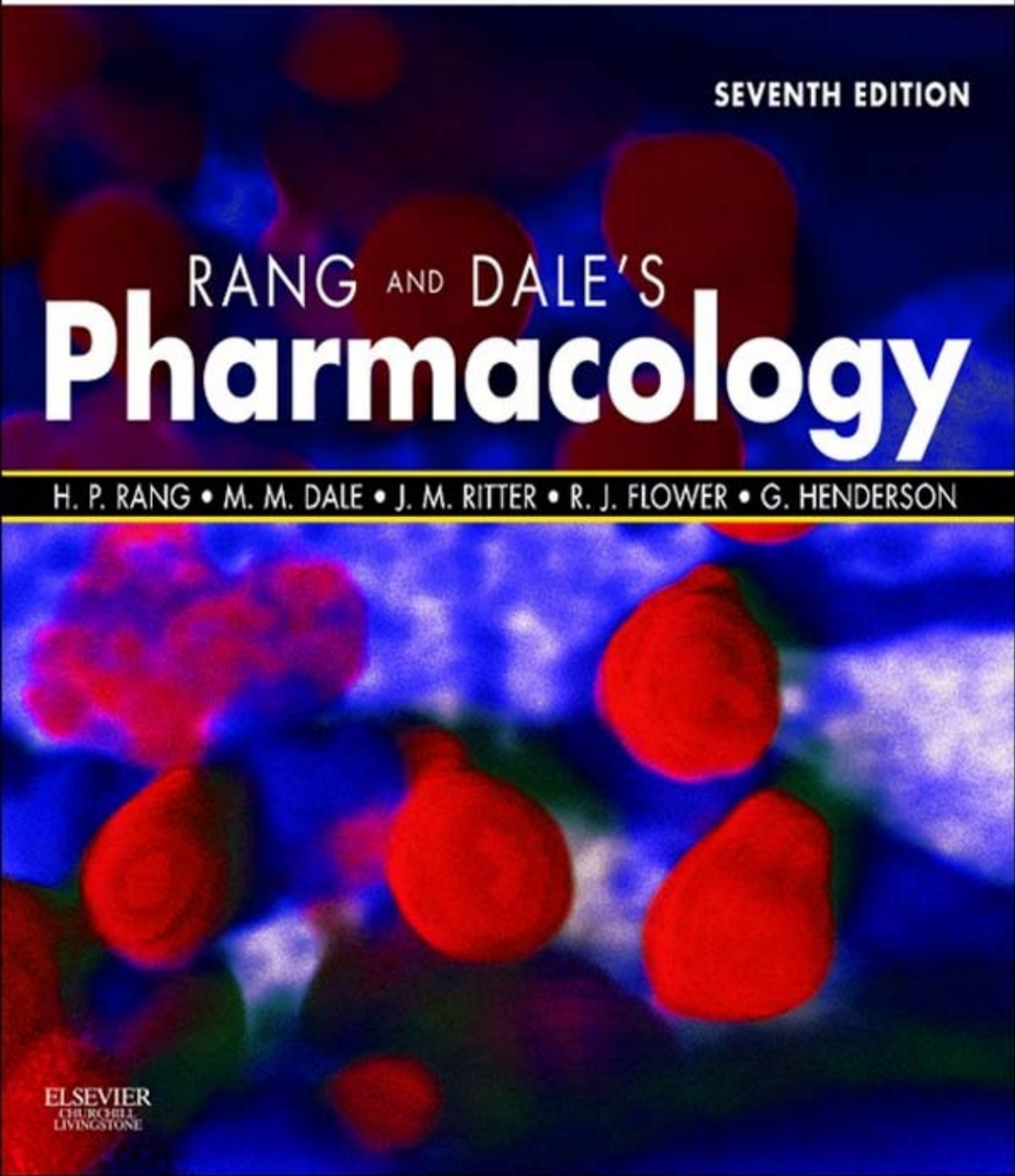
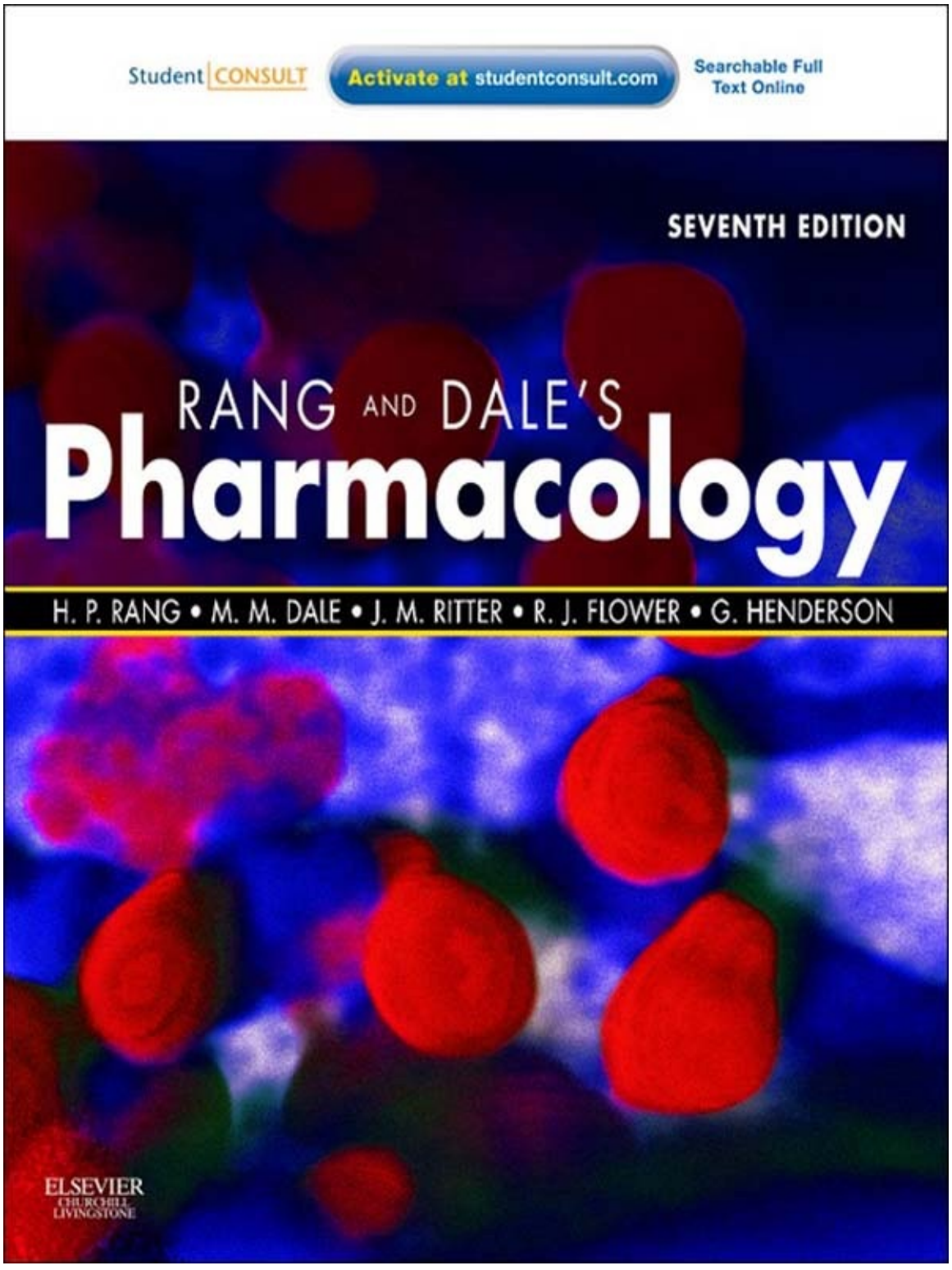
Student CONSULT
Activate at studentconsult.com
Searchable Full Text Online




Student CONSULT
Activate at studentconsult.com
Searchable Full Text Online
SEVENTH EDITION
RANG AND DALE'S
Pharmacology
H. P. RANG • M. M. DALE • J. M. RITTER • R. J. FLOWER • G. HENDERSON
ELSEVIER
CHURCHILL LIVINGSTONE

Rang and Dale's Pharmacology

Seventh Edition

H P Rang, MB BS MA DPhil Hon FBPharmacolS FMedSci FRS
Emeritus Professor of Pharmacology, University College London, London, UK

M M Dale, MB BCh PhD
Senior Teaching Fellow, Department of Pharmacology, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

J M Ritter, DPhil FRCP FBPharmacolS FMedSci Emeritus Professor of Clinical Pharmacology, King's College London, London, UK

R J Flower, PhD DSc FBPharmacolS FMedSci FRS
Professor, Biochemical Pharmacology, The William Harvey Research Institute, Barts and the London School of Medicine and Dentistry, Queen Mary University of London, London, UK

G Henderson, BSc PhD FBPharmacolS
Professor of Pharmacology, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

Churchill Livingstone

Front Matter

Rang and Dale's Pharmacology

SEVENTH EDITION

H P Rang MB BS MA DPhil Hon FBPharmacolS FMedSci FRS

Emeritus Professor of Pharmacology, University College London, London, UK

M M Dale MB BCh PhD

Senior Teaching Fellow, Department of Pharmacology, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

J M Ritter DPhil FRCP FBPharmacolS FMedSci

Emeritus Professor of Clinical Pharmacology, King's College London, London, UK

R J Flower PhD DSc FBPharmacolS FMedSci FRS

Professor, Biochemical Pharmacology, The William Harvey Research Institute, Barts and the London School of Medicine and Dentistry, Queen Mary University of London, London, UK

G Henderson BSc PhD FBPharmacolS

Professor of Pharmacology, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

ELSEVIER
CHURCHILL
LIVINGSTONE **Edinburgh, London, New York, Oxford, Philadelphia, St Louis, Sydney, Toronto 2012**

For additional online content visit www.expertconsult.com

Expert CONSULT

Cover image shows white blood cells emigrating from blood vessels.

The inner surface of blood vessels are lined with endothelial cells which express a protein called PECAM-1 at the junction between cells, and less strongly on the cell body. This protein was labelled red with a fluorescently tagged antibody, and genetic modification was used to make the white blood cells (leukocytes) express green fluorescent protein. These can be seen sticking to the endothelial cells, and beginning to transmigrate through the blood vessel wall in response to an inflammatory stimulus.

The image was captured by confocal microscopy with laser excitation of the green and red fluorescent labels. A series of flat images through the vessel were taken, and these slices were reconstructed to make a 3D object.

Image generated by S. Nourshagh, A. Woodfin and M. Benoit-Voisin (William Harvey Research Institute, London).

Commissioning Editor: Madelene Hyde

Development Editor: Alexandra Mortimer

Editorial Assistant: Kirsten Lowson

Project Manager: Elouise Ball

Design: Stewart Larking

Illustration Manager: Gillian Richards

Illustrator: Richard Tibbitts

Marketing Manager(s) (UK/USA): Deborah Watkins/Jason Oberacker

Copyright

ELSEVIER
CHURCHILL
LIVINGSTONE is an imprint of Elsevier Inc.

© 2012, Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

First edition 1987

Second edition 1991

Third edition 1995

Fourth edition 1999

Fifth edition 2003

Sixth edition 2007

The right of H P Rang, M M Dale, J M Ritter, R J Flower and G Henderson to be identified as authors of this work has been asserted by them in accordance with the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988.

No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher. Details on how to seek permission, further information about the Publisher's permissions policies and our arrangements with organisations such as the Copyright Clearance Center and the Copyright Licensing Agency, can be found at our website: www.elsevier.com/permissions.

Notices

Knowledge and best practice in this field are constantly changing. As new research and experience broaden our understanding, changes in research methods, professional practices, or medical treatment may become necessary. Practitioners and researchers must always rely on their own experience and knowledge in evaluating and using any information, methods, compounds or experiments described herein. In using such information or methods they should be mindful of their own safety and the safety of others, including parties for whom they have a professional responsibility.

With respect to any drug or pharmaceutical products identified, readers are advised to check the most current information provided (i) on procedures featured or (ii) by the manufacturer of each product to be administered, to verify the recommended dose or formula, the method and duration of administration, and contraindications. It is the responsibility of practitioners, relying on their own experience and knowledge of their patients, to make diagnoses, to determine dosages and the best treatment for each individual patient, and to take all appropriate safety precautions.

To the fullest extent of the law, neither the Publisher nor the authors, contributors or editors, assume any liability for any injury and/or damage to persons or property as a matter of products liability, negligence or otherwise, or from any use or operation of any methods, products, instructions or ideas contained in the material herein.

Main Edition

ISBN-13 978-0-70203471-8

International Edition ISBN-13 978-1-4377-1933-8

British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data Rang & Dale's pharmacology. – 7th ed.

1. Pharmacology.

I. Pharmacology II. Rang, H. P. III. Dale, M. Maureen.

615.1-dc22

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

A catalog record for this book is available from the Library of

ELSEVIER your source for books, journals and multimedia in the health sciences
www.elsevierhealth.com

Congress

Working together to grow libraries in developing countries
www.elsevier.com | www.bookaid.org | www.sabre.org
ELSEVIER BOOK AID International Sabre Foundation

Printed in China

The publisher's policy is to use paper manufactured from sustainable forests

Last digit is the print number: 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Rang and Dale's Pharmacology 7Th Edition Preface

In this edition, as in its predecessors, we set out not just to describe what drugs do but to emphasise the mechanisms by which they act. This entails analysis not only at the cellular and molecular level, where knowledge and techniques are advancing rapidly, but also at the level of physiological mechanisms and pathological disturbances. Pharmacology has its roots in therapeutics, where the aim is to ameliorate the effects of disease, so we have attempted to make the link between effects at the molecular and cellular level and the range of beneficial and adverse effects that humans experience when drugs are used for therapeutic or other reasons. Therapeutic agents have a high rate of obsolescence, and new ones appear each year. An appreciation of the mechanisms of action of the class of drugs to which a new agent belongs provides a good starting point for understanding and using a new compound intelligently.

Pharmacology is a lively scientific discipline in its own right, with an importance beyond that of providing a basis for the use of drugs in therapy, and we aim to provide a good background, not only for future doctors but also for scientists and practitioners of other disciplines. We have therefore, where appropriate, described how drugs are used as probes for elucidating cellular and physiological functions, even when the compounds have no clinical use.

Names of drugs and related chemicals are established through usage

and sometimes there is more than one name in common use. For prescribing purposes, it is important to use standard names, and we follow as far as possible the World Health Organization's list of recommended international non-proprietary names (rINN). Sometimes these conflict with the familiar names of drugs (e.g amphetamine becomes amfetamine in the rINN list, and the endogenous mediator prostaglandin I_2 – the standard name in the scientific literature - becomes 'epoprostenol'– a name unfamiliar to most scientists – in the rINN list. In general, we use rINN names as far as possible in the context of therapeutic use, but often use the common name in describing mediators and familiar drugs. Sometimes English and American usage varies (as with adrenaline/epinephrine and noradrenaline/norepinephrine). Adrenaline and noradrenaline are the official names in EU member states and relate clearly to terms such as 'noradrenergic', 'adrenoceptor' and 'adrenal gland' and we prefer them for these reasons.

Drug action can be understood only in the context of what else is happening in the body. So at the beginning of most chapters, we briefly discuss the physiological and biochemical processes relevant to the action of the drugs described in that chapter. We have routinely included the chemical structures of drugs, but have only done so where this information helps in understanding their pharmacological and pharmacokinetic characteristics.

The overall organization of the book has been retained, with sections covering: (1) the general principles of drug action; (2) the chemical mediators and cellular mechanisms with which drugs interact in

producing their therapeutic effects; (3) the action of drugs on specific organ systems; (4) the action of drugs on the nervous system; (5) the action of drugs used to treat infectious diseases and cancer; (6) a range of special topics such as individual variation in drug effects, adverse effects, non-medical uses of drugs, *etc.* This organization reflects our belief that drug action needs to be understood, not as a mere description of the effects of individual drugs and their uses, but as a chemical intervention that perturbs the complex network of chemical and cellular signaling that underlies the function of any living organism. In addition to updating all of the chapters, we have, within this general plan, reorganized the text in various ways, to keep abreast of modern developments:

• A new chapter (Ch. 6) on host defense mechanisms has been included in the section on cellular mechanisms.

• Pharmacogenetics, an increasingly important topic for prescribers, is treated in a separate chapter (Ch. 11).

• A new chapter on the pharmacology of purines (Ch. 16) has been included.

• A new chapter (Ch. 17) on local hormones and other mediators involved in inflammatory and immune responses has been included in the section on chemical mediators, with information on immunosuppressant and anti-inflammatory drugs (Ch. 26) presented separately

• Several chapters in Section 3 (Drugs affecting major organ systems) and Section 4 (Nervous system) have been substantially revised and

reorganized to include recent developments.

Despite the fact that pharmacology, like other branches of biomedical science, advances steadily, with the acquisition of new information, the development of new concepts and the introduction of new drugs for clinical use, we have avoided making the 7th edition any longer than its predecessor. We have cut out some material, including drugs that have become obsolete, and theories that have had their day, and have made extensive use of small print text to cover more specialized and speculative information that is not essential to understanding the key message, but will, we hope, be helpful to students seeking to go into greater depth.

In selecting new material for inclusion, we have taken into account not only new agents but also recent extensions of basic knowledge that presage further drug development. And where possible, we have given a brief outline of new treatments in the pipeline.

The References and Further Reading sections at the end of each chapter have been updated throughout, and include reliable websites. Short descriptions have been added to most references, summarising the main aspects covered. While the lists are by no means exhaustive, we hope that they will be helpful as a way in to the literature for students wanting to go into greater depth.

We are grateful to the readers who have taken the trouble to write to us with constructive comments and suggestions about the 6th edition. We have done our best to incorporate these. Comments on the new edition will be welcome.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the following for their help and advice in the preparation of this edition: Professor Chris Corrigan, Professor George Haycock, Professor Jeremy Pearson, Dr Tony Wierzbicki, Professor Martin Wilkins, Professor Ignac Fogelman, Dr Emma Robinson, Dr Tony Pickering, Professor Anne Lingford-Hughes and Dr Alistair Corbett.

We would like to put on record our appreciation of the team at Elsevier who worked on this edition: Kate Dimock and her replacement, Madelene Hyde (commissioning editor), Alexandra Mortimer (development editor), Elouise Ball (project manager), Gillian Richards (illustration manager), Peter Lamb and Antbits (freelance illustrators), Lisa Sanders (freelance copyeditor), Eliza Wright (freelance proofreader) and Lynda Swindells (freelance indexer).

London 2011

H.P. Rang

M.M. Dale

J.M. Ritter

R.J. Flower

G. Henderson

Abbreviations and Acronyms

α-Me-5-HT α-methyl 5-hydroxytrypamine

α-MSH α-melanocyte-stimulating hormone

12-*S*-HETE 12-*S*-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid

2-AG 2-arachidonoyl glycerol

2-Me-5-HT 2-methyl-5-hydroxytrypamine

4S Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study

5-CT 5-carboxamidotryptamine

5-HIAA 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid

5-HT 5-hydroxytryptamine [serotonin]

8-OH-DPAT 8-hydroxy-2-(di-*n*-propylamino) tetraline

AA arachidonic acid

AC adenylyl cyclase

ACAT acyl coenzyme A: cholesterol acyltransferase

AcCoA acetyl coenzyme A

ACE angiotensin-converting enzyme

ACh acetylcholine

AChE acetylcholinesterase

ACTH adrenocorticotrophic hormone

AD Alzheimer's disease

ADH antidiuretic hormone

ADHD attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder

ADMA asymmetric dimethylarginine

ADME absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination [studies]

ado-B12 5′-deoxyadenosylcobalamin

ADP adenosine diphosphate

AF1 activation function 1

AF2 activation function 2

AGEPC acetyl-glyceryl-ether-phosphorylcholine

AGRP agouti-related protein

Ah aromatic hydrocarbon

AIDS acquired immunodeficiency syndrome

AIF apoptotic initiating factor

ALA δ-amino laevulinic acid

ALDH aldehyde dehydrogenase

AMP adenosine monophosphate

AMPA α-amino-5-hydroxy-3-methyl-4-isoxazole propionic acid

ANF atrial natriuretic factor

ANP atrial natriuretic peptide

AP adapter protein

Apaf-1 apoptotic protease-activating factor-1

APC antigen-presenting cell

APP amyloid precursor protein

APTT activated partial thromboplastin time

AR aldehyde reductase; androgen receptor

Arg arginine

ARND alcohol-related neurodevelopmental disorder

ASCI ATP-sensitive Ca^{2+}-insensitive

ASCOT Anglo-Scandinavian Cardiac Outcomes Trial

ASIC acid-sensing ion channel

AT angiotensin

AT_1 angiotensin II receptor subtype 1

AT_2 angiotensin II receptor subtype 2

ATIII antithrombin III

ATP adenosine triphosphate

AUC area under the curve

AV atrioventricular

AZT zidovudine

BARK β-adrenoreceptor kinase

BDNF brain-derived neurotrophic factor

$\boldsymbol{B_{max}}$ binding capacity

BMI body mass index

BMPR-2 bone morphogenetic protein receptor type 2

BNP B-type natriuretic peptide

BSE bovine spongiform encephalopathy

BuChE butyrylcholinesterase

CaC calcium channel

CAD coronary artery disease

cADPR cyclic ADP-ribose

CaM calmodulin

cAMP cyclic 3′,5′-adenosine monophosphate

CAR constitutive androstane receptor

CARE Cholesterol and Recurrent Events [trial]

CAT choline acetyltransferase

CBG corticosteroid-binding globulin

CCK cholecystokinin

cdk cyclin-dependent kinase

cDNA circular deoxyribonucleic acid

CETP cholesteryl ester transfer protein

CFTR cystic fibrosis transport [transmembrane conductance] regulator

cGMP cyclic guanosine monophosphate

CGRP calcitonin gene-related peptide

ChE cholinesterase

CHO Chinese hamster ovary [cell]

CICR calcium-induced calcium release

CIP cdk inhibitory protein

CJD Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease

CL total clearance of a drug

CNP C-natriuretic peptide

CNS central nervous system

CO carbon monoxide

CoA coenzyme A

COMT catechol-*O*-methyl transferase

COPD chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

COX cyclo-oxygenase

CREB cAMP response element-binding protein

CRF corticotrophin-releasing factor

CRH corticotrophin-releasing hormone

CRLR calcitonin receptor-like receptor

CSF cerebrospinal fluid; colony-stimulating factor

C_{ss} steady-state plasma concentration

CTL cytotoxic T lymphocyte

CTZ chemoreceptor trigger zone

CYP cytochrome P450 [system]

DAAO D-amino acid oxidase

DAG diacylglycerol

DAGL diacylglycerol lipase

DAT dopamine transporter

DBH dopamine-β-hydroxylase

DDAH dimethylarginine dimethylamino hydrolase

DHFR dihydrofolate reductase

DHMA 3,4-dihydroxymandelic acid

DHPEG 3,4-dihydroxyphenylglycol

DIT di-iodotyrosine

DMARD disease-modifying antirheumatic drug

DMPP dimethylphenylpiperazinium

DNA deoxyribonucleic acid

DOH oxidised [hydroxylated] drug

DOPA dihydroxyphenylalanine

DOPAC dihydroxyphenylacetic acid

DSI depolarisation-induced suppression of inhibition

DTMP 2-deoxythymidylate

DUMP 2-deoxyuridylate

EAA excitatory amino acid

EC_{50}/ED_{50} concentration/dose effective in 50% of the population

ECG electrocardiogram

ECM extracellular matrix

ECP eosinophil cationic protein

ECT electroconvulsive therapy

EDHF endothelium-derived hyperpolarising factor

EDRF endothelium-derived relaxing factor

EEG electroencephalography

EET epoxyeicosatetraenoic acid

EGF epidermal growth factor

EG-VEGF endocrine gland-derived vascular endothelial growth factor

E_{max} maximal response that a drug can produce

EMBP eosinophil major basic protein

EMT endocannabinoid membrane transporter

ENaC epithelial sodium channel

eNOS endothelial nitric oxide synthase [NOS-III]

epp endplate potential

EPS extrapyramidal side effects

epsp excitatory postsynaptic potential

ER endoplasmic reticulum; (o)estrogen receptor

FA kinase focal adhesion kinase

FAAH fatty acid amide hydrolase

FAD flavin adenine dinucleotide

FAS fetal alcohol syndrome

FDUMP fluorodeoxyuridine monophosphate

Fe^{2+} ferrous iron

Fe^{3+} ferric iron

FeO^{3+} ferric oxene

FEV_1 forced expiratory volume in 1 second

FGF fibroblast growth factor

FH_2 dihydrofolate

FH_4 tetrahydrofolate

FKBP FK-binding protein

FLAP five-lipoxygenase activating protein

FMN flavin mononucleotide

formyl-FH_4 formyl tetrahydrofolate

FSH follicle-stimulating hormone

FXR farnesoid [bile acid] receptor

G6PD glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase

GABA gamma-aminobutyric acid

GAD glutamic acid decarboxylase

GC guanylyl cyclase

G-CSF granulocyte colony-stimulating factor

GDP guanosine diphosphate

GFR glomerular filtration rate

GH growth hormone

GHB γ-hydroxybutyrate

GHRF growth hormone-releasing factor

GHRH growth hormone-releasing hormone

GI gastrointestinal

GIP gastric inhibitory polypeptide

GIRK G-protein-sensitive inward-rectifying potassium [channel]

GIT gastrointestinal tract

Gla γ-carboxylated glutamic acid

GLP glucagon-like peptide

Glu glutamic acid

GM-CSF granulocyte–macrophage colony-stimulating factor

GnRH gonadotrophin-releasing hormone

GP glycoprotein

GPCR G-protein-coupled receptor

GPL glycerophospholipid

GR glucocorticoid receptor

GRE glucocorticoid response element

GRK GPCR kinase

GSH glutathione

GSSG glutathione, oxidised

GTP guanosine triphosphate

H_2O_2 hydrogen peroxide

HAART highly active antiretroviral therapy

hCG human chorionic gonadotrophin

HCl hydrochloric acid

HDAC histone deacetylase

HDL high-density lipoprotein

HDL-C high-density-lipoprotein cholesterol

HER2 human epidermal growth factor receptor 2

HERG human ether-a-go-go related gene

HETE hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid

hGH human growth hormone

HIT heparin-induced thrombocytopenia

HIV human immunodeficiency virus

HLA histocompatibility antigen

HMG-CoA 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A

HnRNA heterologous nuclear RNA

HPA hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal [axis]

HPETE hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid

HRT hormone replacement therapy

HSP heat shock protein

HVA homovanillic acid

IAP inhibitor of apoptosis protein

IC_{50} concentration causing 50% inhibition in the population

ICAM intercellular adhesion molecule

ICE interleukin-1-converting enzyme

ICSH interstitial cell-stimulating hormone

IDDM insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus [now known as type 1 diabetes]

IFN interferon

Ig immunoglobulin

IGF insulin-like growth factor

IL interleukin

Ink inhibitors of kinases

iNOS inducible nitric oxide synthase

INR international normalised ratio

IP inositol phosphate

IP_3 inositol trisphosphate

IP_3R inositol trisphosphate receptor

IP_4 inositol tetraphosphate

ipsp inhibitory postsynaptic potential

IRS insulin receptor substrate

ISI international sensitivity index

ISIS International Study of Infarct Survival

ISO isoprenaline

IUPHAR International Union of Pharmacological Sciences

JRA juvenile rheumatoid arthritis

K_{ACh} potassium channel

K_{ATP} ATP-sensitive potassium [activator, channel]

KIP kinase inhibitory protein

LA local anaesthetic

LC locus coeruleus

LCAT lecithin cholesterol acyltransferase

LD_{50} dose that is lethal in 50% of the population

LDL low-density lipoprotein

LDL-C low-density-lipoprotein cholesterol

LGC ligand-gated cation channel

LH luteinising hormone

LMWH low-molecular-weight heparin

L-NAME *N*^{G}-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester

L-NMMA *N*^{G}-monomethyl-L-arginine

LQT long QT [channel, syndrome]

LSD lysergic acid diethylamide

LT leukotriene

LTP long-term potentiation

LXR liver oxysterol receptor

lyso-PAF lysoglyceryl-phosphorylcholine

mAb monoclonal antibody

MAC minimal alveolar concentration

mAChR muscarinic acetylcholine receptor

MAGL monoacyl glycerol lipase

MAO monoamine oxidase

MAOI monoamine oxidase inhibitor

MAP mitogen-activated protein

MAPK mitogen-activated protein kinase

MCP monocyte chemoattractant protein

M-CSF macrophage colony-stimulating factor

MDMA methylenedioxymethamphetamine [‘ecstasy’]

MeNA methylnoradrenaline

methyl-FH_4 methyltetrahydrofolate

MGluR metabotropic glutamate receptor

MHC major histocompatibility complex

MHPEG 3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol

MHPG 3-hydroxy-4-methoxyphenylglycol

MIT monoiodotyrosine

MLCK myosin light-chain kinase

MPTP 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,5-tetrahydropyridine

MR mineralocorticoid receptor

mRNA messenger ribonucleic acid

MRSA meticillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*

MSH melanocyte-stimulating hormone

NA noradrenaline [norepinephrine]

NAADP nicotinic acid dinucleotide phosphate

NaC voltage-gated sodium channel

nAChR nicotinic acetylcholine receptor

NAD nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide

NADH nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, reduced

NADPH nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate, reduced

NANC non-noradrenergic non-cholinergic

NAPBQI *N*-acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine

NAPE *N*-acyl-phosphatidylethanolamine

NASA National Aeronautics and Space Administration

NAT *N*-acyltransferase

NCX Na^+-Ca^{2+} exchange transporter

NET norepinephrine transporter

NF nuclear factor

NFκB nuclear factor kappa B

NGF nerve growth factor

nGRE negative glucocorticoid response element

NIDDM non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus [now known as type 2 diabetes]

NIS Na^+/I^- symporter

NK natural killer [cell]

NM normetanephrine

NMDA *N*-methyl-D-aspartic acid

nNOS neuronal nitric oxide synthase [NOS-I]

NNT number needed to treat

NOS nitric oxide synthase

NPR natriuretic peptide receptor

NPY neuropeptide Y

NRM nucleus raphe magnus

NRPG nucleus reticularis paragigantocellularis

NSAID non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug

ODQ 1H-[1,2,4]-oxadiazole-[4,3-α]-quinoxalin-1-one

OPG osteoprotegerin

oxLDL oxidised low-density lipoprotein

PA partial agonist; phosphatidic acid

PABA *p*-aminobenzoic acid

P_{ACO_2} partial pressure of carbon dioxide in arterial blood

PAF platelet-activating factor

PAG periaqueductal grey

PAH *p*-aminohippuric acid

PAI plasminogen activator inhibitor

PAMP pathogen-associated molecular pattern

P_{AO_2} partial pressure of oxygen in arterial blood

PAR protease-activated receptor

PARP poly-[ADP-ribose]-polymerase

PC phosphorylcholine

PCPA *p*-chlorophenylalanine

PD Parkinson's disease

PDE phosphodiesterase

PDGF platelet-dependent growth factor

PDS pendrin; paroxysmal depolarising shift

PE phosphatidylethanolamine

PECAM platelet endothelium cell adhesion molecule

PEFR peak expiratory flow rate

PEG polyethylene glycol

PG prostaglandin

PGE prostaglandin E

PGI_2 prostacyclin [prostaglandin I_2]

PI phosphatidylinositol

PIN protein inhibitor of nNOS

PIP_2 phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate

PKA protein kinase A

PKC protein kinase C

PKK cGMP-dependent protein kinase

PL phospholipid

PLA_2 phospholipase A_2

PLC phospholipase C

PLCβ phospholipase Cβ

PLD phospholipase D

Plk Polo-like kinase

PLTP phospholipid transfer protein

PMCA plasma membrane Ca^{2+}-ATPase

PMN polymodal nociceptor

PNMT phenylethanolamine *N*-methyl transferase

PNS peripheral nervous system

***P*O_2** partial pressure of oxygen

POMC prepro-opiomelanocortin

PPADS pyridoxal-phosphate-6-azophenyl-2′,4′-disulfonate

PPAR peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor

PR progesterone receptor; prolactin receptor

PRF prolactin-releasing factor

PRIF prolactin release-inhibiting factor

Pro-CCK procholecystokinin

pS picosiemens

PT prothrombin time

PTH parathyroid hormone

PTZ pentylenetetrazol

PUFA polyunsaturated fatty acid

PUVA psoralen plus ultraviolet A

QALY quality-adjusted life year

R & D research and development

RA rheumatoid arthritis

RAMP receptor activity-modifying protein

RANK receptor activator of nuclear factor kappa B

RANKL RANK ligand

RANTES regulated on activation normal T-cell expressed and secreted

(chemokine)

RAR retinoic acid receptor

Rb retinoblastoma

REM rapid eye movement [sleep]

RGS regulator of G-protein signalling

RIMA reversible inhibitor of the A-isoform of monoamine oxidase

RNA ribonucleic acid

RNAi ribonucleic acid interference

ROS reactive oxygen species

rRNA ribosomal ribonucleic acid

RTI reverse transcriptase inhibitor

RTK receptor tyrosine kinase

RXR retinoid X receptor

RyR ryanodine receptor

SA sinoatrial

SAH subarachnoid haemorrhage

SCF stem cell factor

SCID severe combined immunodeficiency

SERCA sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum APTase

SERM selective (o)estrogen receptor modulator

SERT serotonin transporter

SG substantia gelatinosa

SH sulfhydryl [e.g. –SH group]

siRNA small [short] interfering ribonucleic acid (see also sRNAi below)

SLE systemic lupus erythematosus

SNAP *S*-nitrosoacetylpenicillamine

SNOG *S*-nitrosoglutathione

SNRI serotonin/noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor

SOC store-operated calcium channel

SOD superoxide dismutase

SP substance P

SR sarcoplasmic reticulum

sRNAi small ribonucleic acid interference (see also siRNA above)

SRS-A slow-reacting substance of anaphylaxis

SSRI selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor

STX saxitoxin

SUR sulfonylurea receptor

SVT supraventricular tachycardia

SXR xenobiotic receptor

T_3 tri-iodothyronine

T_4 thyroxine

TBG thyroxine-binding globulin

TC tubocurarine

TCA tricyclic antidepressant

TEA tetraethylammonium

TF transcription factor

TGF transforming growth factor

Th T-helper [cell]

THC Δ9-tetrahydrocannabinol

Thp T-helper precursor [cell]

TIMI Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction [trial]

TIMPs tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases

TLR Toll receptor

TNF tumour necrosis factor

TNFR tumour necrosis factor receptor

tPA tissue plasminogen activator

TR thyroid receptor

TRAIL tumour necrosis factor-α-related apoptosis-inducing ligand

TRH thyrotrophin-releasing hormone

tRNA transfer ribonucleic acid

TRP transient receptor potential [channel]

TRPV1 transient receptor potential vanilloid receptor 1

TSH thyroid-stimulating hormone

TTX tetrodotoxin

TX thromboxane

TXA_2 thromboxane A_2

TXSI TXA_2 synthesis inhibitor

UCP uncoupling protein

UDP uridine diphosphate

UDPGA uridine diphosphate glucuronic acid

UMP uridine monophosphate

vCJD variant Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease

V_d volume of distribution

VDCC voltage-dependent calcium channel

VDR vitamin D receptor

VEGF vascular endothelial growth factor

VGCC voltage-gated calcium channel

VHeFT Vasodilator Heart Failure Trial

VIP vasoactive intestinal peptide

VLA very late antigen

VLDL very-low-density lipoprotein

VMA vanillylmandelic acid

VMAT vesicular monoamine transporter

VOCC voltage-operated calcium channel

WHO World Health Organization

WOSCOPS West of Scotland Coronary Prevention Study

Table of Contents

Instructions for online access

Front Matter

Copyright

Rang and Dale's Pharmacology 7Th Edition Preface

Acknowledgements

Abbreviations and Acronyms

Section 1: General principles

- Chapter 1: What is pharmacology?
- Chapter 2: How drugs act
- Chapter 3: How drugs act
- Chapter 4: How drugs act
- Chapter 5: Cell proliferation, apoptosis, repair and regeneration
- Chapter 6: Cellular mechanisms
- Chapter 7: Method and measurement in pharmacology
- Chapter 8: Drug absorption and distribution
- Chapter 9: Drug metabolism and elimination
- Chapter 10: Pharmacokinetics
- Chapter 11: Pharmacogenetics, pharmacogenomics and

‘personalised medicine’

Section 2: Chemical mediators

Chapter 12: Chemical mediators and the autonomic nervous system

Chapter 13: Cholinergic transmission

Chapter 14: Noradrenergic transmission

Chapter 15: 5-Hydroxytryptamine and the pharmacology of migraine

Chapter 16: Purines

Chapter 17: Local hormones

Chapter 18: Cannabinoids

Chapter 19: Peptides and proteins as mediators

Chapter 20: Nitric oxide

Section 3: Drugs affecting major organ systems

Chapter 21: The heart

Chapter 22: The vascular system

Chapter 23: Atherosclerosis and lipoprotein metabolism

Chapter 24: Haemostasis and thrombosis

Chapter 25: Haemopoietic system and treatment of anaemia

Chapter 26: Anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressant drugs

Chapter 27: Respiratory system

Chapter 28: The kidney

Chapter 29: The gastrointestinal tract

Chapter 30: The control of blood glucose and drug treatment of diabetes mellitus

Chapter 31: Obesity

Chapter 32: The pituitary and the adrenal cortex

Chapter 33: The thyroid

Chapter 34: The reproductive system

Chapter 35: Bone metabolism

Section 4: The nervous system

Chapter 36: Chemical transmission and drug action in the central nervous system

Chapter 37: Amino acid transmitters

Chapter 38: Other transmitters and modulators

Chapter 39: Neurodegenerative diseases

Chapter 40: General anaesthetic agents

Chapter 41: Analgesic drugs

Chapter 42: Local anaesthetics and other drugs affecting sodium channels

Chapter 43: Anxiolytic and hypnotic drugs

Chapter 44: Antiepileptic drugs

Chapter 45: Antipsychotic drugs

Chapter 46: Antidepressant drugs

Chapter 47: CNS stimulants and psychotomimetic drugs

Chapter 48: Drug addiction, dependence and abuse

Section 5: Drugs used for the treatment of infections, cancer and immunologic disorders

Chapter 49: Basic principles of antimicrobial chemotherapy

Chapter 50: Antibacterial drugs

Chapter 51: Antiviral drugs

Chapter 52: Antifungal drugs

Chapter 53: Antiprotozoal drugs

Chapter 54: Anthelminthic drugs

Chapter 55: Anticancer drugs

Section 6: Special topics

Chapter 56: Individual variation and drug interaction

Chapter 57: Harmful effects of drugs

Chapter 58: Lifestyle drugs and drugs in sport

Chapter 59: Biopharmaceuticals and gene therapy

Chapter 60: Drug discovery and development

Appendix

Index

Section 1
General principles

1

What is pharmacology?

Overview

In this introductory chapter, we explain how pharmacology came into being and evolved as a scientific discipline, and describe the present day structure of the subject and its links to other biomedical sciences. The structure that has emerged forms the basis of the organisation of the rest of the book. Readers in a hurry to get to the here-and-now of pharmacology can safely skip this chapter.

What Is A Drug?

For the purposes of this book, a drug can be defined as *a chemical substance of known structure, other than a nutrient or an essential dietary ingredient,*[1] *which, when administered to a living organism, produces a biological effect.*

[1]Like most definitions, this one has its limits. For example, there are a number of essential dietary constituents, such as iron and various vitamins, that are used as medicines.

A few points are worth noting. Drugs may be synthetic chemicals, chemicals obtained from plants or animals, or products of genetic engineering. A *medicine* is a chemical preparation, which usually but not necessarily contains one or more drugs, administered with the intention of producing a therapeutic effect. Medicines usually contain other substances (excipients, stabilisers, solvents, etc.) besides the active drug, to make them more convenient to use. To count as a drug, the substance

must be administered as such, rather than released by physiological mechanisms. Many substances, such as insulin or thyroxine, are endogenous hormones but are also drugs when they are administered intentionally. Many drugs are not used in medicines but are nevertheless useful research tools. In everyday parlance, the word *drug* is often associated with addictive, narcotic or mind-altering substances—an unfortunate negative connotation that tends to bias uninformed opinion against any form of chemical therapy. In this book, we focus mainly on drugs used for therapeutic purposes but also describe important examples of drugs used as experimental tools. Although poisons fall strictly within the definition of drugs, they are not covered in this book.

Origins and Antecedents

Pharmacology can be defined as the study of the effects of drugs on the function of living systems. As a science, it was born in the mid-19th century, one of a host of new biomedical sciences based on principles of experimentation rather than dogma that came into being in that remarkable period. Long before that—indeed from the dawn of civilisation—herbal remedies were widely used, pharmacopoeias were written, and the apothecaries' trade flourished, but nothing resembling scientific principles was applied to therapeutics. Even Robert Boyle, who laid the scientific foundations of chemistry in the middle of the 17th century, was content, when dealing with therapeutics (*A Collection of Choice Remedies*, 1692), to recommend concoctions of worms, dung, urine and the moss from a dead man's skull. The impetus for pharmacology came from the need to improve the outcome of therapeutic intervention by doctors, who were at that time skilled at clinical observation and diagnosis but broadly ineffectual when it came to treatment.[2] Until the late 19th century, knowledge of the normal and

abnormal functioning of the body was too rudimentary to provide even a rough basis for understanding drug effects; at the same time, disease and death were regarded as semisacred subjects, appropriately dealt with by authoritarian, rather than scientific, doctrines. Clinical practice often displayed an obedience to authority and ignored what appear to be easily ascertainable facts. For example, cinchona bark was recognised as a specific and effective treatment for malaria, and a sound protocol for its use was laid down by Lind in 1765. In 1804, however, Johnson declared it to be unsafe until the fever had subsided, and he recommended instead the use of large doses of calomel (mercurous chloride) in the early stages—a murderous piece of advice which was slavishly followed for the next 40 years.

[2]Oliver Wendell Holmes, an eminent physician, wrote in 1860: '… firmly believe that if the whole materia medica, as now used, could be sunk to the bottom of the sea, it would be all the better for mankind and the worse for the fishes.' (See Porter, 1997.)

The motivation for understanding what drugs can and cannot do came from clinical practice, but the science could be built only on the basis of secure foundations in physiology, pathology and chemistry. It was not until 1858 that Virchow proposed the cell theory. The first use of a structural formula to describe a chemical compound was in 1868. Bacteria as a cause of disease were discovered by Pasteur in 1878. Previously, pharmacology hardly had the legs to stand on, and we may wonder at the bold vision of Rudolf Buchheim, who created the first pharmacology institute (in his own house) in Estonia in 1847.

In its beginnings, before the advent of synthetic organic chemistry, pharmacology concerned itself exclusively with understanding the effects of natural substances, mainly plant extracts—and a few (mainly toxic) chemicals such as mercury and arsenic. An early development in

chemistry was the purification of active compounds from plants. Friedrich Sertürner, a young German apothecary, purified morphine from opium in 1805. Other substances quickly followed, and, even though their structures were unknown, these compounds showed that chemicals, not magic or vital forces, were responsible for the effects that plant extracts produced on living organisms. Early pharmacologists focused most of their attention on such plant-derived drugs as quinine, digitalis, atropine, ephedrine, strychnine and others (many of which are still used today and will have become old friends by the time you have finished reading this book).[3]

[3]A handful of synthetic substances achieved pharmacological prominence long before the era of synthetic chemistry began. Diethyl ether, first prepared as 'sweet oil of vitriol' in the 16th century, and nitrous oxide, prepared by Humphrey Davy in 1799, were used to liven up parties before being introduced as anaesthetic agents in the mid-19th century (see Ch. 40). Amyl nitrite (see Ch. 21) was made in 1859 and can claim to be the first 'rational' therapeutic drug; its therapeutic effect in angina was predicted on the basis of its physiological effects—a true 'pharmacologist's drug' and the smelly forerunner of the nitrovasodilators that are widely used today. Aspirin (Ch. 26), the most widely used therapeutic drug in history, was first synthesised in 1853, with no therapeutic application in mind. It was rediscovered in 1897 in the laboratories of the German company Bayer, who were seeking a less toxic derivative of salicylic acid. Bayer commercialised aspirin in 1899 and made a fortune.

Pharmacology in the 20th and 21st Centuries

Beginning in the 20th century, the fresh wind of synthetic chemistry began to revolutionise the pharmaceutical industry, and with it the

science of pharmacology. New synthetic drugs, such as barbiturates and local anaesthetics, began to appear, and the era of antimicrobial chemotherapy began with the discovery by Paul Ehrlich in 1909 of arsenical compounds for treating syphilis. Further breakthroughs came when the sulfonamides, the first antibacterial drugs, were discovered by Gerhard Domagk in 1935, and with the development of penicillin by Chain and Florey during the Second World War, based on the earlier work of Fleming.

These few well-known examples show how the growth of synthetic chemistry, and the resurgence of natural product chemistry, caused a dramatic revitalisation of therapeutics in the first half of the 20th century. Each new drug class that emerged gave pharmacologists a new challenge, and it was then that pharmacology really established its identity and its status among the biomedical sciences.

In parallel with the exuberant proliferation of therapeutic molecules—driven mainly by chemistry—which gave pharmacologists so much to think about, physiology was also making rapid progress, particularly in relation to chemical mediators, which are discussed in depth elsewhere in this book. Many hormones, neurotransmitters and inflammatory mediators were discovered in this period, and the realisation that chemical communication plays a central role in almost every regulatory mechanism that our bodies possess immediately established a large area of common ground between physiology and pharmacology, for interactions between chemical substances and living systems were exactly what pharmacologists had been preoccupied with from the outset. The concept of ‘receptors’ for chemical mediators, first proposed by Langley in 1905, was quickly taken up by pharmacologists such as Clark, Gaddum, Schild and others and is a constant theme in present day pharmacology (as you will soon discover as you plough through the next

two chapters). The receptor concept, and the technologies developed from it, have had a massive impact on drug discovery and therapeutics. Biochemistry also emerged as a distinct science early in the 20th century, and the discovery of enzymes and the delineation of biochemical pathways provided yet another framework for understanding drug effects. The picture of pharmacology that emerges from this brief glance at history (Fig. 1.1) is of a subject evolved from ancient prescientific therapeutics, involved in commerce from the 17th century onwards, and which gained respectability by donning the trappings of science as soon as this became possible in the mid-19th century. Signs of its carpetbagger past still cling to pharmacology, for the pharmaceutical industry has become very big business and much pharmacological research nowadays takes place in a commercial environment, a rougher and more pragmatic place than the glades of academia.[4] No other biomedical 'ology' is so close to Mammon.

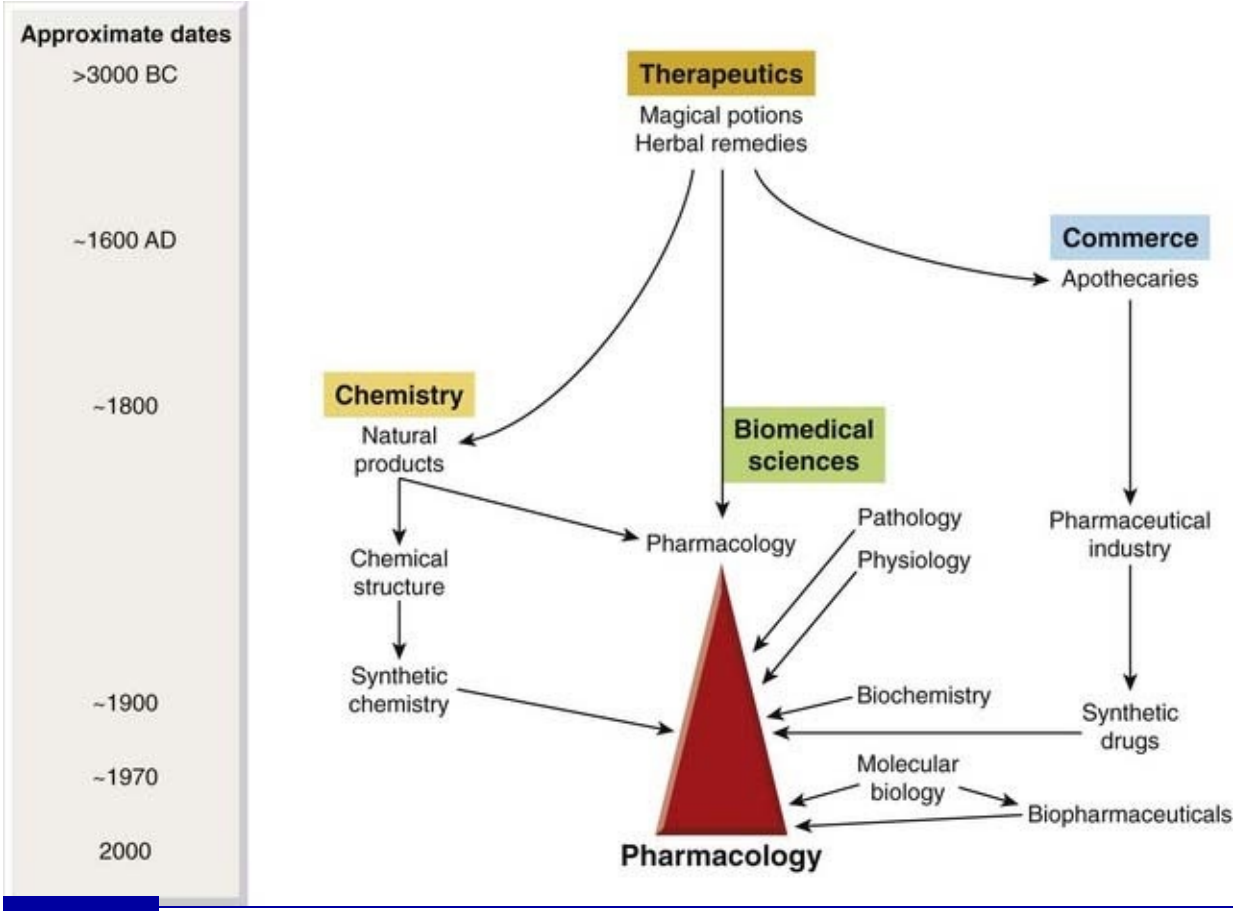


Fig. 1.1 The development of pharmacology.

[4]Some of our most distinguished pharmacological pioneers made their careers in industry: for example, Henry Dale, who laid the foundations of our knowledge of chemical transmission and the autonomic nervous system (Ch. 11); George Hitchings and Gertrude Elion, who described the antimetabolite principle and produced the first effective anticancer drugs (Ch. 54); and James Black, who introduced the first β-adrenoceptor and histamine H_2-receptor antagonists (Chs 13 and 17). It is no accident that in this book, where we focus on the scientific principles of pharmacology, most of our examples are products of industry, not of nature.

Alternative Therapeutic Principles

Modern medicine relies heavily on drugs as the main tool of therapeutics. Other therapeutic procedures such as surgery, diet, exercise, *etc.* are also important, of course, as is deliberate non-intervention, but none is so widely applied as drug-based therapeutics.

Before the advent of science-based approaches, repeated attempts were made to construct systems of therapeutics, many of which produced even worse results than pure empiricism. One of these was *allopathy*, espoused by James Gregory (1735–1821). The favoured remedies included blood letting, emetics and purgatives, which were used until the dominant symptoms of the disease were suppressed. Many patients died from such treatment, and it was in reaction against it that Hahnemann introduced the practice of *homeopathy* in the early 19th century. The guiding principles of homeopathy are:

- like cures like
- activity can be enhanced by dilution.

The system rapidly drifted into absurdity: for example, Hahnemann recommended the use of drugs at dilutions of $1 : 10^{60}$, equivalent to one molecule in a sphere the size of the orbit of Neptune.

Many other systems of therapeutics have come and gone, and the variety of dogmatic principles that they embodied have tended to hinder rather than advance scientific progress. Currently, therapeutic systems that have a basis which lies outside the domain of science are actually gaining ground under the general banner of ‘alternative’ or ‘complementary’ medicine. Mostly, they reject the ‘medical model’, which attributes disease to an underlying derangement of normal function that can be defined in biochemical or structural terms, detected by objective means, and influenced beneficially by appropriate chemical or physical interventions. They focus instead mainly on subjective

malaise, which may be disease-associated or not. Abandoning objectivity in defining and measuring disease goes along with a similar departure from scientific principles in assessing therapeutic efficacy and risk, with the result that principles and practices can gain acceptance without satisfying any of the criteria of validity that would convince a critical scientist, and that are required by law to be satisfied before a new drug can be introduced into therapy. Public acceptance, alas, has little to do with demonstrable efficacy.[5]

[5]Antiscientific populism and commercial pressures recently caused the UK Medicines and Healthcare Regulatory Agency (MHRA) to approve a homeopathic product, despite the lack of evidence that it worked.

The Emergence of Biotechnology

Since the 1980s, biotechnology has emerged as a major source of new therapeutic agents in the form of antibodies, enzymes and various regulatory proteins, including hormones, growth factors and cytokines (see Buckel, 1996; Walsh, 2003). Although such products (known as *biopharmaceuticals*) are generally produced by genetic engineering rather than by synthetic chemistry, the pharmacological principles are essentially the same as for conventional drugs. Looking further ahead, gene-and cell-based therapies (Ch. 59), although still in their infancy, will take therapeutics into a new domain. The principles governing the design, delivery and control of functioning artificial genes introduced into cells, or of engineered cells introduced into the body, are very different from those of drug-based therapeutics and will require a different conceptual framework, which texts such as this will increasingly need to embrace if they are to stay abreast of modern medical treatment.

Pharmacology Today

As with other biomedical disciplines, the boundaries of pharmacology are not sharply defined, nor are they constant. Its exponents are, as befits pragmatists, ever ready to poach on the territory and techniques of other disciplines. If it ever had a conceptual and technical core that it could really call its own, this has now dwindled almost to the point of extinction, and the subject is defined by its purpose—to understand what drugs do to living organisms, and more particularly how their effects can be applied to therapeutics—rather than by its scientific coherence.

Figure 1.2 shows the structure of pharmacology as it appears today. Within the main subject fall a number of compartments (neuropharmacology, immunopharmacology, pharmacokinetics, etc.), which are convenient, if not watertight, subdivisions. These topics form the main subject matter of this book. Around the edges are several interface disciplines, not covered in this book, which form important two-way bridges between pharmacology and other fields of biomedicine. Pharmacology tends to have more of these than other disciplines. Recent arrivals on the fringe are subjects such as pharmacogenomics, pharmacoepidemiology and pharmacoeconomics.

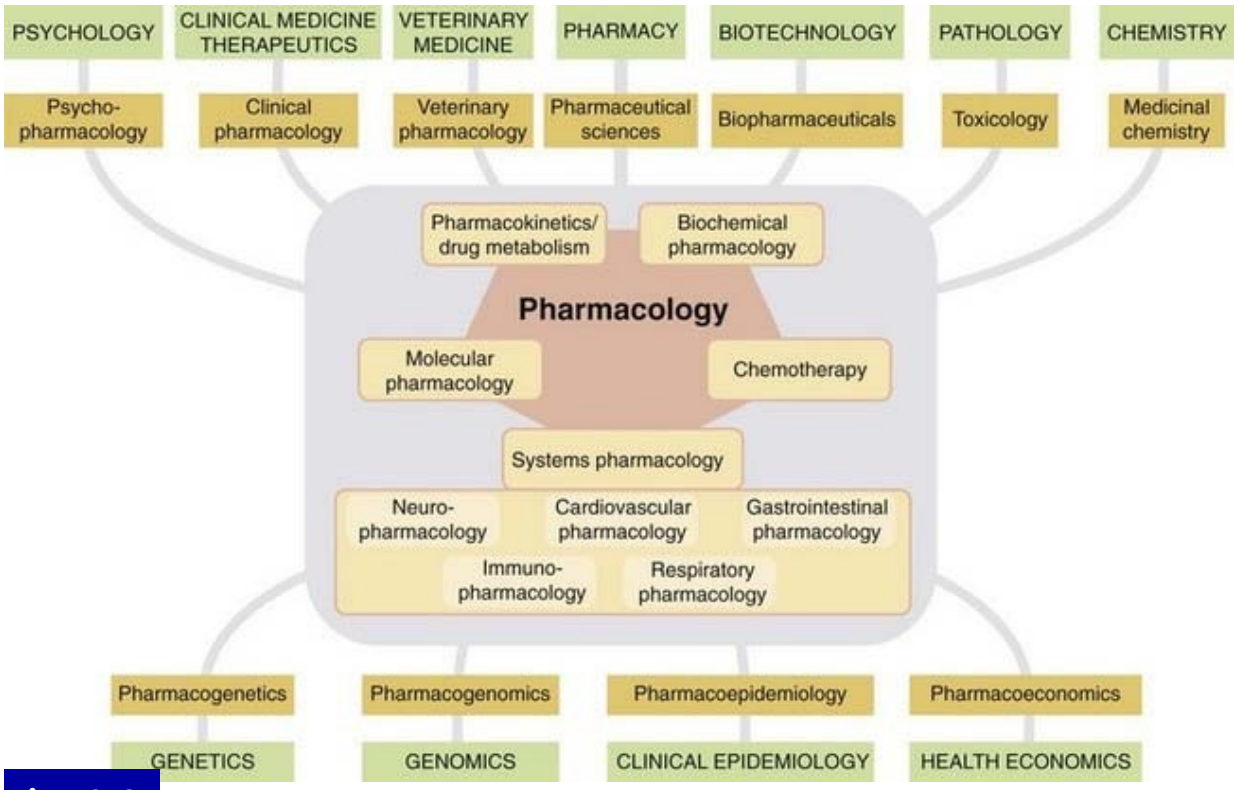


Fig. 1.2 Pharmacology today with its various subdivisions.

Interface disciplines (brown boxes) link pharmacology to other mainstream biomedical disciplines (green boxes).

Biotechnology

Originally, this was the production of drugs or other useful products by biological means (e.g. antibiotic production from microorganisms or production of monoclonal antibodies). Currently in the biomedical sphere, biotechnology refers mainly to the use of recombinant DNA technology for a wide variety of purposes, including the manufacture of therapeutic proteins, diagnostics, genotyping, production of transgenic animals, *etc.* The many non-medical applications include agriculture, forensics, environmental sciences, *etc.*

Pharmacogenetics

This is the study of genetic influences on responses to drugs. Originally, pharmacogenetics focused on familial idiosyncratic drug reactions,

where affected individuals show an abnormal—usually adverse—response to a class of drug (see Nebert & Weber, 1990). It now covers broader variations in drug response, where the genetic basis is more complex.

Pharmacogenomics

This recent term overlaps with pharmacogenetics, describing the use of genetic information to guide the choice of drug therapy on an individual basis. The underlying principle is that differences between individuals in their response to therapeutic drugs can be predicted from their genetic make-up. Examples that confirm this are steadily accumulating (see Ch. 11). So far, they mainly involve genetic polymorphism of drug-metabolising enzymes or receptors (see Weinshilboum & Wang, 2004; Swen et al., 2007). Ultimately, linking specific gene variations with variations in therapeutic or unwanted effects of a particular drug should enable the tailoring of therapeutic choices on the basis of an individual's genotype. Steady improvements in the cost and feasibility of individual genotyping will increase its applicability, with far-reaching consequences for therapeutics.[6]

[6]An interesting recent example concerns a newly introduced anticancer drug, **gefitinib**, which is highly effective in treating lung cancer but works in only about 10% of cases. Responders have mutations in the receptor tyrosine kinase (see Ch. 3) that is the target of this drug, and can be identified in advance by genotyping (see Lynch et al., 2004).

Pharmacoepidemiology

This is the study of drug effects at the population level (see Strom, 2000). It is concerned with the variability of drug effects between individuals in a population, and between populations. It is an increasingly important topic in the eyes of the regulatory authorities

who decide whether or not new drugs can be licensed for therapeutic use. Variability between individuals or populations has an adverse effect on the utility of a drug, even though its mean effect level may be satisfactory. Pharmacoepidemiological studies also take into account patient compliance and other factors that apply when the drug is used under real-life conditions.

Pharmacoeconomics

This branch of health economics aims to quantify in economic terms the cost and benefit of drugs used therapeutically. It arose from the concern of many governments to provide for healthcare from tax revenues, raising questions of what therapeutic procedures represent the best value for money. This, of course, raises fierce controversy, because it ultimately comes down to putting monetary value on health and longevity. As with pharmacoepidemiology, regulatory authorities are increasingly requiring economic analysis, as well as evidence of individual benefit, when making decisions on licensing. For more information on this complex subject, see Drummond *et al.* (1997), Rascati (2009).

References and Further Reading

uckel P. Recombinant proteins for therapy. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1996;17:450-456. (*Thoughtful review of the status of, and prospects for, protein-based therapeutics*)

rews J. *In quest of tomorrow's medicines*. New York: Springer-Verlag; 1998. (*An excellent account of the past, present and future of the drug discovery process, emphasising the growing role of biotechnology*)

rummond M.F., O'Brien B., Stoddart G.I., Torrance G.W. *Methods for the economic evaluation of healthcare programmes*. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 1997. (*Coverage of the general principles of evaluating the economic costs and benefits of healthcare, including drug-based*

therapeutics)

vans W.E., Relling M.V. Pharmacogenomics: translating functional genomics into rational therapeutics. *Science*. 1999;286:487-501. (*A general overview of pharmacogenomics*)

ynch T.J., Bell D.W., Sordella R., *et al.* Activating mutations in the epidermal growth factor receptor underlying responsiveness of non-small-cell lung cancer to gefitinib. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2004;350:2129-2139. (*An important early example of a genetic determinant of therapeutic efficacy depending on mutations affecting the drug target—a likely pointer to what is to come*)

ebert D.W., Weber W.W. Pharmacogenetics. In Pratt W.B., Taylor P., editors: *Principles of Drug Action*, third ed, New York: Churchill-Livingstone, 1990. (*A detailed account of genetic factors that affect responses to drugs, with many examples from the pregenomic literature*)

orter R. *The greatest benefit to mankind*. London: Harper-Collins; 1997. (*An excellent and readable account of the history of medicine, with good coverage of the early development of pharmacology and the pharmaceutical industry*)

ascati K.L. *Essentials of pharmcoaeconomics*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2009.

trom B.L., editor. Pharmacoepidemiology, fourth ed, Chichester: Wiley, 2005. (*A multiauthor book covering all aspects of a newly emerged discipline, including aspects of pharmacoeconomics*)

wen J.J., Huizinga T.W., Gelderblom H., *et al.* Translating pharmacogenomics: challenges on the road to the clinic. *PLoS. Med.*. 2007;4:e209.

/alsh G. *Biopharmaceuticals: biochemistry and biotechnology*. Chichester: Wiley; 2003. (*Good introductory textbook covering many aspects of biotechnology-based therapeutics*)

/einshilboum R., Wang L. Pharmacogenomics: bench to bedside. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2004;3:739-748. (*Discusses, with examples, the growing importance of the correlation between genetic make-up and response to therapeutic drugs*)

2

How drugs act

General principles

Overview

The emergence of pharmacology as a science came when the emphasis shifted from describing what drugs do to explaining how they work. In this chapter, we set out some general principles underlying the interaction of drugs with living systems (Ch. 3 goes into the molecular aspects in more detail). The interaction between drugs and cells is described, followed by a more detailed examination of different types of drug–receptor interaction. We are still far from the holy grail of being able to predict the pharmacological effects of a novel chemical substance, or to design *ab initio* a chemical to produce a specified therapeutic effect; nevertheless, we can identify some important general principles, which is our purpose in this chapter.

Introduction

To begin with, we should gratefully acknowledge Paul Ehrlich for insisting that drug action must be explicable in terms of conventional chemical interactions between drugs and tissues, and for dispelling the idea that the remarkable potency and specificity of action of some drugs put them somehow out of reach of chemistry and physics and required the intervention of magical ‘vital forces’. Although many drugs produce effects in extraordinarily low doses and concentrations, low

concentrations still involve very large numbers of molecules. One drop of a solution of a drug at only 10^{-10} mol/l still contains about 3×10^9 drug molecules, so there is no mystery in the fact that it may produce an obvious pharmacological response. Some bacterial toxins (e.g. diphtheria toxin) act with such precision that a single molecule taken up by a target cell is sufficient to kill it.

One of the basic tenets of pharmacology is that drug molecules must exert some chemical influence on one or more constituents of cells in order to produce a pharmacological response. In other words, drug molecules must get so close to these constituent cellular molecules that the two interact chemically in such a way that the function of the latter is altered. Of course, the molecules in the organism vastly outnumber the drug molecules, and if the drug molecules were merely distributed at random, the chance of interaction with any particular class of cellular molecule would be negligible. Pharmacological effects, therefore, require, in general, the non-uniform distribution of the drug molecule within the body or tissue, which is the same as saying that drug molecules must be 'bound' to particular constituents of cells and tissues in order to produce an effect. Ehrlich summed it up thus: '*Corpora non agunt nisi fixata*' (in this context, 'A drug will not work unless it is bound').[1]

[1]There are, if one looks hard enough, exceptions to Ehrlich's dictum—drugs that act without being bound to any tissue constituent (e.g. osmotic diuretics, osmotic purgatives, antacids and heavy metal chelating agents). Nonetheless, the principle remains true for the great majority.

These critical binding sites are often referred to as 'drug targets' (an obvious allusion to Ehrlich's famous phrase 'magic bullets', describing the potential of antimicrobial drugs). The mechanisms by which the

association of a drug molecule with its target leads to a physiological response constitute the major thrust of pharmacological research. Most drug targets are protein molecules. Even general anaesthetics (see Ch. 40), which were long thought to produce their effects by an interaction with membrane lipid, now appear to interact mainly with membrane proteins (see Franks, 2008). All rules need exceptions, and many antimicrobial and antitumour drugs (Chs 50 and 55), as well as mutagenic and carcinogenic agents (Ch. 57), interact directly with DNA rather than protein; bisphosphonates, used to treat osteoporosis (Ch. 35), bind to calcium salts in the bone matrix, rendering it toxic to osteoclasts, much like rat poison.

Protein Targets for Drug Binding

Four main kinds of regulatory protein are commonly involved as primary drug targets, namely:

- receptors
- enzymes
- carrier molecules (transporters)
- ion channels.

There are some exceptions, particularly among the new generation of *biopharmaceutical drugs* (see Ch. 59). Furthermore, many drugs bind (in addition to their primary targets) to plasma proteins (see Ch. 8) and other tissue proteins, without producing any obvious physiological effect. Nevertheless, the generalisation that most drugs act on one or other of the four types of protein listed above serves as a good starting point.

Further discussion of the mechanisms by which such binding leads to

cellular responses is given in Chapters 3–4.

Targets for drug action

• A drug is a chemical applied to a physiological system that affects its function in a specific way.

• With few exceptions, drugs act on target proteins, namely:

– receptors

– enzymes

– carriers

– ion channels.

• The term *receptor* is used in different ways. In pharmacology, it describes protein molecules whose function is to recognise and respond to endogenous chemical signals. Other macromolecules with which drugs interact to produce their effects are known as *drug targets*.

• Specificity is reciprocal: individual classes of drug bind only to certain targets, and individual targets recognise only certain classes of drug.

• No drugs are completely specific in their actions. In many cases, increasing the dose of a drug will cause it to affect targets other than the principal one, and this can lead to side effects.

Drug Receptors

What Do We Mean by Receptors?

▼ As emphasised in Chapter 1, the concept of receptors is central to pharmacology, and the term is most often used to describe the target molecules through which soluble physiological mediators—hormones, neurotransmitters, inflammatory mediators, etc.—produce their effects. Examples such as acetylcholine receptors, cytokine receptors, steroid receptors, and growth hormone receptors abound in this book, and

generally the term *receptor* indicates a recognition molecule for a chemical mediator.

'Receptor' is sometimes used to denote *any* target molecule with which a drug molecule (i.e. a foreign compound rather than an endogenous mediator) has to combine in order to elicit its specific effect. For example, the voltage-sensitive sodium channel is sometimes referred to as the 'receptor' for **local anaesthetics** (see Ch. 42), or the enzyme dihydrofolate reductase as the 'receptor' for **methotrexate** (Ch. 49). The term *drug target*, of which receptors are one type, is preferable in this context.

In the more general context of cell biology, the term receptor is used to describe various cell surface molecules (such as T-cell receptors, integrins, Toll receptors, etc; see Ch. 6) involved in the cell-to-cell interactions that are important in immunology, cell growth, migration and differentiation, some of which are also emerging as drug targets. These receptors differ from conventional pharmacological receptors in that they respond to proteins attached to cell surfaces or extracellular structures, rather than to soluble mediators.

Various carrier proteins are often referred to as receptors, such as the *low-density lipoprotein receptor* that plays a key role in lipid metabolism (Ch. 23) and the transferrin receptor involved in iron absorption (Ch. 25). These entities have little in common with pharmacological receptors. Though quite distinct from pharmacological receptors, these proteins play an important role in the action of drugs such as *statins* (Ch. 23).

Receptors in Physiological Systems

Receptors form a key part of the system of chemical communication that all multicellular organisms use to coordinate the activities of their cells

and organs. Without them, we would resemble a bucketful of amoebae.

Some fundamental properties of receptors are illustrated by the action of **adrenaline** (epinephrine) on the heart. Adrenaline first binds to a receptor protein (the *β-adrenoceptor*, see Ch. 14) that serves as a recognition site for adrenaline and other catecholamines. When it binds to the receptor, a train of reactions is initiated (see Ch. 3) leading to an increase in force and rate of the heartbeat. In the absence of adrenaline, the receptor is functionally silent. This is true of most receptors for endogenous mediators (hormones, neurotransmitters, cytokines, etc.), although there are examples (see Ch. 3) of receptors that are 'constitutively active'—that is, they exert a controlling influence even when no chemical mediator is present.

There is an important distinction between *agonists*, which 'activate' the receptors, and *antagonists*, which combine at the same site without causing activation, and block the effect of agonists on that receptor. The distinction between agonists and antagonists only exists for receptors with this type of physiological regulatory role; we cannot usefully speak of 'agonists' for the more general class of drug targets described above.

The characteristics and accepted nomenclature of pharmacological receptors are described by Neubig *et al.* (2003). The origins of the receptor concept and its pharmacological significance are discussed by Rang (2006).

Drug Specificity

For a drug to be useful as either a therapeutic or a scientific tool, it must act selectively on particular cells and tissues. In other words, it must show a high degree of binding site specificity. Conversely, proteins that function as drug targets generally show a high degree of ligand specificity; they bind only molecules of a certain precise type.

These principles of binding site and ligand specificity can be clearly recognised in the actions of a mediator such as **angiotensin** (Ch. 22). This peptide acts strongly on vascular smooth muscle, and on the kidney tubule, but has very little effect on other kinds of smooth muscle or on the intestinal epithelium. Other mediators affect a quite different spectrum of cells and tissues, the pattern in each case reflecting the specific pattern of expression of the protein receptors for the various mediators. A small chemical change, such as conversion of one of the amino acids in angiotensin from L to D form, or removal of one amino acid from the chain, can inactivate the molecule altogether, because the receptor fails to bind the altered form. The complementary specificity of ligands and binding sites, which gives rise to the very exact molecular recognition properties of proteins, is central to explaining many of the phenomena of pharmacology. It is no exaggeration to say that the ability of proteins to interact in a highly selective way with other molecules—including other proteins—is the basis of living machines. Its relevance to the understanding of drug action will be a recurring theme in this book.

Finally, it must be emphasised that no drug acts with complete specificity. Thus tricyclic antidepressant drugs (Ch. 46) act by blocking monoamine transporters but are notorious for producing side effects (e.g. dry mouth) related to their ability to block various receptors. In general, the lower the potency of a drug and the higher the dose needed, the more likely it is that sites of action other than the primary one will assume significance. In clinical terms, this is often associated with the appearance of unwanted side effects, of which no drug is free.

Since the 1970s, pharmacological research has succeeded in identifying the protein targets of many different types of drug. Drugs such as opioid analgesics (Ch. 41), cannabinoids (Ch. 18) and benzodiazepine tranquillisers (Ch.43), whose actions had been described in exhaustive

detail for many years, are now known to target well-defined receptors, which have been fully characterised by gene-cloning techniques (see Ch. 3).

Receptor Classification

▼ Where the action of a drug can be associated with a particular receptor, this provides a valuable means for classification and refinement in drug design. For example, pharmacological analysis of the actions of histamine (see Ch. 17) showed that some of its effects (the H_1 effects, such as smooth muscle contraction) were strongly antagonised by the competitive histamine antagonists then known. Black and his colleagues suggested in 1970 that the remaining actions of histamine, which included its stimulant effect on gastric secretion, might represent a second class of histamine receptor (H_2). Testing a number of histamine analogues, they found that some were selective in producing H_2 effects, with little H_1 activity. By analysing which parts of the histamine molecule conferred this type of specificity, they were able to develop selective H_2 antagonists, which proved to be potent in blocking gastric acid secretion, a development of major therapeutic significance (Ch. 29). Two further types of histamine receptor (H_3 and H_4) were recognised later.

Receptor classification based on pharmacological responses continues to be a valuable and widely used approach. Newer experimental approaches have produced other criteria on which to base receptor classification. The direct measurement of ligand binding to receptors (see below) has allowed many new receptor subtypes to be defined that could not easily be distinguished by studies of drug effects. Molecular cloning (see Ch. 3) provided a completely new basis for classification at a much finer level of detail than can be reached through

pharmacological analysis. Finally, analysis of the biochemical pathways that are linked to receptor activation (see Ch. 3) provides yet another basis for classification.

The result of this data explosion was that receptor classification suddenly became much more detailed, with a proliferation of receptor subtypes for all the main types of ligand. As alternative molecular and biochemical classifications began to spring up that were incompatible with the accepted pharmacologically defined receptor classes, the International Union of Pharmacological Sciences (IUPHAR) convened expert working groups to produce agreed receptor classifications for the major types, taking into account the pharmacological, molecular and biochemical information available. These wise people have a hard task; their conclusions will be neither perfect nor final but are essential to ensure a consistent terminology. To the student, this may seem an arcane exercise in taxonomy, generating much detail but little illumination. There is a danger that the tedious lists of drug names, actions and side effects that used to burden the subject will be replaced by exhaustive tables of receptors, ligands and transduction pathways. In this book, we have tried to avoid detail for its own sake and include only such information on receptor classification as seems interesting in its own right or is helpful in explaining the actions of important drugs. A comprehensive IUPHAR database of known receptor classes is available (see http://www.iuphar-db.org), as well as a regularly updated summary (Alexander et al., 2009).

Drug–Receptor Interactions

Occupation of a receptor by a drug molecule may or may not result in *activation* of the receptor. By activation, we mean that the receptor is affected by the bound molecule in such a way as to elicit a tissue

response. The molecular mechanisms associated with receptor activation are discussed in Chapter 3. Binding and activation represent two distinct steps in the generation of the receptor-mediated response by an agonist (Fig. 2.1). If a drug binds to the receptor without causing activation and thereby prevents the agonist from binding, it is termed a *receptor antagonist*. The tendency of a drug to bind to the receptors is governed by its *affinity*, whereas the tendency for it, once bound, to activate the receptor is denoted by its *efficacy*. These terms are defined more precisely below (p. 13). Drugs of high potency generally have a high affinity for the receptors and thus occupy a significant proportion of the receptors even at low concentrations. Agonists also possess significant efficacy, whereas antagonists, in the simplest case, have zero efficacy. Drugs with intermediate levels of efficacy, such that even when 100% of the receptors are occupied the tissue response is submaximal, are known as *partial agonists*, to distinguish them from *full agonists*, the efficacy of which is sufficient that they can elicit a maximal tissue response. These concepts, though clearly an oversimplified description of events at the molecular level (see Ch. 3), provide a useful basis for characterising drug effects.

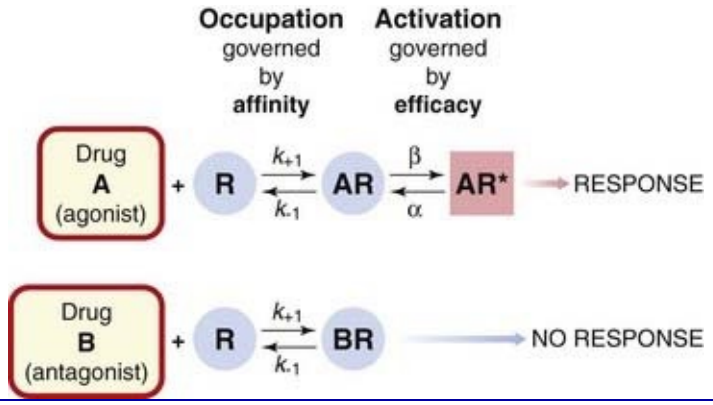


Fig. 2.1 The distinction between drug binding and receptor activation.

Ligand A is an agonist, because when it is bound, the receptor (R) tends to become activated, whereas ligand B is an antagonist, because binding does not lead to activation. The rate constants $k+1$, $k-1$, α and β for the binding and activation steps vary between drugs. For an

antagonist, which does not activate the receptor, $\beta = 0$.

We now discuss certain aspects in more detail, namely drug binding, agonist concentration–effect curves, competitive antagonism, partial agonists and the nature of efficacy. Understanding these concepts at a qualitative level is sufficient for many purposes, but for more detailed analysis a quantitative formulation is needed (see p. 16).

The Binding of Drugs to Receptors

▼ The binding of drugs to receptors can often be measured directly by the use of drug molecules (agonists or antagonists) labelled with one or more radioactive atoms (usually ^{3}H, ^{14}C or ^{125}I). The usual procedure is to incubate samples of the tissue (or membrane fragments) with various concentrations of radioactive drug until equilibrium is reached. The bound radioactivity is measured after removal of the supernatant.

In such experiments, there is invariably a certain amount of 'non-specific binding' (i.e. drug taken up by structures other than receptors), which obscures the specific component and needs to be kept to a minimum. The amount of non-specific binding is estimated by measuring the radioactivity taken up in the presence of a saturating concentration of a (non-radioactive) ligand that inhibits completely the binding of the radioactive drug to the receptors, leaving behind the non-specific component. This is then subtracted from the total binding to give an estimate of specific binding (Fig. 2.2). The *binding curve* (Fig. 2.2B) defines the relationship between concentration and the amount of drug bound (B), and in most cases it fits well to the relationship predicted theoretically (see Fig. 2.11, below), allowing the affinity of the drug for the receptors to be estimated, as well as the *binding capacity* (B_{max}), representing the density of receptors in the tissue. When combined with functional studies, binding measurements have proved very valuable. It

has, for example, been confirmed that the *spare receptor hypothesis* (p. 13) for muscarinic receptors in smooth muscle is correct; agonists are found to bind, in general, with rather low affinity, and a maximal biological effect occurs at low receptor occupancy. It has also been shown, in skeletal muscle and other tissues, that denervation leads to an increase in the number of receptors in the target cell, a finding that accounts, at least in part, for the phenomenon of *denervation supersensitivity*. More generally, it appears that receptors tend to increase in number, usually over the course of a few days, if the relevant hormone or transmitter is absent or scarce, and to decrease in number if it is in excess, a process of adaptation to drugs or hormones resulting from continued administration (see p. 15).

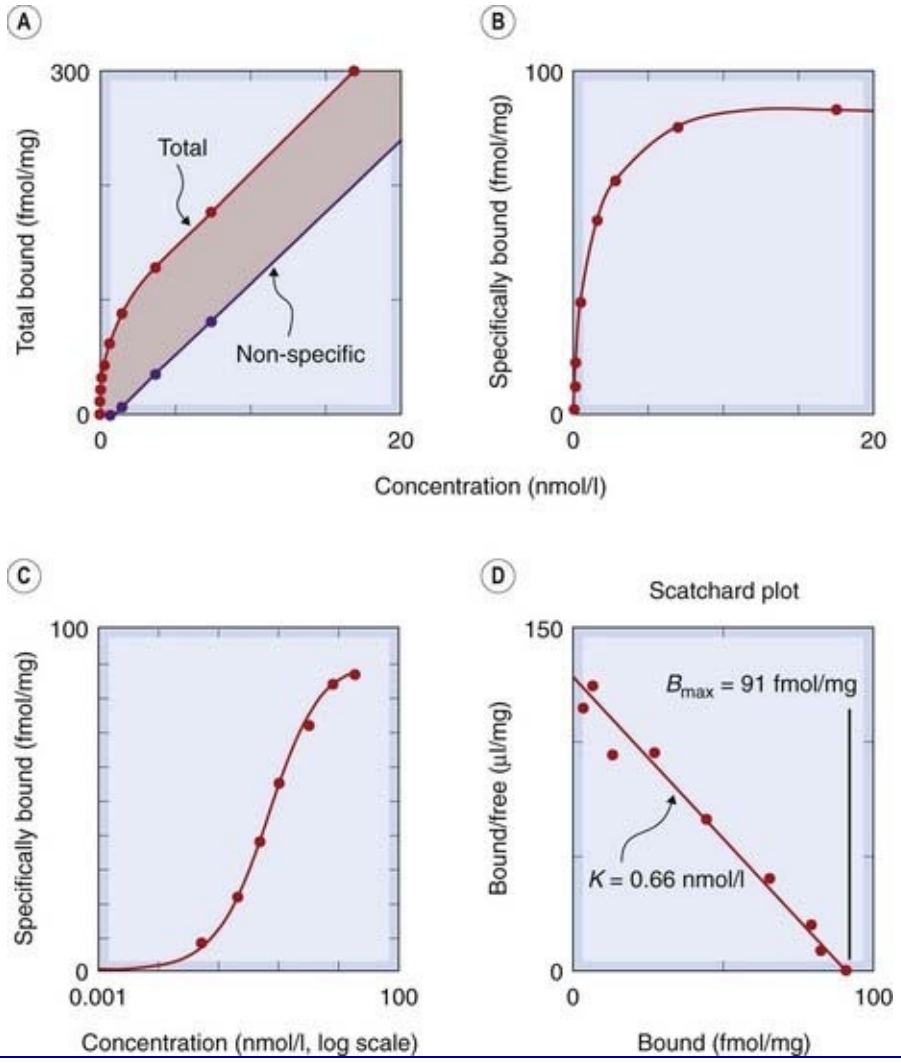


Fig. 2.2 Measurement of receptor binding (β adrenoceptors in cardiac cell membranes).

The ligand was [^{3}H]-cyanopindolol, a derivative of pindolol (see Ch. 14). [**A**] Measurements of total and non-specific binding at equilibrium. Non-specific binding is measured in the presence of a saturating concentration of a non-radioactive β-adrenoceptor agonist, which prevents the radioactive ligand from binding to β adrenoceptors. The difference between the two lines represents specific binding. [**B**] Specific binding plotted against concentration. The curve is a rectangular hyperbola (equation 2.5). [**C**] Specific binding plotted against concentration (log scale). The sigmoid curve is a *logistic curve* representing the logarithmic scaling of the rectangular hyperbola plotted in panel B. [**D**] Scatchard plot (equation 2.7). This gives a straight line from which the binding parameters K and B_{max} can be calculated.

Non-invasive imaging techniques, such as *positron emission tomography* (PET), can also be used to investigate the distribution of receptors in

structures such as the living human brain. This technique has been used, for example, to measure the degree of dopamine receptor blockade produced by antipsychotic drugs in the brains of schizophrenic patients (see Ch. 45).

Binding curves with agonists often reveal an apparent heterogeneity among receptors. For example, agonist binding to muscarinic receptors (Ch. 13) and also to β-adrenoceptors (Ch. 14) suggests at least two populations of binding sites with different affinities. This may be because the receptors can exist either unattached or coupled within the membrane to another macromolecule, the G-protein (see Ch. 3), which constitutes part of the transduction system through which the receptor exerts its regulatory effect. Antagonist binding does not show this complexity, probably because antagonists, by their nature, do not lead to the secondary event of G-protein coupling. Because agonist binding results in activation, agonist affinity has proved to be a surprisingly elusive concept, about which afficionados love to argue.

The Relation between Drug Concentration and Effect

Although binding can be measured directly, it is usually a biological response, such as a rise in blood pressure, contraction or relaxation of a strip of smooth muscle in an organ bath, the activation of an enzyme, or a behavioural response, that we are interested in, and this is often plotted as a *concentration–effect curve* (in vitro) or *dose–response curve* (in vivo), as in Figure 2.3. Such curves allow us to estimate *the maximal response* that the drug can produce (E_{max}), and the concentration or dose needed to produce a 50% maximal response (EC_{50} or ED_{50}), parameters that are useful for comparing the potencies of different drugs that produce qualitatively similar effects (see Ch. 7). Although they look similar to the binding curve in Figure 2.2C, concentration–effect curves

cannot be used to measure the affinity of agonist drugs for their receptors, because the physiological response produced is not, as a rule, directly proportional to receptor occupancy. For an integrated physiological response, such as a rise in arterial blood pressure produced by adrenaline (epinephrine), many factors interact. Adrenaline (see Ch. 14) increases cardiac output and constricts some blood vessels while dilating others, and the change in arterial pressure itself evokes a superimposed reflex response. The final effect is clearly not a direct measure of receptor occupancy in this instance, and the same is true of most drug-induced effects.

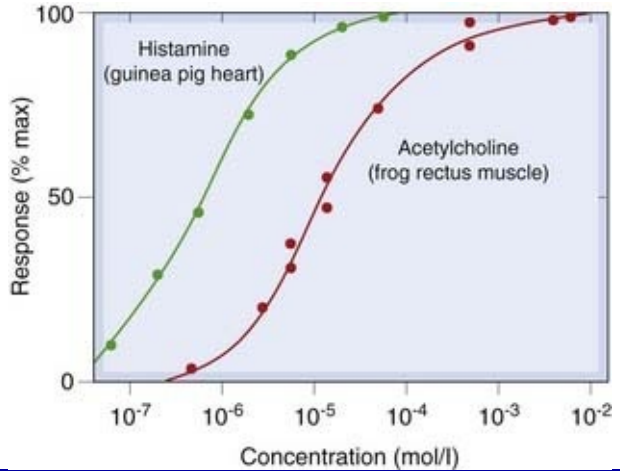


Fig. 2.3 Experimentally observed concentration–effect curves.
Although the lines, drawn according to the binding equation 2.5, fit the points well, such curves do not give correct estimates of the affinity of drugs for receptors. This is because the relationship between receptor occupancy and response is usually non-linear.

In interpreting concentration–effect curves, it must be remembered that the concentration of the drug at the receptors may differ from the known concentration in the bathing solution. Agonists may be subject to rapid enzymic degradation or uptake by cells as they diffuse from the surface towards their site of action, and a steady state can be reached in which the agonist concentration at the receptors is very much less than

the concentration in the bath. In the case of acetylcholine, for example, which is hydrolysed by cholinesterase present in most tissues (see Ch. 13), the concentration reaching the receptors can be less than 1% of that in the bath, and an even bigger difference has been found with noradrenaline (norepinephrine), which is avidly taken up by sympathetic nerve terminals in many tissues (Ch. 14). Thus, even if the concentration–effect curve, as in Figure 2.3, looks just like a facsimile of the binding curve (Fig. 2.2C), it cannot be used directly to determine the affinity of the agonist for the receptors.

Competitive Antagonism

Though one drug can inhibit the response to another in several ways (see below), competition at the receptor level is particularly important, both in the laboratory and in the clinic, because of the high potency and specificity that can be achieved.

In the presence of a competitive antagonist, the agonist occupancy at a given agonist concentration is reduced, because the receptor can accommodate only one molecule at a time. However, because the two are in competition, raising the agonist concentration can restore the agonist occupancy (and hence the tissue response). The antagonism is therefore said to be *surmountable*, in contrast to other types of antagonism (see below) where increasing the agonist concentration fails to overcome the blocking effect. A simple theoretical analysis (see p. 17) predicts that in the presence of a fixed concentration of the antagonist, the log concentration–effect curve for the agonist will be shifted to the right, without any change in slope or maximum—the hallmark of competitive antagonism (Fig. 2.4A). The shift is expressed as a *dose ratio*, *r*, (the ratio by which the agonist concentration has to be increased in the presence of the antagonist in order to restore a given level of

response). Theory predicts that the dose ratio increases linearly with the concentration of the antagonist (see p. 17). These predictions are often borne out in practice (see Fig. 2.5), and examples of competitive antagonism are very common in pharmacology. The surmountability of the block by the antagonist may be important in practice, because it allows the functional effect of the agonist to be restored by an increase in concentration. With other types of antagonism (see below), the block is usually insurmountable.

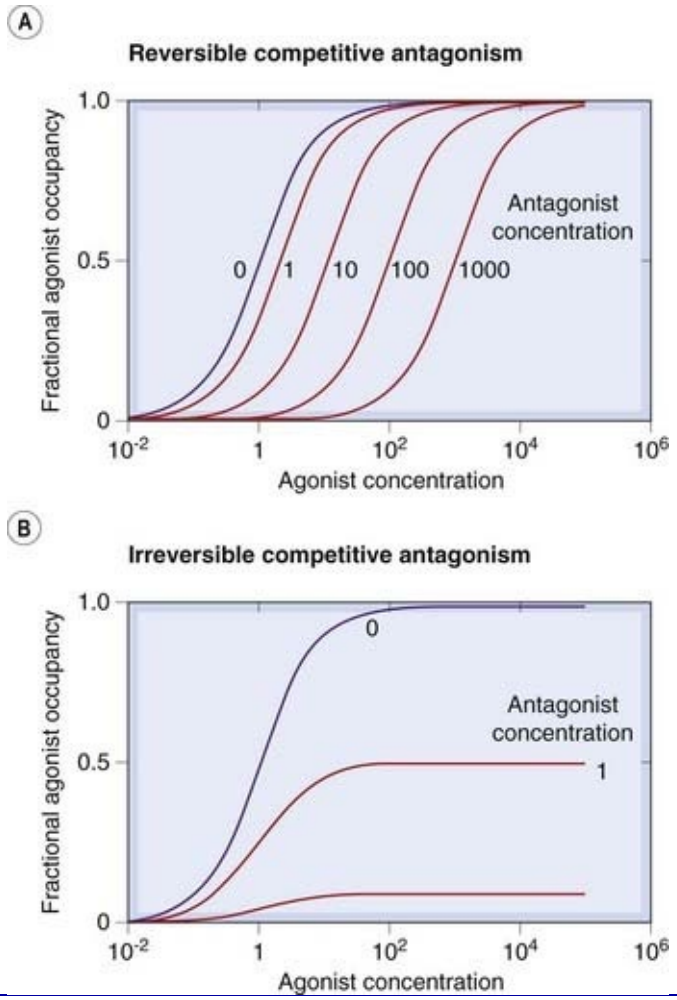


Fig. 2.4 Hypothetical agonist concentration–occupancy curves in the presence of reversible [A] and irreversible [B] competitive antagonists.

The concentrations are normalised with respect to the equilibrium constants, K (i.e. 1.0 corresponds to a concentration equal to K and results in 50% occupancy). Note that increasing the agonist concentration overcomes the effect of a reversible antagonist (i.e. the block is

surmountable), so that the maximal response is unchanged, whereas the effect of an irreversible antagonist is unsurmountable and full agonist occupancy cannot be achieved.

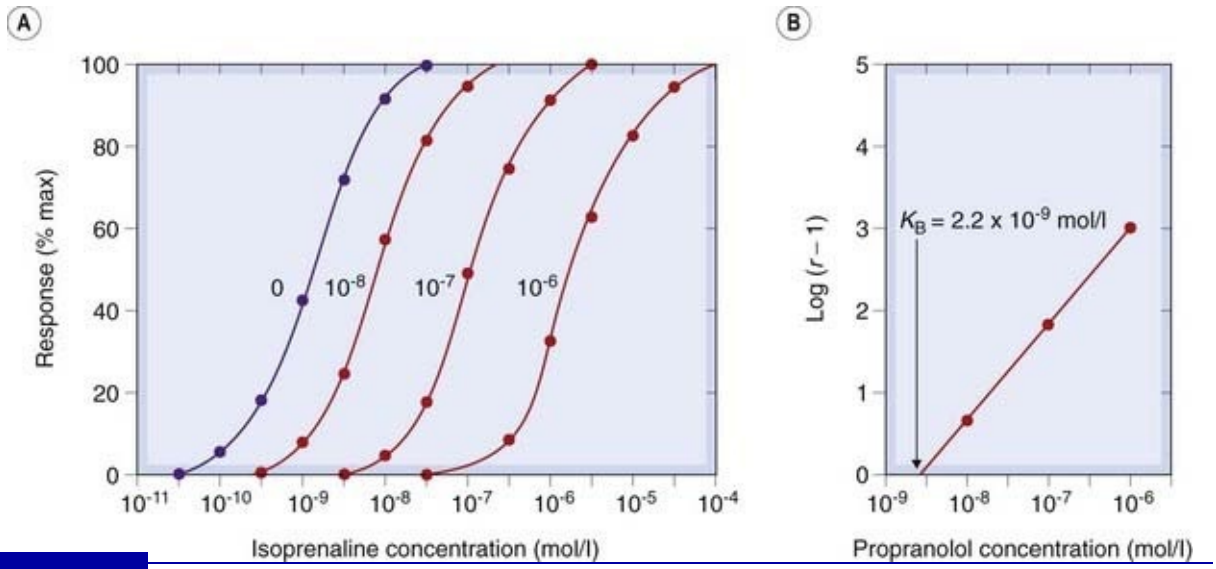


Fig. 2.5 Competitive antagonism of isoprenaline by propranolol measured on isolated guinea pig atria.

[**A**] Concentration–effect curves at various propranolol concentrations (indicated on the curves). Note the progressive shift to the right without a change of slope or maximum. [**B**] Schild plot (equation 2.10). The equilibrium constant (K) for propranolol is given by the abscissal intercept, 2.2×10^{-9} mol/l.

(Results from Potter L T 1967 Uptake of propranolol by isolated guinea-pig atria. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 55: 91–100.)

The salient features of competitive antagonism are:

• shift of the agonist log concentration–effect curve to the right, without change of slope or maximum

• linear relationship between agonist dose ratio and antagonist concentration

• evidence of competition from binding studies.

Competitive antagonism is the most direct mechanism by which one drug can reduce the effect of another (or of an endogenous mediator), and several examples are listed in Table 3.1.

▼ The characteristics of reversible competitive antagonism described above reflect the fact that the rate of dissociation of the antagonist molecules is sufficiently high that a new equilibrium is rapidly established on addition of the agonist. In effect, the agonist is able to displace the antagonist molecules from the receptors, although it cannot, of course, evict a bound antagonist molecule. Displacement occurs because, by occupying a proportion of the vacant receptors, the agonist reduces the rate of association of the antagonist molecules; consequently, the rate of dissociation temporarily exceeds that of association, and the overall antagonist occupancy falls.

Irreversible, or *non-equilibrium*, competitive antagonism occurs when the antagonist dissociates very slowly, or not at all, from the receptors, with the result that no change in the antagonist occupancy takes place when the agonist is applied.[2]

[2]This type of antagonism is sometimes called non-competitive, but that term is ambiguous and best avoided in this context.

The predicted effects of reversible and irreversible antagonists are compared in Figure 2.4.

Competitive antagonism

- Reversible competitive antagonism is the commonest and most important type of antagonism; it has two main characteristics:
  - in the presence of the antagonist, the agonist log concentration–effect curve is shifted to the right without change in slope or maximum, the extent of the shift being a measure of the *dose ratio*
  - the dose ratio increases linearly with antagonist concentration; the slope of this line is a measure of the affinity of the antagonist for the receptor.
- Antagonist affinity, measured in this way, is widely used as a basis for receptor

classification.

In some cases (Fig. 2.6A), the theoretical effect is accurately reproduced, but the distinction between reversible and irreversible competitive antagonism (or even non-competitive antagonism; see below) is not always so clear. This is because of the phenomenon of spare receptors (see p. 13); if the agonist occupancy required to produce a maximal biological response is very small (say 1% of the total receptor pool), then it is possible to block irreversibly nearly 99% of the receptors without reducing the maximal response. The effect of a lesser degree of antagonist occupancy will be to produce a parallel shift of the log concentration–effect curve that is indistinguishable from reversible competitive antagonism (Fig. 2.6B).

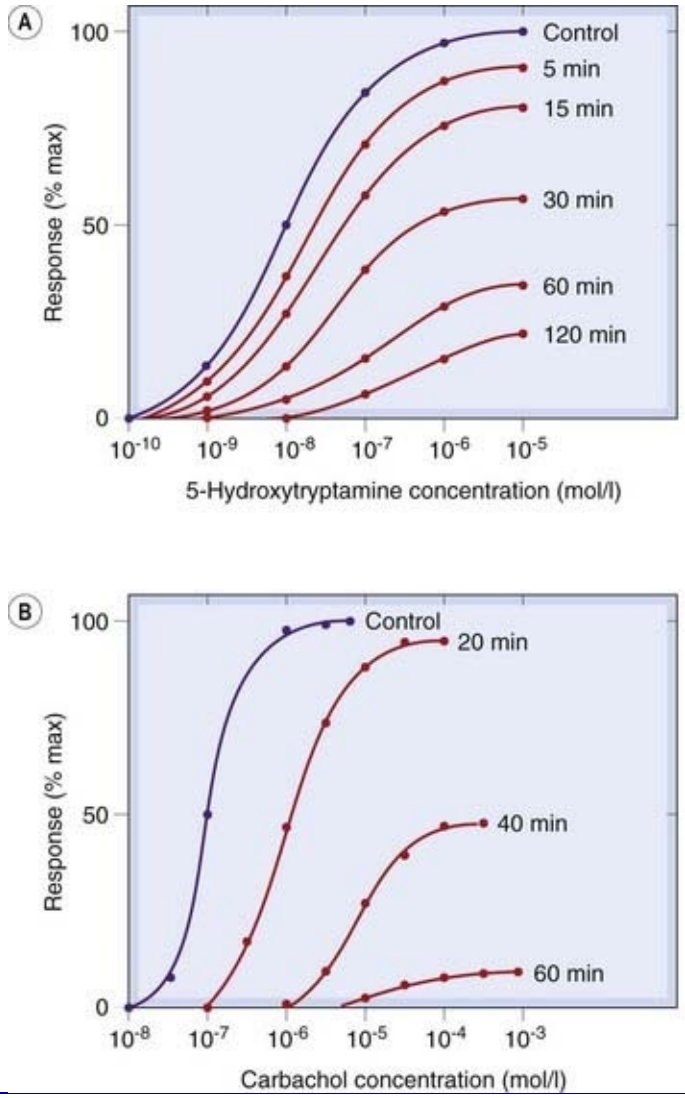


Fig. 2.6 Effects of irreversible competitive antagonists on agonist concentration–effect curves.

[**A**] Rat stomach smooth muscle responding to 5-hydroxytryptamine at various times after addition of methysergide (10^{-9} mol/l). [**B**] Rabbit stomach responding to carbachol at various times after addition of dibenamine (10^{-5} mol/l).

*([**A**] After Frankhuijsen A L, Bonta I L 1974 Eur J Pharmacol 26: 220; [**B**] After Furchgott R F 1965 Adv Drug Res 3: 21.)*

Irreversible competitive antagonism occurs with drugs that possess reactive groups that form covalent bonds with the receptor. These are mainly used as experimental tools for investigating receptor function, and few are used clinically. Irreversible enzyme inhibitors that act

similarly are clinically used, however, and include drugs such as aspirin (Ch. 26), omeprazole (Ch. 29) and monoamine oxidase inhibitors (Ch. 46).

Allosteric Effects

▼ In addition to the agonist binding site, to which competitive antagonists bind, receptor proteins possess many other (allosteric) binding sites (see Ch. 3) through which drugs can influence receptor function in various ways, increasing or decreasing the affinity of agonists for the agonist binding site, or by modifying efficacy. Depending on the direction of the effect, the ligands may be allosteric antagonists or allosteric facilitators of the agonist effect, and the effect may be to alter the slope and maximum of the agonist log concentration–effect curve. This type of allosteric modulation of receptor function has attracted much attention recently (see review by May et al., 2007), and may prove to be more widespread than previously envisaged. Well-known examples of allosteric facilitation include the action of glycine (allosteric ligand) on glutamate receptors and of benzodiazepines on $GABA_A$ receptors (Ch. 37).

Partial Agonists and the Concept of Efficacy

So far, we have considered drugs either as agonists, which in some way activate the receptor when they occupy it, or as antagonists, which cause no activation. However, the ability of a drug molecule to activate the receptor is actually a graded, rather than an all-or-nothing, property. If a series of chemically related agonist drugs acting on the same receptors is tested on a given biological system, it is often found that the largest response that can be produced by the drug in high concentration differs from one drug to another. Some compounds (known as *full agonists*) can produce a maximal response (the largest response that the tissue is

capable of giving), whereas others (*partial agonists*) can produce only a submaximal response. Figure 2.7A shows concentration effect curves for several α-adrenoceptor agonists (see Ch. 14) which cause contraction of isolated strips of rabbit aorta. The full agonist **phenylephrine** produced the maximal effect of which the tissue was capable; the other compounds could only produce submaximal responses and are partial agonists. The difference between full and partial agonists lies in the relationship between receptor occupancy and response. In the experiment shown in Figure 2.7 it was possible to estimate the affinity of the various drugs for the receptor, and hence (based on the theoretical model described later; p. 17) to calculate the fraction of receptors occupied (known as *occupancy*) as a function of drug concentration. Plots of response as a function of occupancy for the different compounds are shown in Figure 2.7B, showing that for partial agonists the response at a given level of occupancy is less than for full agonists. The weakest partial agonist, **tolazoline**, produces a barely detectable response even at 100% occupancy, and is usually classified as a *competitive antagonist* (see p. 10 and Ch. 14).

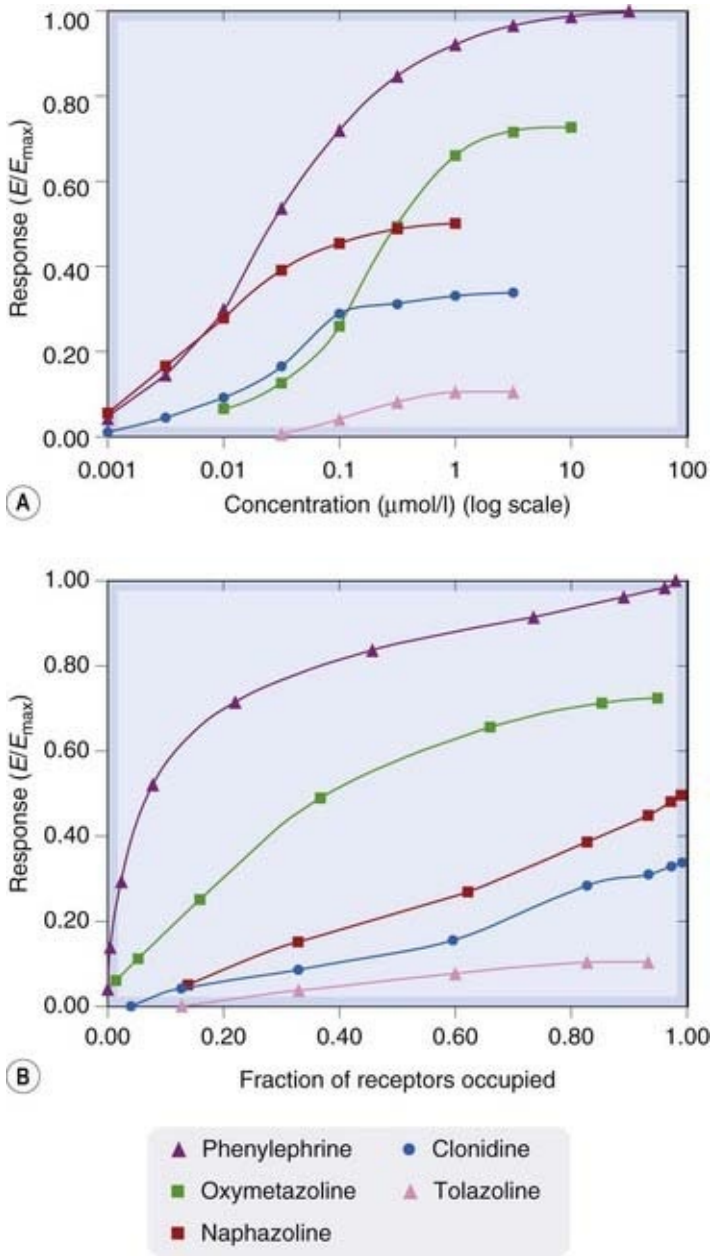


Fig. 2.7 Partial agonists.

[**A**] Log concentration–effect curves for a series of α-adrenoceptor agonists causing contraction of an isolated strip of rabbit aorta. **Phenylephrine** is a full agonist. The others are partial agonists with different efficacies. [**B**] The relationship between response and receptor occupancy for the series. Note that the full agonist, phenylephrine, produces a near-maximal response when only about half the receptors are occupied, whereas partial agonists produce submaximal responses even when occupying all of the receptors. The efficacy of **tolazoline** is so low that it is classified as an α-adrenoceptor antagonist (see Ch. 14). In these experiments, receptor occupancy was not measured directly, but was calculated from pharmacological estimates of the equilibrium constants of the drugs.

(Data from Ruffolo et al. 1979 J Pharmacol Exp Ther 209: 429–436.)

These differences can be expressed quantitatively in terms of *efficacy* (e), a parameter originally defined by Stephenson (1956) that describes the 'strength' of the agonist–receptor complex in evoking a response of the tissue. In the simple scheme shown in Figure 2.1, efficacy describes the tendency of the drug–receptor complex to adopt the active (AR*), rather than the resting (AR) state. A drug with zero efficacy (e = 0) has no tendency to cause receptor activation, and causes no tissue response. A drug with efficacy[3] is a full agonist, while partial agonists lie in between.

[3]In Stephenson's formulation, efficacy is the reciprocal of the occupancy needed to produce a 50% maximal response, thus e = 25 implies that a 50% maximal response occurs at 4% occupancy. There is no theoretical upper limit to efficacy.

▼ Subsequently, it was appreciated that characteristics of the tissue (e.g. the number of receptors that it possesses and the nature of the coupling between the receptor and the response; see Ch. 3), as well as of the drug itself, were important, and the concept of *intrinsic efficacy* was developed (see Jenkinson, 1996; Kenakin, 1997), which can account for a number of anomalous findings. For example, depending on tissue characteristics, a given drug may appear as a full agonist in one tissue but a partial agonist in another, and drugs may differ in their relative agonist potencies in different tissues, though the receptor is the same.

It would be nice to be able to explain what efficacy means in physical terms, and to understand why one drug may be an agonist while another, chemically very similar, is an antagonist. We are beginning to understand the molecular events underlying receptor activation (described in Ch. 3) but can still give no clear answer to the question of

why some ligands are agonists and some are antagonists, although the simple theoretical two-state model described below provides a useful starting point.

Despite its uncertain mechanistic basis, efficacy is a concept of great practical importance. **Adrenaline** (epinephrine) and **propranolol** (see Ch. 14) have comparable affinities for the β-adrenoceptor but differ in efficacy. Woe-betide the doctor—and the student, for that matter—who confuses them. Efficacy matters!

Constitutive Receptor Activation and Inverse Agonists

▼ Although we are accustomed to thinking that receptors are activated only when an agonist molecule is bound, there are examples (see De Ligt et al., 2000) where an appreciable level of activation may exist even when no ligand is present. These include receptors for benzodiazepines (see Ch. 43), cannabinoids (Ch. 18), serotonin (Ch. 15) and several other mediators. Furthermore, receptor mutations occur—either spontaneously, in some disease states (see Bond & Ijzerman, 2006) or experimentally created (see Ch. 4)—that result in appreciable activation in the absence of any ligand (*constitutive activation*). Resting activity may be too low to have any effect under normal conditions but become evident if receptors are overexpressed, a phenomenon clearly demonstrated for β-adrenoceptors (see Bond et al., 1995), a result that may prove to have major pathophysiological implications. Thus if, say, 1% of receptors are active in the absence of any agonist, in a normal cell expressing perhaps 10 000 receptors, only 100 will be active. Increasing the expression level 10-fold will result in 1000 active receptors, producing a significant effect. Under these conditions, it may be possible for a ligand to reduce the level of constitutive activation; such drugs are known as *inverse agonists* (Fig. 2.8; see De Ligt et al., 2000) to distinguish

them from *neutral antagonists*, which do not by themselves affect the level of activation. Inverse agonists can be regarded as drugs with negative efficacy, to distinguish them from agonists (positive efficacy) and neutral antagonists (zero efficacy). New examples of constitutively active receptors and inverse agonists are emerging with increasing frequency (mainly among G-protein-coupled receptors; Seifert & Wenzel-Seifert, 2002). In theory, an inverse agonist, by silencing constitutively active receptors, should be more effective than a neutral antagonist in disease states associated with receptor mutations or with receptor-directed autoantibodies that result in enhanced constitutive activation. These include certain types of hyperthyroidism, precocious puberty and parathyroid diseases (see Bond & Ijzerman, 2006). This remains to be verified, but it turns out that most of the receptor antagonists in clinical use are actually inverse agonists when tested in systems showing constitutive receptor activation. However, most receptors—like cats—show a preference for the inactive state, and for these there is no practical difference between a competitive antagonist and an inverse agonist. It remains to be seen whether the inverse agonist principle will prove to be generally important in therapeutics, but interest is running high. So far, nearly all the examples come from the family of G-protein-coupled receptors (see Ch. 3 and the review by Costa & Cotecchia, 2005), and it is not clear whether similar phenomena occur with other receptor families.

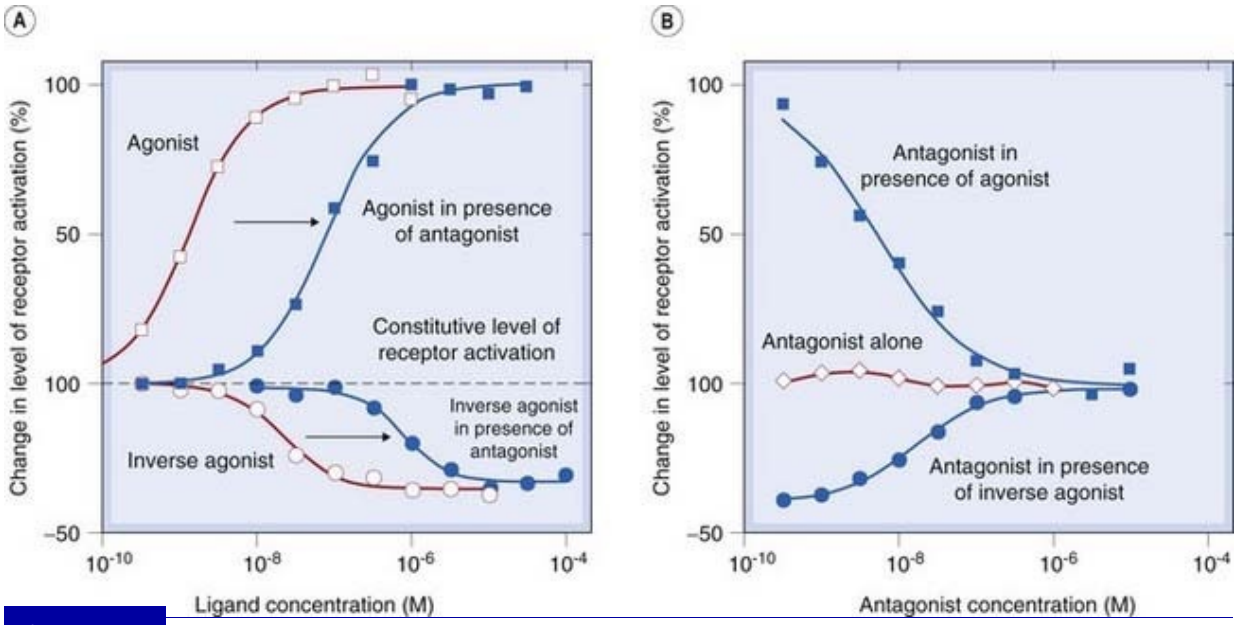


Fig. 2.8 Inverse agonism. The interaction of a competitive antagonist with normal and inverse agonists in a system that shows receptor activation in the absence of any added ligands (constitutive activation).

[**A**] The degree of receptor activation (vertical scale) increases in the presence of an agonist (open squares) and decreases in the presence of an inverse agonist (open circles). Addition of a competitive antagonist shifts both curves to the right (closed symbols). [**B**] The antagonist on its own does not alter the level of constitutive activity (open symbols), because it has equal affinity for the active and inactive states of the receptor. In the presence of an agonist (closed squares) or an inverse agonist (closed circles), the antagonist restores the system towards the constitutive level of activity. These data (reproduced with permission from Newman-Tancredi A *et al.* 1997 Br J Pharmacol 120: 737–739) were obtained with cloned human 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) receptors expressed in a cell line. (Agonist, 5-carboxamidotryptamine; inverse agonist, spiperone; antagonist, WAY 100635; ligand concentration [M = mol/l]; see Ch. 15 for information on 5-HT receptor pharmacology.)

The following section describes a simple model that explains full, partial and inverse agonism in terms of the relative affinity of different ligands for the resting and activated states of the receptor.

The two-state receptor model

▼ As illustrated in Figure 2.1, agonists and antagonists both bind to receptors, but only agonists activate them. How can we express this difference, and account for constitutive activity, in theoretical terms?

The two-state model (Fig. 2.9) provides a simple but useful approach.

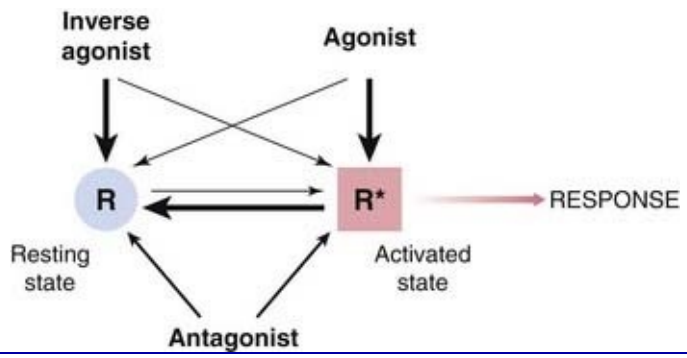


Fig. 2.9 The two-state model.

The receptor is shown in two conformational states, 'resting' (R) and 'activated' (R*), which exist in equilibrium. Normally, when no ligand is present, the equilibrium lies far to the left, and few receptors are found in the R* state. For constitutively active receptors, an appreciable proportion of receptors adopt the R* conformation in the absence of any ligand. Agonists have higher affinity for R* than for R, so shift the equilibrium towards R*. The greater the relative affinity for R* with respect to R, the greater the efficacy of the agonist. An inverse agonist has higher affinity for R than for R* and so shifts the equilibrium to the left. A 'neutral' antagonist has equal affinity for R and R* so does not by itself affect the conformational equilibrium but reduces by competition the binding of other ligands.

As shown in Figure 2.1, we envisage that the occupied receptor can switch from its 'resting' (R) state to an activated (R*) state, R* being favoured by binding of an agonist but not an antagonist molecule.

As described above, receptors may show constitutive activation (i.e. the R* conformation can exist without any ligand being bound), so the added drug encounters an equilibrium mixture of R and R* (Fig. 2.9). If it has a higher affinity for R* than for R, the drug will cause a shift of the equilibrium towards R* (i.e. it will promote activation and be classed as an agonist). If its preference for R* is very large, nearly all the occupied receptors will adopt the R* conformation and the drug will be a full agonist (positive efficacy); if it shows only a modest degree of selectivity for R* (say 5–10-fold), a smaller proportion of occupied receptors will adopt the R* conformation and it will be a partial agonist;

if it shows no preference, the prevailing R:R* equilibrium will not be disturbed and the drug will be a neutral antagonist (zero efficacy), whereas if it shows selectivity for R it will shift the equilibrium towards R and be an inverse agonist (negative efficacy). We can therefore think of efficacy as a property determined by the relative affinity of a ligand for R and R*, a formulation known as the *two-state model*, which is useful in that it puts a physical interpretation on the otherwise mysterious meaning of efficacy, as well as accounting for the existence of inverse agonists.

A major problem with the two-state model is that, as we now know, receptors are not actually restricted to two distinct states but have much greater conformational flexibility, so that there is more than one inactive and active conformation. The different conformations that they can adopt may be preferentially stabilised by different ligands, and may produce different functional effects by activating different signal transduction pathways (see Ch. 3). Redefining efficacy for such a multistate model is difficult, however, and requires a more complicated state transition model than that described here.

Agonists, antagonists and efficacy

• Drugs acting on receptors may be *agonists* or *antagonists*.

• Agonists initiate changes in cell function, producing effects of various types; antagonists bind to receptors without initiating such changes.

• Agonist potency depends on two parameters: *affinity* (i.e. tendency to bind to receptors) and *efficacy* (i.e. ability, once bound, to initiate changes that lead to effects).

• For antagonists, efficacy is zero.

• *Full agonists* (which can produce maximal effects) have high efficacy; *partial agonists* (which

can produce only submaximal effects) have intermediate efficacy.

• According to the two-state model, efficacy reflects the relative affinity of the compound for the resting and activated states of the receptor. Agonists show selectivity for the activated state; antagonists show no selectivity. This model, although helpful, fails to account for the complexity of agonist action.

• *Inverse agonists* show selectivity for the resting state of the receptor, this being of significance only in situations where the receptors show *constitutive activity*.

Spare Receptors

▼ Stephenson (1956), studying the actions of acetylcholine analogues in isolated tissues, found that many full agonists were capable of eliciting maximal responses at very low occupancies, often less than 1%. This means that the mechanism linking the response to receptor occupancy has a substantial reserve capacity. Such systems may be said to possess *spare receptors*, or a receptor reserve. This is common with drugs that elicit smooth muscle contraction but less so for other types of receptor-mediated response, such as secretion, smooth muscle relaxation or cardiac stimulation, where the effect is more nearly proportional to receptor occupancy. The existence of spare receptors does not imply any functional subdivision of the receptor pool, but merely that the pool is larger than the number needed to evoke a full response. This surplus of receptors over the number actually needed might seem a wasteful biological arrangement. It means, however, that a given number of agonist–receptor complexes, corresponding to a given level of biological response, can be reached with a lower concentration of hormone or neurotransmitter than would be the case if fewer receptors were provided. Economy of hormone or transmitter secretion is thus achieved at the expense of providing more receptors.

Drug Antagonism and Synergism

Frequently, the effect of one drug is reduced or enhanced in the presence of another. Competitive antagonism, described earlier, is a common and important mechanism, which will be encountered frequently in this book. However, a variety of other mechanisms can account for inhibitory or facilitatory interactions between drugs. The following list includes the most important ones:

- chemical antagonism
- pharmacokinetic antagonism
- block of receptor–effector linkage
- physiological antagonism.

Chemical Antagonism

Chemical antagonism refers to the uncommon situation where the two substances combine in solution; as a result, the effect of the active drug is lost. Examples include the use of chelating agents (e.g. **dimercaprol**) that bind to heavy metals and thus reduce their toxicity, and the use of the neutralising antibody **infliximab** which has an anti-inflammatory action due to its ability to sequester the inflammatory cytokine, tumour necrosis factor (TNF; see Ch. 17).

Pharmacokinetic Antagonism

Pharmacokinetic antagonism describes the situation in which the 'antagonist' effectively reduces the concentration of the active drug at its site of action. This can happen in various ways. The rate of metabolic degradation of the active drug may be increased (e.g. the reduction of the anticoagulant effect of **warfarin** when an agent that accelerates its

hepatic metabolism, such as **phenobarbital**, is given; see Chs 9 and 56). Alternatively, the rate of absorption of the active drug from the gastrointestinal tract may be reduced, or the rate of renal excretion may be increased. Interactions of this sort, discussed in more detail in Chapter 56, are common and can be important in clinical practice.

Block of Receptor–Effector Linkage

Non-competitive antagonism describes the situation where the antagonist blocks at some point, downstream from the receptor, the chain of events that leads to the production of a response by the agonist. For example, drugs such as **verapamil** and **nifedipine** prevent the influx of Ca^{2+} through the cell membrane (see Ch. 22) and thus block non-specifically the contraction of smooth muscle produced by other drugs. As a rule, the effect will be to reduce the slope and maximum of the agonist log concentration–response curve although it is quite possible for some degree of rightward shift to occur as well.

Physiological Antagonism

Physiological antagonism is a term used loosely to describe the interaction of two drugs whose opposing actions in the body tend to cancel each other. For example, **histamine** acts on receptors of the parietal cells of the gastric mucosa to stimulate acid secretion, while **omeprazole** blocks this effect by inhibiting the proton pump; the two drugs can be said to act as physiological antagonists.

Types of drug antagonism

Drug antagonism occurs by various mechanisms:

- chemical antagonism (interaction in solution)
- pharmacokinetic antagonism (one drug affecting the absorption, metabolism or excretion of

the other)

• competitive antagonism (both drugs binding to the same receptors); the antagonism may be reversible or irreversible

• interruption of receptor–effector linkage

• physiological antagonism (two agents producing opposing physiological effects).

Desensitisation and Tachyphylaxis

Often, the effect of a drug gradually diminishes when it is given continuously or repeatedly. *Desensitisation* and *tachyphylaxis* are synonymous terms used to describe this phenomenon, which often develops in the course of a few minutes. The term *tolerance* is conventionally used to describe a more gradual decrease in responsiveness to a drug, taking days or weeks to develop, but the distinction is not a sharp one. The term *refractoriness* is also sometimes used, mainly in relation to a loss of therapeutic efficacy. *Drug resistance* is a term used to describe the loss of effectiveness of antimicrobial or antitumour drugs (see Chs 49 and 55). Many different mechanisms can give rise to this type of phenomenon. They include:

• change in receptors

• translocation of receptors

• exhaustion of mediators

• increased metabolic degradation of the drug

• physiological adaptation

• active extrusion of drug from cells (mainly relevant in cancer chemotherapy; see Ch. 55).

Change in Receptors

Among receptors directly coupled to ion channels (see Ch. 3), desensitisation is often rapid and pronounced. At the neuromuscular junction (Fig. 2.10A), the desensitised state is caused by a conformational change in the receptor, resulting in tight binding of the agonist molecule without the opening of the ionic channel. Phosphorylation of intracellular regions of the receptor protein is a second, slower mechanism by which ion channels become desensitised.

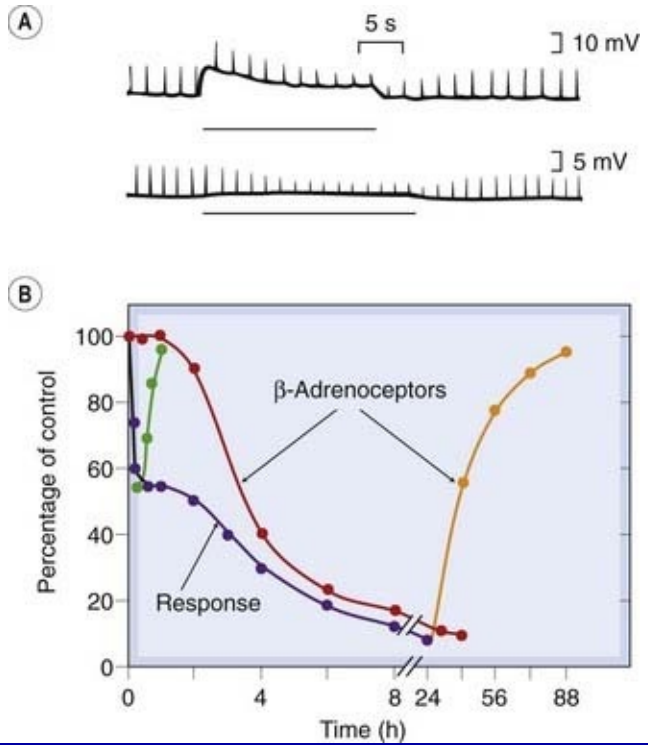


Fig. 2.10 Two kinds of receptor desensitisation.

[**A**] Acetylcholine (ACh) at the frog motor endplate. Brief depolarisations (upward deflections) are produced by short pulses of ACh delivered from a micropipette. A long pulse (horizontal line) causes the response to decline with a time course of about 20 s, owing to desensitisation, and it recovers with a similar time course. [**B**] β-Adrenoceptors of rat glioma cells in tissue culture. Isoproterenol (1 μmol/l) was added at time zero, and the adenylate cyclase response and β-adrenoceptor density measured at intervals. During the early uncoupling phase, the response (blue line) declines with no change in receptor density (red line). Later, the response declines further concomitantly with disappearance of receptors from the membrane by internalisation. The green and orange lines show the recovery of the response and receptor

density after the isoproterenol is washed out during the early or late phase.

*(From: [**A**] Katz B, Thesleff S 1957 J Physiol 138: 63; [**B**] Perkins J P 1981 Trends Pharmacol Sci 2: 326.)*

Most G-protein-coupled receptors (see Ch. 3) also show desensitisation (see Fig. 2.10B). Phosphorylation of the receptor interferes with its ability to activate second messenger cascades, although it can still bind the agonist molecule. The molecular mechanisms of this 'uncoupling' are described by Lefkowitz *et al.* (1998) and considered further in Chapter 3. This type of desensitisation usually takes a few minutes to develop, and recovers at a similar rate when the agonist is removed.

It will be realised that the two-state model in its simple form, discussed earlier, needs to be further elaborated to incorporate additional 'desensitised' states of the receptor.

Translocation of Receptors

Prolonged exposure to agonists often results in a gradual decrease in the number of receptors expressed on the cell surface, as a result of *internalisation* of the receptors. This is shown for β-adrenoceptors in Figure 2.10B and is a slower process than the uncoupling described above. In studies on cell cultures, the number of β-adrenoceptors can fall to about 10% of normal in 8 h in the presence of a low concentration of **isoprenaline**, and recovery takes several days. Similar changes have been described for other types of receptor, including those for various peptides. The internalised receptors are taken into the cell by endocytosis of patches of the membrane, a process that also depends on receptor phosphorylation. This type of adaptation is common for hormone receptors and has obvious relevance to the effects produced when drugs are given for extended periods. It is generally an unwanted complication when drugs are used clinically, but it can be exploited. For example, **gonadotrophin-releasing hormone** (see Ch. 34) is used to

treat endometriosis or prostatic cancer; given continuously, this hormone paradoxically inhibits gonadotrophin release (in contrast to the normal stimulatory effect of the physiological secretion, which is pulsatile).

Exhaustion of Mediators

In some cases, desensitisation is associated with depletion of an essential intermediate substance. Drugs such as **amphetamine**, which acts by releasing amines from nerve terminals (see Chs 14 and 47), show marked tachyphylaxis because the amine stores become depleted.

Altered Drug Metabolism

Tolerance to some drugs, for example **barbiturates** (Ch. 43) and **ethanol** (Ch. 48), occurs partly because repeated administration of the same dose produces a progressively lower plasma concentration, because of increased metabolic degradation. The degree of tolerance that results is generally modest, and in both of these examples other mechanisms contribute to the substantial tolerance that actually occurs. On the other hand, the pronounced tolerance to **nitrovasodilators** (see Chs 20 and 22) results mainly from decreased metabolism, which reduces the release of the active mediator, nitric oxide.

Physiological Adaptation

Diminution of a drug's effect may occur because it is nullified by a homeostatic response. For example, the blood pressure-lowering effect of **thiazide diuretics** is limited because of a gradual activation of the renin–angiotensin system (see Ch. 22). Such homeostatic mechanisms are very common, and if they occur slowly the result will be a gradually developing tolerance. It is a common experience that many side effects of drugs, such as nausea or sleepiness, tend to subside even though drug administration is continued. We may assume that some kind of

physiological adaptation is occurring, presumably associated with altered gene expression resulting in changes in the levels of various regulatory molecules, but little is known about the mechanisms involved.

Quantitative Aspects of Drug–Receptor Interactions

▼ Here we present some aspects of so-called *receptor theory*, which is based on applying the Law of Mass Action to the drug–receptor interaction and which has served well as a framework for interpreting a large body of quantitative experimental data.

The binding reaction

▼ The first step in drug action on specific receptors is the formation of a reversible drug–receptor complex, the reactions being governed by the Law of Mass Action. Suppose that a piece of tissue, such as heart muscle or smooth muscle, contains a total number of receptors, N_{tot}, for an agonist such as adrenaline. When the tissue is exposed to adrenaline at concentration x_A and allowed to come to equilibrium, a certain number, N_A, of the receptors will become occupied, and the number of vacant receptors will be reduced to $N_{tot} - N_A$. Normally, the number of adrenaline molecules applied to the tissue in solution greatly exceeds N_{tot}, so that the binding reaction does not appreciably reduce x_A. The magnitude of the response produced by the adrenaline will be related (even if we do not know exactly how) to the number of receptors occupied, so it is useful to consider what quantitative relationship is predicted between N_A and x_A. The reaction can be represented by:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} A & + & R & \underset{k_{-1}}{\overset{k_{+1}}{\rightleftharpoons}} & AR \\ \text{drug} & + & \text{free receptor} & & \text{complex} \\ (x_A) & & (N_{tot} - N_A) & & (N_A) \end{array}$$

The Law of Mass Action (which states that the rate of a chemical reaction is proportional to the product of the concentrations of reactants) can be applied to this reaction.

$$\text{Rate of forward reaction} = k_{+1} x_A (N_{tot} - N_A) \tag{2.1}$$

$$\text{Rate of backward reaction} = k_{-1} N_A \tag{2.2}$$

At equilibrium, the two rates are equal:

$$k_{+1} x_A (N_{tot} - N_A) = k_{-1} N_A \tag{2.3}$$

The proportion of receptors occupied, or occupancy (p_A), is N_A/N_{tot}, which is independent of N_{tot}.

$$p_A = \frac{x_A}{x_A + k_{-1}/k_{+1}} \tag{2.4}$$

Defining the equilibrium constant for the binding reaction, $K_A = k_{-1}/k_{+1}$, equation 2.4 can be written:

$$p_A = \frac{x_A/K_A}{x_A/K_A + 1} \tag{2.5}$$

This important result is known as the Hill–Langmuir equation.[4]

[4]A V Hill first published it in 1909, when he was still a medical student. Langmuir, a physical chemist working on gas adsorption, derived it independently in 1916. Both subsequently won Nobel prizes. Until recently, it was known to pharmacologists as the Langmuir equation, even though Hill deserves the credit.

The *equilibrium* constant,[5] K_A, is a characteristic of the drug and of the receptor; it has the dimensions of concentration and is numerically equal to the concentration of drug required to occupy 50% of the sites at equilibrium. (Verify from equation 2.5 that when $x_A = K_A$, $p_A = 0.5$.) The higher the affinity of the drug for the receptors, the lower will be the value of K_A. Equation 2.5 describes the relationship between occupancy and drug concentration, and it generates a characteristic curve known as a *rectangular hyperbola*, as shown in Figure 2.11A. It is common in pharmacological work to use a logarithmic scale of concentration; this converts the hyperbola to a symmetrical sigmoid curve (Fig. 2.11B).

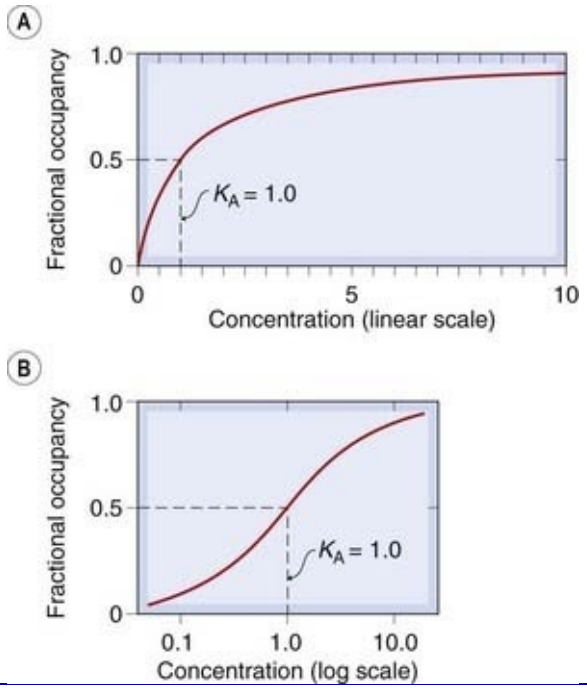


Fig. 2.11 Theoretical relationship between occupancy and ligand concentration.

The relationship is plotted according to equation 2.5. [**A**] Plotted with a linear concentration scale, this curve is a rectangular hyperbola. [**B**] Plotted with a log concentration scale, it is a symmetrical sigmoid curve.

[5]The equilibrium constant is sometimes called the dissociation constant. Some authors prefer to use the reciprocal of K_A, referred to as an affinity constant, in these expressions, which can cause confusion to the unwary.

The same approach is used to analyse data from experiments in which drug binding is measured directly (see p. 9, Fig. 2.2). In this case, the relationship between the amount bound (B) and ligand concentration (x_A) should be:

$$B = B_{max} x_A / (x_A + K_A) \quad (2.6)$$

where B_{max} is the total number of binding sites in the preparation (often expressed as pmol/mg of protein). To display the results in linear

form, equation 2.6 may be rearranged to:

$$B/x_A = B_{max}/(K_A - B/K_A) \quad (2.7)$$

A plot of B/x_A against B (known as a *Scatchard plot*; Fig. 2.2C) gives a straight line from which both B_{max} and K_A can be estimated. Statistically, this procedure is not without problems, and it is now usual to estimate these parameters from the untransformed binding values by an iterative non-linear curve-fitting procedure.

To this point, our analysis has considered the binding of one ligand to a homogeneous population of receptors. To get closer to real-life pharmacology, we must consider (a) what happens when more than one ligand is present, and (b) how the tissue response is related to receptor occupancy.

Binding when more than one drug is present

▼ Suppose that two drugs, A and B, which bind to the same receptor with equilibrium constants K_A and K_B, respectively, are present at concentrations x_A and x_B. If the two drugs compete (i.e. the receptor can accommodate only one at a time), then, by application of the same reasoning as for the one-drug situation described above, the occupancy by drug A is given by:

$$p_A = \frac{x_A/K_A}{x_A/K + x_B/K_B + 1} \quad (2.8)$$

Comparing this result with equation 2.5 shows that adding drug B, as expected, reduces the occupancy by drug A. Figure 2.4A shows the predicted binding curves for A in the presence of increasing

concentrations of B, demonstrating the shift without any change of slope or maximum that characterises the pharmacological effect of a competitive antagonist (see Fig. 2.5). The extent of the rightward shift, on a logarithmic scale, represents the ratio (r_A, given by x_A'/x_A where x_A' is the increased concentration of A) by which the concentration of A must be increased to overcome the competition by B. Rearranging 2.8 shows that

$$r_A = (x_B/K_B) + 1 \quad (2.9)$$

Thus r_A depends only on the concentration and equilibrium constant of the competing drug B, not on the concentration or equilibrium constant of A.

If A is an agonist, and B is a competitive antagonist, and we assume that the response of the tissue will be an unknown function of p_A, then the value of r_A determined from the shift of the agonist concentration–effect curve at different antagonist concentrations can be used to estimate the equilibrium constant K_B for the antagonist. Such pharmacological estimates of r_A are commonly termed *agonist dose ratios* (more properly concentration ratios, although most pharmacologists use the older term). This simple and very useful equation (2.9) is known as the *Schild equation*, after the pharmacologist who first used it to analyse drug antagonism.

Equation 2.9 can be expressed logarithmically in the form:

$$\log(rA - 1) = \log x_B - \log K_B \quad (2.10)$$

Thus a plot of log ($r_A - 1$) against log x_B, usually called a Schild plot

(as in Fig. 2.5), should give a straight line with unit slope and an abscissal intercept equal to log K_B. Following the pH and pK notation, antagonist potency can be expressed as a pA_2 value; under conditions of competitive antagonism, $pA_2 = -\log K_B$. Numerically, pA_2 is defined as the negative logarithm of the molar concentration of antagonist required to produce an agonist dose ratio equal to 2. As with pH notation, its principal advantage is that it produces simple numbers, a pA_2 of 6.5 being equivalent to a K_B of 3.2×10^{-7} mol/l.

For competitive antagonism, r shows the following characteristics:

- It depends only on the concentration and equilibrium constant of the antagonist, and not on the size of response that is chosen as a reference point for the measurements (so long as it is submaximal).

- It does not depend on the equilibrium constant for the agonist.

- It increases linearly with x_B, and the slope of a plot of $(r_A - 1)$ against x_B is equal to $1/K_B$; this relationship, being independent of the characteristics of the agonist, should be the same for all agonists that act on the same population of receptors.

These predictions have been verified for many examples of competitive antagonism (Fig. 2.5).

In this section, we have avoided going into great detail and have oversimplified the theory considerably. As we learn more about the actual molecular details of how receptors work to produce their biological effects (see Ch. 3), the shortcomings of this theoretical treatment become more obvious. The two-state model can be incorporated without difficulty, but complications arise when we include the involvement of G-proteins (see Ch. 3) in the reaction scheme, and when we allow for the fact that receptor 'activation' is not a simple on–

off switch, as the two-state model assumes, but may take different forms. It is as though the same receptor can turn on a tap or a light bulb, depending on which agonist does the talking. Despite strenuous efforts by theoreticians to allow for such possibilities, the molecules always seem to remain one step ahead. Nevertheless, this type of basic theory applied to the two-state model remains a useful basis for developing quantitative models of drug action. The book by Kenakin (1997) is recommended as an introduction, and his later review (Kenakin, 2002) presents a more elaborate theoretical approach.

Binding of drugs to receptors

• Binding of drugs to receptors necessarily obeys the *Law of Mass Action*.

• At equilibrium, receptor occupancy is related to drug concentration by the *Hill–Langmuir equation* (2.5).

• The higher the affinity of the drug for the receptor, the lower the concentration at which it produces a given level of occupancy.

• The same principles apply when two or more drugs compete for the same receptors; each has the effect of reducing the apparent affinity for the other.

The Nature of Drug Effects

In discussing how drugs act in this chapter, we have focused mainly on the consequences of receptor activation. Details of the receptors and their linkage to effects at the cellular level are described in Chapter 3. We now have a fairly good understanding at this level. It is important, however, particularly when considering drugs in a therapeutic context, that their direct effects on cellular function generally lead to secondary, delayed effects, which are often highly relevant in a clinical situation in

relation to both therapeutic efficacy and harmful effects (see Fig. 2.12). For example, activation of a β-adrenoceptor in the heart (see Chs 3 and 21) causes rapid changes in the functioning of the heart muscle, but also slower (minutes to hours) changes in the functional state of the receptors (e.g. desensitisation), and even slower (hours to days) changes in gene expression that produce long-term changes (e.g. hypertrophy) in cardiac structure and function. Similarly, **antidepressant drugs**, which have immediate effects on transmitter metabolism in the brain (see Ch. 46) take weeks to produce therapeutic benefit. **Opioids** (see Ch. 41) produce an immediate analgesic effect but, after a time, tolerance and dependence ensue, and in some cases long-term addiction. In these and many other examples, the nature of the intervening mechanism is unclear, although as a general rule any long-term phenotypic change necessarily involves alterations of gene expression. Drugs are often used to treat chronic conditions, and understanding long-term as well as acute drug effects is becoming increasingly important. Pharmacologists have traditionally tended to focus on short-term physiological responses, which are much easier to study, rather than on delayed effects. The focus is now clearly shifting.

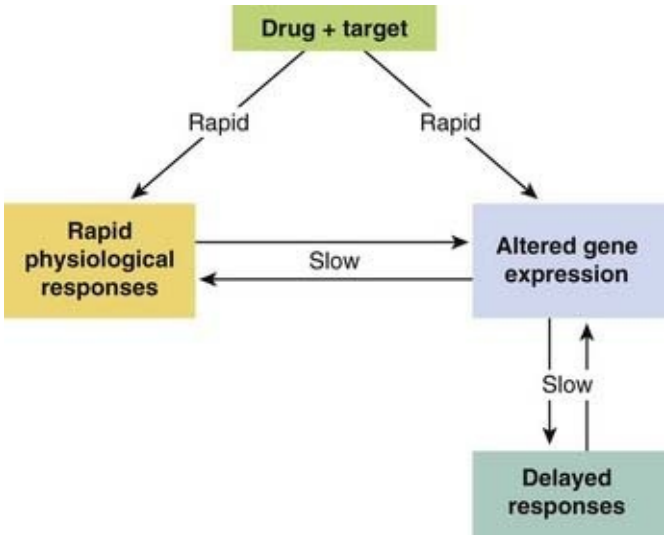


Fig. 2.12 Early and late responses to drugs.

Many drugs act directly on their targets (left-hand arrow) to produce a rapid physiological response. If this is maintained, it is likely to cause changes in gene expression that give rise to delayed effects. Some drugs (right-hand arrow) have their primary action on gene expression, producing delayed physiological responses. Drugs can also work by both pathways. Note the bidirectional interaction between gene expression and response.

Drug effects

• Drugs act mainly on cellular targets, producing effects at different functional levels (e.g. biochemical, cellular, physiological and structural).

• The direct effect of the drug on its target produces acute responses at the biochemical, cellular or physiological levels.

• Acute responses generally lead to *delayed long-term effects*, such as desensitisation or down-regulation of receptors, hypertrophy, atrophy or remodelling of tissues, tolerance, dependence and addiction.

• Long-term delayed responses result from changes in gene expression, although the mechanisms by which the acute effects bring this about are often uncertain.

• Therapeutic effects may be based on acute responses (e.g. the use of bronchodilator drugs to treat asthma; Ch. 27) or delayed responses (e.g. antidepressants; Ch. 46).

References and Further Reading

General

lexander S.P.H., Mathie A., Peters J.A. Guide to receptors and channels (GRAC), fourth ed. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2009;158(Suppl. 1):S1-S254.

hangeux J.-P., Giraudat J., Dennis M. The nicotinic acetylcholine receptor: molecular architecture of a ligand-regulated ion channel. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1987;8:459-465. (*One of the first descriptions of receptor action at the molecular level*)

olquhoun D. The quantitative analysis of drug–receptor interactions: a short history. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2006;27:149-157. (*An illuminating account for those interested in the origins of one of the central ideas in pharmacology*)

ranks N.P. General anaesthesia: from molecular targets to neuronal pathways of sleep and arousal. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2008;9:370-386.

enkinson D.H. Classical approaches to the study of drug–receptor interactions. In: Foreman J.C., Johansen T., editors. *Textbook of Receptor Pharmacology*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 1996. (*Good account of pharmacological analysis of receptor-mediated effects*)

enakin T. *Pharmacologic analysis of drug–receptor interactions*, third ed. New York: Lippincott-Raven; 1997. (*Useful and detailed textbook covering most of the material in this chapter in greater depth*)

eubig R., Spedding M., Kenakin T., Christopoulos A. International Union of Pharmacology Committee on receptor nomenclature and drug classification: XXXVIII. Update on terms and symbols in quantitative pharmacology. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2003;55:597-606. (*Summary of IUPHAR-approved terms and symbols relating to pharmacological receptors—useful for reference purposes*)

ang H.P. The receptor concept: Pharmacology's Big Idea. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2006;147(Supp. 1):9-16. (*Short review of the origin and status of the receptor concept*)

tephenson R.P. A modification of receptor theory. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 1956;11:379-393. (*Classic analysis of receptor action introducing the concept of efficacy*)

eitler M., Herrick-Davis K., Purohit A. Constitutive activity of G-protein coupled receptors: emphasis on serotonin receptors. *Curr. Top Med. Chem.*. 2002;2:529-538.

Receptor mechanisms: agonists and efficacy

ond R.A., Ijzerman A.P. Recent developments in constitutive receptor activity and inverse agonism, and their potential for GPCR drug discovery. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2006;27:92-96. (*Discussion of pathophysiological consequences of constitutive receptor activation and therapeutic potential of inverse agonists—mainly hypothetical so far, but with important implications*)

ond R.A., Leff P., Johnson T.D., *et al.* Physiological effects of inverse agonists in transgenic mice with myocardial overexpression of the β2-adrenoceptor. *Nature*. 1995;374:270-276. (*A study with important clinical implications, showing that overexpression of β-adrenoceptors results in constitutive receptor activation*)

osta T., Cotecchia S. Historical review: negative efficacy and the constitutive activity of G-protein-coupled receptors. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2005;26:618-624. (*A clear and thoughtful review of ideas relating to constitutive receptor activation and inverse agonists*)

e Ligt R.A.F., Kourounakis A.P., Ijzerman A.P. Inverse agonism at G protein-coupled receptors: (patho)physiological relevance and implications for drug discovery. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2000;130:1-12. (*Useful review article giving many examples of constitutively active receptors and inverse agonists, and discussing the relevance of these concepts for disease mechanisms and drug discovery*)

enakin T. Drug efficacy at G protein-coupled receptors. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2002;42:349-379. (*A theoretical treatment that attempts to take into account recent knowledge of receptor function at the molecular level*)

lay L.T., Leach K., Sexton P.M., Christopoulos A. Allosteric modulation of G protein-coupled receptors. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2007;47:1-51. (*Comprehensive review describing the characteristics, mechanisms and pharmacological implications of allosteric interactions at GPCRs*)

lilligan G., Bond R.A., Lee M. Inverse agonism: pharmacological curiosity or potential therapeutic strategy? *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1995;16:10-13. (*Excellent review of the significance of constitutive receptor activation and the effects of inverse agonists*)

eifert R., Wenzel-Seifert K. Constitutive activity of G-protein-coupled receptors: cause of disease and common properties of wild-type receptors. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch. Pharmacol.*. 2002;366:381-416. (*Detailed review article emphasising that constitutively active receptors occur commonly and are associated with several important disease states*)

Desensitisation

efkowitz R.J., Pitcher J., Krueger K., Daaka Y. Mechanisms of β-adrenergic receptor desensitization and resensitization. *Adv. Pharmacol.*. 1998;42:416-420.

wope S.L., Moss S.I., Raymond I.A., Huganir R.L. Regulation of ligand-gated ion channels by protein phosphorylation. *Adv. Second Messenger Phosphoprotein Res.*. 1999;33:49-78. (*Comprehensive review article describing the role of phosphorylation in desensitisation*)

3

How drugs act

Molecular aspects

Overview

In this chapter, we move from the general principles of drug action outlined in Chapter 2 to the molecules that are involved in recognising chemical signals and translating them into cellular responses. Molecular pharmacology is advancing rapidly, and the new knowledge is changing our understanding of drug action and also opening up many new therapeutic possibilities, further discussed in other chapters.

First, we consider the types of target proteins on which drugs act. Next, we describe the main families of receptors and ion channels that have been revealed by cloning and structural studies. Finally, we discuss the various forms of receptor–effector linkage (signal transduction mechanisms) through which receptors are coupled to the regulation of cell function. The relationship between the molecular structure of a receptor and its functional linkage to a particular type of effector system is a principal theme. In the next two chapters, we see how these molecular events alter important aspects of cell function—a useful basis for understanding the effects of drugs on intact living organisms. We go into more detail than is necessary for understanding today's pharmacology at a basic level, intending that students can, if they wish, skip or skim these

chapters without losing the thread; however, we are confident that tomorrow's pharmacology will rest solidly on the advances in cellular and molecular biology that are discussed here.

Targets for Drug Action

The protein targets for drug action on mammalian cells (Fig. 3.1) that are described in this chapter can be broadly divided into:

- receptors
- ion channels
- enzymes
- carrier molecules (transporters).

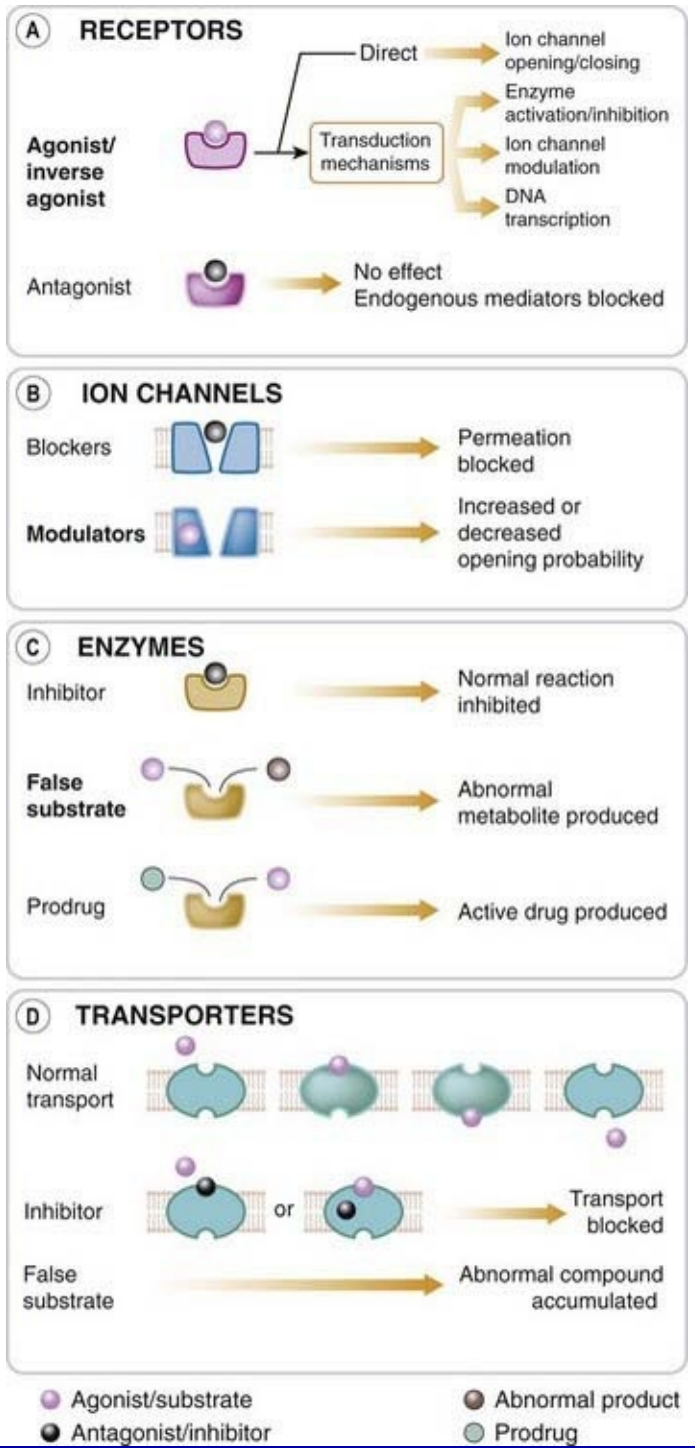


Fig. 3.1 Types of target for drug action.

The great majority of important drugs act on one or other of these types of protein, but there are exceptions. For example, **colchicine** (Ch. 26) interacts with the structural protein tubulin, while several

immunosuppressive drugs (e.g. **ciclosporin**, Ch. 26) bind to cytosolic proteins known as immunophilins. Therapeutic antibodies that act by sequestering cytokines (protein mediators involved in inflammation; see Ch. 26) are also used. Targets for chemotherapeutic drugs (Chs 49–55Chapter 49Chapter 50Chapter 51Chapter 52Chapter 53Chapter 54Chapter 55), where the aim is to suppress invading microorganisms or cancer cells, include DNA and cell wall constituents as well as other proteins.

Receptors

Receptors (Fig. 3.1A) are the sensing elements in the system of chemical communications that coordinates the function of all the different cells in the body, the chemical messengers being the various hormones, transmitters and other mediators discussed in Section 2. Many therapeutically useful drugs act, either as agonists or antagonists, on receptors for known endogenous mediators. Some examples are given in Table 3.1. In most cases, the endogenous mediator was discovered before —often many years before—the receptor was characterised pharmacologically and biochemically, but in recent years, many receptors have been identified initially on the basis of their pharmacological or molecular characteristics. In some cases, such as the cannabinoid receptors (see Ch. 18), the endogenous mediator was identified later; in many others, known as *orphan receptors* (see below) the mediator—if it exists—remains unknown.

Table 3.1 Some examples of targets for drug action

Type of target	Effectors		See Chapter
Receptors	**Agonists**	**Antagonists**	
Nicotinic ACh receptor	Acetylcholine Nicotine Varenicline	Tubocurarine α-Bungarotoxin	13 48
β-Adrenoceptor	Noradrenaline Isoprenaline	Propranolol	14
Histamine (H_1 receptor)	Histamine	Mepyramine	26
Opiate (μ-receptor)	Morphine	Naloxone	41
Dopamine (D_2 receptor)	Dopamine Bromocriptine	Chlorpromazine	38, 46
Oestrogen receptor	Ethinylestradiol	Tamoxifen	34
Epidermal growth factor receptor		Trastuzumab	59
Ion channels	**Blockers**	**Modulators**	
Voltage-gated Na^+ channels	Local anaesthetics Tetrodotoxin	Veratridine	42
Renal tubule Na^+ channels	Amiloride	Aldosterone	28
Voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels	Divalent cations (e.g. Cd^{2+})	Dihydropyridines	21, 22 41
ATP-sensitive K^+ channels	ATP	Sulphonylureas	30
GABA-gated Cl^- channels	Picrotoxin	Benzodiazepines	43
Enzymes	**Inhibitors**		
Acetylcholinesterase	Neostigmine		13
Cyclo-oxygenase	Aspirin		26
Angiotensin-converting enzyme	Captopril		22
HMG-CoA reductase	Simvastatin		23
Monoamine oxidase-A	Iproniazid		46
Phosphodiesterase type V	Sildenafil		34
Dihydrofolate reductase	Trimethoprim Methotrexate		53 55
Thymidine kinase	Aciclovir		51
HIV protease	Saquinavir		51
Transport proteins	**Inhibitors**	**False substrates**	
Noradrenaline transporter (membrane)	Tricyclic antidepressants Cocaine	 Amphetamine Methyldopa	46 47, 48 14, 45 22
Weak acid carrier (renal tubule)	Probenecid		28
$Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ co-transporter (loop of Henle)	Loop diuretics		28
Proton pump (gastric mucosa)	Omeprazole		29
MDR transporter	Verapamil		55
Others			
Immunophilins	Ciclosporin Tacrolimus		26
Tubulin	Colchicine Taxol		26 55

Note: These are representative examples, and by no means a complete list. Other biochemical targets for drugs used in chemotherapy are discussed in Chapters 49–55.

Ion Channels

Ion channels[1] are essentially gateways in cell membranes, which selectively allow the passage of particular ions, and which are induced to

open or close by a variety of mechanisms. Two important types are *ligand-gated channels* and *voltage-gated channels*. The former open only when one or more agonist molecules are bound, and are properly classified as receptors, since agonist binding is needed to activate them. Voltage-gated channels are gated by changes in the transmembrane potential rather than by agonist binding.

[1]'Ion channels and the electrical properties they confer on cells are involved in every human characteristic that distinguishes us from the stones in a field.' (Armstrong C M 2003 Voltage-gated K channels; http://www.stke.org.)

In general, drugs can affect ion channel function either by binding to the channel protein itself (to the ligand-binding site of ligand-gated channels, or to other parts of the channel molecule), or they may affect channel function by an indirect interaction, involving a G-protein and other intermediaries (see below). In the simplest case, exemplified by the action of local anaesthetics on the voltage-gated sodium channel (see Ch. 42), the drug molecule plugs the channel physically (Fig. 3.1B), blocking ion permeation.

Examples of drugs that bind to accessory (*allosteric*) sites on the channel protein and thereby affect channel gating include:

• vasodilator drugs of the **dihydropyridine** type (see Ch. 22), which inhibit the opening of L-type calcium channels (see Ch. 4)

• **benzodiazepine** tranquillisers (see Ch. 43). These drugs bind to a region of the $GABA_A$ receptor–chloride channel complex (a ligand-gated channel; see above) that is distinct from the GABA binding site. Most benzodiazepines facilitate the opening of the channel by the inhibitory neurotransmitter GABA (see Ch. 37), but some inverse agonists are known that have the opposite effect, causing anxiety rather than

tranquillity

• **sulfonylureas** (see Ch. 30) used in treating diabetes, which act on ATP-gated potassium channels of pancreatic β-cells and thereby enhance insulin secretion.

A summary of the different ion channel families and their functions is given below (p. 43).

Enzymes

Many drugs are targeted on enzymes (Fig. 3.1C), examples being given in Table 3.1. Often, the drug molecule is a substrate analogue that acts as a competitive inhibitor of the enzyme (e.g. **captopril**, acting on angiotensin-converting enzyme; Ch. 22); in other cases, the binding is irreversible and non-competitive (e.g. **aspirin**, acting on cyclo-oxygenase; Ch. 26). The immunophilin to which **ciclosporin** binds (see above) has enzymic activity as an isomerase that catalyses the *cis–trans* isomerisation of proline residues in proteins, a reaction that is important in allowing expressed proteins to fold correctly. Inhibition of this enzymic activity is one of the mechanisms by which ciclosporin causes immunosuppression. Drugs may also act as false substrates, where the drug molecule undergoes chemical transformation to form an abnormal product that subverts the normal metabolic pathway. An example is the anticancer drug **fluorouracil**, which replaces uracil as an intermediate in purine biosynthesis but cannot be converted into thymidylate, thus blocking DNA synthesis and preventing cell division (Ch. 55).

It should also be mentioned that drugs may require enzymic degradation to convert them from an inactive form, the prodrug (see Ch. 9), to an active form. Examples are given in Table 9.3. Furthermore, as discussed in Chapter 57, drug toxicity often results from the enzymic conversion of the drug molecule to a reactive metabolite. Paracetamol

(see Ch. 26) causes liver damage in this way. As far as the primary action of the drug is concerned, this is an unwanted side reaction, but it is of major practical importance.

Transport Proteins

The movement of ions and small organic molecules across cell membranes generally occurs either through channels (see above), or through the agency of a transport protein, because the permeating molecules are often too polar (i.e. insufficiently lipid soluble) to penetrate lipid membranes on their own (Fig. 3.1D). Many such carriers are known; examples of particular pharmacological importance include those responsible for the transport of ions and many organic molecules across the renal tubule, the intestinal epithelium and the blood–brain barrier, the transport of Na^+ and Ca^{2+} out of cells, and the uptake of neurotransmitter precursors (such as choline) or of neurotransmitters themselves (such as noradrenaline, 5-hydroxytryptamine [5-HT], glutamate and peptides) by nerve terminals, and the transport of drug molecules and their metabolites across cell membranes and epithelial barriers. We shall encounter them frequently in later chapters.

In many cases, hydrolysis of ATP provides the energy for transport of substances against their electrochemical gradient. Such transport proteins include a distinct ATP binding site, and are termed ABC (ATP-binding cassette) transporters. Important examples include the sodium pump (Na^+-K^+-ATPase; see Ch. 4) and '*multi-drug-resistance*' (MDR) transporters that eject cytotoxic drugs from cancer and microbial cells, conferring resistance to these therapeutic agents (see Ch. 55). In other cases, including the neurotransmitter transporters, the transport of organic molecules is coupled to the transport of ions (usually Na^+), either in the same direction (*symport*) or in the opposite direction

(*antiport*), and therefore relies on the electrochemical gradient for Na^+ generated by the ATP-driven sodium pump. The carrier proteins embody a recognition site that makes them specific for a particular permeating species, and these recognition sites can also be targets for drugs whose effect is to block the transport system. Some examples are given in Table 3.1.

The importance of transport proteins as a source of individual variation in the pharmacokinetic characteristics of various drugs is becoming increasingly recognised (see Ch. 10).

Receptor Proteins

Isolation and Cloning of Receptors

In the 1970s, pharmacology entered a new phase when receptors, which had until then been theoretical entities, began to emerge as biochemical realities following the development of receptor-labelling techniques (see Ch. 2), which made it possible to extract and purify the receptor material. This approach was first used successfully on the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (see Ch. 13), where advantage was taken of two natural curiosities. The first was that the electric organs of many fishes, such as rays (*Torpedo* sp.) and electric eels (*Electrophorus* sp.) consist of modified muscle tissue in which the acetylcholine-sensitive membrane is extremely abundant, and these organs contain much larger amounts of acetylcholine receptor than any other tissue. The second was that the venom of snakes of the cobra family contains polypeptides that bind with very high specificity to nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. These substances, known as α-toxins, can be labelled and used to assay the receptor content of tissues and tissue extracts. The best known is **α-bungarotoxin**, the main component of the venom of the Malayan banded krait (*Bungarus multicinctus*).[2] Treatment of muscle or electric

tissue with non-ionic detergents renders the membrane-bound receptor protein soluble, and it can then be purified by the technique of affinity chromatography. Similar approaches have now been used to purify a great many hormone and neurotransmitter receptors, as well as ion channels, carrier proteins and other kinds of target molecules.

[2]Nature has had the good sense to keep these heavily armed fishes and snakes well apart. Ironically enough, *B. multicinctus* is now officially an endangered species, threatened by scientists' demand for its venom. Evolution for survival can go one step too far.

▼ Once receptor proteins were isolated and purified, it was possible to analyse the amino acid sequence of a short stretch, allowing the corresponding base sequence of the mRNA to be deduced and full-length DNA to be isolated, by conventional cloning methods, starting from a cDNA library obtained from a tissue source rich in the receptor of interest. The first receptor clones were obtained in this way, but subsequently expression cloning and cloning strategies based on sequence homologies, which do not require prior isolation and purification of the receptor protein, were widely used, and now several hundred receptors of all four structural families (see below) have been cloned. Endogenous ligands for many of these 'receptor-like' molecules identified by gene cloning are so far unknown, and they are described as 'orphan receptors'.[3] Identifying ligands for these presumed receptors is often difficult. However, there are examples (e.g. the cannabinoid receptor; see Ch. 18) where important endogenous ligands have been linked to hitherto orphan receptors, and others, such as PPARs (peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors), which have emerged as the targets of important therapeutic drugs (see Ch. 30) though the endogenous ligand remains unknown. Several endogenous peptide ligands for orphan receptors have been identified (see Davenport, 2003),

whose physiological and possible therapeutic significance is under investigation. There is optimism that novel therapeutic agents will emerge by targeting this pool of unclaimed receptors.

[3]An oddly Dickensian term that seems inappropriately condescending, because we can assume that these receptors play defined roles in physiological signalling—their ‘orphanhood’ reflects our ignorance, not their status.

Much information has been gained by introducing the cloned DNA encoding individual receptors into cell lines, producing cells that express the foreign receptors in a functional form. Such engineered cells allow much more precise control of the expressed receptors than is possible with natural cells or intact tissues, and the technique is widely used to study the binding and pharmacological characteristics of cloned receptors. Expressed human receptors, which often differ in their sequence and pharmacological properties from their animal counterparts, can be studied in this way.

The cloning of receptors revealed many molecular variants (subtypes) of known receptors, which had not been evident from pharmacological studies. This produced some taxonomic confusion, but in the long term molecular characterisation of receptors is essential. Barnard, one of the high priests of receptor cloning, was undaunted by the proliferation of molecular subtypes among receptors that pharmacologists had thought that they understood. He quoted Thomas Aquinas: ‘Types and shadows have their ending, for the newer rite is here’. The newer rite, Barnard confidently asserted, was molecular biology. Analysis of the human and other mammalian genomes suggests that many hundreds of receptor-like genes are present, of which only a minority so far have a pharmacological identity. Now that the genes have been clearly identified, and the full molecular inventory established, the emphasis

has shifted to characterising the receptors pharmacologically and determining their physiological functions.

Types of Receptor

Receptors elicit many different types of cellular effect. Some of them are very rapid, such as those involved in synaptic transmission, operating within milliseconds, whereas other receptor-mediated effects, such as those produced by thyroid hormone or various steroid hormones, occur over hours or days. There are also many examples of intermediate timescales—catecholamines, for example, usually act in a matter of seconds, whereas many peptides take rather longer to produce their effects. Not surprisingly, very different types of linkage between the receptor occupation and the ensuing response are involved. Based on molecular structure and the nature of this linkage (the transduction mechanism), we can distinguish four receptor types, or superfamilies (see Figs 3.2 and 3.3; Table 3.2).

• Type 1: **Ligand-gated ion channels** (also known as **ionotropic** receptors).[4] The chain of discoveries culminating in the molecular characterisation of these receptors is described by Halliwell (2007). Typically, these are the receptors on which fast neurotransmitters act. Examples include the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR; see Ch. 13); $GABA_A$ receptor (see Ch. 37); and glutamate receptors of the NMDA, AMPA and kainate types (see Ch. 37).

• Type 2: **G-protein-coupled receptors** (GPCRs). These are also known as **metabotropic receptors** or **7-transmembrane (7-TM or heptahelical) receptors**. They are membrane receptors that are coupled to intracellular effector systems via a G-protein (see below). They constitute the largest family,[5] and include receptors for many hormones and slow transmitters, for example the muscarinic

acetylcholine receptor (mAChR; see Ch. 13), adrenoceptors (see Ch. 14) and chemokine receptors (see Ch. 17).

• Type 3: **kinase-linked and related receptors**. This is a large and heterogeneous group of membrane receptors responding mainly to protein mediators. They comprise an extracellular ligand-binding domain linked to an intracellular domain by a single transmembrane helix. In many cases, the intracellular domain is enzymic in nature (with protein kinase or guanylyl cyclase activity). Type 3 receptors include those for insulin and for various cytokines and growth factors (see Chs 17 and 32); the receptor for atrial natriuretic factor (ANF; Chs 21 and 22) is the main example of the guanylyl cyclase type. The two kinds are very similar structurally, even though their transduction mechanisms differ.

• Type 4: **nuclear receptors**. These are receptors that regulate gene transcription. The term *nuclear receptors* is something of a misnomer, because some are actually located in the cytosol and migrate to the nuclear compartment when a ligand is present. They include receptors for steroid hormones (see Ch. 32), thyroid hormone (Ch. 33) and other agents such as retinoic acid and vitamin D. Receptors of this type also recognise many foreign molecules, inducing the expression of enzymes that metabolise them.

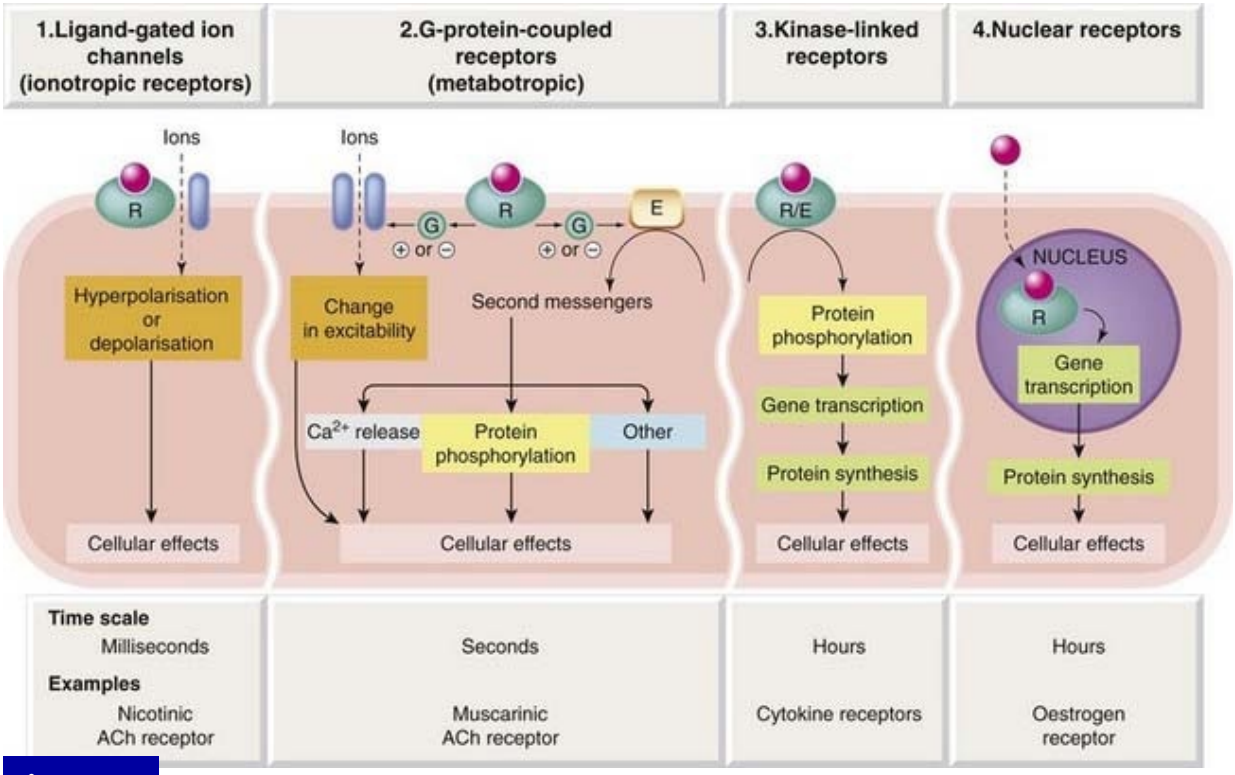


Fig. 3.2 Types of receptor–effector linkage.

ACh, acetylcholine; E, enzyme; G, G-protein; R, receptor.

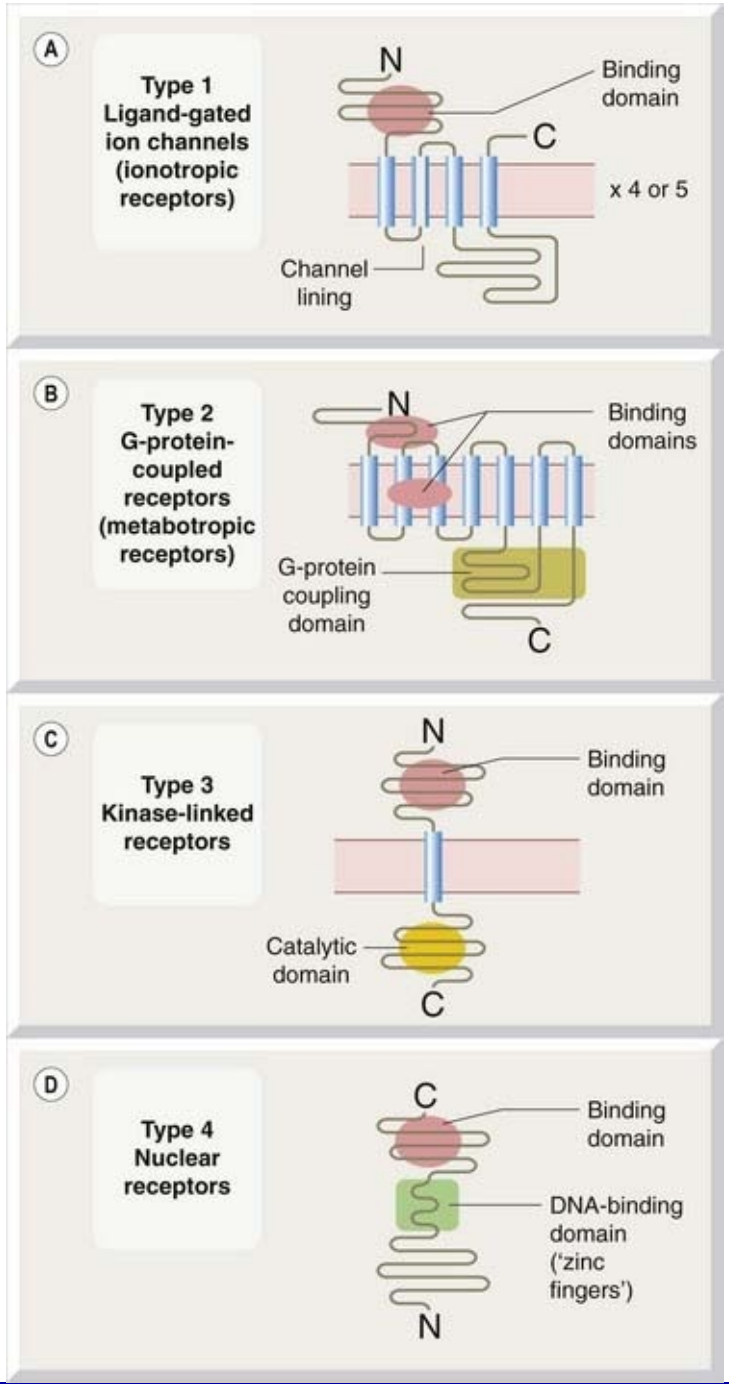


Fig. 3.3 General structure of four receptor families.

The rectangular segments represent hydrophobic α-helical regions of the protein comprising approximately 20 amino acids, which form the membrane-spanning domains of the receptors. [**A**] Type 1: ligand-gated ion channels. Many ligand-gated ion channels comprise four or five subunits of the type shown, the whole complex containing 16–20 membrane-spanning segments surrounding a central ion channel. Other structural types are shown in Fig. 3.18. [**B**] Type 2: G-protein-coupled receptors. [**C**] Type 3: kinase-linked receptors. Most growth factor receptors

incorporate the ligand-binding and enzymatic (kinase) domains in the same molecule, as shown, whereas cytokine receptors lack an intracellular kinase domain but link to cytosolic kinase molecules. Other structural variants also exist. [**D**] Type 4: nuclear receptors that control gene transcription.

Table 3.2 The four main types of receptor

	Type 1: ligand-gated ion channels	Type 2: G-protein-coupled receptors	Type 3: receptor kinases	Type 4: nuclear receptors
Location	Membrane	Membrane	Membrane	Intracellular
Effector	Ion channel	Channel or enzyme	Protein kinases	Gene transcription
Coupling	Direct	G-protein	Direct	Via DNA
Examples	Nicotinic acetylcholine receptor, $GABA_A$ receptor	Muscarinic acetylcholine receptor, adrenoceptors	Insulin, growth factors, cytokine receptors	Steroid receptors
Structure	Oligomeric assembly of subunits surrounding central pore	Monomeric or oligomeric assembly of subunits comprising seven transmembrane helices with intracellular G-protein-coupling domain	Single transmembrane helix linking extracellular receptor domain to intracellular kinase domain	Monomeric structure with separate receptor- and DNA-binding domains

[4]Here, focusing on receptors, we include ligand-gated ion channels as an example of a receptor family. Other types of ion channels are described later (p. 43); many are also drug targets, although not receptors in the strict sense.

[5]There are 865 human GPCRs comprising 1.6% of the genome (Fredricksson & Schiöth, 2005). Nearly 500 of these are believed to be odorant receptors involved in smell and taste sensations, the remainder being receptors for known or unknown endogenous mediators—enough to keep pharmacologists busy for some time yet.

Molecular Structure of Receptors

The molecular organisation of typical members of each of these four receptor superfamilies is shown in Figure 3.3. Although individual receptors show considerable sequence variation in particular regions, and the lengths of the main intracellular and extracellular domains also

vary from one to another within the same family, the overall structural patterns and associated signal transduction pathways are very consistent. The realisation that just four receptor superfamilies provide a solid framework for interpreting the complex welter of information about the effects of a large proportion of the drugs that have been studied has been one of the most refreshing developments in modern pharmacology.

Receptor Heterogeneity and Subtypes

Receptors within a given family generally occur in several molecular varieties, or subtypes, with similar architecture but significant differences in their sequences, and often in their pharmacological properties.[6] Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors are typical in this respect; distinct subtypes occur in different brain regions (see Table 38.2), and these differ from the muscle receptor. Some of the known pharmacological differences (e.g. sensitivity to blocking agents) between muscle and brain acetylcholine receptors correlate with specific sequence differences; however, as far as we know, all nicotinic acetylcholine receptors respond to the same physiological mediator and produce the same kind of synaptic response, so why many variants should have evolved is still a puzzle.

[6]Receptors for 5-HT (see Ch. 15) are currently the champions with respect to diversity, with 14 cloned subtypes.

▼ Much of the sequence variation that accounts for receptor diversity arises at the genomic level, *i.e.* different genes give rise to distinct receptor subtypes. Additional variation arises from alternative mRNA splicing, which means that a single gene can give rise to more than one receptor isoform. After translation from genomic DNA, the mRNA normally contains non-coding regions (introns) that are excised by mRNA splicing before the message is translated into protein. Depending

on the location of the splice sites, splicing can result in inclusion or deletion of one or more of the mRNA coding regions, giving rise to long or short forms of the protein. This is an important source of variation, particularly for GPCRs (see Kilpatrick et al., 1999), which produces receptors with different binding characteristics and different signal transduction mechanisms, although its pharmacological relevance remains to be clarified. Another process that can produce different receptors from the same gene is mRNA editing, which involves the mischievous substitution of one base in the mRNA for another, and hence a small variation in the amino acid sequence of the receptor.

Molecular heterogeneity of this kind is a feature of all kinds of receptors—indeed of functional proteins in general. New receptor subtypes and isoforms continue to be discovered, and regular updates of the catalogue are available (Alexander et al., 2009; IUPHAR Receptor Database and Channel Compendium). The problems of classification, nomenclature and taxonomy resulting from this flood of data have been mentioned earlier (p. 8). From the pharmacological viewpoint, where our concern is to understand individual drugs and what they do to living organisms, and to devise better ones, it is important that we keep molecular pharmacology in perspective. The ‘newer rite’ has proved revelatory in many ways, but the sheer complexity of the ways in which molecules behave means that we have a long way to go before reaching the reductionist Utopia that molecular biology promises. When we do, this book will get much shorter. In the meantime, we try to pick out the general principles without getting too bogged down in detail.

We will now describe the characteristics of each of the four receptor superfamilies.

Type 1: Ligand-Gated Ion Channels

Molecular Structure

These molecules have structural features in common with other ion channels, described on p. 45 (Ashcroft, 2000). The nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (Fig. 3.4), the first to be cloned, has been studied in great detail (see Karlin, 1993). It consists of a pentameric assembly of different subunits, of which there are four types, termed α, β, γ and δ, each of molecular weight (M_r) 40–58 kDa. The subunits show marked sequence homology, and each contains four membrane-spanning α-helices, inserted into the membrane as shown in Figure 3.4B. The pentameric structure (α_2, β, γ, δ) possesses two acetylcholine binding sites, each lying at the interface between one of the two α subunits and its neighbour. Both must bind acetylcholine molecules in order for the receptor to be activated. This receptor is sufficiently large to be seen in electron micrographs, and Figure 3.4B shows its structure, based mainly on a high-resolution electron diffraction study (Unwin, 1993, 1995; Miyazawa et al., 2003). Each subunit spans the membrane four times, so the channel comprises no fewer than 20 membrane-spanning helices surrounding a central pore.

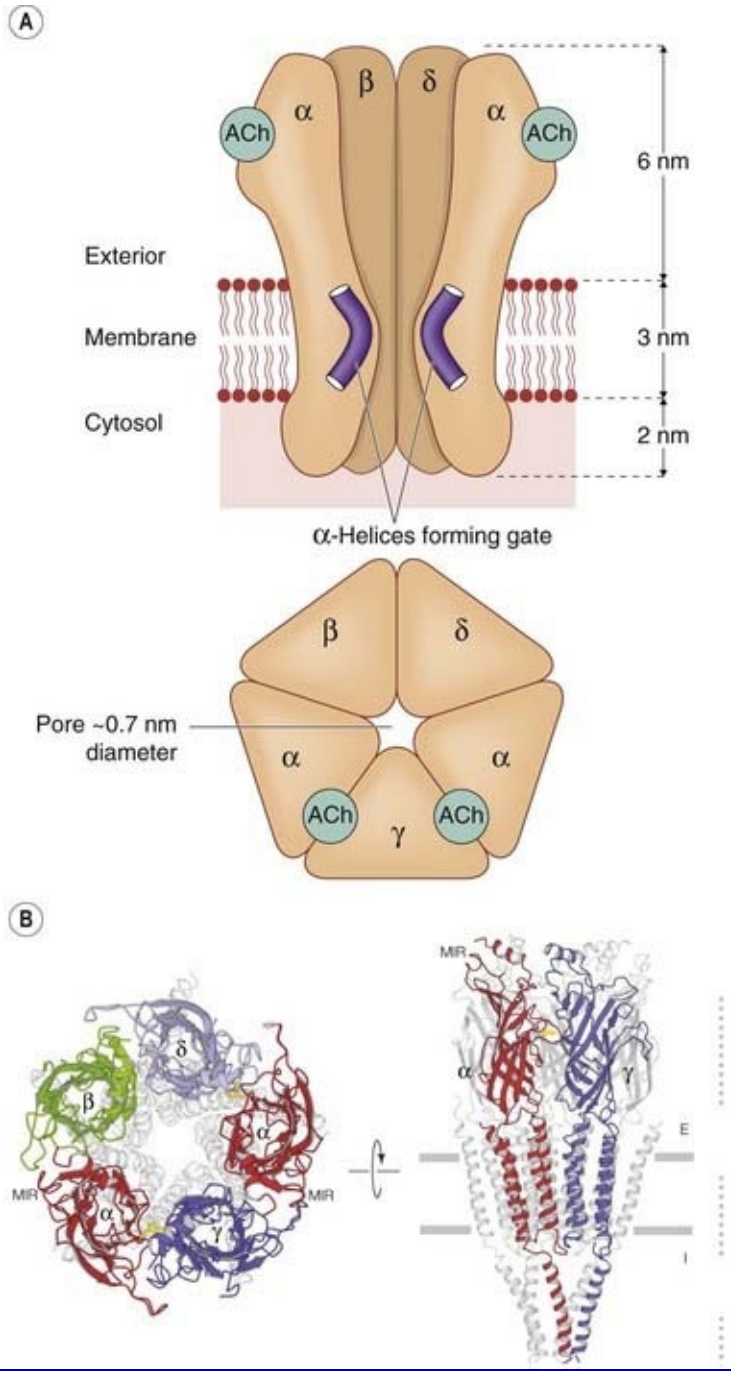


Fig. 3.4 Structure of the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (a typical ligand-gated ion channel).

[**A**] Schematic diagram in side view (upper) and plan view (lower). The five receptor subunits (α_2, β, γ, δ) form a cluster surrounding a central transmembrane pore, the lining of which is formed by the M_2 helical segments of each subunit. These contain a preponderance of negatively charged amino acids, which makes the pore cation selective. There are two acetylcholine binding sites in the extracellular portion of the receptor, at the interface between

the α and the adjoining subunits. When acetylcholine binds, the kinked α-helices either straighten out or swing out of the way, thus opening the channel pore.

(Based on Unwin N 1993 Nicotinic acetylcholine receptor at 9A resolution. J Mol Biol 229: 1101–1124, and Unwin N 1995 Acetylcholine receptor channel imaged in the open state. Nature 373: 37–43.) [**B**] High-resolution image showing revised arrangement of intracellular domains.

(Reproduced with permission from Unwin N 2005 Refined structure of the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor at 4A resolution. J Mol Biol Mar 4;346(4):967–989.)

▼ The two acetylcholine-binding sites lie on the extracellular parts of the two α subunits. One of the transmembrane helices (M_2) from each of the five subunits forms the lining of the ion channel (Fig. 3.4). The five M_2 helices that form the pore are sharply kinked inwards halfway through the membrane, forming a constriction. When acetylcholine molecules bind, a conformation change occurs in the extracellular part of the receptor (see review by Gay & Yakel, 2007), which twists the α subunits, causing the kinked M_2 segments to swivel out of the way, thus opening the channel (Miyazawa et al., 2003). The channel lining contains a series of anionic residues, making the channel selectively permeable to cations.

The use of site-directed mutagenesis, which enables short regions, or single residues, of the amino acid sequence to be altered, has shown that a mutation of a critical residue in the M_2 helix changes the channel from being cation selective (hence excitatory in the context of synaptic function) to being anion selective (typical of receptors for inhibitory transmitters such as GABA). Other mutations affect properties such as gating and desensitisation of ligand-gated channels.

Receptors for other fast transmitters, such as $GABA_A$ receptors (Ch. 37), 5-HT (Ch. 15) and glycine receptors (Ch. 37), are built on the same five-subunit pattern, and form the group of *cys-loop* receptors. Other

ligand-gated ion channels, such as glutamate receptors (see Ch. 37) and the ‘capsaicin receptor’ (TRPV1; see Ch. 41), whose structures are shown in Figure 3.18, have a different (*P-loop*) architecture, in which the pore is built from loops rather than transmembrane helices (see p. 45), in common with many other (non-ligand-gated) ion channels.

The Gating Mechanism

Receptors of this type control the fastest synaptic events in the nervous system, in which a neurotransmitter acts on the postsynaptic membrane of a nerve or muscle cell and transiently increases its permeability to particular ions. Most excitatory neurotransmitters, such as acetylcholine at the neuromuscular junction (Ch. 12) or glutamate in the central nervous system (Ch. 37), cause an increase in Na^+ and K^+ permeability. This results in a net inward current carried mainly by Na^+, which depolarises the cell and increases the probability that it will generate an action potential. The action of the transmitter reaches a peak in a fraction of a millisecond, and usually decays within a few milliseconds. The sheer speed of this response implies that the coupling between the receptor and the ionic channel is a direct one, and the molecular structure of the receptor–channel complex (see above) agrees with this. In contrast to other receptor families (see below), no intermediate biochemical steps are involved in the transduction process.

▼ A breakthrough by Katz and Miledi in 1972 made it possible for the first time to study the properties of individual ligand-gated channels by the use of noise analysis. Studying the action of acetylcholine at the motor endplate, they observed that small random fluctuations of membrane potential were superimposed on the steady depolarisation produced by acetylcholine (Fig. 3.5). These fluctuations arise because, in the presence of an agonist, there is a dynamic equilibrium between open

and closed ion channels. In the steady state, the rate of opening balances the rate of closing, but from moment to moment the number of open channels will show random fluctuations about the mean. By measuring the amplitude of these fluctuations, the conductance of a single ion channel can be calculated, and by measuring their frequency (usually in the form of a spectrum in which the noise power of the signal is plotted as a function of frequency), the average duration for which a single channel stays open (mean open time) can be calculated. In the case of acetylcholine acting at the endplate, the channel conductance is about 20 picosiemens (pS), which is equivalent to an influx of about 10^7 ions per second through a single channel under normal physiological conditions, and the mean open time is 1–2 ms. The magnitude of the single channel conductance confirms that permeation occurs through a physical pore through the membrane, because the ion flow is too large to be compatible with a carrier mechanism. The channel conductance produced by different acetylcholine-like agonists is the same, whereas the mean channel lifetime varies.

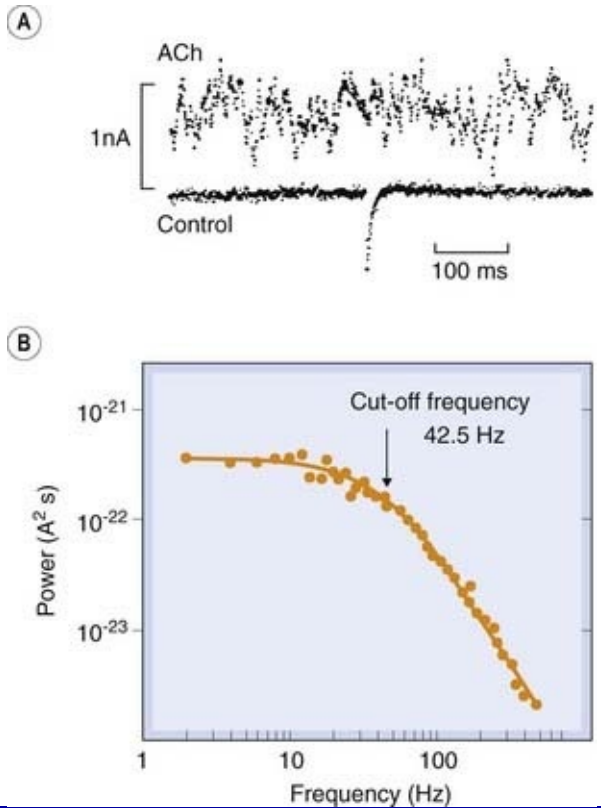


Fig. 3.5 Acetylcholine-induced noise at the frog motor endplate.

[**A**] Records of membrane current recorded at high gain under voltage clamp. The upper noise record was recorded during the application of acetylcholine (ACh) from a micropipette. The lower record was obtained in the absence of ACh, the blip in the middle being caused by the spontaneous release of a packet of ACh from the motor nerve. The steady (DC) component of the ACh signal has been removed by electronic filtering, leaving the high-frequency noise signal. [**B**] Power spectrum of ACh-induced noise recorded in a similar experiment to that shown above. The spectrum is calculated by Fourier analysis and fitted with a theoretical (Lorentzian) curve that corresponds to the expected behaviour of a single population of channels whose lifetime varies randomly. The cut-off frequency (at which the power is half of its limiting low-frequency value) enables the mean channel lifetime to be calculated.

*(From [**A**] Anderson C R, Stevens C F 1973 J Physiol 235: 655; [**B**] Ogden D C et al. 1981 Nature 289: 596.)*

The simple scheme shown in Fig. 2.1 is a useful model for ion channel gating. The conformation R*, representing the open state of the ion channel, is thought to be the same for all agonists, accounting for the finding that the channel conductance does not vary. Kinetically, the mean open time is determined mainly by the closing rate constant, α,

and this varies from one drug to another. As explained in Chapter 2, an agonist of high efficacy that activates a large proportion of the receptors that it occupies will be characterised by $\beta/\alpha >> 1$, whereas for a drug of low efficacy β/α has a lower value.

The patch clamp recording technique, devised by Neher and Sakmann, allows the very small current flowing through a single ionic channel to be measured directly (Fig. 3.6), and the results have fully confirmed the interpretation of channel properties based on noise analysis. This technique provides a view, unique in biology, of the physiological behaviour of individual protein molecules in real time, and has given many new insights into the gating reactions and permeability characteristics of both ligand-gated channels and voltage-gated channels (see p. 43). Single-channel recording has shown that many agonists cause individual channels to open to one or more of several distinct conductance levels. In the case of glutamate-activated channels, it appears that different agonists produce different receptor conformations associated with different channel conductances (Jin et al., 2003). Desensitisation of ligand-gated ion channels also involves one or more additional agonist-induced conformational states. These findings necessitate some elaboration of the simple scheme of Figure 2.1, in which only a single open state, R*, is represented, and are an example of the way in which the actual behaviour of receptors makes our theoretical models look a little threadbare.

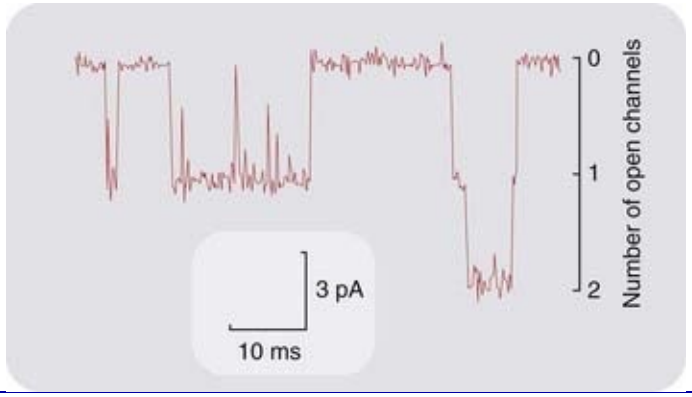


Fig. 3.6 Single acetylcholine-operated ion channels at the frog motor endplate recorded by the patch clamp technique.

The pipette, which was applied tightly to the surface of the membrane, contained 10 μmol/l ACh. The downward deflections show the currents flowing through single ion channels in the small patch of membrane under the pipette tip. Towards the end of the record, two channels can be seen to open simultaneously. The conductance and mean lifetime of these channels agrees well with indirect estimates from noise analysis (see Fig. 3.5).

(Courtesy of D Colquhoun and D C Ogden.)

Ligand-gated ion channels

• These are sometimes called ionotropic receptors.

• They are involved mainly in fast synaptic transmission.

• There are several structural families, the commonest being heteromeric assemblies of four or five subunits, with transmembrane helices arranged around a central aqueous channel.

• Ligand binding and channel opening occur on a millisecond timescale.

• Examples include the nicotinic acetylcholine, GABA type A ($GABA_A$) and 5-hydroxytryptamine type 3 ($5\text{-}HT_3$) receptors.

Type 2: G-Protein-Coupled Receptors

The abundant GPCR family comprises many of the receptors that are familiar to pharmacologists, such as mAChRs, adrenoceptors, dopamine

receptors, 5-HT receptors, opioid receptors, receptors for many peptides, purine receptors and many others, including the chemoreceptors involved in olfaction and pheromone detection, and also many 'orphans' (see Fredriksson & Schiöth, 2005). For most of these, pharmacological and molecular studies have revealed a variety of subtypes. All have the characteristic heptahelical structure.

Many neurotransmitters, apart from peptides, can interact with both GPCRs and ligand-gated channels, allowing the same molecule to produce a wide variety of effects. Individual peptide hormones, on the other hand, generally act either on GPCRs or on kinase-linked receptors (see below), but rarely on both, and a similar choosiness applies to the many ligands that act on nuclear receptors.[7]

[7]Examples of promiscuity are increasing, however. Steroid hormones, normally faithful to nuclear receptors, make the occasional pass at ion channels and other targets (see Falkenstein et al., 2000), and some eicosanoids act on nuclear receptors as well as GPCRs. Nature is quite open minded, although such examples are liable to make pharmacologists frown and students despair.

The human genome includes genes encoding about 400 GPCRs (excluding odorant receptors), which constitute the commonest single class of targets for therapeutic drugs, and it is thought that many promising therapeutic drug targets of this type remain to be identified. For a short review, see Hill (2006).

Molecular Structure

The first GPCR to be fully characterised was the β-adrenoceptor (Ch. 14), which was cloned in 1986. Molecular biology caught up very rapidly with pharmacology, and all of the receptors that had been identified by their pharmacological properties have now been cloned.

What seemed revolutionary in 1986 is now commonplace, and nowadays any aspiring receptor has to be cloned before it is taken seriously.

G-protein-coupled receptors consist of a single polypeptide chain of up to 1100 residues whose general anatomy is shown in Figure 3.3B. Their characteristic structure comprises seven transmembrane α-helices, similar to those of the ion channels discussed above, with an extracellular N-terminal domain of varying length, and an intracellular C-terminal domain.

GPCRs are divided into three distinct families (see Schwartz, 1996). There is considerable sequence homology between the members of one family, but none between different families. They share the same seven-helix (heptahelical) structure, but differ in other respects, principally in the length of the extracellular N terminus and the location of the agonist binding domain (Table 3.3). Family A is by far the largest, comprising most monoamine, neuropeptide and chemokine receptors. Family B includes receptors for some other peptides, such as calcitonin and glucagon (see Ch. 19). Family C is the smallest, its main members being the metabotropic glutamate and GABA receptors (Ch. 37) and the Ca^{2+}-sensing receptors[8] (see Ch. 35).

Table 3.3 G-protein-coupled receptor families[a]

Family	Receptors[b]	Structural features
A: rhodopsin family	The largest group. Receptors for most amine neurotransmitters, many neuropeptides, purines, prostanoids, cannabinoids, *etc.*	Short extracellular (N terminal) tail. Ligand binds to transmembrane helices (amines) or to extracellular loops (peptides)
B: secretin/glucagon	Receptors for peptide hormones, including secretin, glucagon,	Intermediate extracellular tail incorporating ligand-binding

receptor family	calcitonin	domain
C: metabotropic glutamate receptor/calcium sensor family	Small group Metabotropic glutamate receptors, $GABA_B$ receptors, $Ca2+$-sensing receptors	Long extracellular tail incorporating ligand-binding domain

[a] A fourth distinct family includes many receptors for pheromones but no pharmacological receptors.

[b] For full lists, see http://www.iuphar-db.org.

[8]The Ca^{2+}-sensing receptor (see Conigrave et al., 2000) is an unusual GPCR that is activated, not by conventional mediators, but by extracellular Ca^{2+} in the range of 1–10 mM—an extremely low affinity in comparison with other GPCR agonists. It is expressed by cells of the parathyroid gland, and serves to regulate the extracellular Ca^{2+} concentration by controlling parathyroid hormone secretion (Ch. 35). This homeostatic mechanism is quite distinct from the mechanisms for regulating intracellular Ca^{2+} discussed in Chapter 4.

▼ The understanding of the function of receptors of this type owes much to studies of a closely related protein, *rhodopsin*, which is responsible for transduction in retinal rods. This protein is abundant in the retina, and much easier to study than receptor proteins (which are anything but abundant); it is built on an identical plan to that shown in Figure 3.3 and also produces a response in the rod (hyperpolarisation, associated with inhibition of Na^+ conductance) through a mechanism involving a G-protein (see below). The most obvious difference is that a photon, rather than an agonist molecule, produces the response. In effect, rhodopsin can be regarded as incorporating its own inbuilt agonist molecule, namely *retinal*, which isomerises from the *trans* (inactive) to the *cis* (active) form when it absorbs a photon.

Site-directed mutagenesis experiments show that the long third

cytoplasmic loop is the region of the molecule that couples to the G-protein, because deletion or modification of this section results in receptors that still bind ligands but cannot associate with G-proteins or produce responses. Usually, a particular receptor subtype couples selectively with a particular G-protein, and swapping parts of the cytoplasmic loop between different receptors alters their G-protein selectivity.

For small molecules, such as noradrenaline (norepinephrine), the ligand-binding domain of class A receptors is buried in the cleft between the α-helical segments within the membrane (Fig. 3.3B), similar to the slot occupied by retinal in the rhodopsin molecule. Peptide ligands, such as substance P (Ch. 19) bind more superficially to the extracellular loops, as shown in Figure 3.3B. By single-site mutagenesis experiments, it is possible to map the ligand-binding domain of these receptors, and the hope is that it may soon be possible to design synthetic ligands based on knowledge of the receptor site structure—an important milestone for the pharmaceutical industry, which has relied up to now mainly on the structure of endogenous mediators (such as histamine) or plant alkaloids (such as morphine) for its chemical inspiration.[9] Recently, the difficulties of crystallising type A GPCRs have been overcome, allowing the use of the powerful technique of X-ray crystallography to study the molecular structure of these receptors in detail (see Weis & Kobilka, 2008). Also, fluorescence methods have been developed to study the kinetics of ligand binding and subsequent conformational changes associated with activation (see Lohse et al., 2008). From such studies we should gain a clearer picture of the mechanism of activation of GPCRs and the factors determining agonist efficacy, as well as having a better basis for designing new GPCR ligands.

[9]Many lead compounds in recent years have come from screening huge

chemical libraries (see Ch. 56). No inspiration is required, just robust assays, large computers and efficient robotics.

Protease-activated receptors

▼ Although activation of GPCRs is normally the consequence of a diffusible agonist, it can be the result of protease activation. Four types of protease-activated receptors (PARs), have been identified (see review by Ramachandran & Hollenberg, 2008). Many proteases, such as thrombin (a protease involved in the blood-clotting cascade; see Ch. 24), activate PARs by snipping off the end of the extracellular N-terminal tail of the receptor (Fig. 3.7) to expose five or six N-terminal residues that bind to receptor domains in the extracellular loops, functioning as a 'tethered agonist'. Receptors of this type occur in many tissues (see Ramachandran & Hollenberg, 2008), and they appear to play a role in inflammation and other responses to tissue damage where tissue proteases are released. One of the family of PARs, PAR-2, is activated by a protease released from mast cells, and is expressed on sensory neurons. It is thought to play a role in inflammatory pain (see Ch. 41). A PAR molecule can be activated only once, because the cleavage cannot be reversed, so continuous resynthesis of receptor protein is necessary. Inactivation occurs by a further proteolytic cleavage that frees the tethered ligand, or by desensitisation, involving phosphorylation (see below), after which the receptor is internalised and degraded, to be replaced by newly synthesised protein.

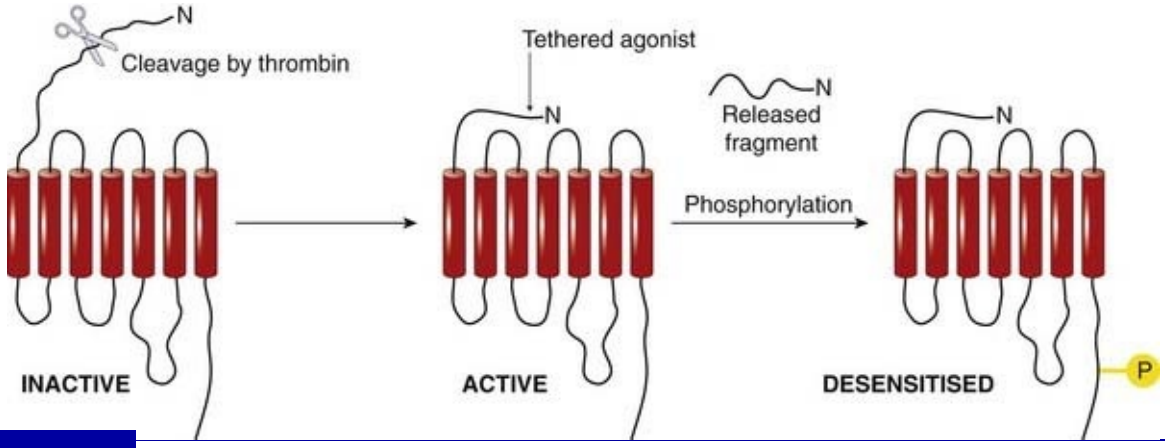


Fig. 3.7 Activation of a protease-activated receptor by cleavage of the N-terminal extracellular domain.

Inactivation occurs by phosphorylation. Recovery requires resynthesis of the receptor.

G-protein-coupled receptors

• These are sometimes called metabotropic receptors.

• Structures comprise seven membrane-spanning α-helices, often linked as dimeric structures.

• One of the intracellular loops is larger than the others and interacts with the G-protein.

• The G-protein is a membrane protein comprising three subunits (α, β, γ), the α subunit possessing GTPase activity.

• When the trimer binds to an agonist-occupied receptor, the α subunit dissociates and is then free to activate an effector (a membrane enzyme or ion channel). In some cases, the βγ subunit is the activator species.

• Activation of the effector is terminated when the bound GTP molecule is hydrolysed, which allows the α subunit to recombine with βγ.

• There are several types of G-protein, which interact with different receptors and control different effectors.

• Examples include muscarinic acetylcholine receptors, adrenoceptors, neuropeptide and

chemokine receptors, and protease-activated receptors.

G-Proteins and Their Role

G-proteins comprise a family of membrane-resident proteins whose function is to recognise activated GPCRs and pass on the message to the effector systems that generate a cellular response. They represent the level of middle management in the organisational hierarchy, intervening between the receptors—choosy mandarins alert to the faintest whiff of their preferred chemical—and the effector enzymes or ion channels—the blue-collar brigade that gets the job done without needing to know which hormone authorised the process. They are the go-between proteins, but were actually called G-proteins because of their interaction with the guanine nucleotides, GTP and GDP. For more detailed information on the structure and functions of G-proteins, see reviews by Milligan & Kostenis (2006) and Oldham & Hamm (2008). G-proteins consist of three subunits: α, β and γ (Fig. 3.8). Guanine nucleotides bind to the α subunit, which has enzymic activity, catalysing the conversion of GTP to GDP. The β and γ subunits remain together as a βγ complex. All three subunits are anchored to the membrane through a fatty acid chain, coupled to the G-protein through a reaction known as *prenylation*. G-proteins appear to be freely diffusible in the plane of the membrane, so a single pool of G-protein in a cell can interact with several different receptors and effectors in an essentially promiscuous fashion. In the 'resting' state (Fig. 3.8), the G-protein exists as an unattached αβγ trimer, with GDP occupying the site on the α subunit. When a GPCR is activated by an agonist molecule, a conformational change occurs, involving the cytoplasmic domain of the receptor (Fig. 3.3B), causing it to acquire high affinity for αβγ. Association of αβγ with the receptor occurs within about 50 ms, causing the bound GDP to dissociate and to be replaced with GTP (GDP–GTP exchange), which in turn causes

dissociation of the G-protein trimer, releasing α-GTP and βγ subunits; these are the 'active' forms of the G-protein, which diffuse in the membrane and can associate with various enzymes and ion channels, causing activation of the target (Fig. 3.8). It was originally thought that only the α subunit had a signalling function, the βγ complex serving merely as a chaperone to keep the flighty α subunits out of range of the various effector proteins that they might otherwise excite. However, the βγ complexes actually make assignations of their own, and control effectors in much the same way as the α subunits (see Clapham & Neer, 1997). Association of α or βγ subunits with target enzymes or channels can cause either activation or inhibition, depending on which G-protein is involved (see Table 3.4).

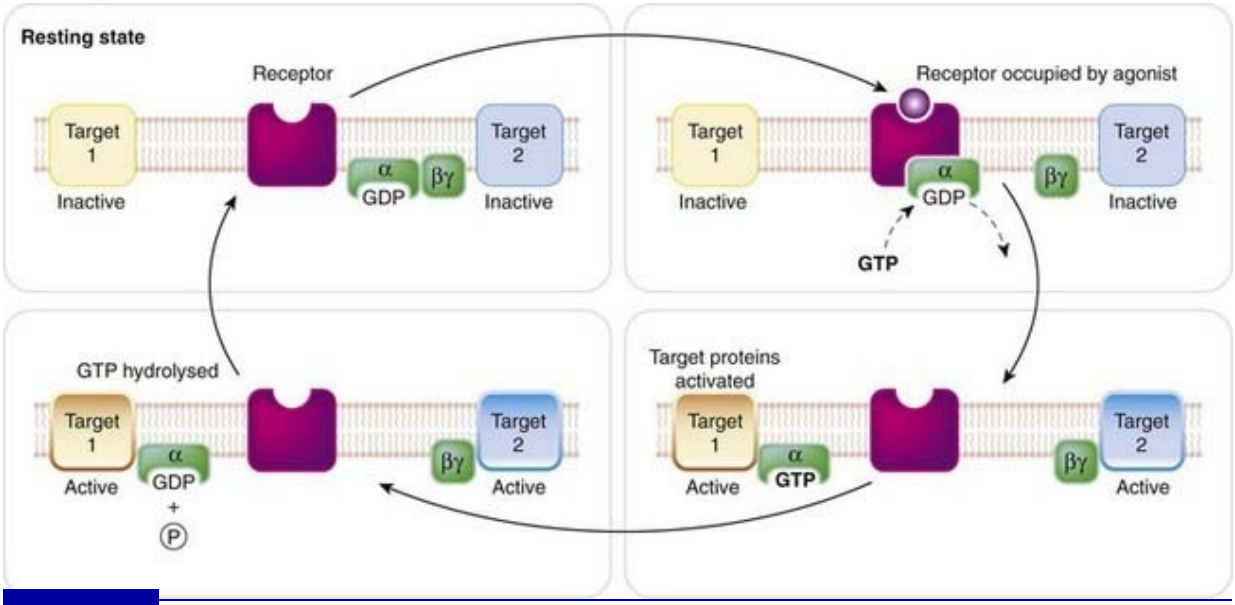


Fig. 3.8 The function of the G-protein.

The G-protein consists of three subunits (α, β, γ), which are anchored to the membrane through attached lipid residues. Coupling of the α subunit to an agonist-occupied receptor causes the bound GDP to exchange with intracellular GTP; the α–GTP complex then dissociates from the receptor and from the βγ complex, and interacts with a target protein (target 1, which may be an enzyme, such as adenylyl cyclase, or an ion channel). The βγ complex may also activate a target protein (target 2). The GTPase activity of the α subunit is increased when the target protein is bound, leading to hydrolysis of the bound GTP to GDP, whereupon the α subunit

reunites with βγ.

Table 3.4 The main G-protein subtypes and their functions[a]

Subtypes	Associated receptors	Main effectors	Notes
Gα subunits			
$G\alpha_s$	Many amine and other receptors (e.g. catecholamines, histamine, serotonin)	Stimulates adenylyl cyclase, causing increased cAMP formation	Activated by cholera toxin, which blocks GTPase activity, thus preventing inactivation
$G\alpha_i$	As for $G\alpha_s$, also opioid, cannabinoid receptors	Inhibits adenylyl cyclase, decreasing cAMP formation	Blocked by pertussis toxin, which prevents dissociation of αβγ complex
$G\alpha_o$	As for $G\alpha_s$, also opioid, cannabinoid receptors	?Limited effects of α subunit (effects mainly due to βγ subunits)	Blocked by pertussis toxin. Occurs mainly in nervous system
$G\alpha_q$	Amine, peptide and prostanoid receptors	Activates phospholipase C, increasing production of second messengers inositol trisphosphate and diacylglycerol (see p. 33)	—
Gβγ subunits	All GPCRs	As for Gα subunits (see above). Also: • activate potassium channels • inhibit voltage-gated calcium channels • activate GPCR kinases (GRKs, p. 36) • activate mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade	Many βγ isoforms identified, but specific functions are not yet known Gβγ-mediated effects probably require higher levels of GPCR activation than Gα-mediated effects

GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor.
[a]This table lists only those isoforms of major pharmacological significance. Many more have been identified, some of which play roles in olfaction, taste, visual transduction and other physiological functions (see Offermanns, 2003).

Signalling is terminated when the hydrolysis of GTP to GDP occurs through the GTPase activity of the α subunit. The resulting α–GDP then dissociates from the effector, and reunites with βγ, completing the cycle. Attachment of the α subunit to an effector molecule actually increases its GTPase activity, the magnitude of this increase being different for different types of effector. Because GTP hydrolysis is the step that terminates the ability of the α subunit to produce its effect, regulation of its GTPase activity by the effector protein means that the activation of the effector tends to be self-limiting. The mechanism results in amplification because a single agonist–receptor complex can activate several G-protein molecules in turn, and each of these can remain associated with the effector enzyme for long enough to produce many

molecules of product. The product (see below) is often a 'second messenger', and further amplification occurs before the final cellular response is produced.

How is specificity achieved so that each kind of receptor produces a distinct pattern of cellular responses? With a common pool of promiscuous G-proteins linking the various receptors and effector systems in a cell, it might seem that all specificity would be lost, but this is clearly not the case. For example, mAChRs and β-adrenoceptors, both of which occur in cardiac muscle cells, produce opposite functional effects (Chs 13 and 14). The main reason is molecular variation within the α subunits, of which more than 20 subtypes have been identified[10] (see Wess, 1998; Table 3.4). Four main classes of G-protein (G_s, G_i, G_o and G_q) are of pharmacological importance. As summarised in Table 3.4, they show selectivity with respect to both the receptors and the effectors with which they couple, having specific recognition domains in their structure complementary to specific G-protein-binding domains in the receptor and effector molecules. G_s and G_i produce, respectively, stimulation and inhibition of the enzyme *adenylyl cyclase* (Fig. 3.9).

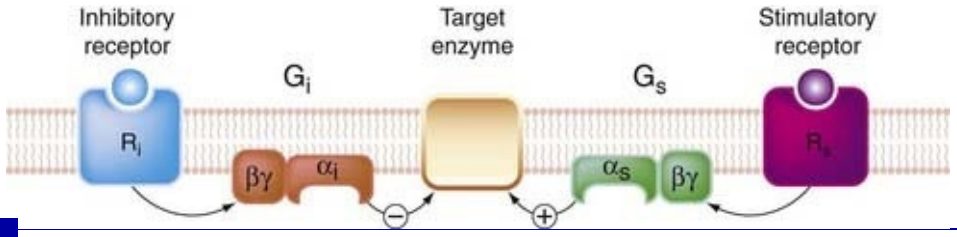


Fig. 3.9 Bidirectional control of a target enzyme, such as adenylate cyclase by G_s and G_i.

Heterogeneity of G-proteins allows different receptors to exert opposite effects on a target enzyme.

[10]In humans there are 21 known subtypes of Gα, there are 6 of Gβ and 12 of Gγ, providing, in theory, about 1500 variants of the trimer. We know little about the role of different α, β and γ subtypes, but it would

be rash to assume that the variations are functionally irrelevant. By now, you will be unsurprised (even if somewhat bemused) by such a display of molecular heterogeneity, for it is the way of evolution.

The α subunits of these G-proteins differ in structure. One functional difference that has been useful as an experimental tool to distinguish which type of G-protein is involved in different situations concerns the action of two bacterial toxins, *cholera toxin* and *pertussis toxin* (see Table 3.4). These toxins, which are enzymes, catalyse a conjugation reaction (ADP ribosylation) on the α subunit of G-proteins. Cholera toxin acts only on G_s, and it causes persistent activation. Many of the symptoms of cholera, such as the excessive secretion of fluid from the gastrointestinal epithelium, are due to the uncontrolled activation of adenylate cyclase that occurs. Pertussis toxin specifically blocks G_i and G_o by preventing dissociation of the G-protein trimer.

Targets for G-Proteins

The main targets for G-proteins, through which GPCRs control different aspects of cell function (see Milligan, 1995; Nahorski, 2006; Table 3.4), are:

- *adenylyl cyclase*, the enzyme responsible for cAMP formation
- *phospholipase C*, the enzyme responsible for inositol phosphate and diacylglycerol (DAG) formation
- *ion channels*, particularly calcium and potassium channels
- *Rho A/Rho kinase*, a system that controls the activity of many signalling pathways controlling cell growth and proliferation, smooth muscle contraction, *etc.*
- *Mitogen-activated protein kinase* (MAP kinase), a system that controls

many cell functions, including cell division.

The adenylyl cyclase/cAMP system

The discovery by Sutherland and his colleagues of the role of cAMP (cyclic 3′,5′-adenosine monophosphate) as an intracellular mediator demolished at a stroke the barriers that existed between biochemistry and pharmacology, and introduced the concept of second messengers in signal transduction. cAMP is a nucleotide synthesised within the cell from ATP by the action of a membrane-bound enzyme, adenylyl cyclase. It is produced continuously and inactivated by hydrolysis to 5′-AMP by the action of a family of enzymes known as phosphodiesterases (PDEs). Many different drugs, hormones and neurotransmitters act on GPCRs and produce their effects by increasing or decreasing the catalytic activity of adenylyl cyclase, thus raising or lowering the concentration of cAMP within the cell. There are nine different molecular isoforms of the enzyme, some of which respond selectively to $G\alpha_s$ or $G\alpha_i$ (see Simonds, 1999).

Cyclic AMP regulates many aspects of cellular function including, for example, enzymes involved in energy metabolism, cell division and cell differentiation, ion transport, ion channels, and the contractile proteins in smooth muscle. These varied effects are, however, all brought about by a common mechanism, namely the activation of *protein kinases* by cAMP. Protein kinases regulate the function of many different cellular proteins by controlling protein phosphorylation (see p. 39) Figure 3.10 shows how increased cAMP production in response to β-adrenoceptor activation affects enzymes involved in glycogen and fat metabolism in liver, fat and muscle cells. The result is a coordinated response in which stored energy in the form of glycogen and fat is made available as glucose to fuel muscle contraction.

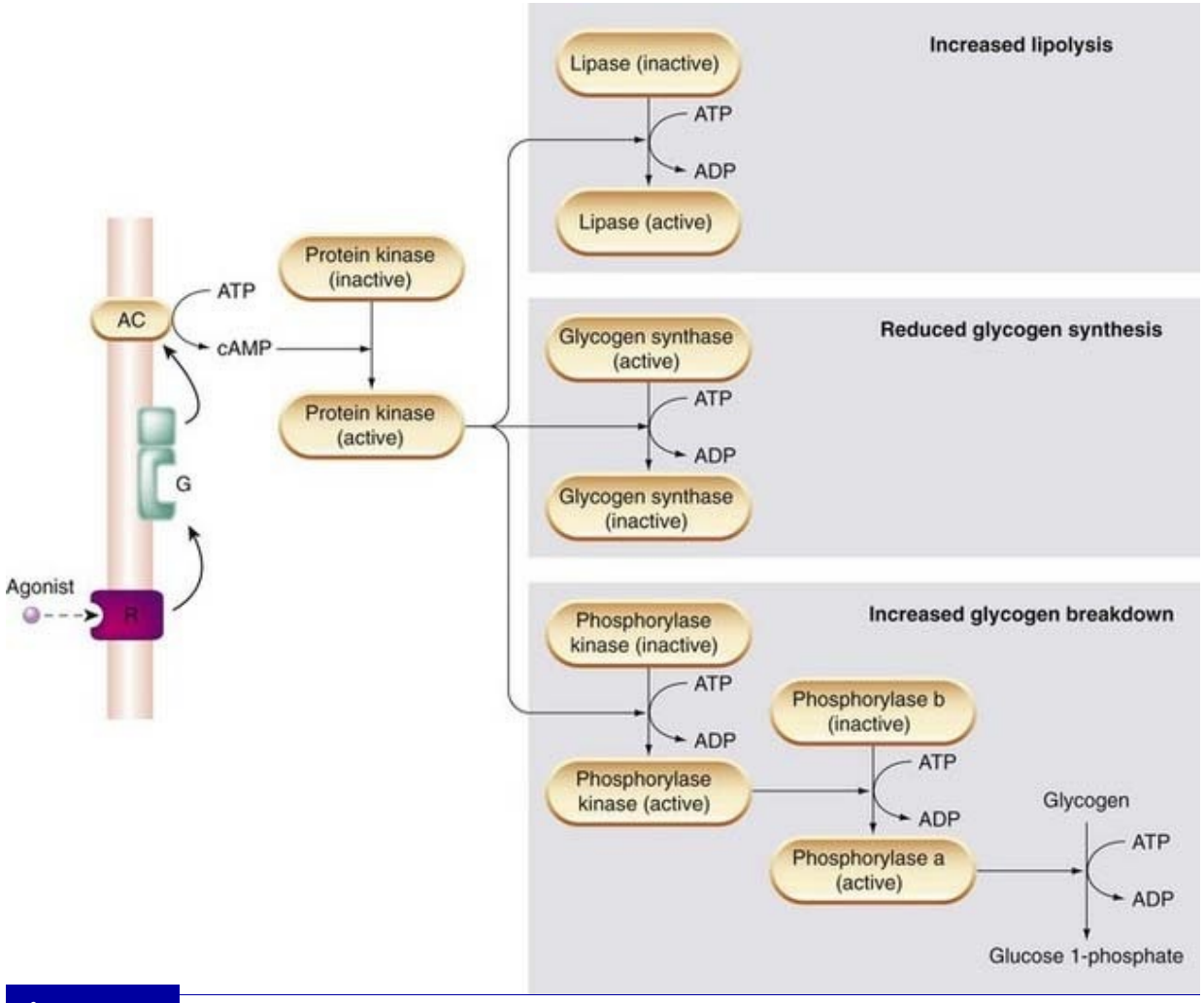


Fig. 3.10 Regulation of energy metabolism by cAMP.
AC, adenylyl cyclase.

Other examples of regulation by cAMP-dependent protein kinases include the increased activity of voltage-gated calcium channels in heart muscle cells (see Ch. 21). Phosphorylation of these channels increases the amount of Ca^{2+} entering the cell during the action potential, and thus increases the force of contraction of the heart.

In smooth muscle, cAMP-dependent protein kinase phosphorylates (thereby inactivating) another enzyme, *myosin-light-chain kinase*, which is required for contraction. This accounts for the smooth muscle relaxation produced by many drugs that increase cAMP production in smooth

muscle (see Ch. 4).

As mentioned above, receptors linked to G_i rather than G_s inhibit adenylyl cyclase, and thus reduce cAMP formation. Examples include certain types of mAChR (e.g. the M_2 receptor of cardiac muscle; see Ch. 13), α_2 adrenoceptors in smooth muscle (Ch. 14) and opioid receptors (see Ch. 41). Adenylyl cyclase can be activated directly by certain agents, including **forskolin** and fluoride ions, agents that are used experimentally to study the role of the cAMP system.

Cyclic AMP is hydrolysed within cells by *phosphodiesterases* (PDEs), an important and ubiquitous family of enzymes (see Beavo, 1995, for review). Eleven PDE subtypes exist, of which some (e.g. PDE_3 and PDE_4) are cAMP selective, while others (e.g. PDE_5) are cGMP selective. Most are weakly inhibited by drugs such as methylxanthines (e.g. **theophylline** and **caffeine**; see Chs 27 and 47). **Rolipram** (used to treat asthma; Ch. 27) is selective for PDE_4, expressed in inflammatory cells; **milrinone** (used to treat heart failure; Ch. 21) is selective for PDE_3, which is expressed in heart muscle; **sildenafil** (better known as Viagra; Ch. 34) is selective for PDE_5, and consequently enhances the vasodilator effects of nitrous oxide (NO) and drugs that release NO, whose effects are mediated by cGMP (see Ch. 20). The similarity of some of the actions of these drugs to those of sympathomimetic amines (Ch. 14) probably reflects their common property of increasing the intracellular concentration of cAMP. Selective inhibitors of the various PDEs are being developed, mainly to treat cardiovascular and respiratory diseases.

The phospholipase C/inositol phosphate system

The *phosphoinositide* system, an important intracellular second messenger system, was first discovered in the 1950s by Hokin and Hokin, whose recondite interests centred on the mechanism of salt secretion by the

nasal glands of seabirds. They found that secretion was accompanied by increased turnover of a minor class of membrane phospholipids known as phosphoinositides (collectively known as PIs; Fig. 3.11). Subsequently, Michell and Berridge found that many hormones that produce an increase in free intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration (which include, for example, muscarinic agonists and α-adrenoceptor agonists acting on smooth muscle and salivary glands, and **vasopressin** acting on liver cells) also increase PI turnover. Subsequently, it was found that one particular member of the PI family, namely phosphatidylinositol (4,5) bisphosphate (PIP_2), which has additional phosphate groups attached to the inositol ring, plays a key role. PIP_2 is the substrate for a membrane-bound enzyme, phospholipase Cβ (PLCβ), which splits it into *diacylglycerol* (DAG) and *inositol (1,4,5) trisphosphate* (IP_3; Fig. 3.12), both of which function as second messengers as discussed below. The activation of PLCβ by various agonists is mediated through a G-protein (G_q, see Table 3.4). After cleavage of PIP_2, the status quo is restored as shown in Figure 3.12, DAG being phosphorylated to form phosphatidic acid (PA), while the IP_3 is dephosphorylated and then recoupled with PA to form PIP_2 once again.[11] **Lithium**, an agent used in psychiatry (see Ch. 46), blocks this recycling pathway (see Fig. 3.12).

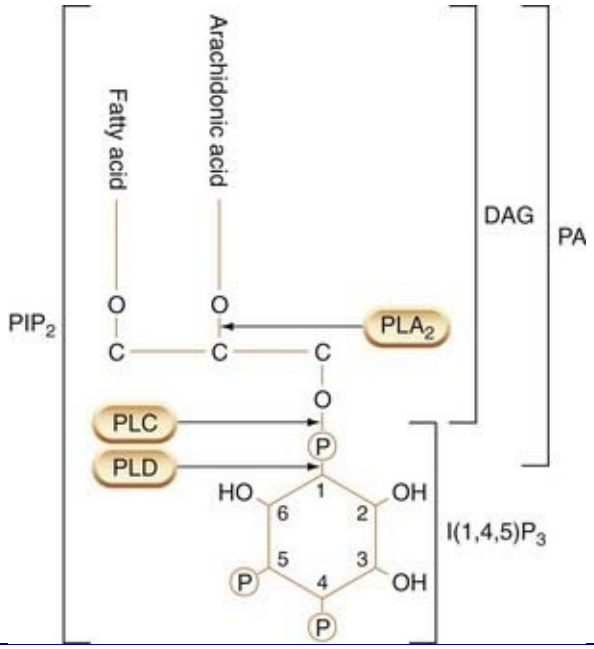


Fig. 3.11 Structure of phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate (PIP_2), showing sites of cleavage by different phospholipases to produce active mediators.

Cleavage by phospholipase A_2 (PLA_2) yields arachidonic acid. Cleavage by phospholipase C (PLC) yields inositol trisphosphate ($I(1,4,5)P_3$) and diacylglycerol (DAG). PA, phosphatidic acid; PLD, phospholipase D.

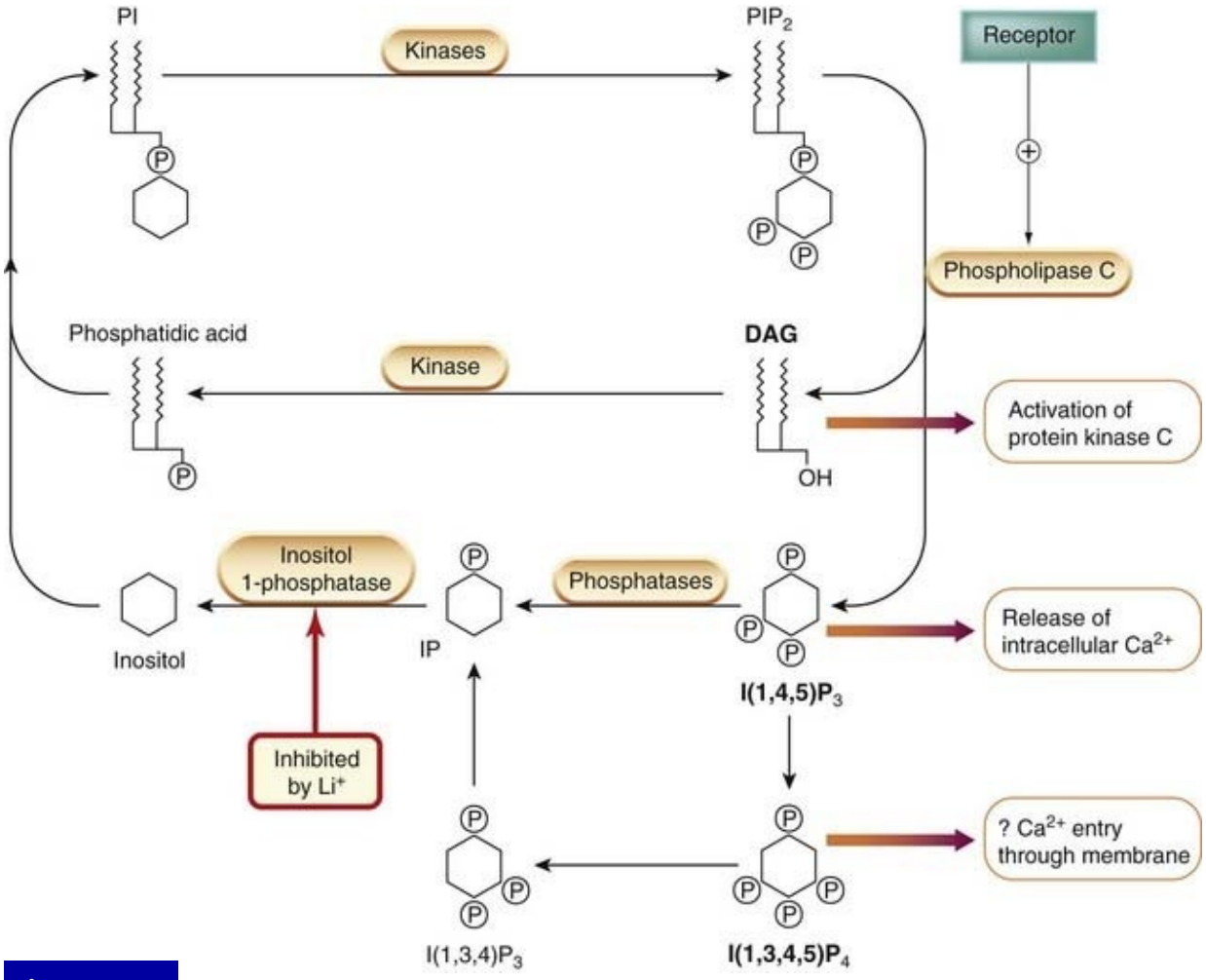


Fig. 3.12 The phosphatidylinositol (PI) cycle.

Receptor-mediated activation of phospholipase C results in the cleavage of phosphatidylinositol bisphosphate (PIP_2), forming diacylglycerol (DAG) (which activates protein kinase C) and inositol trisphosphate (IP_3) (which releases intracellular Ca^{2+}). The role of inositol tetraphosphate (IP_4), which is formed from IP_3 and other inositol phosphates, is unclear, but it may facilitate Ca^{2+} entry through the plasma membrane. IP_3 is inactivated by dephosphorylation to inositol. DAG is converted to phosphatidic acid, and these two products are used to regenerate PI and PIP_2.

[11]Alternative abbreviations for these mediators are PtdIns (PI), PtdIns (4,5)-P_2 (PIP_2), Ins (1,4,5)-P_3 (IP3), and Ins (1,2,4,5)-P4 (IP_4).

Inositol phosphates and intracellular calcium

Inositol (1,4,5) trisphosphate (IP_3) is a water-soluble mediator that is

released into the cytosol and acts on a specific receptor—the IP_3 receptor—which is a ligand-gated calcium channel present on the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum. The main role of IP_3, described in more detail in Chapter 4, is to control the release of Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores. Because many drug and hormone effects involve intracellular Ca^{2+}, this pathway is particularly important. IP_3 is converted inside the cell to the (1,3,4,5) tetraphosphate, IP_4, by a specific kinase. The exact role of IP_4 remains unclear, but recent evidence suggests that it, and also higher inositol phosphates, plays a role in controlling gene expression.

Diacylglycerol and protein kinase C

Diacylglycerol is produced as well as IP_3 whenever receptor-induced PI hydrolysis occurs. The main effect of DAG is to activate a membrane-bound protein kinase, *protein kinase C* (PKC), which catalyses the phosphorylation of a variety of intracellular proteins (see Nishizuka, 1988; Walaas & Greengard, 1991). DAG, unlike the inositol phosphates, is highly lipophilic and remains within the membrane. It binds to a specific site on the PKC molecule, which migrates from the cytosol to the cell membrane in the presence of DAG, thereby becoming activated. There are 10 different mammalian PKC subtypes, which have distinct cellular distributions and phosphorylate different proteins. Most are activated by DAG and raised intracellular Ca^{2+}, both of which are produced by activation of GPCRs. PKCs are also activated by phorbol esters (highly irritant, tumour-promoting compounds produced by certain plants), which have been extremely useful in studying the functions of PKC. One of the subtypes is activated by the lipid mediator arachidonic acid (see Ch. 17) generated by the action of phospholipase A_2 on membrane phospholipids, so PKC activation can also occur with agonists that activate this enzyme. The various PKC isoforms, like the

tyrosine kinases discussed below (p. 37), act on many different functional proteins, such as ion channels, receptors, enzymes (including other kinases), transcription factors and cytoskeletal proteins. Kinases in general play a central role in signal transduction, and control many different aspects of cell function. The DAG–PKC link provides a channel whereby GPCRs can mobilise this army of control freaks.

Ion channels as targets for G-proteins

G-protein-coupled receptors can control ion channel function directly by mechanisms that do not involve second messengers such as cAMP or inositol phosphates. Direct G-protein–channel interaction was first shown for cardiac muscle, but appears to be a general mechanism for controlling K^+ and Ca^{2+} channels (see Wickham & Clapham, 1995). In cardiac muscle, for example, mAChRs are known to enhance K^+ permeability (thus hyperpolarising the cells and inhibiting electrical activity; see Ch. 21). Similar mechanisms operate in neurons, where many inhibitory drugs such as opioid analgesics reduce excitability by opening K^+ channels or inhibiting Ca^{2+} channels (see Ch. 41). These actions are produced by direct interaction between the $\beta\gamma$ subunit of G_0 and the channel, without the involvement of second messengers.

Effectors controlled by G-proteins

Two key pathways are controlled by receptors via G-proteins. Both can be activated or inhibited by pharmacological ligands, depending on the nature of the receptor and G-protein.

- Adenylate cyclase/cAMP:
  - adenylate cyclase catalyses formation of the intracellular messenger cAMP
  - cAMP activates various protein kinases that control cell function in many different ways by causing phosphorylation of various enzymes, carriers and other proteins.

- Phospholipase C/inositol trisphosphate (IP_3)/diacylglycerol (DAG):

– catalyses the formation of two intracellular messengers, IP_3 and DAG, from membrane phospholipid

– IP_3 acts to increase free cytosolic Ca^{2+} by releasing Ca^{2+} from intracellular compartments

– increased free Ca^{2+} initiates many events, including contraction, secretion, enzyme activation and membrane hyperpolarisation

– DAG activates protein kinase C, which controls many cellular functions by phosphorylating a variety of proteins.

Receptor-linked G-proteins also control:

• phospholipase A_2 (and thus the formation of arachidonic acid and eicosanoids)

• ion channels (e.g. potassium and calcium channels, thus affecting membrane excitability, transmitter release, contractility, etc.).

The Rho/Rho kinase system

▼ This recently discovered signal transduction pathway (see Bishop & Hall, 2000) is activated by certain GPCRs (and also by non-GPCR mechanisms), which couple to G-proteins of the $G_{12/13}$ type. The free G-protein α subunit interacts with a *guanosine nucleotide exchange factor*, which facilitates GDP–GTP exchange at another GTPase, Rho. Rho–GDP, the resting form, is inactive, but when GDP–GTP exchange occurs, Rho is activated, and in turn activates Rho kinase. Rho kinase phosphorylates many substrate proteins and controls a wide variety of cellular functions, including smooth muscle contraction and proliferation, angiogenesis and synaptic remodelling. By enhancing hypoxia-induced pulmonary artery vasoconstriction, activation of Rho kinase is thought to be important in the pathogenesis of pulmonary hypertension (see Ch. 21). Specific Rho kinase inhibitors (e.g. **fasudil**) are in development for a wide range of clinical indications—an area to watch.

The MAP kinase system

▼ This signal transduction pathway (see below and Fig. 3.15) is activated not only by various cytokines and growth factors acting on kinase-linked receptors (see p. 37), but also by GPCR ligands. It controls many processes involved in cell division, apoptosis and tissue regeneration.

The main postulated roles of GPCRs in controlling enzymes and ion channels are summarised in Figure 3.13.

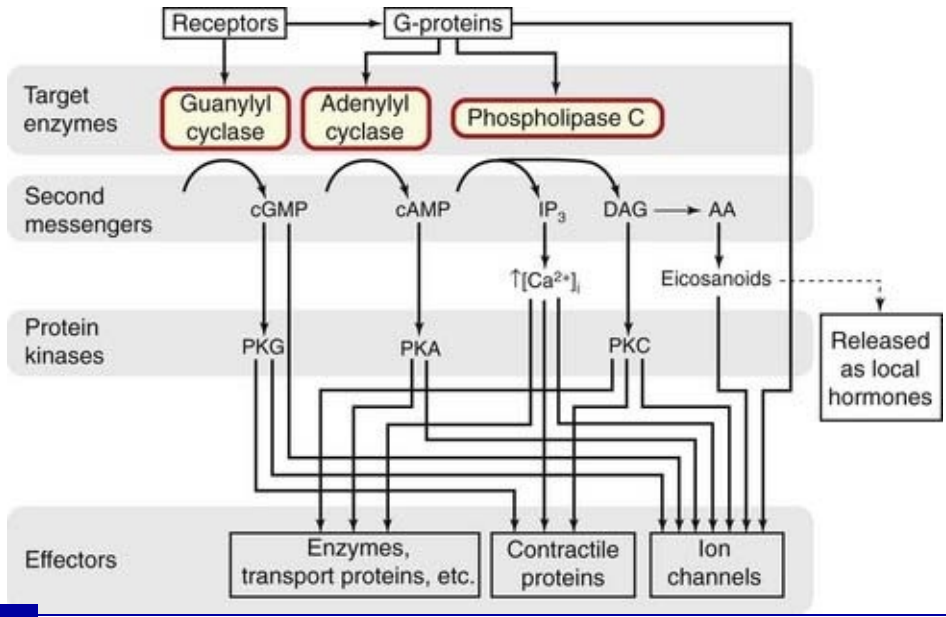


Fig. 3.13 G-protein and second messenger control of cellular effector systems.

AA, arachidonic acid; DAG, diacylglycerol; IP3, inositol trisphosphate. Not shown in this diagram are signalling pathways where arrestins, rather than G-proteins, link GPCRs to downstream events (see text).

Desensitisation

▼ As described in Chapter 2, desensitisation is a feature of all GPCRs, and the mechanisms underlying it have been extensively studied. Two main processes are involved (see Koenig & Edwardson, 1997; Ferguson, 2001; Kelly et al., 2008):

- receptor phosphorylation
- receptor internalisation (endocytosis).

The sequence of GPCRs includes certain residues (serine and threonine), mainly in the C-terminal cytoplasmic tail, which can be phosphorylated by kinases such as protein kinase A (PKA), PKC and specific membrane-bound GPCR kinases (GRKs).

Phosphorylation by PKA and PKC, which are activated by many GPCRs, generally leads to impaired coupling between the activated receptor and the G-protein, so the agonist effect is reduced. These kinases are not very selective, so receptors other than that for the desensitising agonist will also be affected. This effect, whereby one agonist can desensitise other receptors, is known as *heterologous desensitisation*, and is generally weak and short lasting (see Fig. 3.14).

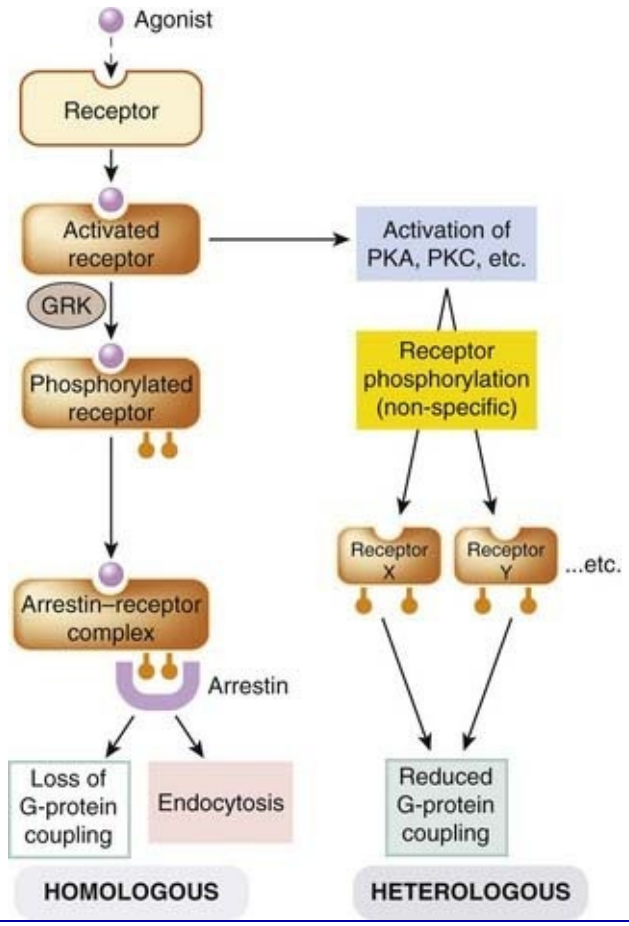


Fig. 3.14 Desensitisation of G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs).

Homologous (agonist-specific) desensitisation involves phosphorylation of the activated receptor by a specific kinase (GPCR kinase, GRK). The phosphorylated receptor (P-R) then binds to arrestin, causing it to lose its ability to associate with a G-protein, and to undergo endocytosis, which removes the receptor from the membrane. Heterologous (cross-) desensitisation occurs as a result of phosphorylation of one type of receptor as a result of activation of kinases by another. PKA and PKC, protein kinase A and C, respectively.

Phosphorylation by GRKs (Fig. 3.14) is receptor-specific to a greater or lesser degree, and affects mainly receptors in their activated (i.e. agonist-bound) state, resulting in *homologous desensitisation*. The residues that GRKs phosphorylate are different from those targeted by other kinases, and the phosphorylated receptor serves as a binding site for β-arrestins, intracellular proteins that block the interaction with G-proteins and also target the receptor for endocytosis, producing a more profound and long-

lasting desensitisation. The first GRK to be identified was the β-adrenoceptor kinase, BARK, but several others have since been discovered, and this type of desensitisation seems to occur with most GPCRs. Besides initiating desensitisation, GRKs and arrestins are also involved as intermediates in various other GPCR-mediated signalling pathways that are distinct from those involving G-proteins (see Reiter & Lefkowitz, 2006). For example, binding of β-arrestin to GPCRs can recruit Src proteins, which in turn activate the *MAP kinase cascade*, which plays an important role in controlling cell division (see p. 39).

Further Developments in Gpcr Biology

▼ By the early 1990s, we thought we had more or less got the measure of GPCR function, as described above. Since then, the plot has thickened, and recent developments (see review by Pierce et al., 2002) have necessitated a substantial overhaul of the basic model, whose implications for pharmacology in the future are not yet clear. Those wishing to stick to the basic story of GPCR function can safely skip this section.

GPCR dimerisation

▼ The conventional view that GPCRs exist and function as monomeric proteins (in contrast to ion channels, which generally form multimeric complexes; see p. 44) was first overturned by work on the $GABA_B$ receptor. Two subtypes of this GPCR exist, encoded by different genes, and the functional receptor consists of a heterodimer of the two (see Ch. 37). It now seems likely that most, if not all, GPCRs exist as oligomers (Prinster et al., 2005). Within the opioid receptor family (see Ch. 41), stable and functional dimers of κ and δ receptors, whose pharmacological properties differ from those of either parent, have been created in cell lines. More diverse GPCR combinations have also been

found, such as that between dopamine (D_2) and somatostatin receptors, on which both ligands act with increased potency. Roaming even further afield in search of functional assignations, the dopamine receptor D_5 can couple directly with a ligand-gated ion channel, the $GABA_A$ receptor, inhibiting the function of the latter without the intervention of any G-protein (Liu et al., 2000). These interactions have so far been studied mainly in engineered cell lines, but they also occur in native cells. Functional dimeric complexes between angiotensin (AT_1) and bradykinin (B_2) receptors occur in human platelets and show greater sensitivity to angiotensin than 'pure' AT_1 receptors (AbdAlla et al., 2001). In pregnant women suffering from hypertension (pre-eclamptic toxaemia), the number of these dimers increases due to increased expression of B_2 receptors, resulting—paradoxically—in increased sensitivity to the vasoconstrictor action of angiotensin. This is the first instance of the role of dimerisation in human disease.

It is too early to say what impact this newly discovered versatility of GPCRs in linking up with other receptors to form functional combinations will have on conventional pharmacology and therapeutics, but it could be considerable.

Constitutively active receptors

▼ G-protein-coupled receptors may also be constitutively (i.e. spontaneously) active in the absence of any agonist (see Ch. 2 and review by Costa & Cotecchia, 2005). This was first shown for the β-adrenoceptor (see Ch. 14), where mutations in the third intracellular loop, or simply overexpression of the receptor, result in constitutive receptor activation. There are now many examples of native GPCRs that show constitutive activity when expressed in vitro (see Teitler et al., 2002). The histamine H_3 receptor also shows constitutive activity in

vivo, and this may prove to be a quite general phenomenon. It means that inverse agonists, which suppress this basal activity, may exert effects distinct from those of neutral antagonists, which block agonist effects without affecting basal activity.

Agonist specificity

▼ It was thought that the linkage of a particular GPCR to a particular signal transduction pathway depends mainly on the structure of the receptor, particularly in the region of the third intracellular loop, which confers specificity for a particular G-protein, from which the rest of the signal transduction pathway follows. This would imply, in line with the two-state model discussed in Chapter 2, that all agonists acting on a particular receptor stabilise the same activated (R*) state and should activate the same signal transduction pathway, and produce the same type of cellular response. It is now clear that this is an oversimplification. In many cases, for example with agonists acting on opioid receptors, or with inverse agonists on β-adrenoceptors, the cellular effects are qualitatively different with different ligands, implying the existence of more than one—probably many—R* states (sometimes referred to as *agonist trafficking* or *protean agonism*, see Kenakin, 2002). This has profound implications—indeed heretical to many pharmacologists, who are accustomed to think of agonists in terms of their affinity and efficacy, and nothing else; it will add a new dimension to the way in which we think about drug efficacy and specificity (see Kelly et al., 2008).

RAMPs and RGS proteins

▼ Receptor activity-modifying proteins (RAMPs) are a family of membrane proteins that associate with GPCRs and alter their functional characteristics. They were discovered in 1998 when it was found that

the functionally active receptor for the neuropeptide **calcitonin gene-related peptide** (CGRP) (see Ch. 19) consisted of a complex of a GPCR —called calcitonin receptor-like receptor (CRLR)—that by itself lacked activity, with another membrane protein (RAMP1). More surprisingly, CRLR when coupled with another RAMP (RAMP2) showed a quite different pharmacology, being activated by an unrelated peptide, **adrenomedullin**. In other words, the agonist specificity is conferred by the associated RAMP as well as by the GPCR itself. More RAMPs have emerged, and so far (see Parameswaran & Spielman, 2006) nearly all the examples involve peptide receptors.

Regulators of G-protein signalling (RGS) proteins (see review by Xie & Palmer 2007) are a family of about 20 cellular proteins that possess a conserved sequence that binds specifically to Gα subunits. They increase greatly the GTPase activity of the active GTP–Gα complex, so hastening the hydrolysis of GTP and inactivating the complex. They thus exert an inhibitory effect on G-protein signalling, a mechanism that is thought to have a regulatory function in many situations. RAMPs and RGS proteins are two examples where protein–protein interactions influence the pharmacological behaviour of the receptors in a highly selective way.

G-protein-independent signalling

▼ In using the term G-protein-coupled receptor to describe the class of receptors characterised by their heptahelical structure, we are following conventional textbook dogma but neglecting the fact that G-proteins are not the only link between GPCRs and the various effector systems that they regulate. The example of direct linkage between GPCRs and ion channels was mentioned above. There are also many examples where the various ‘adapter proteins’ that link receptors of the tyrosine kinase type to their effectors (see below) can also interact with GPCRs (see

Brzostowski & Kimmel, 2001), allowing the same effector systems to be regulated by receptors of either type. In this context, the coupling of β-arrestins (see above), rather than G-proteins, to the activated GPCR, or phosphorylation of the C-terminal region of the GPCR by GRKs, produces a recognition site for molecules of the signal transduction pathway, analogous to the functioning of the kinase-linked receptors (see below; reviews by Bockaert & Pin, 1999; Delcourt et al., 2007).

In summary, the simple dogma that underpins much of our current understanding of GPCRs, namely,

> one GPCR gene—one GPCR protein—one functional GPCR—one G-protein—one response

is showing distinct signs of wear. In particular:

• one gene, through alternative splicing, RNA editing, etc., can give rise to more than one receptor protein

• one GPCR protein can associate with others, or with other proteins such as RAMPs, to produce more than one type of functional receptor

• different agonists may affect the receptor in different ways and elicit qualitatively different responses

• the signal transduction pathway does not invariably require G-proteins, and shows cross-talk with tyrosine kinase-linked receptors (see below).

G-protein-coupled receptors are evidently versatile and adventurous molecules around which much modern pharmacology revolves, and nobody imagines that we have reached the end of the story.

Type 3: Kinase-Linked and Related Receptors

These membrane receptors are quite different in structure and function from either the ligand-gated channels or the GPCRs. They mediate the actions of a wide variety of protein mediators, including growth factors and cytokines (see Chs 17, 19 17 19), and hormones such as insulin (see Ch. 30) and leptin (Ch. 31), whose effects are exerted mainly at the level of gene transcription. Most of these receptors are large proteins consisting of a single chain of up to 1000 residues, with a single membrane-spanning helical region, associated with a large extracellular ligand-binding domain, and an intracellular domain of variable size and function. The basic structure is shown in Figure 3.3C, but many variants exist (see below). Over 100 such receptors have been cloned, and many structural variations exist. For more detail, see reviews by Schenk & Snaar-Jakelska (1999) and Hubbard & Miller (2007). They play a major role in controlling cell division, growth, differentiation, inflammation, tissue repair, apoptosis and immune responses, discussed further in Chapters 5 and 17.

The main types are as follow.

• *Receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs)*. These receptors have the basic structure shown in Figure 3.15A, incorporating a tyrosine kinase moiety in the intracellular region. They include receptors for many growth factors, such as **epidermal growth factor** and **nerve growth factor**, and also the group of *Toll-like receptors* that recognise bacterial lipopolysaccarides and play an important role in the body's reaction to infection (see Ch. 17). The insulin receptor (see Ch. 30) also belongs to the RTK class, although it has a more complex dimeric structure.

• *Serine/threonine kinases*. This smaller class is similar in structure to RTKs but phosphorylate serine and/or threonine residues rather than tyrosine. The main example is the receptor for **transforming growth**

factor (TGF).

• *Cytokine receptors*. These receptors (Fig. 3.15B) lack intrinsic enzyme activity. When occupied, they associate with, and activate, a cytosolic tyrosine kinase, such as Jak (the Janus kinase) or other kinases. Ligands for these receptors include cytokines such as **interferons** and **colony-stimulating factors** involved in immunological responses.

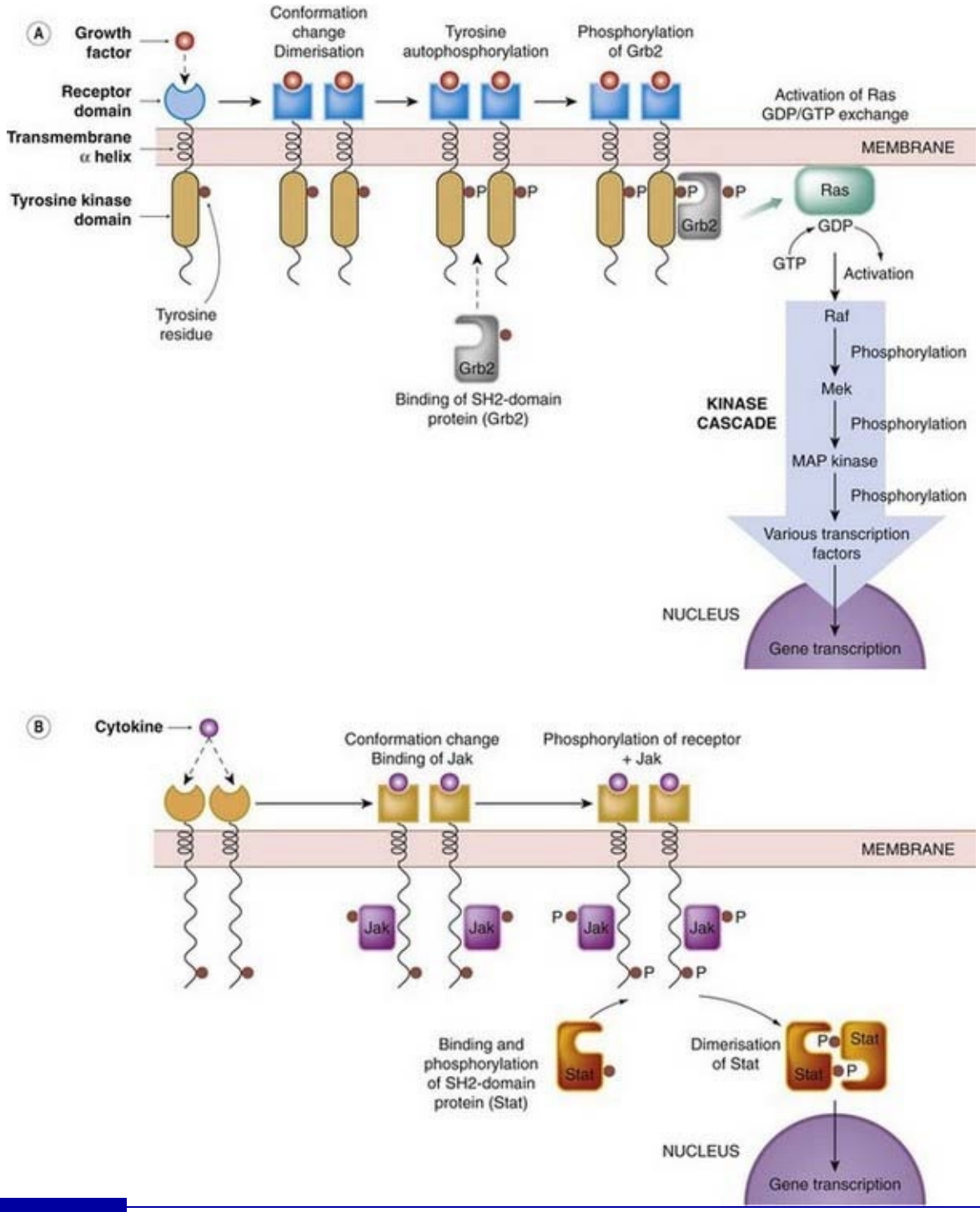


Fig. 3.15 Transduction mechanisms of kinase-linked receptors.

The first step following agonist binding is dimerisation, which leads to autophosphorylation of the intracellular domain of each receptor. SH2-domain proteins then bind to the phosphorylated receptor and are themselves phosphorylated. Two well-characterised pathways are shown: [**A**] the growth factor (Ras/Raf/mitogen-activated protein [MAP] kinase) pathway (see also Ch. 5); [**B**] the cytokine (Jak/Stat) pathway (see also Ch. 17). Several other pathways

exist, and these phosphorylation cascades interact with components of G-protein systems.

Kinase-linked receptors

• Receptors for various growth factors incorporate tyrosine kinase in their intracellular domain.

• Cytokine receptors have an intracellular domain that binds and activates cytosolic kinases when the receptor is occupied.

• The receptors all share a common architecture, with a large extracellular ligand-binding domain connected via a single membrane-spanning helix to the intracellular domain.

• Signal transduction generally involves dimerisation of receptors, followed by autophosphorylation of tyrosine residues. The phosphotyrosine residues act as acceptors for the SH2 domains of a variety of intracellular proteins, thereby allowing control of many cell functions.

• They are involved mainly in events controlling cell growth and differentiation, and act indirectly by regulating gene transcription.

• Two important pathways are:

– the Ras/Raf/mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase pathway, which is important in cell division, growth and differentiation

– the Jak/Stat pathway activated by many cytokines, which controls the synthesis and release of many inflammatory mediators.

• A few hormone receptors (e.g. atrial natriuretic factor) have a similar architecture and are linked to guanylyl cyclase.

Protein Phosphorylation and Kinase Cascade Mechanisms

One of the major principles to emerge over the last 10–20 years (see Cohen, 2002) is that protein phosphorylation is a key mechanism for

controlling the function of proteins (e.g. enzymes, ion channels, receptors, transport proteins) involved in regulating cellular processes. Phosphorylation and dephosphorylation are accomplished by *kinases* and *phosphatases*, respectively—enzymes of which several hundred subtypes are represented in the human genome—which are themselves subject to regulation dependent on their phosphorylation status. Much effort is currently being invested in mapping the complex interactions between signalling molecules that are involved in drug effects and pathophysiological processes such as oncogenesis, neurodegeneration, inflammation and much else. Here we can present only a few pharmacologically relevant aspects of what has become an enormous subject.

In many cases, ligand binding to the receptor leads to dimerisation. The association of the two intracellular kinase domains allows a mutual autophosphorylation of intracellular tyrosine residues to occur. The phosphorylated tyrosine residues then serve as high-affinity docking sites for other intracellular proteins that form the next stage in the signal transduction cascade. One important group of such 'adapter' proteins is known as the *SH2 domain proteins* (standing for Src homology, because it was first identified in the Src oncogene product). These possess a highly conserved sequence of about 100 amino acids, forming a recognition site for the phosphotyrosine residues of the receptor. Individual SH2 domain proteins, of which many are now known, bind selectively to particular receptors, so the pattern of events triggered by particular growth factors is highly specific. The mechanism is summarised in Figure 3.15.

What happens when the SH2 domain protein binds to the phosphorylated receptor varies greatly according to the receptor that is involved; many SH2 domain proteins are enzymes, such as protein kinases or phospholipases. Some growth factors activate a specific

subtype of phospholipase C (PLCγ), thereby causing phospholipid breakdown, IP_3 formation and Ca^{2+} release (see above). Other SH2-containing proteins couple phosphotyrosine-containing proteins with a variety of other functional proteins, including many that are involved in the control of cell division and differentiation. The end result is to activate or inhibit, by phosphorylation, a variety of transcription factors that migrate to the nucleus and suppress or induce the expression of particular genes. For more detail, see Pawson (2002). Nuclear factor kappa B (NFκB) is a transcription factor that plays a key role in inflammatory responses (see Ch. 17; Karin et al., 2004). It is normally present in the cytosol complexed with an inhibitor (IκB). Phosphorylation of IκB occurs when a specific kinase (IKK) is activated in response to various inflammatory cytokines and GPCR agonists. This results in dissociation of IκB from NFκB and migration of NFκB to the nucleus, where it switches on a wide variety of proinflammatory genes.

▼ Two well-defined signal transduction pathways are summarised in Figure 3.15. The Ras/Raf pathway (Fig. 3.15A) mediates the effect of many growth factors and mitogens. Ras, which is a proto-oncogene product, functions like a G-protein, and conveys the signal (by GDP/GTP exchange) from the SH2-domain protein, Grb, which is phosphorylated by the RTK. Activation of Ras in turn activates Raf, which is the first of a sequence of three serine/threonine kinases, each of which phosphorylates, and activates, the next in line. The last of these, mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase, (which is also activated by GPCRs, see above), phosphorylates one or more transcription factors that initiate gene expression, resulting in a variety of cellular responses, including cell division. This three-tiered MAP kinase cascade forms part of many intracellular signalling pathways involved in a wide variety of disease processes, including malignancy, inflammation,

neurodegeneration, atherosclerosis and much else. The kinases form a large family, with different subtypes serving specific roles. They are thought to represent an important target for future therapeutic drugs. Many cancers are associated with mutations in the genes coding for proteins involved in this cascade, leading to activation of the cascade in the absence of the growth factor signal (see Chs 5 and 55). For more details, see reviews by Marshall (1996), Schenk & Snaar-Jakelska (1999), Avruch (2007).

A second pathway, the Jak/Stat pathway (Fig. 3.15B) is involved in responses to many cytokines. Dimerisation of these receptors occurs when the cytokine binds, and this attracts a cytosolic tyrosine kinase unit (Jak) to associate with, and phosphorylate, the receptor dimer. Jaks belong to a family of proteins, different members having specificity for different cytokine receptors. Among the targets for phosphorylation by Jak are a family of transcription factors (Stats). These are SH2-domain proteins that bind to the phosphotyrosine groups on the receptor–Jak complex, and are themselves phosphorylated. Thus activated, Stat migrates to the nucleus and activates gene expression (see Ihle, 1995).

Other important mechanisms centre on *phosphaditylinositol-3-kinase* (PI_3 kinases, see Vanhaesebroeck et al., 1997), a ubiquitous enzyme family that is activated both by GPCRs and RTKs and attaches a phosphate group to position 3 of PIP_2 to form PIP_3. Other kinases, particularly protein kinase B (PKB, also known as Akt), have recognition sites for PIP_3 and are thus activated, controlling a wide variety of cellular functions, including apoptosis, differentiation, proliferation and trafficking. Akt also causes nitric oxide synthase activation in the vascular endothelium (see Ch. 20).

Recent work on signal transduction pathways has produced a bewildering profusion of molecular detail, often couched in a jargon that

is apt to deter the faint-hearted. Perseverance will be rewarded, however, for there is no doubt that important new drugs, particularly in the areas of inflammation, immunology and cancer, will come from the targeting of these proteins (see Cohen, 2002). A recent breakthrough in the treatment of chronic myeloid leukaemia was achieved with the introduction of the first specific kinase inhibitor, **imatinib**, a drug that inhibits a specific tyrosine kinase involved in the pathogenesis of the disease (see Ch. 55).

The membrane-bound form of *guanylyl cyclase*, the enzyme responsible for generating the second messenger cGMP in response to the binding of natriuretic peptides (see Chs 19 and 21), resembles the tyrosine kinase family and is activated in a similar way by dimerisation when the agonist is bound (see Lucas et al., 2000).

Protein phosphorylation in signal transduction



- Many receptor-mediated events involve protein phosphorylation, which controls the functional and binding properties of intracellular proteins.
- Receptor-linked tyrosine kinases, cyclic nucleotide-activated tyrosine kinases and intracellular serine/threonine kinases comprise a 'kinase cascade' mechanism that leads to amplification of receptor-mediated events.
- There are many kinases, with differing substrate specificities, allowing specificity in the pathways activated by different hormones.
- Desensitisation of G-protein-coupled receptors occurs as a result of phosphorylation by specific receptor kinases, causing the receptor to become non-functional and to be internalised.
- There is a large family of phosphatases that act to reverse the effects of kinases.

Figure 3.16 illustrates the central role of protein kinases in signal transduction pathways in a highly simplified and schematic way. Many, if not all, of the proteins involved, including the receptors and the kinases themselves, are substrates for kinases, so there are many mechanisms for feedback and cross-talk between the various signalling pathways. Given that there are over 500 protein kinases, and similarly large numbers of receptors and other signalling molecules, the network of interactions can look bewilderingly complex. Dissecting out the details has become a major theme in cell biology. For pharmacologists, the idea of a simple connection between receptor and response, which guided thinking throughout the 20th century, is undoubtedly crumbling, although it will take some time before the complexities of signalling pathways are assimilated into a new way of thinking about drug action.

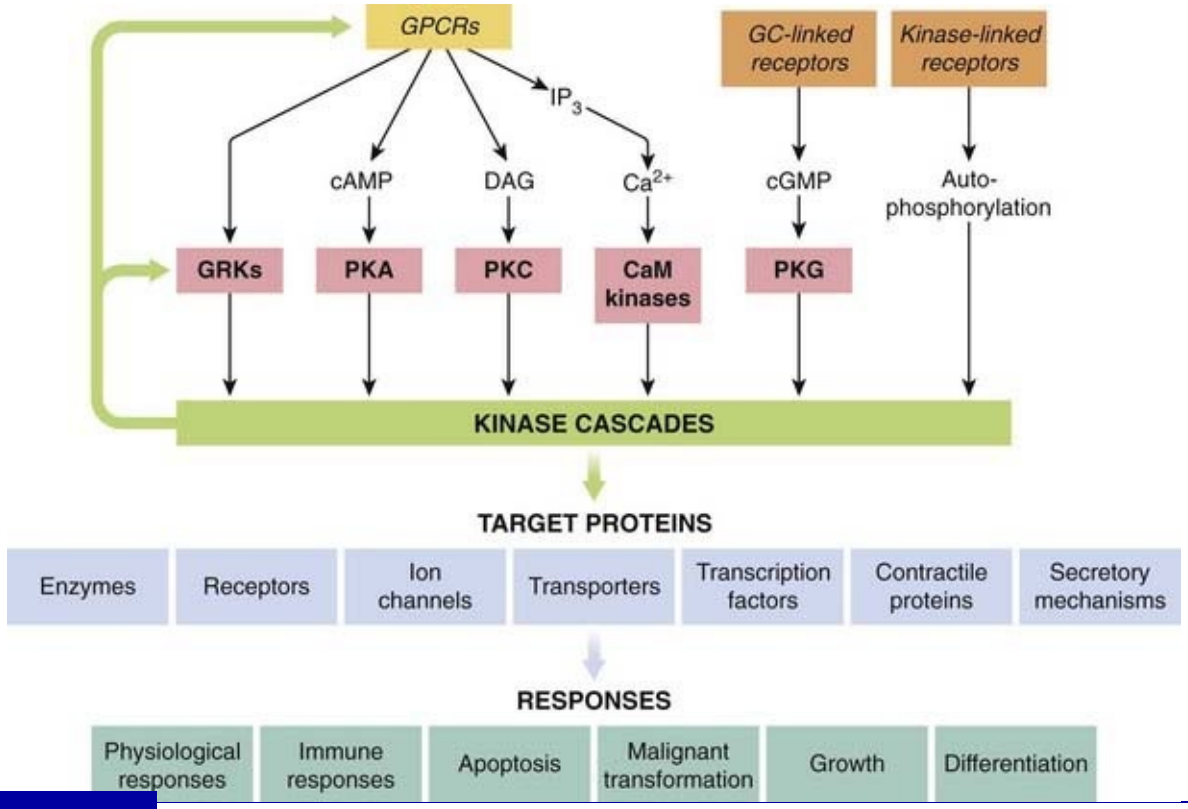


Fig. 3.16 Central role of kinase cascades in signal transduction.

Kinase cascades (e.g. those shown in Fig. 3.15) are activated by GPCRs, either directly or via

different second messengers, by receptors that generate cGMP, or by kinase-linked receptors. The kinase cascades regulate various target proteins, which in turn produce a wide variety of short-and long-term effects. CaM kinase, Ca^{2+}/calmodulin-dependent kinase; DAG, diacylglycerol; GC, guanylyl cyclase; GRK, GPCR kinase; IP_3, inositol trisphosphate; PKA, cAMP-dependent protein kinase; PKC, protein kinase C; PKG, cGMP-dependent protein kinase.

Type 4: Nuclear Receptors

The fourth type of receptors we will consider belong to the *nuclear receptor (NR) family*. By the 1970s, it was clear that receptors for steroid hormones such as oestrogen and the glucocorticoids were present in the cytoplasm of cells and translocated into the nucleus after binding with their steroid partner. Other hormones, such as the thyroid hormone T_3 (Ch. 33) and the fat-soluble vitamins D and A (retinoic acid), were found to act in a similar fashion. Comparisons of genome and protein sequence data led to the recognition that they were members of a much larger family of related proteins. As well as NRs such as the glucocorticoid and retinoic acid receptor, whose ligands were well characterised, this family includes a great many (40%) *orphan receptors*—receptors with no known well-defined ligands. The first of these to be described, in the 1990s, was *RXR*, a receptor cloned on the basis of its similarity with the vitamin A receptor and that was subsequently found to bind the vitamin A derivative 9-*cis*-retinoic acid. Over the intervening years, binding partners have been identified for many NRs (‘adopted orphans’; *e.g.* RXR) but the ligands of many others (’true orphans’) have yet to be identified, or perhaps do not exist as such.

Today, it is convenient to regard the entire NR family as *ligand-activated transcription factors* that transduce signals by modifying gene transcription. Unlike the receptors described in the preceding sections of this chapter, the nuclear receptors are not embedded in membranes (although see below), but are present in the soluble phase of the cell.

Some, such as the steroid receptors, become mobile in the presence of their ligand and can translocate from the cytoplasm to the nucleus, while others such as the RXR probably dwell mainly within the nuclear compartment. Some NRs, while unliganded, act to constitutively repress some genes (e.g. RXR).

In man, there are at least 48 NR genes (although only about half code for liganded receptors) but more NR proteins may arise through alternative splicing events. While this represents a rather small proportion of all receptors (less than 10% of the total number of GPCRs), the NRs are very important drug targets, being responsible for the biological effects of approximately 10% of all prescription drugs. They can recognise an extraordinarily diverse group of substances (mostly small hydrophobic molecules), which may exhibit full or partial agonist, antagonist or inverse agonist activity. Some NRs are involved predominately in endocrine signalling but many act as lipid sensors and are thus crucial links between our dietary and metabolic status and the expression of genes that regulate the metabolism and disposition of lipids. They also regulate expression of many drug metabolic enzymes and transporters. Many illnesses are associated with malfunctioning of the NR system, including inflammation, cancer, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, obesity and reproductive disorders (see Murphy & Holder, 2000, Kersten et al., 2000).

Structure of Nuclear Receptors

▼ All NRs are monomeric proteins that share a broadly similar structural design (see Fig. 3.17 and Bourguet et al., 2000, for further details). The *N-terminal domain* displays the most heterogeneity. It harbours the *AF1* (activation function 1) site that binds to other cell-specific transcription factors in a ligand-independent way and modifies the binding or activity

of the receptor itself. Alternative splicing of genes may yield several receptor isoforms each with slightly different N-terminal regions. The *core domain* of the receptor is highly conserved and consists of the structure responsible for DNA recognition and binding. At the molecular level, this comprises two *zinc fingers*—cysteine- (or cystine-/histidine-) rich loops in the amino acid chain that are held in a particular conformation by zinc ions. The main function of this portion of the molecule is to recognise and bind to the *hormone response elements* located in genes that are regulated by this family of receptors, but it also plays a part in regulating receptor dimerisation as well.

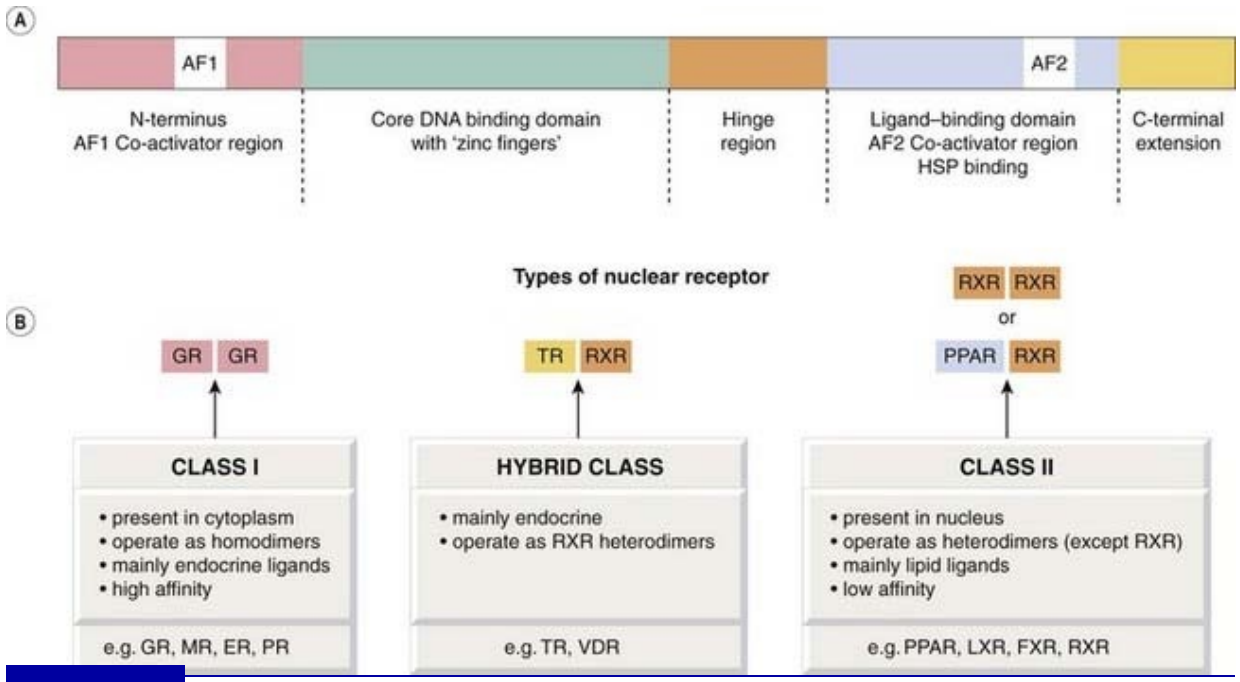


Fig. 3.17 Nuclear receptors.

[**A**] Structure of a nuclear receptor, showing the different domains. [**B**] The two main classes of nuclear receptors. ER, oestrogen receptor; FXR, farnesoid receptor; GR, glucocorticoid receptor; HSP, heat shock protein; LXR, liver oxysterol receptor; MR, mineralocorticoid receptor; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator receptor; PR, prolactin receptor; RXR, retinoid receptor; TR, thyroid receptor; VDR, vitamin D receptor.

It is the highly flexible *hinge region* in the molecule that allows it to

dimerise with other NRs and also to exhibit DNA binding in a variety of configurations. Finally, the *C-terminal domain* contains the ligand-binding module and is specific to each class of receptor. A highly conserved AF2 region is important in ligand-dependent activation. Also located near the C-terminal are motifs that contain nuclear localisation signals and others that may, in the case of some receptors, bind *accessory heat shock* and other proteins.

Classification of Nuclear Receptors

The NR superfamily consists of two *main* classes (I and II), together with a third that shares some of the characteristics of both (see Fig. 3.17 and Germain et al., 2006, for further details). Class I consists largely of receptors for the steroid hormones, including the glucocorticoid and mineralocorticoid receptors (GR and MR), as well as the oestrogen, progesterone and androgen receptors (ER, PR and AR, respectively). These receptors generally recognise hormones (e.g. glucocorticoids) that act in a negative feedback fashion to control biological events (see Ch. 32 for more details). In the absence of their ligand, these NRs are predominantly located in the cytoplasm, complexed with heat shock and other proteins and possibly reversibly attached to the cytoskeleton or other structures. Following diffusion (or possibly transportation) from the blood into the cell, their ligand partner binds to their NR with high affinity. These liganded receptors generally form homodimers and translocate to the nucleus, where they can *transactivate* or *transrepress* genes by binding to 'positive' or 'negative' hormone response elements (see below). Large numbers of genes can be regulated in this way by a single ligand. For example, it is estimated that the activated GR itself can regulate transcription of ~1% of the genome either directly or indirectly.

Class II NRs function in a slightly different way. Their ligands are generally lipids already present to some extent within the cell. This group includes the *peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor* (PPAR) that recognises fatty acids; the *liver oxysterol receptor* (LXR) that recognises and acts as a cholesterol sensor, the *farnesoid (bile acid) receptor* (FXR), a *xenobiotic receptor* (SXR; in rodents the PXR) that recognises a great many foreign substances, including therapeutic drugs, and the constitutive *androstane receptor* (CAR), which not only recognises the steroid androstane but also some drugs such as **phenobarbital** (see Ch. 43). These latter NRs are akin to airport security guards who alert the bomb disposal squad when suspicious luggage is found. They induce drug-metabolising enzymes such as CYP3A (which is responsible for metabolising about 60% of all prescription drugs; see Ch. 9 and Synold et al., 2001), and also bind some prostaglandins and non-steroidal drugs, as well as the antidiabetic **thiazolidinediones** (see Ch. 30) and **fibrates** (see Ch. 23). Unlike the receptors in class I, these NRs almost always operate as heterodimers together with the retinoid receptor (RXR). They tend to mediate positive feedback effects (e.g. occupation of the receptor amplifies rather than inhibits a particular biological event). When class II monomeric receptors bind to RXR, two types of heterodimer may be formed: a *non-permissive heterodimer*, which can be activated only by the RXR ligand itself, and the *permissive heterodimer*, which can be activated either by retinoic acid itself or by its partner's ligand.

A third group of NRs is really a subgroup of class II in the sense that they form obligate heterodimers with RXR, but rather than sensing lipids, they play a part in endocrine signalling. The group includes the *thyroid hormone receptor* (TR), the *vitamin D receptor* (VDR) and the *retinoic acid receptor* (RAR).

Nuclear receptors

• A family of 48 soluble receptors that sense lipid and hormonal signals and modulate gene transcription.

• Two main categories:

– those that are present in the cytoplasm, form homodimers in the presence of their partner, and migrate to the nucleus. Their ligands are mainly endocrine in nature (e.g. steroid hormones)

– those that are generally constitutively present in the nucleus and form heterodimers with the retinoid X receptor. Their ligands are usually lipids (e.g. the fatty acids).

• A third subgroup transduce mainly endocrine signals but function as heterodimers with retinoid X receptor (e.g. the thyroid hormone).

• The liganded receptor complexes initiate changes in gene transcription by binding to hormone response elements in gene promoters and recruiting co-activator or co-repressor factors.

• The receptor family is responsible for the pharmacology of approximately 10%, and the enzymes that it regulates affect the pharmacokinetics of some 60% of all prescription drugs.

Control of Gene Transcription

▼ Hormone response elements are the short (four or five base pairs) sequences of DNA to which the NRs bind to modify gene transcription. They are usually present symmetrically in pairs or half sites, although these may be arranged together in different ways (e.g. simple repeats or inverted repeats). Each NR exhibits a preference for a particular *consensus sequence* but because of the family homology, there is a close similarity between these sequences.

Once in the nucleus, the ligand-bound receptor recruits further

proteins including *co-activators* or *co-repressors* to modify gene expression through its AF1 and AF2 domains. Some of these co-activators are enzymes involved in chromatin remodelling such as histone acetylase/deacetylase which, together with other enzymes, regulate the unravelling of the DNA to facilitate access by polymerase enzymes and hence gene transcription. Co-repressor complexes are recruited by some receptors and comprise histone deacetylase and other factors that cause the chromatin to become tightly packed, preventing further transcriptional activation. Some unliganded class II receptors such as TR and VDR are constitutively bound to these repressor complexes in the nucleus, thus 'silencing' the gene. The complex dissociates on ligand binding, permitting an activator complex to bind. The case of CAR is particularly interesting; like some types of G-proteins described earlier in this chapter, CAR also forms a constitutively active complex that is terminated when it binds its ligand.

The discussion here must be taken only as a broad guide to the action of NRs, as many other types of interaction have also been discovered. For example, some receptors may bring about non-genomic actions by directly interacting with factors in the cytosol, or they may be covalently modified by phosphorylation or by protein–protein interactions with other transcription factors such that their function is altered (see Falkenstein et al., 2000). In addition, there is good evidence for separate membrane and other types of receptor that can bind some steroid hormones such as oestrogen (see Walters & Nemere, 2004). This intricate network of receptors and their nuclear and cytosolic interactions serves as a subtle regulator of blood lipids as well as transducing the effects of hormones that have arrived from distant tissues. Much remains to be discovered about this interesting and complex family of receptor proteins.

Ion Channels as Drug Targets

We have discussed ligand-gated ion channels as one of the four main types of drug receptor. There are many other types of ion channel that represent important drug targets, even though they are not generally classified as 'receptors' because they are not the immediate targets of fast neurotransmitters.[12]

[12]In truth, the distinction between ligand-gated channels and other ion channels is an arbitrary one. In grouping ligand-gated channels with other types of receptor in this book, we are respecting the historical tradition established by Langley and others, who first defined receptors in the context of the action of acetylcholine at the neuromuscular junction. The advance of molecular biology may force us to reconsider this semantic issue in the future, but for now we make no apology for upholding the pharmacological tradition.

Here we discuss the structure and function of ion channels at the molecular level; their role as regulators of cell function is described in Chapter 4.

Ions are unable to penetrate the lipid bilayer of the cell membrane, and can get across only with the help of membrane-spanning proteins in the form of channels or transporters. The concept of ion channels was developed in the 1950s on the basis of electrophysiological studies on the mechanism of membrane excitation (see below). Electrophysiology, particularly the *voltage clamp technique* (see Ch. 4) remains an essential tool for studying the physiological and pharmacological properties of ion channels. Since the mid-1980s, when the first ion channels were cloned by Numa in Japan, much has been learned about the structure and function of these complex molecules. The use of tight-seal ('patch clamp') recording, which allows the behaviour of individual channels to

be studied in real time, has been particularly valuable in distinguishing channels on the basis of their conductance and gating characteristics. Accounts by Hille (2001), Ashcroft (2000) and Catterall (2000) give more information.

Ion channels consist of protein molecules designed to form water-filled pores that span the membrane, and can switch between open and closed states. The rate and direction of ion movement through the pore is governed by the electrochemical gradient for the ion in question, which is a function of its concentration on either side of the membrane, and of the membrane potential. Ion channels are characterised by:

- their selectivity for particular ion species, determined by the size of the pore and the nature of its lining
- their gating properties (i.e. the nature of the stimulus that controls the transition between open and closed states of the channel)
- their molecular architecture.

Ion Selectivity

Channels are generally either cation selective or anion selective. The main cation-selective channels are selective for Na^+, Ca^{2+} or K^+, or non-selective and permeable to all three. Anion channels are mainly permeable to Cl^-, although other types also occur. The effect of modulation of ion channels on cell function is discussed in Chapter 4.

Gating

Voltage-Gated Channels

These channels open when the cell membrane is depolarised. They form a very important group because they underlie the mechanism of

membrane excitability (see Ch. 4). The most important channels in this group are selective sodium, potassium or calcium channels.

Commonly, the channel opening (activation) induced by membrane depolarisation is short lasting, even if the depolarisation is maintained. This is because, with some channels, the initial activation of the channels is followed by a slower process of inactivation.

The role of voltage-gated channels in the generation of action potentials and in controlling other cell functions is described in Chapter 4.

Ligand-Gated Channels

These (see above) are activated by binding of a chemical ligand to a site on the channel molecule. Fast neurotransmitters, such as glutamate, acetylcholine, GABA and ATP (see Chs 13, 16 and 37) act in this way, binding to sites on the outside of the membrane. The *vanilloid receptor* TRPV1 mediates the pain-producing effect of **capsaicin** on sensory nerves (as well as responding to low pH and heat; see Ch. 41).

Some ligand-gated channels in the plasma membrane respond to intracellular rather than extracellular signals, the most important being the following:

- Calcium-activated potassium channels, which occur in most cells and open, thus hyperpolarising the cell, when $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ increases.

- ATP-sensitive potassium channels, which open when the intracellular ATP concentration falls because the cell is short of nutrients. These channels, which are quite distinct from those mediating the excitatory effects of extracellular ATP, occur in many nerve and muscle cells, and also in insulin-secreting cells (see Ch. 30), where they are part of the mechanism linking insulin secretion to blood glucose concentration.

Other examples of channels that respond to intracellular ligands include arachidonic acid-sensitive potassium channels and DAG-sensitive calcium channels, whose functions are not well understood.

Calcium Release Channels

These are present on the endoplasmic or sarcoplasmic reticulum rather than the plasma membrane. The main ones, IP_3 and **ryanodine** receptors (see Ch. 4) are a special class of ligand-gated calcium channels that control the release of Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores.

Store-Operated Calcium Channels

When the intracellular Ca^{2+} stores are depleted, 'store-operated' channels (SOCs) in the plasma membrane open to allow Ca^{2+} entry. The mechanism by which this linkage occurs involves interaction of a Ca^{2+}-sensor protein in the endoplasmic reticulum membrane with a dedicated Ca^{2+} channel in the plasma membrane (see Potier & Trebak, 2008). In response to GPCRs that elicit Ca^{2+} release, the opening of these channels allows $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ to remain elevated even when the stores are running low, and also provides a route through which the stores can be replenished (see Ch. 4).

Molecular Architecture of Ion Channels

▼ Ion channels are large and elaborate molecules. Their characteristic structural motifs have been revealed as knowledge of their sequence and structure has accumulated since the mid-1980s, when the first ligand-gated channel (the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor) and the first voltage-gated sodium channel were cloned. The main structural subtypes are shown in Figure 3.18. All consist of several (often four) domains, which are similar or identical to each other, organised either as an oligomeric array of separate subunits, or as one large protein. Each subunit or

domain contains a bundle of two to six membrane-spanning helices. Most ligand-gated channels have the basic structure shown in Figure 3.18A, comprising a pentameric array of non-identical subunits, each consisting of four transmembrane helices, of which one—the M_2 segment—from each subunit lines the pore. The large extracellular N-terminal region contains the ligand-binding region. Several exceptions to this basic design for ligand-gated channels have emerged recently. They include (see Fig. 3.18) the glutamate NMDA receptor (Ch. 37), and the vanilloid receptor (a channel that responds not only to chemicals of the vanilloid class, but also to heat and protons; see Ch. 41). In these, as in many other types of channel, the pore-forming part of the molecule consists of a hairpin loop—the pore (P) loop—between two of the helices.

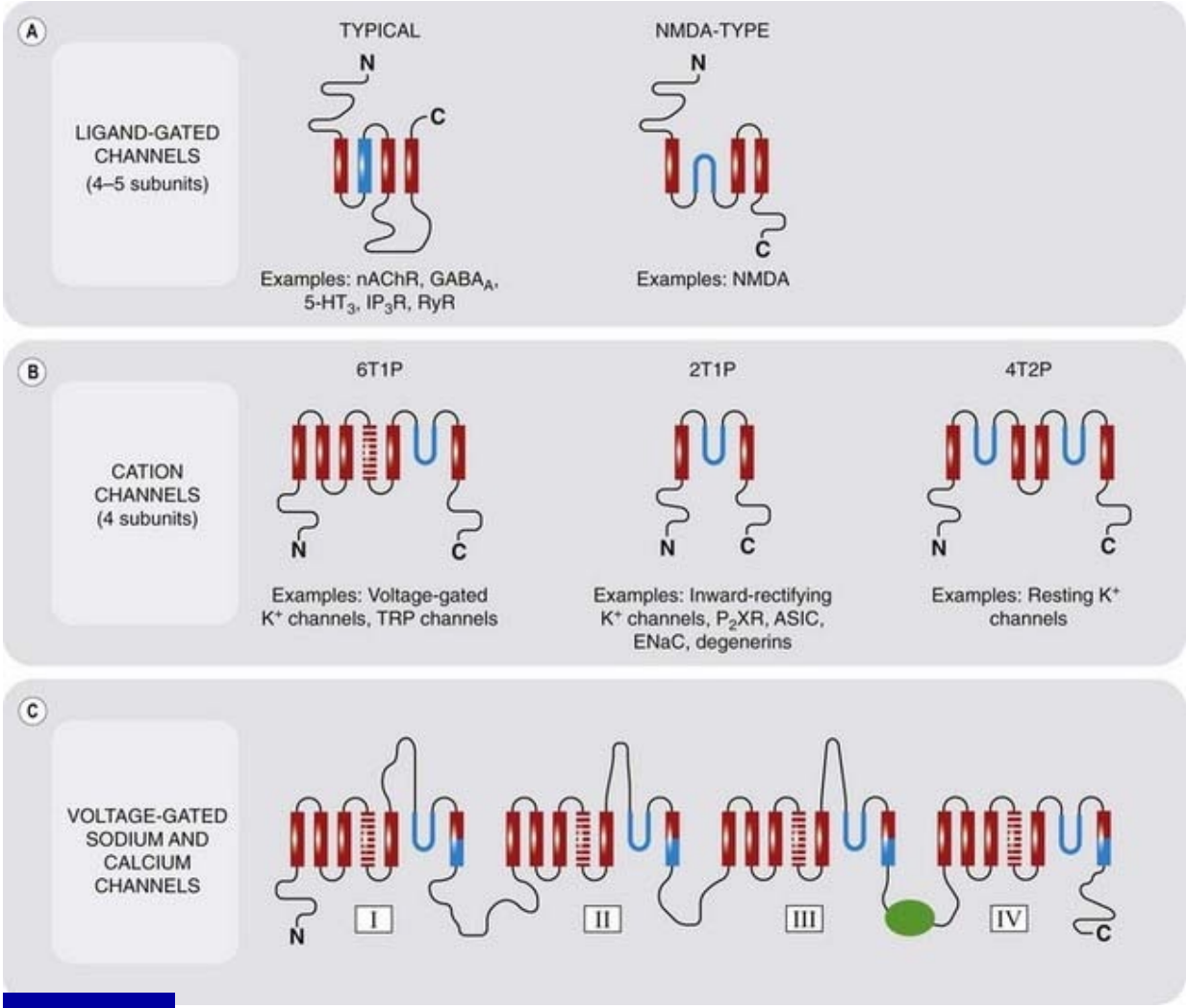


Fig. 3.18 Molecular architecture of ion channels.

Red and blue rectangles represent membrane-spanning α-helices. Blue hairpins are pore loop (P) domains, present in many channels, blue rectangles being the pore-forming regions of the membrane-spanning α-helices. Cross-shaded rectangles represent the voltage-sensing regions of voltage-gated channels. The green symbol represents the inactivating particle of voltage-gated sodium channels. Potassium channel nomenclature is based on the number of transmembrane helices (T) and pore-forming loops (P) in each subunit. Further information on ion channels is given in Chapter 4. 5-HT3, 5-hydroxytryptamine type 3 receptor; ASIC, acid-sensing ion channel; ENaC, epithelial sodium channel; GABA$_A$, GABA type A receptor; IP3R, inositol trisphosphate receptor; nAChR, nicotinic acetylcholine receptor; P2XR, purine P2X receptor; RyR, ryanodine receptor.

Voltage-gated channels generally include one transmembrane helix that contains an abundance of basic (i.e. positively charged) amino

acids. When the membrane is depolarised, so that the interior of the cell becomes less negative, this region—the voltage sensor—moves slightly towards the outer surface of the membrane, which has the effect of opening the channel (see Bezanilla, 2008). Many voltage-activated channels also show *inactivation*, which happens when an intracellular appendage of the channel protein moves to plug the channel from the inside. Voltage-gated sodium and calcium channels are remarkable in that the whole structure with four six-helix domains consists of a single huge protein molecule, the domains being linked together by intracellular loops of varying length. Potassium channels comprise the most numerous and heterogeneous class.[13] Voltage-gated potassium channels resemble sodium channels, except that they are made up of four subunits rather than a single long chain. The class of potassium channels known as 'inward rectifier channels' because of their biophysical properties has the two-helix structure shown in Figure 3.18C, whereas others are classed as 'two-pore domain' channels, because each subunit contains two P loops.

[13]The human genome encodes more than 70 distinct potassium channel subtypes—either a nightmare or a golden opportunity for the pharmacologist, depending on one's perspective.

The various architectural motifs shown in Figure 3.18 only scrape the surface of the molecular diversity of ion channels. In all cases, the individual subunits come in several molecular varieties, and these can unite in different combinations to form functional channels as *hetero-oligomers* (as distinct from *homo-oligomers* built from identical subunits). Furthermore, the channel-forming structures described are usually associated with other membrane proteins, which significantly affect their functional properties. For example, the ATP-gated potassium channel exists in association with the *sulfonylurea receptor* (SUR), and it is

through this linkage that various drugs (including antidiabetic drugs of the sulfonylurea class; see Ch. 30) regulate the channel (see Ashcroft & Gribble, 2000). Good progress is being made in understanding the relation between molecular structure and ion channel function, but we still have only a fragmentary understanding of the physiological role of many of these channels. Many important drugs exert their effects by influencing channel function, either directly or indirectly.

Pharmacology of Ion Channels

▼ Many drugs and physiological mediators described in this book exert their effects by altering the behaviour of ion channels. Here we outline the general mechanisms as exemplified by the pharmacology of voltage-gated sodium channels (Fig. 3.19). Ion channel pharmacology is likely to be a fertile source of future new drugs (see Clare et al., 2000).

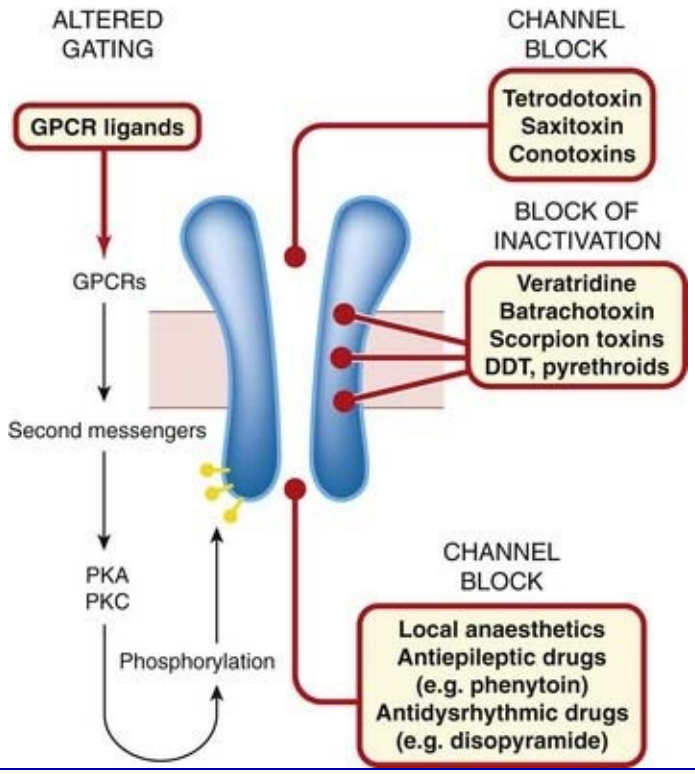


Fig. 3.19 Drug-binding domains of voltage-gated sodium channels (see Ch. 42).
The multiplicity of different binding sites and effects appears to be typical of many ion

channels. DDT, dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (dicophane, a well-known insecticide); GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor; PKA, protein kinase A; PKC, protein kinase C.

The gating and permeation of both voltage-gated and ligand-gated ion channels is modulated by many factors, including the following.

• *Ligands that bind directly to various sites on the channel protein.* These include many neurotransmitters, and also a variety of drugs and toxins that act in different ways, for example by blocking the channel or by affecting the gating process, thereby either facilitating or inhibiting the opening of the channel.

• *Mediators and drugs that act indirectly, mainly by activation of GPCRs.* The latter produce their effects mainly by affecting the state of phosphorylation of individual amino acids located on the intracellular region of the channel protein. As described above, this modulation involves the production of second messengers that activate protein kinases. The opening of the channel may be facilitated or inhibited, depending on which residues are phosphorylated. Drugs such as β-adrenoceptor agonists (Ch. 14) affect calcium and potassium channel function in this way, producing a wide variety of cellular effects.

• *Intracellular signals, particularly Ca^{2+} and nucleotides such as ATP and GTP* (see Ch. 4). Many ion channels possess binding sites for these intracellular mediators. Increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ opens certain types of potassium channels, and inactivates voltage-gated calcium channels. As described in Chapter 4, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is itself affected by the function of ion channels and GPCRs. Drugs of the sulfonylurea class (see Ch. 30) act selectively on ATP-gated potassium channels.

Figure 3.19 summarises the main sites and mechanisms by which drugs affect voltage-gated sodium channels, a typical example of this type of

drug target.

Control of Receptor Expression

Receptor proteins are synthesised by the cells that express them, and the level of expression is itself controlled, via the pathways discussed above, by receptor-mediated events. We can no longer think of the receptors as the fixed elements in cellular control systems, responding to changes in the concentration of ligands, and initiating effects through the signal transduction pathway—they are themselves subject to regulation. Short-term regulation of receptor function generally occurs through *desensitisation*, as discussed above. Long-term regulation occurs through *an increase or decrease of receptor expression*. Examples of this type of control include the proliferation of various postsynaptic receptors after denervation (see Ch. 12), the upregulation of various G-protein-coupled and cytokine receptors in response to inflammation (see Ch. 17), and the induction of growth factor receptors by certain tumour viruses (see Ch. 5). Long-term drug treatment invariably induces adaptive responses, which, particularly with drugs that act on the central nervous system, are often the basis for therapeutic efficacy. They may take the form of a very slow onset of the therapeutic effect (e.g. with antidepressant drugs; see Ch. 46), or the development of drug dependence (Ch. 48). It is likely that changes in receptor expression, secondary to the immediate action of the drug, are involved in delayed effects of this sort—a kind of 'secondary pharmacology' whose importance is only now becoming clearer. The same principles apply to drug targets other than receptors (ion channels, enzymes, transporters, etc.) where adaptive changes in expression and function follow long-term drug administration, resulting, for example, in resistance to certain anticancer drugs (Ch. 55).

Receptors and Disease

Increasing understanding of receptor function in molecular terms has revealed a number of disease states directly linked to receptor malfunction. The principal mechanisms involved are:

- autoantibodies directed against receptor proteins
- mutations in genes encoding receptors and proteins involved in signal transduction.

An example of the former is *myasthenia gravis* (see Ch. 13), a disease of the neuromuscular junction due to autoantibodies that inactivate nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Autoantibodies can also mimic the effects of agonists, as in many cases of thyroid hypersecretion, caused by activation of **thyrotropin** receptors. Activating antibodies have also been discovered in patients with severe hypertension (α-adrenoceptors), cardiomyopathy (β-adrenoceptors), and certain forms of epilepsy and neurodegenerative disorders (glutamate receptors).

Inherited mutations of genes encoding GPCRs account for various disease states (see Spiegel & Weinstein, 2004; Thompson et al., 2005). Mutated **vasopressin** and **adrenocorticotrophic hormone** receptors (see Chs 28 and 32) can result in resistance to these hormones. Receptor mutations can result in activation of effector mechanisms in the absence of agonists. One of these involves the receptor for thyrotropin, producing continuous oversecretion of thyroid hormone; another involves the receptor for luteinising hormone and results in precocious puberty. Adrenoceptor polymorphisms are common in humans, and recent studies suggest that certain mutations of the β_2-adrenoceptor, although they do not directly cause disease, are associated with a reduced efficacy of β-adrenoceptor agonists in treating asthma (Ch. 27) and a poor prognosis in patients with cardiac failure (Ch. 22). Mutations in G-proteins can also cause disease (see Spiegel & Weinstein, 2004). For example,

mutations of a particular Gα subunit cause one form of *hypoparathyroidism*, while mutations of a Gβ subunit result in hypertension. Many cancers are associated with mutations of the genes encoding growth factor receptors, kinases and other proteins involved in signal transduction (see Ch. 5).

Apart from these examples, the high expectations that the numerous polymorphisms described for GPCRs and other receptors would provide a clear understanding of the variability between individuals in their disease susceptibility and response to therapeutic drugs (see Chs 56 and 57) have been, so far, largely unfulfilled, but research activity in this area continues apace.

References and Further Reading

General

lexander S.P.H., Mathie A., Peters J.A. Guide to Receptors and Channels (GRAC), fourth ed. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2009;158(Suppl. 1):S1-S254. (*Comprehensive catalogue of molecular and pharmacological properties of known receptors—also transporters and some enzymes involved in signal transduction*)

avenport A.P. Peptide and trace amine orphan receptors: prospects for new therapeutic targets. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2003;3:127-134. (*Describes progress in identifying endogenous peptide ligands for 'orphan' GPCRs*)

JPHAR Receptor Database and Channel Compendium http://www.iuphar-db.org (*Online catalogue and coding scheme for receptors and channels*)

elson N. The family of Na^+/Cl^- neurotransmitter transporters. *J. Neurochem.*. 1998;71:1785-1803. (*Review article describing the molecular characteristics of the different families of neurotransporters*)

alaas S.I., Greengard P. Protein phosphorylation and neuronal function. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 1991;43:299-349. (*Excellent general review*)

Receptors

Ion channels

shcroft F.M. *Ion channels and disease*. London: Academic Press; 2000. (*A useful textbook covering all aspects of ion channel physiology and its relevance to disease, with a lot of pharmacological information for good measure*)

shcroft F.M., Gribble F.M. New windows on the mechanism of action of K_{ATP} channel openers. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2000;21:439-445.

ezanilla F. How membrane proteins sense voltage. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2008;9:323-332. (*Review of recent studies of how membrane proteins respond to changes in transmembrane potential*)

atterall W.A. From ionic currents to molecular mechanisms: the structure and function of voltage-gated sodium channels. *Neuron*. 2000;26:13-25. (*General review of sodium channel structure, function and pharmacology*)

lare J.J., Tate S.N., Nobbs M., Romanos M.A. Voltage-gated sodium channels as therapeutic targets. *Drug Discov. Today*. 2000;5:506-520. (*Useful review dealing at a basic level with the therapeutic potential of drugs affecting sodium channels*)

ay E.A., Yakel J.L. Gating of nicotinic ACh receptors: new insights into structural transitions triggered by agonist binding that induce channel opening. *J. Physiol.*. 2007;548:727-733.

alliwell R.F. A short history of the rise of the molecular pharmacology of ionotropic drug receptors. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2007;28:214-219. (*Good account of the main discoveries in this active field*)

ille B. *Ionic channels of excitable membranes*. Sunderland: Sinauer Associates; 2001. (*A clear and detailed account of the basic principles of ion channels, with emphasis on their biophysical properties*)

n R., Banke T., Mayer M., *et al.* Structural basis for partial agonist action at ionotropic glutamate receptors. *Nat. Neurosci.*. 2003;6:803-819. (*Shows that partial agonists for glutamate receptors induce different conductance states of the channel*)

arlin A. Structure of nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.*. 1993;3:299-309.

(*Excellent general review*)

Ilyazawa A., Fujiyoshi Y., Unwin N. Structure and gating mechanism of the acetylcholine receptor pore. *Nature*. 2003;423:949-955. (*Description of how the channel is opened by agonists, based on high-resolution crystallography*)

otier M., Trebak M. New developments in the signaling mechanisms of the store-operated calcium entry pathway. *Pflugers Arch.*. 2008;457:405-415. (*Recent clarification of an old enigma*)

nwin N. Nicotinic acetylcholine receptor at 9A resolution. *J. Mol. Biol.*. 1993;229:1101-1124. (*The first structural study of a channel-linked receptor*)

nwin N. Acetylcholine receptor channel imaged in the open state. *Nature*. 1995;373:37-43. (*Refinement of 1993 paper, showing for the first time how channel opening occurs—a technical tour de force*)

Vickham K.D., Clapham D.E. G-protein regulation of ion channels. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.*. 1995;5:278-285. (*Discusses direct and indirect regulation of ion channels by G-protein-coupled receptors*)

G-protein-coupled receptors

bdAlla S., Lother H., El Massiery A., Quitterer U. Increased AT_1 receptor heterodimers in preeclampsia mediate enhanced angiotensin II responsiveness. *Nat. Med.*. 2001;7:1003-1009. (*The first instance of disturbed GPCR heterodimerisation in relation to human disease*)

ockaert J., Pin J.P. Molecular tinkering of G protein-coupled receptors: an evolutionary success. *EMBO J.*. 1999;18:1723-1729. (*Short review covering some newer aspects of GPCR function*)

onigrave A.D., Quinn S.J., Brown E.M. Cooperative multi-modal sensing and therapeutic implications of the extracellular Ca^{2+}-sensing receptor Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 2000;401-407 (*Short account of the Ca^{2+}-sensing receptor, an anomalous type of GPCR*)

osta T., Cotecchia S. Historical review: negative efficacy and the constitutive activity of G-protein-coupled receptors. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2005;26:618-624. (*A clear and thoughtful review of ideas relating to constitutive receptor activation and inverse agonists*)

erguson S.S.G. Evolving concepts in G-protein-coupled receptor endocytosis: the role in receptor

desensitization and signaling. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2001;53:1-24. (*Detailed account of the role of phosphorylation of receptors in fast and slow desensitisation mechanisms*)

redriksson R., Schiöth H.B. The repertoire of G-protein-coupled receptors in fully sequenced genomes. *Mol. Pharmacol.*. 2005;67:1414-1425. (*Estimation of the number of GPCR genes in different species—nearly 500 more in mouse than in human!*)

ill S.J. G-protein-coupled receptors: past, present and future. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2006;147(Suppl.):27-37. (*Good introductory review*)

elly E., Bailey C.P., Henderson G. Agonist-selective mechanisms of GPCR desensitization. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;153(Supp. 1):S379-S388. (*Short review of main mechanisms of GPCR desensitisation*)

enakin T. Efficacy at G-protein-coupled receptors. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2002;1:103-110. (*Mainly theoretical discussion of the implications of agonist trafficking*)

ilpatrick G., Dautzenberg F.M., Martin G.R., Eglen R.M. 7TM receptors: the splicing on the cake. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1999;20:294-301. (*Review of the importance of mRNA splicing as a source of variation among GPCRs—a salutary reminder that cloning genes is not the last word in defining receptor diversity*)

oenig J.A., Edwardson J.M. Endocytosis and recycling of G-protein-coupled receptors. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1997;18:276-287. (*Excellent review of the complex life cycle of a receptor molecule*)

iu F., Wan Q., Pristupa Z., *et al.* Direct protein–protein coupling enables cross-talk between dopamine D5 and γ-aminobutyric acid A receptors. *Nature*. 2000;403:274-280. (*The first demonstration of direct coupling of a GPCR with an ion channel. Look, no G-protein!*)

ohse M.J., Hein P., Hoffmann C., *et al.* Kinetics of G-protein-coupled receptor signals in intact cells. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;153(Suppl. 1):S125-S132. (*Describes the use of fluorescence methods to measure GPCR signalling events in real time—an important step forward*)

Iilligan G. Signal sorting by G-protein-linked receptors. *Adv. Pharmacol.*. 1995;32:1-29. (*More on the selectivity problem*)

Iilligan G., Kostenis E. Heterotrimeric G-proteins: a short history. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*.

2006;147(Suppl.):46-55.

ffermanns S. G-proteins as transducers in transmembrane signalling. *Prog. Biophys. Mol. Biol.*. 2003;83:101-130. (*Detailed review of G-protein subtypes and their function in signal transduction*)

ldham W.M., Hamm H.E. Heterotrimeric G-protein activation by G-protein-coupled receptors. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2008;9:60-71. (*Useful review of the current state of knowledge about the structure and function of G-proteins*)

arameswaran N., Spielman W.S. RAMPs: the past, present and future. *Trends Biochem. Sci.*. 2006;31:631-638. (*Review on knowledge about RAMPs—still a confusing picture*)

ierce K.L., Premont R.T., Lefkowitz R.J. Seven-transmembrane receptors. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2002;3:639-650. (*Useful general review of GPCRs, including desensitisation mechanisms, signal transduction pathways and dimerisation*)

rinster S.C., Hague C., Hall R.A. Heterodimerization of G-protein-coupled receptors: specificity and functional significance. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2005;57:289-298. (*Good short review of what the unexpected finding of GPCR dimerisation may signify*)

amachandran R.M.D., Hollenberg M.D. Proteinases and signalling: pathophysiological and therapeutic implications via PARs and more. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;153(Suppl. 1):S263-S282. (*Useful short review of PAR mechanisms and relevance to disease states*)

eiter E., Lefkowitz R.J. GRKs and β-arrestins: roles in receptor silencing, trafficking and signaling. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2006;17:159-165. (*Review of the role of these proteins in GPCR function, independent of G-protein involvement*)

chwartz T.W. Molecular structure of G-protein-coupled receptors. In: Foreman J.C., Johanesen T., editors. *Textbook of Receptor Pharmacology*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 1996. (*Useful account without unnecessary detail*)

imonds W.F. G-protein regulation of adenylate cyclase. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1999;20:66-72. (*Review of mechanisms by which G-proteins affect adenylate cyclase at the level of molecular structure*)

piegel A.M., Weinstein L.S. Inherited diseases involving G proteins and G protein-coupled receptors. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 2004;55:27-39. (*Short review article*)

eitler M., Herrick-Davis K., Purohit A. Constitutive activity of G-protein coupled receptors: emphasis on serotonin receptors. *Curr. Top Med. Chem.*. 2002;2:529-538. (*Review of evidence that spontaneous activity is common among both native and mutated GPCRs*)

hompson M.D., Burnham W.M., Cole D.E.C. The G-protein coupled receptors: pharmacogenetics and disease. *Crit. Rev. Clin. Lab. Sci.*. 2005;42:311-389. (*Extensive review with many examples of GPCR polymorphisms associated with disease*)

/eis W.I., Kobilka B.K. Structural insights into G-protein-coupled receptor activation. *Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol.*. 2008;18:734-740.

/ess J. Molecular basis of receptor/G-protein-coupling selectivity. *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 1998;80:231-264. (*Detailed review of molecular biology of GPCRs and G-proteins, emphasising what is known about the thorny question of how selectivity is achieved*)

ie G.-X., Palmer P.P. How regulators of G protein signalling achieve selective regulation. *J. Mol. Biol.*. 2007;366:349-365. (*General review about RGS proteins and how they work*)

Kinase-linked receptors

ohen P. Protein kinases—the major drug targets of the twenty-first century. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2002;1:309-315. (*General review on pharmacological aspects of protein kinases*)

ook D.N., Pisetsky D.S., Schwartz D.A. Toll-like receptors in the pathogenesis of human disease. *Nat. Immunol.*. 2004;5:975-979. (*Review emphasising the role of this class of receptor tyrosine kinases in many human disease states*)

elcourt N., Bockaert J., Marin P. GPCR-jacking: from a new route in RTK signalling to a new concept in GPCR activation. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2007;28:602-607. (*Gives examples of 'cross-talk' between GPCR and RTK signalling pathways*)

ubbard S.R., Miller W.T. Receptor tyrosine kinases: mechanisms of activation and signaling. *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol.*. 2007;19:117-123. (*Reviews recent structural results showing mechanism of RTK dimerisation and signalling*)

ıle J.N. Cytokine receptor signalling. *Nature*. 1995;377:591-594.

awson T. Regulation and targets of receptor tyrosine kinases. *Eur. J. Cancer*. 2002;38:S3-S10.

(*Short review of RTK signalling*)

chenk P.W., Snaar-Jakelska B.E. Signal perception and transduction: the role of protein kinases. *Biochim. Biophys Acta.*. 1999;1449:1-24. (*General review of receptor–protein kinase interactions*)

Nuclear receptors

ourguet W., Germain P., Gronemeyer H. Nuclear receptor ligand-binding domains: three-dimensional structures, molecular interactions and pharmacological implications. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2000;21:381-388. (*Accessible review concentrating on distinction between agonist and antagonist effects at the molecular level*)

hawla A., Repa J.J., Evans R.M., Mangelsdorf D.J. Nuclear receptors and lipid physiology: opening the X-files. *Science*. 2001;294:1866-1870. (*Accessible review that deals mainly with the role of nuclear receptors in lipid metabolism*)

alkenstein E., Tillmann H.C., Christ M., *et al.* Multiple actions of steroid hormones—a focus on rapid non-genomic effects. *Pharm. Rev.*. 2000;52:513-553. (*Comprehensive review article describing the non-classical effects of steroids*)

ermain P., Staels B., Dacquet C., Spedding M., Laudet V. Overview of nomenclature of nuclear receptors. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2006;58:685-704. (*Comprehensive and authoritative review that deals with receptor biology as well as nomenclature. Recommended*)

iguere V. Orphan nuclear receptors: from gene to function. *Endocr. Rev.*. 1999;20:689-725. (*For the serious reader*)

ersten S., Desvergne B., Wahli W. Roles of PPARs in health and disease. *Nature*. 2000;405:421-424. (*General review of an important class of nuclear receptors*)

lurphy G.J., Holder J.C. PPAR-γ agonists: therapeutic role in diabetes, inflammation and cancer. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2000;21:469-474. (*Account of the emerging importance of nuclear receptors of the PPAR family as therapeutic targets*)

ynold T.W., Dussault I., Forman B.M. The orphan nuclear receptor SXR coordinately regulates drug metabolism and efflux. *Nature Med.*. 2001;7:584-590. (*Rather advanced research paper which highlights the role of the SXR receptor in regulating the metabolism of drugs*)

Walters M.R., Nemere I. Receptors for steroid hormones: membrane-associated and nuclear forms. *Cell Mol. Life Sci.*. 2004;61:2309-2321. (*Good discussion about alternative types of steroid hormone receptors*)

Signal transduction

Avruch J. MAP kinase pathways: the first twenty years. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta.*. 2007;1773:1150-1160. (*Short general review. One of a series of articles on MAP kinases in this issue*)

Beavo J.A. Cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterase. Functional implications of multiple isoforms. *Physiol. Rev.*. 1995;75:725-748. (*Useful account of the numerous PDE subtypes, selective inhibitors of which have many potential therapeutic applications*)

Bishop A.L., Hall R.A. Rho-GTPases and their effector proteins. *Biochem. J.*. 2000;348:241-255. (*General review article on the Rho/Rho kinase system and the various pathways and functions that it controls*)

Brzostowski J.A., Kimmel A.R. Signaling at zero G: G-protein-independent functions for 7TM receptors. *Trends Biochem. Sci.*. 2001;26:291-297. (*Review of evidence for GPCR signalling that does not involve G-proteins, thus conflicting with the orthodox dogma*)

Clapham D., Neer E. G-protein βγ subunits. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 1997;37:167-203. (*On the diversity and role in signalling of G-protein βγ subunits—the poor relations of the α subunits*)

Collinger S., Hepler J.R. Cellular regulation of RGS proteins: modulators and integrators of G protein signaling. *Physiol. Rev.*. 2002;54:527-559. (*Describes the nature of this family of proteins that bind to α subunits and modulate G-protein signalling in many situations*)

Karin M., Yamamoto Y., Wang M. The IKK-NFκB system: a treasure trove for drug development. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2004;3:17-26. (*Describes the transcription factor NFκB, which plays a key role in inflammation, and its control by kinase cascades*)

Lucas K.A., Pitari J.M., Kazerounian S., *et al.* Guanylyl cyclases and signaling by cyclic GMP. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2000;52:375-414. (*Detailed review of guanylyl cyclase and its role in signalling. Covers both membrane receptors linked to guanylyl cyclase, and soluble guanylyl cyclases that respond to nitric oxide, etc.*)

Marshall C.J. Ras effectors. *Curr. Opin. Cell Biol.*. 1996;8:197-204. (*Account of one of the most important signal transduction pathways*)

Nahorski S.R. Pharmacology of intracellular signalling pathways. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2006;147(Suppl.):38-45. (*Useful short review*)

Nishizuka Y. The molecular heterogeneity of protein kinase C and its implications for cellular regulation. *Nature*. 1988;334:661-665. (*As above*)

Panhaesebroeck B., Leevers S.J., Panayotou G., Waterfield M.D. Phosphoinositide 3-kinases: a conserved family of signal transducers. *Trends Biochem. Sci.*. 1997;22:267-272. (*Review by the group that discovered PI-3 kinases, summarising the multiple roles of this signal transduction mechanism—much expanded since 1997*)

4

How drugs act

Cellular aspects—excitation, contraction and secretion

Overview

The link between a drug interacting with a molecular target and its effect at the pathophysiological level, such as a change in blood glucose concentration or the shrinkage of a tumour, involves events at the cellular level. Whatever their specialised physiological function, cells generally share much the same repertoire of signalling mechanisms. In the next three chapters, we describe the parts of this repertoire that are of particular significance in understanding drug action at the cellular level. In this chapter, we describe mechanisms that operate mainly over a short timescale (milliseconds to hours), particularly excitation, contraction and secretion, which account for many physiological responses; Chapter 5 deals with the slower processes (generally days to months), including cell division, growth, differentiation and cell death, that determine the body's structure and constitution; Chapter 6 describes host defence mechanisms.

The short-term regulation of cell function depends mainly on the following components and mechanisms, which regulate, or are regulated by, the free concentration of Ca^{2+} in the cytosol, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$:

- ion channels and transporters in the plasma membrane

• the storage and release of Ca^{2+} by intracellular organelles

• Ca^{2+}-dependent regulation of a variety of functional proteins, including enzymes, contractile proteins and vesicle proteins.

More detailed coverage of the topics presented in this chapter can be found in Nicholls *et al.* (2001), Levitan & Kaczmarek (2002) and Nestler *et al.* (2008).

Because $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ plays such a key role in cell function, a wide variety of drug effects results from interference with one or more of these mechanisms. If love makes the human world go round, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ does the same for cells. Knowledge of the molecular and cellular details is extensive, and here we focus on the aspects that help to explain drug effects.

Regulation of Intracellular Calcium

Ever since the famous accident by Sidney Ringer's technician, which showed that using tap water rather than distilled water to make up the bathing solution for isolated frog hearts would allow them to carry on contracting, the role of Ca^{2+} as a major regulator of cell function has never been in question. Many drugs and physiological mechanisms operate, directly or indirectly, by influencing $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. Here we consider the main ways in which it is regulated, and later we describe some of the ways in which $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ controls cell function. Details of the molecular components and drug targets are presented in Chapter 3, and descriptions of drug effects on integrated physiological function are given in later chapters.

The study of Ca^{2+} regulation took a big step forward in the 1970s with the development of optical techniques based on the Ca^{2+}-sensitive photoprotein *aequorin*, and fluorescent dyes such as *Fura-2*, which, for

the first time, allowed free $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ to be continuously monitored in living cells with a high level of temporal and spatial resolution.

Most of the Ca^{2+} in a resting cell is sequestered in organelles, particularly the *endoplasmic* or *sarcoplasmic reticulum* (ER or SR) and the mitochondria, and the free $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is kept to a low level, about 10^{-7} M. The Ca^{2+} concentration in tissue fluid, $[Ca^{2+}]_o$, is about 2.4 mM, so there is a large concentration gradient favouring Ca^{2+} entry. $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is kept low (a) by the operation of active transport mechanisms that eject cytosolic Ca^{2+} through the plasma membrane and pump it into the ER, and (b) by the normally low Ca^{2+} permeability of the plasma and ER membranes. Regulation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ involves three main mechanisms:

- control of Ca^{2+} entry
- control of Ca^{2+} extrusion
- exchange of Ca^{2+} between the cytosol and the intracellular stores.

These mechanisms are described in more detail below and are summarised in Figure 4.1 (see reviews by Clapham, 2007; Berridge, 2009).

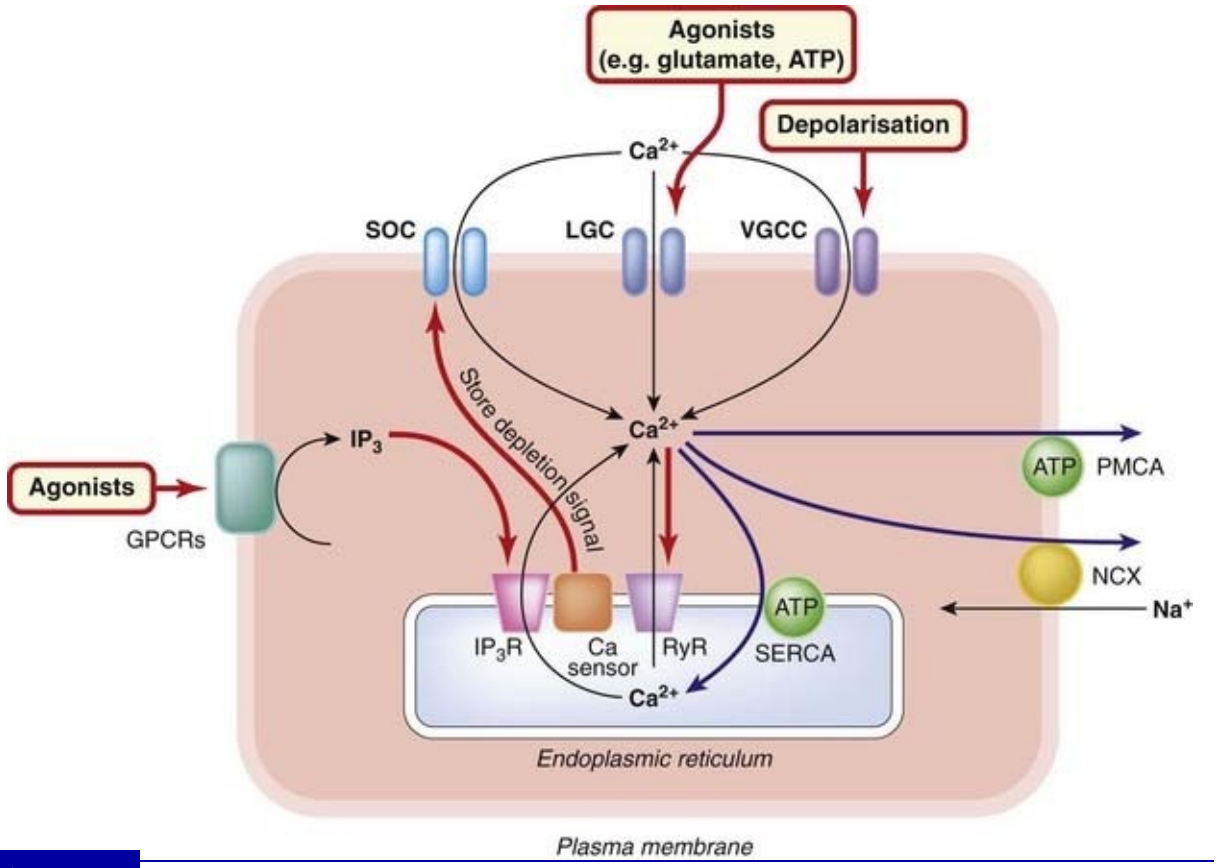


Fig. 4.1 Regulation of intracellular calcium.

The main routes of transfer of Ca^{2+} into, and out of, the cytosol and endoplasmic reticulum are shown for a typical cell (see text for details). Black arrows: routes into the cytosol. Blue arrows: routes out of the cytosol. Red arrows: regulatory mechanisms. The state of the ER store of Ca^{2+} is monitored by the sensor protein Stim1, which interacts directly with the store-operated calcium channel (SOC) to promote Ca^{2+} entry when the ER store is depleted. Normally, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is regulated to about 10^{-7} mol/l in a 'resting' cell. Mitochondria (not shown) also function as Ca^{2+} storage organelles but release Ca^{2+} only under pathological conditions, such as ischaemia (see text). There is also evidence for an intracellular store (not shown) activated by the second messenger nicotinic acid dinucleotide phosphate. GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor; IP3, inositol trisphosphate; IP3R, inositol trisphosphate receptor; LGC, ligand-gated cation channel; NCX, Na^+–Ca^{2+} exchange transporter; PMCA, plasma membrane Ca^{2+}-ATPase; RyR, ryanodine receptor; SERCA, sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum ATPase; VGCC, voltage-gated calcium channel.

Calcium Entry Mechanisms

There are four main routes by which Ca^{2+} enters cells across the plasma membrane:

- voltage-gated calcium channels
- ligand-gated calcium channels
- store-operated calcium channels (SOCs)
- Na^{+}–Ca^{2+} exchange (can operate in either direction; see *Calcium extrusion mechanisms*, below).

Voltage-Gated Calcium Channels

The pioneering work of Hodgkin and Huxley on the ionic basis of the nerve action potential (see below) identified voltage-dependent Na^{+} and K^{+} conductances as the main participants. It was later found that some invertebrate nerve and muscle cells could produce action potentials that depended on Ca^{2+} rather than Na^{+}, and it was then found that vertebrate cells also possess voltage-activated calcium channels capable of allowing substantial amounts of Ca^{2+} to enter the cell when the membrane is depolarised. These voltage-gated channels are highly selective for Ca^{2+} (although they also conduct Ba^{2+} ions, which are often used as a substitute in electrophysiological experiments), and do not conduct Na^{+} or K^{+}; they are ubiquitous in excitable cells and cause Ca^{2+} to enter the cell whenever the membrane is depolarised, for example by a conducted action potential.

A combination of electrophysiological and pharmacological criteria have revealed five distinct subtypes of voltage-gated calcium channels: L, T, N, P/Q and R.[1] The subtypes vary with respect to their activation and inactivation kinetics, their voltage threshold for activation, their conductance, and their sensitivity to blocking agents, as summarised in

Table 4.1. The molecular basis for this heterogeneity has been worked out in some detail. The main pore-forming subunits (termed α1, see Fig. 3.4) occur in at least 10 molecular subtypes, and they are associated with other subunits (β, γ, δ) that also exist in different forms. Different combinations of these subunits give rise to the different physiological subtypes. In general, L channels are particularly important in regulating contraction of cardiac and smooth muscle (see below), and N channels (and also P/Q) are involved in neurotransmitter and hormone release, while T channels mediate Ca^{2+} entry into neurons and thereby control various Ca^{2+}-dependent functions such as regulation of other channels, enzymes, *etc.* Clinically used drugs that act directly on these channels include the group of 'Ca^{2+} antagonists' consisting of *dihydropyridines* (e.g. **nifedipine**), **verapamil** and **diltiazem** (used for their cardiovascular effects; see Chs 21 and 22), and also **gabapentin** and **pregabalin** (used to treat pain and epilepsy; see Chs 41 and 44). Many drugs affect calcium channels indirectly by acting on G-protein-coupled receptors (see Ch. 3). A number of toxins act selectively on one or other type of calcium channel (Table 4.1), and these are used as experimental tools.

Table 4.1 Types and functions of Ca^{2+} channels

Gated by	Main types	Characteristics	Location and function	Drug effects
Voltage	L	High activation threshold Slow inactivation	Plasma membrane of many cells Main Ca^{2+} source for contraction in smooth and cardiac muscle	Blocked by **dihydropyridines, verapamil, diltiazem** **Calciseptine** (peptide from snake venom) Activated by **BayK 8644**
	N	Low activation threshold Slow inactivation	Main Ca^{2+} source for transmitter release by nerve terminals	Blocked by **ω-conotoxin** (component of *Conus* snail venom) and **ziconotide** (marketed preparation of ω-conotoxin used to control pain) (Ch. 41)
	T	Low activation threshold Fast inactivation	Widely distributed Important in cardiac pacemaker and atria (role in dysrhythmias), also neuronal firing patterns	Blocked by **mibefradil**
	P/Q	Low activation threshold Slow inactivation	Nerve terminals Transmitter release	Blocked by **ω-agatoxin** (component of funnel web spider venom)
	R	Low threshold Fast inactivation	Neurons and dendrites Control of firing patterns	
Inositol-trisphosphate	IP_3 receptor		Located in endoplasmic/sarcoplasmic reticulum Mediates Ca^{2+} release produced by GPCR activation	Not directly targeted by drugs Some experimental blocking agents known Responds to GPCR agonists and antagonists in many cells
Ca^{2+}	Ryanodine receptor	Directly activated in striated muscle via dihydropyridine receptor of T-tubules	Located in endoplasmic/sarcoplasmic reticulum. Mediates Ca^{2+}-evoked Ca^{2+} release in muscle. Also activated by the second messenger cyclic ADP ribose	Activated by **caffeine** (high concentrations Blocked by **ryanodine** Mutations may lead to drug-induced malignant hypothermia
Store depletion	Store-operated channels	Activated by sensor protein that monitors level of ER Ca^{2+} stores	Located in plasma membrane	Activated indirectly by agents that deplete intracellular stores (e.g. GPCR agonists, **thapsigargin**) Not directly targeted by drugs

[1]P and Q are so similar that they usually get lumped together. The terminology is less than poetic: L stands for *long-lasting*; T stands for *transient*; N stands for *neither long-lasting nor transient*; and P, Q and R carry on alphabetically from N, with O (of course) omitted.

Ligand-Gated Channels

Most ligand-gated cation channels (see Ch. 3) that are activated by excitatory neurotransmitters are relatively non-selective, and conduct Ca^{2+} ions as well as other cations. Most important in this respect is the glutamate receptor of the NMDA type (Ch. 37), which has a particularly high permeability to Ca^{2+} and is a major contributor to Ca^{2+} uptake by postsynaptic neurons (and also glial cells) in the central nervous system.

Activation of this receptor can readily cause so much Ca^{2+} entry that the cell dies, mainly through activation of Ca^{2+}-dependent proteases but also by triggering *apoptosis* (see Ch. 5). This mechanism, termed *excitotoxicity*, probably plays a part in various neurodegenerative disorders (see Ch. 39).

For many years, there was dispute about the existence of 'receptor-operated channels' in smooth muscle, responding directly to mediators such as adrenaline (epinephrine), acetylcholine and histamine. Now it seems (see Berridge, 2009) that the P2x receptor (see Ch. 3), activated by ATP, is the only example of a true ligand-gated channel in smooth muscle, and this constitutes an important route of entry for Ca^{2+}. As mentioned above, many mediators acting on G-protein-coupled receptors, affect Ca^{2+} entry indirectly, mainly by regulating voltage-gated calcium channels or potassium channels.

Store-Operated Calcium Channels (SOCs)

SOCs are very low-conductance channels that occur in the plasma membrane and open to allow entry when the ER stores are depleted, but are not sensitive to cytosolic $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. The linkage between the ER and the plasma membrane—for long a puzzle—was recently found to involve a Ca^{2+}-sensor protein (*Stim1*) in the ER membrane, which connects directly to the channel protein (*Orai1*) in the plasma membrane (see Clapham, 2007).

Like the ER and SR channels, these channels can serve to amplify the rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ resulting from Ca^{2+} release from the stores. So far, only experimental compounds are known to block these channels, but efforts are being made to develop specific blocking agents for therapeutic use as relaxants of smooth muscle.

Calcium Extrusion Mechanisms

Active transport of Ca^{2+} outwards across the plasma membrane, and inwards across the membranes of the ER or SR, depends on the activity of distinct Ca^{2+}-dependent ATPases,[2] similar to the Na^+/K^+-dependent ATPase that pumps Na^+ out of the cell in exchange for K^+. **Thapsigargin** (derived from a Mediterranean plant, *Thapsia garganica*) specifically blocks the ER pump, causing loss of Ca^{2+} from the ER. It is a useful experimental tool but has no therapeutic significance.

[2]Clapham (2007) likens these pumps to Sisyphus, condemned endlessly to push a stone up a hill (also consuming ATP, no doubt), only for it to roll down again.

Calcium is also extruded from cells in exchange for Na^+, by Na^+–Ca^{2+} exchange. The transporter that does this has been fully characterised and cloned, and (as you would expect) comes in several molecular subtypes whose functions remain to be worked out. The exchanger transfers three Na^+ ions for one Ca^{2+}, and therefore produces a net depolarising current when it is extruding Ca^{2+}. The energy for Ca^{2+} extrusion comes from the electrochemical gradient for Na^+, not directly from ATP hydrolysis. This means that a reduction in the Na^+ concentration gradient resulting from Na^+ entry will reduce Ca^{2+} extrusion by the exchanger, causing a secondary rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, a mechanism that is particularly important in cardiac muscle (see Ch. 21). **Digoxin,** which inhibits Na^+ extrusion, acts on cardiac muscle in this way (Ch. 21), causing $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ to increase.

Calcium Release Mechanisms

There are two main types of calcium channel in the ER and SR membrane, which play an important part in controlling the release of Ca^{2+} from these stores.

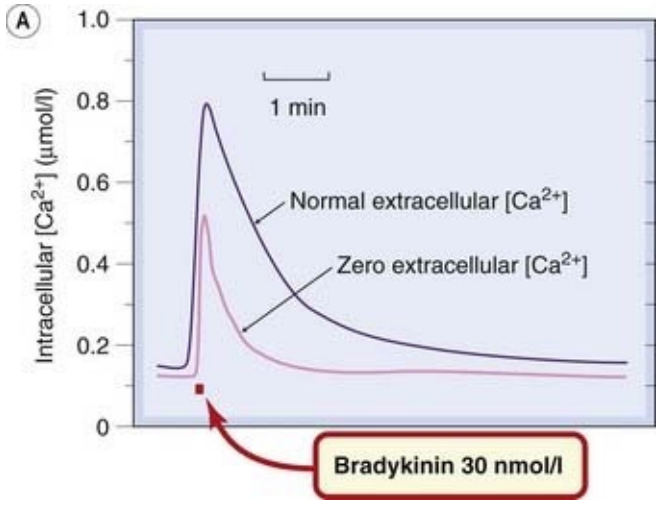
• The *inositol trisphosphate receptor* (IP_3R) is activated by inositol trisphosphate (IP_3), a second messenger produced by the action of many ligands on G-protein-coupled receptors (see Ch. 3). IP_3R is a ligand-gated ion channel, although its molecular structure differs from that of ligand-gated channels in the plasma membrane (see Mikoshiba, 2007). This is the main mechanism by which activation of G-protein-coupled receptors causes an increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.

• The *ryanodine receptor* (RyR) is so called because it was first identified through the specific blocking action of the plant alkaloid **ryanodine**. It is particularly important in skeletal muscle, where there is direct coupling between the RyRs of the SR and the *dihydropyridine receptors* of the T-tubules (see below); this coupling results in Ca^{2+} release following the action potential in the muscle fibre. RyRs are also present in other types of cell that lack T-tubules; they are activated by a small rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, producing the effect known as *calcium-induced calcium release* (CICR), which serves to amplify the Ca^{2+} signal produced by other mechanisms such as opening of calcium channels in the plasma membrane. CICR means that release tends to be regenerative, because an initial puff of Ca^{2+} releases more, resulting in localised 'sparks' or 'waves' of Ca^{2+} release (see Berridge, 1997).

The functions of IP_3Rs and RyRs are modulated by a variety of other intracellular signals (see Berridge et al., 2003), which affect the magnitude and spatiotemporal patterning of Ca^{2+} signals. Fluorescence imaging techniques have revealed a remarkable level of complexity of Ca^{2+} signals, and much remains to be discovered about the importance of this patterning in relation to physiological and pharmacological mechanisms. The Ca^{2+} sensitivity of RyRs is increased by **caffeine**, causing Ca^{2+} release from the SR even at resting levels of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. This is used experimentally but rarely happens in humans, because the other

pharmacological effects of caffeine (see Ch. 47) occur at much lower doses. The blocking effect of **dantrolene**, a compound related to ryanodine, is used therapeutically to relieve muscle spasm in the rare condition of *malignant hyperthermia* (see Ch. 40), which is associated with inherited abnormalities in the RyR protein. There are as yet few other examples of drugs that directly affect these Ca^{2+} release mechanisms.

A typical $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ signal resulting from activation of a G-protein-coupled receptor is shown in Figure 4.2. The response produced in the absence of extracellular Ca^{2+} represents release of intracellular Ca^{2+}. The larger and more prolonged response when extracellular Ca^{2+} is present shows the contribution of SOC-mediated Ca^{2+} entry. The various positive and negative feedback mechanisms that regulate $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ give rise to a variety of temporal and spatial oscillatory patterns (Fig. 4.2B) that are responsible for spontaneous rhythmic activity in smooth muscle and nerve cells (see Berridge, 2009).



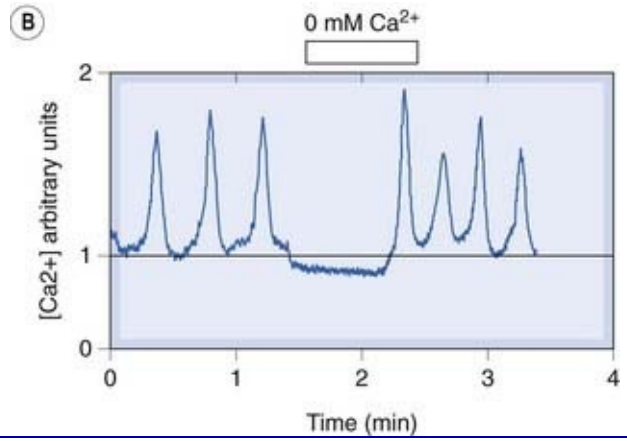


Fig. 4.2 [A] Increase in intracellular calcium concentration in response to receptor activation.

The records were obtained from a single rat sensory neuron grown in tissue culture. The cells were loaded with the fluorescent Ca^{2+} indicator Fura-2, and the signal from a single cell monitored with a fluorescence microscope. A brief exposure to the peptide bradykinin, which causes excitation of sensory neurons (see Ch. 41), causes a transient increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ from the resting value of about 150 nmol/l. When Ca^{2+} is removed from the extracellular solution, the bradykinin-induced increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is still present but is smaller and briefer. The response in the absence of extracellular Ca^{2+} represents the release of stored intracellular Ca^{2+} resulting from the intracellular production of inositol trisphosphate. The difference between this and the larger response when Ca^{2+} is present extracellularly is believed to represent Ca^{2+} entry through store-operated ion channels in the cell membrane.

(Figure kindly provided by G M Burgess and A Forbes, Novartis Institute for Medical Research.)

[B] Spontaneous calcium oscillations in pacemaker cells from the rabbit urethra that regulate the rhythmic contractions of the smooth muscle.

The signals cease when external Ca^{2+} is removed, showing that activation of membrane Ca^{2+} channels is involved in the mechanism.

(From McHale et al. 2006 J Physiol 570:23–28.)

Other Second Messengers

▼ Two intracellular metabolites, cyclic ADP-ribose (cADPR) and nicotinic acid dinucleotide phosphate (NAADP; see Fliegert et al., 2007), formed from the ubiquitous coenzymes nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) and NAD phosphate, also affect Ca^{2+} signalling.

cADPR acts by increasing the sensitivity of RyRs to Ca^{2+}, thus increasing the 'gain' of the CICR effect. NAADP releases Ca^{2+} from lysosomes by activating channels not yet identified but evidently distinct from the IP_3R and RyR.

The levels of these messengers in mammalian cells may be regulated mainly in response to changes in the metabolic status of the cell, although the details are not yet clear. Abnormal Ca^{2+} signalling is involved in many pathophysiological conditions, such as ischaemic cell death, endocrine disorders and cardiac dysrhythmias, where the roles of cADPR and NAADP, and their interaction with other mechanisms that regulate $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, are the subject of much current work (see Berridge et al., 2003).

The Role of Mitochondria

▼ Under normal conditions, mitochondria accumulate Ca^{2+} passively as a result of the intramitochondrial potential, which is strongly negative with respect to the cytosol. This negativity is maintained by active extrusion of protons, and is lost—thus releasing Ca^{2+} into the cytosol—if the cell runs short of ATP, for example under conditions of hypoxia. This only happens in extremis, and the resulting Ca^{2+} release contributes to the cytotoxicity associated with severe metabolic disturbance. Cell death resulting from brain ischaemia or coronary ischaemia (see Chs 21 and 39) involves this mechanism, along with others that contribute to an excessive rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.

Calcium regulation

• Intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, is critically important as a regulator of cell function.

• Intracellular Ca^{2+} is determined by (a) Ca^{2+} entry; (b) Ca^{2+} extrusion; and (c) Ca^{2+} exchange between the cytosol, endoplasmic or sarcoplasmic reticulum (ER, SR) and mitochondria.

• Calcium entry occurs by various routes, including voltage-and ligand-gated calcium channels and Na^{+}–Ca^{2+} exchange.

• Calcium extrusion depends mainly on an ATP-driven Ca^{2+} pump.

• Calcium ions are actively taken up and stored by the ER/SR, from which they are released in response to various stimuli.

• Calcium ions are released from ER/SR stores by (a) the second messenger IP_3 acting on IP_3 receptors; or (b) increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ itself acting on ryanodine receptors, a mechanism known as Ca^{2+}-induced Ca^{2+} release.

• Other second messengers, cyclic ADP ribose and nicotinic acid dinucleotide phosphate, also promote the release of Ca^{2+} from Ca^{2+} stores.

• Depletion of ER/SR Ca^{2+} stores promotes Ca^{2+} entry through the plasma membrane, via store-operated channels.

• Calcium ions affect many aspects of cell function by binding to proteins such as calmodulin, which in turn bind other proteins and regulate their function.

Calmodulin

Calcium exerts its control over cell functions by virtue of its ability to regulate the activity of many different proteins, including enzymes (particularly kinases and phosphatases), channels, transporters, transcription factors, synaptic vesicle proteins and many others. In most cases, a Ca^{2+}-binding protein serves as an intermediate between Ca^{2+} and the regulated functional protein, the best known such binding protein being the ubiquitous *calmodulin* (see Clapham, 2007). This

regulates at least 40 different functional proteins—indeed a powerful fixer. Calmodulin is a dimer, with four Ca^{2+} binding sites. When all are occupied, it undergoes a conformational change, exposing a 'sticky' hydrophobic domain that lures many proteins into association, thereby affecting their functional properties.

Excitation

Excitability describes the ability of a cell to show a regenerative all-or-nothing electrical response to depolarisation of its membrane, this membrane response being known as an action potential. It is a characteristic of most neurons and muscle cells (including striated, cardiac and smooth muscle) and of many endocrine gland cells. In neurons and muscle cells, the ability of the action potential, once initiated, to propagate to all parts of the cell membrane, and often to spread to neighbouring cells, explains the importance of membrane excitation in intra-and intercellular signalling. In the nervous system, and in striated muscle, action potential propagation is the mechanism responsible for communication over long distances at high speed, indispensable for large, fast-moving creatures. In cardiac and smooth muscle, as well as in some central neurons, spontaneous rhythmic activity occurs. In gland cells, the action potential, where it occurs, serves to amplify the signal that causes the cell to secrete. In each type of tissue, the properties of the excitation process reflect the special characteristics of the ion channels that underlie the process. The molecular nature of ion channels, and their importance as drug targets, is considered in Chapter 3; here we discuss the cellular processes that depend primarily on ion channel function. For more detail, see Hille (2001).

The 'Resting' Cell

The resting cell is not resting at all but very busy controlling the state of its interior, and it requires a continuous supply of energy to do so. In relation to the topics discussed in this chapter, the following characteristics are especially important:

- membrane potential
- permeability of the plasma membrane to different ions
- intracellular ion concentrations, especially $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.

Under resting conditions, all cells maintain a negative internal potential between about −30 mV and −80 mV, depending on the cell type. This arises because (a) the membrane is relatively impermeable to Na^+, and (b) Na^+ ions are actively extruded from the cell in exchange for K^+ ions by an energy-dependent transporter, the Na^+ pump (or Na^+–K^+-ATPase). The result is that the intracellular K^+ concentration, $[K^+]_i$, is higher, and $[Na^+]_i$ is lower, than the respective extracellular concentrations. In many cells, other ions, particularly Cl^-, are also actively transported and unequally distributed across the membrane. In many cases (e.g. in neurons), the membrane permeability to K^+ is relatively high, and the membrane potential settles at a value of −60 to −80 mV, close to the equilibrium potential for K^+ (Fig. 4.3). In other cells (e.g. smooth muscle), anions play a larger part, and the membrane potential is generally lower (−30 to −50 mV) and less dependent on K^+.

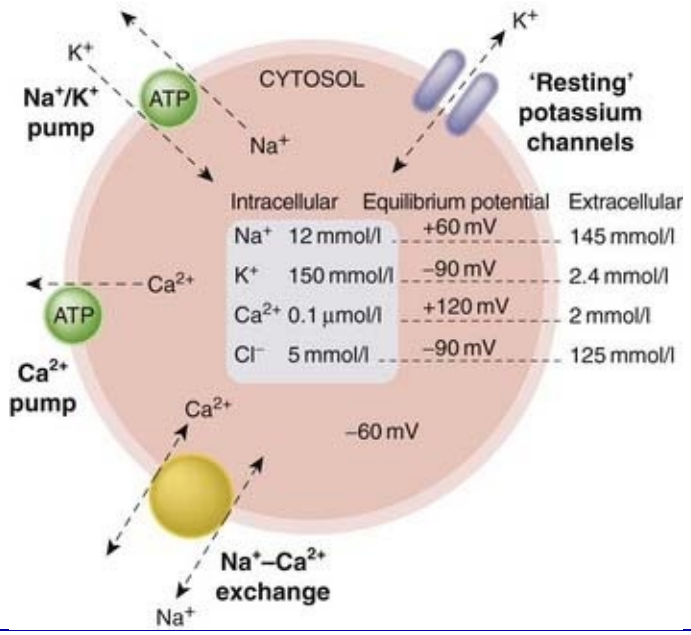


Fig. 4.3 Simplified diagram showing the ionic balance of a typical 'resting' cell.

The main transport mechanisms that maintain the ionic gradients across the plasma membrane are the ATP-driven Na^+–K^+ and Ca^{2+} pumps and the Na^+–Ca^{2+} exchange transporter. The membrane is relatively permeable to K^+, because potassium channels are open at rest, but impermeable to other cations. The unequal ion concentrations on either side of the membrane give rise to the 'equilibrium potentials' shown. The resting membrane potential, typically about −60 mV but differing between different cell types, is determined by the equilibrium potentials and the permeabilities of the various ions involved, and by the 'electrogenic' effect of the transporters. For simplicity, anions and other ions, such as protons, are not shown, although these play an important role in many cell types.

Electrical and Ionic Events Underlying the Action Potential

Our present understanding of electrical excitability rests firmly on the work of Hodgkin, Huxley and Katz on squid axons, published in 1949–1952. Their experiments (see Katz, 1966) revealed the existence of voltage-gated ion channels (see above) and showed that the action potential is generated by the interplay of two processes:

1 a rapid, transient increase in Na^+ permeability that occurs when the membrane is depolarised beyond about −50 mV

2 a slower, sustained increase in K^+ permeability.

Because of the inequality of Na^+ and K^+ concentrations on the two sides of the membrane, an increase in Na^+ permeability causes an inward (depolarising) current of Na^+ ions, whereas an increase in K^+ permeability causes an outward current. The separability of these two currents can be most clearly demonstrated by the use of drugs blocking sodium and potassium channels, as shown in Figure 4.4. During the physiological initiation or propagation of a nerve impulse, the first event is a small depolarisation of the membrane, produced either by transmitter action or by the approach of an action potential passing along the axon. This opens sodium channels, allowing an inward current of Na^+ ions to flow, which depolarises the membrane still further. The process is thus a regenerative one, and the increase in Na^+ permeability is enough to bring the membrane potential close to E_{Na}. The increased Na^+ conductance is transient, because the channels inactivate rapidly and the membrane returns to its resting state.

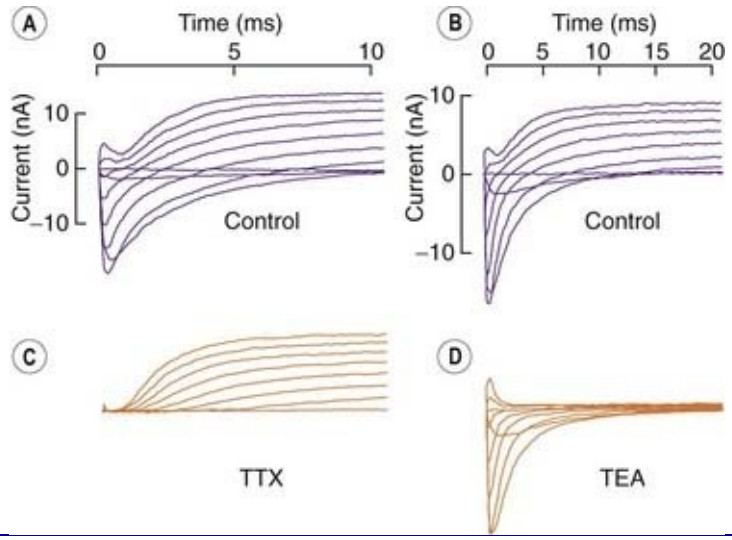


Fig. 4.4 Separation of sodium and potassium currents in the nerve membrane.

Voltage clamp records from the node of Ranvier of a single frog nerve fibre. At time 0, the membrane potential was stepped to a depolarised level, ranging from −60 mV (lower trace in each series) to +60 mV (upper trace in each series) in 15-mV steps. [**A**] [**B**] Control records

from two fibres. [**C**] Effect of tetrodotoxin (TTX), which abolishes Na^+ currents. [**D**] Effect of tetraethylammonium (TEA), which abolishes K^+ currents.

(From Hille B 1970. Ionic channels in nerve membranes. Prog Biophys Mol Biol 21: 1–32.)

In many types of cell, including most nerve cells, repolarisation is assisted by the opening of voltage-dependent potassium channels. These function in much the same way as sodium channels, but their activation kinetics are about 10 times slower and they do not inactivate appreciably. This means that the potassium channels open later than the sodium channels, and contribute to the rapid termination of the action potential. The behaviour of the sodium and potassium channels during an action potential is shown in Figure 4.5.

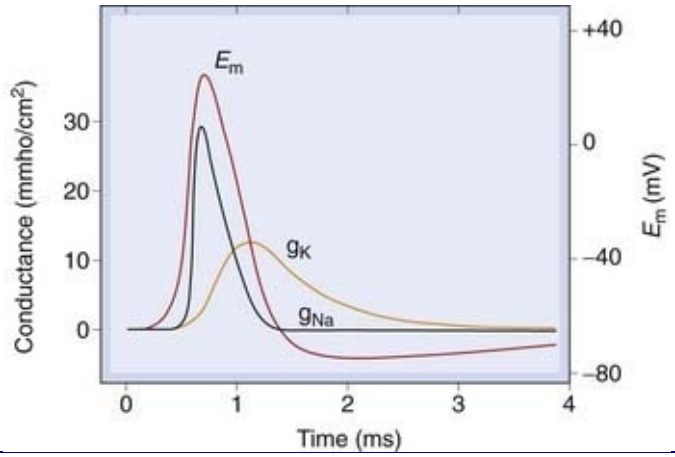


Fig. 4.5 Behaviour of sodium and potassium channels during a conducted action potential. Rapid opening of sodium channels occurs during the action potential upstroke. Delayed opening of potassium channels, and inactivation of sodium channels, causes repolarisation. E_m, membrane potential; g_{Na}, g_K, membrane conductance to Na^+, K^+.

The foregoing account, based on Hodgkin and Huxley's work 60 years ago, involves only Na^+ and K^+ channels. Subsequently (see Hille, 2001), voltage-gated calcium channels (see Fig. 4.1) were discovered. These function in basically the same way as sodium channels; they contribute

to action potential generation in many cells, particularly cardiac and smooth muscle cells, but also in neurons and secretory cells. Ca^{2+} entry through voltage-gated calcium channels plays a key role in intracellular signalling, as described above.

Channel Function

The discharge patterns of excitable cells vary greatly. Skeletal muscle fibres are quiescent unless stimulated by the arrival of a nerve impulse at the neuromuscular junction. Cardiac muscle fibres discharge spontaneously at a regular rate (see Ch. 21). Neurons may be normally silent, or they may discharge spontaneously, either regularly or in bursts; smooth muscle cells show a similar variety of firing patterns. The frequency at which different cells normally discharge action potentials also varies greatly, from 100 Hz or more for fast-conducting neurons, down to about 1 Hz for cardiac muscle cells. These very pronounced functional variations reflect the different characteristics of the ion channels expressed in different cell types. Rhythmic fluctuations of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ underlie the distinct firing patterns that occur in different types of cell (see Berridge, 2009).

Drugs that alter channel characteristics, either by interacting directly with the channel itself or indirectly through second messengers, affect the function of many organ systems, including the nervous, cardiovascular, endocrine, respiratory and reproductive systems, and are a frequent theme in this book. Here we describe some of the key mechanisms involved in the regulation of excitable cells.

In general, action potentials are initiated by membrane currents that cause depolarisation of the cell. These currents may be produced by synaptic activity, by an action potential approaching from another part of the cell, by a sensory stimulus or by spontaneous *pacemaker* activity.

The tendency of such currents to initiate an action potential is governed by the *excitability* of the cell, which depends mainly on the state of (a) the voltage-gated sodium and/or calcium channels, and (b) the potassium channels of the resting membrane. Anything that increases the number of available sodium or calcium channels, or reduces their activation threshold, will tend to increase excitability, whereas increasing the resting K^+ conductance reduces it. Agents that do the reverse, by blocking channels or interfering with their opening, will have the opposite effect. Some examples are shown in Figures 4.6 and 4.7 and in Table 4.1. Inherited mutations of channel proteins are responsible for a wide variety of (mostly rare) neurological and other genetic disorders (see Ashcroft, 2000, 2006).

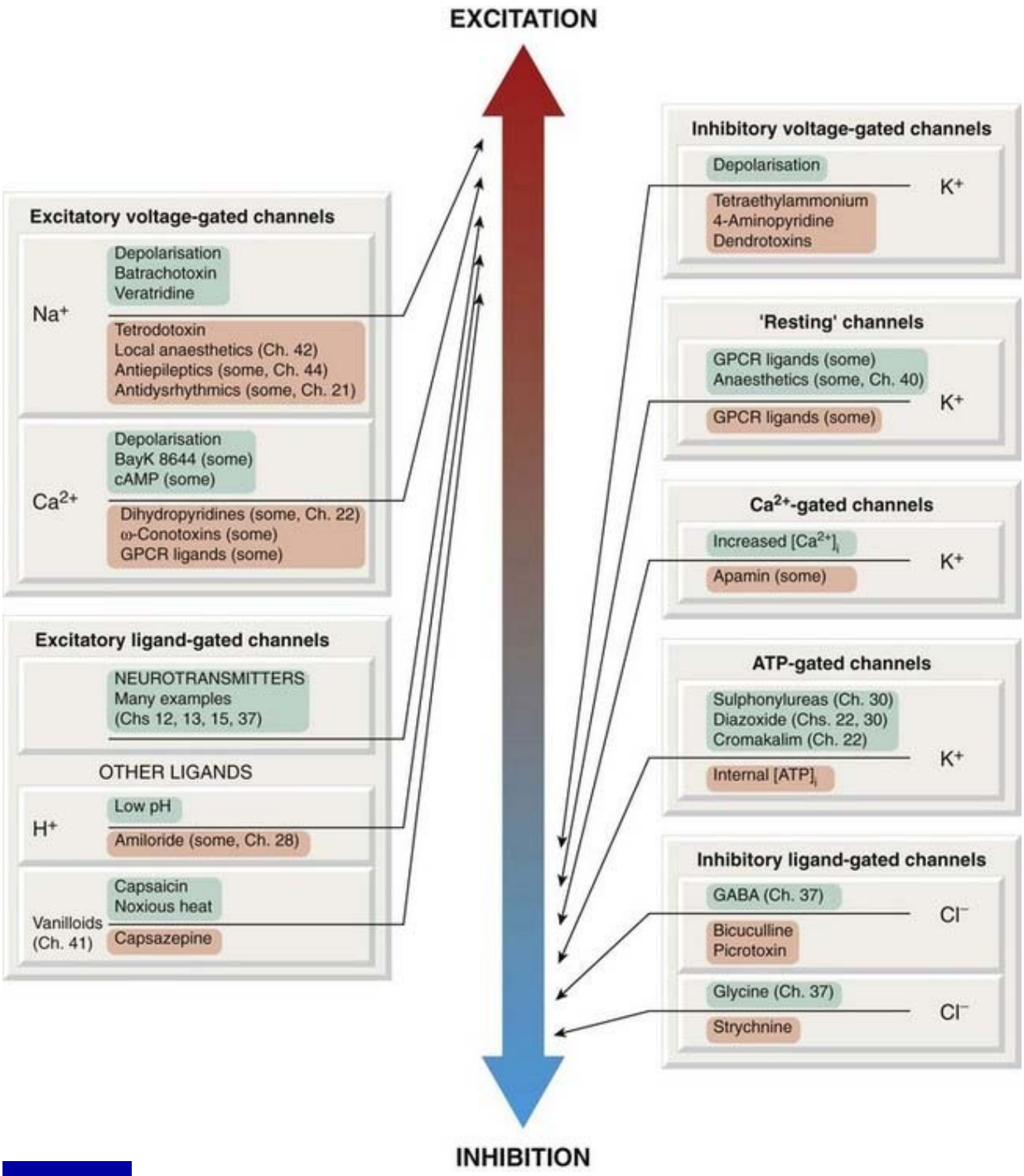


Fig. 4.6 Ion channels associated with excitatory and inhibitory membrane effects, and some of the drugs and other ligands that affect them.

Channel openers are shown in green boxes, blocking agents and inhibitors in pink boxes. GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor.

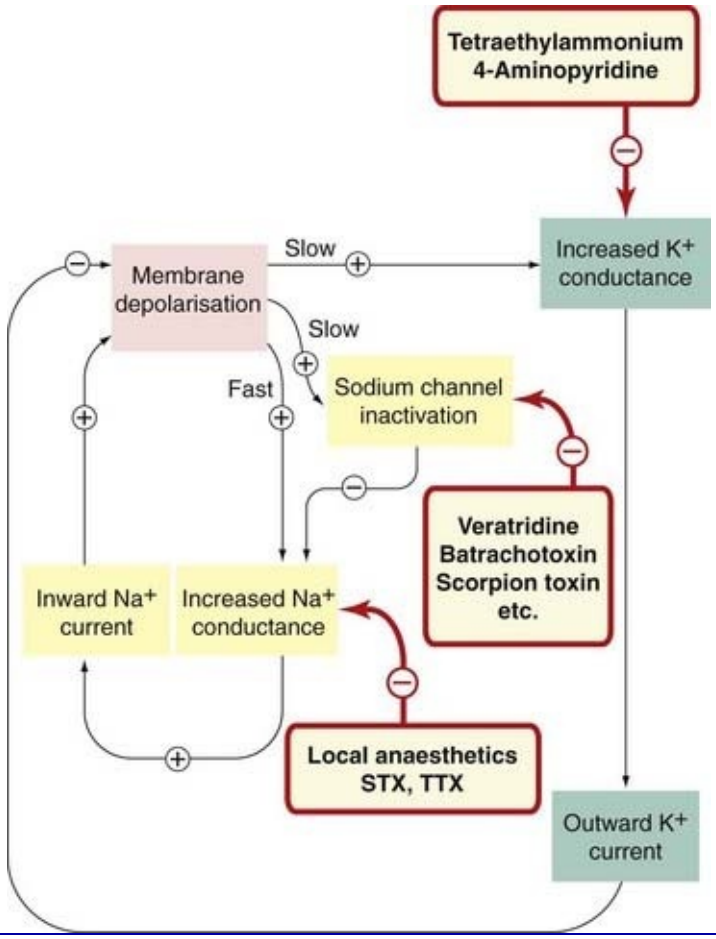


Fig. 4.7 Sites of action of drugs and toxins that affect channels involved in action potential generation.

Many other mediators affect these channels indirectly via membrane receptors, through phosphorylation or altered expression. STX, saxitoxin; TTX, tetrodotoxin.

Use Dependence and Voltage Dependence

▼ Voltage-gated channels can exist in three functional states (Fig. 4.8): *resting* (the closed state that prevails at the normal resting potential), *activated* (the open state favoured by brief depolarisation) and *inactivated* (the blocked state resulting from a trap door-like occlusion of the open channel by a floppy intracellular appendage of the channel protein). After the action potential has passed, many sodium channels are in the inactivated state; after the membrane potential returns to its resting value, the inactivated channels take time to revert to the resting state

and thus become available for activation once more. In the meantime, the membrane is temporarily *refractory*. Each action potential causes the channels to cycle through these states. The duration of the refractory period determines the maximum frequency at which action potentials can occur. Drugs that block sodium channels, such as local anaesthetics (Ch. 42), antidysrhythmic drugs (Ch. 21) and antiepileptic drugs (Ch. 44), commonly show a selective affinity for one or other of these functional states of the channel, and in their presence the proportion of channels in the high-affinity state is increased. Of particular importance are drugs that bind most strongly to the inactivated state of the channel and thus favour the adoption of this state, thus prolonging the refractory period and reducing the maximum frequency at which action potentials can be generated. This type of block is called *use dependent*, because the binding of such drugs increases as a function of the rate of action potential discharge, which governs the rate at which inactivated—and therefore drug-sensitive—channels are generated. This is important for some antidysrhythmic drugs (see Ch. 21) and for antiepileptic drugs (Ch. 44), because high-frequency discharges can be inhibited without affecting excitability at normal frequencies. Drugs that readily block sodium channels in their resting state (e.g. local anaesthetics, Ch. 42) prevent excitation at low as well as high frequencies.

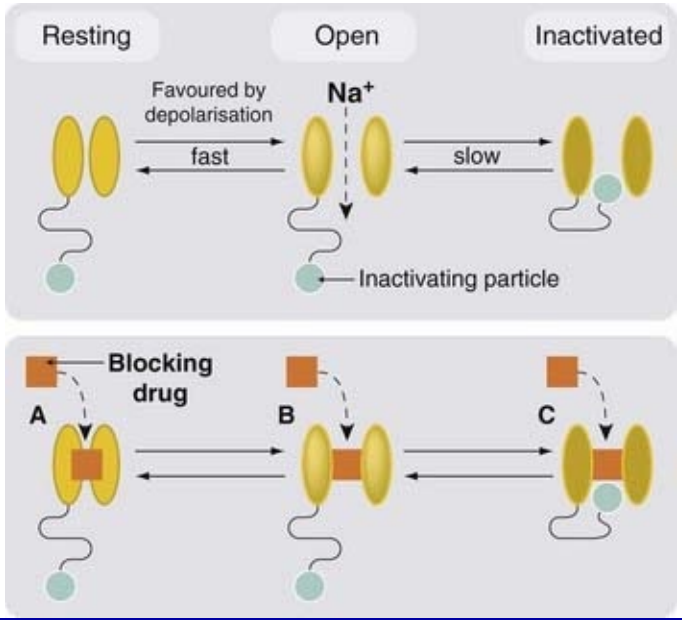


Fig. 4.8 Resting, activated and inactivated states of voltage-gated channels, exemplified by the sodium channel.

Membrane depolarisation causes a rapid transition from the resting (closed) state to the open state. The inactivating particle (part of the intracellular domain of the channel protein) is then able to block the channel. Blocking drugs (e.g. local anaesthetics and antiepileptic drugs) often show preference for one of the three channel states, and thus affect the kinetic behaviour of the channels, with implications for their clinical application.

Most sodium channel-blocking drugs are cationic at physiological pH and are therefore affected by the voltage gradient across the cell membrane. They block the channel from the inside, so that their blocking action is favoured by depolarisation. This phenomenon, known as *voltage dependence*, is also of relevance to the action of antidysrhythmic and antiepileptic drugs, because the cells that are the seat of dysrhythmias or seizure activity are generally somewhat depolarised and therefore more strongly blocked than 'healthy' cells. Similar considerations apply also to drugs that block potassium or calcium channels, but we know less about the importance of use and voltage dependence for these than we do for sodium channels.

Sodium Channels

In most excitable cells, the regenerative inward current that initiates the action potential results from activation of voltage-gated sodium channels. The early voltage clamp studies by Hodgkin and Huxley on the squid giant axon, described above, revealed the essential functional properties of these channels. Later, advantage was taken of the potent and highly selective blocking action of **tetrodotoxin** (TTX, see Ch. 42) to label and purify the channel protein, and subsequently to clone it, revealing the complex structure shown in Figure 3.18, with four similar domains each comprising six membrane-spanning helices (reviewed by Catterall, 2000). One of these helices, S4, contains several basic amino acids and forms the voltage sensor, and moves outwards, thus opening the channel, when the membrane is depolarised. One of the intracellular loops is designed to swing across and block the channel when S4 is displaced, thus inactivating the channel.

It was known from physiological studies that the sodium channels of heart and skeletal muscle differ in various ways from those of neurons. In particular, cardiac sodium channels (and also those of some sensory neurons) are relatively insensitive to TTX, and slower in their kinetics, compared with most neuronal sodium channels. Nine distinct molecular subtypes have so far been identified, more than enough to explain the functional diversity.

In addition to channel blocking compounds such as tetrodotoxin, other compounds affect sodium channel gating. For example, the plant alkaloid **veratridine** and the frog skin poison **batrachotoxin** cause persistent activation, while various scorpion toxins prevent inactivation, mechanisms resulting in enhanced neuronal excitability.

Therapeutic agents that act by blocking sodium channels include local anaesthetic drugs (Ch. 42), antiepileptic drugs (Ch. 44) and antidysrhythmic drugs (Ch. 21). The sodium channel-blocking actions of

these drugs were in most cases discovered long after their clinical applications were recognised; many of them lack specificity and produce a variety of unwanted side effects. The use of induced mutations in cloned sodium channels expressed in cell lines is now revealing which regions of the very large channel molecule are involved in the binding of particular agents, knowledge that should allow more specific drugs to be designed in the future.

Potassium Channels

In a typical resting cell (see above), the membrane is selectively permeable to K^+, and the membrane potential (about -60 mV) is somewhat positive to the K^+ equilibrium (about -90 mV). This resting permeability comes about because potassium channels are open. If more potassium channels open, the membrane hyperpolarises and the cell is inhibited, whereas the opposite happens if potassium channels close. As well as affecting excitability in this way, potassium channels also play an important role in regulating the duration of the action potential and the temporal patterning of action potential discharges; altogether, these channels play a central role in regulating cell function. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the number and variety of potassium channel subtypes is extraordinary, implying that evolution has been driven by the scope for biological advantage to be gained from subtle variations in the functional properties of these channels. A recent résumé lists over 60 different pore-forming subunits, plus another 20 or so auxiliary subunits. An impressive evolutionary display, maybe, but hard going for most of us. Here we outline the main types that are known to be important pharmacologically. For more details, and information on potassium channels and the various drugs and toxins that affect them, see Shieh *et al.* (2000) and Jenkinson (2006).

▼ Potassium channels fall into three main classes (Table 4.2),[3] of which the structures are shown in Figure 3.18.

Table 4.2 Types and functions of K^+ channels

Structural class[a]	Functional subtypes[b]	Functions	Drug effects	Notes
Voltage-gated (6T, 1P)	Voltage-gated K^+ channels	Action potential repolarisation Limits maximum firing frequency	Blocked by **tetraethylammonium, 4-aminopyridine** Certain subtypes blocked by **dendrotoxins** (from mamba snake venom)	Subtypes in the heart include HERG and LQT channels, which are involved in congenital and drug-induced dysrhythmias Other subtypes may be involved in inherited forms of epilepsy
	Ca^{2+}-activated K^+ channels	Inhibition following stimuli which increase $[Ca^{2+}]_i$	Certain subtypes blocked by **apamin** (from bee venom), and **charybdotoxin** (from scorpion venom)	Important in many excitable tissues to limit repetitive discharges, also in secretory cells
Inward rectifying (2T, 1P)	G-protein-activated	Mediate effects of many GPCRs which cause inhibition by increasing K^+ conductance	GPCR agonists and antagonists No important direct interactions	Other inward rectifying K^+ channels important in kidney
	ATP-sensitive	Found in many cells Channels open when [ATP] is low, causing inhibition Important in control of insulin secretion	Association of one subtype with the sulphonylorea receptor (SUR) results in modulation by sulphonylureas (e.g. **glibenclamide**) which close channel, and by K^+ channel openers (e.g. **diazoxide, pinacidil**) which relax smooth muscle	
Two-pore domain (4T, 2P)	Several subtypes identified (TWIK, TRAAK, TREK, TASK, etc.)	Most are voltage insensitive; some are normally open and contribute to the 'resting' K^+ conductance Modulated by GPCRs	Certain subtypes are activated by volatile anaesthetics (e.g. **halothane**) No selective blocking agents Modulation by GPCR agonists and antagonists	Recently discovered, so knowledge is fragmentary as yet

GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor.
[a]K^+ channel structures (see Fig 3.17) are defined according to the number of transmembrane helices (T) and the number of pore-forming loops (P) in each α subunit. Functional channels contain several subunits (often four) which may be identical or different, and they are often associated with accessory (β) subunits.
[b]Within each functional subtype, several molecular variants have been identified, often restricted to particular cells and tissues. The physiological and pharmacological significance of this heterogeneity is not yet understood.

[3]Potassium channel terminology is confusing, to put it mildly. Electrophysiologists have named K^+ currents prosaically on the basis of their functional properties (I_{KV}, I_{KCa}, I_{KATP}, I_{KIR}, etc.); geneticists have named genes somewhat fancifully according to the phenotypes associated with mutations (shaker, ether-a-go-go, etc.), while molecular

biologists have introduced a rational but unmemorable nomenclature on the basis of sequence data (KCNK, KCNQ, etc., with numerical suffixes). The rest of us have to make what we can of the unlovely jargon of labels such as HERG (which—don't blink—stands for Human Ether-a-go-go Related Gene), TWIK, TREK and TASK.

• Voltage-gated potassium channels, which possess six membrane-spanning helices, one of which serves as the voltage sensor, causing the channel to open when the membrane is depolarised. Included in this group are channels of the shaker family, accounting for most of the voltage-gated K^+ currents familiar to electrophysiologists, and others such as Ca^{2+}-activated potassium channels and two subtypes that are important in the heart, HERG and LQT channels. Disturbance of these channels, either by genetic mutations or by unwanted drug effects, is a major factor in causing cardiac dysrhythmias, which can cause sudden death (see Ch. 21). Many of these channels are blocked by drugs such as **tetraethylammonium** and **4-aminopyridine**.

• Inwardly rectifying potassium channels, so called because they allow K^+ to pass inwards much more readily than outwards (see review by Reimann & Ashcroft, 1999). These have two membrane-spanning helices and a single pore-forming loop (P loop). These channels are regulated by interaction with G-proteins (see Ch. 3) and mediate the inhibitory effects of many agonists acting on G-protein-coupled receptors. Certain types are important in the heart, particularly in regulating the duration of the cardiac action potential (Ch . 21); others are the target for the action of **sulfonylureas** (antidiabetic drugs that stimulate insulin secretion by blocking them; see Ch. 30) and smooth muscle relaxant drugs, such as **cromakalim** and **diazoxide**, which open them (see Ch. 22).

• Two-pore domain potassium channels, with four helices and two P loops (see review by Goldstein et al., 2001). These show outward rectification and therefore exert a strong repolarising influence, opposing any tendency to excitation. They may contribute to the resting K^+ conductance in many cells, and are susceptible to regulation via G-proteins; certain subtypes have been implicated in the action of volatile anaesthetics such as **halothane** (Ch. 40).

Inherited abnormalities of potassium channels (channelopathies) contribute to a rapidly growing number of cardiac, neurological and other diseases. These include the *long QT syndrome* associated with mutations in cardiac voltage-gated potassium channels, causing episodes of ventricular arrest that can result in sudden death. Certain familial types of deafness and epilepsy are associated with mutations in voltage-gated potassium channels. (Ashcroft, 2000, 2006).

Ion channels and electrical excitability

• Excitable cells generate an all-or-nothing action potential in response to membrane depolarisation. This occurs in most neurons and muscle cells, and also in some gland cells. The ionic basis and time course of the response varies between tissues.

• The regenerative response results from the depolarising current associated with opening of voltage-gated cation channels (mainly Na^+ and Ca^{2+}). It is terminated by spontaneous closure of these channels accompanied by opening of K^+ channels.

• These voltage-gated channels exist in many molecular varieties, with specific functions in different types of cell.

• The membrane of the 'resting' cell is relatively permeable to K^+ but impermeable to Na^+ and Ca^{2+}. Drugs or mediators that open K^+ channels reduce membrane excitability, as do inhibitors of Na^+ or Ca^{2+} channel function. Blocking K^+ channels or activating Na^+ or

Ca^{2+} channels increases excitability.

• Cardiac muscle cells, some neurons and some smooth muscle cells generate spontaneous action potentials whose amplitude, rate and rhythm is affected by drugs that affect ion channel function.

Muscle Contraction

Effects of drugs on the contractile machinery of smooth muscle are the basis of many therapeutic applications, for smooth muscle is an important component of most physiological systems, including blood vessels and the gastrointestinal, respiratory and urinary tracts. For many decades, smooth muscle pharmacology with its trademark technology—the isolated organ bath—held the centre of the pharmacological stage, and neither the subject nor the technology shows any sign of flagging, even though the stage has become much more crowded. Cardiac muscle contractility is also the target of important drug effects, whereas striated muscle contractility is only rarely affected by drugs.

Although in each case the basic molecular basis of contraction is similar, namely an interaction between actin and myosin, fuelled by ATP and initiated by an increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, there are differences between these three kinds of muscle that account for their different responsiveness to drugs and chemical mediators.

These differences (Fig. 4.9) involve (a) the linkage between membrane events and increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, and (b) the mechanism by which $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ regulates contraction.

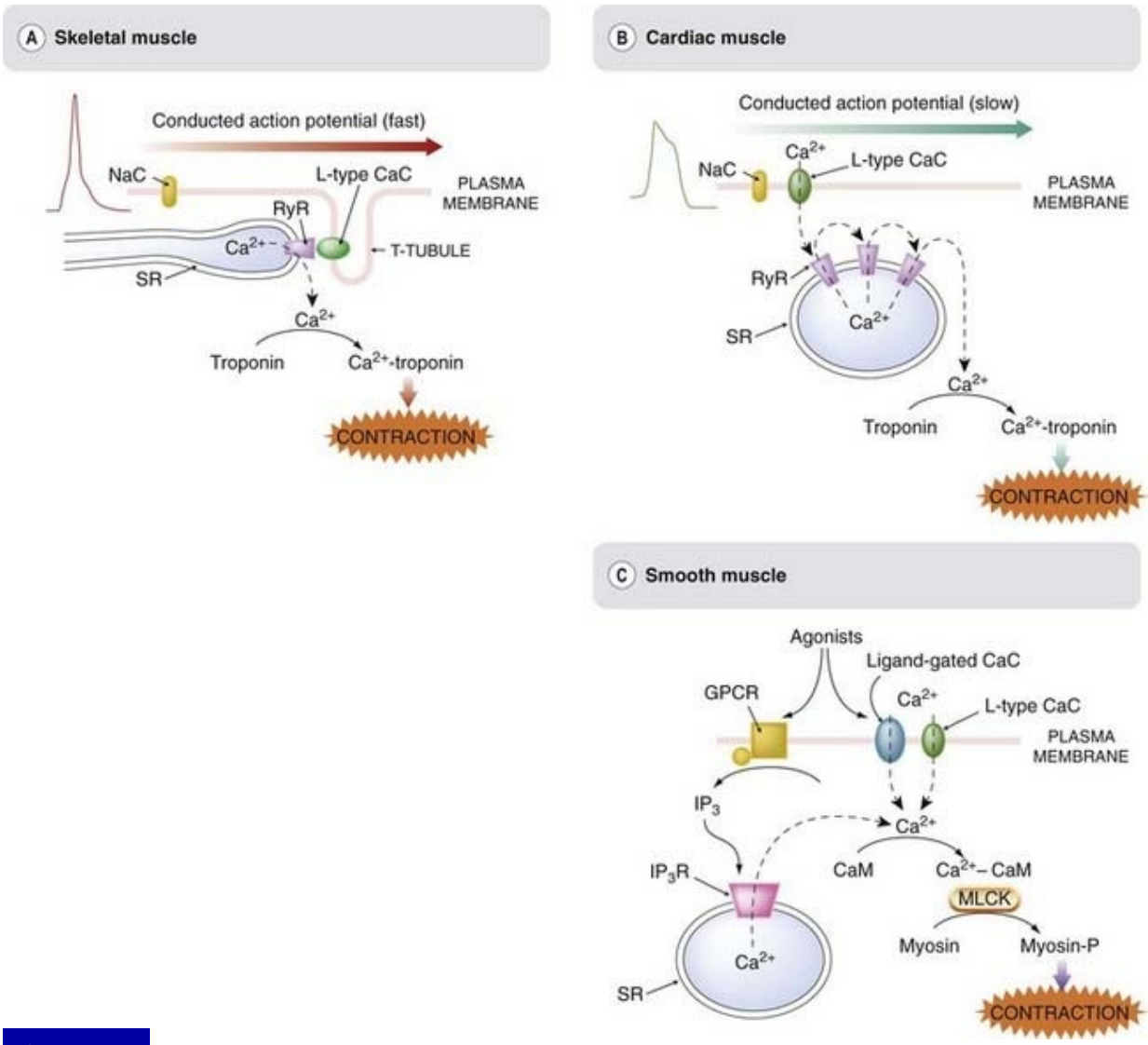


Fig. 4.9 Comparison of excitation–contraction coupling in [A] striated muscle, [B] cardiac muscle and [C] smooth muscle.

Striated and cardiac muscle differ mainly in the mechanism by which membrane depolarisation is coupled to Ca^{2+} release. In striated muscle, the T-tubule membrane is coupled closely to the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) via the L-type CaC and the ryanodine receptor (RyR). In cardiac muscle, Ca^{2+} entry via voltage-gated calcium channels initiates a regenerative release through activation of the Ca^{2+}-sensitive RyRs. In smooth muscle, contraction can be produced either by Ca^{2+} entry through voltage-or ligand-gated calcium channels, or by inositol trisphosphate (IP3)-mediated Ca^{2+} release from the SR. The mechanism by which Ca^{2+} activates contraction is different, and operates more slowly, in smooth muscle compared with in striated or cardiac muscle. CaC, calcium channel; CaM, calmodulin; SR, sarcoplasmic reticulum; GPCR, G-protein-coupled receptor; MLCK, myosin light-chain kinase; NaC, voltage-gated sodium

channel; RyR, ryanodine receptor.

Skeletal Muscle

Skeletal muscle possesses an array of transverse T-tubules extending into the cell from the plasma membrane. The action potential of the plasma membrane depends on voltage-gated sodium channels, as in most nerve cells, and propagates rapidly from its site of origin, the motor endplate (see Ch. 13), to the rest of the fibre. The T-tubule membrane contains L-type calcium channels, which respond to membrane depolarisation conducted passively along the T-tubule when the plasma membrane is invaded by an action potential. These calcium channels are located extremely close to *ryanodine receptors* (RyRs; see Ch. 3) in the adjacent SR membrane, and activation of these RyRs causes release of Ca^{2+} from the SR. There is evidence of direct coupling between the calcium channels of the T-tubule and the RyRs of the SR (as shown in Fig. 4.9); however, Ca^{2+} entry through the T-tubule channels into the restricted zone between these channels and associated RyRs may also contribute. Through this link, depolarisation rapidly activates the RyRs, releasing a short puff of Ca^{2+} from the SR into the sarcoplasm. The Ca^{2+} binds to troponin, a protein that normally blocks the interaction between actin and myosin. When Ca^{2+} binds, troponin moves out of the way and allows the contractile machinery to operate. Ca^{2+} release is rapid and brief, and the muscle responds with a short-lasting ‘twitch’ response. This is a relatively fast and direct mechanism compared with the arrangement in cardiac and smooth muscle (see below), and consequently less susceptible to pharmacological modulation. The few examples of drugs that directly affect skeletal muscle contraction are shown in Table 4.1.

Cardiac Muscle

Cardiac muscle (see review by Bers, 2002) differs from skeletal muscle in several important respects. The nature of the cardiac action potential, the ionic mechanisms underlying its inherent rhythmicity, and the effects of drugs on the rate and rhythm of the heart are described in Chapter 21. Cardiac muscle cells lack T-tubules, and there is no direct coupling between the plasma membrane and the SR. The cardiac action potential varies in its configuration in different parts of the heart, but commonly shows a 'plateau' lasting several hundred milliseconds following the initial rapid depolarisation. The plasma membrane contains many L-type calcium channels, which open during this plateau and allow Ca^{2+} to enter the cell, although not in sufficient quantities to activate the contractile machinery directly. Instead, this initial Ca^{2+} entry acts on RyRs (a different molecular type from those of skeletal muscle) to release Ca^{2+} from the SR, producing a secondary and much larger wave of Ca^{2+}. Because the RyRs of cardiac muscle are themselves activated by Ca^{2+}, the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ wave is a regenerative, all-or-nothing event. The initial Ca^{2+} entry that triggers this event is highly dependent on the action potential duration, and on the functioning of the membrane L-type channels. Some of the drugs that affect it are shown in Table 4.1. With minor differences, the mechanism by which Ca^{2+} activates the contractile machinery is the same as in skeletal muscle. Mutations of ryanodine receptors are implicated in various disorders of skeletal and cardiac muscle function (see Priori & Napolitano, 2005), but so far, no therapeutically useful drugs have emerged from this line of inquiry.

Smooth Muscle

The properties of smooth muscle vary considerably in different organs, and the mechanisms linking membrane events and contraction are correspondingly variable and more complex than in other kinds of

muscle. Spontaneous rhythmic activity occurs in many organs, by mechanisms producing oscillations of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (see Berridge, 2009). The action potential of smooth muscle is generally a rather lazy and vague affair compared with the more military behaviour of skeletal and cardiac muscle, and it propagates through the tissue much more slowly and uncertainly. The action potential is, in most cases, generated by L-type calcium channels rather than by voltage-gated sodium channels, and this is one important route of Ca^{2+} entry. In addition, many smooth muscle cells possess P2x receptors, ligand-gated cation channels, which allow Ca^{2+} entry when activated by ATP released from autonomic nerves (see Ch. 12). Smooth muscle cells also store Ca^{2+} in the ER, from which it can be released when the IP_3R is activated (see Ch. 3). IP_3 is generated by activation of many types of G-protein-coupled receptor. Thus, in contrast to skeletal and cardiac muscle, Ca^{2+} release and contraction can occur in smooth muscle when such receptors are activated without necessarily involving depolarisation and Ca^{2+} entry through the plasma membrane.

The contractile machinery of smooth muscle is activated when the *myosin light chain* undergoes phosphorylation, causing it to become detached from the actin filaments. This phosphorylation is catalysed by a kinase, *myosin light-chain kinase* (MLCK), which is activated when it binds to Ca^{2+}–calmodulin (see p. 52). A second enzyme, *myosin phosphatase*, reverses the phosphorylation and causes relaxation. The activity of MLCK and myosin phosphatase thus exerts a balanced effect, promoting contraction and relaxation, respectively. Both enzymes are regulated by cyclic nucleotides (cAMP and cGMP; see Ch. 3), and many drugs that cause smooth muscle contraction or relaxation mediated through G-protein-coupled receptors or through guanylyl cyclase-linked receptors act in this way. Figure 4.10 summarises the main mechanisms

by which drugs control smooth muscle contraction. The complexity of these control mechanisms and interactions explains why pharmacologists have been entranced for so long by smooth muscle. Many therapeutic drugs work by contracting or relaxing smooth muscle, particularly those affecting the cardiovascular, respiratory and gastrointestinal systems, as discussed in later chapters, where details of specific drugs and their physiological effects are given.

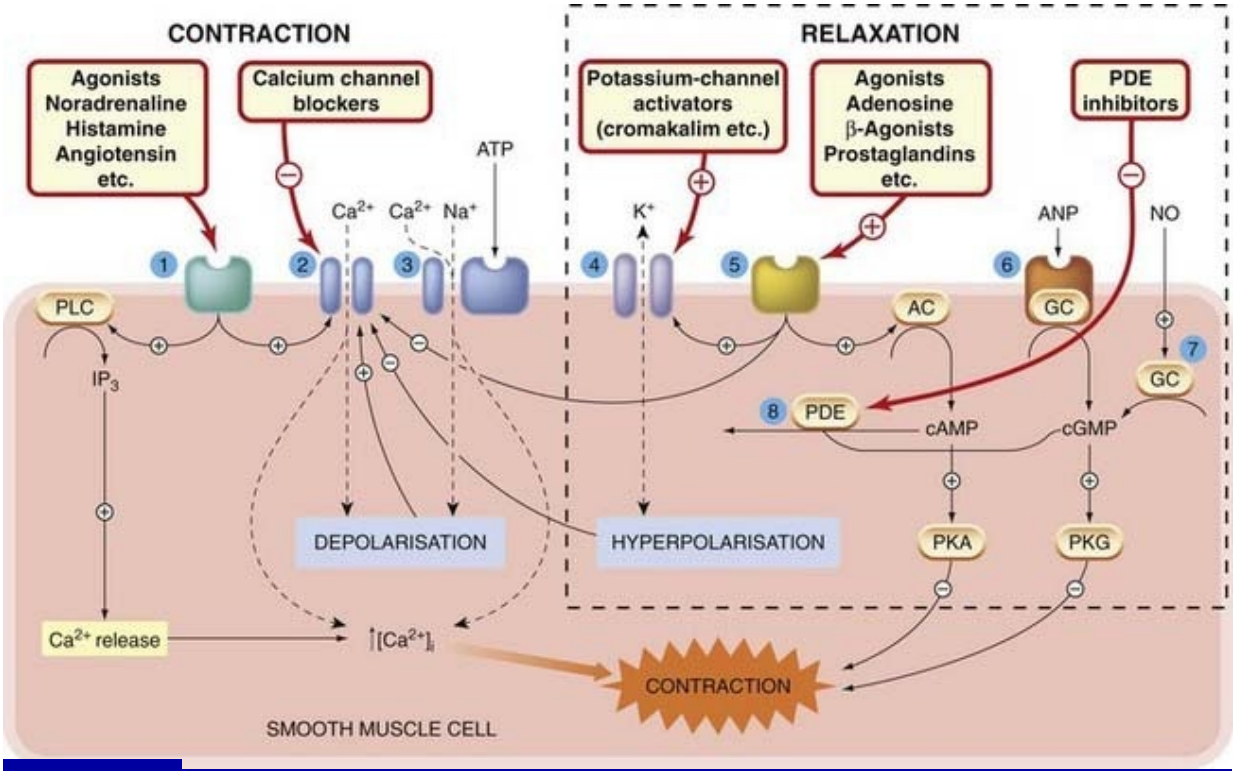


Fig. 4.10 Mechanisms controlling smooth muscle contraction and relaxation.

1. G-protein-coupled receptors for excitatory agonists, mainly regulating inositol trisphosphate formation and calcium channel function. 2. Voltage-gated calcium channels. 3. P2x receptor for ATP (ligand-gated cation channel). 4. Potassium channels. 5. G-protein-coupled receptors for inhibitory agonists, mainly regulating cAMP formation and potassium and calcium channel function. 6. Receptor for atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP), coupled directly to guanylyl cyclase (GC). 7. Soluble guanylyl cyclase, activated by nitric oxide (NO). 8. Phosphodiesterase (PDE), the main route of inactivation of cAMP and cGMP. AC, adenylate cyclase; PKA, protein kinase A; PKG, protein kinase G; PLC, phospholipase C.

Muscle contraction

• Muscle contraction occurs in response to a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.

• In skeletal muscle, depolarisation causes rapid Ca^{2+} release from the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR); in cardiac muscle, Ca^{2+} enters through voltage-gated channels, and this initial entry triggers further release from the SR; in smooth muscle, the Ca^{2+} signal is due partly to Ca^{2+} entry and partly to IP3-mediated release from the SR.

• In smooth muscle, contraction can occur without action potentials, for example when agonists at G-protein-coupled receptors lead to IP3 formation.

• Activation of the contractile machinery in smooth muscle involves phosphorylation of the myosin light chain, a mechanism that is regulated by a variety of second messenger systems.

Release of Chemical Mediators

Much of pharmacology is based on interference with the body's own chemical mediators, particularly neurotransmitters, hormones and inflammatory mediators. Here we discuss some of the common mechanisms involved in the release of such mediators, and it will come as no surprise that Ca^{2+} plays a central role. Drugs and other agents that affect the various control mechanisms that regulate $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ will therefore also affect mediator release, and this accounts for many of the physiological effects that they produce.

Chemical mediators that are released from cells fall into two main groups (Fig. 4.11):

• Mediators that are preformed and packaged in storage vesicles—sometimes called storage granules—from which they are released by *exocytosis*. This large group comprises all the conventional neurotransmitters and neuromodulators (see Chs 12 and 36), and many

hormones. It also includes secreted proteins such as cytokines (Ch. 17) and various growth factors (Ch. 19).

• Mediators that are produced on demand and are released by diffusion or by membrane carriers. This group includes nitric oxide (Ch. 20) and many lipid mediators (e.g. prostanoids, Ch. 17, and endocannabinoids, Ch. 18).[4]

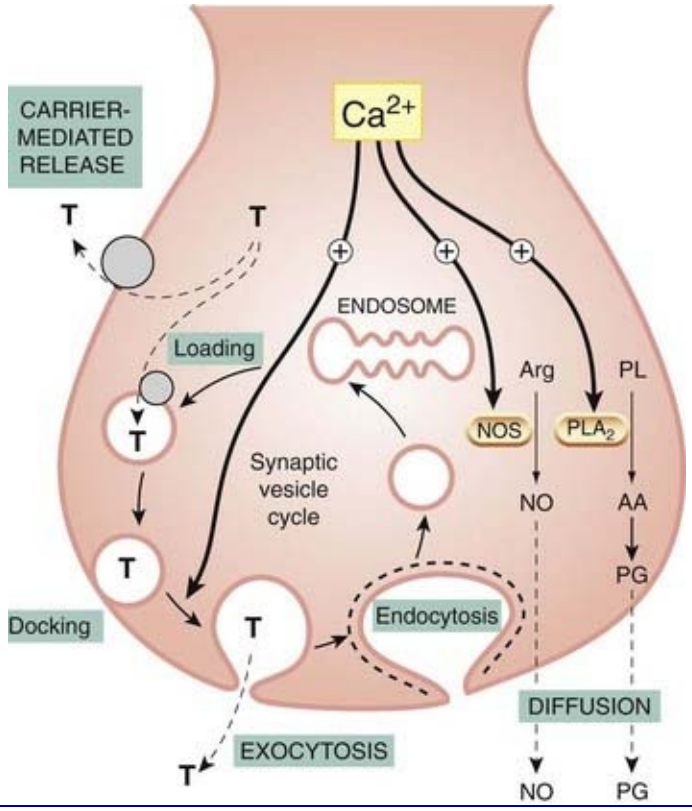


Fig. 4.11 Role of exocytosis, carrier-mediated transport and diffusion in mediator release.

The main mechanism of release of monoamine and peptide mediators is Ca^{2+}-mediated exocytosis, but carrier-mediated release from the cytosol also occurs. T represents a typical amine transmitter, such as noradrenaline (norepinephrine) or 5-hydroxytryptamine. Nitric oxide (NO) and prostaglandins (PGs) are released by diffusion as soon as they are formed, from arginine (Arg) and arachidonic acid (AA), respectively, through the action of Ca^{2+}-activated enzymes, nitric oxide synthase (NOS) and phospholipase A2 (PLA_2) (see Chs 17 and 20 for more details).

[4]Carrier-mediated release can also occur with neurotransmitters that

are stored in vesicles but is quantitatively less significant than exocytosis (see Ch. 13).

Calcium ions play a key role in both cases, because a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ initiates exocytosis and is also the main activator of the enzymes responsible for the synthesis of diffusible mediators.

In addition to mediators that are released from cells, some are formed from precursors in the plasma, two important examples being *kinins* (Ch. 17) and *angiotensin* (Ch. 22), which are peptides produced by protease-mediated cleavage of circulating proteins.

Exocytosis

Exocytosis, occurring in response to an increase of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, is the principal mechanism of transmitter release (see Fig. 4.11) in the peripheral and central nervous systems, as well as in endocrine cells and mast cells. The secretion of enzymes and other proteins by gastrointestinal and exocrine glands and by vascular endothelial cells is also basically similar. Exocytosis (see Burgoyne & Morgan, 2002) involves fusion between the membrane of synaptic vesicles and the inner surface of the plasma membrane. The vesicles are preloaded with stored transmitter, and release occurs in discrete packets, or quanta, each representing the contents of a single vesicle. The first evidence for this (see Nicholls et al., 2000) came from the work of Katz and his colleagues in the 1950s, who recorded spontaneous ‘miniature endplate potentials’ at the frog neuromuscular junction, and showed that each resulted from the spontaneous release of a packet of the transmitter, acetylcholine. They also showed that release evoked by nerve stimulation occurred by the synchronous release of several hundred such quanta, and was highly dependent on the presence of Ca^{2+} in the bathing solution. Unequivocal evidence that the quanta represented vesicles releasing their contents by

exocytosis came from electron microscopic studies, in which the tissue was rapidly frozen in mid-release, revealing vesicles in the process of extrusion, and from elegant electrophysiological measurements showing that membrane capacitance (reflecting the area of the presynaptic membrane) increased in a stepwise way as each vesicle fused, and then gradually returned as the vesicle membrane was recovered from the surface. There is also biochemical evidence showing that, in addition to the transmitter, other constituents of the vesicles are released at the same time.

▼ In nerve terminals specialised for fast synaptic transmission, Ca^{2+} enters through voltage-gated calcium channels, mainly of the N and P type (see above), and the synaptic vesicles are 'docked' at active zones—specialised regions of the presynaptic membrane from which exocytosis occurs, situated close to the relevant calcium channels and opposite receptor-rich zones of the postsynaptic membrane (see Stanley, 1997). Elsewhere, where speed is less critical, Ca^{2+} may come from intracellular stores as described above, and the spatial organisation of active zones is less clear. It is common for secretory cells, including neurons, to release more than one mediator (for example, a 'fast' transmitter such as glutamate and a 'slow' transmitter such as a neuropeptide) from different vesicle pools (see Ch. 12). The fast transmitter vesicles are located close to active zones, while the slow transmitter vesicles are further away. Release of the fast transmitter, because of the tight spatial organisation, occurs as soon as the neighbouring calcium channels open, before the Ca^{2+} has a chance to diffuse throughout the terminal, whereas release of the slow transmitter requires the Ca^{2+} to diffuse more widely. As a result, release of fast transmitters occurs impulse by impulse, even at low stimulation frequencies, whereas release of slow transmitters builds up only at

higher stimulation frequencies. The release rates of the two therefore depend critically on the frequency and patterning of firing of the presynaptic neuron (Fig. 4.12). In non-excitable cells (e.g. most exocrine and endocrine glands), the slow mechanism predominates and is activated mainly by Ca^{2+} release from intracellular stores.

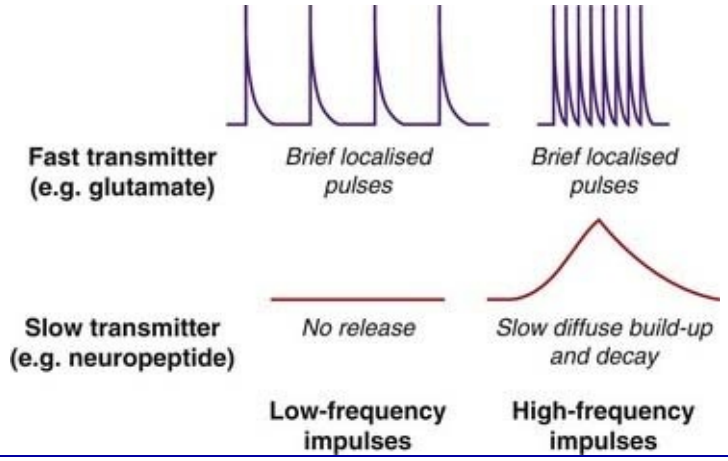


Fig. 4.12 Time course and frequency dependence of the release of 'fast' and 'slow' transmitters.

Fast transmitters (e.g. glutamate) are stored in synaptic vesicles that are 'docked' close to voltage-gated calcium channels in the membrane of the nerve terminal, and are released in a short burst when the membrane is depolarised (e.g. by an action potential). Slow transmitters (e.g. neuropeptides) are stored in separate vesicles further from the membrane. Release is slower, because they must first migrate to the membrane, and occurs only when $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ builds up sufficiently.

Calcium causes exocytosis by binding to the vesicle-bound protein *synaptotagmin*, and this favours association between a second vesicle-bound protein, *synaptobrevin*, and a related protein, *synaptotaxin*, on the inner surface of the plasma membrane. This association brings the vesicle membrane into close apposition with the plasma membrane, causing membrane fusion. This group of proteins, known collectively as SNAREs, plays a key role in exocytosis.

Having undergone exocytosis, the empty vesicle[5] is recaptured by

endocytosis and returns to the interior of the terminal, where it fuses with the larger endosomal membrane. The endosome buds off new vesicles, which take up transmitter from the cytosol by means of specific transport proteins and are again docked on the presynaptic membrane. This sequence, which typically takes several minutes, is controlled by various trafficking proteins associated with the plasma membrane and the vesicles, as well as cytosolic proteins. Further details about exocytosis and vesicle recycling are given by Nestler *et al.* (2008) and Südhof (2004). So far, there are few examples of drugs that affect transmitter release by interacting with synaptic proteins, although the botulinum neurotoxins (see Ch. 13) produce their effects by proteolytic cleavage of SNARE proteins.

[5]The vesicle contents may not always discharge completely. Instead, vesicles may fuse transiently with the cell membrane and release only part of their contents (see Burgoyne & Morgan, 2002) before becoming disconnected (termed *kiss-and-run exocytosis*).

Non-Vesicular Release Mechanisms

If this neat and tidy picture of transmitter packets ready and waiting to pop obediently out of the cell in response to a puff of Ca^{2+} seems a little too good to be true, rest assured that the picture is not quite so simple. Acetylcholine, noradrenaline (norepinephrine) and other mediators can leak out of nerve endings from the cytosolic compartment, independently of vesicle fusion, by utilising carriers in the plasma membrane (Fig. 4.11). Drugs such as amphetamines, which release amines from central and peripheral nerve terminals (see Chs 14 and 38), do so by displacing the endogenous amine from storage vesicles into the cytosol, whence it escapes via the monoamine transporter in the plasma membrane, a mechanism that does not depend on Ca^{2+}.

Nitric oxide (see Ch. 20) and arachidonic acid metabolites (e.g. prostaglandins; Ch. 17) are two important examples of mediators that are released by diffusion across the membrane or by carrier-mediated extrusion, rather than by exocytosis. The mediators are not stored but escape from the cell as soon as they are synthesised. In both cases, the synthetic enzyme is activated by Ca^{2+}, and the moment-to-moment control of the rate of synthesis depends on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. This kind of release is necessarily slower than the classic exocytotic mechanism, but in the case of nitric oxide is fast enough for it to function as a true transmitter (see Ch. 20).

Mediator release

• Most chemical mediators are packaged into storage vesicles and released by exocytosis. Some are synthesised on demand and released by diffusion or the operation of membrane carriers.

• Exocytosis occurs in response to increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ as a result of a Ca^{2+}-mediated interaction between proteins of the synaptic vesicle and the plasma membrane, causing the membranes to fuse.

• After releasing their contents, vesicles are recycled and reloaded with transmitter.

• Many secretory cells contain more than one type of vesicle, loaded with different mediators and secreted independently.

• Stored mediators (e.g. neurotransmitters) may be released directly from the cytosol independently of Ca^{2+} and exocytosis by drugs that interact with membrane transport mechanisms.

• Non-stored mediators, such as prostanoids and nitric oxide, are released by increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, which activates the enzymes responsible for their synthesis.

Epithelial Ion Transport

Fluid-secreting epithelia include the renal tubule, salivary glands, gastrointestinal tract and airways epithelia. In each case, epithelial cells are arranged in sheets separating the interior (blood-perfused) compartment from the exterior lumen compartment, into which, or from which, secretion takes place. Fluid secretion involves two main mechanisms, which often coexist in the same cell and indeed interact with each other. Greger (2000) and Ashcroft (2000) give more detailed accounts. The two mechanisms (Fig. 4.13) are concerned, respectively, with Na^+ transport and Cl^- transport.

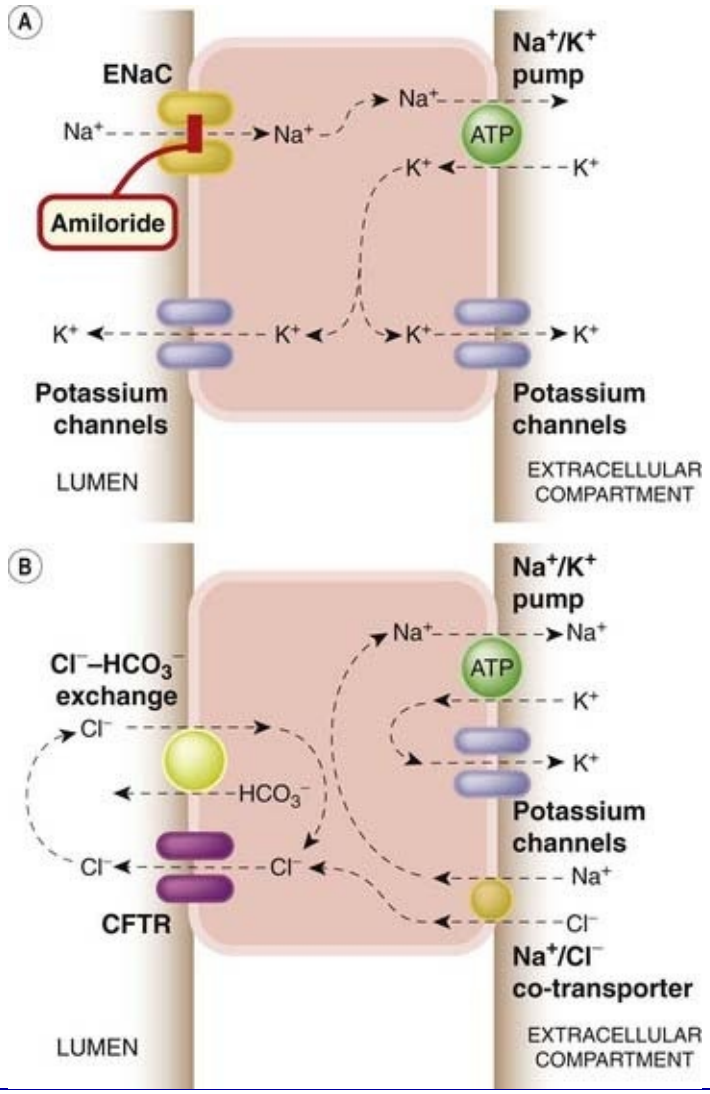


Fig. 4.13 Mechanisms of epithelial ion transport.

Such mechanisms are important in renal tubules (see Ch. 28 for more details) and also in many other situations, such as the gastrointestinal and respiratory tracts. [**A**] Sodium transport. A special type of epithelial sodium channel (ENaC) controls entry of Na^+ into the cell from the lumenal surface, the Na^+ being actively pumped out at the apical surface by the Na^+–K^+ exchange pump. K^+ moves passively via potassium channels. [**B**] Chloride transport. Cl^- leaves the cell via a special membrane channel, the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR), after entering the cell either from the apical surface via the Na^+/Cl^- co-transporter, or at the lumenal surface via the $Cl^-/HCO3^-$ co-transporter.

In the case of Na^+ transport, secretion occurs because Na^+ enters the cell passively at one end and is pumped out actively at the other, with

water following passively. Critical to this mechanism is a class of highly regulated epithelial sodium channels (ENaCs) that allow Na^+ entry.

Epithelial sodium channels (see De la Rosa et al., 2000) are widely expressed, not only in epithelial cells but also in neurons and other excitable cells, where their function is largely unknown. They are regulated mainly by **aldosterone**, a hormone produced by the adrenal cortex that enhances Na^+ reabsorption by the kidney (Ch. 28). Aldosterone, like other steroid hormones, exerts its effects by regulating gene expression (see Ch. 3), and causes an increase in ENaC expression, thereby increasing the rate of Na^+ and fluid transport. ENaCs are selectively blocked by certain diuretic drugs, notably **amiloride** (see Ch. 28), a compound that is widely used to study the functioning of ENaCs in other situations.

Chloride transport is particularly important in the airways and gastrointestinal tract. In the airways, it is essential for fluid secretion, whereas in the colon it mediates fluid reabsorption, the difference being due to the different arrangement of various transporters and channels with respect to the polarity of the cells. The simplified diagram in Figure 4.13B represents the situation in the pancreas, where secretion depends on Cl^- transport. The key molecule in Cl^- transport is the *cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator* (CFTR; see Hwang & Sheppard, 1999), so named because early studies on the inherited disorder cystic fibrosis showed it to be associated with impaired Cl^- conductance in the membrane of secretory epithelial cells, and the CFTR gene, identified through painstaking genetic linkage studies and isolated in 1989, was found to encode a Cl^--conducting ion channel. Severe physiological consequences follow from the impairment of secretion, particularly in the airways but also in many other systems, such as sweat glands and pancreas. Studies on the disease-associated mutations of the CFTR gene

have revealed much about the molecular mechanisms involved in Cl^- transport, but as yet no significant therapeutic advance. So far, no drugs are known that interact specifically with CFTRs.

Both Na^+ and Cl^- transport are regulated by intracellular messengers, notably by Ca^{2+} and cAMP, the latter exerting its effects by activating protein kinases and thereby causing phosphorylation of channels and transporters. CFTR itself is activated by cAMP. In the gastrointestinal tract, increased cAMP formation causes a large increase in the rate of fluid secretion, an effect that leads to the copious diarrhoea produced by cholera infection (see Ch. 3) and also by inflammatory conditions in which prostaglandin formation is increased (see Ch. 17). Activation of G-protein-coupled receptors, which cause release of Ca^{2+}, also stimulates secretion, possibly also by activating CFTR. Many examples of therapeutic drugs that affect epithelial secretion by activating or blocking G-protein-coupled receptors appear in later chapters.

Epithelial ion transport

• Many epithelia (e.g. renal tubules, exocrine glands and airways) are specialised to transport specific ions.

• This type of transport depends on a special class of epithelial sodium channels (ENaCs) which allow Na^+ entry into the cell at one surface, coupled to active extrusion of Na^+, or exchange for another ion, from the opposite surface.

• Anion transport depends on a specific chloride channel (the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator), mutations of which result in cystic fibrosis.

• The activity of channels, pumps and exchange transporters is regulated by various second messengers and nuclear receptors, which control the transport of ions in specific ways.

References and Further Reading

General references

atz B. *Nerve, muscle and synapse*. New York: McGraw Hill; 1966. (*A classic account of the ground-breaking electrophysiological experiments that established the basis of nerve and muscle function*)

evitan I.B., Kaczmarek L.K. *The neuron: cell and molecular biology*, third ed. New York: Oxford University Press; 2002. (*Useful textbook covering ion channels and synaptic mechanisms as well as other aspects of neuronal function*)

estler E.J., Hyman S.E., Malenka R.C. *Molecular neuropharmacology*, second ed. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2008. (*Excellent modern textbook*)

icholls J.G., Fuchs P.A., Martin A.R., Wallace B.G. *From neuron to brain*. Sunderland: Sinauer Associates; 2001. (*Excellent, well-written textbook of neuroscience*)

Second messengers and calcium regulation

erridge M.J. Elementary and global aspects of calcium signalling J. Physiol.499:1997:291-306 (*Review of Ca^{2+} signalling, emphasising the various intracellular mechanisms that produce spatial and temporal patterning—'sparks', 'waves', etc.*)

erridge M.J. Inositol trisphosphate and calcium signalling mechanisms. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta. Mol. Cell Res.*. 2009;1793:933-940. (*Clear and readable up-to-date account of the mechanisms and versatility of calcium signalling*)

erridge M.J., Bootman M.D., Roderick H.L. Calcium signalling: dynamics, homeostasis and remodelling. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2003;4:517-529.

lapham D.E. Calcium signalling. *Cell*. 2007;131:1047-1056. (*Excellent, readable and well-illustrated short review article—recommended*)

liegert R., Gasser A., Guse A.H. Regulation of calcium signalling by adenine-based second messengers. *Biochem. Soc. Trans.*. 2007;35:109-114. (*Summary of second messenger role of cADPR and NAADP*)

likoshiba K. IP_3 receptor/Ca^{2+} channel: from discovery to new signaling concepts J.

Neurochem. 102:2007:1426-1446 (*Interesting account of the discovery of the IP3 receptor and its functional role*)

Excitation and ion channels

shcroft F.M. *Ion channels and disease*. San Diego: Academic Press; 2000. (*A very useful textbook that describes the physiology of different kinds of ion channels, and relates it to their molecular structure; the book emphasises the importance of 'channelopathies', genetic channel defects associated with disease states*)

shcroft F.M. From molecule to malady. *Nature*. 2006;440:440-447. (*Brief summary and update of the above account of channelopathies*)

atterall W.A. From ionic currents to molecular mechanisms: the structure and function of voltage-gated sodium channels. *Neuron*. 2000;26:13-25. (*Useful, authoritative review article*)

e la Rosa D.A., Canessa C.M., Fyfe G.K., Zhang P. Structure and regulation of amiloride-sensitive sodium channels. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*. 2000;62:573-594. (*General review on the nature and function of 'epithelial' sodium channels*)

oldstein S.A.N., Bockenhauer D., Zilberberg N. Potassium leak channels and the KCNK family of two-P-domain subunits. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2001;2:175-184. (*Review on this important class of potassium channels*)

ille B. *Ionic channels of excitable membranes*. Sunderland: Sinauer Associates; 2001. (*A clear and detailed account of the basic principles of ion channels, with emphasis on their biophysical properties*)

enkinson D.H. Potassium channels—multiplicity and challenges Br. J. Pharmacol. 147 Suppl. 2006:63-71 (*Useful short article on the many types of K^+ channel*)

eimann F., Ashcroft F.M. Inwardly rectifying potassium channels. *Curr. Opin. Cell. Biol.*. 1999;11:503-508. (*Review describing the various mechanisms by which the inwardly rectifying potassium channels are modulated*)

hieh C.-C., Coghlan M., Sullivan J.P., Gopalakrishnan M. Potassium channels: molecular defects, diseases and therapeutic opportunities. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2000;52:557-593. (*Comprehensive*

review of potassium channel pathophysiology and pharmacology)

Muscle contraction

erridge M.J. Smooth muscle cell calcium activation mechanisms. *J. Physiol.*. 2008;586:5047-5061. (*Excellent review article describing the various mechanisms by which calcium signals control activity in different types of smooth muscle—complicated but clear*)

ers D.M. Cardiac excitation–contraction coupling. *Nature*. 2002;415:198-205. (*Short, well-illustrated review article*)

riori S.G., Napolitano C. Cardiac and skeletal muscle disorders caused by mutations in the intracellular Ca^{2+} release channels. *J. Clin. Invest.*. 2005;115:2033-2038. (*Focuses on RyR mutations in various inherited diseases*)

Secretion and exocytosis

urgoyne R.D., Morgan A. Secretory granule exocytosis. *Physiol. Rev.*. 2002;83:581-632. (*Comprehensive review of the molecular machinery responsible for secretory exocytosis*)

reger R. The role of CFTR in the colon. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*. 2000;62:467-491. (*A useful résumé of information about CFTR and epithelial secretion, more general than its title suggests*)

:wang T.-C., Sheppard D.N. Molecular pharmacology of the CFTR channel. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1999;20:448-453. (*Description of approaches aimed at finding therapeutic drugs aimed at altering the function of the CFTR channel*)

tanley E.E. The calcium channel and the organization of the presynaptic transmitter release face. *Trends Neurosci.*. 1997;20:404-409. (*Discusses the microphysiology of vesicular release*)

üdhof T.C. The synaptic vesicle cycle. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2004;27:509-547. (*Summarises the mechanism of vesicular release at the molecular level*)

5

Cell proliferation, apoptosis, repair and regeneration

Overview

This chapter deals with cell proliferation, apoptosis, repair and regeneration and how these relate to the actions of drugs dealt with in this book. About 10 billion new cells are manufactured in the body daily through cell division—an output that must be counterbalanced by the elimination of a similar number of cells. We deal first with the changes that occur within an individual cell when, after stimulation by growth factors, it gears up to divide into two daughter cells. We then consider the interaction of cells, growth factors and the extracellular matrix in cell proliferation. We describe the phenomenon of apoptosis (the programmed series of events that lead to cell death), outlining the changes that occur in a cell that is preparing to die, and the intracellular pathways that lead to its demise. We consider how these processes relate to the repair of damaged tissue and the possibility of its regeneration. Lastly, we consider the pathophysiological significance of these events, and implications for the potential development of clinically useful drugs.

Cell Proliferation

Cell proliferation is involved in many physiological and pathological processes including growth, healing, repair, hypertrophy, hyperplasia

and the development of tumours. *Angiogenesis* (the development of new blood vessels) necessarily occurs during many of these processes.

Proliferating cells go through what is termed the cell cycle, during which the cell replicates all its components and then bisects itself into two identical daughter cells. Important components of the signalling pathways in proliferating cells are receptor tyrosine kinases or receptor-linked kinases, and the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAP kinase) cascade (see Ch. 3). In all cases, the pathways eventually lead to transcription of the genes that control the cell cycle.

The Cell Cycle

The cell cycle is an ordered series of events consisting of several sequential phases (Fig. 5.1). These are:

- G_1: preparation for DNA synthesis
- S: DNA synthesis and chromosome duplication
- G_2: preparation for division
- mitosis (M): division into two daughter cells.

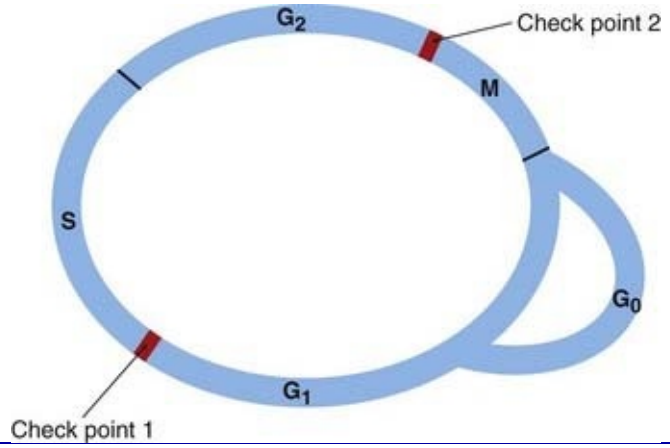


Fig. 5.1 The main phases of the cell cycle of dividing cells.

In cells that are dividing continuously, G_1, S and G_2 comprise *interphase*—the phase between one mitosis and the next.

Cell division requires the controlled timing of two critical events of the cell cycle: S phase (DNA replication) and M phase (mitosis). Entry into each of these phases is closely regulated, and there are two 'check points' (restriction points) in the cycle at the start of S and M, respectively. DNA damage results in the cycle being stopped at one or other of these. The integrity of the check points is critical for the maintenance of genetic stability and failure of the check points to stop the cycle when it is appropriate to do so is a hallmark of cancer.

In the adult, most cells do not constantly divide; most spend a varying amount of time in a quiescent phase outside the cycle in the phase termed G_0 (Fig. 5.1). Neurons and skeletal muscle cells spend all their lifetime in G_0; bone marrow cells and the lining cells of the gastrointestinal tract divide daily.

Quiescent cells can be activated into G_1 by chemical stimuli associated with damage; for example, a quiescent skin cell can be stimulated by a wound into dividing and repairing the lesion. The impetus for a cell to start off on the cell cycle (i.e. to move from G_0 into G_1) can be provided by several stimuli, the most important being *growth factors* acting on growth factor receptors, though the action of ligands on G-protein-coupled receptors (see Ch. 3) can also stimulate the cell to embark on the cell cycle.

Growth factors stimulate the production of signals of two types:

1 Positive regulators of the cell cycle that control the changes necessary for cell division.

2 Negative regulators that control the positive regulators.

The maintenance of normal cell numbers in tissues and organs requires that there be a balance between the positive regulatory forces and the negative regulatory forces. Apoptosis also has a role in the control of cell numbers (see below).

Positive Regulators of the Cell Cycle

The cycle starts when a growth factor acts on a quiescent cell, provoking it to divide. Growth factors stimulate production of the cell cycle regulators, which are coded for by the delayed response genes.

Two families of proteins, *cyclins* and *cyclin-dependent kinases* (cdks), control progress through the cycle. The cdks, functioning sequentially, phosphorylate various proteins (e.g. enzymes)—activating some and inhibiting others—to coordinate their activities.

Each cdk is inactive until it binds to a cyclin, the binding enabling the cdk to phosphorylate the protein(s) necessary for a particular step in the cycle. It is the cyclin that determines which protein(s) is phosphorylated. After the phosphorylation event has taken place, the cyclin is degraded (Fig. 5.2) by the ubiquitin/protease system. This involves several enzymes acting sequentially to add small molecules of ubiquitin to the cyclin, with the resulting ubiquitin polymer acting as an 'address label' that directs the cyclin to the proteasome where it is degraded.

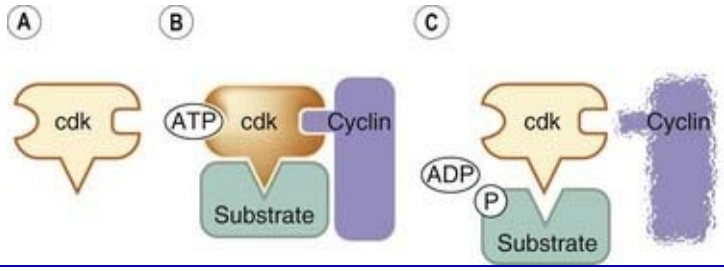


Fig. 5.2 Schematic representation of the activation of a cyclin-dependent kinase (cdk).
[**A**] An inactive cdk. [**B**] The inactive cdk is activated by being bound to a cyclin; it can now phosphorylate a protein substrate (e.g. an enzyme). [**C**] After the phosphorylating event, the cyclin is degraded.

There are eight main groups of cyclins. Those important in the control of the cell cycle are cyclins A, B, D and E. Each cyclin is associated with and activates a particular cdk. Cyclin A activates cdks 1 and 2; cyclin B, cdk 1; cyclin D, cdks 4 and 6; and cyclin E, cdk 2. Precise timing of each activity is essential, and many cycle proteins are degraded after they have carried out their functions. The actions of the cyclin/cdk complexes in the cell cycle are depicted in Figure 5.3.

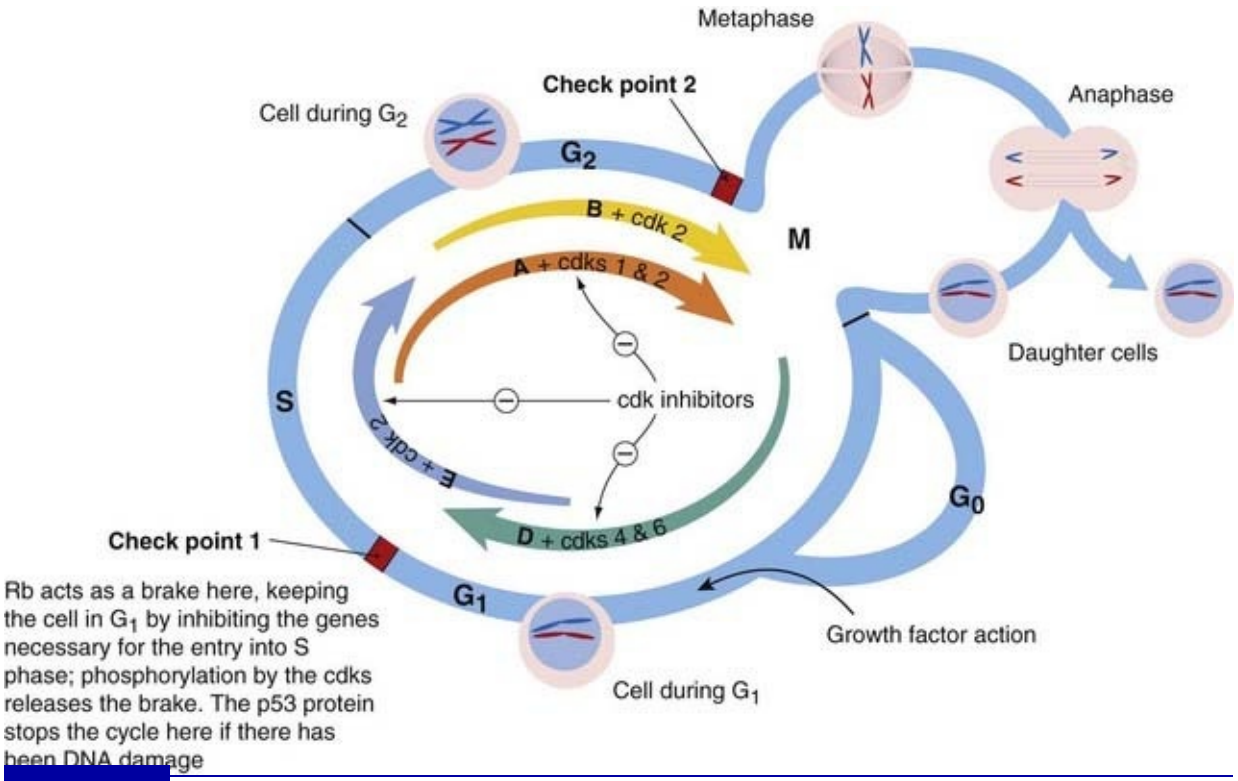


Fig. 5.3 Schematic diagram of the cell cycle, showing the role of the cyclin/cyclin-dependent kinase (cdk) complexes.

The processes outlined in the cycle occur inside a cell such as the one shown in Figure 5.4. A quiescent cell (in G_0 phase), when stimulated to divide by growth factors, is propelled into G_1 phase and prepares for DNA synthesis. Progress through the cycle is determined by sequential action of the cyclin/cdk complexes—depicted here by coloured arrows, the arrows being given the names of the relevant cyclins: D, E, A and B. The cdks are given next to the relevant cyclins. The thickness of each arrow represents the intensity of action of the cdk at that point in the cycle. The activity of the cdks is regulated by cdk inhibitors. If there is DNA damage, the products of the tumour suppressor gene *p53* stop the cycle at check point 1, allowing for repair. If repair fails, apoptosis (see Fig. 5.5) is initiated. The state of the chromosomes is shown

schematically in each G phase—as a single pair in G_1, and each duplicated and forming two daughter chromatids in G_2. Some changes that occur during mitosis (metaphase, anaphase) are shown in a subsidiary circle. After the mitotic division, the daughter cells may enter G_1 or G_0 phase. Rb, retinoblastoma gene.

The activity of these cyclin/cdk complexes is modulated by various negative regulatory forces (considered below), most of which act at one or other of the two check points.

In quiescent G_0 cells, cyclin D is present in low concentration, and an important regulatory protein—the *Rb protein*[1]—is hypophosphorylated. Hypophosphorylated Rb holds the cell cycle in check at check point 1 by inhibiting the expression of several proteins critical for cell cycle progression. The Rb protein accomplishes this by binding to transcription factors, which control the expression of the genes that code for cyclins E and A, for DNA polymerase, for thymidine kinase, for dihydrofolate reductase, etc.—all essential for DNA replication during S phase.

[1]So named because mutations of the Rb gene are associated with retinoblastoma tumours.

Growth factor action on a cell in G_0 propels it into G_1, the phase in which the cell is preparing for S phase by synthesising the messenger RNAs and proteins needed for DNA replication.

During G_1, the concentration of cyclin D increases and the cyclin D/cdk complex phosphorylates and activates the necessary proteins.

In mid-G_1, the cyclin D/cdk complex phosphorylates the Rb protein, releasing a transcription factor that activates the genes for the components essential for the next phase—DNA synthesis.The action of the cyclin E/cdk complex is necessary for transition from G_1 to S phase, *i.e.* past check point 1.

Once past check point 1, into the S-phase, the processes that have been set in motion cannot be reversed, and the cell is committed to continue with DNA replication and mitosis. Cyclin E/cdk and cyclin A/cdk regulate progress through S phase, phosphorylating and thus activating proteins/enzymes involved in DNA synthesis.

In G_2 phase, the cell, which now has double the number of chromosomes, must duplicate all other cellular components for allocation to the two daughter cells. Synthesis of the necessary messenger RNAs and proteins occurs.

Cyclin A/cdk and cyclin B/cdk complexes are active during G_2 phase and are necessary for entry into M phase, *i.e.* for passing check point 2. The presence of cyclin B/cdk complexes in the nucleus is required for mitosis to commence.

Mitosis occurs in four stages:

• *Prophase*. The duplicated chromosomes (which have up to this point formed a tangled mass filling the nucleus) condense, each now consisting of two daughter chromatids (the original chromosome and a copy). These are released into the cytoplasm as the nuclear membrane disintegrates.

• *Metaphase*. The chromosomes are aligned at the equator (see Fig. 5.3).

• *Anaphase*. A specialised device, the mitotic apparatus, captures the chromosomes and draws them to opposite poles of the dividing cell (see Fig. 5.3).

• *Telophase*. A nuclear membrane forms round each set of chromosomes. Finally, the cytoplasm divides between the two forming daughter cells. Each daughter cell will be in G_0 phase and will remain there unless stimulated into G_1 phase as described above.

During metaphase, the cyclin A and B complexes phosphorylate cytoskeletal proteins, histones and possibly components of the spindle (the microtubules along which the chromatids are pulled during metaphase).

Negative Regulators of the Cell Cycle

One of the main negative regulators is the Rb protein (see above) that—while it is hypophosphorylated—holds the cycle in check. Inhibitors of the cdks also serve as negative regulators, their main action being at check point 1.

There are two families of inhibitors:

1 The *CIP family* (cdk inhibitory proteins, also termed KIP or kinase inhibitory proteins)—proteins p21, p27 and p57.

2 The *Ink family* (inhibitors of kinases)—proteins p16, p19 and p15.

The action of p21 serves as an example of the role of a cyclin/cdk inhibitor. Protein p21 is under the control of the p53 gene—a particularly important negative regulator which is relevant in carcinogenesis—that operates at check point 1.

Inhibition of the cycle at check point 1

The p53 gene has been called the 'guardian of the genome'. It codes for a transcription factor—the p53 protein. In normal healthy cells, the steady-state concentration of the p53 protein is low. But when there is DNA damage, the protein accumulates and activates the transcription of several genes, one of which codes for p21. Protein p21 inactivates cyclin/cdk complexes, thus preventing Rb phosphorylation, which means that the cycle is arrested at check point 1. This allows for DNA repair. If the repair is successful, the cycle proceeds past check point 1 into S phase. If the repair is unsuccessful, the p53 gene triggers apoptosis—cell

suicide (see below).

Inhibition of the cycle at check point 2

DNA damage can result in the cycle being stopped at check point 2, but the mechanisms involved are poorly understood. Inhibition of the accumulation of cyclin B/cdk complex in the nucleus seems to be a factor.

For more detail on the control of the cell cycle, see under *MicroRNAs* (below) and Swanton (2004).

The cell cycle

• The term *cell cycle* refers to the sequence of events that take place within a cell as it tools up for division.

• The phases of the cell cycle are:

– G_1: preparation for DNA synthesis

– S: DNA synthesis

– G_2: preparation for division

– mitosis: division into two daughter cells.

• Growth factor action stimulates a quiescent cell—said to be in G_0—to divide, *i.e.* to start on G_1 phase.

• In G_0 phase, a hypophosphorylated protein, coded for by the Rb gene, holds the cycle in check by inhibiting expression of critical factors necessary for DNA replication.

• Progress through the cycle is controlled by specific kinases (cyclin-dependent kinases; cdks) that are activated by binding to proteins termed cyclins.

• Four main cyclin/cdk complexes involving cyclins D, E, A and B drive the cycle; the first complex, cyclin D/cdk, releases the Rb protein-mediated inhibition.

• Various families of proteins act as cdk inhibitors. Important is protein p21, which is expressed when DNA damage causes transcription of gene p53. The p21 protein stops the cycle at check point 1.

Interactions between Cells, Growth Factors and the Extracellular Matrix

During cell proliferation, there is integrated interplay between growth factors, cells, the *extracellular matrix* (ECM), and the *matrix metalloproteinases* (MMPs, see below). The ECM supplies the supporting framework for the cells and is secreted by the cells themselves. It also profoundly influences cell behaviour through the cell's *integrins* (see below). Matrix expression is regulated by the action on the cell of growth factors and cytokines (see Verrecchia & Mauviel, 2007; Järveläinen et al., 2009). The activation status of some growth factors is, in turn, determined by the matrix, because they are sequestered by interaction with matrix components and released by enzymes (e.g. MMPs) secreted by the cells.

The action of growth factors—which act through receptor tyrosine kinases or receptor-coupled kinases (see Ch. 3) initiating the cell cycle—is a fundamental part of these processes. There are numerous growth factors, important examples being *fibroblast growth factor* (FGF), *epidermal growth factor* (EGF), *platelet-dependent growth factor* (PDGF), *vascular endothelial growth factor* (VEGF) and *transforming growth factor* (TGF)-β.

The main components of the extracellular matrix are:

• Fibre-forming elements, *eg. collagen species* (the main proteins of the matrix), and *elastin*.

• Non-fibre-forming, *e.g.* proteoglycans, glucoproteins and adhesive

proteins (e.g. *fibronectin*). Proteoglycans have a growth-regulating role, in part by functioning as a reservoir of sequestrated growth factors (as specified above). Some proteoglycans are associated with the cell surface, where they help to bind cells to the matrix. Adhesive proteins link the various elements of the matrix together, and also form links between the cells and the matrix through integrins on the cells (see below).

Other proteins in the ECM are *thrombospondin* (Ch. 24) and *osteopontin* (Ch. 35) which are not structural elements but modulate cell–matrix interactions and repair processes. The production of the ECM components is regulated by growth factors, particularly transforming growth factor-β (TGF-β).

▼ Until recently, the importance of the ECM in drug action has been overlooked. Both beneficial and adverse effects of some drugs are due to effects on the ECM. Thus glucocorticoids decrease collagen synthesis in chronic inflammation, cyclo-oxygenase (COX)-2 inhibitors can modify fibrotic processes through a proposed action on TGF-β and statins can decrease fibrosis by inhibiting angiotensin-induced connective tissue growth factor production (Rupérez et al., 2007). The action of statins (see Ch. 23) in reducing circulating MMPs and decreasing MMP expression may contribute to their effects in cardiovascular diseases (Tousoulis et al., 2009). The adverse actions of some drugs attributable to an effect on the ECM include the osteoporosis and skin thinning caused by glucocortoicoids (discussed in Järveläinen et al., 2009). The ECM is also an important target in the search for new drugs.

The Role of Integrins

▼ Integrins are transmembrane kinase-linked receptors (see Ch. 3), with α and β subunits that on interaction with the ECM elements outside the

cell (e.g. fibronectin) mediate various cell responses, such as cytoskeletal rearrangement (not considered here) and co-regulation of growth factor function. Intracellular signalling by both growth factor receptors and integrins is important for optimal cell proliferation (Fig. 5.4). Integrin stimulation activates an intracellular transduction pathway, which, through an adapter protein and an enzyme (*focal adhesion kinase*), can activate the kinase cascade that forms part of the growth factor signalling pathway. Cross-talk between the integrin and growth factor pathways occurs by several other means as well (Streuli & Akhtar, 2009). Autophosphorylation of growth factor receptors (Ch. 3) is enhanced by integrin activation, and integrin-mediated adhesion to the extracellular matrix (Fig. 5.4) not only suppresses the concentrations of cdk inhibitors, but is required for the expression of cyclins A and D, and therefore for the progression of the cell cycle. Furthermore, integrin action stimulates apoptosis-inhibiting signals (see below), further facilitating growth factor action. See reviews by Gamberg et al., 2009 and Barczyk et al., 2010.

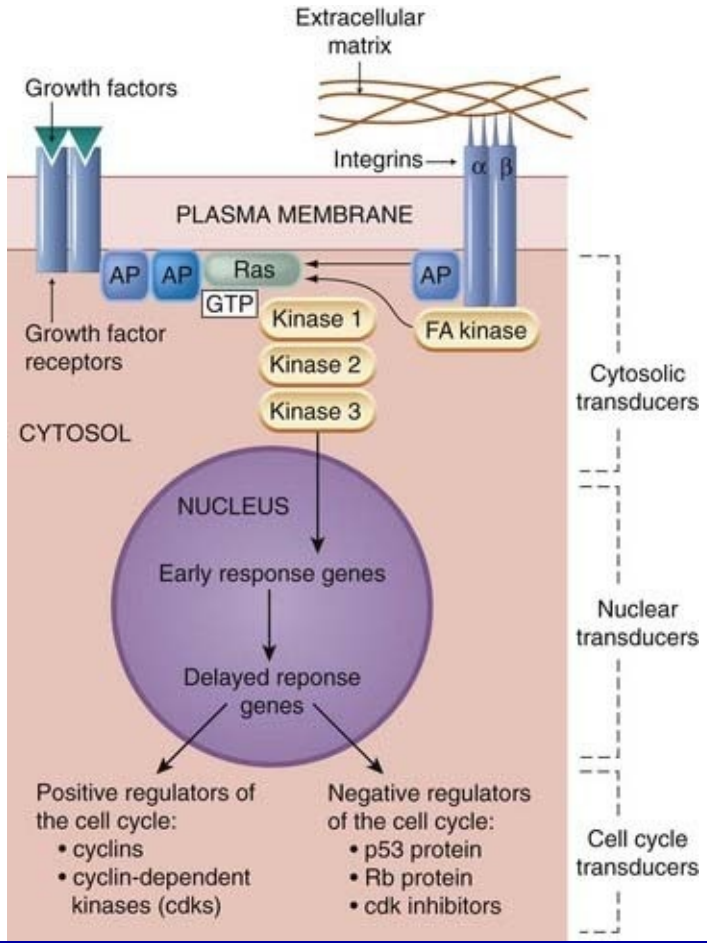


Fig. 5.4 Simplified diagram of the effect of growth factors on a cell in G_0.

The overall effect of growth factor action is the generation of the cell cycle transducers. A cell such as the one depicted will then embark on G_1 phase of the cell cycle. Most growth factor receptors have integral tyrosine kinase (see Fig. 3.15). These receptors dimerise (form pairs), then phosphorylate each other's tyrosine residues. The early cytosolic transducers include proteins that bind to the phosphorylated tyrosine residues. Optimum effect requires cooperation with integrin action. Integrins (which have α and β subunits) connect the extracellular matrix with intracellular signalling pathways and also with the cell's cytoskeleton (not shown here). G-protein-coupled receptors can also stimulate cell proliferation, because their intracellular pathways can connect with the Ras/kinase cascade (not shown). AP, adapter protein; FA kinase, focal adhesion kinase; Rb, retinoblastoma.

Several recently-introduced monoclonal antibodies are targeted at integrins, including **natalizumab**, used for multiple sclerosis (Baker & Hagg, 2007) and **abciximab**, an antithrombotic (Ch. 24).

The Role of Matrix Metalloproteinases

▼ Degradation of the extracellular matrix by metalloproteinases is necessary during the growth, repair and remodelling of tissues. These enzymes are secreted as inactive precursors by local cells. When growth factors stimulate a cell to enter the cell cycle, they also stimulate the secretion of metalloproteinases, which then sculpt the matrix—producing the local changes necessary for the resulting increase in cell numbers. Metalloproteinases in turn play a part in releasing growth factors from the matrix as described above and, in some cases (e.g. interleukin [IL]-1β), in processing them from precursor to active form.

The action of these enzymes is regulated by TIMPS (tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases), which are also secreted by local cells.

In addition to the physiological function outlined above, metalloproteinases are involved in the tissue destruction that occurs in various diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, osteoarthritis, periodontitis, macular degeneration and myocardial restenosis. They also have a critical role in the growth, invasion and metastasis of tumours, *etc.* See reviews by Clark *et al.* (2008), Skiles *et al.* (2004) and Marastoni *et al.* (2008). Much effort has gone into developing synthetic MMP inhibitors for treating cancers and inflammatory disorders, but clinical trials so far have shown limited efficacy and significant adverse effects (see Fingleton, 2008). **Doxycycline**, an antibiotic, also inhibits MMPs, and is used experimentally for this purpose.

Interactions between cells, growth factors and the matrix 

• Cells are embedded in the extracellular matrix (ECM), which is secreted by the cells themselves.

• The ECM profoundly influences the cells through the cells' integrins; it also forms a store of

growth factors by sequestering them.

• Integrins are transmembrane receptors that, on interaction with elements of the ECM, cooperate with growth factor signalling pathways (this is necessary for optimum cell division) and also mediate cytoskeletal adjustments within the cell.

• On stimulation with growth factors, cells release metalloproteinases that degrade the local matrix in preparation for the increase in cell numbers.

• Metalloproteinases release growth factors from the ECM and can activate some that are present in precursor form.

Angiogenesis

Angiogenesis, which normally accompanies cell proliferation, is the formation of new capillaries from existing small blood vessels, without which new tissues, including tumours, cannot grow. Angiogenic stimuli, in the context of cell proliferation, include the action of various growth factors and cytokines, in particular *vascular endothelial growth factor* (VEGF). The sequence of events is as follows:

1 The basement membrane is degraded locally by proteases.

2 Endothelial cells migrate out, forming a sprout.

3 Endothelial cells following the leading cells proliferate under the influence of VEGF.

4 Matrix is laid down around the new capillary.

A monoclonal antibody, **bevacizumab**, directed against VEGF, is used as adjunct treatment for various cancers (see Ch. 55), and also, by injection into the eye, to treat age-related macular degeneration, a condition in which retinal blood vessels proliferate, causing blindness.

Apoptosis and Cell Removal

Apoptosis is cell suicide by a built-in self-destruct mechanism consisting of a genetically programmed sequence of biochemical events. It is thus unlike necrosis, which is disorganised disintegration of damaged cells resulting in products that trigger the inflammatory response. For a detailed review see Aslan & Thomas (2009).

Apoptosis plays an essential role in embryogenesis, helping to shape organs during development by eliminating cells that have become redundant. It is the mechanism that each day unobtrusively removes 10 billion cells from the human body. It is involved in numerous physiological events: the shedding of the intestinal lining, the death of time-expired neutrophils and the turnover of tissues as the newborn infant grows to maturity. It is the basis for the development of self-tolerance in the immune system (Ch. 6) and acts as a first-line defence against carcinogenic mutations by purging cells with abnormal DNA that could become malignant.

Disturbed apoptosis is also implicated in the pathophysiology of many conditions. Conditions associated with excessive apoptosis include:

- chronic neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's, multiple sclerosis and Parkinson's disease (Ch. 39)
- conditions with acute tissue damage or cell loss such as myocardial infarction (Ch. 21), stroke and spinal cord injury (Ch. 39)
- depletion of T cells in HIV infection (Ch. 51)
- osteoarthritis (Ch. 35)
- haematological disease such as aplastic anaemia (Ch. 24).

Examples of defective apoptosis include:

• evasion of the immune response by cancer cells and resistance to cancer chemotherapy (Ch. 55)

• autoimmune/inflammatory diseases such as myasthenia gravis (Ch. 13), rheumatoid arthritis (Ch. 26), and bronchial asthma (Ch. 27)

• viral infections with ineffective eradication of virus-infected cells (Ch. 51).

▼ Apoptosis is particularly important in the regulation of the immune response and in the many conditions in which it is an underlying component. There is recent evidence that T cells have a negative regulatory pathway controlled by surface *programmed cell death receptors* (e.g. the PD-1 receptor), and that there is normally a balance between the stimulatory pathways triggered by antigens and this negative regulatory apoptosis-inducing pathway. The balance is important in the maintenance of peripheral tolerance. A disturbance of this balance is seen in autoimmune disease, in the 'exhaustion' of T cells in chronic viral diseases such as HIV, and possibly in tumour escape from immune destruction (Zha et al., 2004).

Apoptosis is *a default response*, *i.e.* continuous active signalling by tissue-specific trophic factors, cytokines and hormones, and cell-to-cell contact factors (adhesion molecules, integrins, etc.) may be required for cell survival and viability, and the self-destruct mechanism is automatically triggered unless it is actively and continuously inhibited by these antiapoptotic factors. Different cell types require differing sets of survival factors, which function only locally. If a cell strays or is dislodged from the area where its paracrine survival signals operate, it will die.

Withdrawal of these cell survival factors—which has been termed 'death by neglect'—is not the only pathway to apoptosis (see Fig. 5.5).

The death machinery can be activated by ligands that stimulate *death receptors* ('death by design') and by DNA damage. But it is generally accepted that cell proliferation processes and apoptosis are tightly connected (see below).

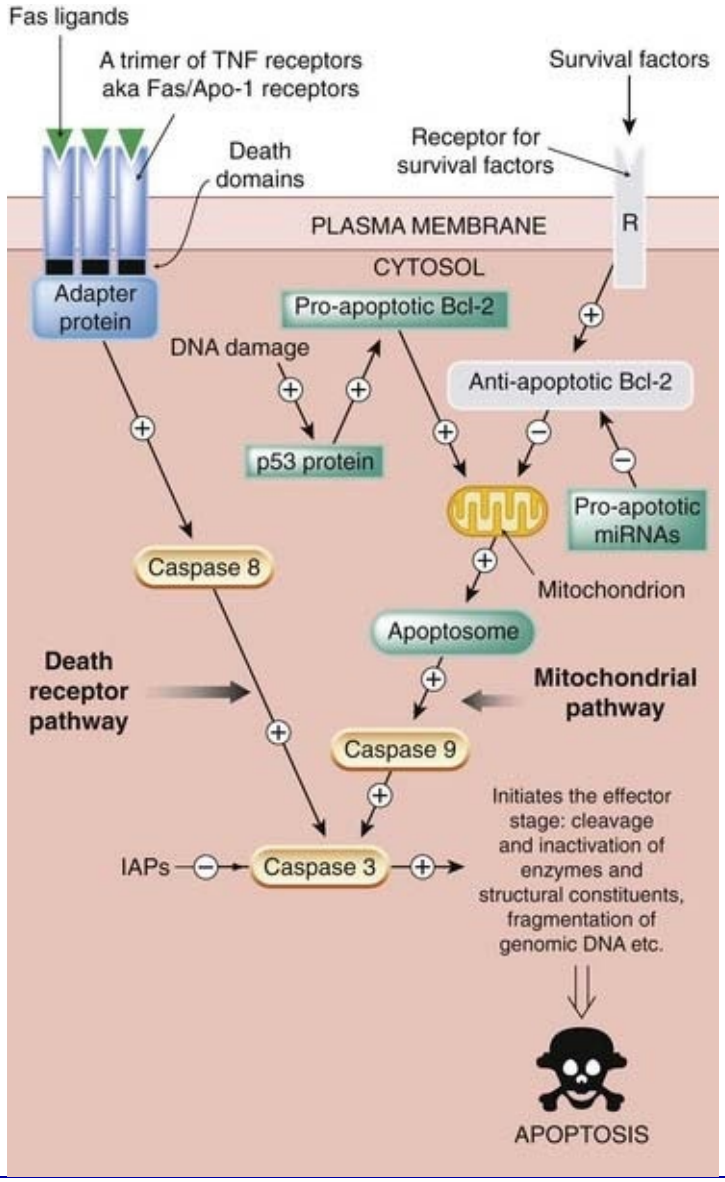


Fig. 5.5 Simplified diagram of the two main signalling pathways in apoptosis.

The death receptor pathway is activated when death receptors such as members of the tumour necrosis factor (TNF) family are stimulated by specific death ligands. This recruits adapter proteins that activate initiator caspases (e.g. caspase 8), which in turn activate effector caspases such as caspase 3. The mitochondrial pathway is activated by diverse signals, one being DNA damage. In the presence of DNA damage that cannot be repaired, the p53 protein (see text and

Figs 5.3 and 5.4) activates a subpathway that results in release of cytochrome c from the mitochondrion, with subsequent involvement of the apoptosome and activation of an initiator caspase, caspase 9. The apoptosome is a complex of procaspase 9, cytochrome c and apoptotic-activating protease factor-1 (Apaf-1). Both these pathways converge on the effector caspase (e.g. caspase 3), which brings about the demise of the cell. The survival factor subpathway normally holds apoptosis at bay by inhibiting the mitochondrion pathway through activation of the antiapoptotic factor Bcl-2. The receptor labelled 'R' represents the respective receptors for trophic factors, growth factors, cell-to-cell contact factors (adhesion molecules, integrins), *etc.* Continuous stimulation of these receptors is necessary for cell survival/proliferation. If this pathway is non-functional (as depicted here by being shown in grey), this antiapoptotic drive is withdrawn. IAP, inhibitor of apoptosis.

Morphological Changes in Apoptosis

As the cell dies it rounds up, the chromatin condenses into dense masses, the cytoplasm shrinks, there is blebbing of the plasma membrane, and finally, by the action of a family of proteolytic enzymes known as *caspases* (see below), there is transformation of the cell into a cluster of membrane-bound entities, the corpse of the cell, which display 'eat me' signals—surface exposure of phosphatidylserine, *etc.* Macrophages recognise these signals and phagocytose the remains. The fact that the remains are membrane bound is important because release of the internal cell constituents could trigger an unwanted inflammatory reaction. An additional safeguard against this is that macrophages engaged in the clearance of the cell corpses release anti-inflammatory mediators such as TGF-β and IL-10.

The Major Players in Apoptosis

The repertoire of reactions in apoptosis is extremely complex and can vary not only between species but between cell types. Yet it could be that the pivotal reaction(s) that lead to either cell survival or cell death are controlled by a single gene or combination of genes. If so, these genes could be attainable targets in the development of drugs for many

proliferative diseases. The use of gene silencing by RNA interference (RNAi) technology permits very efficient and precise block of gene expression (see Ch. 59) and is being used to identify antiapoptotic genes.

Only a simple outline of the complex apoptotic repertoire of reactions can be given here. The major players are the *caspases*—a family of cysteine proteases present in the cell in inactive form. These undertake delicate protein surgery, selectively cleaving a specific set of target proteins (enzymes, structural components), inactivating some and activating others. A cascade of about nine different caspases takes part in bringing about apoptosis, some functioning as initiators that transmit the initial apoptotic signals, and some being responsible for the final phase of cell death (Fig. 5.5).

The executioner caspases (e.g. caspase 3) cleave and inactivate cell constituents such as the DNA repair enzymes, protein kinase C, and cytoskeletal components. A DNAase is activated and cuts genomic DNA between the nucleosomes, generating DNA fragments of approximately 180 base pairs.

Besides the caspases, another pathway involves a protein termed *apoptotic initiating factor* (AIF) that is released from the mitochondria, enters the nucleus and triggers cell suicide.

Not all caspases are death-mediating enzymes; some have a role in the processing and activating of cytokines (e.g. caspase 8 is active in processing the inflammatory cytokines IL-1 and IL-18).

Pathways to Apoptosis

There are two main routes to cell death, one involving stimulation of death receptors by external ligands, and one arising within the cell and involving the mitochondria. Both these routes activate initiator caspases and both converge on a final common effector caspase pathway.

The Death Receptor Pathway

Lurking in the plasma membrane of most cell types are members of the tumour necrosis factor receptor (TNFR) superfamily (also known as Fas receptors), which function as death receptors (Fig. 5.5). Important family members are TNFR-1 and CD95 (also known as Fas ligands or Apo-1), but there are many others (e.g . PD-1, a death receptor that can be induced on activated T cells, as discussed above).

Each receptor has a 'death domain' in its cytoplasmic tail. Stimulation of the receptors by an external ligand such as tumour necrosis factor (TNF) itself or TRAIL[2] causes them to get together in threes (trimerise), and recruit an adapter protein that complexes with the trimer by associating with the death domains. The resulting complex activates caspase 8, an initiator caspase that in turn activates the effector caspases (Fig. 5.5).

[2]TRAIL is **t**umour necrosis factor-α–**r**elated **a**poptosis-**i**nducing **l**igand, of course; what else? See Janssen *et al.* (2005) for discussion of a role of TRAIL. PD-L1, a ligand for the PD-1 receptor, is found on all haemopoietic cells and many other tissues.

The Mitochondrial Pathway

This pathway can be called into action in two principal ways: by DNA damage and by withdrawal of the action of cell survival factors.

In the presence of DNA damage that cannot be repaired, the p53 protein activates a subpathway involving the p21 protein (see above) and proapoptotic members of the Bcl-2 protein family—Bid, Bax and Bak. In addition to these proapoptotic individuals, this family has antiapoptotic members (e.g. Bcl-2 itself, the first of these regulators to be discovered).[3] They meet at the surface of mitochondria and compete with each other. The proapoptotic branch of the family (e.g. Bax)

promotes release of cytochrome c from the mitochondria; the antiapoptotic branch inhibits this. The released cytochrome c complexes with a protein termed Apaf-1 (apoptotic protease-activating factor-1), and the two then combine with procaspase 9 and activate it. This latter enzyme orchestrates the effector caspase pathway. The three-party composite of cytochrome c, Apaf-1 and procaspase 9 is termed the *apoptosome* (Fig. 5.5). See Riedl & Salvesen (2007).

[3]Another brake on the cell death mechanisms is a family of caspase-inhibiting proteins called IAPs (inhibitors of apoptosis proteins).

Nitric oxide (see Ch. 20) is another mediator that can have proapoptotic and antiapoptotic actions.

In normal cells, survival factors (specified above) continuously activate antiapoptotic mechanisms, and the withdrawal of survival factors can cause death in several different ways depending on the cell type. But a common mechanism is a tipping of the balance between Bcl-2 family members leading to loss of the stimulation of antiapoptotic protein action, with resultant unopposed action of the proapoptotic Bcl-2 proteins (see Fig. 5.5).

The two main pathways to cell death are connected to each other, in that caspase 8 in the death receptor pathway can activate the proapoptotic Bcl-2 and thus activate the mitochondrial pathway.

MicroRNAs, the cell cycle and apoptosis

MicroRNAs (miRNAs), discovered only in the past decade, are a family of small non-coding RNAs present in the genomes of plants and animals and now known to inhibit the expression of genes coding for cell cycle regulation, apoptosis (Fig 5.5), cell differentiation and development (Carleton et al., 2007; Lynam-Lennon et al., 2009). About 3% of human genes encode for miRNA and it is proposed that up to 30% of human

genes coding for proteins are regulated by miRNAs. Altered miRNA expression is now believed to be linked to a variety of diseases including diabetes, obesity, Alzheimer's, cardiovascular system diseases, inflammatory conditions, neurodegenerative diseases (Barbato et al., 2009) and various cancers (Wurdinger & Costa, 2007). Dysregulation of miRNA is believed to be involved in carcinogenesis, metastasis and resitance to cancer therapies (Garzon et al., 2009). There is in fact evidence that miRNAs are also believed to function as oncogenes and/or tumour suppressor genes and to regulate T cells (Zhou et al., 2009). Not surprisingly, miRNAs are being regarded as targets for new drug development for a variety of disease states (Liu et al., 2008; Stenvang et al., 2008; Tsai & Yu, 2010).

Apoptosis

• Apoptosis is programmed cell death, essential in embryogenesis and tissue homeostasis; it is brought about principally by a cascade of proteases—the caspases. Two sets of initiator caspases converge on a set of effector caspases.

• There are two main pathways to activation of the effector caspases: the death receptor pathway and the mitochondrial pathway.

– The death receptor pathway involves stimulation of members of the tumour necrosis factor receptor family; and the main initiator caspase is caspase 8.

– The mitochondrial pathway is activated by internal factors such as DNA damage, which results in transcription of gene *p53*. The p53 protein activates a subpathway that results in release from the mitochondrion of cytochrome c. This in turn complexes with protein Apaf-1, and together they activate initiator caspase 9.

• In undamaged cells, survival factors (cytokines, hormones, cell-to-cell contact factors) continuously activate antiapoptotic mechanisms. Withdrawal of survival factor stimulation causes cell death through the mitochondrial pathway.

• The effector caspases (e.g. caspase 3) start a pathway that results in cleavage of cell constituents, DNA, cytoskeletal components, enzymes, *etc.* This reduces the cell to a cluster of membrane-bound entities that are eventually phagocytosed by macrophages.

Pathophysiological Implications

As mentioned above, cell proliferation and apoptosis are involved in many physiological and pathological processes. These are:

• the growth of tissues and organs in the embryo and later during childhood

• the replenishment of lost or time-expired cells such as leukocytes, gut epithelium and uterine endometrium

• immunological responses, including development of immunological tolerance to host proteins

• repair and healing after injury or inflammation

• the hyperplasia (increase in cell number and in connective tissue) associated with chronic inflammatory, hypersensitivity and autoimmune diseases (Ch. 6)

• the growth, invasion and metastasis of tumours (Ch. 55)

• regeneration of tissues.

The role of cell proliferation and apoptosis in the first two processes listed is self evident and needs no further comment, and their involvement in immune tolerance is discussed briefly above. But the other processes need further comment.

Repair and Healing

Repair occurs when there has been damage or loss of tissue; it is also

implicated in the resolution of the local inflammatory reaction to a pathogen or chemical irritant. In some instances, damage or tissue loss can lead to regeneration, which is quite different to repair and is considered separately below.

In repair and healing, there is an ordered series of events involving cell migration, angiogenesis, proliferation of connective tissue cells, synthesis of extracellular matrix and finally remodelling—all coordinated by the growth factors and cytokines that are relevant for the particular tissue involved. TGF-β is a key cytokine in several of these processes.

There is considerable overlap between the inflammatory reaction and repair in terms of the cells and mechanisms activated.

Repair, healing and regeneration

• Repair and healing occur when there has been damage or loss of tissue and are also implicated in the resolution of the local inflammatory reaction to a pathogen or chemical irritant. It involves the activation and proliferation of connective tissue cells, white blood cells and blood vessels.

• Regeneration is the replacement of the tissue or organ that has been damaged or lost. It involves the activation of primitive stem cells that have the potential to develop into any cell in the body. Regeneration of a tissue or organ is rare in mammals. If a mammal is injured or has its tissue removed, repair processes—often with subsequent scarring—usually make good the damage.

• It may be that repair (with rapid closure of the defect after tissue loss) is an evolutionary trade-off in mammals for the lost power of regeneration. But recent work has suggested that it might be possible to activate in mammals the original regenerative pathways—at least to some extent and in some organs.

Hyperplasia

Hyperplasia (cell proliferation and matrix expansion) are hallmarks of chronic inflammatory, hypersensitivity and autoimmune diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis (Chs. 6, 17 & 26), psoriasis, chronic ulcers, chronic obstructive lung disease, the processes underlying the bronchial hyperreactivity of chronic asthma (Ch. 27) and glomerular nephritis. The cells that take part and the events themselves are described in more detail in Chapter 6.

Cell proliferation and apoptotic events are also implicated in atherosclerosis (Ch. 23), restenosis and myocardial repair after infarction (Ch. 21).

The Growth, Invasion and Metastasis of Tumours

Perturbations in the growth factor signalling pathways, the antiapoptotic pathways and the function of the cell cycle controllers have an important role in the pathogenesis of malignancy. New understanding of this is leading to novel approaches to the treatment of cancer. See below and Chapter 55.

Stem Cells and Regeneration

Regeneration after damage or tissue loss implies restitution or replacement of the area so that it is identical to what was there before.

Many animals (e.g. amphibians and other lower orders) have an impressive power to regenerate their tissues, even to regrow an organ such as a limb. The essential process is the activation of *stem cells*—undifferentiated cells that have the potential to develop into any or most of the specialised cells in the body. Amphibians have a plentiful supply of these primitive cells in their organs and, furthermore, many of their specialised cells can dedifferentiate to become stem cells. These stem cells then multiply and retrace the pathways that generated the organ

(e.g. a limb) during fetal life, proliferating again and again and eventually differentiating into the various cell types needed to replace the missing part.

However, during evolution, mammals have lost this ability and now have regenerative capacity in only a few tissues. Blood cells, intestinal epithelium and the outer layers of the skin are replaced continuously throughout life. Of the more discrete organs, there is a low degree of turnover and replacement of cells in such organs as liver, kidney and bone. This is in essence physiological renewal and is effected by local tissue-specific stem cells.

Almost alone, the liver has significant ability to replace itself if much of it is removed. It can regenerate to its original size in a remarkably short time, provided that at least 25% has been left intact.[4] And the mature parenchymal liver cells participate in this process as well as all the other cellular components of the liver.

[4]There is an account of liver regeneration in Greek myths. Prometheus stole the secret of fire from Zeus and gave it to mankind. To punish him, Zeus had him shackled to a crag in the Caucasus, and every day an eagle tore at his flesh and devoured much of his liver. But during the night, it regenerated and in the morning was whole again. The legend doesn't say whether the requisite 25% was left after the eagle had had its fill, and the regeneration described is unphysiologically speedy—rat liver takes 2 weeks or more to get back to the original size after 66% hepatectomy.

Although stem cells are known to exist in most tissues in adult mammals, they are very few in number, the vast majority of cells in most tissues being irreversibly differentiated. If a mammal is injured or its tissue is removed, repair processes—often with subsequent scarring—usually make good the damage. It seems that rapid closure of the defect

after tissue loss (which is much more speedily accomplished by repair mechanisms) takes priority over regeneration.

Until recently, it was assumed that this was an unalterable situation, except for a few examples, some mentioned above. But recent work has suggested that it might be possible to activate in mammals the original regenerative pathways—at least to some extent and in some organs. Regeneration of a lost limb as happens in amphibians is manifestly not possible in humans, but regeneration of limited areas of a tissue or of a small part of an organ may well be feasible. For this to happen, it would be necessary to encourage some stem cells to proliferate, develop and differentiate at the relevant sites. Or—and this is a rather more remote prospect in humans—to persuade some local specialised cells to dedifferentiate. This can occur in some mammals under special circumstances (see below). However, it may be that repair is the Janus face of regeneration, repair being an evolutionary trade-off in mammals for the lost power of regeneration.

▼ Where are the relevant stem cells that could be coaxed into regenerative service? Various possibilities are being vigorously investigated and in some cases tested clinically. These include:

• embryonic stem cells (limited availability and serious ethical issues)

• bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells (Huang et al., 2009; Stapenbeck & Miyoshi, 2009)

• muscle-derived stem cells (Sinanan et al., 2006)

• human-induced pluripotent stem cells (Nishikawa et al., 2008)

• tissue-residing progenitor cells.

For a tissue such as the liver to regenerate, local tissue-specific stem

cells must be stimulated by growth factors to enter the cell cycle and continue to proliferate. Other essential processes are:

• angiogenesis to supply the necessary blood vessels

• activation of MMPs and growth factors to replace the matrix in which the new cells are embedded

• interaction between matrix and integrins and fibronectin to link the new elements together.

Concomitant replacement of components of the lost connective tissue (fibroblasts, macrophages, etc.) would also be necessary.

Because most tissues do not regenerate spontaneously, mechanisms that could awaken the lost regenerative ability could be of immense value in numerous diseases. Two areas where recent progress has been reported include the regeneration of heart muscle after an infarction (Ch. 21) and replacement of insulin-secreting cells for the treatment of type I diabetes mellitus (Ch. 30).

Heart Muscle

Until recently it was assumed that cardiac muscle had no power to regenerate. But in a particular strain of mouse, when part of the heart is damaged by freezing, repair processes do not start up; instead, the area is replaced by regeneration within a few months. Regeneration of heart tissue also occurs in dogs after acute heart failure. Mitosis of myocytes is seen in the normal human heart, and proliferation of myocytes immediately after infarction has been reported. Indeed, the sequence of events described above has been shown to occur during the process of remodelling after myocardial infarction in rodents (Nian et al., 2004).

More recently, stem cell therapy has been shown to improve ventricular function in the failing heart (Gaetani et al., 2009) and to

reduce infarct size and end systolic function in patients with myocardial infarction (Piepoli & Capucci, 2009).

Insulin-Secreting Cells

The results of ongoing clinical trials in patients with type I diabetes suggest that haemopoietic stem cell transplantation can remove the need for daily insulin injections (Voltarelli et al., 2007).

Therapeutic Prospects

Considerable effort is being expended on finding compounds that will inhibit or modify the processes described in this chapter. So far there are few in clinical use, the main examples being those mentioned earlier, but it is likely that such agents will figure strongly in the pharmacology of the next decade, much work being aimed at developing new drugs for cancer therapy. Theoretically, all the processes could constitute targets for new drug development. Here we concentrate on those approaches that are proving or are likely to prove fruitful.

Apoptotic Mechanisms

Compounds that could modify apoptosis are being intensively investigated (Melnikova & Golden, 2004; MacFarlane, 2009). Here we can only outline some of the more important approaches.

Drugs that promote apoptosis by various mechanisms were heralded as a potential new approach to cancer treatment, and are actively being studied, though none has yet been approved for clinical use. Potential proapoptotic therapeutic approaches need to be targeted precisely to the diseased tissue to avoid the obvious risks of damaging other tissues. Examples include the following:

- An antisense compound against Bcl-2 (**oblimersen**) is in phase III trial

for chronic lymphocytic leukaemia.

• **Obatoclax**, a small molecule inhibitor of Bcl-2 action, is in Phase I/II trial for haematological malignancies. For details see MacFarlane (2009).

• MicroRNA technology could also be used to promote apoptosis (see Fig. 5.5).

• Two monoclonal agonist antibodies to the death receptor ligand TRAIL (**mapatumumab** and **lexatumumab**) are in Phase I/II trial against solid tumours and lymphomas (MacFarlane, 2009).

• A new drug, **bortezomib**, which inhibits the proteasome, is available for the treatment of selected cancers. It causes the build-up of Bax, an apoptotic promoter protein of the Bcl-2 family that acts by inhibiting antiapoptotic Bcl-2. Bortezomib acts partly by inhibiting NFκB action (see Ch. 17).

• An endogenous caspase inhibitor, *survivin*, occurs in high concentration in certain tumours, its gene being one of the most cancer-specific genes in the genome. A small molecule suppressor of survivin is in clinical trial (Giaccone & Rajan, 2009), the object being to free caspases to induce cancer cell suicide.

Despite the appeal of inhibiting apoptosis as a means of preventing or treating a wide range of common degenerative disorders, success in developing inhibitors for clinical use has so far proved elusive, and a number of such compounds have been found to lack efficacy in clinical trials:

• The use of a blocking antibody to the PD-1 death receptor is a potentially fruitful new avenue to explore for the treatment of HIV,

hepatitis B and hepatitis C infections, as well as other chronic infections and some cancers that express the ligand for PD-1 (Williams & Bevan, 2006).

• Several caspase inhibitors are under investigation for use in the treatment of myocardial infarction, stroke, liver disease, organ transplantation and sepsis. **Emricasan** (IDN-6556) is undergoing trials in patients needing liver transplants.

Angiogenesis and Metalloproteinases

Metalloproteinases and angiogenesis have critical roles in physiological (e.g. growth, repair) and pathological processes (e.g. tumour growth, chronic inflammatory conditions). The search for clinically useful MMP inhibitors is continuing, but has not so far been successful. At present, only one new drug has been approved for use in cancer treatment: the antiangiogenesis compound **bevacizumab**, a monoclonal antibody that acts against VEGF (see above) which is also used to treat age-related macular degeneration, a disease of the retina associated with excessive proliferation of retinal blood vessels.

Cell Cycle Regulation

The main endogenous positive regulators of the cell cycle are the cdks. Several small molecules that inhibit cdks by targeting the ATP-binding sites of these kinases have been developed; an example is **flavopiridol**, currently in clinical trials, which inhibits all the cdks, causing arrest of the cell cycle; it also promotes apoptosis, has antiangiogenic ability and can induce differentiation (Dickson & Schwartz, 2009).

Some compounds affect upstream pathways for cdk activation and may find uses in cancer treatment. Examples are **perifosine** (currently in development for cancer treatment) and **lovastatin** (a cholesterol-

lowering drug, see Ch. 23, which may also have anticancer properties).

Bortezomib, a boronate compound, covalently binds the proteasome, inhibiting the degradation of proapoptotic proteins. It is used in treating multiple myeloma (see Ch. 55).

Of the various components of the growth factor signalling pathway, receptor tyrosine kinases, the Ras protein and cytoplasmic kinases have been the subjects of most interest. Kinase inhibitors recently introduced for cancer treatment include **imatinib**, **gefitinib** and **erlotinib** (see Ch. 55).

References and Further Reading

Cell cycle and apoptosis (general)

shkenasi A. Targeting death and decoy receptors of the tumour necrosis receptor superfamily. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2002;2:420-429. (*Exemplary review, comprehensive; good diagrams*)

slan J.E., Thomas G. Death by committee: organellar trafficking and communication in apoptosis. *Traffic*. 2009;10:1390-1404.

arbato C., Ruberti F., Cogoni C. Searching for MIND: microRNAs in neurodegenerative diseases. *J. Biomed Biotechnol.*. 2009. 2009, 871313

arber D.L., Wherry E.J., Masopust D., *et al.* Restoring function in exhausted CD8 T cells during chronic viral infection. *Nature*. 2006;439:682-687. (*Antibody that blocks the interaction between the PD-1 receptor and its ligand reverses T-cell exhaustion in a chronic viral infection*)

arleton M., Cleary M.C., Linsley P.S. MicroRNAs and cell cycle regulation. *Cell Cycle*. 2007;6:2127-2132. (*Describes how specific microRNAs act to control cell cycle check points*)

ummings J., Ward T., Ranson M., Dive C. Apoptosis pathway-targeted drugs—from the bench to the clinic. *Biochim. Biophys Acta.*. 2004;1705:53-66. (*Good review discussing—in the context of anticancer drug development—Bcl-2 proteins, IAPs, growth factors, tyrosine kinase inhibitors and assays for apoptosis-inducing drugs*)

anial N.N., Korsmeyer S.J. Cell death: critical control points Cell 116:2004:205-219 (*Definitive review of the biology and control of apoptosis; includes evidence from* C. elegans, Drosophila *and mammals*)

ickson M.A., Schwartz G.K. Development of cell-cycle inhibitors for cancer therapy. *Curr. Oncol.*. 2009;16:36-43. (*Discusses drugs which target the cell cycle that have entered clinical trials*)

lmore S. Apoptosis: a review of programmed cell death. *Toxicol. Pathol.*. 2007;35:495-516. (*A general overview of apoptosis including structural changes, biochemistry and the role of apoptosis in health and disease*)

arzon R., Calin G.A., Croce C.M. MicroRNAs in Cancer. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 2009;60:167-179.

iaccone G., Rajan A. Met amplification and HSP90 inhibitors. *Cell Cycle*. 2009;8:2682.

ipfner D.R., Cohen S.M. Connecting proliferation and apoptosis in development and disease. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2004;5:805-811. (*Extensive, detailed review*)

annsen E.M., Droin N.M., Lemmens E.E. $CD4^+$ T-cell-help controls $CD4^+$ T cell memory via TRAIL-mediated activation-induced cell death Nature 434:2005:88-92(*Control of TRAIL expression could explain the role of $CD4^+$ T cells in $CD8^+$ T-cell help*)

iu Z., Sall A., Yang D. MicroRNA: an emerging therapeutic target and intervention tool. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*. 2008;9:978-999.

ynam-Lennon N., Maher S.M., Reynolds J.V. The roles of microRNAs in cancer and apoptosis. *Biol. Rev.*. 2009;84:55-71. (*Detailed review of the role of microRNAs in cell proliferation and cell death and their potential roles as oncogenes and tumour suppressor genes*)

IacFarlane M. Cell death pathways—potential therapeutic targets. *Xenobiotica*. 2009;39:616-624. (*Excellent up-to-date review with table of agents in early clinical trial*)

Ielnikova A., Golden J. Apoptosis-targeting therapies. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2004;3:905-906. (*Crisp overview*)

iedl S.J., Salvesen G.S. The apoptosome: signalling platform of cell death. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2007;8:405-413. (*Discusses the formation of the apoptosome and the activation of its effector, caspase-9*)

iedl S.J., Shi Y. Molecular mechanisms of caspase regulation during apoptosis. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell*

Biol.. 2004;5:897-905. (*Systematic review*)

upérez M., Rodrigues-Díez R., Blanco-Colio L.M., *et al.* HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors decrease angiotensin II-induced vascular fibrosis: role of RhoA/ROCK and MAPK pathways. *Hypertension*. 2007;50:377-383.

tenvang J., Lindow M., Kauppinen S. Targeting of microRNAs for therapeutics. *Biochem. Soc. Trans.*. 2008;36:1197-1200.

wanton C. Cell-cycle targeted therapies. *Lancet*. 2004;5:27-36. (*Definitive review of the protein families controlling the cell cycle, their alterations in malignancy and their potential as targets for new drugs*)

ousoulis D., Andreou I., Tentolouris C., *et al.* Comparative effects of rosuvastatin and allopurinol on circulating levels of matrix mettalloproteinases in patients with chronic heart failure. *Int. J. Cardiol.*. 2010;145:438-443.

sai L.M., Yu D. MicroRNAs in common diseases and potential therapeutic applications. *Clin. Exp. Pharmacol. Physiol.*. 2010;37:102-107.

errecchia F., Mauviel A. Transforming growth factor-beta and fibrosis. *World J. Gastroenterol.*. 2007;13:3056-3062.

/illiams M.A., Bevan M.J. Exhausted T cells perk up. *Nature*. 2006;439:669-670. (*Succinct article assesses the work on reversing T-cell exhaustion*)

/urdinger T., Costa F.F. Molecular therapy in the microRNA era. *Pharmacogenomics J.*. 2007;7:297-304.

ang B.F., Lu Y.J., Wang Z.G. MicroRNAs and apoptosis: implications in molecular therapy of human disease. *Clin. Exp. Pharmacol. Physiol.*. 2009;36:951-960. (*Comprehensive review of the apotosis-regulating miRNAs and apoptotic cell death*)

ha Y., Blank C., Gajewski T.F. Negative regulation of T-cell function by PD-1. *Crit. Rev. Immunol.*. 2004;24:229-237. (*Article on the balance between stimulatory and inhibitory signalling and its relevance to self-tolerance and the pathogenesis of autoimmune diseases*)

hou L., Seo K.H., Wong H.K., Mi Q.S. MicroRNAs and immune regulatory T cells. *Int. Immunopharmacol*. 2009;9:524-527.

Integrins, extracellular matrix, metalloproteinases and angiogenesis

aker K.A., Hagg T. Developmental and injury-induced expression of alpha1beta1 and alpha6beta1 integrins in the rat spinal cord. *Brain Res.*. 2007;1130:54-66.

arczyk M., Carracedo S., Gullberg D. Integrins. *Cell Tissue Res.*. 2010;339:269-280.

lark I.M., Swingler T.E., Sampieri C.L., Edwards D.R. The regulation of matrix metalloproteinases and their inhibitors. *Int. J. Biochem. Cell Biol.*. 2008;40:1362-1378.

ingleton B. MMPs as therapeutic targets—still a viable option? *Semin. Cell Biol. Dev.*. 2008;19:61-68. (*Somewhat discouraging review of clinical trials data with MMP inhibitors)*

ahmberg C.G., Fagerholm S.C., Nurmi S.M., *et al.* 2009. Regulation of integrin activity and signalling. *Biochim. Biophys Acta.*. 1790:431-444. (*Crisp review of the control of cell signalling by integrins*)

ärveläinen H., Sainio A., Koulu M., Wight T.N., Penttinen R. Extracellular matrix molecules: potential targets in pharmacotherapy. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2009;61:198-223. (*Comprehensive review of the role of the extracellular matrix [ECM] in the cellular events involved in proliferation and differentiation with discussion of the ECM as a potential target for new drug development*)

Iarastoni S., Ligresti G., Lorenzon E., Colombatti A., Mongiat M. Extracellular matrix: a matter of life and death. *Connect. Tissue Res.*. 2008;49:203-206. (*Crisp analysis of the ECM and its role in cell survival, growth and proliferation*)

kiles J.W., Gonnella N.C., Jeng A.Y. The design, structure and clinical update of small molecular weight matrix metalloproteinase inhibitors. *Curr. Med. Chem.*. 2004;11:2911-2977. (*Results of trials with early matrix metalloproteinases were disappointing; the authors discuss the proposed usefulness of matrix metalloproteinase inhibitors and review patented drugs*)

ternlicht M.D., Werb Z. How matrix metalloproteinases regulate cell behaviour. *Annu. Rev. Cell Dev. Biol.*. 2001;17:463-516. (*Comprehensive review of the regulation of metalloproteinases, their regulation of cell signalling and their role in development and disease*)

treuli C.H., Akhtar N. Signal cooperation between integrins and other receptor systems. *Biochem. J.*. 2009;418:491-506. (*Deals with integrin interaction with growth factors to regulate angiogenesis,*

their interplay with tyrosine kinases and with cytokine receptors)

on Adrian U.H., Engelhardt B. a4 Integrins as therapeutic targets in autoimmune disease N. Engl. J. Med. 348:2003:68-72 (*Describes physiological and pathological functions of a4 integrins [with good diagram], and a recombinant antibody against a4 integrins in clinical trial for multiple sclerosis and Crohn's disease*)

Stem cells, regeneration and repair

ldhous P. How stem cell advances will transform medicine. *New Scientist*. 2008;2654:40-43. (*Clear, simple article*)

aetani R., Barile L., Forte E., *et al.* New perspectives to repair a broken heart. *Cardiovasc Hematol. Agents Med. Chem.*. 2009;7:91-107. (*Discusses sources of cardiomyogenic cells and their potential for diseased or injured myocardium*)

uang N.F., Lam A., Fang Q., *et al.* Bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells in fibrin augment angiogenesis in the chronically infarcted myocardium. *Regen. Med.*. 2009;4:527-538.

at. Rev. Drug Discov. August 2006. Vol. 5 has a series of articles on nerve regeneration. (*The articles 'highlight recent progress in knowledge of the molecular, cellular and circuitry level responses to injuries to the adult mammalian CNS, with a view to understanding the underlying mechanism that will enable the development of appropriate therapeutic strategies'*)

ian M., Lee P., Khaper N., Liu P. Inflammatory cytokines and postmyocardial infarction remodeling. *Circ. Res.*. 2004;94:1543-1553. (*Excellent, forward-looking article on the possibility of using cytokines to improve healing and cardiac regeneration*)

ishikawa S., Goldstein R.A., Nierras C.R. The promise of human induced pluripotent stem cells for research and therapy. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2008;9:725-729. (*Induced pluripotent stem cells [iPS] are human somatic cells that have reprogrammed to be pluripotent. Discusses the reprogramming of human somatic cells to become plutipotent. The reprogramming process is straightforward and has been replicated in several laboratories*)

iepoli M.F., Capucci A. Cardiac regeneration by progenitor cells: what is it known as and what is it still to be known as? *Cardiovasc. Hematol. Agents Med. Chem.*. 2009;7:127-136. (*Intracoronary infusion of bone marrow mononuclear cells reduced infarct size and end systolic*

volumes in patients with acute myocardial infarction. The article discusses this therapeutic approach)

osenthal N. Prometheus's vulture and the stem-cell promise. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2003;349:267-286. (*Excellent article, entrancingly written; discusses the problem of regeneration of tissues and organs*)

inanan A.C., Buxton P.G., Lewis M.P. Muscling in on stem cells. *Biol. Cell*. 2006;98:203-214.

tapenbeck T.S., Miyoshi H. The role of stromal cells in tissue regeneration and wound repair. *Science*. 2009;26:1666-1669. (*Succinct article on the possibility of mammalian stromal cells performing the same function as blastema cells in lower organisms*)

ylvester K.G., Longmaker M.T. Stem cells: review and update. *Arch. Surg.*. 2004;139:93-99. (*Concise review*)

oltarelli J.C., Couri C.E., Stracieri A.B., *et al.* Autologous nonmyeloablative hematopoietic stem cell transplantation in newly diagnosed type 1 diabetes mellitus. *JAMA*. 2007;297:1568-1576. (*Successful early trial of stem cell transplantation*)

/ilson C. The regeneration game. *New Scientist*. 2003;179:2414-2427. (*Very readable article on the possibility of regeneration of mammalian tissues and organs*)

6

Cellular mechanisms

Host defence

Overview

Everyone has experienced an inflammatory episode at some time or other and will be familiar with the characteristic redness, swelling, heat, pain and loss of function that this generally entails. In this chapter we list the cellular players involved in the host defence response and explain the bare bones of this crucial and sophisticated mechanism; inflammatory mediators are considered separately in Chapter 17. Understanding these cellular responses and their functions provides an essential basis for understanding the actions of anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressant drugs—a major class of therapeutic agents (see Ch. 26).

Introduction

All living creatures are born into a universe that poses a constant challenge to their physical well-being and survival. Evolution, which has equipped us with homeostatic systems that maintain a stable internal environment in the face of changing external temperatures and fluctuating supplies of food and water, has also provided us with mechanisms for combating the ever-present threat of infection and for promoting healing and restoration to normal function in the event of injury. In mammals, this function is subserved by the *innate* and *acquired* (or *adaptive*) immune systems, working together with a variety of

mediators and mechanisms that collectively gives rise to what we term *inflammation*. Generally this response acts to protect us, but occasionally it goes awry, leading to a spectrum of inflammatory diseases, and it is under these circumstances that we need to resort to drug therapy to dampen or abolish the inflammatory response.

The main functions of this host inflammatory response then are *defence* and *repair*—in other words, nothing less than the security of the organism. This response is crucial to survival. If it is defective either through genetic causes (e.g. *leukocyte adhesion deficiency*), infection with organisms that subvert its function (e.g. HIV) or because of immunosuppressant drug therapy, then the outcome can be very serious or even fatal.

The inflammatory response 

• The inflammatory response occurs in tissues following exposure to a pathogen or other noxious substance.

• It usually has two components: an *innate* non-adaptive response and an *adaptive* (acquired or specific) immunological response.

• These reactions are generally protective, but if inappropriately deployed they are deleterious.

• The normal outcome of the response is healing with or without scarring; alternatively, if the underlying cause persists, chronic inflammation.

• Many of the diseases that require drug treatment involve inflammation. Understanding the action and use of anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive drugs necessitates understanding the inflammatory reaction.

Like border security systems in the mundane world, the body has the

cellular and molecular equivalents of guards, identity checks, alarm systems and a communication network with which to summon back-up when required. It also has access to an astonishing data bank that memorises precise details of previous illegal immigrants and prevents them from returning. In this discussion it is convenient to divide the host response into two components, although it should be recognised at the outset that these two systems work hand-in-hand. The two principal components are:

1 The *innate*, non-adaptive response, which developed early in evolution and is present in some form or other in most multicellular organisms. This is the first line of defence.

2 The *adaptive* immune response. This appeared much later in evolutionary terms and is found only in vertebrates. It provides the physical basis for our immunological 'memory' and is the second line of defence.

The Innate Immune Response

The innate response is activated immediately following infection or injury.[1] It is a system that is present in virtually all organisms and some of the mammalian gene families that control these responses were first identified in plants and insects.

[1]Mucosal epithelial tissues constantly secrete antibacterial proteins and a type of 'all purpose' immunoglobulin (Ig)A as a sort of pre-emptive defensive strategy. One immunologist aptly referred to the innate response as the organism's 'knee jerk' response to infection; it is an excellent description.

The innate immune response 

• The innate response occurs immediately on injury or infection. It comprises vascular and cellular elements. Mediators generated by cells or from plasma modify and regulate the magnitude of the response.

• Utilising Toll and other receptors, sentinel cells in body tissues, such as macrophages, mast and dendritic cells, detect specific pathogen-associated molecular patterns. This triggers the release of cytokines, particularly interleukin (IL)-1 and tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α, as well as various chemokines.

• IL-1 and TNF-α act on local postcapillary venular endothelial cells, causing:
  – vasodilatation and fluid exudation
  – expression of adhesion molecules on the cell surfaces.

• Exudate contains enzyme cascades that generate bradykinin (from kininogen), and C5a and C3a (from complement). Complement activation lyses bacteria.

• C5a and C3a stimulate mast cells to release histamine, which dilates local arterioles.

• Tissue damage and cytokines release prostaglandins PGI_2 and PGE_2 (vasodilators) and leukotriene (LT)B4 (a chemotaxin).

• Cytokines stimulate synthesis of vasodilator nitric oxide, which increases vascular permeability.

• Using adhesion molecules, leukocytes roll on, adhere to and finally migrate through activated vascular endothelium towards the pathogen (attracted by chemokines, IL-8, C5a, and LTB4), where phagocytosis and killing takes place.

Pathogen Recognition

One of the most important functions of any security system is the ability to establish identity. How does an organism decide whether a cell is a bona fide citizen or an invading pathogen? In the case of the innate response this is achieved through a network of *pattern recognition*

receptors (PRRs), found in virtually all organisms. They recognise *pathogen-associated molecular patterns* (PAMPs), common products produced by bacteria, fungi, viruses and so on that these organisms could not readily change to evade detection. These receptors include G-protein-coupled receptors such as the *FPR* (formyl peptide receptor) family that recognises N-formylated peptides characteristic of bacterial protein synthesis (although these are also liberated from mitochondria during host cell death as well) and cytoplasmic receptors such as the *NOD-like receptors* (**n**ucleotide-binding **o**ligomerization **d**omain-like receptors)—a large family of intracellular proteins that recognise fragments of bacterial proteoglycan.

Among the best-studied of these PRRs are the *Toll-like receptors* (TLRs). The Toll[2] gene was first identified in *Drosophila* in the mid-1990s. Analogous genes were soon found in vertebrates and it was quickly established that as a family, their main job was to detect highly conserved components in pathogens and to signal their presence to the different components of the immune system.

[2]The name, which loosely translates from German as 'Great!' or 'Eureka!', has remained firmly attached to the family.

There are approximately 15 TLRs known but only some 10 occur in mammals. They belong to the class of *receptor tyrosine kinases* (see Ch. 3), and are phylogenetically highly conserved. Unlike the antigen receptors on T and B cells that are generated somatically as the cells develop, endowing each lymphocyte clone with a structurally unique receptor, TLRs are encoded in the host DNA. Table 6.1 lists these receptors and the pathogenic products that are recognised, where these are known. There are two types of TLR, located respectively on the cell surface and in endosomes. The latter type generally recognises pathogen RNA/DNA (presumably because they appear in phagosomes), while the

former recognises other pathogen components such as cell wall material, endotoxin, *etc.* Some TLRs also recognise ligands released when host cells are damaged (e.g. heat shock proteins). Presumably this provides an additional way of monitoring damage.

Table 6.1 The TLR family of pattern recognition receptors (PRRs)

PRR	Pathogen recognised	Ligand	Host cell type	Location
TLR 1	Bacteria	Lipoproteins	Monocyte/macrophages Some dendritic cells B lymphocytes	Surface
TLR 2	Bacteria Bacteria (Gm pos) Parasites Yeast Damaged host cells	Lipoproteins Lipoteichoic acid GPI anchors Cell wall carbohydrates Heat shock proteins	Monocyte/macrophages Some dendritic cells Mast cells	Surface
TLR 3	Virus	dsRNA	Dendritic cells B lymphocytes	Intracellular
TLR 4	Bacteria (Gm neg) Virus Damaged host cells	Lipopolysaccharide Some viral proteins Heat shock proteins Fibrinogen Hyaluronic acid	Monocyte/macrophages Some dendritic cells Mast cells Intestinal epithelium	Surface
TLR 5	Bacteria	Flagellin	Monocyte/macrophages Some dendritic cells Intestinal epithelium	Surface
TLR 6	Mycoplasma Parasites Yeast	Lipoproteins GPI anchors Cell wall carbohydrates	Monocyte/macrophages Mast cells B lymphocytes	Surface
TLR 7	Virus	ssRNA Some synthetic drugs	Monocyte/macrophages Mast cells B lymphocytes	Intracellular
TLR 8	Virus	ssRNA	Monocyte/macrophages Some dendritic cells Mast cells	Intracellular
TLR 9	Virus/bacteria	CpG containing DNA	Monocyte/macrophages Some dendritic cells B lymphocytes	Intracellular
TLR 10	Unknown	Unknown	Monocyte/macrophages B lymphocytes	Surface
TLR 11[a]	*Toxoplasma*	Profilin	Monocyte/macrophages Liver cells Kidney	Surface

[a] TLR 11 is found in mouse but not human. TLR 12–15 are not included as little is known concerning their function.
CpG DNA, unmethylated CG dinucleotide; dsRNA, double stranded RNA; Gm neg/pos, Gram negative/positive (bacteria); GPI, glycosylphosphatidylinositol anchoring proteins; ssRNA, single stranded RNA.

How a single family of receptors can recognise such a wide spectrum of

different chemicals is a molecular mystery. Sometimes the problem is solved by recruiting additional 'accessory' binding proteins to assist this process. When activated, Toll receptors dimerise and initiate a complex signalling pathway that activates genes coding for proteins and factors crucial to the deployment of the inflammatory response, many of which we will discuss below. Interestingly from the pharmacological viewpoint, TLR 7 also recognises some synthetic antiviral compounds such as *imidazoquinolones*. The ability of these drugs to provoke TLR activation probably underlies their clinical effectiveness.

TLRs are strategically located on those 'sentinel' cells which are most likely to come into contact with pathogens in the first instance. These include *mast cells*, *macrophages* and *dendritic cells*, all of which are found in tissues throughout the body, as well as some *intestinal epithelial cells* (which are exposed to pathogens in the food that we eat) and other cells.

Having outlined how 'non-self' pathogens are detected by the innate immune system, we can now describe the events that follow the 'raising of the alarm'.

Responses to Pattern Recognition

Vascular events

Interaction of a PAMP with TLRs triggers the sentinel cells to respond immediately by producing the main proinflammatory *cytokines*, *tumour necrosis factor* (*TNF*)-*α* and *interleukin* (*IL*)-*1*, as well as other mediators (such as prostaglandins and histamine) that act on the vascular endothelial cells of the postcapillary venules, causing expression of *adhesion molecules* on the intimal surface and an increase in vascular permeability.

White blood cells adhere to the endothelial cells through interactions

between their cell surface *integrins* (see below) and adhesion molecules on endothelial cells. This enables them to migrate out of the vessels, attracted by *chemotaxins* generated by the microorganisms or as a result of their interaction with tissues (see below). *Chemokines* released during TLR activation play an important part in this. (Cytokines and chemokines are considered in Ch. 17.)

The initial vascular events include dilatation of the small arterioles, resulting in increased blood flow. This is followed by a slowing and eventually a stasis of blood, and an increase in the permeability of the postcapillary venules with exudation of fluid. The vasodilatation is brought about by mediators including histamine, prostaglandin (PG)E_2 and PGI_2 (prostacyclin) produced by the interaction of the microorganism with tissue, some of which act together with cytokines to increase vascular permeability.

The fluid exudate contains the components for four proteolytic enzyme cascades: the *complement system*, the *coagulation system*, the *fibrinolytic system* and the *kinin* system (see Fig. 6.1). The components of these cascades are proteases that are inactive in their native form but that are activated by proteolytic cleavage, each activated component then activating the next. The exudate is carried by lymphatics to local lymph nodes or lymphoid tissue, where the products of the invading microorganism trigger the adaptive phase of the response.

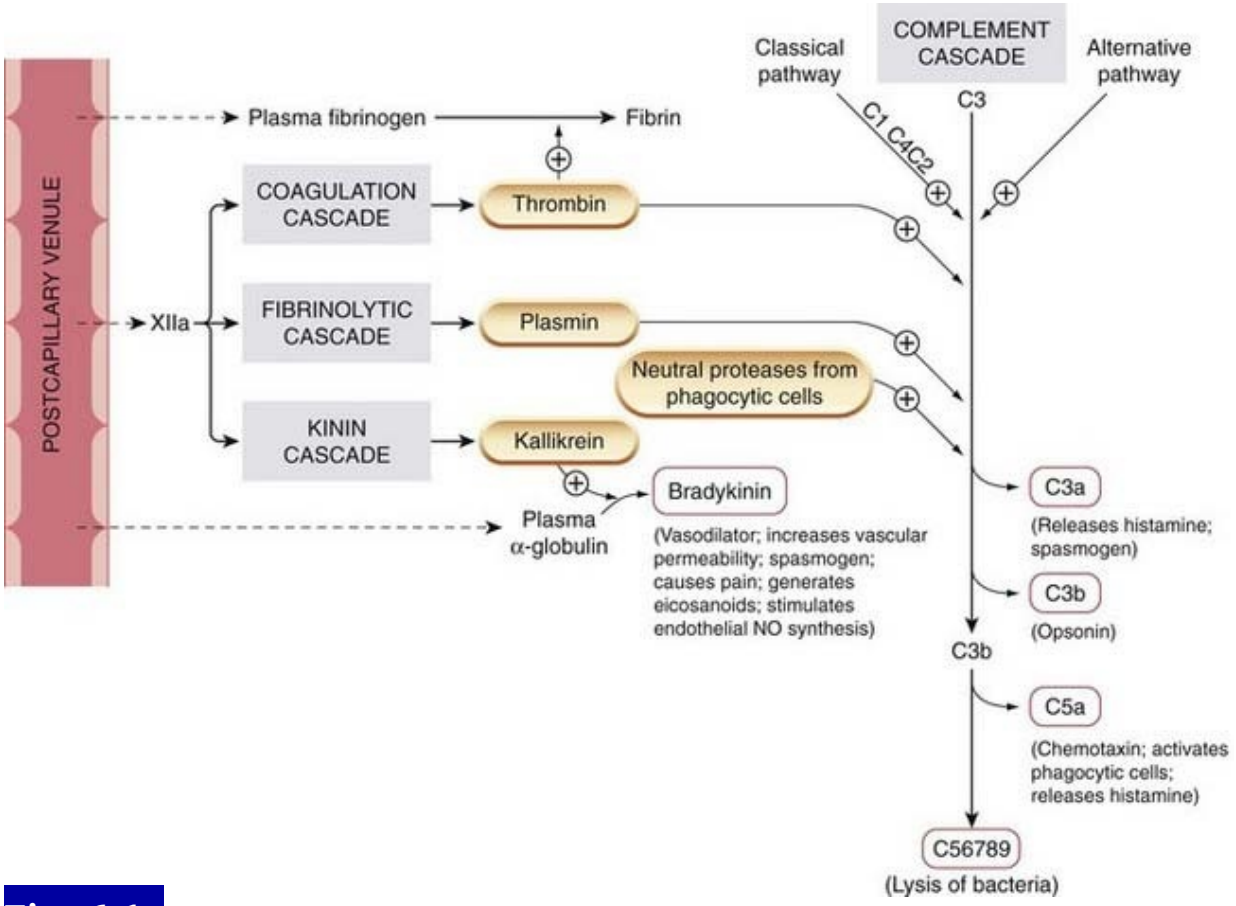


Fig. 6.1 Four enzyme cascades are activated when plasma leaks out into the tissues as a result of the increased vascular permeability of inflammation.

Factors causing exudation are depicted in Figure 6.2. Mediators generated are shown in red-bordered boxes. Complement components are indicated by C1, C2, *etc.* When plasmin is formed, it tends to increase kinin formation and decrease the coagulation cascade.

(Adapted from Dale M M, Foreman J C, Fan T-P (eds) 1994 Textbook of immunopharmacology, 3rd edn. Blackwell Scientific, Oxford.)

▼ The *complement system* comprises nine major components, designated C1 to C9. Activation of the cascade is initiated by substances derived from microorganisms, such as yeast cell walls or endotoxins. This pathway of activation is termed the *alternative pathway* (Fig. 6.1) as opposed to the classic pathway that is dealt with later. One of the main events is the enzymatic splitting of C3, giving rise to various peptides, one of which, *C3a* (termed an *anaphylatoxin*) stimulates mast cells to

secrete further chemical mediators and can also directly stimulate smooth muscle, while *C3b* (termed an *opsonin*) attaches to the surface of a microorganism, facilitating ingestion by white blood cells. *C5a*, generated enzymatically from C5, also releases mediators from mast cells and is a powerful chemotactic attractant and activator of white blood cells.

The final components in the sequence, complement-derived mediators (C5 to C9) coalesce to form a 'membrane attack complex' that attaches to certain bacterial membranes, leading to lysis. Complement can therefore mediate the destruction of invading bacteria or damage multicellular parasites; however, it may sometimes cause injury to the host. The principal enzymes of the coagulation and fibrinolytic cascades, thrombin and plasmin, can also activate the cascade by hydrolysing C3, as can enzymes released from white blood cells.

The *coagulation system* and the *fibrinolytic system* are described in Chapter 24. Factor XII is activated to XIIa (e.g. by collagen), and the end product, fibrin, laid down during a host–pathogen interaction, may serve to limit the extent of the infection. Thrombin is additionally involved in the activation of the kinin (Fig. 6.1) and, indirectly, the fibrinolytic systems (see Ch. 24).

The *kinin system* is another enzyme cascade relevant to inflammation. It yields several mediators, in particular bradykinin (Fig. 6.1 and see below).

Cellular events

Of the cells involved in inflammation, some (e.g. vascular endothelial cells, mast cells, dendritic cells and tissue macrophages) are normally present in tissues, while other actively motile cells (e.g. leukocytes) gain access from the blood.

Polymorphonuclear leukocytes

Neutrophil polymorphs are the ‘shock troops’ of inflammation, and are the first of the blood leukocytes to enter an inflamed area (Fig. 6.2). The whole process is cleverly choreographed: under direct observation, the neutrophils may be seen first to *roll* along the activated endothelium, then to *adhere* and finally to *migrate* out of the blood vessel and into the extravascular space. This process is regulated by the successive activation of different families of adhesion molecules (*selectins*, *intercellular adhesion molecule* [ICAM] and *integrins*) on the inflamed endothelium that engage corresponding *counter-ligands* on the neutrophil, capturing it as it rolls along the surface, stabilising its interaction with the endothelial cells and enabling it to migrate out of the vessel (using a further adhesion molecule termed *PECAM*, **p**latelet **e**ndothelium **a**dhesion **m**olecule). The neutrophil is attracted to the invading pathogen by chemicals termed *chemotaxins*, some of which (such as the tripeptide formyl-Met-Leu-Phe) are released by the microorganism, whereas others, such as C5a, are produced locally or released by nearby cells such as macrophages (e.g. chemokines such as IL-8).

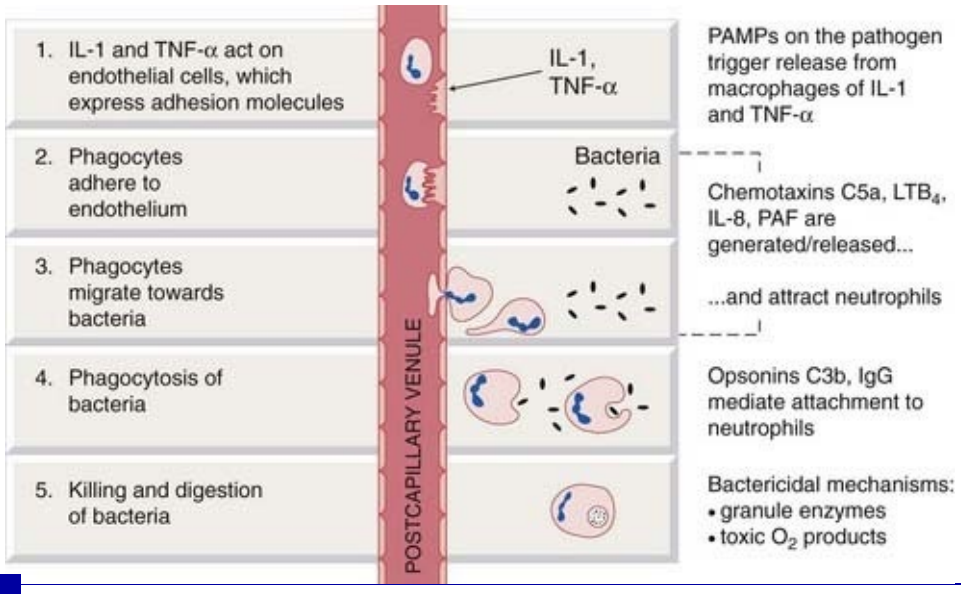


Fig. 6.2 Simplified diagram of the initial events in a local acute inflammatory reaction.

Recognition by tissue macrophages of pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) on the pathogen triggers release, from tissue macrophages, of the proinflammatory cytokines interleukin (IL)-1 and tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α. These act on the endothelial cells of postcapillary venules, causing exudation of fluid and expression of adhesion factors (e.g. selectins, integrins) to which counter-ligands on blood-borne neutrophils adhere. Subsequent steps are listed in the figure. C5a and C3b, complement components; IgG, immunoglobulin G; LTB4, leukotriene B4; PAF, platelet-activating factor.

Neutrophils can engulf, kill and digest microorganisms. Together with eosinophils, they have surface receptors for C3b, which acts as an *opsonin* that forms a link between neutrophil and invading bacterium. (An even more effective link may be made by antibody; see below.) Neutrophils kill microorganisms by generating toxic oxygen products and other mechanisms, and enzymatic digestion then follows. If the neutrophil is inappropriately activated, these weapons can cause damage to the host's own tissues. When neutrophils have released their toxic chemicals, they undergo apoptosis and must be cleared by macrophages. It is this mass of live and apoptotic neutrophils that constitutes 'pus'.

Mast cells

An important 'sentinel' cell that expresses TLRs, the mast cell also has

surface receptors both for IgE and for the complement-derived *anaphylotoxins* C3a and C5a. Ligands acting at these receptors trigger mediator release, as does direct physical damage. One of the main substances released is *histamine*; others include *heparin*, *leukotrienes*, *PGD_2*, *platelet-activating factor (PAF)*, *nerve growth factor* and some *interleukins*. Unusually, mast cells have pre-formed packets of cytokines that they can release when stimulated. This makes them extremely effective triggers of the inflammatory response.

Monocytes/macrophages

Monocytes arrive in inflammatory lesions several hours after the polymorphs. Adhesion to endothelium and migration into the tissue follow a pattern similar to that of the neutrophils (see above), although monocyte chemotaxis utilises additional chemokines, such as MCP-1[3] (which, reasonably enough, stands for **m**onocyte **c**hemoattractant **p**rotein-1) and RANTES (which very *unreasonably* stands for **r**egulated on **a**ctivation **n**ormal **T** cell **e**xpressed and **s**ecreted: immunological nomenclature has excelled itself here!).

[3]Human immunodeficiency virus-1 binds to the surface CD4 glycoprotein on monocytes/macrophages but is able to penetrate the cell only after binding also to MCP-1 and RANTES receptors.

Once in tissues, blood monocytes differentiate into macrophages.[4] The resultant 'sentinel' cell has a remarkable range of abilities, being not only a jack-of-all-trades but also master of many (see below). Activation of TLRs stimulates the generation and release of chemokines and other cytokines that act on vascular endothelial cells, attract other leukocytes to the area and give rise to systemic manifestations of the inflammatory response such as fever. Macrophages engulf tissue debris and dead cells, as well as phagocytosing and killing most (but unfortunately not all)

microorganisms. They also play an important part in *antigen presentation* (see below). When stimulated by glucocorticoids, macrophages secrete *annexin-1* (a potent anti-inflammatory polypeptide; see Ch. 32), which controls the extent of the local inflammatory reaction.

[4]Literally 'big eaters', compared with neutrophils, originally called microphages or 'little eaters'.

Dendritic cells

These are present in many tissues, especially when they subserve a barrier function (e.g. the skin, where they are sometimes referred to as *Langerhans cells* after their discoverer). As an important 'sentinel cell' they can recognise the presence of pathogens and when thus activated they can migrate into lymphoid tissue, where they play an important part in antigen presentation (see below).

Eosinophils

These cells have similar capacities to neutrophils but are also 'armed' with a battery of substances stored in their granules, which, when released, kill multicellular parasites (e.g. helminths). These include *eosinophil cationic protein*, a *peroxidase* enzyme, the *eosinophil major basic protein* and a *neurotoxin*. The eosinophil is considered by many to be of primary importance in the pathogenesis of the late phase of asthma where, it is suggested, granule proteins cause damage to bronchiolar epithelium (see Fig. 27.4).

Basophils

Basophils are very similar in many respects to mast cells. Except in certain parasitic infections and hypersensitivity reactions, the basophil content of the tissues is negligible and in health they form only 0.5% of circulating white blood cells.

Vascular endothelial cells

Vascular endothelial cells (see also Chs 22 and 23), originally considered as passive lining cells, are now known to play an active part in inflammation. Small arteriole endothelial cells secrete nitric oxide (NO), causing relaxation of the underlying smooth muscle (see Ch. 20), vasodilatation and increased delivery of plasma and blood cells to the inflamed area. The endothelial cells of the postcapillary venules regulate plasma exudation and thus the delivery of plasma-derived mediators (see Fig. 6.1). Vascular endothelial cells express several adhesion molecules (the ICAM and selectin families; see Fig. 6.2), as well as a variety of receptors including those for histamine, acetylcholine and IL-1. In addition to NO, the cells can synthesise and release the vasodilator agents PGI_2 and PGE_2, the vasoconstrictor agent endothelin, plasminogen activator, PAF and several cytokines. Endothelial cells also participate in the angiogenesis that occurs during inflammatory resolution, chronic inflammation and cancer (see Chs 5 and 55).

Platelets

Platelets are involved primarily in coagulation and thrombotic phenomena (see Ch. 24) but also play a part in inflammation. They have low-affinity receptors for IgE, and are believed to contribute to the first phase of asthma (Fig. 27.1). In addition to generating thromboxane $(TX)A_2$ and PAF, they can generate free radicals and proinflammatory cationic proteins. Platelet-derived growth factor contributes to the repair processes that follow inflammatory responses or damage to blood vessels.

Natural killer cells

Natural killer (NK) cells are a specialised type of lymphocyte. In an unusual twist to the receptor concept, NK cells kill targets (e.g. virus-

infected or tumour cells) that lack ligands for inhibitory receptors on the NK cells themselves. The ligands in question are the *major histocompatibility complex* (MHC) molecules, and any cells lacking these become a target for NK-cell attack, a strategy sometimes called the 'mother turkey strategy'.[5] MHC proteins are expressed on the surface of most host cells and, in simple terms, are specific for that individual, enabling the NK cells to avoid damaging host cells. NK cells have other functions: they are equipped with Fc receptors and, in the presence of antibodies directed against a target cell, they can kill the cell by antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity.

[5]Richard Dawkins in *River out of Eden*, citing the zoologist Schliedt, explains that the 'rule of thumb a mother turkey uses to recognise nest robbers is a dismayingly brusque one; in the vicinity of the nest, attack anything that moves unless it makes a noise like a baby turkey' (quoted by Kärre & Welsh, 1997).

The Adaptive Immune Response

The adaptive response provides the physical basis for an 'immunological memory'. It provides a more powerful defence than the innate response as well as being highly specific for the invading pathogen. Here we will provide only a simplified outline and stressing those aspects relevant for an understanding of drug action; for more detailed coverage, see Janeway *et al.* (2004).

The adaptive response

• The adaptive (specific, acquired) immunological response boosts the effectiveness of the innate responses. It has two phases, the induction phase and the effector phase, the latter consisting of (i) antibody-mediated and (ii) cell-mediated components.

• During the *induction phase*, naive T cells bearing either the CD4 or the CD8 co-receptors are presented with antigen, triggering proliferation:

– CD8-bearing T cells develop into cytotoxic T cells that can kill virally infected cells

– CD4-bearing T-helper (Th) cells are stimulated by different cytokines to develop into Th1, Th2, Th17 or Treg cells

– *Th1* cells develop into cells that release cytokines that activate macrophages; these cells, along with cytotoxic T cells, control cell-mediated responses

– *Th2* cells control antibody-mediated responses by stimulating B cells to proliferate, giving rise to antibody-secreting plasma cells and memory cells

– *Th17* cells are similar to Th1 cells and are important in some human diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis

– *Treg* cells restrain the development of the immune response.

• The *effector phase* depends on antibody-and cell-mediated responses.

• Antibodies provide:

– more selective complement activation

– more effective pathogen phagocytosis

– more effective attachment to multicellular parasites, facilitating their destruction

– direct neutralisation of some viruses and of some bacterial toxins.

• Cell-mediated reactions involve:

– $CD8^+$ cytotoxic T cells that kill virus-infected cells

– cytokine-releasing $CD4^+$ T cells that enable macrophages to kill intracellular pathogens such as the tubercle bacillus

– memory cells primed to react rapidly to a known antigen.

• Inappropriately deployed immune reactions are termed *hypersensitivity reactions*.

• Anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive drugs are used when the normally protective inflammatory and/or immune responses escape control.

The key cells are the *lymphocytes*. These are long-lived cells derived from precursor cells within the bone marrow. Following release into the blood, they mature in the bone or thymus after which they enter the circulation and dwell in the lymphoid tissues such as the lymph nodes and spleen. Here, they are poised to detect, intercept and identify foreign proteins presented to them by *antigen presenting cells* (APCs) such as the macrophage or the dendritic cells. The three main groups of lymphocytes are:

1 *B cells*, which mature in the bone marrow. They are responsible for antibody production, *i.e.* the *humoral* immune response.

2 *T cells*, which mature in the thymus. They are important in the induction phase of the immune response and in cell-mediated immune reactions.

3 *NK (natural killer) cells*. These are really part of the innate system. They are activated by *interferons* and release cytotoxic granules that destroy target cells identified as 'foreign'.

Miraculously, T and B lymphocytes express antigen-specific receptors that recognise and react with virtually all foreign proteins and polysaccharides that we are likely to encounter during our lifetime. This receptor repertoire is generated randomly and so would recognise 'self' proteins as well as foreign antigens if it were not that *tolerance* to self antigens is acquired during fetal life by apoptotic deletion of T-cell clones that recognise the host's own tissues. Dendritic cells and macrophages involved in the innate response also have a role in preventing harmful immune reactions against the host's own cells (see below).

The specific immune response occurs in two phases termed the *induction phase* and the *effector phase*.

The Induction Phase

During the induction phase, antigen is 'presented' to T cells by macrophages or large *dendritic cells*, and this is followed by complex interactions of those T cells with B cells and other T cells (Fig. 6.3). The antigen may constitute part of an invading pathogen (e.g. the coat of a bacterium) or be released by such an organism (e.g. a bacterial toxin), or it may be a vaccine or a substance introduced experimentally in the laboratory to study the immune response (e.g. the injection of egg albumin into the guinea pig). APCs ingest and proteolytically 'process' the antigen and 'present' it on their surface to lymphocytes in combination with various MHC molecules once they reach local lymph nodes (Fig. 6.4). Two types of lymphocytes 'attend' APCs. They are generally distinguished by the presence, on their surface, of *CD4* or *CD8* receptors. These are *co-receptors* that cooperate with the main antigen-specific receptors in antigen recognition. Macrophages also carry surface CD4 proteins.

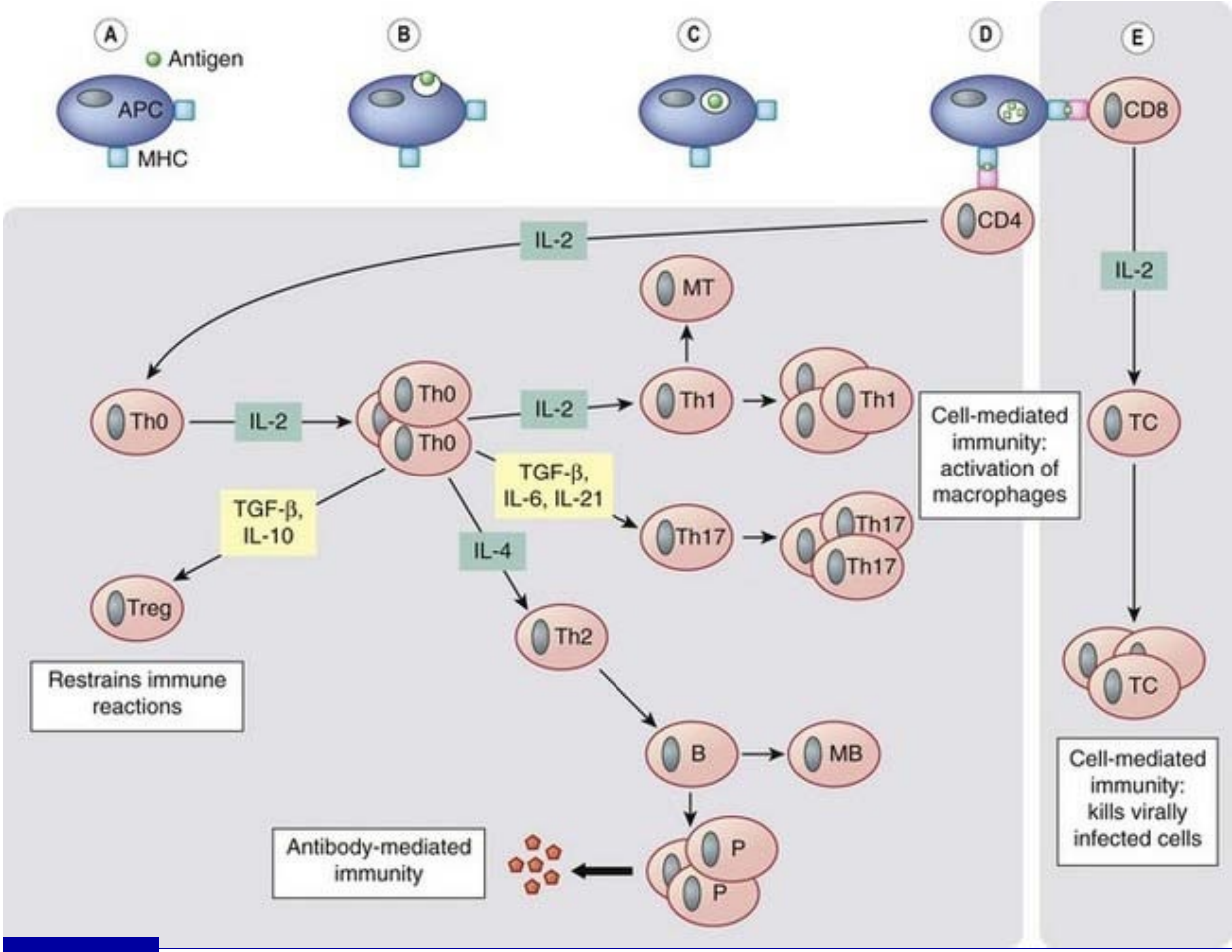


Fig. 6.3 Simplified diagram of the induction and effector phases of lymphocyte activation.

Antigen-presenting cells (APCs) ingest and process antigen (A–D) and present fragments to naive, uncommitted CD4 T cells in conjunction with major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II molecules, or to naive CD8 T cells in conjunction with MHC class I molecules, thus 'arming' them. The armed $CD4^+$ T cells synthesise and express interleukin (IL)-2 receptors and release this cytokine, which stimulates the cells by autocrine action, causing generation and proliferation of T-helper zero (Th0) cells. Autocrine cytokines (e.g. IL-4) cause proliferation of some Th0 cells to give Th2 cells, which are responsible for the development of antibody-mediated immune responses. These Th2 cells cooperate with and activate B cells to proliferate and give rise eventually to memory B cells (MB) and plasma cells (P), which secrete antibodies. Other autocrine cytokines (e.g. IL-2) cause proliferation of Th0 cells to give Th1, Th17 or Treg cells. Th1 and Th17 cells secrete cytokines that activate macrophages (responsible for some cell-mediated immune reactions). Treg cells restrain and inhibit the development of the immune response, thus preventing autoimmunity and excessive immune activation.

The armed $CD8^+$ T cells (E) also synthesise and express IL-2 receptors and release IL-2, which stimulates the cells by autocrine action to proliferate and give rise to cytotoxic T cells (TC). These can kill virally infected cells. IL-2 secreted by $CD4^+$ cells also plays a part in stimulating

$CD8^+$ cells to proliferate. Note that the 'effector phase' depicted above relates to the 'protective' action of the immune response. When the response is inappropriately deployed—as in chronic inflammatory conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis—the Th1/Th17 component of the immune response is dominant and the activated macrophages release IL-1 and tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α, which in turn trigger the release of the chemokines and inflammatory cytokines that play a major role in the pathology of the disease. MT and MB, memory T and B cells, respectively.

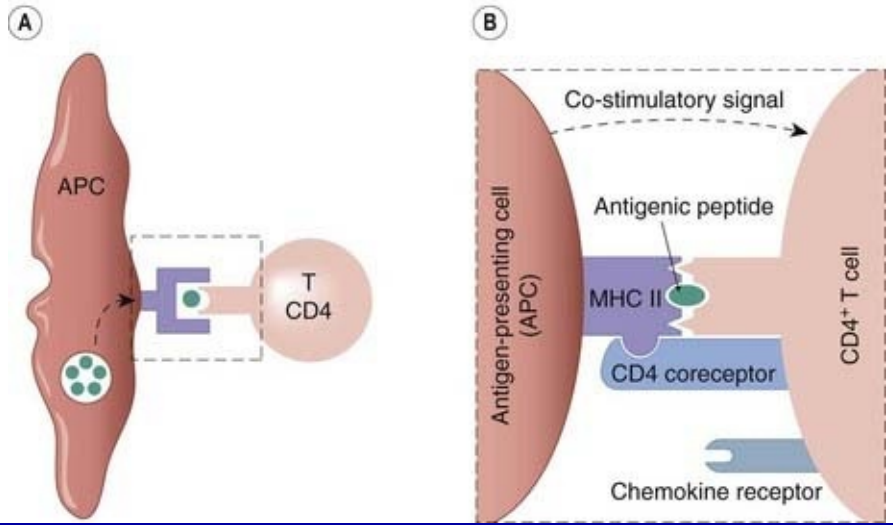


Fig. 6.4 The activation of a T cell by an antigen-presenting cell (APC).

[**A**] The APC encounters a foreign protein and this is proteolytically processed into peptide fragments. The activation process then involves three stages. (i) Interaction between the complex of pathogen-derived antigen peptide fragments with major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II and the antigen-specific receptor on the T cell. [**B**] (ii) Interaction between the CD4 co-receptor on the T cell and an MHC molecule on the APC. (iii) A co-stimulatory signal from the APC to the T cell. The CD4 co-receptor, together with a T-cell chemokine receptor, constitute the main binding sites for the HIV virus (see Fig. 51.3).

The two types of lymphocyte involved in the adaptive response are:

1 Uncommitted (naive) $CD4^+$ T-helper (Th) lymphocytes, or T-helper precursor (Thp) cells, in association with class II MHC molecules (see Fig. 6.4).

2 Naive $CD8^+$ T lymphocytes in association with class I MHC molecules.[6]

[6]The main reason that it is difficult to transplant organs such as kidneys from one person to another is that their respective MHC molecules are different. Lymphocytes in the recipient will react to non-self (*allogeneic*) MHC molecules in the donor tissue, which is then likely to be rejected by a rapid and powerful immunological reaction.

Activation of a T cell by an APC requires that several signals pass between the two cells at this 'immune synapse' (Fig. 6.4; see Medzhitov & Janeway, 2000). After activation, the T cells both generate IL-2 and acquire IL-2 receptors. Some potent anti-inflammatory drugs block this receptor thus preventing lymphocyte proliferation (see Ch. 26). IL-2 has an *autocrine*[7] action, stimulating proliferation and giving rise to a clone of T cells termed *Th0* cells, which, depending on the prevailing cytokine milieu, give rise to different subsets of armed helper cells. There are four major types of these 'helper cells', each of which generate a characteristic cytokine profile, possess a unique surface marker profile and have different roles in disease. These characteristics are summarised in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Lymphocyte subsets and their role in host defence and relationship to inflammatory disease

Lymphocyte subset	Cytokine stimulus	Main role in adaptive response	Main cytokines produced	Role in disease
Th0	IL-2	To act as a precursor cell type for further differentiation	—	—
Th1	IL-2	'Cell-mediated immunity' Cytokines released from these cells: activate macrophages to phagocytose and kill microorganisms and kill tumour cells; drive proliferation and maturation of the clone into *cytotoxic T cells* that kill virally infected host cells; reciprocally inhibit Th2 cell maturation	IFN-γ, IL-2 and TNF-α	Insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (Ch. 30), multiple sclerosis, *Helicobacter pylori*-induced peptic ulcer (Ch. 29), aplastic anaemia (Ch. 25) and rheumatoid arthritis (Ch. 26) Allograft rejection
Th2	IL-4	'Humoral' immunity Cytokines released from these cells: stimulate B cells to proliferate and mature into plasma cells producing antibodies; enhance differentiation and activation of eosinophils and reciprocally inhibit Th1/Th17-cell functions. For this reason, they are often thought of as anti-inflammatory	IL-4, IL-5, TGF-β, IL-10 and IL-13	Asthma (Ch. 27) and allergy AIDS progression is associated with loss of Th1 cells and is facilitated by Th2 responses
Th17	TGF-β, IL-6 and IL-21	A specialised type of Th1 cell	IL-17	The response to infection, organ-specific immune responses and in the pathogenesis of diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and multiple sclerosis
iTreg nTreg	IL-10 and TGF-β Matured in the thymus	Restraining the immune response, preventing auto-immunity and curtailing potentially damaging inflammatory responses	IL-10 and TGF-β	Failure of this mechanism can provoke excessive inflammation

IFN, interferon; IL, interleukin; iTreg, inducible Treg cells; nTreg, normal Treg cells; TGF, transforming growth factor; TNF, tumour necrosis factor.

[7]'Autocrine' signalling means that the mediator acts on the same cell that releases it. 'Paracrine' signalling means that the mediator acts on neighbouring cells.

Understanding the relationship between T-cell subsets, their respective cytokine profiles and pathological conditions is expected to highlight ways to manipulate the immune responses for disease prevention and treatment. There are already many experimental models in which modulation of the Th1/Th2 balance with recombinant cytokines or cytokine antagonists alters the outcome of the disease.

The Effector Phase

During the effector phase, the activated B and T lymphocytes differentiate either into *plasma cells* or into *memory cells*. The B plasma cells produce antibodies, which are effective in the extracellular fluid, but which cannot neutralise pathogens within cells. T-cell-mediated immune mechanisms overcome this problem by activating macrophages or directly killing virus-infected host cells. Antigen-sensitive *memory cells* are formed when the clone of lymphocytes that are programmed to respond to an antigen is greatly expanded after the first contact with the organism. They allow a greatly accelerated and more effective response to subsequent antigen exposure. In some cases, the response is so rapid and efficient that, after one exposure, the pathogen can never gain a foothold again. Immunisation procedures make use of this fact.

The Antibody-Mediated (Humoral) Response

There are five main classes of antibody—IgG, IgM, IgE, IgA and IgD—which differ from each other in certain structural respects. All are γ-globulins (immunoglobulins), which both recognise and interact specifically with antigens (i.e. proteins or polysaccharides foreign to the host), as well as activating one or more further components of the host's defence systems.

▼ An antibody is a Y-shaped protein molecule (see Ch. 59) in which the arms of the Y (the Fab portions) are the recognition sites for specific antigens, and the stem of the Y (the Fc portion) activates host defences. The B cells that are responsible for antibody production recognise foreign molecules by means of surface receptors that are essentially the immunoglobulin which that B-cell clone will eventually produce. Mammals harbour a vast number of B-cell clones that produce different antibodies with recognition sites for different antigens.

The induction of antibody-mediated responses varies with the type of

antigen. With most antigens, a cooperative process between Th2 cells and B cells is necessary to produce a response. B cells can also present antigen to T cells that then release cytokines that act further on the B cell. The anti-inflammatory glucocorticoids (see Chs 26 and 32) and the immunosuppressive drug **ciclosporin** (see Ch. 26) affect the events at the stage of induction. The cytotoxic immunosuppressive drugs (see Ch. 26) inhibit the proliferation of both B and T cells. Eicosanoids may play a part in controlling these processes as prostaglandins of the E series can inhibit lymphocyte proliferation, probably by inhibiting the release of IL-2.

As you might guess, the ability to make antibodies has huge survival value; children born without this ability suffer repeated infections such as pneumonia, skin infections and tonsillitis. Before the days of antibiotics, they died in early childhood, and even today they require regular replacement therapy with immunoglobulin. Apart from their ability to neutralise pathogens, antibodies can boost the effectiveness and specificity of the host's defence reaction in several ways.

Antibodies and complement

Formation of the antigen–antibody complex exposes a binding site for complement on the Fc domain. This activates the complement sequence and sets in train its attendant biological effects (see Fig. 6.1). This route to C3 activation (the *classic pathway*) provides an especially selective way of activating complement in response to a particular pathogen, because the antigen–antibody reaction that initiates it is not only a highly specific recognition event, but also occurs in close association with the pathogen. The lytic property of complement can be used therapeutically: monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) and complement together can be used to rid bone marrow of cancer cells as an adjunct to

chemotherapy or radiotherapy (see Ch. 55).

Antibodies and the phagocytosis of bacteria

When antibodies are attached to their antigens on microorganisms by their Fab portions, the Fc domain is exposed. Phagocytic cells (neutrophils and macrophages) express surface receptors for these projecting Fc portions, which serve as a very specific link between microorganism and phagocyte.

Antibodies and cellular cytotoxicity

In some cases, for example with parasitic worms, the invader may be too large to be ingested by phagocytes. Antibody molecules can form a link between parasite and the host's white cells (in this case, eosinophils), which are then able to damage or kill the parasite by surface or extracellular actions. NK cells in conjunction with Fc receptors can also kill antibody-coated target cells (an example of antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity).

Antibodies and mast cells or basophils

Mast cells and basophils have receptors for IgE, a particular form of antibody that can attach ('fix') to their cell membranes. When antigen reacts with this cell-fixed antibody, an entire panoply of pharmacologically active mediators is secreted. This very complex reaction is found widely throughout the animal kingdom and presumably offers clear survival value to the host. Having said that, its precise biological significance is not entirely clear, although it may be of importance in association with eosinophil activity as a defence against parasitic worms. When inappropriately triggered by substances not inherently damaging to the host, it is implicated in certain types of allergic reaction (see below) and apparently contributes more to illness

than to survival in the modern world.

The Cell-Mediated Immune Response

Cytotoxic T cells (derived from $CD8^+$ cells) and inflammatory (cytokine-releasing) Th1 cells are attracted to inflammatory sites in a similar manner to neutrophils and macrophages, and are involved in cell-mediated responses (see Fig. 6.3).

Cytotoxic T cells

Armed cytotoxic T cells kill intracellular microorganisms such as viruses. When a virus infects a mammalian cell, there are two aspects to the resulting defensive response. The first step is the expression on the cell surface of peptides derived from the pathogen in association with MHC molecules. The second step is the recognition of the peptide–MHC complex by specific receptors on cytotoxic ($CD8^+$) T cells (Fig. 6.4 shows a similar process for a $CD4^+$ T cell). The cytotoxic T cells then destroy virus-infected cells by programming them to undergo apoptosis. Cooperation with macrophages may be required for killing to occur.

Macrophage-activating $CD4^+$ Th1 cells

Some pathogens (e.g. *Mycobacteria*, *Listeria*) survive and multiply within macrophages after ingestion. Armed $CD4^+$ Th1 cells release cytokines that activate macrophages to kill these intracellular pathogens. Th1 cells also recruit macrophages by releasing cytokines that act on vascular endothelial cells (e.g. TNF-α) and chemokines (e.g. *macrophage chemotactic factor-1; MCP-1*) that attract the macrophages to the sites of infection.

A complex of microorganism-derived peptides plus MHC molecules is expressed on the macrophage surface and is recognised by cytokine-releasing Th1 cells, which then generate cytokines that enable the

macrophage to deploy its killing mechanisms. Activated macrophages (with or without intracellular pathogens) are factories for the production of chemical mediators, and can generate and secrete not only many cytokines but also toxic oxygen metabolites and neutral proteases that kill extracellular organisms (e.g. *Pneumocystis carinii* and helminths), complement components, eicosanoids, NO, a fibroblast-stimulating factor, pyrogens and the 'tissue factor' that initiates the extrinsic pathway of the coagulation cascade (Ch. 24), as well as various other coagulation factors. It is primarily the cell-mediated reaction that is responsible for allograft rejection. Macrophages are also important in coordinating the repair processes that must occur for inflammation to 'resolve'.

The specific cell-mediated or humoral immunological response is superimposed on the innate nonspecific vascular and cellular reactions described previously, making them not only markedly more effective but much more selective for particular pathogens.

The general events of the inflammatory and hypersensitivity reactions specified above vary in some tissues. For example, in the airway inflammation of asthma, eosinophils and neuropeptides play a particularly significant role (see Ch. 27). In CNS inflammation, there is less neutrophil infiltration and monocyte influx is delayed, possibly because of lack of adhesion molecule expression on CNS vascular endothelium and deficient generation of chemotaxins. It has long been known that some tissues—the CNS parenchyma, the anterior chamber of the eye, and the testis—are *immunologically privileged* sites, in that a foreign antigen introduced directly does not provoke an immune reaction (which could be very disadvantageous to the host). However, introduction elsewhere of an antigen already in the CNS parenchyma will trigger the development of immune/inflammatory responses in the

CNS.

Systemic Responses in Inflammation

In addition to the local changes in an inflammatory area, there are often general systemic manifestations of inflammatory disease, including fever, an increase in blood leukocytes termed *leukocytosis* (or *neutrophilia* if the increase is in the neutrophils only) and the release from the liver of *acute-phase proteins*. These include C-reactive protein, α_2-macroglobulin, fibrinogen, α_1-antitrypsin and some complement components. While the function of many of these components is still a matter of conjecture, they all seem to have antimicrobial actions. C-reactive protein, for example, binds to some microorganisms, and the resulting complex activates complement. Other proteins scavenge iron (an essential nutrient for invading organisms) or block proteases, perhaps protecting the host against the worst excesses of the inflammatory response.

The Role of the Nervous System in Inflammation

It has become clear in recent years that the central, autonomic and peripheral nervous systems all play an important part in the regulation of the inflammatory response. This occurs at various levels:

- *The neuroendocrine system.* Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH), released from the anterior pituitary gland in response to endogenous circadian rhythm or to stress, releases cortisol from the adrenal glands. This hormone plays a crucial role in regulating immune function at all levels, hence the use of glucocorticoid drugs in the treatment of inflammatory disease. This topic is explored fully in Chs 26 and 32.

- *The central nervous sytem.* Surprisingly, cytokines such as IL-1 can

signal the development of an inflammatory response directly to the brain through receptors on the vagus nerve. This may elicit an 'inflammatory reflex' and trigger activation of a cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway. This is a relatively under-researched area: see Tracey (2002) and Sternberg (2006) for interesting discussions of this topic.

• *The autonomic nervous system.* Both the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems can influence the development of the inflammatory response. Generally speaking, their influence is anti-inflammatory. Receptors for noradrenaline and acetylcholine are found on macrophages and many other cells involved in the immune response although it is not always entirely clear exactly where their ligands originate.

• *Peripheral sensory neurons.* Some sensory neurons release inflammatory neuropeptides when appropriately stimulated. These neurons are fine afferents (capsaicin-sensitive C and Aδ fibres; see Ch. 41) with specific receptors at their peripheral terminals. Kinins, 5-hydroxytryptamine and other chemical mediators generated during inflammation act on these receptors, stimulating the release of neuropeptides such as the tachykinins (neurokinin A, substance P) and calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) which have proinflammatory or algesic actions. The neuropeptides are considered further in Chapter 19.

Unwanted Inflammatory and Immune Responses

The immune response has to strike a delicate balance. According to one school of thought, an infection-proof immune system would be a possibility but would come at a serious cost to the host. With approximately 1 trillion potential antigenic sites in the host, such a 'superimmune' system would be some 1000 times more likely to attack

the host itself, triggering *autoimmune disease*. In addition, it is not uncommon to find that innocuous substances such as pollen or peanuts sometimes inadvertently activate the immune system. When this happens, the inflammation itself inflicts damage and may be responsible for the major symptoms of the disease—either acutely as in (for example) anaphylaxis, or chronically in (for example) asthma or rheumatoid arthritis. In either case, anti-inflammatory or immunosuppressive therapy may be required.

▼ Unwanted immune responses, termed *allergic* or *hypersensitivity* reactions, have been classified into four types (Janeway et al., 2004).

Type I: immediate or anaphylactic hypersensitivity

▼ *Type I hypersensitivity* (often known simply as 'allergy') occurs in individuals who predominantly exhibit a Th2 rather than a Th1 response to antigen. In these individuals, substances that are not inherently noxious (such as grass pollen, house dust mites, certain foodstuffs or drugs, animal fur and so on) provoke the production of antibodies of the IgE type.[8] These fix on mast cells, in the lung, and also to eosinophils. Subsequent contact with the substance causes the release of histamine, PAF, eicosanoids and cytokines. The effects may be localised to the nose (hay fever), the bronchial tree (the initial phase of asthma), the skin (urticaria) or the gastrointestinal tract. In some cases, the reaction is more generalised and produces anaphylactic shock, which can be severe and life-threatening. Some important unwanted effects of drugs include anaphylactic hypersensitivity responses (see Ch. 57).

[8]Such individuals are said to be 'atopic', from a Greek word meaning 'out of place'.

Type II: antibody-dependent cytotoxic hypersensitivity

▼ *Type II hypersensitivity* occurs when the mechanisms outlined above are directed against cells within the host that are (or appear to be) foreign. For example, host cells altered by drugs are sometimes mistaken by the immune system for foreign proteins and evoke antibody formation. The antigen–antibody reaction triggers complement activation (and its sequelae) and may promote attack by NK cells. Examples include alteration by drugs of neutrophils, leading to *agranulocytosis* (see Ch. 56), or of platelets, leading to *thrombocytopenic purpura* (Ch. 24). These type II reactions are also implicated in some types of *autoimmune thyroiditis* (e.g. *Hashimoto's disease*; see Ch. 33).

Type III: complex-mediated hypersensitivity

▼ *Type III hypersensitivity* occurs when antibodies react with *soluble* antigens. The antigen–antibody complexes can activate complement or attach to mast cells and stimulate the release of mediators.

An experimental example of this is the Arthus reaction that occurs if a foreign protein is injected subcutaneously into a rabbit or guinea pig with high circulating concentrations of antibody. Within 3–8 h, the area becomes red and swollen because the antigen–antibody complexes precipitate in small blood vessels and activate complement. Neutrophils are attracted and activated (by C5a) to generate toxic oxygen species and to secrete enzymes.

Mast cells are also stimulated by C3a to release mediators. Damage caused by this process is involved in *serum sickness*, caused when antigen persists in the blood after sensitisation, causing a severe reaction, as in the response to mouldy hay (known as *farmer's lung*), and in certain types of autoimmune kidney and arterial disease. Type III hypersensitivity is also implicated in *lupus erythematosus* (a chronic, autoimmune inflammatory disease).

Type IV: cell-mediated hypersensitivity

▼ The prototype of *type IV hypersensitivity* (also known as delayed hypersensitivity) is the *tuberculin reaction*, a local inflammatory response seen when proteins derived from cultures of the tubercle bacillus are injected into the skin of a person who has been sensitised by a previous infection or immunisation. An 'inappropriate' cell-mediated immune response is stimulated, accompanied by infiltration of mononuclear cells and the release of various cytokines. Cell-mediated hypersensitivity is also the basis of the reaction seen in some other infections (e.g. mumps and measles), as well as with mosquito and tick bites. It is also important in the skin reactions to drugs or industrial chemicals (see Ch. 57), where the chemical (termed a *hapten*) combines with proteins in the skin to form the 'foreign' substance that evokes the cell-mediated immune response (Fig. 6.3).

In essence, inappropriately deployed T-cell activity underlies all types of hypersensitivity, initiating types I, II and III, and being involved in both the initiation and the effector phase in type IV. These reactions are the basis of the clinically important group of autoimmune diseases. Immunosuppressive drugs (Ch. 26) and/or glucocorticoids (Ch. 32) are routinely employed to treat such disorders.

The Outcome of the Inflammatory Response

It is important not to lose sight of the fact that the inflammatory response is a defence mechanism and not, ipso facto, a disease. Its role is to restore normal structure and function to the infected or damaged tissue and, in the vast majority of cases, this is what happens. The healing and resolution phase of the inflammatory response is an active process and does not simply 'happen' in the absence of further inflammation. This is an area that we are just beginning to understand,

but it is clear that it utilises its own unique palette of mediators and cytokines (including various growth factors, annexin-A1, lipoxins and IL-10; see Ch. 17) to terminate residual inflammation and to promote remodelling and repair of damaged tissue.

In some cases, healing will be complete, but if there has been damage (death of cells, pus formation, ulceration) repair is usually necessary and may result in scarring. If the pathogen persists, the acute response is likely to transform into a chronic inflammatory response. This is a slow, smouldering reaction that can continue indefinitely, destroying tissue and promoting local proliferation of cells and connective tissue. The principal cell types found in areas of chronic inflammation are mononuclear cells and abnormal macrophage-derived cells. During healing or chronic inflammation, growth factors trigger angiogenesis and cause fibroblasts to lay down fibrous tissue. Infection by some microorganisms, such as syphilis, tuberculosis and leprosy, bears the characteristic hallmarks of chronic inflammation from the start. The cellular and mediator components of this type of inflammation are also seen in many, if not most, chronic autoimmune and hypersensitivity diseases, and are important targets for drug action.

References and Further Reading

The innate and adaptive responses

bbas A.K., Murphy K.M., Sher A. Functional diversity of helper lymphocytes. *Nature*. 1996;383:787-793. (*Excellent review, helpful diagrams; commendable coverage of Th1 and Th2 cells and their respective cytokine subsets*)

dams D.H., Lloyd A.R. Chemokines: leukocyte recruitment and activation cytokines. *Lancet*. 1997;349:490-495. (*Commendable review*)

elves P.J., Roitt I.M. The immune system. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2000;343:37-49. 108–117. (*A good*

overview of the immune system—a minitextbook of major areas in immunology; colourful three-dimensional figures)

abay C., Kushner I. Acute phase proteins and other systemic responses to inflammation. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1999;340:448-454. (*Lists the acute-phase proteins and outlines the mechanisms controlling their synthesis and release*)

ärre K., Welsh R.M. Viral decoy vetoes killer cell. *Nature*. 1997;386:446-447.

ay A.B. Allergic diseases and their treatment. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;344:30-37. 109–113. (*Covers atopy and Th2 cells, the role of Th2 cytokines in allergies, IgE, the main types of allergy and new therapeutic approaches*)

lackay C.R., Lanzavecchia A., Sallusto F. Chemoattractant receptors and immune responses. *Immunologist*. 1999;7:112-118. (*Masterly short review covering the role of chemoattractants in orchestrating immune responses—both the innate reaction and the Th1 and Th2 responses*)

ledzhitov R. Toll-like receptors and innate immunity. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.*. 2001;1:135-145. (*Excellent review of the role of Toll-like receptors in (a) the detection of microbial infection, and (b) the activation of innate non-adaptive responses, which in turn lead to antigen-specific adaptive responses*)

ledzhitov R., Janeway C. Innate immunity. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2000;343:338-344. (*Outstandingly clear coverage of the mechanisms involved in innate immunity and its significance for the adaptive immune response*)

lills K.H. Induction, function and regulation of IL-17-producing T cells. *Eur. J. Immunol.*. 2008;38:2636-2649. (*This paper covers the biology of Th17 cells—a relatively recent addition to our understanding of Th biology. Accessible and has good diagrams*)

lurphy P.M. Viral exploitation and subversion of the immune system through chemokine mimicry. *Nat. Immunol.*. 2001;2:116-122. (*Excellent description of viral/immune system interaction*)

anes J., Perry M., Granger D.N. Leukocyte–endothelial cell adhesion: avenues for therapeutic intervention. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 1999;126:537-550. (*Brief coverage of the principal cell adhesion molecules and factors affecting leukocyte–endothelial adhesion precedes consideration of potential*

therapeutic targets)

arkin J., Cohen B. An overview of the immune system. *Lancet*. 2001;357:1777-1789. (*A competent, straightforward review covering the role of the immune system in recognising, repelling and eradicating pathogens and in reacting against molecules foreign to the body*)

ternberg E.M. Neural regulation of innate immunity: a coordinated nonspecific host response to pathogens. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.*. 2006;6:318-328. (*This paper and the next are both excellent and easy-to-read reviews covering the role of the CNS in inflammation. Some good diagrams*)

akeda K., Akira S. Toll receptors and pathogen resistance. *Cell Microbiol.*. 2003;5:143-153. (*Useful review and easy to read. Also deals with Toll receptor signalling in some depth*)

racey K.J. The inflammatory reflex. *Nature*. 2002;420:853-859.

asselon T., Detmers P.A. Toll receptors: a central element in innate immune responses. *Infect. Immun.*. 2002;70:1033-1041. (*Another comprehensive review on this important topic*)

/alker C., Zuany-Amorini C. New trends in immunotherapy to prevent atopic disease. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2001;22:84-91. (*Discusses potential therapies based on recent advances in the understanding of the immune mechanisms of atopy*)

/ills-Karp M., Santeliz J., Karp C.L. The germless theory of allergic diseases. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.*. 2001;1:69-75. (*Discusses the hypothesis that early childhood infections inhibit the tendency to develop allergic disease*)

Books

extbook of immunopharmacology Dale M.M., Foreman J.C., Fan T.-P., editors third ed 1994 Blackwell Scientific Oxford (*Excellent textbook written with second-and third-year medical and science students in mind; contains many sections relevant to this chapter and the next*)

aneway C.A., Travers P., Nolan A., *et al. Immunobiology: the immune system in health and disease*, sixth ed. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 2004. (*Excellent textbook, good diagrams*)

oitt I., Brostoff J., Male D. *Immunology*, ninth ed. Oxford: Blackwell Science; 1998. (*Excellent textbook; well illustrated*)

Useful web links

ttp://www.biochemweb.org/fenteany/research/cell_migration/movement_movies.html (*If you have never seen a neutrophil in hot pursuit of a bacterium, then you definitely need to look at this online movie. Great fun and highly instructive*)

7

Method and measurement in pharmacology

Overview

We emphasised in Chapters 2 and 3 that drugs, being molecules, produce their effects by interacting with other molecules. This interaction can lead to effects at all levels of biological organisation, from molecules to human populations (Fig. 7.1).[1]

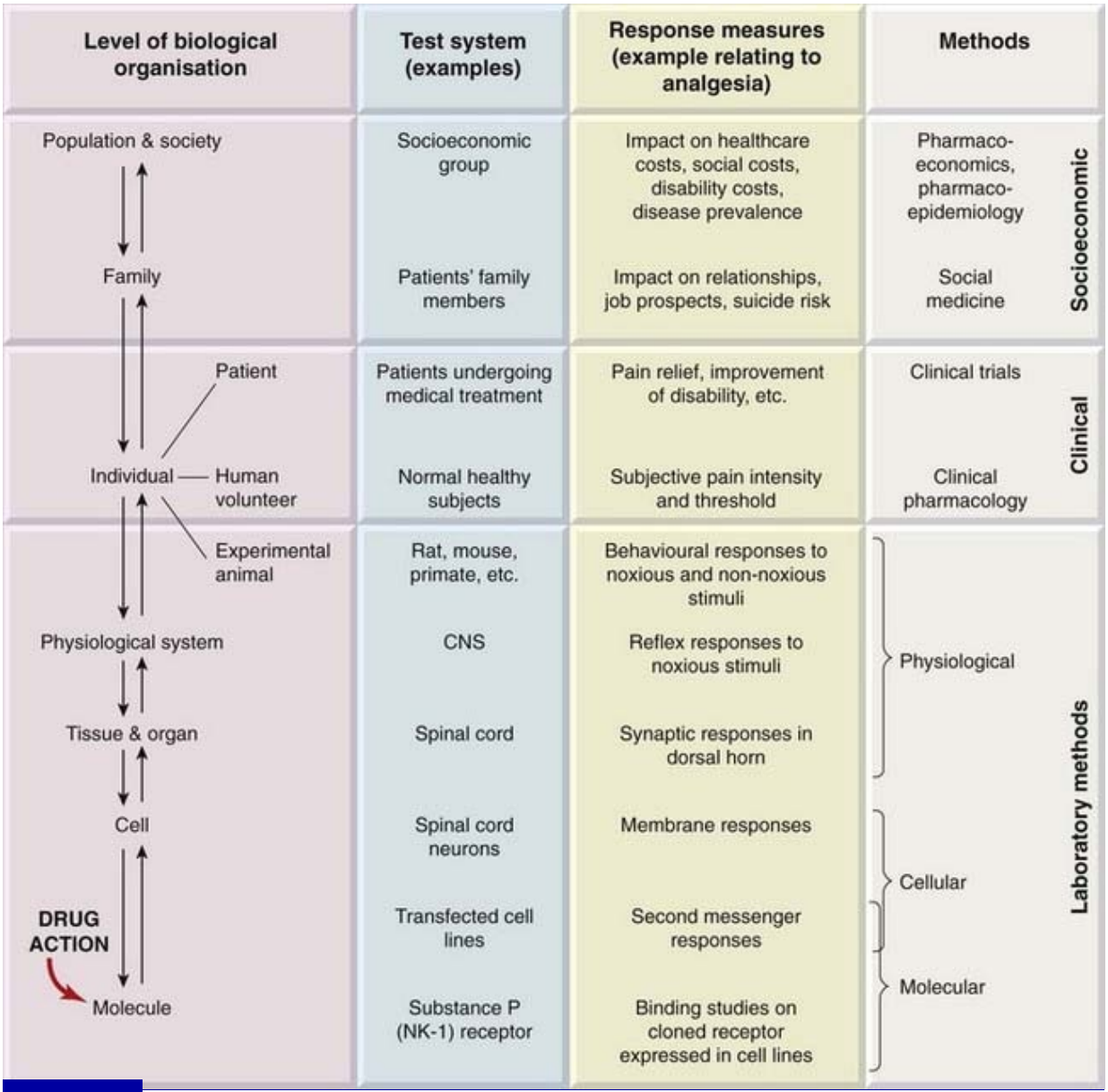


Fig. 7.1 Levels of biological organisation and types of pharmacological measurement.

[1]Consider the effect of cocaine on organised crime, of organophosphate 'nerve gases' on the stability of dictatorships or of anaesthetics on the feasibility of surgical procedures for examples of molecular interactions that affect the behaviour of populations and societies.

Gaddum, a pioneering pharmacologist, commented in 1942: 'A branch of science comes of age when it becomes quantitative.' In

this chapter, we cover the principles of metrication at the various organisational levels, ranging from laboratory methods to clinical trials. Assessment of drug action at the population level is the concern of *pharmacoepidemiology* and *pharmacoeconomics* (see Ch. 1), disciplines that are beyond the scope of this book.

We consider first the general principles of bioassay, and its extension to studies in human beings; we describe the development of animal models to bridge the predictive gap between animal physiology and human disease; we next discuss aspects of clinical trials used to evaluate therapeutic efficacy in a clinical setting; finally, we consider the principles of balancing benefit and risk. Experimental design and statistical analysis are central to the interpretation of all types of pharmacological data. Kirkwood & Sterne (2003) provide an excellent introduction.

Bioassay

Bioassay, defined as the estimation of the concentration or potency of a substance by measurement of the biological response that it produces, has played a key role in the development of pharmacology. Quantitation of drug effects by bioassay is necessary to compare the properties of different substances, or the same substance under different circumstances. It is used:

- to measure the pharmacological activity of new or chemically undefined substances
- to investigate the function of endogenous mediators
- to measure drug toxicity and unwanted effects.

▼ Bioassay plays a key role in the development of new drugs, discussed in Chapter 60.

The use of bioassay to measure the *concentration* of drugs and other active substances in the blood or other body fluids—once an important technology—has now been largely replaced by analytical chemistry techniques.

New hormones and other chemical mediators are often discovered by the biological effects that they produce. The first clue may be the finding that a tissue extract or some other biological sample produces an effect on an assay system. For example, the ability of extracts of the posterior lobe of the pituitary to produce a rise in blood pressure and a contraction of the uterus was observed at the beginning of the 20th century. Quantitative assay procedures based on these actions enabled a standard preparation of the extract to be established by international agreement in 1935. By use of these assays, it was shown that two distinct peptides—vasopressin and oxytocin—were responsible, and they were eventually identified and synthesised in 1953. Biological assay had already revealed much about the synthesis, storage and release of the hormones, and was essential for their purification and identification. Nowadays, it does not take 50 years of laborious bioassays to identify new hormones before they are chemically characterised,[2] but bioassay still plays a key role. The recent growth of *biopharmaceuticals* (see Ch. 59) as registered therapeutic agents has relied on bioassay techniques and the establishment of standard preparations. Biopharmaceuticals, whether derived from natural sources (e.g. monoclonal antibodies, vaccines) or by recombinant DNA technology (e.g. erythropoietin), tend to vary from batch to batch, and need to be standardised with respect to their biological activity. Varying glycosylation patterns, for example, which are not detected by immunoassay techniques, may affect biological activity.

[2]In 1988, a Japanese group (Yanagisawa et al., 1988) described in a

single remarkable paper the bioassay, purification, chemical analysis, synthesis and DNA cloning of a new vascular peptide, *endothelin* (see Ch. 19).

Biological Test Systems

Nowadays, an important use of bioassay is to provide information that will predict the effect of the drug in the clinical situation (where the aim is to improve function in patients suffering from the effects of disease). The choice of laboratory test systems (in vitro and in vivo 'models') that provide this predictive link is an important aspect of quantitative pharmacology. As our understanding of drug action at the molecular level advances (Ch. 3), this knowledge, and the technologies underlying it, have greatly extended the range of models that are available for measuring drug effects. By the 1960s, pharmacologists had become adept at using isolated organs and laboratory animals (usually under anaesthesia) for quantitative experiments, and had developed the principles of bioassay to allow reliable measurements to be made with these sometimes difficult and unpredictable test systems.

Bioassays on different test systems may be run in parallel to reveal the profile of activity of an unknown mediator. This was used to great effect by Vane and his colleagues, who studied the generation and destruction of endogenous active substances such as prostanoids (see Ch. 17) by the technique of *cascade superfusion* (Fig. 7.2). In this technique, the sample is run sequentially over a series of test preparations chosen to differentiate between different active constituents of the sample. The pattern of responses produced identifies the active material, and the use of such assay systems for 'on-line' analysis of biological samples has been invaluable in studying the production and fate of short-lived mediators such as prostanoids and nitric oxide (Ch. 20).

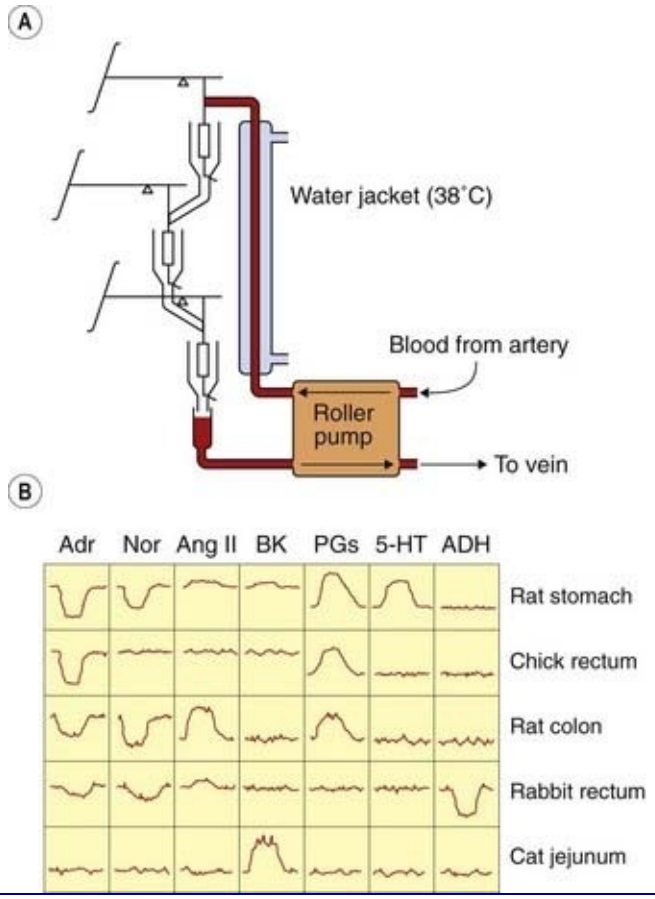


Fig. 7.2 Parallel assay by the cascade superfusion technique.

Blood is pumped continuously from the test animal over a succession of test organs, whose responses are measured by a simple transducer system. The response of these organs to a variety of test substances (at 0.1–5 ng/ml) is shown. Each active substance produces a distinct pattern of responses, enabling unknown materials present in the blood to be identified and assayed. 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; ADH, antidiuretic hormone; Adr, adrenaline (epinephrine); Ang II, angiotensin II; BK, bradykinin; Nor, noradrenaline (norepinephrine); PG, prostaglandin.

(From Vane J R 1969 Br J Pharmacol 35: 209–242.)

These ‘traditional’ assay systems address drug action at the physiological level—roughly, the mid-range of the organisational hierarchy shown in Fig. 7.1. Subsequent developments have extended the range of available models in both directions, towards the molecular and towards the clinical. The introduction of binding assays (Ch. 3) in the 1970s was a significant step towards analysis at the molecular level.

Subsequently, use of cell lines engineered to express specific human receptor subtypes has become widespread as a screening tool for drug discovery (see Ch. 60). Indeed, the range of techniques for analysing drug effects at the molecular and cellular levels is now very impressive. Bridging the gap between these levels and effects at the physiological and the therapeutic levels has, however, proved much more difficult, because human illness cannot, in many cases, be accurately reproduced in experimental animals. The use of transgenic animals to model human disease represents a real advance, and is discussed in more detail below.

Bioassay

• Bioassay is the measurement of potency of a drug or unknown mediator from the magnitude of the biological effect that it produces.

• Bioassay normally involves comparison of the unknown preparation with a standard. Estimates that are not based on comparison with standards are liable to vary from laboratory to laboratory.

• Comparisons are best made on the basis of dose–response curves, which allow estimates of the equiactive concentrations of unknown and standard to be used as a basis for the potency comparison. Parallel line assays follow this principle.

• The biological response may be *quantal* (the proportion of tests in which a given all-or-nothing effect is produced) or *graded*. Different statistical procedures are appropriate in each case.

• Different approaches to metrication apply according to the level of biological organisation at which the drug effect needs to be measured. Approaches range through molecular and chemical techniques, in vitro and in vivo animal studies and clinical studies on volunteers and patients, to measurement of effects at the socioeconomic level.

General Principles of Bioassay

The Use of Standards

J H Burn wrote in 1950: ‘Pharmacologists today strain at the king’s arm, but they swallow the frog, rat and mouse, not to mention the guinea pig and the pigeon.’ He was referring to the fact that the ‘king’s arm’ had been long since abandoned as a standard measure of length, whereas drug activity continued to be defined in terms of dose needed to cause, say, vomiting of a pigeon or cardiac arrest in a mouse. A plethora of ‘pigeon units’, ‘mouse units’ and the like, which no two laboratories could agree on, contaminated the literature.[3] Even if two laboratories cannot agree—because their pigeons differ—on the activity in pigeon units of the same sample of an active substance, they should nonetheless be able to agree that preparation X is, say, 3.5 times as active as standard preparation Y on the pigeon test. Biological assays are therefore designed to measure the *relative potency* of two preparations, usually a standard and an unknown. Maintaining stable preparations of various hormones, antisera and other biological materials, as reference standards, is the task of the UK National Board for Biological Standards Control.

[3]More picturesque examples of absolute units of the kind that Burn would have frowned on are the PHI and the mHelen. PHI, cited by Colquhoun (1971), stands for ‘purity in heart index’ and measures the ability of a virgin pure-in-heart to transform, under appropriate conditions, a he-goat into a youth of surpassing beauty. The mHelen is a unit of beauty, 1 mHelen being sufficient to launch 1 ship.

The Design of Bioassays

▼ Given the aim of comparing the activity of two preparations, a

standard (S) and an unknown (U) on a particular preparation, a bioassay must provide an estimate of the dose or concentration of U that will produce the same biological effect as that of a known dose or concentration of S. As Figure 7.3 shows, provided that the log dose–effect curves for S and U are parallel, the ratio, *M*, of equiactive doses will not depend on the magnitude of response chosen. Thus *M* provides an estimate of the potency ratio of the two preparations. A comparison of the magnitude of the effects produced by equal doses of S and U does not provide an estimate of *M* (see Fig. 7.3).

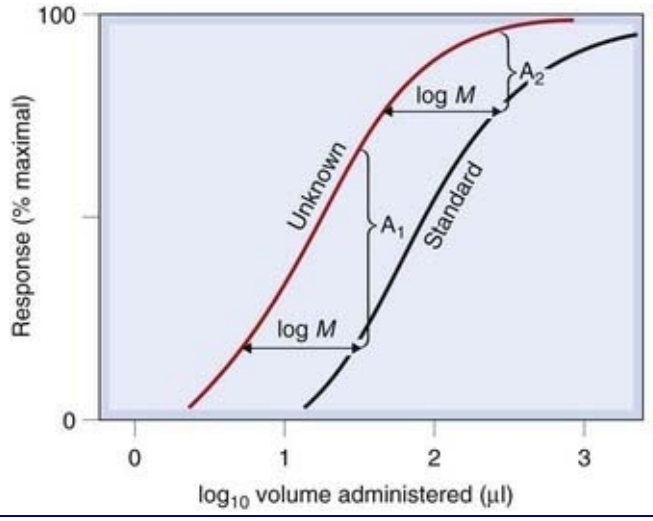


Fig. 7.3 Comparison of the potency of unknown and standard by bioassay.

Note that comparing the magnitude of responses produced by the same dose (i.e. volume) of standard and unknown gives no quantitative estimate of their relative potency. (The differences, A_1 and A_2, depend on the dose chosen.) Comparison of equieffective doses of standard and unknown gives a valid measure of their relative potencies. Because the lines are parallel, the magnitude of the effect chosen for the comparison is immaterial; *i.e.* log *M* is the same at all points on the curves.

The main problem with all types of bioassay is that of biological variation, and the design of bioassays is aimed at:

- minimising variation

- avoiding systematic errors resulting from variation
- estimation of the limits of error of the assay result.

Commonly, comparisons are based on analysis of *dose–response curves*, from which the matching doses of S and U are calculated. The use of a logarithmic dose scale means that the curves for S and U will normally be parallel, and the potency ratio (*M*) is estimated from the horizontal distance between the two curves (Fig. 7.3). Assays of this type are known as *parallel line* assays, the minimal design being the 2 + 2 assay, in which two doses of standard (S_1 and S_2) and two of unknown (U_1 and U_2) are used. The doses are chosen to give responses lying on the linear part of the log dose–response curve, and are given repeatedly in randomised order, providing an inherent measure of the variability of the test system, which can be used, by means of straightforward statistical analysis, to estimate the confidence limits of the final result.

Problems arise if the two log dose–response curves are not parallel, for example if the assay is used to compare two drugs whose mechanism of action is not the same, or if one is a partial agonist (see Ch. 2). In this case it is not possible to define the relative potencies of S and U unambiguously in terms of a simple ratio and the experimenter must then face up to the fact that the comparison requires measurement of more than a single dimension of potency. An example of this kind of difficulty is met when diuretic drugs (Ch. 28) are compared. Some ('low ceiling') diuretics are capable of producing only a small diuretic effect, no matter how much is given; others ('high ceiling') can produce a very intense diuresis (described as 'torrential' by authors with vivid imaginations). A comparison of two such drugs requires not only a measure of the doses needed to produce an equal low-level diuretic effect, but also a measure of the relative heights of the ceilings.

A simple example of an experiment to compare two analgesic drugs, morphine and codeine (see Ch. 41) in humans, based on a modified 2 + 2 design is shown in Figure 7.4. Each of the four doses was given on different occasions to each of the four subjects, the order being randomised and both subject and observer being unaware of the dose given. Subjective pain relief was assessed by a trained observer, and the results showed morphine to be 13 times as potent as codeine. This, of course, does not prove its superiority, but merely shows that a smaller dose is needed to produce the same effect. Such a measurement is, however, an essential preliminary to assessing the relative therapeutic merits of the two drugs, for any comparison of other factors, such as side effects, duration of action, tolerance or dependence, needs to be done on the basis of doses that are equiactive as analgesics.

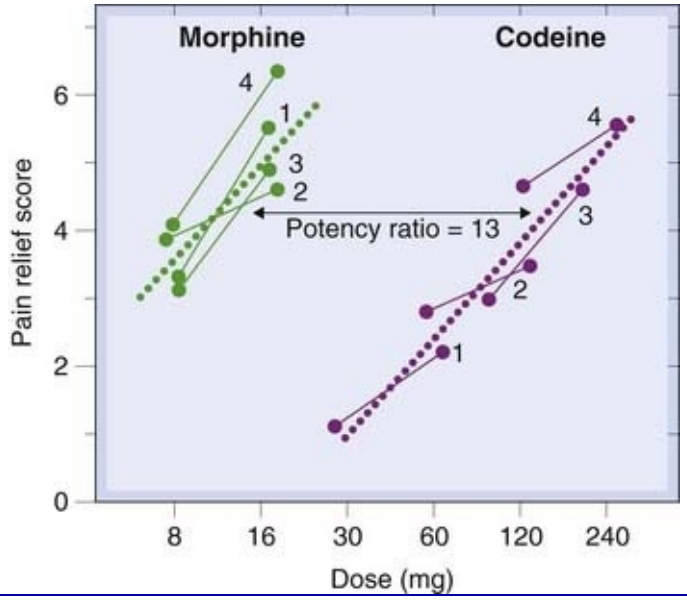


Fig. 7.4 Assay of morphine and codeine as analgesics in humans.

Each of four patients (numbered 1–4) was given, on successive occasions in random order, four different treatments (high and low morphine, and high and low codeine) by intramuscular injection, and the subjective pain relief score calculated for each. The calculated regression lines gave a potency ratio estimate of 13 for the two drugs.

(After Houde R W et al. 1965. In: Analgetics. Academic Press, New York.)

Animal Models of Disease

There are many examples where simple intuitive models predict with fair accuracy therapeutic efficacy in humans. Ferrets vomit when placed in swaying cages, and drugs that prevent this are also found to relieve motion sickness and other types of nausea in humans. Irritant chemicals injected into rats' paws cause them to become swollen and tender, and this model predicts very well the efficacy of drugs used for symptomatic relief in inflammatory conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis in humans. As discussed elsewhere in this book, models for many important disorders, such as epilepsy, diabetes, hypertension and gastric ulceration, based on knowledge of the physiology of the condition, are available, and have been used successfully to produce new drugs, even though their success in predicting therapeutic efficacy is far from perfect.[4]

[4]There have been many examples of drugs that were highly effective in experimental animals (e.g. in reducing brain damage following cerebral ischaemia) but ineffective in humans (stroke victims). Similarly, substance P antagonists (Ch. 19) are effective in animal tests for analgesia, but they proved inactive when tested in humans. How many errors in the opposite direction may have occurred we shall never know, because such drugs will not have been tested in humans.

Ideally, an animal model should resemble the human disease in the following ways:

1 similar pathophysiological phenotype (*face validity*)

2 similar causation (*construct validity*)

3 similar response to treatment (*predictive validity*).

In practice, there are many difficulties, and the shortcomings of animal models are one of the main roadblocks on the route from basic medical

science to improvements in therapy. The difficulties include the following.

• Many diseases, particularly in psychiatry, are defined by phenomena in humans that are difficult or impossible to observe in animals, which rules out face validity. As far as we know, mania or delusions have no counterpart in rats, nor can we recognise in them anything resembling a migraine attack or autism. Pathophysiological similarity is also inapplicable to conditions such as depression or anxiety disorders, where no clear brain pathology has been defined.

• The 'cause' of many human diseases is complex or unknown. To achieve construct validity for many degenerative diseases (e.g. Alzheimer's disease, osteoarthritis, Parkinson's disease), we need to model the upstream (causative) factors rather than the downstream (symptomatic) features of the disease, although the latter are the basis of most of the simple physiological models used hitherto. The inflammatory pain model mentioned above lacks construct validity for rheumatoid arthritis, which is an autoimmune disease.

• Relying on response to treatment as a test of predictive validity carries the risk that drugs acting by novel mechanisms could be missed, because the model will have been selected on the basis of its responsiveness to known drugs. With schizophrenia (Ch. 45), for example, it is clear that dopamine antagonists are effective, and many of the models used are designed to assess dopamine antagonism in the brain, rather than other potential mechanisms that need to be targeted if drug discovery is to move on.

Animal models

• Animal models of disease are important for investigating pathogenesis and for the discovery of new therapeutic agents. Animal models generally reproduce imperfectly only certain aspects of human disease states. Models of psychiatric illness are particularly problematic.

• Transgenic animals are produced by introducing mutations into the germ cells of animals (usually mice), which allow new genes to be introduced ('knock-ins') or existing genes to be inactivated ('knockouts') or mutated in a stable strain of animals.

• Transgenic animals are widely used to develop disease models for drug testing. Many such models are now available.

• The induced mutation operates throughout the development and lifetime of the animal, and may be lethal. New techniques of conditional mutagenesis allow the abnormal gene to be switched on or off at a chosen time.

Genetic and Transgenic Animal Models

Nowadays, genetic approaches are increasingly used as an adjunct to conventional physiological and pharmacological approaches to disease modelling.

By selective breeding, it is possible to obtain pure animal strains with characteristics closely resembling certain human diseases. Genetic models of this kind include spontaneously hypertensive rats, genetically obese mice, epilepsy-prone dogs and mice, rats with deficient vasopressin secretion, and many other examples. In many cases, the genes responsible have not been identified.

▼ The obese mouse, which arose from a spontaneous mutation in a mouse-breeding facility, is one of the most widely used models for the study of obesity and type 2 diabetes (see Ch. 30). The phenotype results from inactivation of the *leptin* gene, and shows good face validity (high food intake, gross obesity, impaired blood glucose regulation, vascular complications—features characteristic of human obesity) and good

predictive validity (responding to pharmacological intervention similarly to humans), but poor construct validity, since obese humans are not leptin deficient.

Deliberate genetic manipulation of the germline to generate *transgenic animals* (see Rudolph & Moehler, 1999; Offermanns & Hein, 2004) is of growing importance as a means of replicating human disease states in experimental animals, and thereby providing animal models that are expected to be more predictive of therapeutic drug effects in humans. This versatile technology, first reported in 1980, can be used in many different ways, for example:

- to inactivate individual genes, or mutate them to pathological forms
- to introduce new (e.g. human) genes
- to overexpress genes by inserting additional copies
- to allow gene expression to be controlled by the experimenter.[5]

[5]With conventional transgenic technology, the genetic abnormality is expressed throughout development, sometimes proving lethal or causing major developmental abnormalities. *Conditional transgenesis* is now possible (see Ristevski, 2005), allowing the transgene to remain silent until triggered by the administration of a chemical promoter (e.g. the tetracycline analogue, **doxycycline**, in the most widely used *Cre-Lox* conditional system). This avoids the complications of developmental effects and long-term adaptations, and may allow adult disease to be modelled more accurately.

Currently, most transgenic technologies are applicable in mice but much more difficult in other mammals. Other vertebrates (e.g. zebrafish) and invertebrates (*Drosophila*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*) are increasingly used for drug screening purposes.

Examples of such models include transgenic mice that overexpress mutated forms of the *amyloid precursor protein* or *presenilins*, which are important in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease (see Ch. 39). When they are a few months old, these mice develop pathological lesions and cognitive changes resembling Alzheimer's disease, and provide very useful models with which to test possible new therapeutic approaches to the disease. Another neurodegenerative condition, Parkinson's disease (Ch. 39) has been modelled in transgenic mice that overexpress *synuclein*, a protein found in the brain inclusions that are characteristic of the disease. Transgenic mice with mutations in tumour suppressor genes and oncogenes (see Ch. 5) are widely used as models for human cancers. Mice in which the gene for a particular adenosine receptor subtype has been inactivated show distinct behavioural and cardiovascular abnormalities, such as increased aggression, reduced response to noxious stimuli and raised blood pressure. These findings serve to pinpoint the physiological role of this receptor, whose function was hitherto unknown, and to suggest new ways in which agonists or antagonists for these receptors might be developed for therapeutic use (e.g. to reduce aggressive behaviour or to treat hypertension). Transgenic mice can, however, be misleading in relation to human disease. For example, the gene defect responsible for causing cystic fibrosis (a disease affecting mainly the lungs in humans), when reproduced in mice, causes a disorder that mainly affects the intestine.

Pharmacological Studies in Humans

Studies involving human subjects range from experimental pharmacodynamic or pharmacokinetic investigations to formal clinical trials. Non-invasive recording methods, such as *functional magnetic resonance imaging* to measure regional blood flow in the brain (a

surrogate for neuronal activity) and *ultrasonography* to measure cardiac performance, have greatly extended the range of what is possible. The scientific principles underlying experimental work in humans, designed, for example, to check whether mechanisms that operate in other species also apply to humans, or to take advantage of the much broader response capabilities of a person compared with a rat, are the same as for animals, but the ethical and safety issues are paramount, and ethical committees associated with all medical research centres tightly control the type of experiment that can be done, weighing up not only safety and ethical issues, but also the scientific importance of the proposed study. At the other end of the spectrum of experimentation on humans are formal *clinical trials*, often involving thousands of patients, aimed at answering specific questions regarding the efficacy and safety of new drugs.

Clinical Trials

Clinical trials are an important and highly specialised form of biological assay, designed specifically to measure therapeutic efficacy. The need to use patients undergoing treatment for experimental purposes raises serious ethical considerations, and imposes many restrictions. Here, we discuss some of the basic principles involved in clinical trials; the role of such trials in the course of drug development is described in Chapter 60.

A clinical trial is a method for comparing objectively, by a prospective study, the results of two or more therapeutic procedures. For new drugs, this is carried out during phase III of clinical development (Ch. 60). It is important to realise that, until about 50 years ago, methods of treatment were chosen on the basis of clinical impression and personal experience rather than objective testing.[6] Although many drugs, with undoubted effectiveness, remain in use without ever having been subjected to a

controlled clinical trial, any new drug is now required to have been tested in this way before being licensed for general clinical use.[7]

[6]Not exclusively. James Lind conducted a controlled trial in 1753 on 12 mariners, which showed that oranges and lemons offered protection against scurvy. However, 40 years passed before the British Navy acted on his advice, and a further century before the US Navy did.

[7]It is fashionable in some quarters to argue that to require evidence of efficacy of therapeutic procedures in the form of a controlled trial runs counter to the doctrines of 'holistic' medicine. This is a fundamentally antiscientific view, for science advances only by generating predictions from hypotheses and by subjecting the predictions to experimental test. 'Alternative' medical procedures, such as homeopathy, aromatherapy, acupuncture or 'detox', have rarely been so tested, and where they have they generally lack efficacy. Standing up for the scientific approach is the *evidence-based medicine* movement (see Sackett et al., 1996), which sets out strict criteria for assessing therapeutic efficacy, based on randomised, controlled clinical trials, and urges scepticism about therapeutic doctrines whose efficacy has not been so demonstrated.

On the other hand, **digitalis** (see Ch. 21) was used for 200 years to treat cardiac failure before a controlled trial showed it to be of very limited value except in a particular type of patient.

A good account of the principles and organisation of clinical trials is given by Friedman *et al.* (1996). A clinical trial aims to compare the response of a test group of patients receiving a new treatment (A) with that of a control group receiving an existing 'standard' treatment (B). Treatment A might be a new drug or a new combination of existing drugs, or any other kind of therapeutic intervention, such as a surgical operation, a diet, physiotherapy and so on. The standard against which it

is judged (treatment B) might be a currently used drug treatment or (if there is no currently available effective treatment) a placebo or no treatment at all.

The use of controls is crucial in clinical trials. Claims of therapeutic efficacy based on reports that, for example, 16 out of 20 patients receiving drug X got better within 2 weeks are of no value without a knowledge of how 20 patients receiving no treatment, or a different treatment, would have fared. Usually, the controls are provided by a separate group of patients from those receiving the test treatment, but sometimes a crossover design is possible in which the same patients are switched from test to control treatment or vice versa, and the results compared. Randomisation is essential to avoid bias in assigning individual patients to test or control groups. Hence, the *randomised controlled clinical trial* is now regarded as the essential tool for assessing clinical efficacy of new drugs.

Concern inevitably arises over the ethics of assigning patients at random to particular treatment groups (or to no treatment). However, the reason for setting up a trial is that doubt exists whether the test treatment offers greater benefit than the control treatment. All would agree on the principle of informed consent,[8] whereby each patient must be told the nature and risks of the trial, and agree to participate on the basis that he or she will be randomly and unknowingly assigned to either the test or the control group.

[8]Even this can be contentious, because patients who are unconscious, demented or mentally ill are unable to give such consent, yet no one would want to preclude trials that might offer improved therapies to these needy patients. Clinical trials in children are particularly problematic but are necessary if the treatment of childhood diseases is to be placed on the same evidence base as is judged appropriate for adults.

There are many examples where experience has shown that children respond differently from adults, and there is now increasing pressure on pharmaceutical companies to perform trials in children, despite the difficulties of carrying out such studies. The same concerns apply to trials in elderly patients.

Unlike the kind of bioassay discussed earlier, the clinical trial does not normally give any information about potency or the form of the dose–response curve, but merely compares the response produced by two stipulated therapeutic regimens. *Survival curves* provide one commonly used measure. Figure 7.5 shows rates of disease-free survival in two groups of breast cancer patients treated with conventional chemotherapy with and without the addition of **paclitaxel** (see Ch. 55). The divergence of the curves shows that paclitaxel significantly improved the clinical response. Additional questions may be posed, such as the prevalence and severity of side effects, or whether the treatment works better or worse in particular classes of patient, but only at the expense of added complexity and numbers of patients, and most trials are kept as simple as possible. The investigator must decide in advance what dose to use and how often to give it, and the trial will reveal only whether the chosen regimen performed better or worse than the control treatment. It will not say whether increasing or decreasing the dose would have improved the response; another trial would be needed to ascertain that. The basic question posed by a clinical trial is thus simpler than that addressed by most conventional bioassays. However, the organisation of clinical trials, with controls against bias, is immeasurably more complicated, time-consuming and expensive than that of any laboratory-based assay.

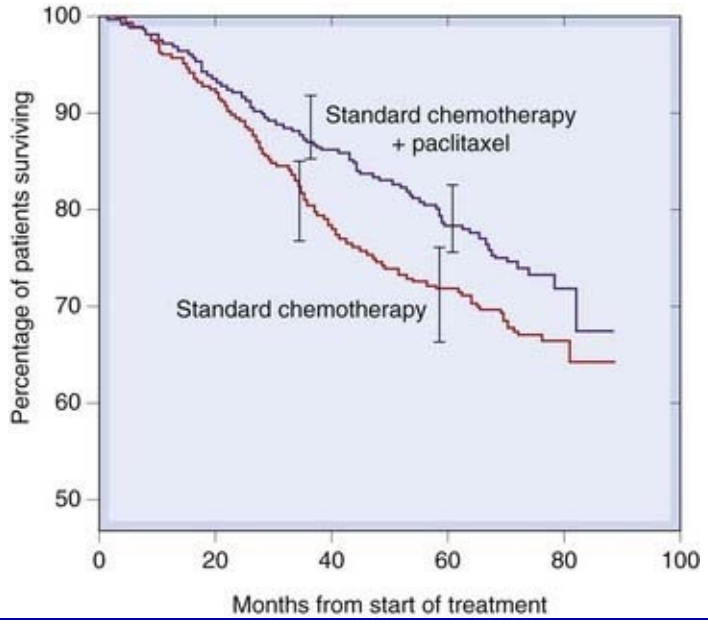


Fig. 7.5 Disease-free survival curves followed for 8 years in matched groups of breast cancer patients treated with a standard chemotherapy regime alone (629 patients), or with addition of paclitaxel (613 patients), showing a highly significant ($P = 0.006$) improvement with paclitaxel.

Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

(Redrawn from Martin et al. 2008 J Natl Cancer Inst 100:805–814.)

Avoidance of Bias

There are two main strategies that aim to minimise bias in clinical trials, namely:

1 randomisation

2 the double-blind technique.

If two treatments, A and B, are being compared on a series of selected patients, the simplest form of randomisation is to allocate each patient to A or B by reference to a series of random numbers. One difficulty with simple randomisation, particularly if the groups are small, is that the two groups may turn out to be ill-matched with respect to characteristics such as age, sex or disease severity. *Stratified randomisation* is often used

to avoid the difficulty. Thus the subjects might be divided into age categories, random allocation to A or B being used within each category. It is possible to treat two or more characteristics of the trial population in this way, but the number of strata can quickly become large, and the process is self-defeating when the number of subjects in each becomes too small. As well as avoiding error resulting from imbalance of groups assigned to A and B, stratification can also allow more sophisticated conclusions to be reached. B might, for example, prove to be better than A in a particular group of patients even if it is not significantly better overall.

The double-blind technique, which means that neither subject nor investigator is aware at the time of the assessment which treatment is being used, is intended to minimise subjective bias. It has been repeatedly shown that, with the best will in the world, subjects and investigators both contribute to bias if they know which treatment is which, so the use of a double-blind technique is an important safeguard. It is not always possible, however. A dietary regimen or a surgical operation, for example, can seldom be disguised, and even with drugs, pharmacological effects may reveal to patients what they are taking and predispose them to report accordingly.[9] In general, however, the use of a double-blind procedure, with precautions if necessary to disguise such clues as the taste or appearance of the two drugs, is an important principle.[10]

[9]The distinction between a true pharmacological response and a beneficial clinical effect produced by the knowledge (based on the pharmacological effects that the drug produces) that an active drug is being administered is not easy to draw, and we should not expect a mere clinical trial to resolve such a fine semantic issue.

[10]Maintaining the blind can be problematic. In an attempt to

determine whether **melatonin** is effective in countering jet lag, a pharmacologist selected a group of fellow pharmacologists attending a congress in Australia, providing them with unlabelled capsules of melatonin or placebo, with a jet lag questionnaire to fill in when they arrived. Many of them (one of the authors included), with analytical resources easily to hand, opened the capsules and consigned them to the bin if they contained placebo. Pharmacologists are only human.

The Size of the Sample

Both ethical and financial considerations dictate that the trial should involve the minimum number of subjects, and much statistical thought has gone into the problem of deciding in advance how many subjects will be required to produce a useful result. The results of a trial cannot, by their nature, be absolutely conclusive. This is because it is based on a sample of patients, and there is always a chance that the sample was atypical of the population from which it came. Two types of erroneous conclusion are possible, referred to as *type I* and *type II errors*. A type I error occurs if a difference is found between A and B when none actually exists (false positive). A type II error occurs if no difference is found although A and B do actually differ (false negative). A major factor that determines the size of sample needed is the degree of certainty the investigator seeks in avoiding either type of error. The probability of incurring a type I error is expressed as the *significance* of the result. To say that A and B are different at the $P < 0.05$ level of significance means that the probability of obtaining a false positive result (i.e. incurring a type I error) is less than 1 in 20. For most purposes, this level of significance is considered acceptable as a basis for drawing conclusions.

The probability of avoiding a type II error (i.e. failing to detect a real difference between A and B) is termed the *power* of the trial. We tend to

regard type II errors more leniently than type I errors, and trials are often designed with a power of 0.8–0.9. To increase the significance and the power of a trial requires more patients. The second factor that determines the sample size required is the magnitude of difference between A and B that is regarded as clinically significant. For example, to detect that a given treatment reduces the mortality in a certain condition by at least 10 percentage points, say from 50% (in the control group) to 40% (in the treated group), would require 850 subjects, assuming that we wanted to achieve a $P < 0.05$ level of significance and a power of 0.9. If we were content only to reveal a reduction by 20 percentage points (and very likely miss a reduction by 10 points), only 210 subjects would be needed. In this example, missing a real 10-point reduction in mortality could result in abandonment of a treatment that would save 100 lives for every 1000 patients treated—an extremely serious mistake from society's point of view. This simple example emphasises the need to assess clinical benefit (which is often difficult to quantify) in parallel with statistical considerations (which are fairly straightforward) in planning trials.

▼ A trial may give a significant result before the planned number of patients have been enrolled, so it is common for interim analyses to be carried out (by an independent team so that the trial team remains unaware of the results). If this analysis gives a conclusive result, or if it shows that continuation is unlikely to give a conclusive result, the trial can be terminated, thus reducing the number of subjects tested. In one such large-scale trial (Beta-blocker Heart Attack Trial Research Group, 1982) of the value of long-term treatment with the β-adrenoceptor-blocking drug **propranolol** (Ch. 14) following heart attacks, the interim results showed a significant reduction in mortality, which led to the early termination of the trial. In sequential trials, the results are

computed case by case (each case being paired with a control) as the trial proceeds, and the trial stopped as soon as a result (at a predetermined level of significance) is achieved.

Various 'hybrid' trial designs, which have the advantage of sequential trials in minimising the number of patients needed but do not require strict pairing of subjects, have been devised (see Friedman et al., 1996).

Recently, the tendency has been to perform very large-scale trials, to allow several different treatment protocols, in various different patient groups to be compared. An example is the ALLHAT trial of various antihypertensive and lipid-lowering drugs to improve the outcome in cardiovascular disease (see Ch. 22). This ran from 1994 to 2002, cost US$130 million, and involved more than 42 000 patients in 623 treatment centres, with an army of coordinators and managers to keep it on track. One of its several far-reaching conclusions was that a cheap and familiar diuretic drug in use for more than 50 years was more effective than more recent and expensive antihypertensive drugs.[11]

[11]Though without much impact so far on prescribing habits, owing to the marketing muscle of pharmaceutical companies.

Clinical Outcome Measures

The measurement of clinical outcome can be a complicated business, and is becoming increasingly so as society becomes more preoccupied with assessing the efficacy of therapeutic procedures in terms of improved quality of life, and societal and economic benefit, rather than in terms of objective clinical effects, such as lowering of blood pressure, improved airways conductance or increased life expectancy. Various scales for assessing 'health-related quality of life' have been devised and tested (see Walley & Haycocks, 1997), and the tendency is to combine these with measures of life expectancy to arrive at the measure 'quality-

adjusted life years' (QALYs) as an overall measure of therapeutic efficacy, which attempts to combine both survival time and relief from suffering in assessing overall benefit.[12] In planning clinical trials, it is necessary to decide the purpose of the trial in advance, and to define the outcome measures accordingly.

[12]As may be imagined, trading off duration and quality of life raises issues about which many of us feel decidedly squeamish. Not so economists, however. They approach the problem by asking such questions as: 'How many years of life would you be prepared to sacrifice in order to live the rest of your life free of the disability you are currently experiencing?' Or, even more disturbingly: 'If you could gamble on surviving free of disability for your normal lifespan, or (if you lose the gamble) dying immediately, what odds would you accept?' Imagine being asked this by your doctor. 'But I only wanted something for my sore throat,' you protest weakly.

Frequentist and Bayesian Approaches

▼ The conventional approach to analysis of scientific data (including clinical trials data) is known as 'frequentist' and is based on a *null hypothesis*, for example of the form: treatment A is no more effective than treatment B. Rejection of the hypothesis implies that A is more effective than B. Suppose that a trial shows, on average, that patients treated with A live longer than patients treated with B. Conventional frequentist statistics addresses the question: *If A were actually no more effective than B, what is the probability* (P) *of obtaining the results that were actually obtained in the trial?* In other words, given that treatment A is no better than B, how often, had we repeated the trial many times, would we have obtained results suggesting that A is better? If this probability is low (say, less than 0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and conclude that

A is most likely better. If P is larger, the results could quite easily have been obtained without there being any true difference between A and B, and we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

If we have no prior reason for thinking that A will be better than B, the frequentist approach is perfectly appropriate, and it is the usual principle on which trials of unknown drugs are based. But often, in real life, there will be good reason, based on previous trials or clinical experience, to believe that A is actually better than B. Using a *Bayesian approach* allows this to be taken into account formally and explicitly by defining a *prior probability* for the effect of A. The data from the new trial, which can be smaller than a conventional trial, are then statistically superimposed on the prior probability curve to produce a *posterior probability* curve, in effect an update of the prior probability curve that takes account of the new data. The Bayesian approach is controversial, depending as it does on expressing the (often subjective) prior assumption in explicit mathematical terms, and the statistical analysis is complex. Nevertheless, it can be argued that to ignore altogether prior knowledge and experience when interpreting new data is unjustified, and even unethical, and the Bayesian approach is consequently gaining acceptance.

For an explanation of the principles underlying Bayesian approaches, which are being increasingly applied to clinical trials, see Spiegelhalter *et al.* (1999) and Lilford & Braunholtz (2000).

Placebos

▼ A placebo is a dummy medicine containing no active ingredient (or alternatively, a dummy surgical procedure, diet or other kind of therapeutic intervention), which the patient believes is (or could be, in the context of a controlled trial) the real thing. The 'placebo response' is

widely believed to be a powerful therapeutic effect,[13] producing a significant beneficial effect in about one-third of patients. While many clinical trials include a placebo group that shows improvement, few have compared this group directly with untreated controls. A survey of these trial results (Hróbjartsson & Grøtsche, 2001) concluded (controversially) that the placebo effect was generally insignificant, except in the case of pain relief, where it was small but significant. They concluded that the popular belief in the strength of the placebo effect is misplaced, and probably reflects in part the tendency of many symptoms to improve spontaneously and in part the reporting bias of patients who want to please their doctors. The ethical case for using placebos as therapy, which has been the subject of much public discussion, may therefore be weaker than has been argued. The risks of placebo therapies should not be underestimated. The use of active medicines may be delayed. The necessary element of deception risks undermining the confidence of patients in the integrity of doctors. A state of 'therapy dependence' may be produced in people who are not ill, because there is no way of assessing whether a patient still 'needs' the placebo.

[13]Its opposite, the *nocebo effect*, describes the adverse effects reported with dummy medicines.

Meta-Analysis

▼ It is possible, by the use of statistical techniques, to combine the data obtained in several individual trials (provided each has been conducted according to a randomised design) in order to gain greater power and significance. This procedure, known as meta-analysis or overview analysis, can be very useful in arriving at a conclusion on the basis of several published trials, of which some claimed superiority of the test treatment over the control while others did not. As an objective

procedure, it is certainly preferable to the ‘take your pick’ approach to conclusion forming adopted by most human beings when confronted with contradictory data. It has several drawbacks, however (see Naylor, 1997), the main one being ‘publication bias’, because negative studies are generally considered less interesting, and are therefore less likely to be published, than positive studies. Double counting, caused by the same data being incorporated into more than one trial report, is another problem.

The organisation of large-scale clinical trials involving hundreds or thousands of patients at many different centres is a massive and expensive undertaking that makes up one of the major costs of developing a new drug, and can easily go wrong.

An early large trial (Anturane Reinfarction Trial Research Group, 1978) involved 1620 patients at 26 research centres in the USA and Canada, 98 collaborating researchers and a formidable list of organising committees, including two independent audit committees to check that the work was being carried out in conformity with the strict protocols established. The conclusion was that the drug under test (**sulfinpyrazone**) reduced by almost one-half the mortality from repeat heart attacks in the 8-month period after a first attack, and could save many lives. The US Food and Drug Administration, however, refused to grant a licence for the use of the drug, criticising the trial as unreliable and biased in several respects. Their independent analysis of the data showed the beneficial effect of the drug to be slight and insignificant. Further analysis and further trials, however, supported the original conclusion, but by then the efficacy of aspirin in this condition had been established, so the use of sulfinpyrazone never found favour. Much larger trials are now regularly conducted, exemplified by the ALLHAT trial mentioned above (p. 96).

Clinical trials

• A clinical trial is a special type of bioassay done to compare the clinical efficacy of a new drug or procedure with that of a known drug or procedure (or a placebo).

• Generally, the aim is a straight comparison of unknown (A) with standard (B) at a single dose level. The result may be: 'B better than A', 'B worse than A', or 'No difference detected'. Efficacy, not potency, is compared.

• To avoid bias, clinical trials should be:

– *controlled* (comparison of A with B, rather than study of A alone)

– *randomised* (assignment of subjects to A or B on a random basis)

– *double-blind* (neither subject nor assessor knows whether A or B is being used).

• Type I errors (concluding that A is better than B when the difference is actually due to chance) and type II errors (concluding that A is not different from B because a real difference has escaped detection) can occur; the likelihood of either kind of error decreases as the sample size and number of end-point events is increased.

• Interim analysis of data, carried out by an independent group, may be used as a basis for terminating a trial prematurely if the data are already conclusive, or if a clear result is unlikely to be reached.

• All experiments on human subjects require approval by an independent ethical committee.

• Clinical trials require very careful planning and execution, and are inevitably expensive.

• Clinical outcome measures may comprise:

– physiological measures (e.g. blood pressure, liver function tests, airways function)

– subjective assessments (e.g. pain relief, mood)

– long-term outcome (e.g. survival or freedom from recurrence)

– overall '*quality of life*' measures

– '*quality-adjusted life years*' (QALYs), which combine survival with quality of life.

• Meta-analysis is a statistical technique used to pool the data from several independent trials.

Balancing Benefit and Risk

Therapeutic Index

▼ The concept of *therapeutic index* aims to provide a measure of the margin of safety of a drug, by drawing attention to the relationship between the effective and toxic doses:

$$\text{Therapeutic index} = LD_{50}/ED_{50}$$

where LD_{50} is the dose that is lethal in 50% of the population, and ED_{50} is the dose that is 'effective' in 50%. Obviously, it can only be measured in animals, and it is not a useful guide to the safety of a drug in clinical use for several reasons:

• LD_{50} does not reflect the incidence of adverse effects in the therapeutic setting.[14]

• ED_{50} depends on what measure of effectiveness is used. For example, the ED_{50} for aspirin used for a mild headache is much lower than for aspirin as an antirheumatic drug.

• Both efficacy and toxicity show variability between individuals, for various reasons (see Ch. 56). Such variability in the effective dose or the toxic dose of a drug makes it inherently less predictable, and therefore less safe, although this is not reflected in the therapeutic index.

[14]Ironically, thalidomide—probably the most harmful drug ever marketed—was promoted specifically on the basis of its exceptionally high therapeutic index (i.e. it killed rats only when given in extremely large doses).

Other Measures of Benefit and Risk

▼ Alternative ways of quantifying the benefits and risks of drugs in clinical use have received much attention. One useful approach is to estimate from clinical trial data the proportion of test and control patients who will experience (a) a defined level of clinical benefit (e.g. survival beyond 2 years, pain relief to a certain predetermined level, slowing of cognitive decline by a given amount) and (b) adverse effects of defined degree. These estimates of proportions of patients showing beneficial or harmful reactions can be expressed as *number needed to treat* (NNT; *i.e.* the number of patients who need to be treated in order for one to show the given effect, whether beneficial or adverse). For example, in a recent study of pain relief by antidepressant drugs compared with placebo, the findings were: for benefit (a defined level of pain relief), NNT = 3; for minor unwanted effects, NNT = 3; for major adverse effects, NNT = 22. Thus of 100 patients treated with the drug, on average 33 will experience pain relief, 33 will experience minor unwanted effects, and 4 or 5 will experience major adverse effects, information that is helpful in guiding therapeutic choices. One advantage of this type of analysis is that it can take into account the underlying disease severity in quantifying benefit. Thus if drug A halves the mortality of an often fatal disease (reducing it from 50% to 25%, say), the NNT to save one life is 4; if drug B halves the mortality of a rarely fatal disease (reducing it from 5% to 2.5%, say), the NNT to save one life is 40. Notwithstanding other considerations, drug A is judged to be more valuable than drug B, even though both reduce mortality by one-half. Furthermore, the clinician must realise that to save one life with drug B, 40 patients must be exposed to a risk of adverse effects, whereas only 4 are exposed for each life saved with drug A.

Determination of risk and benefit

• *Therapeutic index* (lethal dose for 50% of the population divided by effective dose for 50%) is unsatisfactory as a measure of drug safety because:

– it is based on animal toxicity data, which may not reflect forms of toxicity or adverse reactions that are important clinically

– it takes no account of idiosyncratic toxic reactions.

• More sophisticated measures of risk–benefit analysis for drugs in clinical use are available, and include the *number needed to treat* (NNT) principle.

References and Further Reading

General references

olquhoun D. *Lectures on biostatistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 1971. (*Standard textbook*)

irkwood B.R., Sterne J.A.C. *Medical statistics*, second ed. Malden: Blackwell; 2003. (*Clear introductory textbook covering statistical principles and methods*)

ilford R.J., Braunholtz D. Who's afraid of Thomas Bayes? *J. Epidemiol. Community Health.* 2000;54:731-739. (*Explains the principles of Bayesian analysis in a non-mathematical way*)

/alley T., Haycocks A. Pharmacoeconomics: basic concepts and terminology. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 1997;43:343-348. (*Useful introduction to analytical principles that are becoming increasingly important for therapeutic policy makers*)

anagisawa M., Kurihara H., Kimura S., *et al.* A novel potent vasoconstrictor peptide produced by vascular endothelial cells. *Nature*. 1988;332:411-415. (*The first paper describing endothelin—a remarkably full characterisation of an important new mediator*)

Animal models

ffermanns S., Hein L. Transgenic models in pharmacology 2004 Handb. Exp. Pharmacol. 159. (*A comprehensive series of review articles describing transgenic mouse models used to study different pharmacological mechanisms and disease states*)

istevski S. Making better transgenic models: conditional, temporal, and spatial approaches. *Mol. Biotechnol.*. 2005;29:153-164. (*Description of methods for controlling transgene expression*)

udolph U., Moehler H. Genetically modified animals in pharmacological research: future trends. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*. 1999;375:327-337. (*Good review of uses of transgenic animals in pharmacological research, including application to disease models*)

Clinical trials

nturane Reinfarction Trial Research Group. Sulfinpyrazone in the prevention of cardiac death after myocardial infarction. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1978;298:289-295. (*Example of an early large-scale clinical trial*)

eta-blocker Heart Attack Trial Research Group. A randomised trial of propranolol in patients with acute myocardial infarction. 1. Mortality results. *JAMA*. 1982;247:1707-1714. (*A trial that was terminated early when clear evidence of benefit emerged*)

riedman L.M., Furberg C.D., DeMets D.L. *Fundamentals of clinical trials*, third ed. St Louis: Mosby; 1996. (*Standard textbook*)

róbjartsson A., Gøtzsche P.C. Is the placebo powerless? An analysis of clinical trials comparing placebo with no treatment. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;344:1594-1601. (*An important meta-analysis of clinical trial data, which shows, contrary to common belief, that placebos in general have no significant effect on clinical outcome, except—to a small degree—in pain relief trials. Confirmed in an extended analysis: J. Int. Med. 2004, 256, 91–100*)

aylor C.D. Meta-analysis and the meta-epidemiology of clinical research. *Br. Med. J.*. 1997;315:617-619. (*Thoughtful review on the strengths and weaknesses of meta-analysis*)

ackett D.L., Rosenburg W.M.C., Muir-Gray J.A., *et al.* Evidence-based medicine: what it is and what it isn't. *Br. Med. J.*. 1996;312:71-72. (*Balanced account of the value of evidence-based medicine—an important recent trend in medical thinking*)

piegelhalter D.J., Myles J.P., Jones D.R., Abrams K.R. An introduction to Bayesian methods in health technology assessment. *Br. Med. J.*. 1999;319:508-512. (*Short non-mathematical explanation of the Bayesian approach to data analysis*)

8

Drug absorption and distribution

Overview

The physical processes of diffusion, penetration of membranes, binding to plasma protein and partition into fat and other tissues underlie the absorption and distribution of drugs. These processes are described, followed by more specific coverage of the process of drug absorption and related practical issue of routes of drug administration, and of the distribution of drugs into different bodily compartments. There is a short final section on special drug delivery systems designed to deliver drugs efficiently and selectively to their sites of action.

Introduction

Drug disposition is divided into four stages designated by the acronym 'ADME':

- **A**bsorption from the site of administration
- **D**istribution within the body
- **M**etabolism
- **E**xcretion.

Absorption and distribution are considered here, together with routes of administration. Metabolism and excretion are covered in Chapter 9. We begin with a description of the physical processes that underlie drug

disposition.

Physical Processes Underlying Drug Disposition

Drug molecules move around the body in two ways:

- bulk flow (i.e. in the bloodstream, lymphatics or cerebrospinal fluid)
- diffusion (i.e. molecule by molecule, over short distances).

The chemical nature of a drug makes no difference to its transfer by bulk flow. The cardiovascular system provides a rapid long-distance distribution system. In contrast, diffusional characteristics differ markedly between different drugs. In particular, ability to cross hydrophobic diffusion barriers is strongly influenced by lipid solubility. Aqueous diffusion is part of the overall mechanism of drug transport, because it is this process that delivers drug molecules to and from the non-aqueous barriers. The rate of diffusion of a substance depends mainly on its molecular size, the diffusion coefficient for small molecules being inversely proportional to the square root of molecular weight. Consequently, while large molecules diffuse more slowly than small ones, the variation with molecular weight is modest. Many drugs fall within the molecular weight range 200–1000 Da, and variations in aqueous diffusion rate have only a small effect on their overall pharmacokinetic behaviour. For most purposes, we can regard the body as a series of interconnected well-stirred compartments within each of which the drug concentration is uniform. It is movement between compartments, generally involving penetration of non-aqueous diffusion barriers, that determines where, and for how long, a drug will be present in the body after it has been administered. The analysis of drug movements with the help of a simple compartmental model is discussed in Chapter 9.

The Movement of Drug Molecules Across Cell Barriers

Cell membranes form the barriers between aqueous compartments in the body. A single layer of membrane separates the intracellular from the extracellular compartments. An epithelial barrier, such as the gastrointestinal mucosa or renal tubule, consists of a layer of cells tightly connected to each other so that molecules must traverse at least two cell membranes (inner and outer) to pass from one side to the other. Vascular endothelium is more complicated, its anatomical disposition and permeability varying from one tissue to another. Gaps between endothelial cells are packed with a loose matrix of proteins that act as filters, retaining large molecules and letting smaller ones through. The cut-off of molecular size is not exact: water permeates rapidly whereas molecules of 80 000–100 000 Da permeate very slowly. In some organs, especially the central nervous system (CNS) and the placenta, there are tight junctions between the cells, and the endothelium is encased in an impermeable layer of periendothelial cells (*pericytes*). These features prevent potentially harmful molecules from leaking from the blood into these organs and have major pharmacokinetic consequences for drug distribution.[1]

[1]This is illustrated by strain and species differences. For example, collie dogs lack the multidrug resistance gene (*mdr1*) and a P-glycoprotein that contributes importantly to the blood–brain barrier, with consequences for veterinary medicine because **ivermectin** (an anthelminthic drug, Ch. 54,) is consequently severely neurotoxic in the many breeds with collie ancestry (see Neff et al., 2004).

In other organs (e.g. the liver and spleen), endothelium is discontinuous, allowing free passage between cells. In the liver, hepatocytes form the barrier between intra-and extravascular

compartments and take on several endothelial cell functions. Fenestrated endothelium occurs in endocrine glands, facilitating transfer to the bloodstream of hormones or other molecules through pores in the endothelium. Formation of fenestrated endothelium (*angiogenesis*) is controlled by a specific endocrine gland-derived vascular endothelial growth factor (dubbed EG-VEGF). Endothelial cells lining postcapillary venules have specialised functions relating to leukocyte migration and inflammation: the sophistication of the intercellular junction can be appreciated from the observation that leukocyte migration can occur without any detectable leak of water or small ions (see Ch. 16).

There are four main ways by which small molecules cross cell membranes (Fig. 8.1):

1 by diffusing directly through the lipid

2 by diffusing through aqueous pores formed by special proteins (*aquaporins*) that traverse the lipid

3 by combination with a *solute carrier* (SLC) or other membrane transporter

4 by *pinocytosis*.

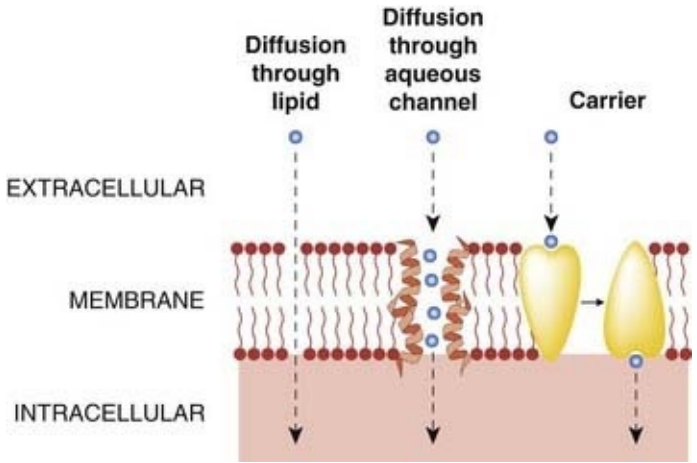


Fig. 8.1 Routes by which solutes can traverse cell membranes.
(Molecules can also cross cellular barriers by pinocytosis.)

Of these routes, diffusion through lipid and carrier-mediated transport are particularly important in relation to pharmacokinetic mechanisms. Diffusion through aquaporins (membrane glycoproteins that can be blocked by mercurial reagents such as *para*-chloromercurobenzene sulfonate) is probably important in the transfer of gases such as carbon dioxide, but the pores are too small in diameter (about 0.4 nm) to allow most drug molecules (which usually exceed 1 nm in diameter) to pass through. Consequently, drug distribution is not notably abnormal in patients with genetic diseases affecting aquaporins. Pinocytosis involves invagination of part of the cell membrane and the trapping within the cell of a small vesicle containing extracellular constituents. The vesicle contents can then be released within the cell, or extruded from its other side. This mechanism is important for the transport of some macromolecules (e.g. **insulin**, which crosses the blood–brain barrier by this process), but not for small molecules.

Diffusion through lipid and carrier-mediated transport will now be discussed in more detail.

Diffusion through Lipid

Non-polar molecules (in which electrons are uniformly distributed) dissolve freely in membrane lipids, and consequently diffuse readily across cell membranes. The number of molecules crossing the membrane per unit area in unit time is determined by the *permeability coefficient, P*, and the concentration difference across the membrane. Permeant molecules must be present within the membrane in sufficient numbers and must be mobile within the membrane if rapid permeation is to occur. Thus, two physicochemical factors contribute to *P*, namely

solubility in the membrane (which can be expressed as a partition coefficient for the substance distributed between the membrane phase and the aqueous environment) and diffusivity, which is a measure of the mobility of molecules within the lipid and is expressed as a diffusion coefficient. The diffusion coefficient varies only slightly between different drugs, as noted above, so the most important variable is the partition coefficient (Fig. 8.2). Consequently, there is a close correlation between lipid solubility and the permeability of the cell membrane to different substances. For this reason, lipid solubility is one of the most important determinants of the pharmacokinetic characteristics of a drug, and many properties—such as rate of absorption from the gut, penetration into different tissues and the extent of renal elimination—can be predicted from knowledge of a drug's lipid solubility.

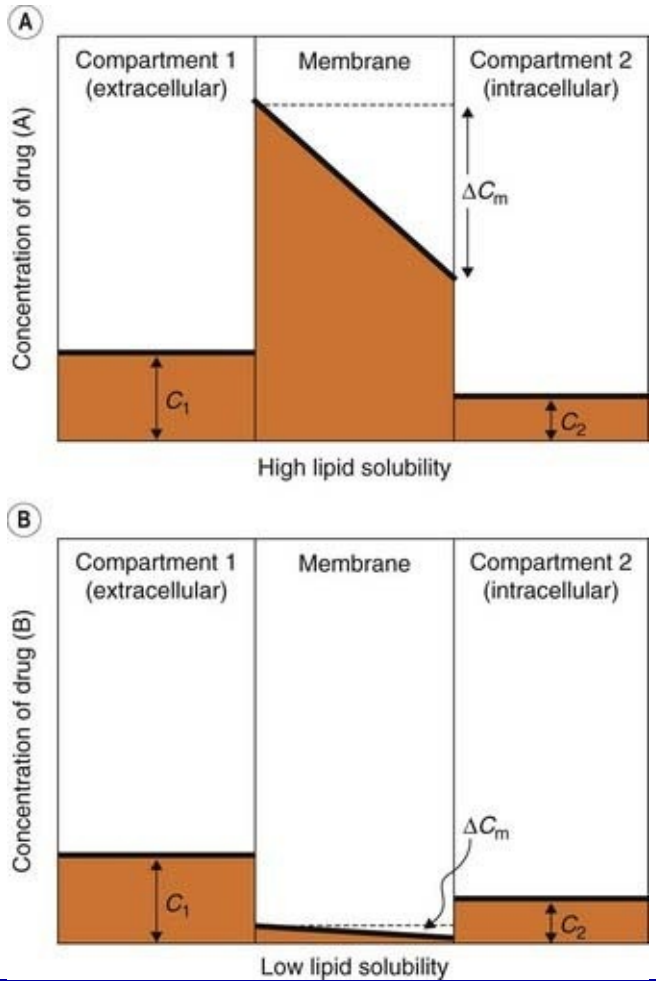
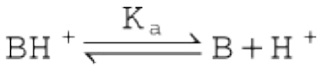


Fig. 8.2 The importance of lipid solubility in membrane permeation.

[**A**] and [**B**] Figures show the concentration profile in a lipid membrane separating two aqueous compartments. A lipid-soluble drug (A) is subject to a much larger transmembrane concentration gradient (ΔC_m) than a lipid-insoluble drug (B). It therefore diffuses more rapidly, even though the aqueous concentration gradient (C_1–C_2) is the same in both cases.

pH and ionisation

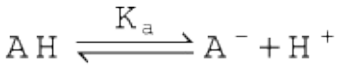
One important complicating factor in relation to membrane permeation is that many drugs are weak acids or bases, and therefore exist in both unionised and ionised form, the ratio of the two forms varying with pH. For a weak base, the ionisation reaction is:



and the dissociation constant pK_a is given by the Henderson–Hasselbalch equation

$$pK_a = pH + \log_{10}\frac{[BH^+]}{[B]}$$

For a weak acid:



$$pK_a = pH + \log_{10}\frac{[AH]}{[A^-]}$$

In either case, the ionised species, BH^+ or A^-, has very low lipid solubility and is virtually unable to permeate membranes except where a specific transport mechanism exists. The lipid solubility of the uncharged species, B or AH, depends on the chemical nature of the drug; for many drugs, the uncharged species is sufficiently lipid soluble to permit rapid membrane permeation, although there are exceptions (e.g. aminoglycoside antibiotics; see Ch. 50) where even the uncharged molecule is insufficiently lipid soluble to cross membranes appreciably. This is usually because of the occurrence of hydrogen-bonding groups (such as hydroxyl in sugar moieties in aminoglycosides) that render the uncharged molecule hydrophilic.

pH partition and ion trapping

Ionisation affects not only the rate at which drugs permeate membranes but also the steady-state distribution of drug molecules between aqueous compartments, if a pH difference exists between them. Figure 8.3 shows how a weak acid (e.g. **aspirin**, pK_a 3.5) and a weak base (e.g. **pethidine**, pK_a 8.6) would be distributed at equilibrium between three body compartments, namely plasma (pH 7.4), alkaline urine (pH 8) and gastric juice (pH 3). Within each compartment, the ratio of ionised to unionised drug is governed by the pK_a of the drug and the pH of that compartment. It is assumed that the unionised species can cross the membrane, and therefore reaches an equal concentration in each compartment. The ionised species is assumed not to cross at all. The result is that, at equilibrium, the total (ionised + unionised) concentration of the drug will be different in the two compartments, with an acidic drug being concentrated in the compartment with high pH ('ion trapping'), and vice versa. The concentration gradients produced by ion trapping can theoretically be very large if there is a large pH difference between compartments. Thus, aspirin would be concentrated more than four-fold with respect to plasma in an alkaline renal tubule, and about 6000-fold in plasma with respect to the acidic gastric contents. Such large gradients are not achieved in reality for two main reasons. First, the attribution of total impermeability to the charged species is not realistic, and even a small permeability will attenuate considerably the concentration difference that can be reached. Second, body compartments rarely approach equilibrium. Neither the gastric contents nor the renal tubular fluid stands still, and the resulting flux of drug molecules reduces the concentration gradients well below the theoretical equilibrium conditions. The pH partition mechanism nonetheless correctly explains some of the qualitative effects of pH changes in different body compartments on the pharmacokinetics of

weakly acidic or basic drugs, particularly in relation to renal excretion and to penetration of the blood–brain barrier.

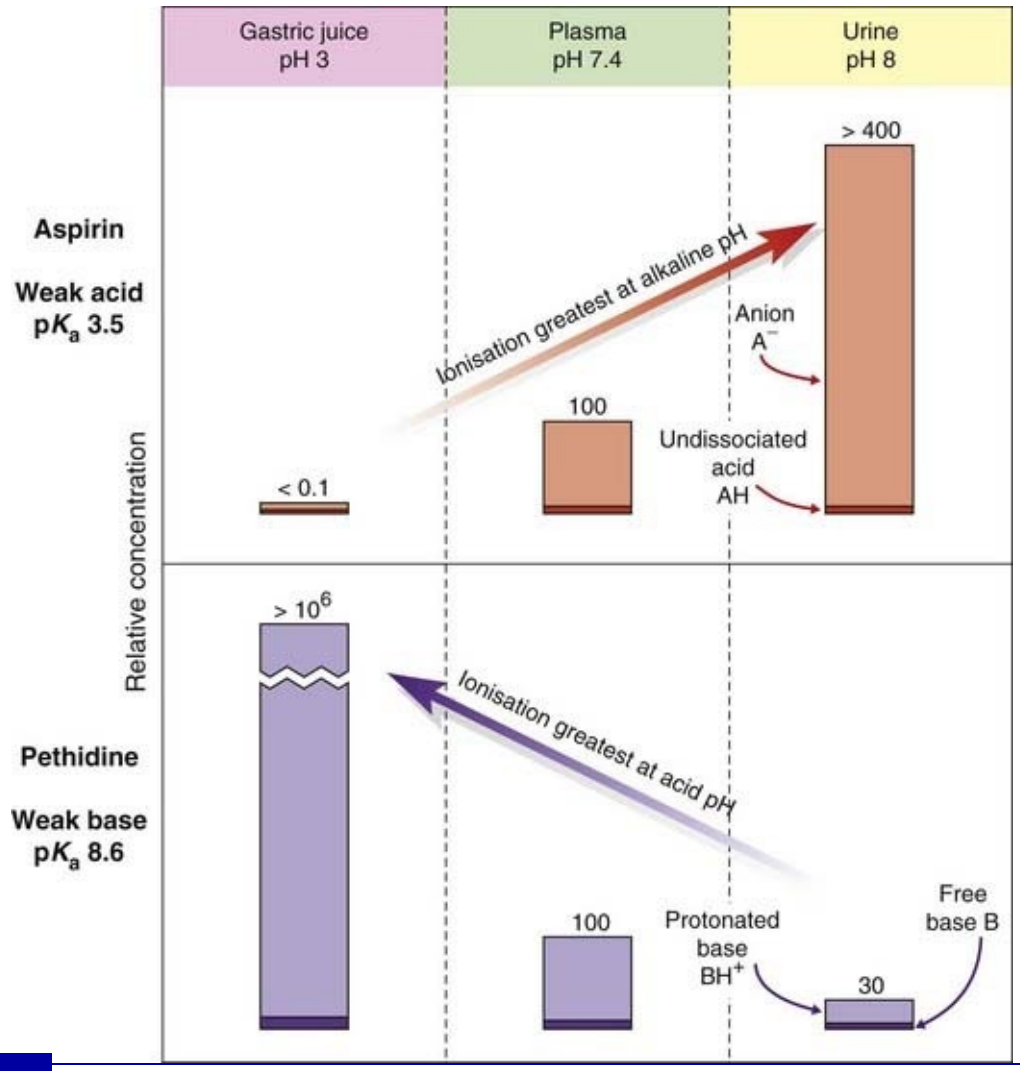


Fig. 8.3 Theoretical partition of a weak acid (aspirin) and a weak base (pethidine) between aqueous compartments (urine, plasma and gastric juice) according to the pH difference between them.

Numbers represent relative concentrations (total plasma concentration = 100). It is assumed that the uncharged species in each case can permeate the cellular barrier separating the compartments, and therefore reaches the same concentration in all three. Variations in the fractional ionisation as a function of pH give rise to the large total concentration differences with respect to plasma.

pH partition is not the main determinant of the site of absorption of

drugs from the gastrointestinal tract. This is because the enormous absorptive surface area of the villi and microvilli in the ileum compared with the much smaller surface area in the stomach is of overriding importance. Thus, absorption of an acidic drug such as **aspirin** is promoted by drugs that accelerate gastric emptying (e.g. **metoclopramide**) and retarded by drugs that slow gastric emptying (e.g. **propantheline**), despite the fact that the acidic pH of the stomach contents favours absorption of weak acids. Values of pK_a for some common drugs are shown in Figure 8.4.

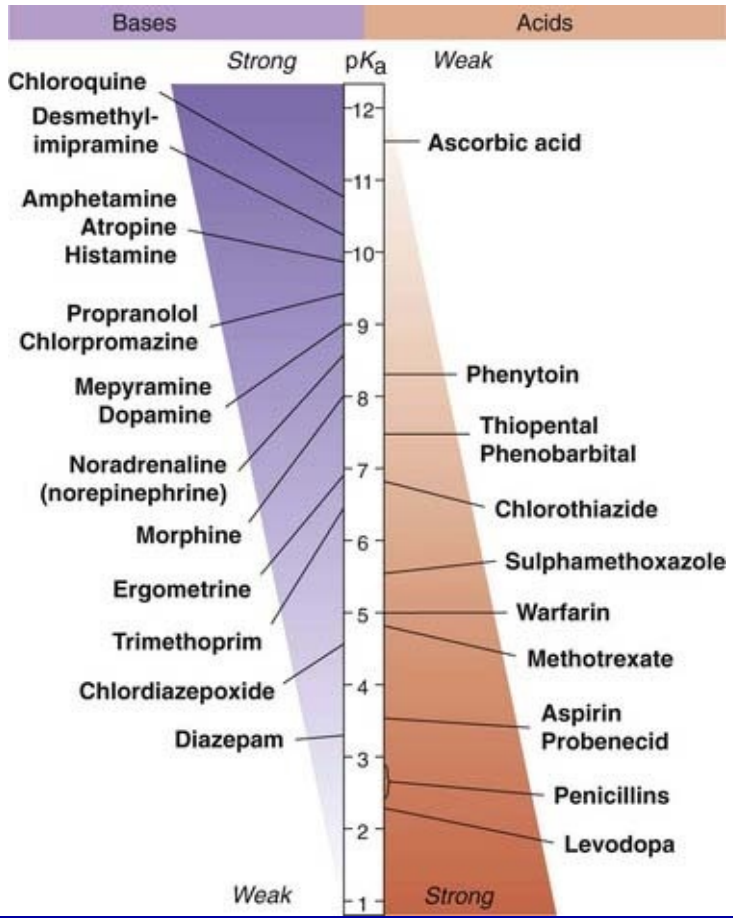


Fig. 8.4 pK_a values for some acidic and basic drugs.

There are several important consequences of pH partition:

• Free-base trapping of some antimalarial drugs (e.g. **chloroquine**, see Ch. 53) in the acidic environment in the food vacuole of the malaria parasite contributes to the disruption of the haemoglobin digestion pathway that underlies their toxic effect on the parasite.

• Urinary acidification accelerates excretion of weak bases and retards that of weak acids.

• Urinary alkalinisation has the opposite effects: it reduces excretion of weak bases and increases excretion of weak acids.

• Increasing plasma pH (e.g. by administration of sodium bicarbonate) causes weakly acidic drugs to be extracted from the CNS into the plasma. Conversely, reducing plasma pH (e.g. by administration of a carbonic anhydrase inhibitor such as **acetazolamide**) causes weakly acidic drugs to become concentrated in the CNS, increasing their neurotoxicity. This has practical consequences in choosing a means to alkalinise urine in treating aspirin overdose: bicarbonate and acetazolamide each increase urine pH and hence increase salicylate elimination, but bicarbonate reduces whereas acetazolamide increases distribution of salicylate to the CNS.

Carrier-Mediated Transport

Many cell membranes possess specialised transport mechanisms that regulate entry and exit of physiologically important molecules, such as sugars, amino acids, neurotransmitters and metal ions. They are broadly divided into *solute carrier (SLC) transporters* and *ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters*. The former mediate passive movement of solutes down their electrochemical gradient, while the latter are active pumps fuelled by ATP. Over 300 human genes are believed to code these transporters, most of which act mainly on endogenous substrates, but

some also transport foreign chemicals ('xenobiotics') including drugs (see Hediger et al., 2004). The role of such transporters in neurotransmitter function is discussed in Chapters 13, 14 and 36.

Organic cation transporters and organic anion transporters

Two structurally related SLC carriers of importance in drug distribution are the organic cation transporters (OCTs) and organic anion transporters (OATs). Generally, such transport systems involve a carrier molecule, *i.e.* a transmembrane protein that binds one or more molecules or ions, changes conformation and releases them on the other side of the membrane. Such systems may operate purely passively, without any energy source; in this case, they merely facilitate the process of transmembrane equilibration of a single transported species in the direction of its electrochemical gradient. The mechanism is called facilitated diffusion and the transporter is a 'uniporter'. The OCTs (several families of SLC transporters) translocate dopamine, choline and various drugs including **vecuronium**, **quinine** and **procainamide**. They are uniporters and cause facilitated diffusion down the electrochemical gradient. OCT2 (transporter in proximal tubular cells in the kidney) concentrates drugs such as **cisplatin** (an important anticancer drug) in these cells, an explanation of its selective nephrotoxicity; related drugs (e.g. **carboplatin**, **oxaliplatin**) are not transported by OCT2 and are less nephrotoxic; competition with **cimetididine** for OCT2 offers possible protection against cisplatin nephrotoxicity (Fig. 8.5). Other SLCs are coupled to the electrochemical gradient of Na^+ or other ions across the membrane, generated by ATP-dependent ion pumps (see Ch. 4); in this case, transport can occur against an electrochemical gradient. It may involve exchange of one molecule for another ('antiport') or transport of two molecules together in the same direction ('symport'). The OATs are responsible for the renal secretion of urate, prostaglandins, several

vitamins and *p*-amino hippurate, and for drugs such as **probenecid** as well as many antibiotics, antiviral drugs, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and antineoplastic drugs among others. Uptake is driven by exchange with intracellular dicarboxylic acids (mainly α-ketoglutarate, partly derived from cellular metabolism and partly by co-transport with Na^+ entering cells down its concentration gradient). Metabolic energy is provided by ATP for Na^+/K^+ exchange. Carrier-mediated transport, because it involves a binding step, shows the characteristic of saturation.

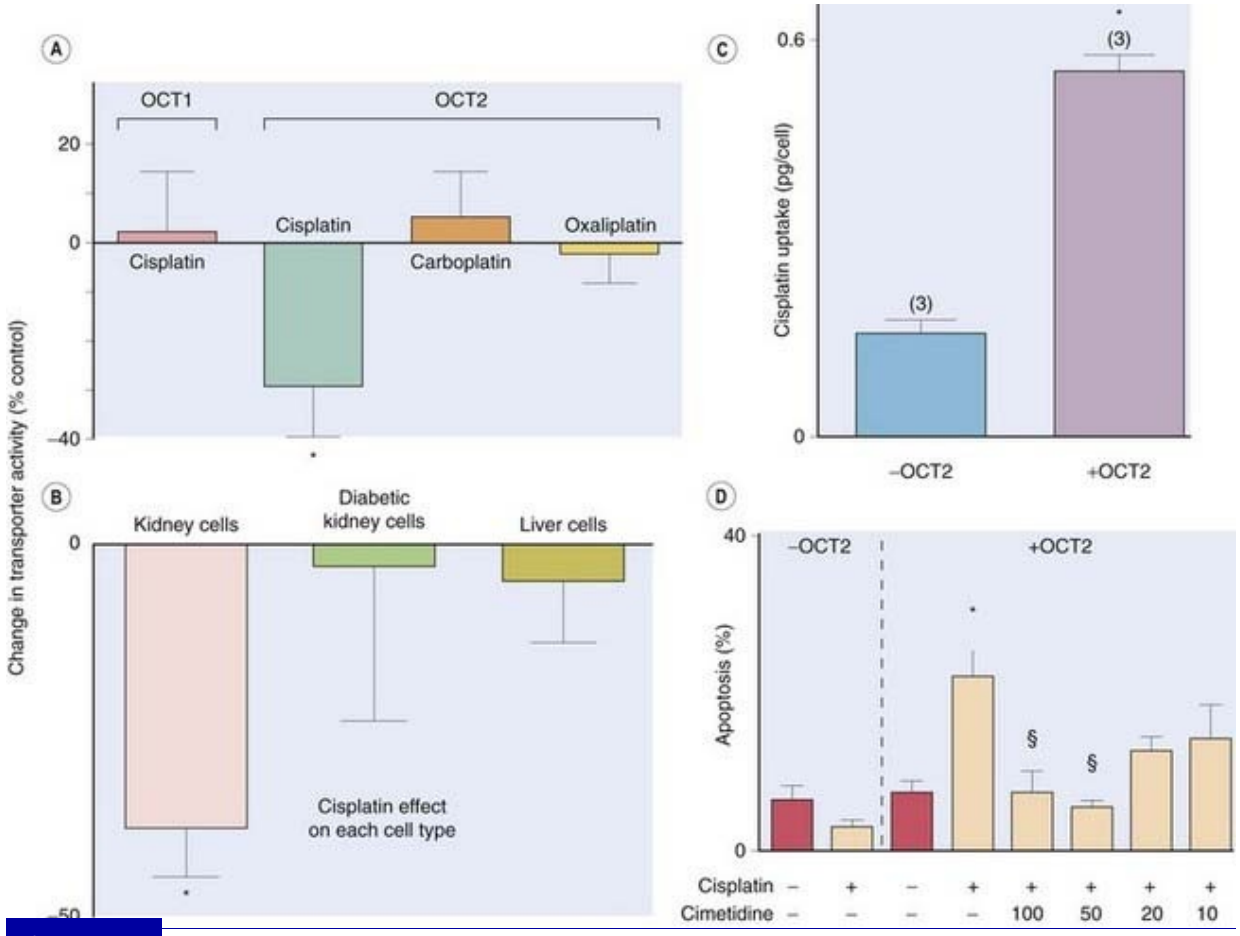


Fig. 8.5 Human organic cation transporter 2 (OCT2) mediates cisplatin nephrotoxicity.

OCT2 is expressed in kidney whereas OCT1 is expressed in liver. Cisplatin (100 μmol/l) influences the activity of OCT2 but not of OCT1, each expressed in a cultured cell line [**A**], whereas the less nephrotoxic drugs carboplatin and oxaliplatin do not. Cisplatin similarly influences OCT2 activity in fresh human kidney tubule cells but not in fresh hepatocytes or

kidney cells from diabetic patients who are less susceptible to ciplatin nephrotoxicity [**B**]. Cisplatin accumulates in cells that express OCT2 [**C**] and causes cell death [**D**]. Cimetidine competes with cisplatin for OCT2 and concentration dependently protects against cisplatin-induced apoptosis [**D**]—cimetidine concentrations are in μmol/l.

(Data redrawn from Ciarimboli G et al. 2005 Am J Pathol 167: 1477–1484.)

Carriers of this type are ubiquitous, and many pharmacological effects are the result of interference with them. Thus nerve terminals have transport mechanisms for accumulating specific neurotransmitters, and there are many examples of drugs that act by inhibiting these transport mechanisms (see Chs 13, 14 and 36). From a general pharmacokinetic point of view, however, the main sites where SLCs, including OCTs and OATs, are expressed and carrier-mediated drug transport is important are:

- the blood–brain barrier
- the gastrointestinal tract
- the renal tubule
- the biliary tract
- the placenta.

P-glycoprotein transporters

P-glycoproteins (P-gp; P for 'permeability'), which belong to the ABC transporter superfamily, are the second important class of transporters, and responsible for multidrug resistance in cancer cells. They are present in renal tubular brush border membranes, in bile canaliculi, in astrocyte foot processes in brain microvessels, and in the gastrointestinal tract. They play an important part in absorption, distribution and elimination of many drugs, and are often co-located with SLC drug carriers, so that a

drug that has been concentrated by, for example, an OAT transporter in the basolateral membrane of a renal tubular cell may then be pumped out of the cell by a P-gp in the luminal membrane.

Polymorphic variation in the genes coding SLCs and P-gp contributes to individual genetic variation in responsiveness to different drugs. OCT1 transports several drugs, including **metformin** (used to treat diabetes; see Ch. 30), into hepatocytes (in contrast to OCT2 which is active in renal proximal tubular cells, see above). Metformin acts partly through intracellular effects within hepatocytes. Single nucleotoide polymorphisms (SNPs; Ch. 56) that impair the function of OCT1 influence the effectiveness of metformin (Fig. 8.6). This is but one example of many genetic influences on drug effectiveness or toxicity via altered activity of carriers that influence drug disposition. Furthermore, induction or competitive inhibition of transport can occur in the presence of a second ligand that binds the carrier, so there is a potential for drug interaction (see Fig. 8.5 and Ch. 56). The characteristics of transport systems are discussed later, when patterns of distribution and elimination in the body as a whole are considered more fully.

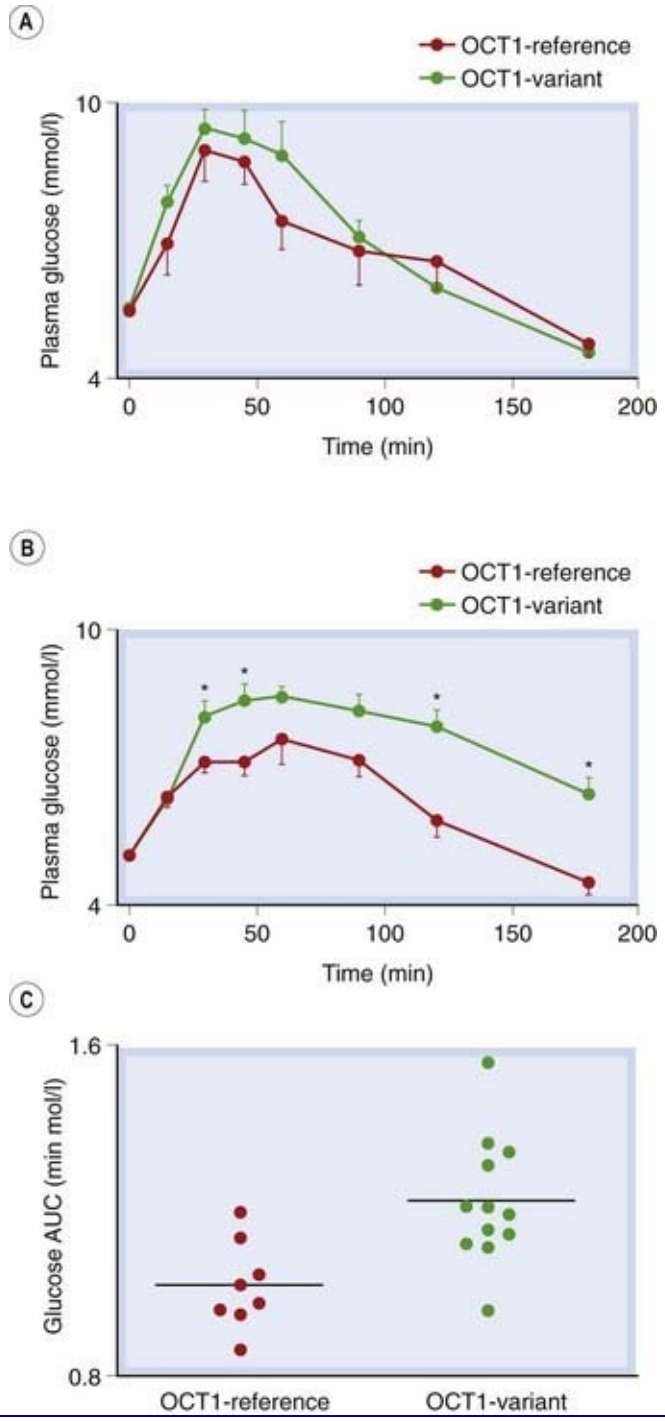


Fig. 8.6 Genetic variants of organic cation transporter 1 (OCT1) are associated with different responses to metformin in healthy humans.

[**A**] An oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) gave similar plasma glucose responses in control subjects with only reference *OCT1* alleles versus subjects with at least one reduced function *OCT1* allele. [**B**] In contrast, after metformin treatment the OGTT response was less in the same reference subjects than in those with reduced function *OCT1* alleles. [**C**] Glucose exposure estimated by area under the glucose time curves (AUC) was significantly lower in subjects with

only reference OCT1 alleles, $P = 0.004$.

(Data redrawn from Yan Shu et al. 2007 J Clin Invest 117: 1422–1431.)

In addition to the processes so far described, which govern the transport of drug molecules across the barriers between different aqueous compartments, two additional factors have a major influence on drug distribution and elimination. These are:

- binding to plasma proteins
- partition into body fat and other tissues.

Movement of drugs across cellular barriers

- To traverse cellular barriers (e.g. gastrointestinal mucosa, renal tubule, blood–brain barrier, placenta), drugs have to cross lipid membranes.
- Drugs cross lipid membranes mainly (a) by passive diffusional transfer and (b) by carrier-mediated transfer.
- The main factor that determines the rate of passive diffusional transfer across membranes is a drug's lipid solubility. Molecular weight is less important.
- Many drugs are weak acids or weak bases; their state of ionisation varies with pH according to the Henderson–Hasselbalch equation.
- With weak acids or bases, only the uncharged species (the protonated form for a weak acid, the unprotonated form for a weak base) can diffuse across lipid membranes; this gives rise to pH partition.
- pH partition means that weak acids tend to accumulate in compartments of relatively high pH, whereas weak bases do the reverse.
- Carrier-mediated transport involving solute carriers (SLCs) including organic cation

transporters (OCTs) and organic anion transporters (OATs), and P-gps (ABC transporters) in the renal tubule, blood–brain barrier and gastrointestinal epithelium are important in determining the distribution of many drugs.

Binding of Drugs to Plasma Proteins

At therapeutic concentrations in plasma, many drugs exist mainly in bound form. The fraction of drug that is free in aqueous solution can be less than 1%, the remainder being associated with plasma protein. It is the unbound drug that is pharmacologically active. Such seemingly small differences in protein binding (e.g. 99.5 versus 99.0%) can have large effects on free drug concentration and drug effect. Such differences are common between human plasma and plasma from species used in preclinical drug testing, and must be taken into account when estimating a suitable dose for 'first time in human' studies. The most important plasma protein in relation to drug binding is albumin, which binds many acidic drugs (e.g. **warfarin**, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, sulfonamides) and a smaller number of basic drugs (e.g. tricyclic antidepressants and **chlorpromazine**). Other plasma proteins, including β-globulin and an acid glycoprotein that increases in inflammatory disease, have also been implicated in the binding of certain basic drugs, such as **quinine**.

The amount of a drug that is bound to protein depends on three factors:

- the concentration of free drug
- its affinity for the binding sites
- the concentration of protein.

As a first approximation, the binding reaction can be regarded as a simple association of the drug molecules with a finite population of

binding sites, exactly analogous to drug–receptor binding (see Ch. 2):

$$\underset{\text{free drug}}{D} + \underset{\text{binding site}}{S} \rightleftharpoons \underset{\text{complex}}{DS}$$

The usual concentration of albumin in plasma is about 0.6 mmol/l (4 g/100 ml). With two sites per albumin molecule, the drug-binding capacity of plasma albumin would therefore be about 1.2 mmol/l. For most drugs, the total plasma concentration required for a clinical effect is much less than 1.2 mmol/l, so with usual therapeutic doses the binding sites are far from saturated, and the concentration bound [DS] varies nearly in direct proportion to the free concentration [D]. Under these conditions, the fraction bound, [DS]/([D] + [DS]), is independent of the drug concentration. However, some drugs, for example **tolbutamide** (Ch. 30), work at plasma concentrations at which the binding to protein is approaching saturation (i.e. on the flat part of the binding curve). This means that adding more drug to the plasma increases its free concentration disproportionately. Doubling the dose of such a drug can therefore more than double the free (pharmacologically active) concentration. This is illustrated in Figure 8.7.

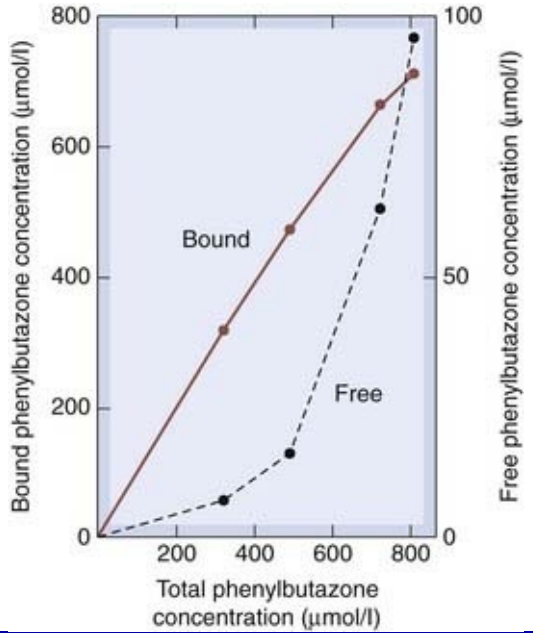


Fig. 8.7 Binding of phenylbutazone to plasma albumin.

The graph shows the disproportionate increase in free concentration as the total concentration increases, owing to the binding sites approaching saturation.

(Data from Brodie B, Hogben C A M 1957 J Pharm Pharmacol 9: 345.)

Binding sites on plasma albumin bind many different drugs, so competition can occur between them. If two drugs (A and B) compete in this way, administration of drug B can reduce the protein binding, and hence increase the free plasma concentration, of drug A. To do this, drug B needs to occupy an appreciable fraction of the binding sites. Few therapeutic drugs affect the binding of other drugs because they occupy, at therapeutic plasma concentrations, only a tiny fraction of the available sites. *Sulfonamides* (Ch. 50) are an exception, because they occupy about 50% of the binding sites at therapeutic concentrations and so can cause harmful effects by displacing other drugs or, in premature babies, bilirubin (Ch. 56). Much has been made of binding interactions of this kind as a source of untoward drug interactions in clinical medicine, but this type of competition is less important than was once thought (see Ch. 56).

Partition into Body Fat and Other Tissues

Fat represents a large, non-polar compartment. In practice, this is important for only a few drugs, mainly because the effective fat:water partition coefficient is relatively low for most drugs. **Morphine**, for example, although quite lipid soluble enough to cross the blood–brain barrier, has a lipid:water partition coefficient of only 0.4, so sequestration of the drug by body fat is of little importance. **Thiopental**, by comparison (fat:water partition coefficient approximately 10), accumulates substantially in body fat. This has important consequences that limit its usefulness as an intravenous anaesthetic to short-term initiation ('induction') of anaesthesia (Ch. 40).

The second factor that limits the accumulation of drugs in body fat is its low blood supply—less than 2% of the cardiac output. Consequently, drugs are delivered to body fat rather slowly, and the theoretical equilibrium distribution between fat and body water is approached slowly. For practical purposes, therefore, partition into body fat when drugs are given acutely is important only for a few highly lipid-soluble drugs (e.g. general anaesthetics; Ch. 40). When lipid-soluble drugs are given chronically, however, accumulation in body fat is often significant (e.g. benzodiazepines; Ch. 43). Some dugs and environmental contaminants, if ingested intermittently, accumulate slowly but progressively in body fat.

Body fat is not the only tissue in which drugs can accumulate. **Chloroquine**—an antimalarial drug (Ch. 53)—has a high affinity for melanin and is taken up by the retina, which is rich in melanin granules, accounting for its ocular toxicity. Tetracyclines (Ch. 50) accumulate slowly in bones and teeth, because they have a high affinity for calcium, and should not be used in children for this reason. Very high

concentrations of **amiodarone** (an antidysrhythmic drug; Ch. 21) accumulate in liver and lung during chronic use, causing hepatitis and interstitial pulmonary fibrosis.

Binding of drugs to plasma proteins

• Plasma albumin is most important; β-globulin and acid glycoprotein also bind some drugs.

• Plasma albumin binds mainly acidic drugs (approximately two molecules per albumin molecule). Basic drugs may be bound by β-globulin and acid glycoprotein.

• Saturable binding sometimes leads to a non-linear relation between dose and free (active) drug concentration.

• Extensive protein binding slows drug elimination (metabolism and/or glomerular filtration).

• Competition between drugs for protein binding can lead, rarely, to clinically important drug interactions.

Drug Absorption and Routes of Administration

The main routes of drug administration and elimination are shown schematically in Figure 8.8. Absorption is defined as the passage of a drug from its site of administration into the plasma. It is important for all routes of administration except intravenous injection, where it is complete by definition. There are instances, such as topical administration of a steroid cream to skin or inhalation of a bronchodilator aerosol to treat asthma (Ch. 27), where absorption as just defined is not required for the drug to act, but in most cases the drug must enter plasma before reaching its site of action.

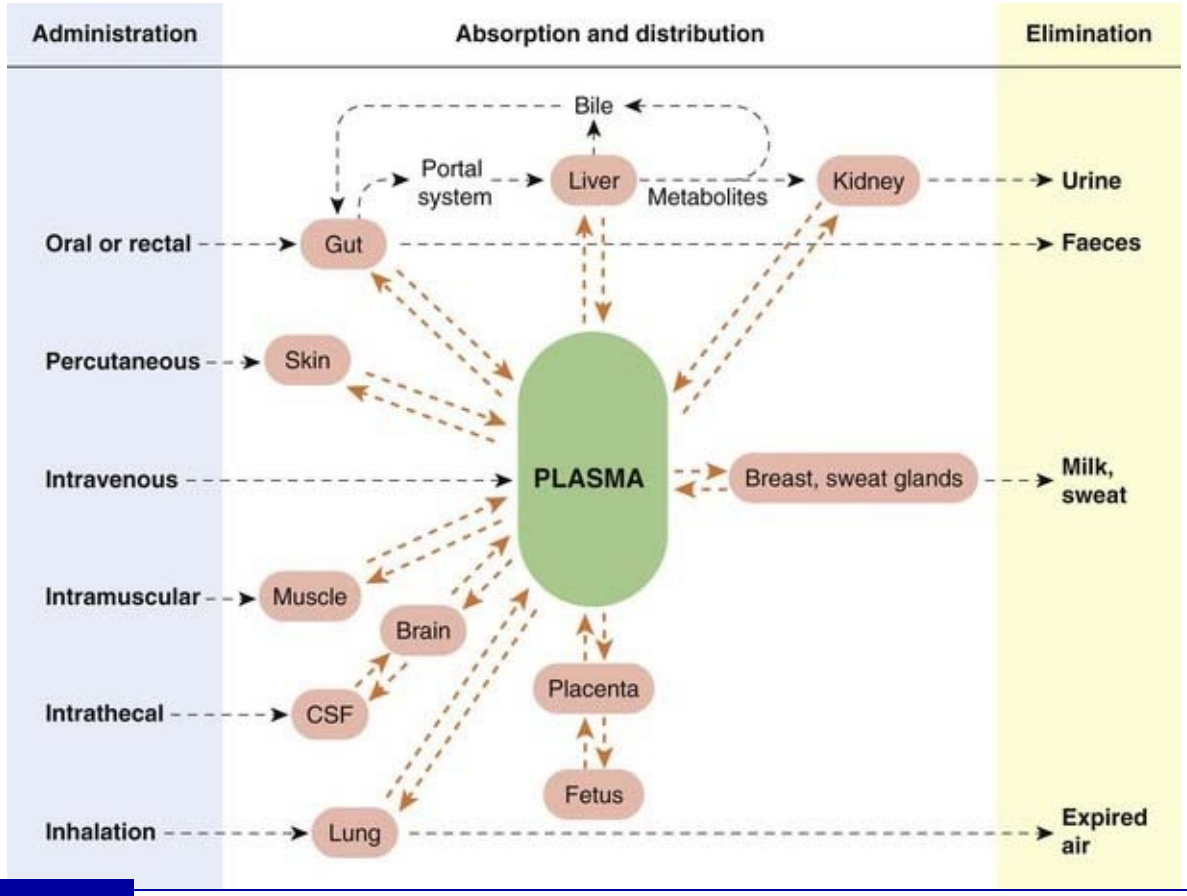


Fig. 8.8 The main routes of drug administration and elimination.

The main routes of administration are:

- oral
- sublingual
- rectal
- application to other epithelial surfaces (e.g. skin, cornea, vagina and nasal mucosa)
- inhalation
- injection
  - subcutaneous

– intramuscular
– intravenous
– intrathecal
– intravitreal.

Oral Administration

Most drugs are taken by mouth and swallowed. Little absorption occurs until the drug enters the small intestine.

Drug Absorption from the Intestine

For most drugs the mechanism of absorption is the same as for other epithelial barriers, namely passive transfer at a rate determined by the ionisation and lipid solubility of the drug molecules. Figure 8.9 shows the absorption of various weak acids and bases as a function of pK_a. As expected, strong bases of pK_a 10 or higher are poorly absorbed, as are strong acids of pK_a less than 3, because they are fully ionised. The arrow poison curare used by South American Indians contains quaternary ammonium compounds that block neuromuscular transmission (Ch. 13). These strong bases are poorly absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, so the meat from animals killed in this way was safe to eat.

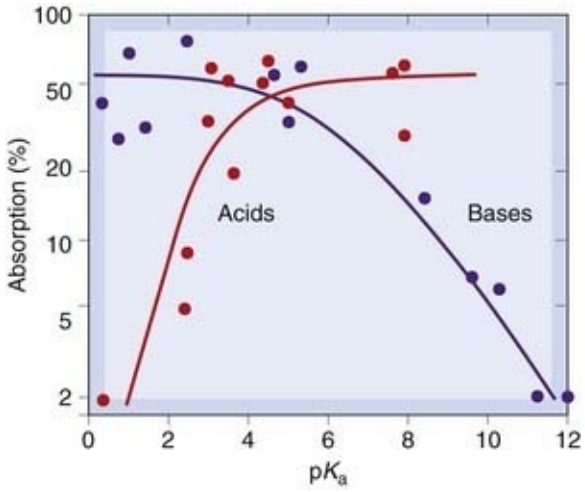


Fig. 8.9 Absorption of drugs from the intestine, as a function of pK_a, for acids and bases. Weak acids and bases are well absorbed; strong acids and bases are poorly absorbed.

(Redrawn from Schanker L S et al. 1957 J Pharmacol 120: 528.)

In a few instances, intestinal drug absorption depends on carrier-mediated transport rather than simple lipid diffusion. Examples include **levodopa**, used in treating Parkinson's disease (see Ch. 39), which is taken up by the carrier that normally transports phenylalanine, and **fluorouracil** (Ch. 55), a cytotoxic drug that is transported by the system that carries natural pyrimidines (thymine and uracil). Iron is absorbed via specific carriers in the epithelial cell membranes of jejunal mucosa, and calcium is absorbed by means of a vitamin D-dependent carrier system.

Factors Affecting Gastrointestinal Absorption

Typically, about 75% of a drug given orally is absorbed in 1–3 h, but numerous factors alter this, some physiological and some to do with the formulation of the drug. The main factors are:

- gastrointestinal motility
- splanchnic blood flow
- particle size and formulation
- physicochemical factors.

Gastrointestinal motility has a large effect. Many disorders (e.g. migraine, diabetic neuropathy) cause gastric stasis and slow drug absorption. Drug treatment can also affect motility, either reducing (e.g. drugs that block muscarinic receptors; see Ch. 13) or increasing it (e.g. **metoclopramide**, an antiemetic used in migraine to facilitate absorption of analgesic). Excessively rapid movement of gut contents (e.g. in some

forms of diarrhoea) can impair absorption. Several drugs (e.g. **propranolol**) reach a higher plasma concentration if they are taken after a meal, probably because food increases splanchnic blood flow. Conversely, splanchnic blood flow is greatly reduced by hypovolaemia or heart failure, with a resultant reduction of drug absorption.

Particle size and formulation have major effects on absorption. In 1971, patients in a New York hospital were found to require unusually large maintenance doses of **digoxin** (Ch. 21). In a study on normal volunteers, it was found that standard digoxin tablets from different manufacturers resulted in grossly different plasma concentrations (Fig. 8.10), even though the digoxin content of the tablets was the same, because of differences in particle size. Because digoxin is rather poorly absorbed, small differences in the pharmaceutical formulation can make a large difference to the extent of absorption.

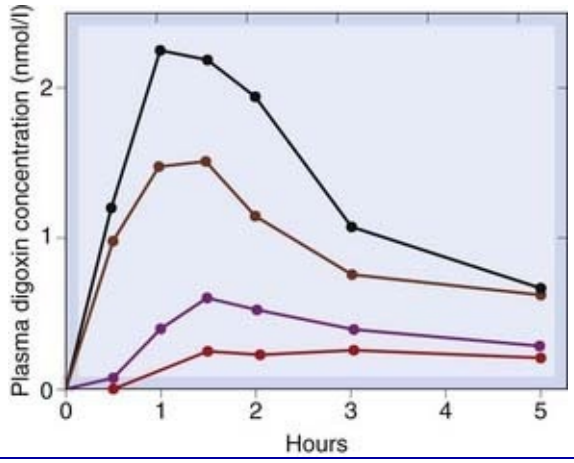


Fig. 8.10 Variation in oral absorption among different formulations of digoxin.

The four curves show the mean plasma concentrations attained for the four preparations, each of which was given on separate occasions to four subjects. The large variation has caused the formulation of digoxin tablets to be standardised since this study was published.

(From Lindenbaum J et al. 1971 N Engl J Med 285: 1344.)

Therapeutic drugs are formulated pharmaceutically to produce desired

absorption characteristics. Capsules may be designed to remain intact for some hours after ingestion in order to delay absorption, or tablets may have a resistant coating to give the same effect. In some cases, a mixture of slow-and fast-release particles is included in a capsule to produce rapid but sustained absorption. More elaborate pharmaceutical systems include modified-release preparations that permit less frequent dosing. Such preparations not only increase the dose interval but also reduce adverse effects related to high peak plasma concentrations following administration of a conventional formulation. Osmotically driven 'minipumps' can be implanted experimentally, and some oral extended-release preparations that are used clinically use the same principle, the tablet containing an osmotically active core and being bound by an impermeable membrane with a precisely engineered pore to allow drug to exit in solution, delivering drug at an approximately constant rate into the bowel lumen. Such preparations may, however, cause problems related to high local concentrations of drug in the intestine (an osmotically released preparation of the anti-inflammatory drug **indometacin**, Ch. 26, had to be withdrawn because it caused small bowel perforation), and are sensitive to variations in small bowel transit time that occur during ageing and with disease.

Physicochemical factors (including some drug interactions; Ch. 56) affect drug absorption. **Tetracycline** binds strongly to Ca^{2+}, and calcium-rich foods (especially milk) prevent its absorption (Ch. 50). Bile acid-binding resins such as **colestyramine** (used to treat diarrhoea caused by bile acids) bind several drugs, for example **warfarin** (Ch. 24) and **thyroxine** (Ch. 33).

When drugs are administered by mouth, the intention is usually that they should be absorbed and cause a systemic effect, but there are exceptions. **Vancomycin** is very poorly absorbed, and is administered

orally to eradicate toxin-forming *Clostridium difficile* from the gut lumen in patients with pseudomembranous colitis (an adverse effect of broad-spectrum antibiotics caused by appearance of this organism in the bowel). **Mesalazine** is a formulation of 5-aminosalicylic acid in a pH-dependent acrylic coat that degrades in the terminal ileum and proximal colon, and is used to treat inflammatory bowel disease affecting this part of the gut. **Olsalazine** is a prodrug (see below) consisting of a dimer of two molecules of 5-aminosalicylic acid that is cleaved by colonic bacteria in the distal bowel and is used to treat patients with distal colitis.

Bioavailability and bioequivalence

To get from the lumen of the small intestine into the systemic circulation, a drug must not only penetrate the intestinal mucosa, it must also run the gauntlet of enzymes that may inactivate it in gut wall and liver, referred to as 'presystemic' or 'first-pass' metabolism or clearance. The term *bioavailability* is used to indicate the fraction (*F*) of an orally administered dose that reaches the systemic circulation as intact drug, taking into account both absorption and local metabolic degradation. *F* is measured by determining the plasma drug concentration versus time curves in a group of subjects following oral and (on a separate occasion) intravenous administration (the fraction absorbed following an intravenous dose is 1 by definition). The areas under the plasma concentration time curves (AUC) are used to estimate *F* as $AUC_{oral}/AUC_{intravenous}$. Bioavailability is not a characteristic solely of the drug preparation: variations in enzyme activity of gut wall or liver, in gastric pH or intestinal motility all affect it. Because of this, one cannot speak strictly of the bioavailability of a particular preparation, but only of that preparation in a given individual on a particular occasion, and *F* determined in a group of healthy volunteer subjects may differ

substantially from the value determined in patients with diseases of gastrointestinal or circulatory systems.

Bioavailability relates only to the total proportion of the drug that reaches the systemic circulation and neglects the rate of absorption. If a drug is completely absorbed in 30 min, it will reach a much higher peak plasma concentration (and have a more dramatic effect) than if it were absorbed more slowly. Regulatory authorities—which have to make decisions about the licensing of products that are 'generic equivalents' of patented products—require evidence of 'bioequivalence' based on the maximum concentration achieved (C_{max}) and time between dosing and C_{max} (t_{max}) as well as $AUC_{(0-\infty)}$. For most drugs, each of these parameters ($AUC_{(0-\infty)}$, C_{max}, t_{max}) must lie between 80% and 125% of the lead product for the new generic product to be accepted as bioequivalent.

Sublingual Administration

Absorption directly from the oral cavity is sometimes useful (provided the drug does not taste too horrible) when a rapid response is required, particularly when the drug is either unstable at gastric pH or rapidly metabolised by the liver. **Glyceryl trinitrate** and **buprenorphine** are examples of drugs that are often given sublingually (Chs 21 and 41, respectively). Drugs absorbed from the mouth pass directly into the systemic circulation without entering the portal system, and so escape first-pass metabolism by enzymes in the gut wall and liver.

Rectal Administration

Rectal administration is used for drugs that are required either to produce a local effect (e.g. anti-inflammatory drugs for use in ulcerative colitis) or to produce systemic effects. Absorption following rectal

administration is often unreliable, but this route can be useful in patients who are vomiting or are unable to take medication by mouth (e.g. postoperatively). It is used to administer **diazepam** to children who are in *status epilepticus* (Ch. 44), in whom it is difficult to establish intravenous access.

Application to Epithelial Surfaces

Cutaneous Administration

Cutaneous administration is used when a local effect on the skin is required (e.g. topically applied steroids). Appreciable absorption may nonetheless occur and lead to systemic effects.

Most drugs are absorbed very poorly through unbroken skin. However, a number of organophosphate insecticides (see Ch. 13), which need to penetrate an insect's cuticle in order to work, are absorbed through skin, and accidental poisoning occurs in farm workers.

▼ A case is recounted of a 35-year-old florist in 1932. 'While engaged in doing a light electrical repair job at a work bench he sat down in a chair on the seat of which some "Nico-Fume liquid" (a 40% solution of free nicotine) had been spilled. He felt the solution wet through his clothes to the skin over the left buttock, an area about the size of the palm of his hand. He thought nothing further of it and continued at his work for about 15 minutes, when he was suddenly seized with nausea and faintness … and found himself in a drenching sweat. On the way to hospital he lost consciousness.' He survived, just, and then 4 days later: 'On discharge from the hospital he was given the same clothes that he had worn when he was brought in. The clothes had been kept in a paper bag and were still damp where they had been wet with the nicotine solution.' The sequel was predictable. He survived again but felt thereafter 'unable to enter a greenhouse where nicotine was being

sprayed'. Transdermal dosage forms of nicotine are now used to reduce the withdrawal symptoms that accompany stopping smoking (Ch. 48).

Transdermal dosage forms, in which the drug is incorporated in a stick-on patch applied to the skin, are used increasingly, and several drugs—for example **oestrogen** and **testosterone** for hormone replacement (Ch. 34)—are available in this form. Such patches produce a steady rate of drug delivery and avoid presystemic metabolism. **Fentanyl** is available in a patch to treat intermittent breakthrough pain (Ch. 41). However, the method is suitable only for lipid-soluble drugs and is relatively expensive.

Nasal Sprays

Some peptide hormone analogues, for example of **antidiuretic hormone** (Ch. 32) and of **gonadotrophin-releasing hormone** (see Ch. 34), are given as nasal sprays, as is **calcitonin** (Ch. 35). Absorption is believed to take place through mucosa overlying nasal-associated lymphoid tissue. This is similar to mucosa overlying Peyer's patches in the small intestine, which is also unusually permeable.

Eye Drops

Many drugs are applied as eye drops, relying on absorption through the epithelium of the conjunctival sac to produce their effects. Desirable local effects within the eye can be achieved without causing systemic side effects; for example, **dorzolamide** is a carbonic anhydrase inhibitor that is given as eye drops to lower ocular pressure in patients with glaucoma. It achieves this without affecting the kidney (see Ch. 28), thus avoiding the acidosis that is caused by oral administration of **acetazolamide**. Some systemic absorption from the eye occurs, however, and can result in unwanted effects (e.g. bronchospasm in asthmatic patients using **timolol** eye drops for glaucoma).

Administration by Inhalation

Inhalation is the route used for volatile and gaseous anaesthetics (see Ch. 40), the lung serving as the route of both administration and elimination. The rapid exchange resulting from the large surface area and blood flow makes it possible to achieve rapid adjustments of plasma concentration. The pharmacokinetic behaviour of inhalation anaesthetics is discussed more fully in Chapter 40.

Drugs used for their effects on the lung are also given by inhalation, usually as an aerosol. Glucocorticoids (e.g. **beclometasone dipropionate**) and bronchodilators (e.g. **salbutamol**; Ch. 27) are given in this way to achieve high local concentrations in the lung while minimising systemic side effects. However, drugs given by inhalation in this way are usually partly absorbed into the circulation, and systemic side effects (e.g. tremor following salbutamol) can occur. Chemical modification of a drug may minimise such absorption. For example, **ipratropium**, a muscarinic receptor antagonist (Chs 13 and 27), is a quaternary ammonium ion analogue of atropine. It is used as an inhaled bronchodilator because its poor absorption minimises systemic adverse effects.

Administration by Injection

Intravenous injection is the fastest and most certain route of drug administration. Bolus injection rapidly produces a high concentration of drug, first in the right heart and lungs and then in the systemic circulation. The peak concentration reaching the tissues depends critically on the rate of injection. Administration by steady intravenous infusion avoids the uncertainties of absorption from other sites, while avoiding high peak plasma concentrations caused by bolus injection.

Subcutaneous or intramuscular injection of drugs usually produces a

faster effect than oral administration, but the rate of absorption depends greatly on the site of injection and on local blood flow. The rate-limiting factors in absorption from the injection site are:

- diffusion through the tissue
- removal by local blood flow.

Absorption from a site of injection (sometimes but not always desirable, see below) is increased by increased blood flow. *Hyaluronidase* (an enzyme that breaks down the intercellular matrix, thereby increasing diffusion) also increases drug absorption from the site of injection. Conversely, absorption is reduced in patients with circulatory failure ('shock') in whom tissue perfusion is reduced (Ch. 22).

Methods for Delaying Absorption

It may be desirable to delay absorption, either to produce a local effect or to prolong systemic action. For example, addition of **adrenaline** (**epinephrine**) to a local anaesthetic reduces absorption of the anaesthetic into the general circulation, usefully prolonging the anaesthetic effect (Ch. 42). Formulation of insulin with protamine or zinc produces a long-acting form (see Ch. 30). **Procaine penicillin** (Ch. 50) is a poorly soluble salt of penicillin; when injected as an aqueous suspension, it is slowly absorbed and exerts a prolonged action. Esterification of steroid hormones (e.g. **medroxyprogesterone acetate**, **testosterone propionate**; Ch. 34) and antipsychotic drugs (e.g. **fluphenazine decanoate**; Ch. 45) increases their solubility in oil and slows their rate of absorption when they are injected in an oily solution.

Another method used to achieve slow and continuous absorption of certain steroid hormones (e.g. **estradiol**; Ch. 34) is the subcutaneous implantation of solid pellets. The rate of absorption is proportional to

the surface area of the implant.

Intrathecal Injection

Injection of a drug into the subarachnoid space via a lumbar puncture needle is used for some specialised purposes. **Methotrexate** (Ch. 55) is administered in this way in the treatment of certain childhood leukaemias to prevent relapse in the CNS. Regional anaesthesia can be produced by intrathecal administration of a local anaesthetic such as **bupivacaine** (see Ch. 42); opioid analgesics can also be used in this way (Ch. 41). **Baclofen** (a GABA analogue; Ch. 37) is used to treat disabling muscle spasms. It has been administered intrathecally to minimise its adverse effects. Some antibiotics (e.g. aminoglycosides) cross the blood–brain barrier very slowly, and in rare clinical situations where they are essential (e.g. nervous system infections with bacteria resistant to other antibiotics) can be given intrathecally or directly into the cerebral ventricles via a reservoir.

Intravitreal Injection

Ranibizumab (monoclonal antibody fragment that binds to vascular endothelial growth factor; Ch. 22) is given by intravitreal injection by ophthalmologists treating patients with wet age-related macular degeneration.

Drug absorption and bioavailability

• Drugs of very low lipid solubility, including those that are strong acids or bases, are generally poorly absorbed from the gut.

• A few drugs (e.g. **levodopa**) are absorbed by carrier-mediated transfer.

• Absorption from the gut depends on many factors, including:

– gastrointestinal motility

– gastrointestinal pH

– particle size

– physicochemical interaction with gut contents (e.g. chemical interaction between calcium and tetracycline antibiotics).

• Bioavailability is the fraction of an ingested dose of a drug that gains access to the systemic circulation. It may be low because absorption is incomplete, or because the drug is metabolised in the gut wall or liver before reaching the systemic circulation.

• Bioequivalence implies that if one formulation of a drug is substituted for another, no clinically untoward consequences will ensue.

Distribution of Drugs in the Body

Body Fluid Compartments

Body water is distributed into four main compartments, as shown in Figure 8.11. The total body water as a percentage of body weight varies from 50% to 70%, being rather less in women than in men.

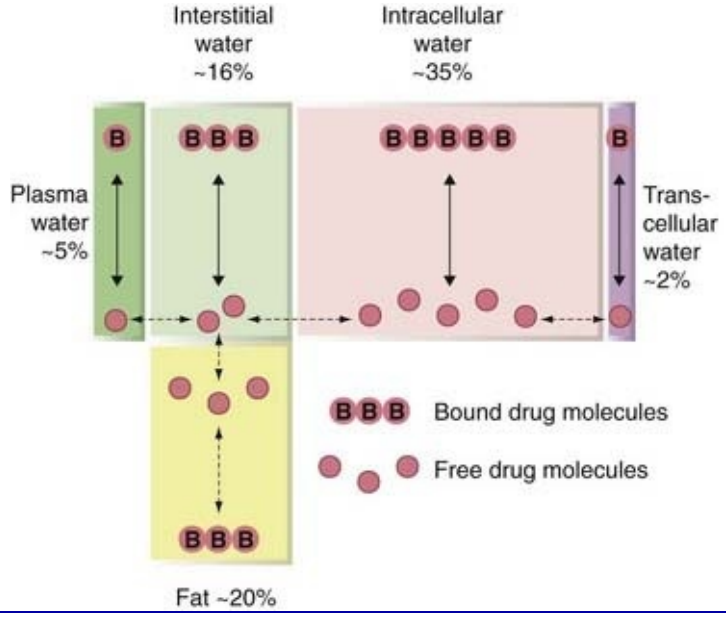


Fig. 8.11 The main body fluid compartments, expressed as a percentage of body weight.

Drug molecules exist in bound or free form in each compartment, but only the free drug is able to move between the compartments.

Extracellular fluid comprises the blood plasma (about 4.5% of body weight), interstitial fluid (16%) and lymph (1.2%). Intracellular fluid (30–40%) is the sum of the fluid contents of all cells in the body. Transcellular fluid (2.5%) includes the cerebrospinal, intraocular, peritoneal, pleural and synovial fluids, and digestive secretions. The fetus may also be regarded as a special type of transcellular compartment. Within each of these aqueous compartments, drug molecules usually exist both in free solution and in bound form; furthermore, drugs that are weak acids or bases will exist as an equilibrium mixture of the charged and uncharged forms, the position of the equilibrium depending on the pH.

The equilibrium pattern of distribution between the various compartments will therefore depend on:

- permeability across tissue barriers
- binding within compartments
- pH partition
- fat:water partition.

To enter the transcellular compartments from the extracellular compartment, a drug must cross a cellular barrier, a particularly important example in the context of pharmacokinetics being the blood–brain barrier.

The Blood–Brain Barrier

The concept of the blood–brain barrier was introduced by Paul Ehrlich to explain his observation that intravenously injected dye stained most

tissues yet the brain remained unstained. The barrier consists of a continuous layer of endothelial cells joined by tight junctions and surrounded by pericytes. The brain is consequently inaccessible to many drugs with a lipid solubility that is insufficient to allow penetration of the blood–brain barrier. However, inflammation can disrupt the integrity of the blood–brain barrier, allowing normally impermeant substances to enter the brain (Fig. 8.12); consequently, **penicillin** (Ch. 50) can be given intravenously (rather than intrathecally) to treat bacterial meningitis (which is accompanied by intense inflammation).

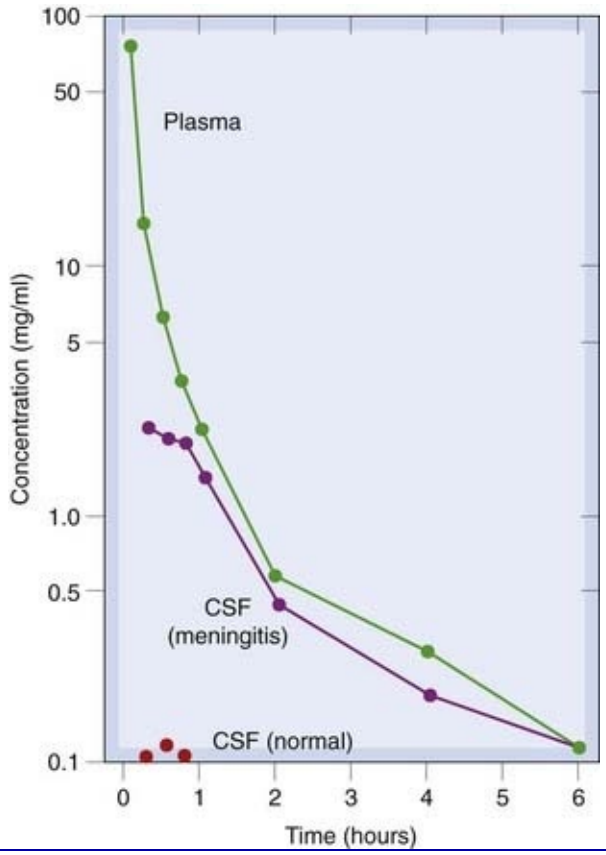


Fig. 8.12 Plasma and cerebrospinal fluid concentrations of an antibiotic (thienamycin) following an intravenous dose (25 mg/kg).

In normal rabbits, no drug reaches the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), but in animals with experimental *Escherichia coli* meningitis the concentration of drug in CSF approaches that in the plasma.

(From Patamasucon & McCracken 1973 Antimicrob Agents Chemother 3: 270.)

Furthermore, in some parts of the CNS, including the *chemoreceptor trigger zone*, the barrier is leaky. This enables **domperidone**, an antiemetic dopamine receptor antagonist (Ch. 29 & 39) that does not penetrate the blood–brain barrier but does access the chemoreceptor trigger zone, to be used to prevent the nausea caused by dopamine agonists such as **apomorphine** when these are used to treat advanced Parkinson's disease. This is achieved without loss of efficacy, because dopamine receptors in the basal ganglia are accessible only to drugs that have traversed the blood–brain barrier.

Methylnaltrexone bromide is a peripherally acting μ-opioid receptor antagonist used in treating opioid-induced constipation in patients requiring opioids as part of palliative care. It has limited gastrointestinal absorption and does not cross the blood–brain barrier, so does not block the desired CNS opioid effects. Several peptides, including bradykinin and enkephalins, increase blood–brain barrier permeability. There is interest in exploiting this to improve penetration of chemotherapy during treatment of brain tumours. In addition, extreme stress renders the blood–brain barrier permeable to drugs such as **pyridostigmine** (Ch. 13), which normally act peripherally.[2]

[2]This has been invoked to explain the central symptoms of cholinesterase inhibition experienced by some soldiers during the Gulf War. These soldiers may have been exposed to cholinesterase inhibitors (developed as chemical weapons and also, somewhat bizarrely, used externally during the conflict to prevent insect infestation) in the context of the stress of warfare.

Volume of Distribution

The apparent volume of distribution, V_d, (see Ch. 10) is defined as the volume of fluid required to contain the total amount, Q, of drug in the

body at the same concentration as that present in the plasma, C_p:

$$V_d = \frac{Q}{C_p}$$

Values of V_d have been measured for many drugs (see Table 8.1).[3] It is important to avoid identifying a given range of V_d too closely with a particular anatomical compartment. For example, insulin has a measured V_d similar to the volume of plasma water but exerts its effects on muscle, fat and liver via receptors that are exposed to interstitial fluid but not to plasma (Ch. 30).

Table 8.1 Distribution volumes for some drugs compared with volume of body fluid compartments

Volume (l/kg body weight)	Compartment	Volume of distribution (V_d; l/kg body weight)	Drug(s)
0.05	Plasma	0.05–0.1	Heparin Insulin
		0.1–0.2	Warfarin Sulfamethoxazole Glibenclamide Atenolol
0.2	Extracellular fluid	0.2–0.4	Tubocurarine
		0.4–0.7	Theophylline
0.55	Total body water	1–2	Ethanol Neostigmine Phenytoin Methotrexate Indometacin Paracetamol Diazepam Lidocaine (lignocaine)
		2–5	Glyceryl trinitrate Morphine Propranolol Digoxin Chlorpromazine
		>10	Nortriptyline Imipramine

[3]The experimental measurement of V_d is complicated by the fact that Q does not stay constant (because of metabolism and excretion of the drug) during the time that it takes for it to be distributed among the various body compartments that contribute to the overall V_d. It therefore has to be calculated indirectly from a series of measurements of plasma concentrations as a function of time (see Fig. 10.1).

Drugs Confined to the Plasma Compartment

The plasma volume is about 0.05 l/kg body weight. A few drugs, such as **heparin** (Ch. 24), are confined to plasma because the molecule is too large to cross the capillary wall easily. More often, retention of a drug in the plasma following a single dose reflects strong binding to plasma protein. It is, nevertheless, the free drug in the interstitial fluid that exerts a pharmacological effect. Following repeated dosing, equilibration occurs and measured V_d increases. Some dyes, such as Evans blue, bind so strongly to plasma albumin that its V_d is used experimentally to measure plasma volume.

Drugs Distributed in the Extracellular Compartment

The total extracellular volume is about 0.2 l/kg, and this is the approximate V_d for many polar compounds, such as **vecuronium** (Ch. 13), **gentamicin** and **carbenicillin** (Ch. 50). These drugs cannot easily enter cells because of their low lipid solubility, and they do not traverse the blood–brain or placental barriers freely.

Distribution throughout the Body Water

Total body water represents about 0.55 l/kg. This approximates the distribution of relatively lipid-soluble drugs that readily cross cell membranes, such as **phenytoin** (Ch. 44) and **ethanol** (Ch. 48). Binding of drug outside the plasma compartment, or partitioning into body fat,

increases V_d beyond total body water. Consequently, there are many drugs with V_d greater than the total body volume, such as **morphine** (Ch. 41), tricyclic antidepressants (Ch. 46) and **haloperidol** (Ch. 45). Such drugs are not efficiently removed from the body by haemodialysis, which is therefore unhelpful in managing overdose with such agents.

Drug distribution

• The major compartments are:

– plasma (5% of body weight)

– interstitial fluid (16%)

– intracellular fluid (35%)

– transcellular fluid (2%)

– fat (20%).

• Volume of distribution (V_d) is defined as the volume of plasma that would contain the total body content of the drug at a concentration equal to that in the plasma.

• Lipid-insoluble drugs are mainly confined to plasma and interstitial fluids; most do not enter the brain following acute dosing.

• Lipid-soluble drugs reach all compartments and may accumulate in fat.

• For drugs that accumulate outside the plasma compartment (e.g. in fat or by being bound to tissues), V_d may exceed total body volume.

Special Drug Delivery Systems

Several approaches are used or in development to improve drug delivery and localise the drug to the target tissue. They include:

• biologically erodible nanoparticles

• prodrugs

- antibody–drug conjugates
- packaging in liposomes
- coated implantable devices.

Biologically Erodible Nanoparticles

Microspheres of biologically erodible polymers (see Varde & Pack, 2004) can be engineered to adhere to mucosal epithelium in the gut. Such particles can be loaded with drugs, including high-molecular-weight substances, as a means of improving absorption, which occurs both through mucosal absorptive epithelium and also through epithelium overlying Peyer's patches. This approach has yet to be used clinically, but microspheres made from polyanhydride co-polymers of fumaric and sebacic acids by a technique known as phase inversion nanoencapsulation have been used to produce systemic absorption of insulin and of plasmid DNA following oral administration in rats, potentially enabling gene therapy (Ch. 59) to be administered orally. Various polymer nanoparticles, that can be loaded with drug molecules and targeted to specific tissues, are in development for many therapeutic applications (see Singh & Lillard, 2008), particularly as a means of delivering cytotoxic drugs specifically to cancer cells (see Ch. 55).

Prodrugs

Prodrugs are inactive precursors that are metabolised to active metabolites; they are described in Chapter 9. Some of the examples in clinical use confer no obvious benefits and have been found to be prodrugs only retrospectively, not having been designed with this in mind. However, some do have advantages. For example, the cytotoxic drug **cyclophosphamide** (see Ch. 55) becomes active only after it has been metabolised in the liver; it can therefore be taken orally without

causing serious damage to the gastrointestinal epithelium. **Levodopa** is absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and crosses the blood–brain barrier via an amino acid transport mechanism before conversion to active dopamine in nerve terminals in the basal ganglia (Ch. 39). **Zidovudine** is phosphorylated to its active triphosphate metabolite only in cells containing the appropriate reverse transcriptase, hence conferring selective toxicity towards cells infected with HIV (Ch. 51). **Valaciclovir** and **famciclovir** are each ester prodrugs, respectively of **aciclovir** and of **penciclovir**. Their bioavailability is greater than that of aciclovir and penciclovir, which are themselves prodrugs that are converted into active metabolites in virally infected cells (Ch. 51).

Other problems could theoretically be overcome by the use of suitable prodrugs; for example, instability of drugs at gastric pH, direct gastric irritation (aspirin was synthesised in the 19th century in a deliberate attempt to produce a prodrug of salicylic acid that would be tolerable when taken by mouth), failure of drug to cross the blood–brain barrier and so on. Progress with this approach remains slow, however, and the optimistic prodrug designer 'will have to bear in mind that an organism's normal reaction to a foreign substance is to burn it up for food'.

Antibody–Drug Conjugates

One of the aims of cancer chemotherapy is to improve the selectivity of cytotoxic drugs (see Ch. 55). One interesting possibility is to attach the drug to an antibody directed against a tumour-specific antigen, which will bind selectively to tumour cells.

Packaging in Liposomes

Liposomes are minute vesicles produced by sonication of an aqueous suspension of phospholipids. They can be filled with non-lipid-soluble

drugs, which are retained until the liposome is disrupted. Liposomes are taken up by reticuloendothelial cells, especially in the liver. They are also concentrated in malignant tumours, and there is a possibility of achieving selective delivery of drugs in this way. **Amphotericin**, an antifungal drug used to treat systemic mycoses (Ch. 52), is available in a liposomal formulation that is less nephrotoxic and better tolerated than the conventional form, albeit considerably more expensive. In the future, it may be possible to direct drugs or genes selectively to a specific target by incorporating antibody molecules into liposomal membrane surfaces.

Coated Implantable Devices

Impregnated coatings have been developed that permit localised drug delivery from implants. Examples include hormonal delivery to the endometrium from intrauterine devices, and delivery of antithrombotic and antiproliferative agents (drugs or radiopharmaceuticals) to the coronary arteries from *stents* (devices inserted via a catheter after a diseased coronary artery has been dilated with a balloon). Stents reduce the occurrence of re-stenosis, but this can still occur at the margin of the device. Coating stents with drugs such as **sirolimus** (a potent immunosuppressant; see Ch. 26) embedded in a surface polymer prevents this important clinical problem.

References and Further Reading

Drug distribution (including blood–brain barrier)

auer B., Hartz A.M.S., Fricker G., Miller D.S. Modulation of P-glycoprotein transport function at the blood–brain barrier. *Exp. Biol. Med.*. 2005;230:118-127. (*Reviews mechanisms by which P-glycoprotein activity can be modulated, including direct inhibition by specific competitors, and functional and transcriptional modulation*)

iarimboli G. Organic cation transporters. *Xenobiotica*. 2008;38:936-971. (*Discusses species-and*

tissue-specific distribution of different OCT isoforms and polymorphisms in OCTs as a source of variation in drug response)

e Boer A.G., van der Sandt I.C.J., Gaillard P.J. The role of drug transporters at the blood–brain barrier. *Ann. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.* 2003;43:629-656. (*Reviews the role of carrier-and receptor-mediated transport systems in the blood–brain barrier; these include P-glycoprotein, multidrug-resistance proteins 17, nucleoside transporters, organic anion transporters and large amino acid transporters, the transferrin-1 and -2 receptors, and the scavenger receptors SB-AI and SB-BI*)

raly S.A., Bush K.T., Sampogna R.V., *et al.* The molecular pharmacology of organic anion transporters: from DNA to FDA? *Mol. Pharmacol.*. 2004;65:479-487. (*Reviews aspects of the molecular biology and pharmacology of the organic anion transporters, and discusses their structural biology, paired genomic organisation, developmental regulation, toxicology and pharmacogenetics*)

ediger M.A., Romero M.F., Peng J.-B., *et al.* The ABCs of solute carriers: physiological, pathological and therapeutic implications of human membrane transport proteins. *Pflug. Arch.*. 2004;447:465-468.

oepsell H. Polyspecific organic cation transporters: their functions and interactions with drugs. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2004;25:375-381. (*Reviews organic cation transporters [OCT]1–3, which are expressed in gut, liver, kidney, heart, placenta, lung and brain, and facilitate diffusion of structurally diverse organic cations including monoamine neurotransmitters and many drugs; studies in knockout mice implicate OCT1 in the hepatic uptake and biliary excretion of cationic drugs, and OCT1 and 2 in renal proximal tubules participate in secreting cationic drugs into urine*)

IcNamara P.J., Abbassi M. Neonatal exposure to drugs in breast milk. *Pharm. Res.*. 2004;21:555-566. (*Review*)

eff M.W., Robertson K.R., Wong A.K., *et al.* Breed distribution and history of canine mdr1-1 delta, a pharmacogenetic mutation that marks the emergence of breeds from the collie lineage. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 2004;101:11725-11730. (*The breed distribution and frequency of mdr1-1 delta have applications in veterinary medicine, whereas the allele's history recounts the emergence of formally recognised breeds from an admixed population of working sheepdogs*)

etzinger E., Geyer J. Drug transporters in pharmacokinetics. *Naunyn-Schmiederberg's Arch. Pharmacol.*. 2006;372:465-475. (*Emphasises the interplay between drug metabolism and drug*

transport, especially in liver)

itter C.A., Jedlitschky G., Schwabedissen H.M.Z., *et al.* Cellular export of drugs and signaling molecules by the ATP-binding cassette transporters MRP4 (ABCC4) and MRP5 (ABCC5). *Drug Metab. Rev.*. 2005;37:253-278. (*Members of the multidrug resistance-associated protein [MRP] subfamily of ATP-binding cassette transporters, MRP4 and 5 are organic anion transporters; they transport nucleotides and nucleotide analogues, and also cyclic nucleotides, so are implicated in signal transduction. MRP4 also transports conjugated steroids, prostaglandins and glutathione*)

asaki M., Suzuki H., Aoki J., *et al.* Prediction of in vivo biliary clearance from the in vitro transcellular transport of organic anions across a double-transfected Madin–Darby canine kidney II monolayer expressing both rat organic anion transporting polypeptide 4 and multidrug resistance associated protein 2. *Mol. Pharmacol.*. 2004;66:450-459. (*Double-transfected Madin–Darby canine kidney cell monolayer may be useful in analysing hepatic transport of organic anions and in predicting in vivo biliary clearance*)

Drug delivery

ornford E.M., Cornford M.E. New systems for delivery of drugs to the brain in neurological disease. *Lancet Neurol.*. 2002;1:306-315. (*Reviews augmentation of pinocytosis to deliver drugs to the brain. Macromolecules can be conjugated to peptidomimetic ligands that bind peptide receptors, and are then internalised and transported in small vesicles across the cytoplasmic brain–capillary barrier. Such conjugates can remain effective in animal models of neurological disease)*

Jahato R.I., Narang A.S., Thoma L., Miller D.D. Emerging trends in oral delivery of peptide and protein drugs. *Crit. Rev. Ther. Drug Carrier Syst.*. 2003;20:153-214. (*Various strategies currently under investigation include amino acid backbone modifications; formulation approaches; chemical conjugation of hydrophobic or targeting ligand; and use of enzyme inhibitors, mucoadhesive polymers and absorption enhancers*)

Jizuno N., Niwa T., Yotsumoto Y., Sugiyama Y. Impact of drug transporter studies on drug discovery and development. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2003;55:425-461. (*Reviews drug transport in intestine, liver, kidney and brain, and its roles in absorption, distribution and excretion*)

ingh R., Lillard J.W. Nanoparticle-based targeted drug delivery. *Exp. Mol. Pathol.*. 2008;86:215-

223.

aguchi A., Sharma N., Saleem R.M. Selective postoperative inhibition of gastrointestinal opioid receptors. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;345:935-940. (*Speeds recovery of bowel function and shortens hospitalisation: notionally 'poor' absorption is used to advantage by providing a selective action on the gut*)

arde N.K., Pack D.W. Microspheres for controlled release drug delivery. *Exp. Opin. Biol. Ther.*. 2004;4:35-51. (*Describes methods of microparticle fabrication and factors controlling the release rates of encapsulated drugs; recent advances for delivery of single-shot vaccines, plasmid DNA and therapeutic proteins are discussed*)

9

Drug metabolism and elimination

Overview

We describe phases I and II of drug metabolism, emphasising the importance of the cytochrome P450 monooxygenase system. We then cover the processes of biliary excretion and enterohepatic recirculation of drugs, and of drug and drug metabolite elimination by the kidney.

Introduction

Drug elimination is the irreversible loss of drug from the body. It occurs by two processes: *metabolism* and *excretion*. Metabolism consists of anabolism and catabolism, *i.e.* respectively the build-up and breakdown of substances by enzymic conversion of one chemical entity to another within the body, whereas excretion consists of elimination from the body of chemically unchanged drug or its metabolites. The main routes by which drugs and their metabolites leave the body are:

- the kidneys
- the hepatobiliary system
- the lungs (important for volatile/gaseous anaesthetics).

Most drugs leave the body in the urine, either unchanged or as polar metabolites. Some drugs are secreted into bile via the liver, but most of these are then reabsorbed from the intestine. There are, however, instances (e.g. **rifampicin**; Ch. 50) where faecal loss accounts for the

elimination of a substantial fraction of unchanged drug in healthy individuals, and faecal elimination of drugs such as **digoxin** that are normally excreted in urine (Ch. 21) becomes progressively more important in patients with advancing renal failure. Excretion via the lungs occurs only with highly volatile or gaseous agents (e.g. general anaesthetics; Ch. 40). Small amounts of some drugs are also excreted in secretions such as milk or sweat. Elimination by these routes is quantitatively negligible compared with renal excretion, although excretion into milk can sometimes be important because of effects on the baby (e.g. see McNamara & Abbassi, 2004; Ito, 2000).

Lipophilic substances are not eliminated efficiently by the kidney. Consequently, most lipophilic drugs are metabolised to more polar products, which are then excreted in urine. Drug metabolism occurs predominantly in the liver, especially by the cytochrome P450 (CYP) system. Some P450 enzymes are extrahepatic and play an important part in the biosynthesis of steroid hormones (Ch. 32) and eicosanoids (Ch. 17), but here we are concerned with catabolism of drugs by the hepatic P450 system.

Drug Metabolism

Animals have evolved complex systems that detoxify foreign chemicals ('xenobiotics'), including carcinogens and toxins present in poisonous plants. Drugs are a special case of such xenobiotics and, like plant alkaloids, they often exhibit *chirality* (i.e. there is more than one stereoisomer), which affects their overall metabolism. Drug metabolism involves two kinds of reaction, known as phase 1 and phase 2. These often, although not invariably, occur sequentially. Both phases decrease lipid solubility, thus increasing renal elimination.

Phase 1 Reactions

Phase 1 reactions are catabolic (e.g. oxidation, reduction or hydrolysis), and the products are often more chemically reactive and hence, paradoxically, sometimes more toxic or carcinogenic than the parent drug. Phase 1 reactions often introduce a reactive group, such as hydroxyl, into the molecule, a process known as 'functionalisation'. This group then serves as the point of attack for the conjugating system to attach a substituent such as glucuronide (Fig. 9.1), explaining why phase 1 reactions so often precede phase 2 reactions (see below). Phase 1 reactions take place mainly in the liver. Many hepatic drug-metabolising enzymes, including CYP enzymes, are embedded in the smooth endoplasmic reticulum. They are often called 'microsomal' enzymes because, on homogenisation and differential centrifugation, the endoplasmic reticulum is broken into very small fragments that sediment only after prolonged high-speed centrifugation in the microsomal fraction. To reach these metabolising enzymes in life, a drug must cross the plasma membrane. Polar molecules do this less readily than non-polar molecules except where there are specific transport mechanisms (Ch. 8), so intracellular metabolism is important for lipid-soluble drugs, while polar drugs are at least partly excreted unchanged in the urine.

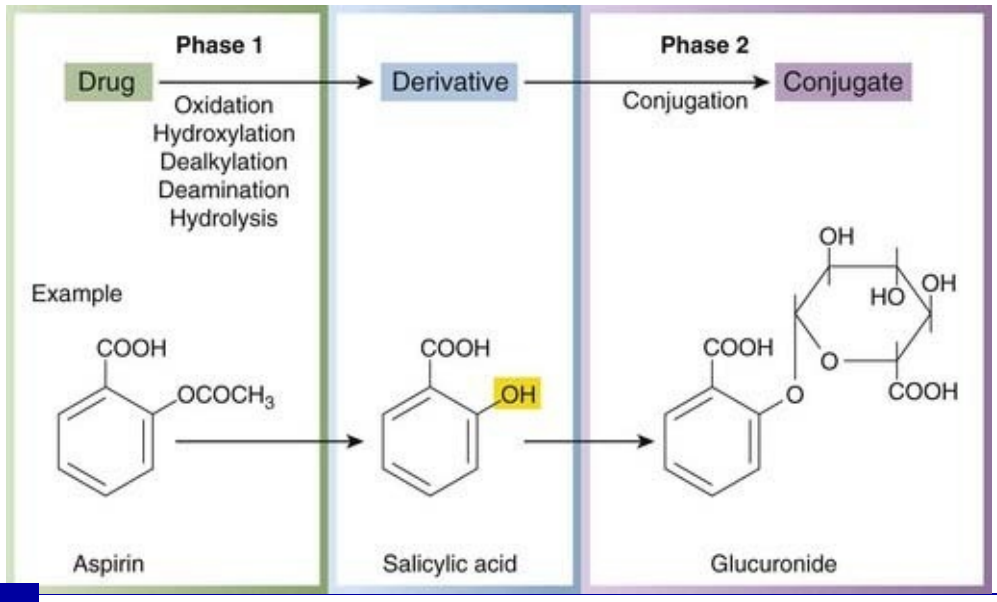


Fig. 9.1 The two phases of drug metabolism.

The P450 Monooxygenase System

Nature, classification and mechanism of P450 enzymes

Cytochrome P450 enzymes are haem proteins, comprising a large family ('superfamily') of related but distinct enzymes, each referred to as CYP followed by a defining set of numbers and a letter. These enzymes differ from one another in amino acid sequence, in sensitivity to inhibitors and inducing agents (see below), and in the specificity of the reactions that they catalyse (see Anzenbacher, 2007 for reviews). Different members of the family have distinct, but often overlapping, substrate specificities, and may act on the same substrates but at different rates. Purification of P450 enzymes and complementary DNA cloning form the basis of the current classification, which is based on amino acid sequence similarities. Seventy-four CYP gene families have been described, of which three main ones (CYP1, CYP2 and CYP3) are involved in drug metabolism in human liver. Examples of therapeutic drugs that are substrates for some important P450 isoenzymes are shown in Table 9.1. Drug oxidation by the monooxygenase P450 system requires drug

(substrate, ‘DH’), P450 enzyme, molecular oxygen, NADPH and a flavoprotein (NADPH–P450 reductase). The mechanism involves a complex cycle (Fig. 9.2), but the overall net effect of the reaction is quite simple, namely the addition of one atom of oxygen (from molecular oxygen) to the drug to form a hydroxyl group (product, ‘DOH’), the other atom of oxygen being converted to water.

Table 9.1 Examples of drugs that are substrates of P450 isoenzymes

Isoenzyme P450	Drug(s)
CYP1A2	Caffeine, paracetamol (→NAPQI), tacrine, theophylline
CYP2B6	Cyclophosphamide, methadone
CYP2C8	Paclitaxel, repaglinide
CYP2C19	Omeprazole, phenytoin
CYP2C9	Ibuprofen, tolbutamide, warfarin
CYP2D6	Codeine, debrisoquine, S-metoprolol
CYP2E1	Alcohol, paracetamol
CYP3A4, 5, 7	Ciclosporin, nifedipine, indinavir, simvastatin

(Adapted from http://medicine.iupui.edu/flockhart/table.htm.)

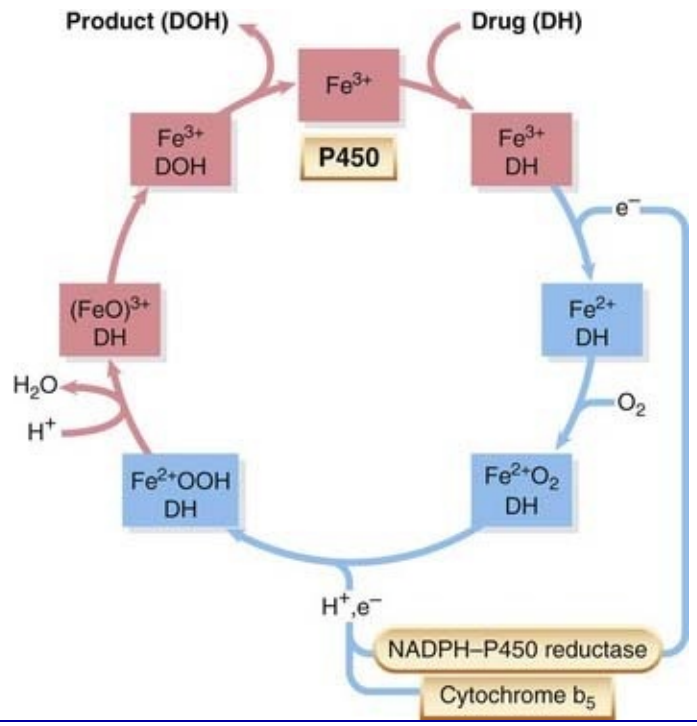


Fig. 9.2 The monooxygenase P450 cycle.

Each of the pink or blue rectangles represents one single molecule of cytochrome P450 (P450) undergoing a catalytic cycle. Iron in P450 is in either the ferric (pink rectangles) or ferrous (blue rectangles) state. P450 containing ferric iron (Fe^{3+}) combines with a molecule of drug ('DH'); receives an electron from NADPH–P450 reductase, which reduces the iron to Fe^{2+}; combines with molecular oxygen, a proton and a second electron (either from NADPH–P450 reductase or from cytochrome b_5) to form an Fe^{2+}OOH–DH complex. This combines with another proton to yield water and a ferric oxene $(FeO)^{3+}$–DH complex. $(FeO)^{3+}$ extracts a hydrogen atom from DH, with the formation of a pair of short-lived free radicals (see text), liberation from the complex of oxidised drug ('DOH'), and regeneration of P450 enzyme.

▼ P450 enzymes have unique spectral properties, and the reduced forms combine with carbon monoxide to form a pink compound (hence 'P') with absorption peaks near 450 nm (range 447–452 nm). The first clue that there is more than one form of CYP came from the observation that treatment of rats with 3-methylcholanthrene (3-MC), an inducing agent (see below), causes a shift in the absorption maximum from 450 to 448 nm—the 3-MC-induced isoform of the enzyme absorbs light maximally at a slightly shorter wavelength than the un-induced enzyme.

P450 and biological variation

There are important variations in the expression and regulation of P450 enzymes between species. For instance, the pathways by which certain dietary heterocyclic amines (formed when meat is cooked) generate genotoxic products involves one member of the P450 superfamily (CYP1A2) that is constitutively present in humans and rats (which develop colon tumours after treatment with such amines) but not in cynomolgus monkeys (which do not). Such species differences have crucial implications for the choice of species to be used for toxicity and carcinogenicity testing during the development of new drugs for use in humans.

Within human populations, there are major sources of interindividual variation in P450 enzymes that are of great importance in therapeutics. These include genetic polymorphisms (alternative sequences at a locus within the DNA strand—alleles—that persist in a population through several generations; Ch. 11). Environmental factors (Ch. 56) are also important, since enzyme inhibitors and inducers are present in the diet and environment. For example, a component of grapefruit juice inhibits drug metabolism (leading to potentially disastrous consequences, including cardiac dysrhythmias; Ch. 56), whereas Brussels sprouts and cigarette smoke induce P450 enzymes. Components of St John's wort (used to treat depression in 'alternative' medicine; Ch. 46) induce CYP450 isoenzymes as well as P-glycoprotein (P-gp) (see Ch. 8 and below, and Henderson et al., 2002).

Not all drug oxidation reactions involve the P450 system: some drugs are metabolised in plasma (e.g. hydrolysis of **suxamethonium** by plasma cholinesterase; Ch. 13), lung (e.g. various prostanoids; Ch. 17) or gut (e.g. **tyramine**, **salbutamol**; Chs 14 and 27). **Ethanol** (Ch. 48) is metabolised by a soluble cytoplasmic enzyme, alcohol dehydrogenase, in

addition to CYP2E1. Other P450-independent enzymes involved in drug oxidation include xanthine oxidase, which inactivates **6-mercaptopurine** (Ch. 55), and monoamine oxidase, which inactivates many biologically active amines (e.g. **noradrenaline** [norepinephrine], tyramine, 5-hydroxytryptamine; Chs 14 and 15).

Hydrolytic reactions (e.g. of **aspirin**; Fig. 9.1) do not involve hepatic microsomal enzymes but occur in plasma and in many tissues. Both ester and (less readily) amide bonds are susceptible to hydrolysis. Reductive reactions are much less common than oxidations, but some are important. For example, **warfarin** (Ch. 24) is inactivated by conversion of a ketone to a hydroxyl group by CYP2A6.

Phase 2 Reactions

Phase 2 reactions are synthetic ('anabolic') and involve conjugation (i.e. attachment of a substituent group), which usually results in inactive products, although there are exceptions (e.g. the active sulfate metabolite of **minoxidil**, a potassium channel activator used to treat severe hypertension, Ch. 22; **morphine-6-glucuronide** is an active metabolite of morphine that is being developed as an analgesic agent [Ch. 41]—on acute administration it induces less nausea and vomiting than the parent drug perhaps because, being more polar, it fails to access the vomiting centres). Phase 2 reactions also take place mainly in the liver. If a drug molecule has a suitable 'handle' (e.g. a hydroxyl, thiol or amino group), either in the parent molecule or in a product resulting from phase 1 metabolism, it is susceptible to conjugation. The groups most often involved are glucuronyl (Fig. 9.3), sulfate, methyl and acetyl. The tripeptide glutathione can conjugate drugs or their phase 1 metabolites via its sulfhydryl group, as in the detoxification of **paracetamol** (see Fig. 57.1, p. 701). Glucuronide formation involves the

formation of a high-energy phosphate compound, uridine diphosphate glucuronic acid (UDPGA), from which glucuronic acid is transferred to an electron-rich atom (N, O or S) on the substrate, forming an amide, ester or thiol bond. UDP-glucuronyl transferase, which catalyses these reactions, has very broad substrate specificity embracing many drugs and other foreign molecules. Several important endogenous substances, including bilirubin and adrenal corticosteroids, are conjugated by the same system.

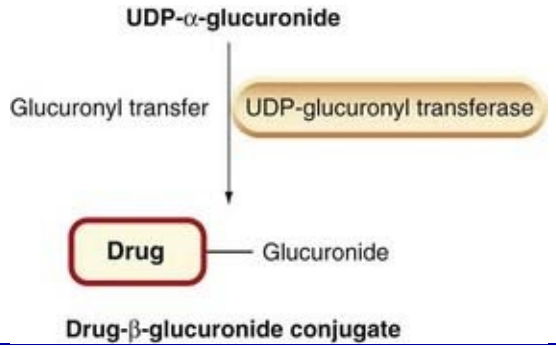


Fig. 9.3 The glucuronide conjugation reaction.
A glucuronyl group is transferred from uridine diphosphate glucuronic acid (UDPGA) to a drug molecule.

Acetylation and methylation reactions occur with acetyl-CoA and S-adenosyl methionine, respectively, acting as the donor compounds. Many of these conjugation reactions occur in the liver, but other tissues, such as lung and kidney, are also involved.

Stereoselectivity

Many clinically important drugs, such as **sotalol** (Ch. 21), **warfarin** (Ch. 24) and **cyclophosphamide** (Ch. 55), are mixtures of stereoisomers, the components of which differ not only in their pharmacological effects but also in their metabolism, which may follow completely distinct pathways (see Campo et al., 2009 for a recent review). Several clinically important drug interactions involve stereospecific inhibition of metabolism of one

drug by another (Ch. 56). In some cases, drug toxicity is mainly linked to one of the stereoisomers, not necessarily the pharmacologically active one. Where practicable, regulatory authorities urge that new drugs should consist of single isomers to avoid these complications.[1]

Inhibition of P450

[1]No doubt a good idea though the usefulness of effort directed towards developing 'novel' entities that are actually just the active isomers of well-established and safe racemates has been questioned.

Inhibitors of P450 differ in their selectivity towards different isoforms of the enzyme, and are classified by their mechanism of action. Some drugs compete for the active site but are not themselves substrates (e.g. **quinidine** is a potent competitive inhibitor of CYP2D6 but is not a substrate for it). Non-competitive inhibitors include drugs such as **ketoconazole**, which forms a tight complex with the Fe^{3+} form of the haem iron of CYP3A4, causing reversible non-competitive inhibition. So-called mechanism-based inhibitors require oxidation by a P450 enzyme. Examples include the oral contraceptive **gestodene** (CYP3A4) and the anthelminthic drug **diethylcarbamazine** (CYP2E1). An oxidation product (e.g. a postulated epoxide intermediate of gestodene) binds covalently to the enzyme, which then destroys itself ('suicide inhibition'; see Pelkonen et al., 2008 for a fuller review). Many clinically important interactions between drugs are the result of inhibition of P450 enzymes (see Ch. 56).

Induction of Microsomal Enzymes

A number of drugs, such as **rifampicin** (Ch. 50), **ethanol** (Ch. 48) and **carbamazepine** (Ch. 44), increase the activity of microsomal oxidase and conjugating systems when administered repeatedly. Many

carcinogenic chemicals (e.g. benzpyrene, 3-MC) also have this effect, which can be substantial; Figure 9.4 shows a nearly 10-fold increase in the rate of benzpyrene metabolism 2 days after a single dose. The effect is referred to as *induction*, and is the result of increased synthesis and/or reduced breakdown of microsomal enzymes—see Park et al. (1996), Dickins (2004) and Pelkonen et al. (2008) for more detail.

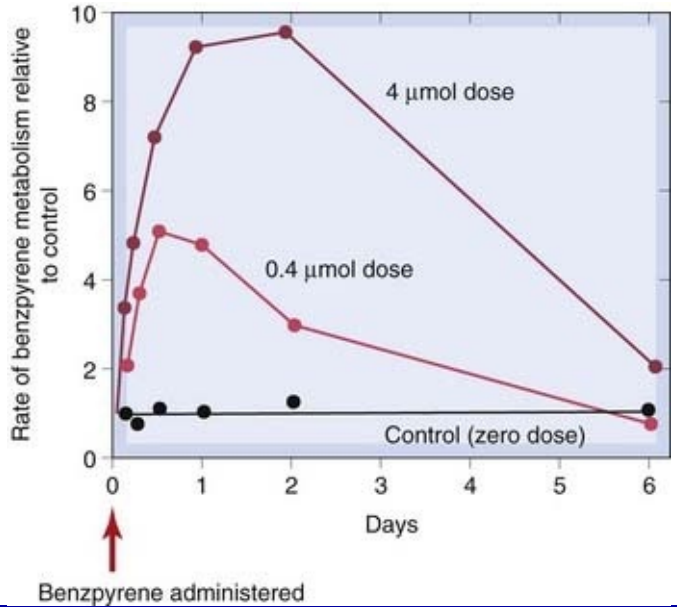


Fig. 9.4 Stimulation of hepatic metabolism of benzpyrene.

Young rats were given benzpyrene (intraperitoneally) in the doses shown, and the benzpyrene-metabolising activity of liver homogenates was measured at times up to 6 days.

(From Conney A H et al. 1957 J Biol Chem 228: 753.)

Enzyme induction can increase drug toxicity and carcinogenicity (Park et al., 2005), because several phase 1 metabolites are toxic or carcinogenic: paracetamol is an important example of a drug with a highly toxic metabolite (see Ch. 57).

The mechanism of induction is incompletely understood but is similar to that involved in the action of steroid and other hormones that bind to nuclear receptors (see Ch. 3). The most thoroughly studied inducing

agents are polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (e.g. 3-MC). These bind to the ligand-binding domain of a soluble protein, termed the aromatic hydrocarbon (Ah) receptor. This complex is transported to the nucleus by an Ah receptor nuclear translocator and binds Ah receptor response elements in the DNA, thereby promoting transcription of the gene CYP1A1. In addition to enhanced transcription, some inducing agents (e.g. ethanol, which induces CYP2E1 in humans) also stabilise mRNA or P450 protein.

First-Pass (Presystemic) Metabolism

Some drugs are extracted so efficiently by the liver or gut wall that the amount reaching the systemic circulation is considerably less than the amount absorbed. This is known as first-pass or presystemic metabolism and reduces bioavailability (Ch. 8) even when a drug is well absorbed. Presystemic metabolism is important for many therapeutic drugs (Table 9.2 shows some examples), and is a problem because:

- a much larger dose of the drug is needed when it is given orally than when it is given parenterally
- marked individual variations occur in the extent of first-pass metabolism (see Ch. 56).

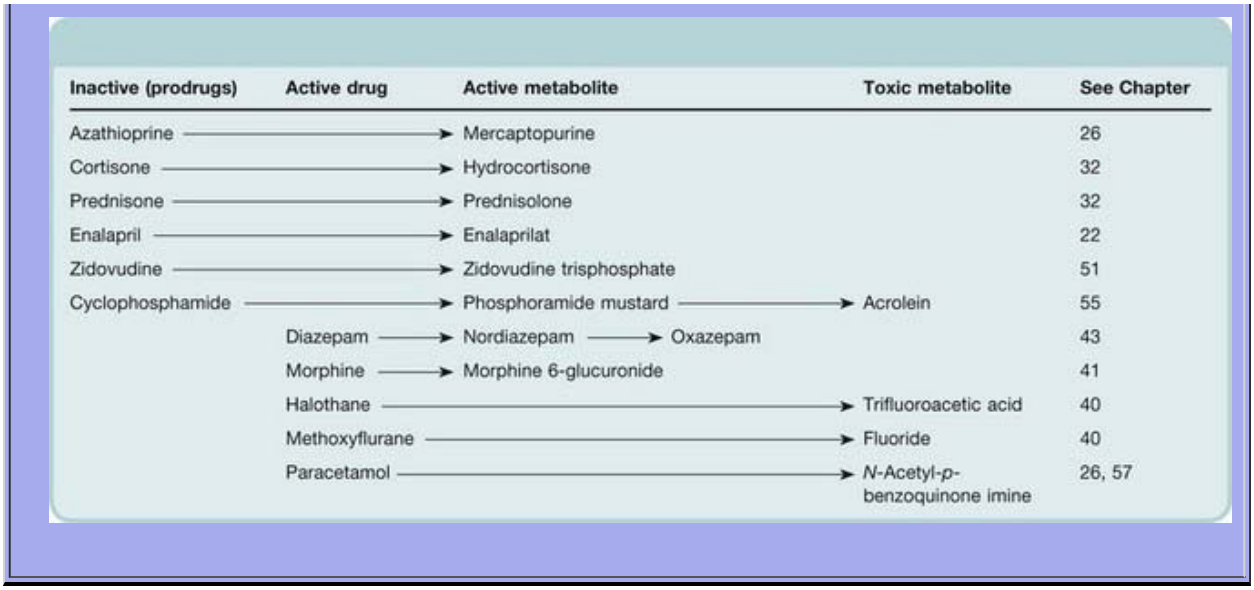
Table 9.2 Examples of drugs that undergo substantial first-pass elimination

Aspirin	Metoprolol
Glyceryl trinitrate	Morphine
Isosorbide dinitrate	Propranolol
Levodopa	Salbutamol
Lidocaine	Verapamil

Pharmacologically Active Drug Metabolites

In some cases (see Table 9.3), a drug becomes pharmacologically active only after it has been metabolised. For example, **azathioprine**, an immunosuppressant drug (Ch. 26), is metabolised to **mercaptopurine**; and **enalapril**, an angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor (Ch. 22), is hydrolysed to its active form **enalaprilat**. Such drugs, in which the parent compound lacks activity of its own, are known as *prodrugs*. These are sometimes designed deliberately to overcome problems of drug delivery (Ch. 8). Metabolism can alter the pharmacological actions of a drug qualitatively. **Aspirin** inhibits some platelet functions and has anti-inflammatory activity (Chs 24 and 26). It is hydrolysed to salicylic acid (Fig. 9.1), which has anti-inflammatory but not antiplatelet activity. In other instances, metabolites have pharmacological actions similar to those of the parent compound (e.g. benzodiazepines, many of which form long-lived active metabolites that cause sedation to persist after the parent drug has disappeared; Ch. 43). There are also cases in which metabolites are responsible for toxicity. Hepatotoxicity of **paracetamol** is one example (see Ch. 57), and bladder toxicity of **cyclophosphamide**, which is caused by its toxic metabolite acrolein (Ch. 55), is another. Methanol and ethylene glycol both exert their toxic effects via metabolites formed by alcohol dehydrogenase. Poisoning with these agents is treated with ethanol (or with a more potent inhibitor), which competes for the active site of the enzyme. **Disulfiram** inhibits CYP2E1 and reduces substantially the formation of trifluoroacetic acid during halothane anaesthesia, raising the intriguing possibility that it could prevent halothane hepatitis (see Kharasch, 2008).

Table 9.3 Some drugs that produce active or toxic metabolites



Inactive (prodrugs)	Active drug	Active metabolite	Toxic metabolite	See Chapter
Azathioprine		Mercaptopurine		26
Cortisone		Hydrocortisone		32
Prednisone		Prednisolone		32
Enalapril		Enalaprilat		22
Zidovudine		Zidovudine trisphosphate		51
Cyclophosphamide		Phosphoramide mustard	Acrolein	55
	Diazepam	Nordiazepam → Oxazepam		43
	Morphine	Morphine 6-glucuronide		41
	Halothane		Trifluoroacetic acid	40
	Methoxyflurane		Fluoride	40
	Paracetamol		*N*-Acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine	26, 57

Drug metabolism

• Phase 1 reactions involve oxidation, reduction and hydrolysis. They:

– usually form more chemically reactive products, which can be pharmacologically active, toxic or carcinogenic

– often involve a monooxygenase system in which cytochrome P450 plays a key role.

• Phase 2 reactions involve conjugation (e.g. glucuronidation) of a reactive group (often inserted during phase 1 reaction) and usually lead to inactive and polar products that are readily excreted.

• Some conjugated products are excreted via bile, are reactivated in the intestine and then reabsorbed (‘enterohepatic circulation’).

• Induction of P450 enzymes can greatly accelerate hepatic drug metabolism. It can increase the toxicity of drugs with toxic metabolites.

• Presystemic metabolism in liver or gut wall reduces the bioavailability of several drugs when they are administered by mouth.

Drug and Metabolite Excretion

Biliary Excretion and Enterohepatic Circulation

Liver cells transfer various substances, including drugs, from plasma to bile by means of transport systems similar to those of the renal tubule including organic cation transporters (OCTs), organic anion transporters (OATs) and P-glycoproteins (P-gp) (see Ch. 8). Various hydrophilic drug conjugates (particularly glucuronides) are concentrated in bile and delivered to the intestine, where the glucuronide is usually hydrolysed, releasing active drug once more; free drug can then be reabsorbed and the cycle repeated (*enterohepatic circulation*). The effect of this is to create a 'reservoir' of recirculating drug that can amount to about 20% of total drug in the body and prolongs drug action. Examples where this is important include **morphine** (Ch. 41) and **ethinylestradiol** (Ch. 34). Several drugs are excreted to an appreciable extent in bile. **Vecuronium** (a non-depolarising muscle relaxant; Ch. 13) is an example of a drug that is excreted mainly unchanged in bile. **Rifampicin** (Ch. 50) is absorbed from the gut and slowly deacetylated, retaining its biological activity. Both forms are secreted in the bile, but the deacetylated form is not reabsorbed, so eventually most of the drug leaves the body in this form in the faeces.

Renal Excretion of Drugs and Metabolites

Drugs differ greatly in the rate at which they are excreted by the kidney, ranging from **penicillin** (Ch. 50), which is cleared from the blood almost completely on a single transit through the kidney, to **diazepam** (Ch. 43), which is cleared extremely slowly. Most drugs fall between these extremes, and metabolites are nearly always cleared more quickly than the parent drug. Three fundamental processes account for renal drug excretion:

1 glomerular filtration

2 active tubular secretion

3 passive diffusion across tubular epithelium.

Glomerular Filtration

Glomerular capillaries allow drug molecules of molecular weight below about 20 000 to pass into the glomerular filtrate. Plasma albumin (molecular weight approximately 68 000) is almost completely impermeant, but most drugs—with the exception of macromolecules such as **heparin** (Ch. 24) or biological products (Ch. 59)—cross the barrier freely. If a drug binds to plasma albumin, only free drug is filtered. If, like **warfarin** (Ch. 24), a drug is approximately 98% bound to albumin, the concentration in the filtrate is only 2% of that in plasma, and clearance by filtration is correspondingly reduced.

Tubular Secretion

Up to 20% of renal plasma flow is filtered through the glomerulus, leaving at least 80% of delivered drug to pass on to the peritubular capillaries of the proximal tubule. Here, drug molecules are transferred to the tubular lumen by two independent and relatively non-selective carrier systems (see Ch. 8). One of these, the OAT, transports acidic drugs (as well as various endogenous acids, such as uric acid), while an OCT handles organic bases. Some important drugs that are transported by these two carrier systems are shown in Table 9.4. The OAT carrier can transport drug molecules against an electrochemical gradient, and can therefore reduce the plasma concentration nearly to zero, whereas OCT facilitates transport down an electrochemical gradient. Because at least 80% of the drug delivered to the kidney is presented to the carrier, tubular secretion is potentially the most effective mechanism of renal drug elimination. Unlike glomerular filtration, carrier-mediated

transport can achieve maximal drug clearance even when most of the drug is bound to plasma protein.[2] **Penicillin** (Ch. 50), for example, although about 80% protein bound and therefore cleared only slowly by filtration, is almost completely removed by proximal tubular secretion, and is therefore rapidly eliminated.

Table 9.4 Important drugs and related substances secreted into the proximal renal tubule by OAT or OCT transporters

OAT	OCT
p-Aminohippuric acid	Amiloride
Furosemide	Dopamine
Glucuronic acid conjugates	Histamine
Glycine conjugates	Mepacrine
Indometacin	Morphine
Methotrexate	Pethidine
Penicillin Probenecid Sulfate conjugates Thiazide diuretics Uric acid	Quaternary ammonium compounds
	Quinine
	5-Hydroxytryptamine (serotonin)
	Triamterene

[2]Because filtration involves isosmotic movement of both water and solutes, it does not affect the free concentration of drug in the plasma. Thus the equilibrium between free and bound drug is not disturbed, and there is no tendency for bound drug to dissociate as blood traverses the glomerular capillary. The rate of clearance of a drug by filtration is therefore reduced directly in proportion to the fraction that is bound. In the case of active tubular secretion, this is not so; secretion may be retarded very little even though the drug is mostly bound. This is

because the carrier transports drug molecules unaccompanied by water. As free drug molecules are taken from the plasma, therefore, the free plasma concentration falls, causing dissociation of bound drug from plasma albumin. Consequently, effectively 100% of the drug, bound and free, is available to the carrier.

Many drugs compete for the same transport system (Table 9.4), leading to drug interactions. For example, **probenecid** was developed originally to prolong the action of penicillin by retarding its tubular secretion.

Diffusion Across the Renal Tubule

Water is reabsorbed as fluid traverses the tubule, the volume of urine emerging being only about 1% of that of the glomerular filtrate. Consequently, if the tubule is freely permeable to drug molecules, some 99% of the filtered drug will be reabsorbed passively down the resulting concentration gradient. Lipid-soluble drugs are therefore excreted poorly, whereas polar drugs of low tubular permeability remain in the lumen and become progressively concentrated as water is reabsorbed. Polar drugs handled in this way include **digoxin** and *aminoglycoside antibiotics*. These exemplify a relatively small but important group of drugs (Table 9.5) that are not inactivated by metabolism, the rate of renal elimination being the main factor that determines their duration of action. These drugs have to be used with special care in individuals whose renal function may be impaired, including the elderly and patients with renal disease or any severe acute illness (Ch. 56).

Table 9.5 Examples of drugs that are excreted largely unchanged in the urine

Percentage	Drugs excreted
100–75	Furosemide, gentamicin, methotrexate, atenolol, digoxin
75–50	Benzylpenicillin, cimetidine, oxytetracycline, neostigmine

~50	Propantheline, tubocurarine

The degree of ionization of many drugs—weak acids or weak bases—is pH dependent, and this markedly influences their renal excretion. The ion-trapping effect means that a basic drug is more rapidly excreted in an acid urine which favours the charged form and thus inhibits reabsorption. Conversely, acidic drugs are most rapidly excreted if the urine is alkaline (Fig. 9.5). Urinary alkalinisation is used to accelerate the excretion of salicylate in treating selected cases of aspirin overdose.

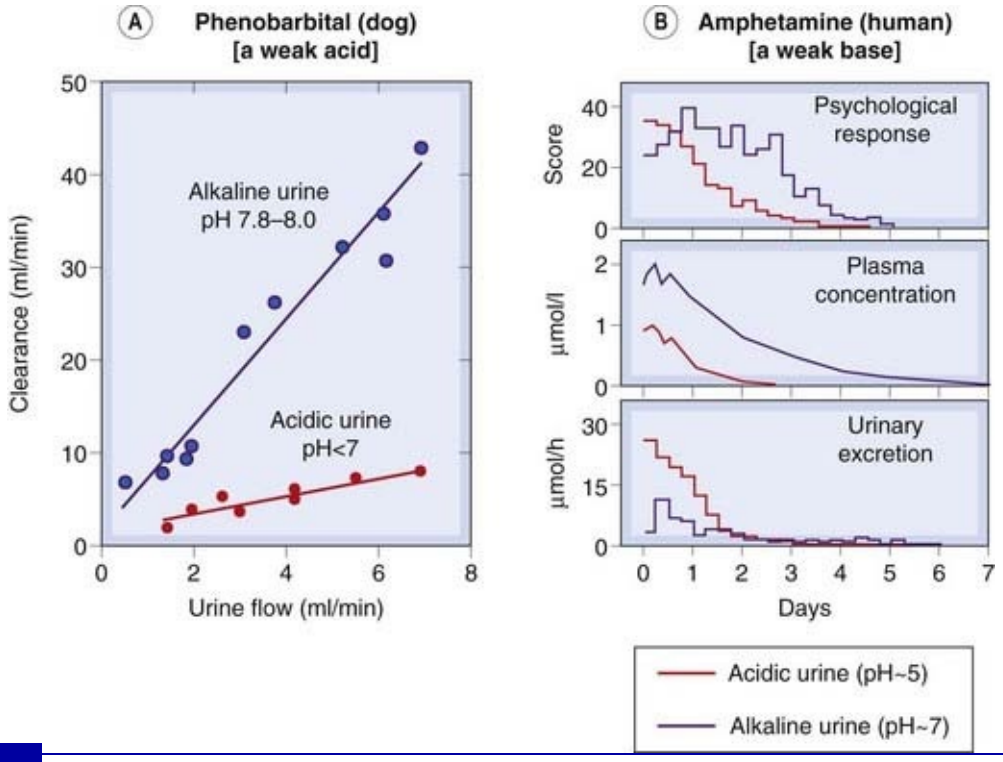


Fig. 9.5 The effect of urinary pH on drug excretion.

[**A**] Phenobarbital clearance in the dog as a function of urine flow. Because phenobarbital is acidic, alkalinising the urine increases clearance about five-fold. [**B**] Amphetamine excretion in humans. Acidifying the urine increases the rate of renal elimination of amphetamine, reducing its plasma concentration and its effect on the subject's mental state.

(Data from Gunne & Anggard 1974. In: Torrell T et al. (eds) Pharmacology and pharmacokinetics. Plenum, New York.)

Renal Clearance

Elimination of drugs by the kidneys is best quantified by the renal clearance (CL_r). This is defined as the volume of plasma containing the amount of substance that is removed from the body by the kidneys in unit time. It is calculated from the plasma concentration, C_p, the urinary concentration, C_u, and the rate of flow of urine, V_u, by the equation:

$$CL_r = \frac{C_u \times V_u}{C_p}$$

CL_r varies greatly for different drugs, from less than 1 ml/min to the theoretical maximum set by the renal plasma flow, which is approximately 700 ml/min, measured by *p*-aminohippuric acid (PAH) clearance (renal extraction of PAH approaches 100%).

Elimination of drugs by the kidney

- Most drugs, unless highly bound to plasma protein, cross the glomerular filter freely.
- Many drugs, especially weak acids and weak bases, are actively secreted into the renal tubule and thus more rapidly excreted.
- Lipid-soluble drugs are passively reabsorbed by diffusion across the tubule, so are not efficiently excreted in the urine.
- Because of pH partition, weak acids are more rapidly excreted in alkaline urine, and vice versa.
- Several important drugs are removed predominantly by renal excretion, and are liable to cause toxicity in elderly persons and patients with renal disease.

References and Further Reading

General further reading

assar A.F. *Drug Metabolism Handbook: Concepts and Applications*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell; 2009. (*Multi-authored handbook aimed at bench scientists; will be invaluable for pharmaceutical industry scientists*)

esta B., Krämer S.D. *The biochemistry of drug metabolism*. Weinheim: Wiley-VCH; 2009. (*Two-volume reference work*)

Drug metabolism

nzenbacher P. Special issue: cytochrome P450. *BBA general subjects*. 2007;1770(3):313-494. (*Contains sections on mechanisms and principles; structural insights and biophysics; substrates, tissue specificities and regulation; clinical implications*)

ampo V.L., Bernardes L.S.C., Carvalho I. Stereoselectivity in drug metabolism: molecular mechansisms and analytical methods. *Curr. Drug Metab.*. 2009;10:188-205.

oon M.J. Cytochrome P450: nature's most versatile biological catalyst. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2005;45:1-25. (*Summarises the individual steps in the P450 and reductase reaction cycles*)

harasch E.D. Adverse drugs reactions with halogenated anesthetics. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2008;84:158-162. (*This review focuses on adverse effects that are attributable to anesthetic metabolism*)

inirons M.T., O'Mahony M.S. Drug metabolism and ageing. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2004;57:540-544. (*Reviews age-related changes in drug metabolism*)

P450 enzyme induction and inhibition

ickins M. Induction of cytochromes P450. *Curr. Top. Med. Chem.*. 2004;4:1745-1766. (*Recent advances*)

enderson L., Yue Q.Y., Bergquist C., *et al.* St John's wort (*Hypericum perforatum*): drug interactions and clinical outcomes. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2002;54:349-356. (*Reviews the induction of CYP450 isoenzymes and of P-glycoprotein by constituents in this herbal remedy*)

elkonen O., Turpeinen M., Hakkola J., *et al.* Inhibition and induction of human cytochrome P450

enzymes: current status. *Arch. Toxicol.*. 2008;82:667-715. (*Review*)

Drug elimination

o S. Drug therapy: drug therapy for breast-feeding women. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2000;343:118-126.

eppler D., Konig J. Hepatic secretion of conjugated drugs and endogenous substances. *Semin. Liver Dis.*. 2000;20:265-272. (*'Conjugate export pumps of the multidrug resistance protein-MRP-family mediate ATP-dependent secretion of anionic conjugates across the canalicular and the basolateral hepatocyte membrane into bile and sinusoidal blood, respectively. Xenobiotic and endogenous lipophilic substances may be conjugated with glutathione, glucuronate, sulfate, or other negatively charged groups and thus become substrates for export pumps of the MRP family'*)

usuhara H., Sugiyama Y. In vitro–in vivo extrapolation of transporter-mediated clearance in the liver and kidney. *Drug Metab. Pharmacokinet.*. 2009;24:37-52. (*Review*)

10

Pharmacokinetics

Overview

We explain the importance of pharmacokinetic analysis and present a simple approach to this. We explain how drug clearance determines the steady-state plasma concentration during constant-rate drug administration and how the characteristics of absorption and distribution (considered in Ch. 8) plus metabolism and excretion (considered in Ch. 9) determine the time course of drug concentration in blood plasma during and following drug administration. The effect of different dosing regimens on the time course of drug concentration in plasma is explained. Population pharmacokinetics is mentioned briefly, and a final section considers limitations to the pharmacokinetic approach.

Introduction: Definition and Uses of Pharmacokinetics

Pharmacokinetics may be defined as the measurement and formal interpretation of changes with time of drug concentrations in one or more different regions of the body in relation to dosing ('what the body does to the drug'). This distinguishes it from pharmacodynamics ('what the drug does to the body', *i.e.* events consequent on interaction of the drug with its receptor or other primary site of action). The distinction is useful, although the words cause dismay to etymological purists. 'Pharmacodynamic' received an entry in a dictionary of 1890 ('relating to the powers or effects of drugs') whereas pharmacokinetic studies only

became possible with the development of sensitive, specific and accurate physicochemical analytical techniques, especially chromatography and mass spectrometry, for measuring drug concentrations in biological fluids in the latter part of the 20th century. The time course of drug concentration following dosing depends on the processes of absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion that we have considered qualitatively in Chapters 8 and 9.

In practice, pharmacokinetics usually focuses on concentrations of drug in *blood plasma*, which is easily sampled via venepuncture, since plasma concentrations are assumed usually to bear a clear relation to the concentration of drug in extracellular fluid surrounding cells that express the receptors or other targets with which drug molecules combine. This underpins what is termed the *target concentration strategy*. Individual variation (Ch. 56) in response to a given dose of a drug is often greater than variability in the plasma concentration at that dose. Plasma concentrations (C_p) are therefore useful in the early stages of drug development (see below), and in the case of a few drugs plasma drug concentrations are also used in routine clinical practice to individualise dosage so as to achieve the desired therapeutic effect while minimising adverse effects in each individual patient, an approach known as *therapeutic drug monitoring* (often abbreviated TDM—see Table 10.1 for examples of some drugs where a therapeutic range of plasma concentrations has been established). Concentrations of drug in other body fluids (e.g. urine,[1] saliva, cerebrospinal fluid, milk) may add useful information in some special situations.

Table 10.1 Examples of drugs where therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM) of plasma concentrations is used clinically

Category	Example(s)	See Chapter

Immunosuppressants	Ciclosporine, tacrolimus	26
Cardiovascular	Digoxin	21
Respiratory	Theophylline	16, 27
CNS	Lithium, several antiepileptic drugs	46, 44
Antibacterials	Aminoglycosides	50
Antineoplastics	Methotrexate	55

[1]*Clinical* pharmacology became at one time so associated with the measurement of drugs in urine that the canard had it that clinical pharmacologists were the new alchemists—they turned urine into airline tickets …

Formal interpretation of pharmacokinetic data consists of fitting concentration versus time data to a theoretical model and determining parameters that describe the observed behaviour. The parameters can then be used to adjust the dose regimen to achieve a desired target plasma concentration estimated initially from pharmacological experiments on cells, tissues or laboratory animals, and modified in light of the human pharmacology if necessary. Some descriptive pharmacokinetic characteristics can be observed directly by inspecting the time course of drug concentration in plasma following dosing—important examples[2] are the *maximum plasma concentration* following a given dose of a drug administered in a defined dosing form (C_{max}) and the *time* (T_{max}) between drug administration and achieving C_{max}. Other pharmacokinetic parameters are estimated mathematically from experimental data; examples include *volume of distribution* (V_d) and *clearance* (CL), concepts that have been introduced in Chapters 8 and 9 respectively and to which we return below.

Uses of Pharmacokinetics

[2]Important because dose-related adverse effects often occur around C_{max}.

Knowledge of pharmacokinetics is crucial in drug development, both to make sense of preclinical toxicity testing and of whole animal pharmacology,[3] and to decide on an appropriate dosing regimen for clinical studies of efficacy (see Ch. 60). Drug regulators need detailed pharmacokinetic information for the same reasons, and must understand principles of *bioavailability* and *bioequivalence* (Ch. 8) to make decisions about licensing generic versions of drugs as these lose their patent protection. An understanding of the general principles of pharmacokinetics is important for clinicians, who need to understand how dosage recommendations in the product information provided with licensed drugs have been arrived at if they are to use the drug optimally. Clinicians also need to understand the principles of pharmacokinetics if they are to identify and evaluate possible drug interactions (see Ch. 56). They also need to be able to interpret drug concentrations for TDM and to adjust dose regimens rationally. In particular, clinicians dealing with a severely ill patient often need to individualise the dose regimen depending on the urgency of achieving a therapeutic plasma concentration, and whether the clearance of the drug is impaired because of renal or liver disease.

Scope of this Chapter

[3]For example, doses used in experimental animals often need to be much greater than those in humans (on a 'per unit body weight' basis), because drug metabolism is commonly much more rapid in rodents.

The objectives of this chapter are to familiarise the reader with the meanings of important pharmacokinetic parameters; to explain how the total clearance of a drug determines its steady-state plasma concentration during continuous administration; to present a simple

model in which the body is represented as a single well-stirred compartment, of volume V_d, that describes the situation before steady state is reached in terms of elimination half-life ($t_{1/2}$); to consider some situations where the simple model is inadequate, and either a two-compartment model or a model where clearance varies with drug concentration ('non-linear kinetics') is needed; to mention briefly the field of population kinetics; and finally to consider some of the limitations inherent in the pharmacokinetic approach. More detailed accounts are provided by Atkinson et al. (2002), Birkett (2002), Jambhekar & Breen (2009) and Rowland & Tozer (2010).

Drug Elimination Expressed as Clearance

The concept of *clearance* was introduced in 1929 as a means of expressing the rate of urea excretion in adult humans, in terms of the volume of blood cleared of urea in 1 minute. Clearance of a drug can be defined analogously as the volume of plasma from which all the drug molecules would need to be removed per unit time to achieve the overall rate of elimination of drug from the body. Subsequently, as mentioned in Chapter 9, creatinine rather than urea clearance has become the routine clinical measure of renal functional status because it more closely reflects the glomerular filtration rate. Van Slyke introduced the equation given in Chapter 9 for estimating renal clearance (CL_{ren}). This follows from the law of conservation of mass, and is written:

$$CL_{ren} = \frac{C_u V_u}{C_p} \quad (10.1)$$

where C_u is the urine concentration of the substance of interest (whether endogenous such as urea or creatinine, or exogenous as in the case of an

administered drug), C_p its concentration in plasma and V_u the urine flow rate in units of volume/time. C_u and C_p are expressed in the same units of mass/unit volume (e.g. mg/l) so their units cancel out and CL_{ren} has the same units as V, namely volume/unit time—e.g. ml/min or l/h.

The overall clearance of a drug (CL_{tot}) is the fundamental pharmacokinetic parameter describing drug elimination. It is defined as the volume of plasma containing the total amount of drug that is removed from the body in unit time by all routes. Overall clearance is the sum of clearance rates for each mechanism involved in eliminating the drug, usually renal clearance (CL_{ren}) and metabolic clearance (CL_{met}) plus any additional appreciable routes of elimination (faeces, breath, etc.). It relates the rate of elimination of a drug (in units of mass/unit time) to C_p:

$$\text{Rate of drug elimination} = C_p \times CL_{tot} \quad (10.2)$$

Drug clearance can be determined in an individual subject by measuring the plasma concentration of the drug (in units of, say, mg/l) at intervals during a constant-rate intravenous infusion (delivering, say, X mg of drug per h), until a steady state is approximated (Fig. 10.1A). At steady state, the rate of input to the body is equal to the rate of elimination, so:

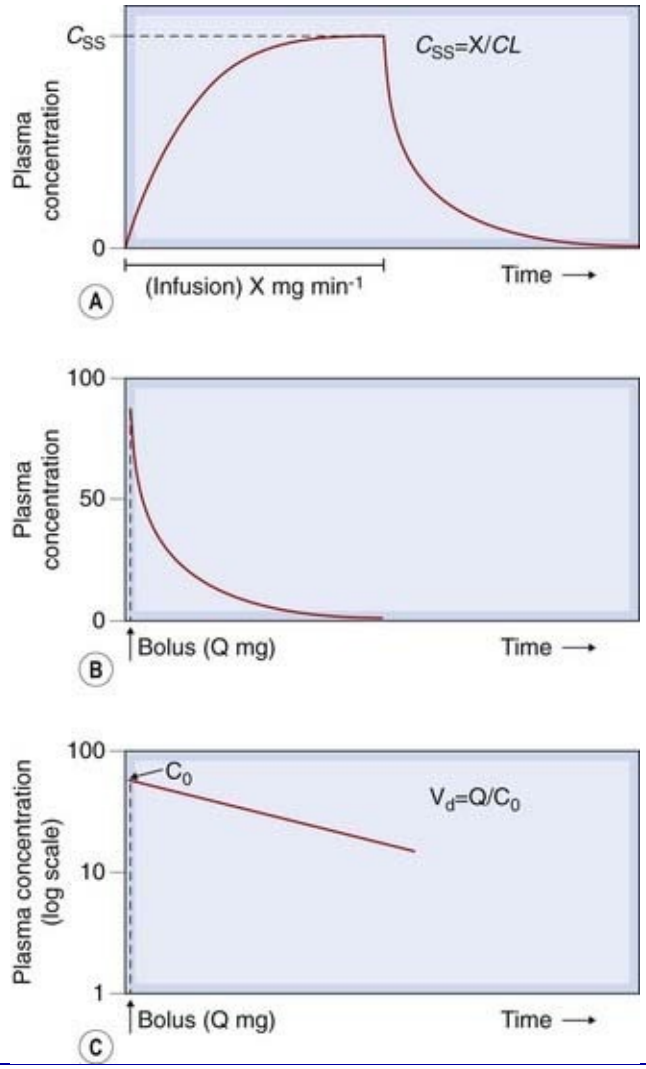


Fig. 10.1 Plasma drug concentration-time curves. [**A**] During a constant intravenous infusion at rate X mg/min, indicated by the horizontal bar, the plasma concentration (C) increases from zero to a steady-state value (C_{SS}); when the infusion is stopped, C declines to zero. [**B**] Following an intravenous bolus dose (Q mg), the plasma concentration rises abruptly and then declines towards zero. [**C**] Data from panel B plotted with plasma concentrations on a logarithmic scale. The straight line shows that concentration declines exponentially. Extrapolation back to the ordinate at zero time gives an estimate of C_0, the concentration at zero time, and hence of V_d, the volume of distribution.

$$X = C_{SS} \times CL_{tot} \quad (10.3)$$

Rearranging this,

$$CL_{tot} = \frac{X}{C_{SS}} \tag{10.4}$$

where C_{SS} is the plasma concentration at steady state, and CL_{tot} is in units of volume/time (l/h in the example given).

For many drugs, clearance in an individual subject is the same at different doses (at least within the range of doses used therapeutically—but see the section on saturation kinetics below for exceptions), so knowing the clearance enables one to calculate the dose rate needed to achieve a desired steady-state ('target') plasma concentration from equation 10.3.

CL_{tot} can also be estimated by measuring plasma concentrations at intervals following a single intravenous bolus dose of, say, Q mg (Fig. 10.1B):

$$CL_{tot} = \frac{Q}{AUC_{0-\infty}} \tag{10.5}$$

where $AUC_{0-\infty}$ is the area under the full curve[4] relating C_p to time following a bolus dose given at time $t = 0$. (See Ch. 8, and Birkett, 2002, for a fuller account of $AUC_{0-\infty}$.)

[4]The area is obtained by integrating from time = 0 to time = ∞, and is designated $AUC_{0-\infty}$. The area under the curve has units of time—on the abscissa—multiplied by concentration (mass/volume)—on the ordinate; so $CL = Q/AUC_{0-\infty}$ has units of volume/time as it should.

Note that these estimates of CL_{tot}, unlike estimates based on the rate constant or half-life (see below), do not depend on any particular

compartmental model.

Single-Compartment Model

Consider a highly simplified model of a human being, which consists of a single well-stirred compartment, of volume V_d (distribution volume), into which a quantity of drug Q is introduced rapidly by intravenous injection, and from which it can escape either by being metabolised or by being excreted (Fig. 10.2). For most drugs, V_d is an apparent volume rather than the volume of an anatomical compartment. It links the total amount of drug in the body to its concentration in plasma (see Ch. 8). The quantity of drug in the body when it is administered as a single bolus is equal to the administered dose Q. The initial concentration, C_0, will therefore be given by:

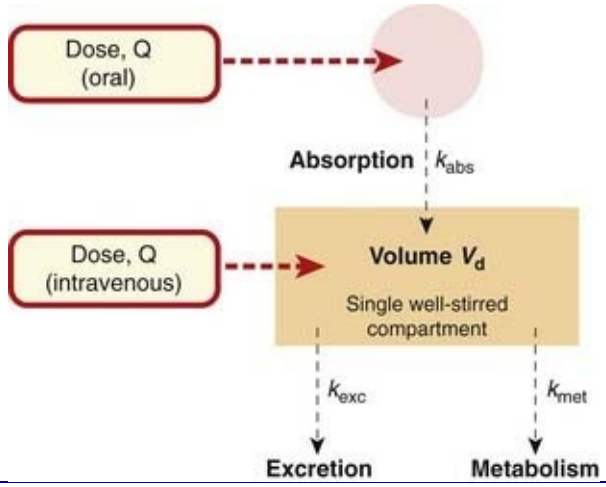


Fig. 10.2 Single-compartment pharmacokinetic model.
This model is applicable if the plasma concentration falls exponentially after drug administration (as in Fig. 10.1).

$$C_0 = \frac{Q}{V_d} \quad (10.6)$$

In practice, C_0 is estimated by extrapolating the linear portion of a semilogarithmic plot of C_p against time back to its intercept at time 0 (Fig. 10.1C). C_p at any time depends on the rate of elimination of the drug (i.e. on its total clearance, CL_{tot}) as well as on the dose and V_d. Many drugs exhibit *first-order kinetics* where the rate of elimination is directly proportional to drug concentration. Drug concentration then decays exponentially (Fig. 10.3), being described by the equation:

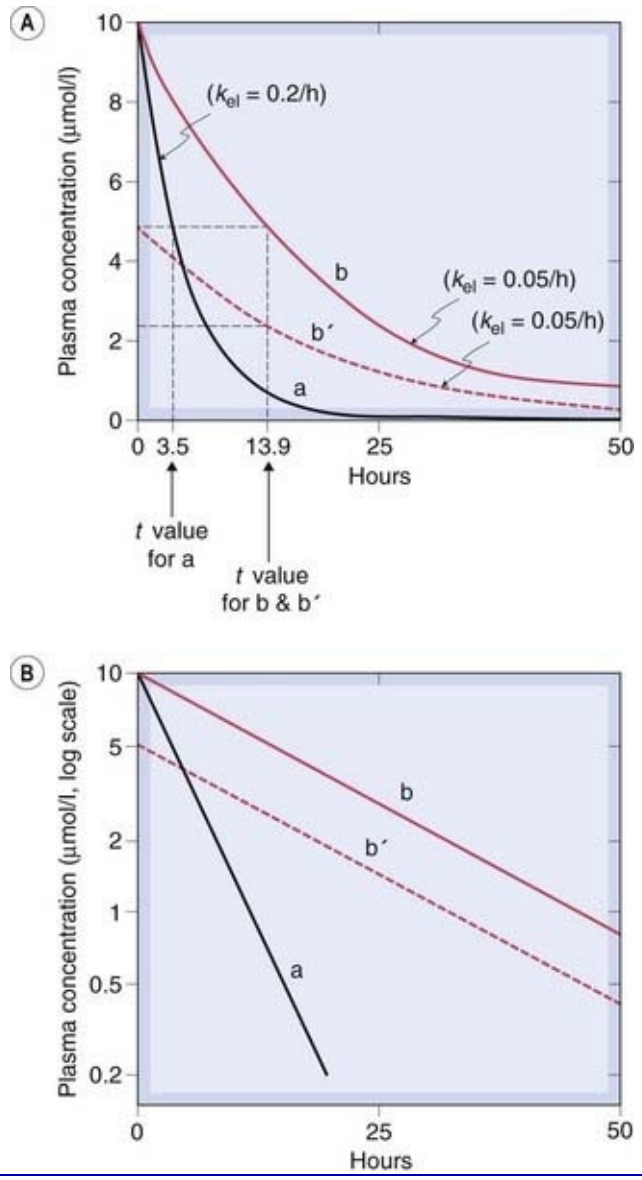


Fig. 10.3 Predicted behaviour of single-compartment model following intravenous drug administration at time 0.

Drugs a and b differ only in their elimination rate constant, k_{el}. Curve b′ shows the plasma concentration time course for a smaller dose of b. Note that the half-life ($t_{1/2}$) (indicated by broken lines) does not depend on the dose. [**A**] Linear concentration scale. [**B**] Logarithmic concentration scale.

$$C_{(t)} = C_{(0)} \exp \frac{-CL_{tot}}{V_d} t \tag{10.7}$$

Taking logarithms:

$$\ln C_{(t)} = \ln C_{(0)} - \frac{-CL_{tot}}{V_d} t \tag{10.8}$$

Plotting C_t on a logarithmic scale against t (on a linear scale) yields a straight line with slope $-CL_{tot}/V_d$. The inverse of this slope (CL_{tot}/V_d) is the *elimination rate constant* k_{el}, which has units of (time)$^{-1}$. It represents the *fraction* of drug in the body eliminated per unit of time. For example, if the rate constant is 0.1 h^{-1} this implies that one-tenth of the drug remaining in the body is eliminated each hour.

The *elimination half-life*, $t_{1/2}$, is an easily conceptualised parameter inversely related to k_{el}. It is the time taken for C_p to decrease by 50%, and is equal to $\ln 2/k_{el}$ ($= 0.693/k_{el}$). The plasma half-life is therefore determined by V_d as well as by CL_{tot}. It enables one to predict what will happen after drug administration is initiated before steady state is reached, and after drug administration has been stopped while C_p declines toward zero.

When the single-compartment model is applicable, the drug concentration in plasma approaches the steady-state value

approximately exponentially during a constant infusion (Fig. 10.1A). When the infusion is discontinued, the concentration falls exponentially towards zero: after one half-life, the concentration will have fallen to half the initial concentration; after two half-lives, it will have fallen to one-quarter the initial concentration; after three half-lives, to one-eighth; and so on. It is intuitively obvious that the longer the half-life, the longer the drug will persist in the body after dosing is discontinued. It is less obvious, but nonetheless true, that during chronic drug administration the longer the half-life, the longer it will take for the drug to accumulate to its steady-state level: one half-life to reach 50% of the steady-state value, two to reach 75%, three to reach 87.5% and so on. This is extremely helpful to a clinician deciding how to start treatment. If the drug in question has a half-life of approximately 24 h, for example, it will take 3–5 days to approximate the steady-state concentration during a constant-rate infusion. If this is too slow in the face of the prevailing clinical situation, a *loading dose* may be used in order to achieve a therapeutic concentration of drug in the plasma more rapidly (see below). The size of such a dose is determined by the volume of distribution (equation 10.6).

Effect of Repeated Dosing

Drugs are usually given as repeated doses rather than single injections or a constant infusion. Repeated injections (each of dose Q) give a more complicated pattern than the smooth exponential rise during intravenous infusion, but the principle is the same (Fig. 10.4). The concentration will rise to a mean steady-state concentration with an approximately exponential time course, but will oscillate (through a range Q/V_d). The smaller and more frequent the doses, the more closely the situation approaches that of a continuous infusion, and the smaller the swings in concentration. The exact dosage schedule, however, does not affect the

mean steady-state concentration, or the rate at which it is approached. In practice, a steady state is effectively achieved after three to five half-lives. Speedier attainment of the steady state can be achieved by starting with a larger dose, as mentioned above. Such a loading dose is sometimes used when starting treatment with a drug with a half-life that is long in the context of the urgency of the clinical situation, as may be the case when treating cardiac dysrhythmias with drugs such as **amiodarone** or **digoxin** (Ch. 21) or initiating anticoagulation with **heparin** (Ch. 24).

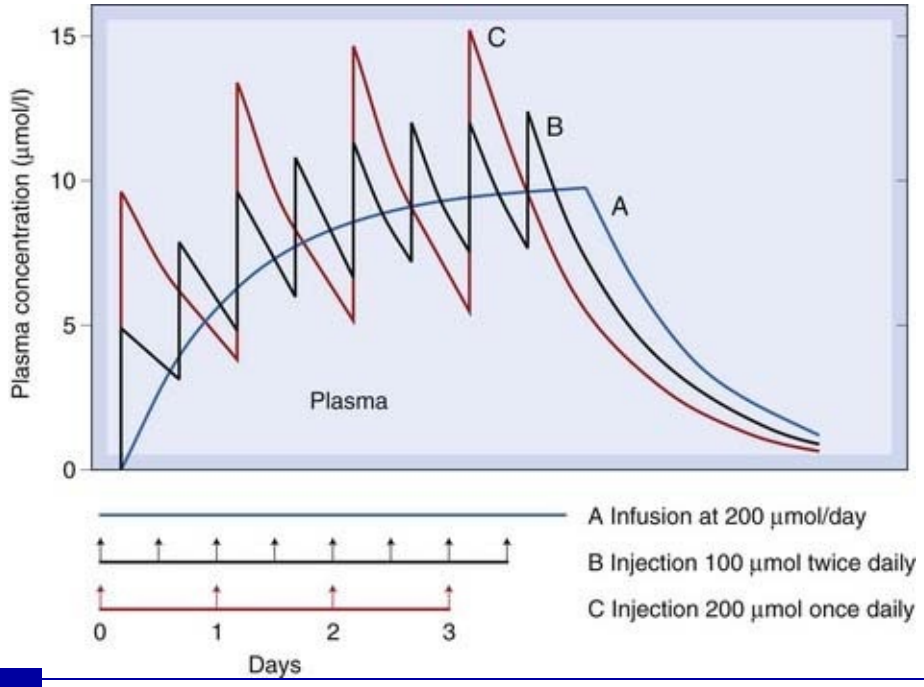


Fig. 10.4 Predicted behaviour of single-compartment model with continuous or intermittent drug administration.

Smooth curve A shows the effect of continuous infusion for 4 days; curve B the same total amount of drug given in eight equal doses; and curve C the same total amount of drug given in four equal doses. The drug has a half-life of 17 h and a volume of distribution of 20 l. Note that in each case a steady state is effectively reached after about 2 days (about three half-lives), and that the mean concentration reached in the steady state is the same for all three schedules.

Effect of Variation in Rate of Absorption

If a drug is absorbed slowly from the gut or from an injection site into the plasma, it is (in terms of a compartmental model) as though it were being slowly infused at a variable rate into the bloodstream. For the purpose of kinetic modelling, the transfer of drug from the site of administration to the central compartment can be represented approximately by a rate constant, k_{abs} (see Fig. 10.2). This assumes that the rate of absorption is directly proportional, at any moment, to the amount of drug still unabsorbed, which is at best a rough approximation to reality. The effect of slow absorption on the time course of the rise and fall of the plasma concentration is shown in Figure 10.5. The curves show the effect of spreading out the absorption of the same total amount of drug over different times. In each case, the drug is absorbed completely, but the peak concentration appears later and is lower and less sharp if absorption is slow. In the limiting case, a dosage form that releases drug at a constant rate as it traverses the ileum (Ch. 8) approximates a constant-rate infusion. Once absorption is complete, the plasma concentration declines with the same half-time, irrespective of the rate of absorption.

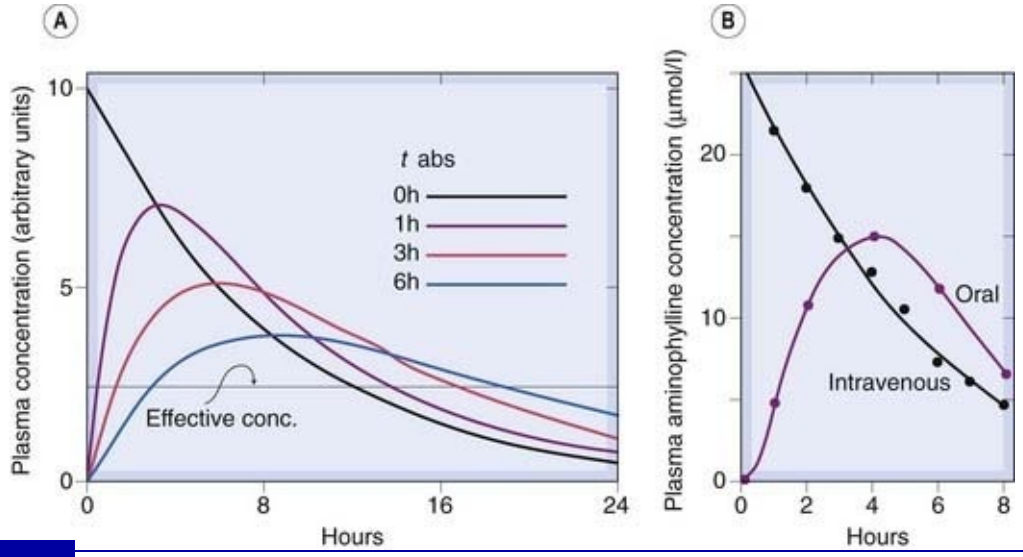


Fig. 10.5 The effect of slow drug absorption on plasma drug concentration.

[**A**] Predicted behaviour of single-compartment model with drug absorbed at different rates from the gut or an injection site. The elimination half-time is 6 h. The absorption half-times ($t1/2$ abs) are marked on the diagram. (Zero indicates instantaneous absorption, corresponding to intravenous administration.) Note that the peak plasma concentration is reduced and delayed by slow absorption, and the duration of action is somewhat increased. [**B**] Measurements of plasma aminophylline concentration in humans following equal oral and intravenous doses.

(Data from Swintowsky J V 1956 J Am Pharm Assoc 49: 395.)

▼ For the kind of pharmacokinetic model discussed here, the area under the plasma concentration–time curve (AUC) is directly proportional to the total amount of drug introduced into the plasma compartment, irrespective of the rate at which it enters. Incomplete absorption, or destruction by first-pass metabolism before the drug reaches the plasma compartment, reduces AUC after oral administration (see Ch. 8). Changes in the rate of absorption, however, do not affect AUC. Again, it is worth noting that provided absorption is complete, the relation between the rate of administration and the steady-state plasma concentration (equation 10.4) is unaffected by k_{abs}, although the size of the oscillation of plasma concentration with each dose is reduced if absorption is slowed.

More Complicated Kinetic Models

So far, we have considered a single-compartment pharmacokinetic model in which the rates of absorption, metabolism and excretion are all assumed to be directly proportional to the concentration of drug in the compartment from which transfer is occurring. This is a useful way to illustrate some basic principles but is clearly a physiological oversimplification. The characteristics of different parts of the body, such as brain, body fat and muscle, are quite different in terms of their blood supply, partition coefficient for drugs and the permeability of their capillaries to drugs. These differences, which the single-compartment

model ignores, can markedly affect the time courses of drug distribution and action, and much theoretical work has gone into the mathematical analysis of more complex models (see Atkinson et al., 2002; Rowland & Tozer, 2010). They are beyond the scope of this book, and perhaps also beyond the limit of what is actually useful, for the experimental data on pharmacokinetic properties of drugs are seldom accurate or reproducible enough to enable complex models to be tested critically.

The two-compartment model, which introduces a separate 'peripheral' compartment to represent the tissues, in communication with the 'central' plasma compartment, more closely resembles the real situation without involving excessive complications.

Two-Compartment Model

The two-compartment model is a widely used approximation in which the tissues are lumped together as a peripheral compartment. Drug molecules can enter and leave the peripheral compartment only via the central compartment (Fig. 10.6), which usually represents the plasma (or plasma plus some extravascular space in the case of a few drugs that distribute especially rapidly). The effect of adding a second compartment to the model is to introduce a second exponential component into the predicted time course of the plasma concentration, so that it comprises a fast and a slow phase. This pattern is often found experimentally, and is most clearly revealed when the concentration data are plotted semilogarithmically (Fig. 10.7). If, as is often the case, the transfer of drug between the central and peripheral compartments is relatively fast compared with the rate of elimination, then the fast phase (often called the *α phase*) can be taken to represent the redistribution of the drug (i.e. drug molecules passing from plasma to tissues, thereby rapidly lowering the plasma concentration). The plasma concentration reached when the

fast phase is complete, but before appreciable elimination has occurred, allows a measure of the combined distribution volumes of the two compartments; the half-time for the slow phase (the *β phase*) provides an estimate of k_{el}. If a drug is rapidly metabolised, the α and β phases are not well separated, and the calculation of V_d and k_{el} is not straightforward. Problems also arise with drugs (e.g. very fat-soluble drugs) for which it is unrealistic to lump all the peripheral tissues together.

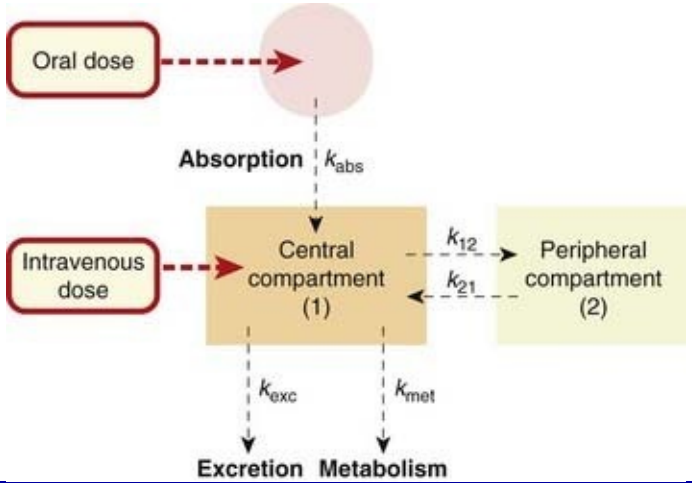


Fig. 10.6 Two-compartment pharmacokinetic model.

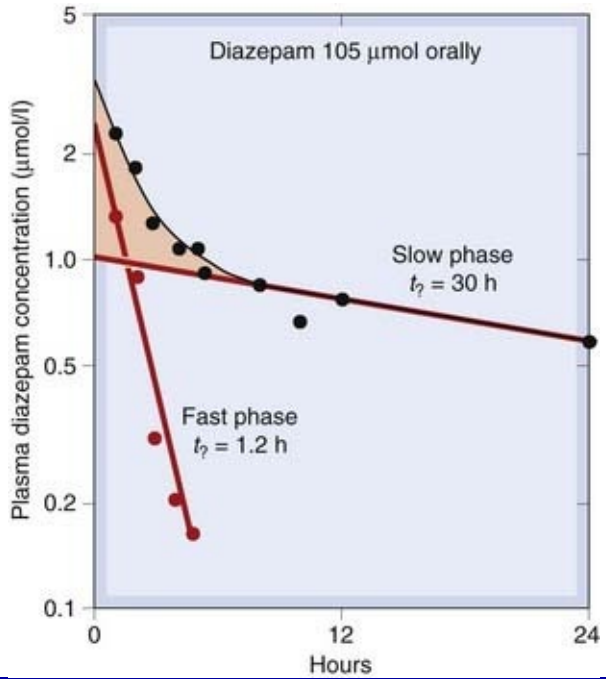


Fig. 10.7 Kinetics of diazepam elimination in humans following a single oral dose.

The graph shows a semilogarithmic plot of plasma concentration versus time. The experimental data (black symbols) follow a curve that becomes linear after about 8 h (slow phase). Plotting the deviation of the early points (pink shaded area) from this line on the same coordinates (red symbols) reveals the fast phase. This type of two-component decay is consistent with the two-compartment model (Fig. 10.6) and is obtained with many drugs.

(Data from Curry S H 1980 Drug disposition and pharmacokinetics. Blackwell, Oxford.)

Saturation Kinetics

In a few cases, such as **ethanol**, **phenytoin** and **salicylate**, the time course of disappearance of drug from the plasma does not follow the exponential or biexponential patterns shown in Figures 10.3 and 10.7 but is initially linear (i.e. drug is removed at a constant rate that is independent of plasma concentration). This is often called *zero-order kinetics* to distinguish it from the usual first-order kinetics that we have considered so far (these terms have their origin in chemical kinetic theory). *Saturation kinetics* is a better term. Figure 10.8 shows the example of ethanol. It can be seen that the rate of disappearance of ethanol from the plasma is constant at approximately 4 mmol/l per h,

irrespective of dose or of the plasma concentration of ethanol. The explanation for this is that the rate of oxidation by the enzyme alcohol dehydrogenase reaches a maximum at low ethanol concentrations, because of limited availability of the cofactor NAD^+ (see Ch. 48, Fig. 48.5).

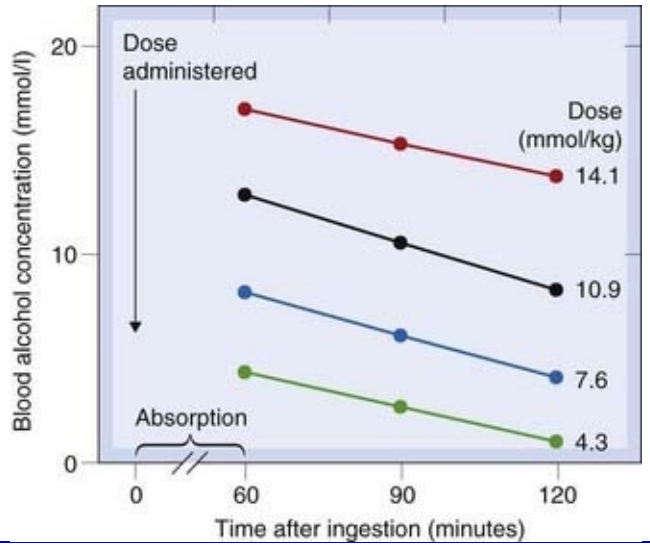


Fig. 10.8 Saturating kinetics of alcohol elimination in humans.
The blood alcohol concentration falls linearly rather than exponentially, and the rate of fall does not vary with dose.

(From Drew G C et al. 1958 Br Med J 2: 5103.)

Saturation kinetics has several important consequences (see Fig. 10.9). One is that the duration of action is more strongly dependent on dose than is the case with drugs that do not show metabolic saturation. Another consequence is that the relationship between dose and steady-state plasma concentration is steep and unpredictable, and it does not obey the proportionality rule implicit in equation 10.4 for non-saturating drugs (see Fig. 48.6 for another example related to ethanol). The maximum rate of metabolism sets a limit to the rate at which the drug can be administered; if this rate is exceeded, the amount of drug in the body will, in principle, increase indefinitely and never reach a steady

state (Fig. 10.9). This does not actually happen, because there is always some dependence of the rate of elimination on the plasma concentration (usually because other, non-saturating metabolic pathways or renal excretion contribute significantly at high concentrations). Nevertheless, steady-state plasma concentrations of drugs of this kind vary widely and unpredictably with dose. Similarly, variations in the rate of metabolism (e.g. through enzyme induction) cause disproportionately large changes in the plasma concentration. These problems are well recognised for drugs such as phenytoin, an anticonvulsant for which plasma concentration needs to be closely controlled to achieve an optimal clinical effect (see Ch. 44, Fig. 44.4). Drugs showing saturation kinetics are less predictable in clinical use than ones with linear kinetics, so may be rejected during drug development if a pharmacologically similar candidate with linear kinetics is available (Ch. 60).

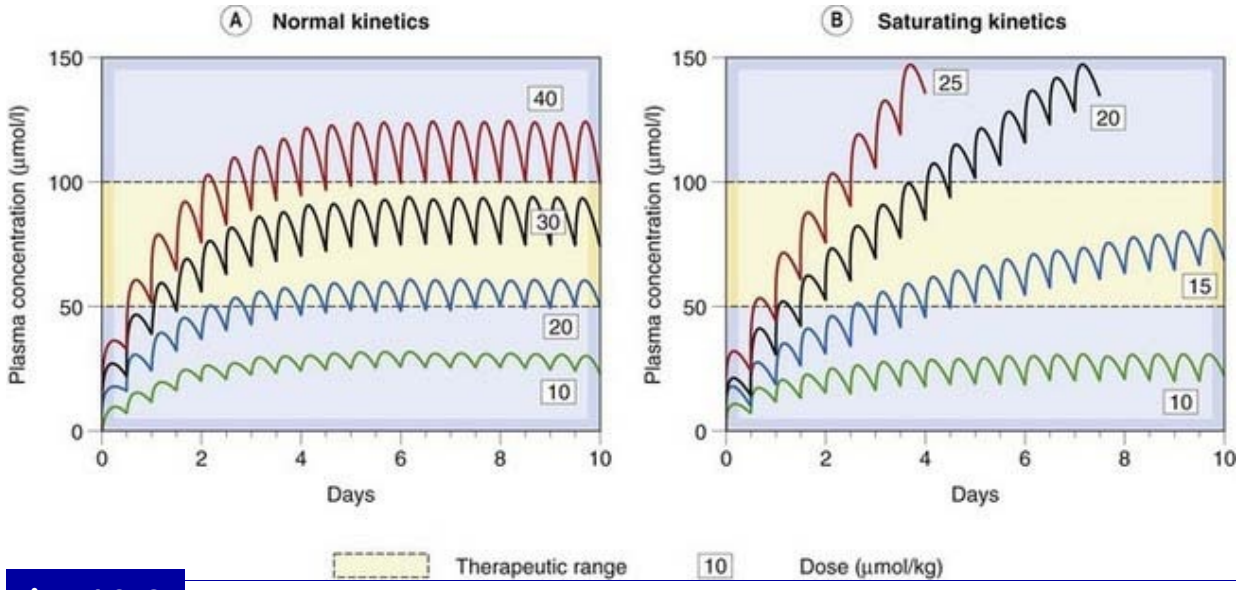


Fig. 10.9 Comparison of non-saturating and saturating kinetics for drugs given orally every 12 h.

[**A**] The curves showing an imaginary drug, similar to the antiepileptic drug phenytoin at the lowest dose, but with linear kinetics. The steady-state plasma concentration is reached within a few days, and is directly proportional to dose. [**B**] Curves for saturating kinetics calculated from the known pharmacokinetic parameters of phenytoin (see Ch. 44). Note that no steady state is

reached with higher doses of phenytoin, and that a small increment in dose results after a time in a disproportionately large effect on plasma concentration.

(Curves were calculated with the Sympak pharmacokinetic modelling program written by Dr J G Blackman, University of Otago.)

Clinical applications of pharmacokinetics are summarised in the clinical box.

Uses of pharmacokinetics

• Pharmacokinetic studies performed during drug development underpin the standard dose regimens approved by regulatory agencies.

• Clinicians sometimes need to individualise dose regimens to account for individual variation in a particular patient (e.g. a neonate, a patient with impaired and changing renal function, or a patient taking drugs that interfere with drug metabolism; see Ch. 56).

• Drug effect (pharmacodynamics) is often used for such individualisation, but there are drugs (including some anticonvulsants, immunosuppressants and antineoplastics) where a therapeutic range of plasma concentrations has been defined, and for which it is useful to adjust the dose to achieve a concentration in this range.

• Knowledge of kinetics enables rational dose adjustment. For example:

– the dose interval of a drug such as **gentamicin** eliminated by renal excretion may need to be markedly increased in a patient with renal impairment (Ch. 50)

– the dose increment needed to achieve a target plasma concentration range of a drug such as **phenytoin** with saturation kinetics (Ch. 44, Fig.44.4) is much less than for a drug with linear kinetics.

• Knowing the approximate $t1/2$ of a drug can be very useful, even if a therapeutic concentration is not known:

– in correctly interpreting adverse events that occur some considerable time after starting

regular treatment (e.g. benzodiazepines; see Ch. 43)

– in deciding on the need or otherwise for an initial loading dose when starting treatment with drugs such as **digoxin** and **amiodarone** (Ch. 21).

• The volume of distribution (V_d) of a drug determines the size of loading dose needed. If V_d is large (as for many tricyclic antidepressants), haemodialysis will not be an effective way of increasing the rate of elimination in treating overdose.

Population Pharmacokinetics

▼ In some situations, for example when the drug is intended for use in chronically ill children, it is desirable to obtain pharmacokinetic data in a patient population rather than in healthy adult volunteers. Such studies are inevitably constrained and samples for drug analysis are often obtained opportunistically during clinical care, with limitations as to quality of the data and only sparse data collected from each patient. Population pharmacokinetics addresses how best to analyse such data. Various approaches that have been used, including fitting data from all subjects as if there were no kinetic differences between individuals, and fitting each individual's data separately and then combining the individual parameter estimates, have obvious shortcomings. A better method is to use non-linear mixed effects modelling (NONMEM). The statistical technicalities are considerable and beyond the scope of this chapter: the interested reader is referred to Sheiner et al. (1997); and, for NONMEM software user guides, to Beale & Sheiner (1989).

Limitations of Pharmacokinetics

Some limitations of the pharmacokinetic approach will be obvious from the above account, such as the proliferation of parameters in even quite conceptually simple models. Here we comment on two assumptions that underpin the idea that by relating response to a drug to its plasma

concentration we reduce variability by accounting for pharmacokinetic variation—that is, variation in absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion:

1 That plasma concentration of a drug bears a precise relation to the concentration of drug in the immediate environment of its target (receptor, enzyme, etc.).

2 That drug response depends only on the concentration of the drug in the immediate environment of its target.

While the first of these assumptions is very plausible in the case of a drug working on a target in the circulating blood (e.g. a fibrinolytic drug working on fibrinogen) and reasonably plausible for a drug working on an enzyme, ion channel or G-protein-coupled or kinase-linked receptor located in the cell membrane, it is less likely in the case of a nuclear receptor or when the target cells are protected by the blood–brain barrier. In the latter case it is not perhaps surprising that, despite considerable efforts, it has never proved clinically useful to measure plasma concentrations of antidepressant or antipsychotic drugs, where there are, in addition, complex metabolic pathways with numerous active metabolites. It is, if anything, surprising that the approach does as well as it does in the case of some other centrally acting drugs, notably antiepileptics and **lithium**.

The second assumption is untrue in the case of drugs that form a stable covalent attachment with their target, and so produce an effect that outlives their presence in solution. Examples include the antiplatelet effects of **aspirin** and **clopidogrel** (Ch. 24) and the effect of some monoamine oxidase inhibitors (Ch. 46). In other cases, drugs in therapeutic use act only after delay (e.g. antidepressants, Ch. 46), or gradually induce tolerance (e.g. opioids, Ch. 41) or physiological

adaptations (e.g. corticosteroids, Ch. 32) which alter the relation between concentration and drug effect in a time-dependent manner.

Pharmacokinetics

• Total clearance (CL_{tot}) of a drug is the fundamental parameter describing its elimination: the rate of elimination equals CL_{tot} multiplied by plasma concentration.

• CL_{tot} determines steady-state plasma concentration (C_{SS}): C_{SS} = rate of drug administration/CL_{tot}.

• For many drugs, disappearance from the plasma follows an approximately exponential time course. Such drugs can be described by a model where the body is treated as a single well-stirred compartment of volume V_d. V_d is an apparent volume linking the amount of drug in the body at any time to the plasma concentration.

• Elimination half-life ($t_{1/2}$) is directly proportional to V_d and inversely proportional to CL_{tot}.

• With repeated dosage or sustained delivery of a drug, the plasma concentration approaches a steady value within three to five plasma half-lives.

• In urgent situations, a loading dose may be needed to achieve therapeutic concentration rapidly.

• The loading dose (L) needed to achieve a desired initial plasma concentration C_{target} is determined by V_d: $L = C_{target} \times V_d$.

• A two-compartment model is often needed. In this case, the kinetics are biexponential. The two components roughly represent the processes of transfer between plasma and tissues (α phase) and elimination from the plasma (β phase).

• Some drugs show non-exponential 'saturation' kinetics, with important clinical consequences, especially a disproportionate increase in steady-state plasma concentration when daily dose is increased.

References and Further Reading

tkinson A.J., Daniels C.E., Dedrick R.L., et al, editors. Principles of clinical pharmacology. London: Academic Press, 2002. (*Section on pharmacokinetics includes the application of Laplace transformations, effects of disease, compartmental versus non-compartmental approaches, population pharmacokinetics, drug metabolism and transport*)

irkett D.J. *Pharmacokinetics made easy (revised)*, 2nd edn. Sydney: McGraw-Hill Australia; 2002. (*Excellent slim volume that lives up to the promise of its title*)

ambhekar S.S., Breen P.J. *Basic pharmacokinetics*. London: Pharmaceutical Press; 2009. (*Basic textbook*)

Population pharmacokinetics

eale S.L., Sheiner L.B. *NONMEM user's guides*. University of California, San Francisco: NONMEM Project Group; 1989.

owland, M., Tozer, T.N., 2010. Clinical pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. Concepts and applications. Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Baltimore. Online simulations by H Derendorf and G Hochhaus. (*Excellent text; emphasises clinical applications*)

heiner L.B., Rosenberg B., Marethe V.V. Estimation of population characteristics of pharmacokinetic parameters from routine clinical data. *J. Pharmacokinet. Biopharm.*. 1997;5:445-479.

11

Pharmacogenetics, pharmacogenomics and 'personalised medicine'

Overview

The concept of individualising drug therapy in light of genomic information ('personalised medicine') is introduced. We explain relevant elementary genetic concepts and describe briefly several single-gene pharmacogenetic disorders (plasma cholinesterase deficiency, acute intermittent porphyria, drug acetylation deficiency and aminoglycoside ototoxicity). These prove the concept that inherited factors influence individual drug response. We then cover pharmacogenomic tests that are currently clinically available, including tests for variations in human leukocyte antigen (HLA) genes (adverse drug reaction susceptibility to *abacavir*, anticonvulsants and *clozapine*); in genes influencing drug metabolism—thiopurineS-methyltransferase (TPMT), dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase (DPYD) and CYP isoenzymes (CYP2D6 and CYP2C9); and for drug targets such as the epidermal growth factor receptor HER2, tyrosine kinase inhibitors and the main target for *warfarin*, vitamin K epoxide reductase (VKOR). Future prospects and challenges to the wider utilisation of pharmacogenomic tests are explained.

Introduction

Responses to some therapeutic agents, including most vaccines, the oral

contraceptive (Ch. 34) and low-dose aspirin to prevent arterial thrombosis (Ch. 24), are sufficiently predictable to enable adoption of a standard dose regimen. Other useful drugs, such as **lithium** (Ch. 46) or antihypertensive drugs (Ch. 22), are individualised and their doses adjusted on the basis of monitoring the drug concentration in the plasma or a response such as change in blood pressure, together with any adverse effects.

Interindividual variation in response to drugs is a serious problem; if not taken into account, it can result in lack of efficacy or unexpected side effects. Such variation can be *pharmacokinetic* (too much or not enough of the drug at its site of action), *pharmacodynamic* (greater or less effect from a given concentration at the site of action because of differences between individuals at the level of the primary drug target or downstream events) or *idiosyncratic* (a qualitatively abnormal reaction that occurs in only a few exposed individuals). Variation is partly caused by environmental factors, and these are discussed in Chapter 56. However, studies comparing identical with non-identical twins have shown that much of the variation of drug response is genetically determined; for example, elimination half-lives of antipyrine, a probe of hepatic drug oxidation, and of **warfarin**, an oral anticoagulant (Ch. 24), differ much less between identical than between fraternal twins.

Genes influence pharmacokinetics by altering the expression of proteins involved in absorption, distribution, metabolism or excretion (ADME); pharmacodynamic variation reflects differences in drug targets, G-proteins or other downstream pathways; and susceptibility to idiosyncratic reactions results from differences in enzymes or immune mechanisms. It is hoped that as our understanding of the human genome improves, together with the introduction of simpler methods to identify genetic differences between individuals, it will become possible to use

genetic information specific to an individual patient to preselect a drug that will be effective and not cause toxicity, rather than relying on trial and error supported by physiological clues as at present—an aspiration referred to as '*personalised medicine*'. Thus far this approach, which was initially over-hyped, has yielded relatively little in the way of clinical benefit, and it is unlikely to provide the rapid revolution that was trumpeted when the human genome was first sequenced. Progress has been slow, but the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has approved addition of pharmacogenomics labelling information to the package inserts of over 50 drugs, and although the use of pharmacogenomic tests is patchy and not yet supported by evidence of improved outcomes from clinical trials, the approach seems very likely to make important contributions in the medium term. This is our justification for including this separate chapter on the topic.

We begin by revisiting some elementary genetics as a basis for understanding pharmacogenetic disorders, followed by examples of inherited diseases where drug response is abnormal (*pharmacogenetic* disorders) and conclude with a brief account of drugs with available genomic tests and how these are beginning to be applied to individualise drug therapy in clinical practice (*pharmacogenomics*).

Relevant Elementary Genetics

Genes are the fundamental units of heredity; they consist of ordered sequences of nucleotides (adenine, guanine, thymidine and cytosine—A, G, T, C) located in particular positions in a particular DNA strand. Genes are conventionally abbreviated as for the protein they code for, but are written in italics—for example 'CYP2D6' represents a protein while '*CYP2D6*' is the gene that encodes it. Most cellular DNA is located in the chromosomes in cell nuclei, but a small amount is present in

mitochondria and is inherited from the mother (since the ovum contributes mitochondria to the gamete). DNA is *transcribed* to complementary messenger RNA (mRNA) which is *translated* in rough endoplasmic reticulum into a sequence of amino acids. The resulting peptide undergoes folding and sometimes post-translational modification to form the final protein product. The DNA sequence of a gene that codes protein is known as the *exon*. *Introns* are DNA sequences that interrupt the exon; an intron is transcribed into mRNA but this sequence is excised from the message and not translated into protein. The rate of transcription is controlled by promoter regions in the DNA to which RNA polymerase binds to initiate transcription.

Mutations are heritable changes in the base sequence of DNA. This may, or may not,[1] result in a change in the amino acid sequence of the protein for which the gene codes. Most changes in protein structure are deleterious, and so the altered gene dies out in succeeding generations as a result of natural selection. A few changes may confer an advantage, however, at least under some environmental circumstances. A pharmocogenetically relevant example is the X-linked gene for *glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase* (G6PD); deficiency of this enzyme confers partial resistance to malaria (a considerable selective advantage in parts of the world where this disease is common) at the expense of susceptibility to haemolysis as an idiosyncratic reaction in response to oxidative stress in the form of exposure to various dietary constituents, including several drugs (e.g. the antimalarial drug **primaquine**; see Ch. 53). This ambiguity gives rise to the abnormal gene being preserved in future generations, at a frequency that depends on the balance of selective pressures in the environment. Thus the distribution of G6PD deficiency is similar to the geographical distribution of malaria. The situation where several functionally distinct forms of a gene are common

in a population is called a ‘balanced’ polymorphism (balanced because disadvantage, for example in a homozygote, is balanced by an advantage, for example in a heterozygote).

[1]The genetic code is ‘redundant’, *i.e.* more than one set of nucleotide base triplets code for each amino acid. If a mutation results in a base change that leads to a triplet that codes for the same amino acid as the original, there is no change in the protein and consequently no change in function—a ‘silent’ mutation. Such mutations are neither advantageous nor disadvantageous, so they will neither be eliminated by natural selection nor accumulate in the population at the expense of the wild-type gene.

Polymorphisms are different alternative sequences at a locus within the DNA strand (alleles) that persist in a population through several generations. They arise initially because of a mutation, and are stable if they are non-functional, or die out during subsequent generations if (as is usually the case) they are disadvantageous. However, if the prevailing selective pressures in the environment are favourable, leading to a selective advantage, a polymorphism may increase in frequency over successive generations. Now that genes can be sequenced readily, it has become apparent that *single nucleotide polymorphisms* (SNPs, DNA sequence variations that occur when a single nucleotide in the genome sequence is altered) are very common (see Web links in the reference list for a useful ‘fact sheet’ about SNPs). They may entail substitution of one nucleotide for another (usually substitution of C for T), or deletion or insertion of a nucleotide. Insertions and deletions result in a ‘frame shift’ in translation—for example, after an insertion the first element of the next triplet in the code becomes the second and all subsequent bases are shifted one ‘to the right’. The result can be loss of protein synthesis, abnormal protein synthesis or an abnormal rate of protein synthesis.

SNPs occur every 100–300 bases along the 3 billion base human genome. Approximately two-thirds of SNPs involve C for T substitution. SNPs can occur in coding (gene) and non-coding regions of the genome. A single SNP can be an important determinant of disease—for example, a common genetic variant due to an SNP in one of the coagulation factors, known as factor V Leiden, is the commonest form of inherited thrombophilia (Ch. 24). This confers an increased risk of venous thrombosis in response to environmental factors such as prolonged immobility, but might perhaps have been an advantage to ancestors more at risk of haemorrhage than of thrombosis. Alternatively, predisposition to disease may depend on a combination of several SNPs in or near a gene. Such combinations are known as *haplotypes* and are inherited from each parent.

See Web links in the reference list for a useful source of basic information, including definitions, from the Human Genome Project.

Single-Gene Pharmacokinetic Disorders

Where a mutation disrupts gene function profoundly this may result in a 'single-gene disorder' which is inherited in Mendelian fashion. This was recognised for albinism (albinos lack an enzyme that is needed to synthesise the brown pigment melanin) and other 'inborn errors of metabolism' in the early part of the 20th century by Archibald Garrod, a British physician who initiated the study of biochemical genetics. Investigation of this large group of individually rare diseases has contributed disproportionately to our understanding of molecular pathology—familial hypercholesterolaemia and the mechanism of action of statins (Ch. 23) is one example.

Plasma Cholinesterase Deficiency

In the 1950s Walter Kalow discovered that **suxamethonium** sensitivity is due to genetic variation in the rate of drug metabolism as a result of a Mendelian autosomal recessive trait. This short-acting neuromuscular-blocking drug is widely used in anaesthesia and is normally rapidly hydrolysed by plasma cholinesterase (Ch. 13). About 1 in 3000 individuals fail to inactivate suxamethonium rapidly and experience prolonged neuromuscular block if treated with it; this is because a recessive gene gives rise to an abnormal type of plasma cholinesterase. The abnormal enzyme has a modified pattern of substrate and inhibitor specificity. It is detected by a blood test that measures the effect of the inhibitor **dibucaine**, which inhibits the abnormal enzyme less than the normal enzyme. Heterozygotes hydrolyse suxamethonium at a more or less normal rate, but their plasma cholinesterase has reduced sensitivity to dibucaine, intermediate between normal subjects and homozygotes. Only homozygotes express the disease: they appear completely healthy unless exposed to suxamethonium (or, presumably, closely related chemicals) but experience prolonged paralysis if exposed to a dose that would cause neuromuscular block for only a few minutes in a healthy person.[2] For a biological perspective on heritable variation in response to xenobiotics, especially in insects and bacteria, see Kalow 1997. There are other reasons why responses to suxamethonium may be abnormal in an individual patient, notably *malignant hyperpyrexia* (Ch. 13), a genetically determined idiosyncratic adverse drug reaction involving the ryanodine receptor (Ch. 4). It is important to test family members who may be affected, but the disorder is so rare that it is currently impractical to screen for it routinely before therapeutic use of suxamethonium.

Acute Intermittent Porphyria

[2]An apparently healthy middle-aged man saw one of the authors of this

book over a period of several months because of hypertension; he also saw a psychiatrist because of depression. This failed to improve with other treatment and he underwent electroconvulsive therapy (ECT). Suxamethonium was used to cause paralysis to prevent injury caused by convulsions; this usually results in short-lived paralysis but this poor man recovered consciousness some 2 days later to find himself being weaned from artificial ventilation in an intensive care unit. Subsequent analysis showed him to be homozygous for an ineffective form of plasma cholinesterase.

The hepatic *porphyrias* are prototypic pharmacogenetic disorders in which patients may be symptomatic even if they are not exposed to a drug, but where a wide spectrum of drugs can provoke very severe worsening of the course of the disease. Although uncommon, they are clinically important. They are inherited disorders involving the biochemical pathway of porphyrin haem biosynthesis. *Acute intermittent prophyria* is the commonest and most severe form. It is autosomal dominant (in contrast to plasma cholinesterase deficiency) and is due to one of many different mutations in the gene coding *porphobilinogen deaminase* (PBGD), a key enzyme in haem biosynthesis in red cell precursors, hepatocytes and other cells. All of these mutations reduce activity of this enzyme, and clinical features are caused by the resulting build-up of haem precursors including porphyrins. There is a strong interplay with the environment through exposure to drugs, hormones and other chemicals. The use of sedative, anticonvulsant or other drugs in patients with undiagnosed porphyria can be lethal, though with appropriate supportive management most patients recover completely.[3] Many drugs, especially but not exclusively those that induce CYP enzymes (e.g. barbiturates, **griseofulvin**, **carbamazepine**, estrogens—see Ch. 9), can precipitate acute attacks in susceptible individuals.

Porphyrins are synthesised from δ-amino laevulinic acid (ALA) which is formed by ALA synthase in the liver. This enzyme is induced, like various other hepatic enzymes, by drugs such as barbiturates, resulting in increased ALA production and, hence, increased porphyrin accumulation. As mentioned above the genetic trait is inherited as an autosomal dominant, but frank disease is approximately five times more common in women than in men, because hormonal fluctuations precipitate acute attacks.

Drug Acetylation Deficiency

[3]Life expectancy, obtained from parish records, of patients with porphyria diagnosed retrospectively within large kindreds in Scandinavia was normal until the advent and widespread use of barbiturates and other sedative and anticonvulsant drugs in the 20th century, when it plummeted. There is a long and useful list of drugs to avoid in the *British National Formulary*, together with the warning that drugs not on the list may not necessarily be safe in such patients!

Both examples considered so far are uncommon diseases. However, in the 1960s Price-Evans demonstrated that the rate of drug acetylation varied in different populations as a result of balanced polymorphism. Figure 11.1 contrasts the approximately Gaussian distribution of plasma concentrations achieved 3 h after administration of a dose of **salicylate** with the bimodal distribution of plasma concentrations after a dose of **isoniazid**. The isoniazid concentration was < 20 μmol/l in about half the population, and in this group the mode was approximately 9 μmol/l. In the other half of the population (plasma concentration > 20 μmol/l), the mode was approximately 30 μmol/l. Elimination of isoniazid depends mainly on acetylation, catalysed by an acetyltransferase enzyme (Ch. 9). White populations contain roughly equal numbers of ‘fast

acetylators' and 'slow acetylators'. The characteristic of fast or slow acetylation is controlled by a single recessive gene associated with low hepatic acetyltransferase activity. Other ethnic groups have different proportions of fast and slow acetylators. Isoniazid causes two distinct forms of toxicity. One is peripheral neuropathy, which is produced by isoniazid itself and is commoner in slow acetylators. The other is hepatotoxicity, caused by conversion of the acetylated metabolite to acetylhydrazine and is commoner in fast acetylators, at least in some populations. This genetic variation thus produces a qualitative change in the pattern of toxicity caused by the drug in different populations.

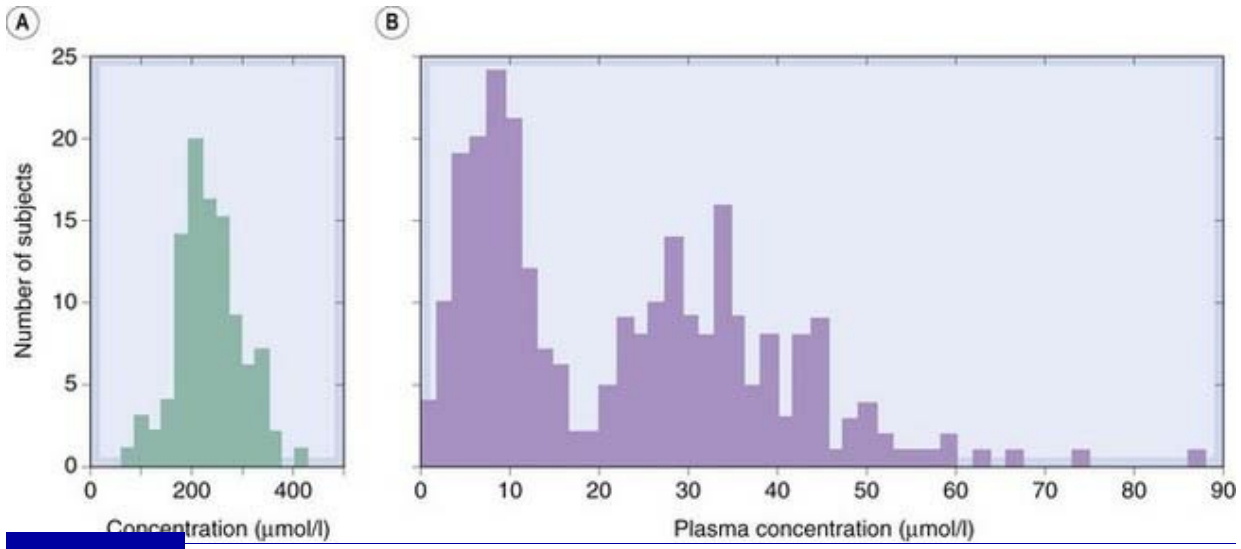


Fig. 11.1 Distribution of individual plasma concentrations for two drugs in humans.

[**A**] Plasma salicylate concentration 3 h after oral dosage with sodium salicylate. [**B**] Plasma isoniazid concentration 6 h after oral dosage. Note the normally distributed values for salicylate, compared with the bimodal distribution of isoniazid.

*(From: **(A)** From Evans & Clarke 1961 Br Med Bull 17: 234–280; **(B)** From Price-Evans D A 1963 Am J Med 3: 639.)*

Acetyltransferase is also important in the metabolism of other drugs, including **hydralazine** (Ch. 22), **procainamide** (Ch. 21), **dapsone** and various other sulfonamides (Ch. 50) and acetylator status influences drug-induced *lupus*, an autoimmune disorder affecting many organs

including skin, joints and kidneys which is an idiopathic adverse reaction caused by several of these agents. However, neither phenotyping (by measuring kinetics of drug transformation) nor genotyping for acetyltransferase has found a way into routine clinical practice, probably because these drugs are relatively little used and there are several alternative treatments available that are usually preferred.

Aminoglycoside Ototoxicity

In the examples above, variations in chromosomal genes, sex-linked or inherited in autosomal dominant or autosomal recessive fashion, cause variations in drug response. Increased susceptibility to hearing loss caused by aminoglycoside antibiotics (see Ch. 50) is, in some families, inherited quite differently, namely exclusively through the mother to all her children. This is the pattern expected of a mitochondrial gene, and indeed the most common predisposing mutation is *m.1555A>G,* a mitochondrial DNA mutation. This mutation accounts for 30–60% of aminoglycoside ototoxicity in China, where use of aminoglycosides is common because they are cheap. Aminoglycosides work by binding to bacterial ribosomes (Ch. 50), which share properties with human mitochondrial ribosomes; aminoglycosides cause ototoxity in all individuals exposed to too high a dose. The *m.1555A>G* mutation makes mitochondrial ribosomes even more similar to their bacterial counterpart, increasing the affinity of the drug which remains bound to ribosomes in the hair cells in the ear for several months following a single dose in susceptible individuals. Screening for this variant may be appropriate in children who are likely to require treatment with aminoglycosides (Bitner-Glindzicz & Rahman, 2007).

Therapeutic Drugs and Clinically Available Pharmacogenomic Tests

Clinical tests to predict drug responsiveness were anticipated to be one of the first applications of sequencing the human genome, but their development has been slowed by various scientific, commercial, political and educational barriers (Flockhart et al., 2009). Reimbursement for expensive drugs, whether provided by the state or by insurance schemes, depends increasingly on evidence of cost-effectiveness. New tests need to improve demonstrably on our current ability to prescribe optimally, and must lead to a clear-cut change in prescribing, such as using a different drug or a different dosing regimen. So far the evidence in support of any pharmacogenetic test is less convincing than the ideal of a randomised controlled trial of a pharmacogenomics-informed prescribing strategy versus current best practice, but several of the tests mentioned below are increasingly used in clinical practice. They include tests for (a) variants of different human leukocyte antigens (HLAs) that have been strongly linked to susceptibilities to several severe idiosyncratic reactions; (b) genes controlling aspects of drug metabolism; and (c) genes encoding drug targets. For one drug (**warfarin**), a test combines genetic information about metabolism with information about its target. The genetic susceptibility of collie dogs to neurotoxic effects of **ivermectin** mentioned in Chapter 8 (footnote, p. 99) is of importance in veterinary medicine. It results from a variant of P-glycoprotein that alters the properties of the blood–brain barrier of dogs with collie ancestry, and in future genes coding for proteins influencing drug distribution in man may also be fertile territory for new tests.

Pharmacogenetics



- Several inherited disorders influence responses to drugs, including:
  - glucose-6-phosphatase deficiency, a sex-linked disorder in which affected men may experience haemolysis if exposed to various chemicals including the antimalarial drug

primaquine

– plasma cholinesterase deficiency, a rare autosomal recessive disorder that confers sensititivity to the neuromuscular blocker suxamethonium

– acute intermittent porphyria, an autosomal dominant disease more severe in women and in which severe attacks are precipitated by drugs that induce CYP enzymes

– drug acetylator deficiency, a common autosomal recessive disorder

– increased susceptibility to ototoxicity from aminoglycosides, which is conferred by a mutation in mitochondrial DNA.

• These pharmacogenetic disorders prove that drug responses can be genetically determined in individuals.

• Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and combinations of SNPs (haplotypes) in genes coding for proteins involved in drug disposition or drug action are common and may predict drug response. Pharmacogenomic tests in blood or tissue removed surgically have established associations between several such variants and individual drug response, and several such tests are available for clinical use although they are not used uniformly and their status in individualising drug treatment is still being established.

• Such tests are available for:

– several HLA variants that predict toxicity of **abacavir**, **carbamazepine** and **clozapine**

– genes for several enzymes in drug metabolism including CYP2D6 and CYP2C9, and thiopurineS-methyltransferase (TPMT)

– germline and somatic mutations in growth factor receptors that predict responsiveness to cancer treatments including **imatinib** and **trastuzumab**.

Methodology. Mutations in the germline are passed to the next generation where they are present in all cells; in practice, tests for such germline mutations are usually made on venous blood samples which contain chromosomal and mitochondrial DNA in white blood cells. Somatic cell mutations underlie the pathogenesis of some tumours (Ch.

5), and the presence or absence of such somatic cell mutations guides drug selection. The genomic tests are performed on DNA from samples of the tumour obtained surgically. The tests themselves involve amplification of the relevant sequence(s) and molecular biological methods, often utilising chip technology, to identify the various polymorphisms.

Hla Gene Tests

Abacavir and HLAB*5701

▼ **Abacavir** (Ch. 51) is a reverse transcriptase inhibitor which is highly effective in treating HIV infection. Its use has been limited by severe rashes. Susceptibility to this adverse effect is closely linked to the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) variant *HLAB*5701*, and testing for this variant is used widely and supported by prospective trials; see Figure 11.2 (Lai-Goldman & Faruki, 2008).

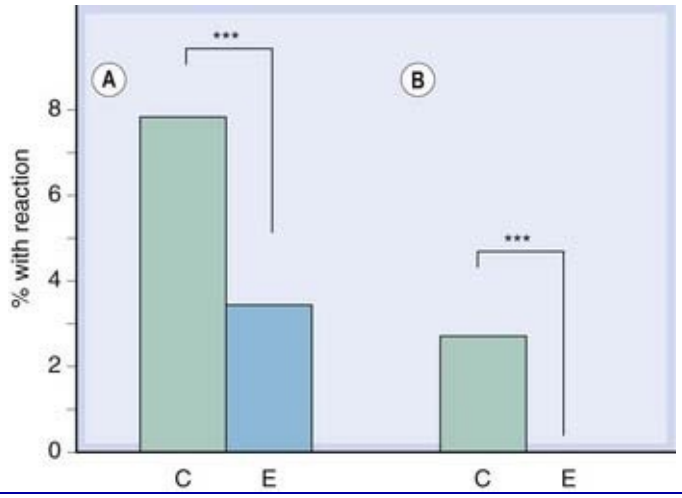


Fig. 11.2 Incidence of abacavir hypersensitivity is reduced by pharmacogenetic screening.

In the PREDICT-1 study (Mallal et al., 2008), patients were randomised to standard care (control group, C) or prospective pharmacogenetic screening (experimental group, E). All the control subjects were treated with abacavir, but only those experimental subjects who were *HLA-B*5701* negative were treated with abacavir. There were two prespecified end points: clinically suspected hypersensitivity reactions [**A**] and clinically suspected reactions that were

immunologically confirmed by a positive patch test [**B**]. Both end points favoured the experimental group ($P < 0.0001$).

Figure redrawn from Hughes AR et al 2008 Pharmacogenetics Journal 8: 365-374.

Anticonvulsants and HLAB*1502

▼ **Carbamazepine** (Ch. 44) can also cause severe (life-threatening) rashes including *Stevens Johnson syndrome* (in which a multiform rash with blistering and other lesions extends into the gastrointestinal tract) and *toxic epidermal necrolysis* (in which the outer layer of the skin peels away from the dermis as though it has been scalded). These are associated with a particular HLA allele, *HLAB*1502*, which occurs almost only in people with Asian ancestry (Man et al., 2007); the FDA recommends that Chinese patients should be screened for this allele before starting treatment. People who develop such a reaction to carbamazepine may develop a similar problem if treated with **phenytoin**, and the same allele has been associated with hypersensitivity reactions to this drug too.

Clozapine and HLA-DQB1*0201

▼ **Clozapine** is a uniquely effective antipsychotic drug with a different pattern of adverse effects from classical antipsychotic drugs (Ch. 45); its use is limited by agranulocytosis in approximately 1% of patients. This idiosyncratic adverse effect has been associated with *HLA-DQB1*0201*, but so far studies have been small and the specificity and sensitivity of the test are yet to be established.

Drug Metabolism-Related Gene Tests

Thiopurines and TPMT

▼ Thiopurine drugs (**tioguanine**, **mercaptopurine** and its prodrug

azathioprine; Ch. 55) have been used for the past 50 years to treat leukaemias, including acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (ALL, which accounts for approximately one-fifth of all childhood malignancies), and more recently for even more common diseases including inflammatory bowel disease, and to cause immunosuppression. All of these drugs cause bone marrow and liver toxicity, and are detoxified by thiopurineS-methyltransferase (TPMT) which is present in blood cells, as well as by xanthine oxidase. There are large inherited variations in TPMT activity with a trimodal frequency distribution (Weinshilboum & Sladek, 1980); low TPMT activity in blood is associated with high concentrations of active 6-thioguanine nucleotides (TGN) in blood and with bone marrow toxicity whereas high TPMT activity is associated with lower concentrations of TGN and reduced efficacy (Lennard et al., 1989, 1990). Before treatment with these drugs, phenotyping (by a blood test for TPMT activity) or genotyping of *TMPT* alleles *TPMT*3A*, *TPMT*3C*, *TPMT*2*, is recommended. Even with such testing, careful monitoring of the white blood cell count is needed because of environmental factors (e.g. drug interaction with **allopurinol** via its effect on xanthine oxidase 0 (Ch. 56, Table 56.3).

5-Fluorouracil (5-FU) And DPYD

▼ **5-FU** (Ch. 55, Fig. 55.6) is used extensively to treat solid tumours, but has variable efficacy and unpredictable mucocutaneous toxicity. It is detoxified by dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase (DPYD), which has multiple clinically identifiable functional genetic variants. Currently available genetic information is neither highly sensitive nor specific, but the FDA recommends that the drug not be given to patients with DPYD deficiency.

Tamoxifen and CYP2D6

▼ **Tamoxifen** (Chs 34 and 55) is metabolised to an oestrogen antagonist endoxifen by CYP2D6 which is subject to marked polymorphic variation (see Ch. 9); several small association studies have suggested a link between *CYP2D6* genotype and efficacy. Genotyping tests for *CYP2D6* are available, but genetic results from larger comparative trials of tamoxifen versus aromatase inhibitors are awaited. Treatment with other CYP2D6 substrates, for example **tetrabenazine**, used to treat Huntington's disease (Ch. 39) may also be influenced by knowledge of *CYP2D6* genotype: the FDA recommends that patients who are CYP2D6 poor metabolisers should not be prescribed more than 50 mg daily because of the risk of severe depression.

Irinotecan and UGT1A1*28

▼ **Irinotecan**, a topoisomerase I inhibitor (Ch. 55) has marked activity against colorectal and lung cancers in a minority of patients, but toxicity (diarrhoea and bone marrow suppression) can be severe. It works through an active metabolite (SN-38) which is detoxified by glucuronidation by UDP-glucuronyltransferase (UGT; Ch. 9, Fig 9.3). Reduced activity of this enzyme is common and gives rise to the inherited benign condition of hyperbilirubinaemia known as *Gilbert's syndrome* in which unconjugated bilirubin accumulates in plasma. UGT1A1 genetic testing is clinically available and predicts irinotecan pharmacokinetics and clinical outcomes. The best way to use information from the test is still uncertain, however.

Drug Target-Related Gene Tests

Trastuzumab and HER2

▼ **Trastuzumab** ('Herceptin'; Ch. 55) is a monoclonal antibody that antagonises epidermal growth factor (EGF) by binding to one of its

receptors (human epidermal growth factor receptor 2—HER2) which can occur in tumour tissue as a result of somatic mutation. It is used in patients with breast cancer whose tumour tissue overexpresses this receptor. Other patients have not been found to benefit from it.

Dasatinib, Imatinib and BCR-ABL1

▼ **Dasatinib** is a dual BCR/ABL and Src tyrosine kinase inhibitor used in haematological malignancies characterised by the presence of a Philadelphia chromosome, namely chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML) and some adults with acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (ALL). The Philadelphia chromosome results from a translocation defect when parts of two chromosomes (9 and 22) swap places; part of a 'breakpoint cluster region' (BCR) in chromosome 22 links to the 'Abelson-1' (ABL) region of chromosome 9. A mutation (T315I) in BCR/ABL confers resistance to the inhibitory effect of dasatinib and patients with this variant do not benefit from this drug. Pharmacogenetic testing is also being evaluated for **imatinib** (Ch. 55), another tyrosine kinase inhibitor used in patients with CML and other myelodysplastic disorders associated with rearrangements in the gene for platelet-derived growth factor receptor or for BCR-ABL.

Combined (Metabolism and Target) Gene Tests

Warfarin and CYP2C9 + VKORC1 Genotyping

▼ **Warfarin** is *par excellence* a drug where dosing must be individualised. This is done by measuring the *international normalised ratio* (INR), a measure of its effect on blood coagulability (Ch. 24), but thrombotic events despite treatment (lack of efficacy) and serious adverse effects (usually bleeding) remain all too common. Surely we can do better? Warfarin is the most widely used drug for which pharmacogenetic

testing has been proposed, based on a study showing that polymorphisms in its key target, vitamin K epoxide reductase (VKOR; see Fig. 24.5) and in CYP2C9, involved in its metabolism, are associated with outcomes. Figure 11.3 shows the effects of VKOR haplotype and of CYP2C9 genotype on the mean dose of warfarin needed to achieve therapeutic INR. Dosing algorithms have been proposed based on the results of testing for polymorphisms of these genes (Schwarz et al., 2008), and may come into general use.

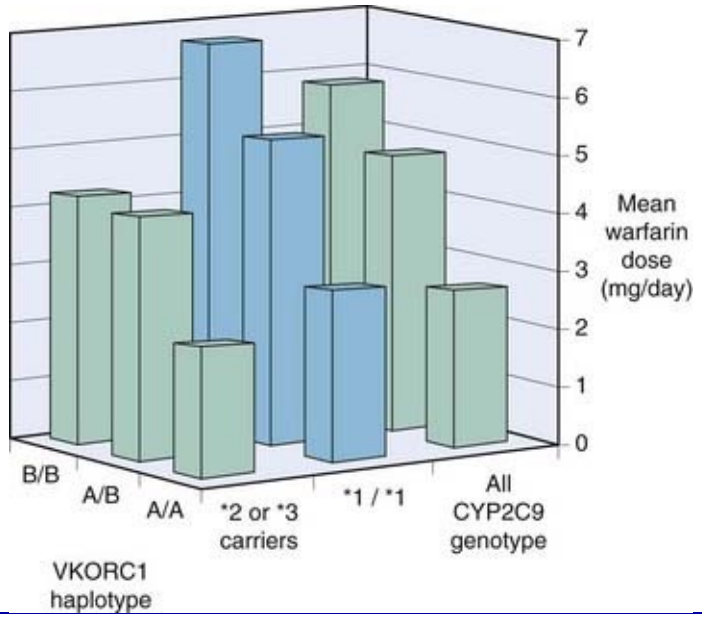


Fig. 11.3 Effect of *VKOR* haplotype and *CYP2C9* genotype on warfarin dose.

186 patients on long-term warfarin treatment who had already been studied for *CYP2C9* were studied retrospectively for genetic variants of *VKOR* (Rieder et al., 2005). *VKOR* haplotype as well as *CYP2C9* genotype influenced the mean warfarin dose (which had been adjusted to achieve therapeutic INR). A, haplotypes 1 and 2; B, haplotypes 7, 8 and 9. A/A, A/B and B/B represent haplotype combinations. *1*/1 represents CYP2C9 wild type homozygotes; *2 and* 3 represent CYP2C9 variants.

Figure redrawn from Beitelshees AL, McLeod HL 2006 Applying pharmacogenomics to enhance the use of biomarkers for drug effect and drug safety. TIPS 27: 498–502.

Conclusions

Twin studies as well as several well-documented single-gene disorders (including Mendelian chromosomal—autosomal recessive, dominant or sex-linked—and maternally inherited mitochondrial disorders) prove the concept that susceptibility to adverse drug effects, whether pharmacodynamic, pharmacokinetic or idiosyncratic, can be genetically determined. Pharmacogenomic testing offers the possibility of more precise 'personalised' therapeutics for several drugs and disorders. This is a field of intense research activity, rapid progress and high expectations, but proving that these tests add to present best practice and improve outcomes remains a challenge.

References and Further Reading

eitelshees A.L., McLeod H.L. Applying pharmacogenomics to enhance the use of biomarkers for drug effect and drug safety. *TIPS*. 2006;27:498-502. (*Succinct review of use of pharmacogenetics to improve risk management*)

itner-Glindzicz M., Rahman S. Ototoxicity caused by aminoglycosides is severe and permanent in genetically susceptible people. *BMJ*. 2007;335:784-785.

avis J.C., Furstenthal L., Desai A.A., *et al.* The microeconomics of personalized medicine: today's challenge and tomorrow's promise. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.*. 2009;8:279-286. (*Argues that major barriers to genomic testing, previously scientific, are now increasingly related to economics*)

lockhart D.A., Skaar T., Berlin D.S., *et al.* Clinically available pharmacogenomics tests. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2009;86:109-113.

agar S.B., Thummel K.E., Burke W. Adding pharmacogenetics information to drug labels: lessons learned. *Pharmacogenet. Genomics.*. 2006;16:847-854. (*Discusses the cautious approach to label revisions, and their implications*)

awwa A.F., Millership J.S., Collier S., *et al.* Pharmacogenomic studies of the anticancer and immunosuppressive thiopurines mercaptopurine and azathioprine. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2008;66:517-528.

alow W. Pharmacogenetics in biological perspective. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 1997;49:369-379.

reek M.J., Hart G., Laforge K.S., *et al.* Pharmacogenetics and human molecular genetics of opiate and cocaine addicitions and their treatments. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2005;57:1-26. (*Focuses mainly on genes of the opioid and monoaminergic systems with linkage to opiate or cocaine addictions*)

ai-Goldman M., Faruki H. Abacavir hypersensitivity: a model system for pharmacogenetic test adoption. *Genet. Med.*. 2008;10:874-878.

ennard L., van Loon J.A., Weinshilboum R.M. Pharmacogenetics of acute azathioprine toxicity: relationship to thiopurine methyltransferase genetic polymorphism. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 1989;46:149-154.

ennard L., Lilleyman J.S., van Loon J.A., *et al.* Genetic variation in response to 6-mercaptopurine for childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Lancet*. 1990;336:225-229.

Iallal S., Phillips E., Carosi G., *et al.* HLA-B*5701 screening for hypersensitivity to abacavir. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2008;358:568-579.

Iaitland M.L., Vasisht K., Ratain M.J. *TPMT, UGT1A1* and *DPYD*: genotyping to ensure safer cancer therapy? *TIPS*. 2006;27:432-437. (*Reviews gene/drug–phenotype relationships of 6-MP, irinotecan and 5-FU*)

Ian C.B., Kwan P., Baum L., *et al.* Association between HLA-B*1502 allele and anti-epileptic drug-induced cutaneous reactions in Han Chinese. *Epilepsia*. 2007;48:1015-1018.

ebert D.W., Vesell E.S. Can personalized drug therapy be achieved? A closer look at pharmaco-metabonomics. *Trends. Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2006;27:580-586. (*Metabonomics—drug metabolite profiling in individual subjects—could complement genomics in achieving personalised drug therapy*)

ieder M.J., Reiner A.P., Gage B.F., *et al.* Effect of VKORC1 haplotype on transcriptional regulation and warfarin dose. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;352:2285-2293.

osskopf D., Michel M.C. Pharmacogenomics of G protein-coupled receptor ligands in cardiovascular medicine. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2008;60:513-535. (*Focuses mainly on ligands at adrenergic and angiotensin II receptors—sober review*)

chwarz U.I., Ritchie M.D., Bradford Y., *et al.* Genetic determinants of response to warfarin during initial anticoagulation. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2008;358:999-1008.

eml A., Schaeffeler E., Schwab M. Pretreatment determination of TPMT—state of the art in clinical practice. *Eur. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2009;65:219-221. and related articles. (*Introduces an issue devoted to the impact of TPMT polymorphisms on thiopurine use in clinical practice*)

Veinshilboum R.M., Sladek S.L. Mercaptopurine pharmacogenetics: monogenic inheritance of erythrocyte thiopurine methyltransferase activity. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.*. 1980;32:651-662.

ong W.P., Innocenti F., Ratain M.J. The role of pharmacogenetics in cancer therapeutics. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2006;62:35-46. (*Reviews effects of germline polymorphisms and somatic mutations on therapeutic outcomes and highlights potential applications*)

Useful web resources

ttp://www.ornl.gov/sci/techresources/Human_Genome/faq/snps.shtml (*Useful SNP fact sheet*)

ttp://www.ornl.gov/sci/techresources/Human_Genome/medicine/pharma.shtml (*Useful source of basic information, including definitions, from the Human Genome Project*)

Section 2
Chemical mediators

12

Chemical mediators and the autonomic nervous system

Overview

The network of chemical signals and associated receptors by which cells in the body communicate with one another provides many targets for drug action, and has always been a focus of attention for pharmacologists. Chemical transmission in the peripheral nervous system, and the various ways in which the process can be pharmacologically subverted, are discussed in this chapter. In addition to neurotransmission, we also consider briefly the less clearly defined processes, collectively termed *neuromodulation*, by which many mediators and drugs exert control over the function of the nervous system. The relative anatomical and physiological simplicity of the peripheral nervous system has made it the proving ground for many important discoveries about chemical transmission, and the same general principles apply to the central nervous system (see Ch. 36). For more detail than is given here, see Cooper et al. (2003), Robertson (2004) and Burnstock (2009).

Historical Aspects

▼ Studies initiated on the peripheral nervous system have been central to the understanding and classification of many major types of drug action, so it is worth recounting a little history. Excellent accounts are given by Bacq (1975) and Valenstein (2005).

Experimental physiology became established as an approach to the understanding of the function of living organisms in the middle of the 19th century. The peripheral nervous system, and particularly the autonomic nervous system, received a great deal of attention. The fact that electrical stimulation of nerves could elicit a whole variety of physiological effects—from blanching of the skin to arrest of the heart—presented a real challenge to comprehension, particularly of the way in which the signal was passed from the nerve to the effector tissue. In 1877, Du Bois-Reymond was the first to put the alternatives clearly: 'Of known natural processes that might pass on excitation, only two are, in my opinion, worth talking about—either there exists at the boundary of the contractile substance a stimulatory secretion … or the phenomenon is electrical in nature.' The latter view was generally favoured. In 1869, it had been shown that an exogenous substance, **muscarine**, could mimic the effects of stimulating the vagus nerve, and that **atropine** could inhibit the actions both of muscarine and of nerve stimulation. In 1905, Langley showed the same for **nicotine** and **curare** acting at the neuromuscular junction. Most physiologists interpreted these phenomena as stimulation and inhibition of the nerve endings, respectively, rather than as evidence for chemical transmission. Hence the suggestion of T R Elliott, in 1904, that **adrenaline** (**epinephrine**) might act as a chemical transmitter mediating the actions of the sympathetic nervous system was coolly received, until Langley, the Professor of Physiology at Cambridge and a powerful figure at that time, suggested, a year later, that transmission to skeletal muscle involved the secretion by the nerve terminals of a substance related to nicotine.

One of the key observations for Elliott was that degeneration of sympathetic nerve terminals did not abolish the sensitivity of smooth muscle preparations to adrenaline (which the electrical theory predicted)

but actually enhanced it. The hypothesis of chemical transmission was put to direct test in 1907 by Dixon, who tried to show that vagus nerve stimulation released from a dog's heart into the blood a substance capable of inhibiting another heart. The experiment failed, and the atmosphere of scepticism prevailed.

It was not until 1921, in Germany, that Loewi showed that stimulation of the vagosympathetic trunk connected to an isolated and cannulated frog's heart could cause the release into the cannula of a substance ('*Vagusstoff*') that, if the cannula fluid was transferred from the first heart to a second, would inhibit the second heart. This is a classic and much-quoted experiment that proved extremely difficult for even Loewi to perform reproducibly. In an autobiographical sketch, Loewi tells us that the idea of chemical transmission arose in a discussion that he had in 1903, but no way of testing it experimentally occurred to him until he dreamed of the appropriate experiment one night in 1920. He wrote some notes of this very important dream in the middle of the night, but in the morning could not read them. The dream obligingly returned the next night and, taking no chances, he went to the laboratory at 3 a.m. and carried out the experiment successfully. Loewi's experiment may be, and was, criticised on numerous grounds (it could, for example, have been potassium rather than a neurotransmitter that was acting on the recipient heart), but a series of further experiments proved him to be right. His findings can be summarised as follows:

• Stimulation of the vagus caused the appearance in the perfusate of the frog heart of a substance capable of producing, in a second heart, an inhibitory effect resembling vagus stimulation.

• Stimulation of the sympathetic nervous system caused the appearance of a substance capable of accelerating a second heart. By fluorescence

measurements, Loewi concluded later that this substance was adrenaline.

• Atropine prevented the inhibitory action of the vagus on the heart but did not prevent release of Vagusstoff. Atropine thus prevented the effects, rather than the release, of the transmitter.

• When Vagusstoff was incubated with ground-up heart muscle, it became inactivated. This effect is now known to be due to enzymatic destruction of acetylcholine by cholinesterase.

• **Physostigmine**, which potentiated the effect of vagus stimulation on the heart, prevented destruction of Vagusstoff by heart muscle, providing evidence that the potentiation is due to inhibition of cholinesterase, which normally destroys the transmitter substance acetylcholine.

A few years later, in the early 1930s, Dale showed convincingly that acetylcholine was also the transmitter substance at the neuromuscular junction of striated muscle and at autonomic ganglia. One of the keys to Dale's success lay in the use of highly sensitive bioassays, especially the leech dorsal muscle, for measuring acetylcholine release. Chemical transmission at sympathetic nerve terminals was demonstrated at about the same time as cholinergic transmission and by very similar methods. Cannon and his colleagues at Harvard first showed unequivocally the phenomenon of chemical transmission at sympathetic nerve endings, by experiments in vivo in which tissues made supersensitive to adrenaline by prior sympathetic denervation were shown to respond, after a delay, to the transmitter released by stimulation of the sympathetic nerves to other parts of the body. The chemical identity of the transmitter, tantalisingly like adrenaline but not identical to it, caused confusion for many years, until in 1946 von Euler showed it to be the non-methylated

derivative **noradrenaline** (**norepinephrine**).

The Autonomic Nervous System

The autonomic nervous system for a long time occupied centre stage in the pharmacology of chemical transmission.

Basic Anatomy and Physiology

The autonomic nervous system (see Robertson, 2004) consists of three main anatomical divisions: *sympathetic*, *parasympathetic* and *enteric* nervous systems. The sympathetic and parasympathetic systems (Fig. 12.1) provide a link between the central nervous system and peripheral organs. The enteric nervous system comprises the intrinsic nerve plexuses of the gastrointestinal tract, which are closely interconnected with the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems.

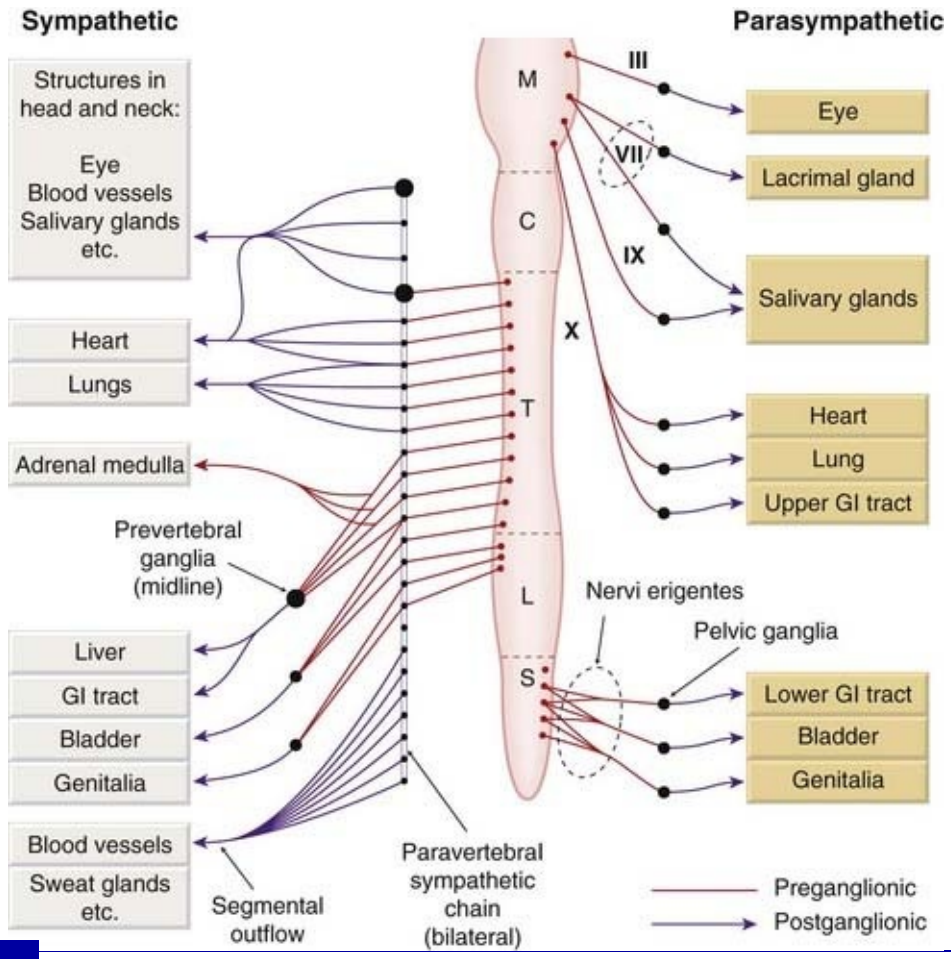


Fig. 12.1 Basic plan of the mammalian autonomic nervous system.
C, cervical; GI, gastrointestinal; L, lumbar; M, medullary; S, sacral; T, thoracic.

The autonomic nervous system conveys all the outputs from the central nervous system to the rest of the body, except for the motor innervation of skeletal muscle. The enteric nervous system has sufficient integrative capabilities to allow it to function independently of the central nervous system, but the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems are agents of the central nervous system and cannot function without it. The autonomic nervous system is largely outside the influence of voluntary control. The main processes that it regulates are:

- contraction and relaxation of vascular and visceral smooth muscle

• all exocrine and certain endocrine secretions

• the heartbeat

• energy metabolism, particularly in liver and skeletal muscle.

A degree of autonomic control also affects many other systems, including the kidney, immune system and somatosensory system. The autonomic efferent pathway consists of two neurons arranged in series, whereas in the somatic motor system a single motor neuron connects the central nervous system to the skeletal muscle fibre (Fig.12.2). The two neurons in the autonomic pathway are known, respectively, as *preganglionic* and *postganglionic*. In the sympathetic nervous system, the intervening synapses lie in *autonomic ganglia*, which are outside the central nervous system, and contain the nerve endings of preganglionic fibres and the cell bodies of postganglionic neurons. In parasympathetic pathways, the postganglionic cells are mainly found in the target organs, discrete parasympathetic ganglia (e.g. the ciliary ganglion) being found only in the head and neck.

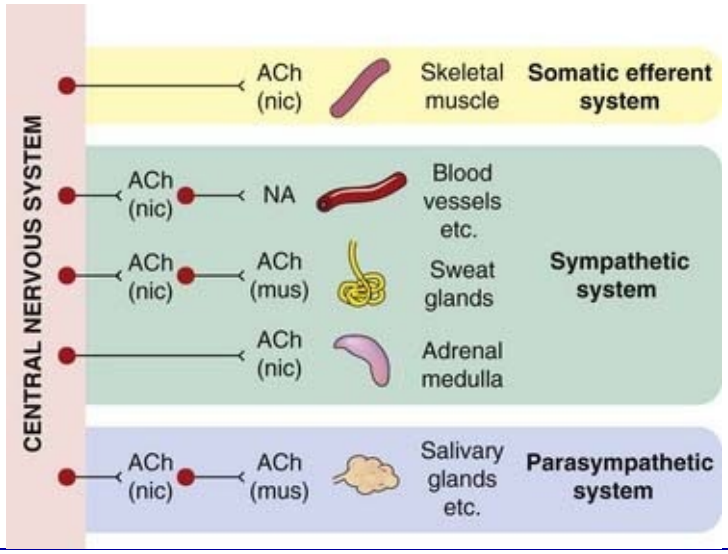


Fig. 12.2 Acetylcholine and noradrenaline as transmitters in the peripheral nervous system.

The two main types of acetylcholine (ACh) receptor, nicotinic (nic) and muscarinic (mus) (see

Ch. 13), are indicated. NA, noradrenaline (norepinephrine).

The cell bodies of the sympathetic preganglionic neurons lie in the *lateral horn* of the grey matter of the thoracic and lumbar segments of the spinal cord, and the fibres leave the spinal cord in the spinal nerves as the *thoracolumbar sympathetic outflow*. The preganglionic fibres synapse in the *paravertebral chains* of sympathetic ganglia, lying on either side of the spinal column. These ganglia contain the cell bodies of the postganglionic sympathetic neurons, the axons of which rejoin the spinal nerve. Many of the postganglionic sympathetic fibres reach their peripheral destinations via the branches of the spinal nerves. Others, destined for abdominal and pelvic viscera, have their cell bodies in a group of unpaired *prevertebral ganglia* in the abdominal cavity. The only exception to the two-neuron arrangement is the innervation of the adrenal medulla. The catecholamine-secreting cells of the adrenal medulla are, in effect, modified postganglionic sympathetic neurons, and the nerves supplying the gland are equivalent to preganglionic fibres.

The parasympathetic nerves emerge from two separate regions of the central nervous system. The *cranial outflow* consists of preganglionic fibres in certain cranial nerves, namely the *oculomotor nerve* (carrying parasympathetic fibres destined for the eye), the *facial* and *glossopharyngeal nerves* (carrying fibres to the salivary glands and the nasopharynx), and the *vagus nerve* (carrying fibres to the thoracic and abdominal viscera). The ganglia lie scattered in close relation to the target organs; the postganglionic neurons are very short compared with those of the sympathetic system. Parasympathetic fibres destined for the pelvic and abdominal viscera emerge as the *sacral outflow* from the spinal cord in a bundle of nerves known as the *nervi erigentes* (because stimulation of these nerves evokes genital erection—a fact of some importance to those responsible for artificial insemination of livestock).

These fibres synapse in a group of scattered *pelvic ganglia*, whence the short postganglionic fibres run to target tissues such as the bladder, rectum and genitalia. The pelvic ganglia carry both sympathetic and parasympathetic fibres, and the two divisions are not anatomically distinct in this region.

The enteric nervous system (reviewed by Goyal & Hirano, 1996) consists of the neurons whose cell bodies lie in the intramural plexuses in the wall of the intestine. It is estimated that there are more cells in this system than in the spinal cord, and functionally they do not fit simply into the sympathetic/parasympathetic classification. Incoming nerves from both the sympathetic and the parasympathetic systems terminate on enteric neurons, as well as running directly to smooth muscle, glands and blood vessels. Some enteric neurons function as mechanoreceptors or chemoreceptors, providing local reflex pathways that can control gastrointestinal function without external inputs. The enteric nervous system is pharmacologically more complex than the sympathetic or parasympathetic systems, involving many neuropeptide and other transmitters (such as 5-hydroxytryptamine, nitric oxide and ATP).

In some places (e.g. in the visceral smooth muscle of the gut and bladder, and in the heart), the sympathetic and the parasympathetic systems produce opposite effects, but there are others where only one division of the autonomic system operates. The *sweat glands* and most *blood vessels*, for example, have only a sympathetic innervation, whereas the *ciliary muscle* of the eye has only a parasympathetic innervation. *Bronchial smooth muscle* has only a parasympathetic (constrictor) innervation (although its tone is highly sensitive to circulating adrenaline—acting probably to inhibit the constrictor innervation rather than on the smooth muscle directly). *Resistance arteries* (see Ch. 22) have

a sympathetic vasoconstrictor innervation but no parasympathetic innervation; instead, the constrictor tone is opposed by a background release of nitric oxide from the endothelial cells (see Ch. 20). There are other examples, such as the *salivary glands*, where the two systems produce similar, rather than opposing, effects.

It is therefore a mistake to think of the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems simply as physiological opponents. Each serves its own physiological function and can be more or less active in a particular organ or tissue according to the need of the moment. Cannon rightly emphasised the general role of the sympathetic system in evoking 'fight or flight' reactions in an emergency, but emergencies are rare for most animals. In everyday life, the autonomic nervous system functions continuously to control specific local functions, such as adjustments to postural changes, exercise or ambient temperature (see Jänig & McLachlan, 1992). The popular concept of a continuum from the extreme 'rest and digest' state (parasympathetic active, sympathetic quiescent) to the extreme emergency fight or flight state (sympathetic active, parasympathetic quiescent) is an oversimplification.

Table 12.1 lists some of the more important autonomic responses in humans.

Table 12.1 The main effects of the autonomic nervous system

Organ	Sympathetic effect	Adrenoceptor type[a]	Parasympathetic effect	Cholinoceptor type[a]
Heart				
Sinoatrial node	Rate ↑	β_1	Rate ↓	M_2
Atrial muscle	Force ↑	β_1	Force ↓	M_2
Atrioventricular node	Automaticity ↑	β_1	Conduction velocity ↓	M_2
			Atrioventricular block	M_2
Ventricular muscle	Automaticity ↑ Force ↑	β_1	No effect	M_2
Blood vessels				
Arterioles				
Coronary	Constriction	α	No effect	—
Muscle	Dilatation	β_2	No effect	—
Viscera, skin, brain	Constriction	α	No effect	—
Erectile tissue	Constriction	α	Dilatation	M_3[b]
Salivary gland	Constriction	α	Dilatation	M_3[b]
Veins	Constriction	α	No effect	—
	Dilatation	β_2	No effect	—
Viscera				
Bronchi				
Smooth muscle	No sympathetic innervation, but dilated by circulating adrenaline (epinephrine)	β_2	Constriction	M_3
Glands	No effect	—	Secretion	M_3
Gastrointestinal tract				
Smooth muscle	Motility ↓	α_1, α_2, β_2	Motility ↑	M_3
Sphincters	Constriction	α_2, β_2	Dilatation	M_3
Glands	No effect	—	Secretion	M_3
			Gastric acid secretion	M_1
Bladder	Relaxation	β_2	Contraction	M_3
	Sphincter contraction	α_1	Sphincter relaxation	M_2
Uterus				
Pregnant	Contraction	α	Variable	—
Non-pregnant	Relaxation	β_2		
Male sex organs	Ejaculation	α	Erection	M_3[b]
Eye				
Pupil	Dilatation	α	Constriction	M_3
Ciliary muscle	Relaxation (slight)	β	Contraction	M_3
Skin				
Sweat glands	Secretion (mainly cholinergic via M_3 receptors)	—	No effect	—
Pilomotor	Piloerection	α	No effect	—
Salivary glands	Secretion	α, β	Secretion	M_3
Lacrimal glands	No effect	—	Secretion	M_3
Kidney	Renin secretion	β_1	No effect	—
Liver	Glycogenolysis	α, β_2	No effect	
	Gluconeogenesis			—

[a] The adrenoceptor and cholinoceptor types shown are described more fully in Chapters 13 and 14. Transmitters other than acetylcholine and noradrenaline contribute to many of these responses (see Table 12.2).
[b] Vasodilator effects of M_3 receptors are due to nitric oxide release from endothelial cells (see Ch. 22).

Basic anatomy of the autonomic nervous system



• The autonomic nervous system comprises three divisions: *sympathetic*, *parasympathetic* and *enteric*.

• The basic (two-neuron) pattern of the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems consists of a *preganglionic* neuron with a cell body in the central nervous system (CNS) and a *postganglionic* neuron with a cell body in an autonomic ganglion.

• The parasympathetic system is connected to the CNS via:

– cranial nerve outflow (III, VII, IX, X)

– sacral outflow.

• Parasympathetic ganglia usually lie close to or within the target organ.

• Sympathetic outflow leaves the CNS in thoracic and lumbar spinal roots. Sympathetic ganglia form two paravertebral chains, plus some midline ganglia.

• The enteric nervous system consists of neurons lying in the intramural plexuses of the gastrointestinal tract. It receives inputs from sympathetic and parasympathetic systems, but can act on its own to control the motor and secretory functions of the intestine.

Physiology of the autonomic nervous system

• The autonomic system controls smooth muscle (visceral and vascular), exocrine (and some endocrine) secretions, rate and force of the heart, and certain metabolic processes (e.g. glucose utilisation).

• Sympathetic and parasympathetic systems have opposing actions in some situations (e.g. control of heart rate, gastrointestinal smooth muscle), but not in others (e.g. salivary glands, ciliary muscle).

• Sympathetic activity increases in stress ('fight or flight' response), whereas parasympathetic activity predominates during satiation and repose. Both systems exert a continuous physiological control of specific organs under normal conditions, when the body is at neither extreme.

Transmitters in the Autonomic Nervous System

The two main neurotransmitters that operate in the autonomic system are **acetylcholine** and **noradrenaline**, whose sites of action are shown diagrammatically in Figure 12.2. This diagram also shows the type of postsynaptic receptor with which the transmitters interact at the different sites (discussed more fully in Chs 13 and 14). Some general rules apply:

• All motor nerve fibres leaving the central nervous system release acetylcholine, which acts on *nicotinic receptors* (although in autonomic ganglia a minor component of excitation is due to activation of *muscarinic receptors*; see Ch. 13).

• All postganglionic parasympathetic fibres release acetylcholine, which acts on muscarinic receptors.

• All postganglionic sympathetic fibres (with one important exception) release noradrenaline, which may act on either *α*- or *β-adrenoceptors* (see Ch. 14). The exception is the sympathetic innervation of sweat glands, where transmission is due to acetylcholine acting on muscarinic receptors. In some species, but not humans, vasodilatation in skeletal muscle is produced by cholinergic sympathetic nerve fibres.

Acetylcholine and noradrenaline are the grandees among autonomic transmitters, and are central to understanding autonomic pharmacology. However, many other chemical mediators are also released by autonomic neurons (see below), and their functional significance is gradually becoming clearer.

Transmitters of the autonomic nervous system

• The principal transmitters are **acetylcholine** (ACh) and **noradrenaline**.

• Preganglionic neurons are cholinergic, and ganglionic transmission occurs via nicotinic ACh

receptors (although excitatory muscarinic ACh receptors are also present on postganglionic cells).

• Postganglionic parasympathetic neurons are cholinergic, acting on muscarinic receptors in target organs.

• Postganglionic sympathetic neurons are mainly noradrenergic, although a few are cholinergic (e.g. sweat glands).

• Transmitters other than noradrenaline and acetylcholine (NANC transmitters) are also abundant in the autonomic nervous system. The main ones are nitric oxide and vasoactive intestinal peptide (parasympathetic), ATP and neuropeptide Y (sympathetic). Others, such as 5-hydroxytryptamine, GABA and dopamine, also play a role.

• Cotransmission is a general phenomenon.

Some General Principles of Chemical Transmission

The essential processes in chemical transmission—the release of mediators, and their interaction with receptors on target cells—are described in Chapters 4 and 3, respectively. Here we consider some general characteristics of chemical transmission of particular relevance to pharmacology. Many of these principles apply also to the central nervous system and are taken up again in Chapter 36.

Dale's Principle

▼ Dale's principle, advanced in 1934, states, in its modern form: 'A mature neuron releases the same transmitter (or transmitters) at all of its synapses.' Dale considered it unlikely that a single neuron could store and release different transmitters at different nerve terminals, and his view was supported by physiological and neurochemical evidence. It is now known, however, that there are situations where different

transmitters are released from different terminals of the same neuron. Further, most neurons release more than one transmitter (see Cotransmission, below) and may change their transmitter repertoire, for example during development or in response to injury. Moreover (see Fig. 4.12), the balance of the cocktail of mediators released by a nerve terminal can vary with stimulus conditions, and in response to presynaptic modulators. Dale's principle was, of course, framed long before these complexities were discovered, and it has probably now outlived its usefulness, although purists seem curiously reluctant to let it go.

Denervation Supersensitivity

It is known, mainly from the work of Cannon on the sympathetic system, that if a nerve is cut and its terminals allowed to degenerate, the structure supplied by it becomes supersensitive to the transmitter substance released by the terminals. Thus skeletal muscle, which normally responds to injected acetylcholine only if a large dose is given directly into the arterial blood supply, will, after denervation, respond by contracture to much smaller amounts. Other organs, such as salivary glands and blood vessels, show similar supersensitivity to acetylcholine and noradrenaline when the postganglionic nerves degenerate, and there is evidence that pathways in the central nervous system show the same phenomenon.

▼ Several mechanisms contribute to denervation supersensitivity, and the extent and mechanism of the phenomenon varies from organ to organ. Reported mechanisms include the following (see Luis & Noel, 2009).

• *Proliferation of receptors*. This is particularly marked in skeletal muscle, in which the number of acetylcholine receptors increases 20-fold or

more after denervation; the receptors, normally localised to the endplate region of the fibres, spread over the whole surface. Elsewhere, increases in receptor number are much smaller, or absent altogether.

• *Loss of mechanisms for transmitter removal*. At noradrenergic synapses, the loss of neuronal uptake of noradrenaline (see Ch. 14) contributes substantially to denervation supersensitivity. At cholinergic synapses, a partial loss of cholinesterase occurs (see Ch. 13).

• *Increased postjunctional responsiveness*. Smooth muscle cells become partly depolarised and hyperexcitable after denervation (due in part to reduced Na^+-K^+-ATPase activity; see Ch. 4) and this phenomenon contributes appreciably to their supersensitivity. Increased Ca^{2+} signalling, resulting in enhanced excitation–contraction coupling, may also occur.

Supersensitivity can occur, but is less marked, when transmission is interrupted by processes other than nerve section. Pharmacological block of ganglionic transmission, for example, if sustained for a few days, causes some degree of supersensitivity of the target organs, and long-term blockade of postsynaptic receptors also causes receptors to proliferate, leaving the cell supersensitive when the blocking agent is removed. Phenomena such as this are of importance in the central nervous system, where such supersensitivity can cause ‘rebound’ effects when drugs that impair synaptic transmission are given for some time and then discontinued.

Presynaptic Modulation

The presynaptic terminals that synthesise and release transmitter in response to electrical activity in the nerve fibre are often themselves sensitive to transmitter substances and to other substances that may be produced locally in tissues (for review see Boehm & Kubista, 2002). Such

presynaptic effects most commonly act to inhibit transmitter release, but may enhance it. Figure 12.3A shows the inhibitory effect of adrenaline on the release of acetylcholine (evoked by electrical stimulation) from the postganglionic parasympathetic nerve terminals of the intestine. The release of noradrenaline from nearby sympathetic nerve terminals can also inhibit release of acetylcholine. Noradrenergic and cholinergic nerve terminals often lie close together in the myenteric plexus, so the opposing effects of the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems result not only from the opposite effects of the two transmitters on the smooth muscle cells, but also from the inhibition of acetylcholine release by noradrenaline acting on the parasympathetic nerve terminals. A similar situation of mutual presynaptic inhibition exists in the heart, where noradrenaline inhibits acetylcholine release, as in the myenteric plexus, and acetylcholine also inhibits noradrenaline release. These are examples of *heterotropic interactions*, where one neurotransmitter affects the release of another. *Homotropic interactions* also occur, where the transmitter, by binding to presynaptic autoreceptors, affects the nerve terminals from which it is being released. This type of *autoinhibitory feedback* acts powerfully at noradrenergic nerve terminals (see Starke et al., 1989). Figure 12.3B shows that in normal mice, noradrenaline release from the hippocampus increases only slightly as the number of stimulus trains increases from 1 to 64. In transgenic mice lacking a specific type of presynaptic α_2 adrenoceptor (see Ch. 14), the amount released by the longer stimulus train is greatly increased, though the amount released by a single stimulus is unaffected. This is because with one or a few stimuli, there is no opportunity for autoinhibitory feedback to develop, whereas with longer trains the inhibition operates powerfully. A similar autoinhibitory feedback occurs with many transmitters, including acetylcholine and 5-hydroxytryptamine.

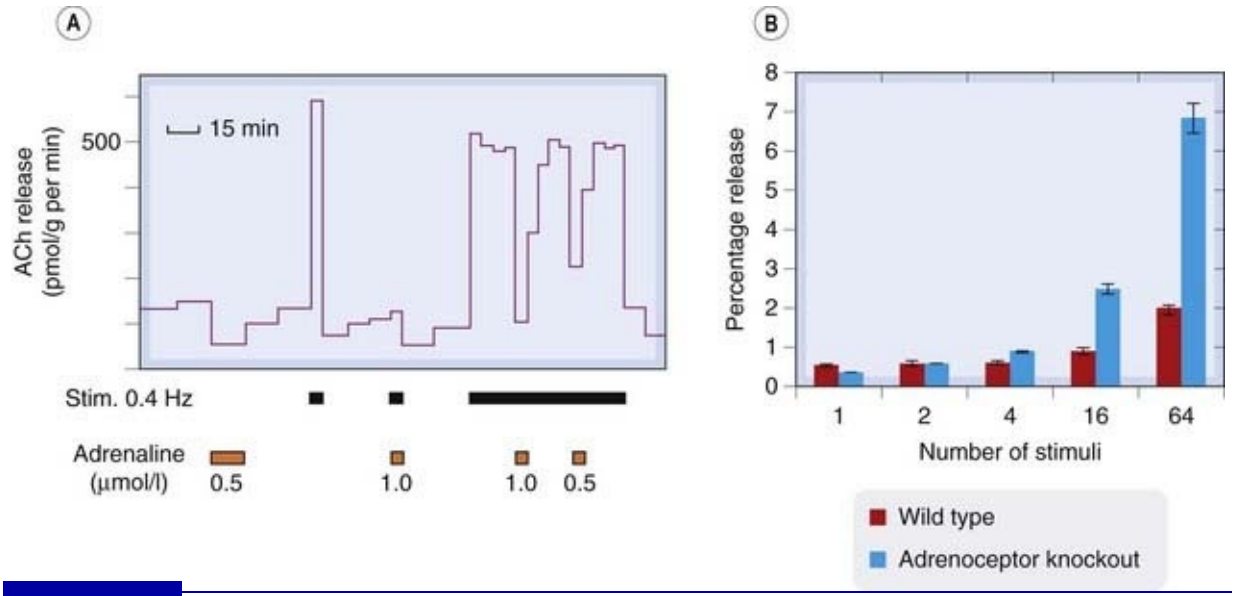


Fig. 12.3 Examples of presynaptic inhibition.

[**A**] Inhibitory effect of adrenaline on acetylcholine (ACh) release from postganglionic parasympathetic nerves in the guinea pig ileum. The intramural nerves were stimulated electrically where indicated, and the ACh released into the bathing fluid determined by bioassay. Adrenaline strongly inhibits ACh release. [**B**] Noradrenaline release from mouse hippocampal slices in response to trains of electrical stimuli. Blue bars show normal (wild type) mice. Red bars show α_2 adrenoceptor knockout mice. The lack of presynaptic autoinhibition in the knockout mice results in a large increase in release with a long stimulus train, but does not affect release by fewer than four stimuli, because the autoinhibition takes a few seconds to develop.

*([**A**] From Vizi E S 1979 Prog Neurobiol 12: 181. [**B**] Redrawn from Trendelenburg et al. 2001 Naunyn Schmiedeberg's Arch Pharmacol 364: 117–130.)*

In both the noradrenergic and cholinergic systems, the presynaptic autoreceptors are pharmacologically distinct from the postsynaptic receptors (see Chs 13 and 14), and there are drugs that act selectively, as agonists or antagonists, on the pre-or postsynaptic receptors.

Cholinergic and noradrenergic nerve terminals respond not only to acetylcholine and noradrenaline, as described above, but also to other substances that are released as cotransmitters, such as ATP and neuropeptide Y (NPY), or derived from other sources, including nitric

oxide, prostaglandins, adenosine, dopamine, 5-hydroxytryptamine, GABA, opioid peptides, endocannabinoids and many other substances. The physiological role and pharmacological significance of these various interactions is still unclear (see review by Vizi, 2001), but the description of the autonomic nervous system represented in Figure 12.2 is undoubtedly oversimplified. Figure 12.4 shows some of the main presynaptic interactions between autonomic neurons, and summarises the many chemical influences that regulate transmitter release from noradrenergic neurons.

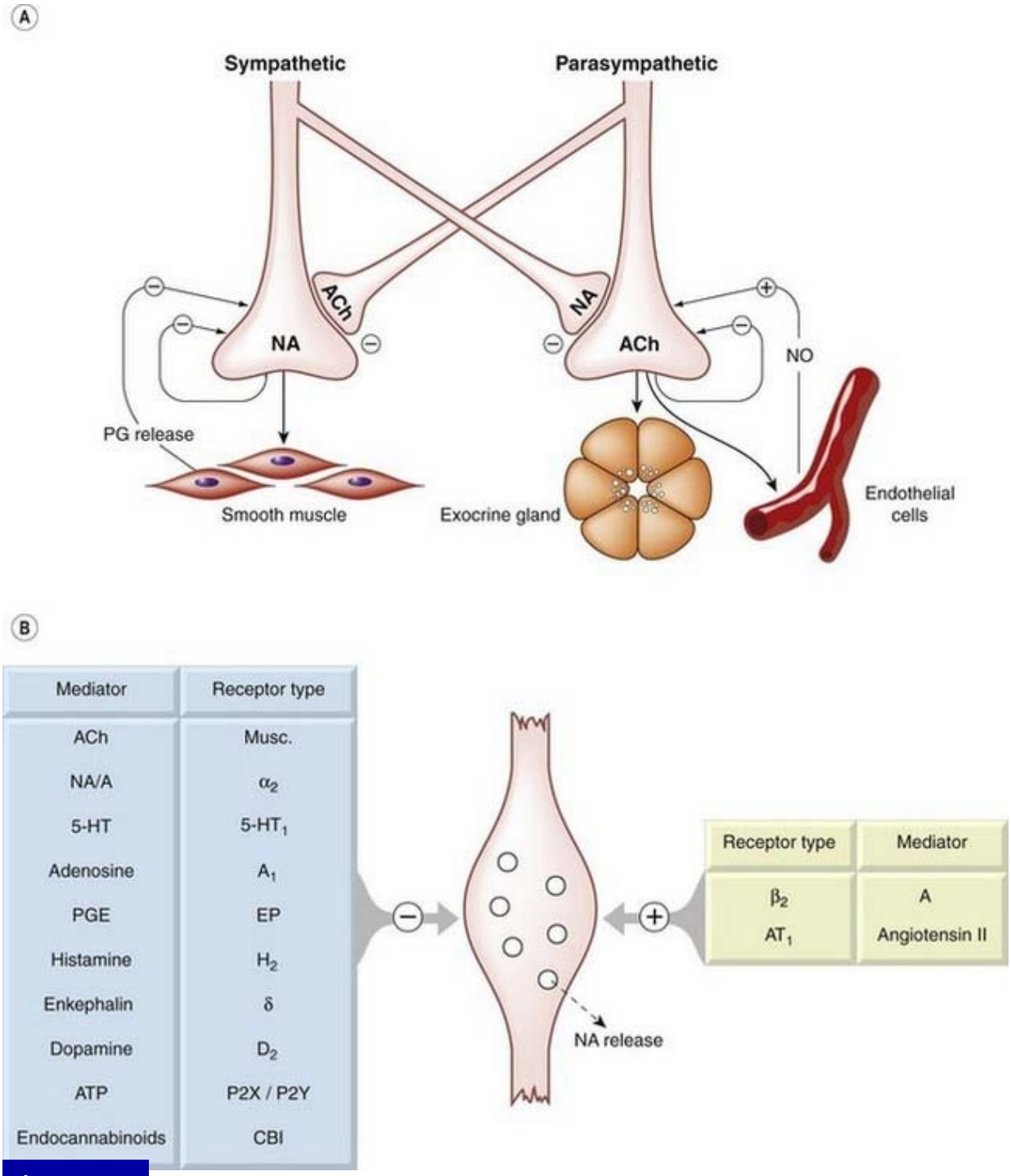


Fig. 12.4 Presynaptic regulation of transmitter release from noradrenergic and cholinergic nerve terminals.

[**A**] Postulated homotropic and heterotropic interactions between sympathetic and parasympathetic nerves. [**B**] Some of the known inhibitory and facilitatory influences on noradrenaline release from sympathetic nerve endings. 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; A, adrenaline; ACh, acetylcholine; NA, noradrenaline; NO, nitric oxide; PG, prostaglandin; PGE,

prostaglandin E.

Presynaptic receptors regulate transmitter release mainly by affecting Ca^{2+} entry into the nerve terminal (see Ch. 4), but also by other mechanisms (see Kubista & Boehm, 2006). Most presynaptic receptors are of the G-protein-coupled type (see Ch. 3), which control the function of calcium channels and potassium channels either through second messengers that regulate the state of phosphorylation of the channel proteins, or by a direct interaction of G-proteins with the channels. Transmitter release is inhibited when calcium channel opening is inhibited, or when potassium channel opening is increased (see Ch. 4); in many cases, both mechanisms operate simultaneously. Presynaptic regulation by receptors linked directly to ion channels (ionotropic receptors; see Ch. 3) rather than to G-proteins also occurs (see Kubista & Boehm, 2006). Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) are particularly important in this respect. They can either facilitate or inhibit the release of other transmitters, such as glutamate (see Ch. 36), and most of the nAChRs expressed in the central nervous system are located presynaptically. Another example is the $GABA_A$ receptor, whose action is to inhibit transmitter release (see Chs 4 and 37). Other ionotropic receptors, such as those activated by ATP and 5-hydroxytryptamine (Chs 15 and 16), may have similar effects on transmitter release.

Postsynaptic Modulation

Chemical mediators often act on postsynaptic structures, including neurons, smooth muscle cells, cardiac muscle cells, etc., in such a way that their excitability or spontaneous firing pattern is altered. In many cases, as with presynaptic modulation, this is caused by changes in calcium and/or potassium channel function mediated by a second messenger. We give only a few examples here.

• The slow excitatory effect produced by various mediators, including acetylcholine and peptides such as **substance P** (see Ch. 19), on many peripheral and central neurons results mainly from a decrease in K^+ permeability. Conversely, the inhibitory effect of various opioids is mainly due to increased K^+ permeability.

• **Benzodiazepine** tranquillisers (Ch. 43) act directly on receptors for GABA (see Ch. 37) to facilitate their inhibitory effect. There is some evidence that drugs such as **galantamine** act similarly on nAChRs to facilitate the excitatory effect of acetylcholine in the brain, which may have relevance for the use of such drugs to treat dementia (see Ch. 39).

• **Neuropeptide Y (NPY)**, which is released as a cotransmitter with noradrenaline at many sympathetic nerve endings and acts on smooth muscle cells to enhance the vasoconstrictor effect of noradrenaline, thus greatly facilitating transmission.

The pre-and postsynaptic effects described above are often described as *neuromodulation*, because the mediator acts to increase or decrease the efficacy of synaptic transmission without participating directly as a transmitter. Many neuropeptides, for example, affect membrane ion channels in such a way as to increase or decrease excitability and thus control the firing pattern of the cell. Neuromodulation[1] is loosely defined but, in general, involves slower processes (taking seconds to days) than neurotransmission (which occurs in milliseconds), and operates through cascades of intracellular messengers (Ch. 3) rather than directly on ligand-gated ion channels.

[1]Recently, this term has been used to embrace a range of experimental therapeutic approaches based on nerve stimulation techniques, which have been claimed to be effective in a variety of neurological disorders such as bladder dysfunction, epilepsy and depression.

Transmitters other than Acetylcholine and Noradrenaline

As mentioned above, acetylcholine or noradrenaline are not the only autonomic transmitters. The rather grudging realisation that this was so dawned many years ago when it was noticed that autonomic transmission in many organs could not be completely blocked by drugs that abolish responses to these transmitters. The dismal but tenacious term *non-adrenergic non-cholinergic* (NANC) transmission was coined. Later, fluorescence and immunocytochemical methods showed that neurons, including autonomic neurons, contain many potential transmitters, often several in the same cell. Compounds now known to function as NANC transmitters include ATP, vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP), NPY and nitric oxide (see Fig. 12.5 and Table 12.2), which function at postganglionic nerve terminals, as well as substance P, 5-hydroxytryptamine, GABA and dopamine, which play a role in ganglionic transmission (see Lundberg, 1996, for a comprehensive review).

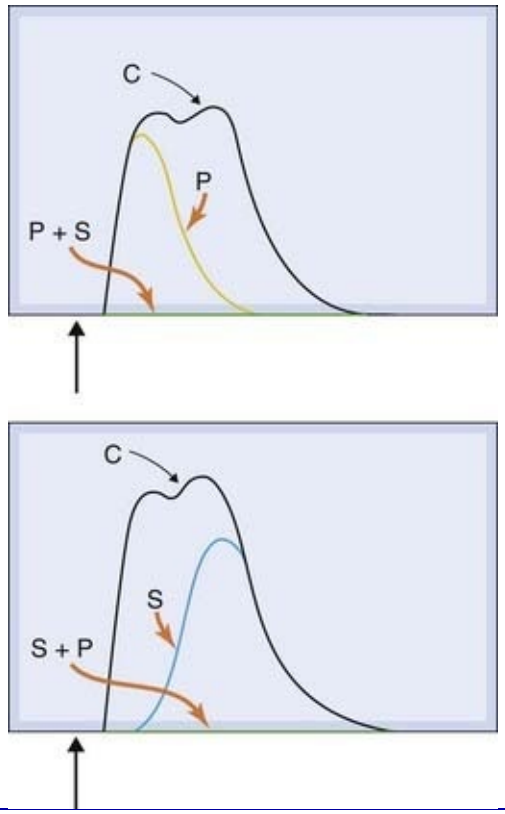


Fig. 12.5 Noradrenaline/ATP cotransmission in the guinea pig vas deferens.

Contractions of the tissue are shown in response to a single electrical stimulus causing excitation of sympathetic nerve endings. With no blocking drugs present, a twin-peaked response is produced (C). The early peak is selectively abolished by the ATP antagonist suramin (S), while the late peak is blocked by the α1-adrenoceptor antagonist prazosin (P). The response is completely eliminated when both drugs are present.

(Reproduced with permission from von Kugelglen & Starke 1991 Trends Pharmacol Sci 12: 319–324.)

Table 12.2 Examples of non-adrenergic non-cholinergic transmitters and cotransmitters in the peripheral nervous system

Transmitter	Location	Function
Non-peptides		
ATP	Postganglionic sympathetic neurons	Fast depolarisation/contraction of smooth muscle cells (e.g. blood vessels, vas deferens)
GABA, 5-hydroxytryptamine	Enteric neurons	Peristaltic reflex

Dopamine	Some sympathetic neurons (e.g. kidney)	Vasodilatation
Nitric oxide	Pelvic nerves	Erection
	Gastric nerves	Gastric emptying
Peptides		
Neuropeptide Y	Postganglionic sympathetic neurons	Facilitates constrictor action of noradrenaline; inhibits noradrenaline release (e.g. blood vessels)
Vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP)	Parasympathetic nerves to salivary glands	Vasodilatation; cotransmitter with acetylcholine
	NANC innervation of airways smooth muscle	Bronchodilatation
Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone	Sympathetic ganglia	Slow depolarisation; cotransmitter with acetylcholine
Substance P	Sympathetic ganglia, enteric neurons	Slow depolarisation; cotransmitter with acetylcholine
Calcitonin gene-related peptide	Non-myelinated sensory neurons	Vasodilatation; vascular leakage; neurogenic inflammation

NANC, non-adrenergic non-cholinergic.

CoTransmission

It is probably the rule rather than the exception that neurons release more than one transmitter or modulator (see Kupfermann, 1991; Lundberg, 1996), each of which interacts with specific receptors and produces effects, often both pre-and postsynaptically. The example of noradrenaline/ATP cotransmission at the sympathetic nerve endings is shown in Figure 12.5, and the best-studied examples and mechanisms are summarised in Table 12.2 and Figures 12.6 and 12.7.

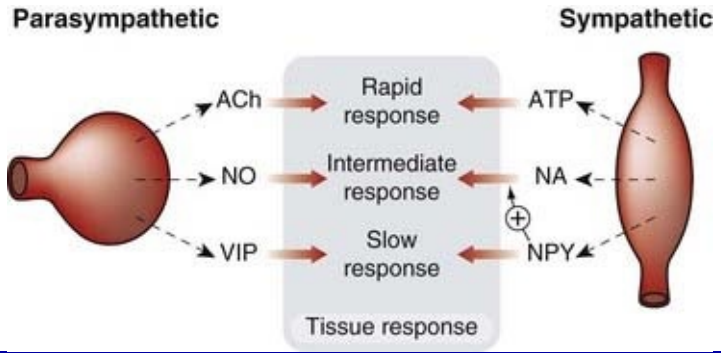


Fig. 12.6 The main cotransmitters at postganglionic parasympathetic and sympathetic neurons.

The different mediators generally give rise to fast, intermediate and slow responses of the target organ. ACh, acetylcholine; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; NA, noradrenaline; NO, nitric oxide; NPY, neuropeptide Y; VIP, vasoactive intestinal peptide.

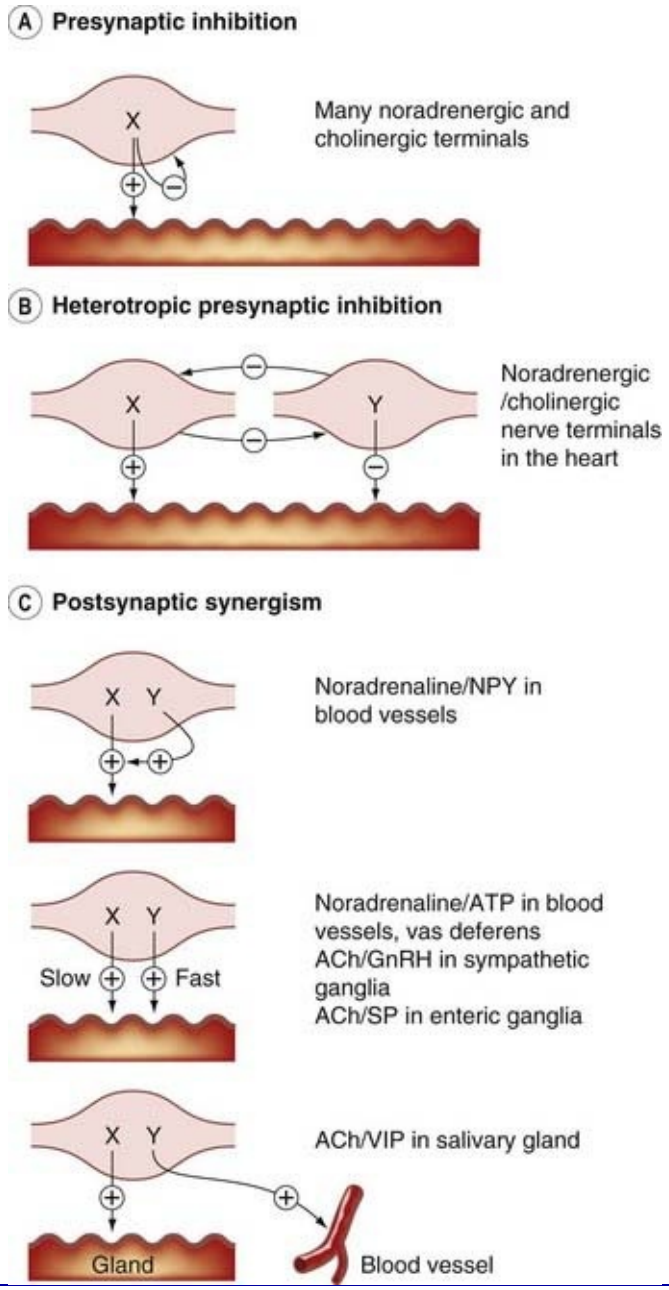


Fig. 12.7 Cotransmission and neuromodulation—some examples.

[**A**] Presynaptic inhibition. [**B**] Heterotropic presynaptic inhibition. [**C**] Postsynaptic synergism. ACh, acetylcholine; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; GnRH, gonadotrophin-releasing hormone (luteinising hormone-releasing hormone); NPY, neuropeptide Y; SP, substance P; VIP, vasoactive intestinal peptide.

What, one might well ask, could be the functional advantage of cotransmission, compared with a single transmitter acting on various

different receptors? The possible advantages include the following.

• One constituent of the cocktail (e.g. a peptide) may be removed or inactivated more slowly than the other (e.g. a monoamine), and therefore reach targets further from the site of release and produce longer-lasting effects. This appears to be the case, for example, with acetylcholine and gonadotrophin-releasing hormone in sympathetic ganglia (Jan & Jan, 1983).

• The balance of the transmitters released may vary under different conditions. At sympathetic nerve terminals, for example, where noradrenaline and NPY are stored in separate vesicles, NPY is preferentially released at high stimulation frequencies, so that differential release of one or other mediator may result from varying impulse patterns. Differential effects of presynaptic modulators are also possible; for example, activation of β-adrenoceptors inhibits ATP release while enhancing noradrenaline release from sympathetic nerve terminals (Gonçalves et al., 1996).

Neuromodulation and presynaptic interactions

• As well as functioning directly as neurotransmitters, chemical mediators may regulate:

  – presynaptic transmitter release

  – neuronal excitability.

• Both are examples of *neuromodulation* and generally involve second messenger regulation of membrane ion channels.

• Presynaptic receptors may inhibit or increase transmitter release, the former being more important.

• Inhibitory *presynaptic autoreceptors* occur on noradrenergic and cholinergic neurons, causing

each transmitter to inhibit its own release (*autoinhibitory feedback*).

• Many endogenous mediators (e.g. GABA, prostaglandins, opioid and other peptides), as well as the transmitters themselves, exert presynaptic control (mainly inhibitory) over autonomic transmitter release.

Termination of Transmitter Action

Chemically transmitting synapses other than the peptidergic variety (Ch. 19) invariably incorporate a mechanism for disposing rapidly of the released transmitter, so that its action remains brief and localised. At cholinergic synapses (Ch. 13), the released acetylcholine is inactivated very rapidly in the synaptic cleft by *acetylcholinesterase*. In most other cases (see Fig. 12.8), transmitter action is terminated by active reuptake into the presynaptic nerve, or into supporting cells such as glia. Such reuptake depends on transporter proteins, each being specific for a particular transmitter. The major class (Na^+-Cl^- co-transporters), whose molecular structure and function are well understood (see Nelson, 1998; Torres et al., 2003, Gether et al., 2006), consists of a family of membrane proteins, each possessing 12 transmembrane helices. Different members of the family show selectivity for each of the main monoamine transmitters (e.g. the noradrenaline [norepinephrine] transporter, NET, the serotonin transporter, SERT, which transports 5-hydroxytryptamine and the dopamine transporter, DAT). These transporters are important targets for psychoactive drugs, particularly antidepressants (Ch. 46), anxiolytic drugs (Ch. 43) and stimulants (Ch. 47). Transporters for glycine and GABA belong to the same family.

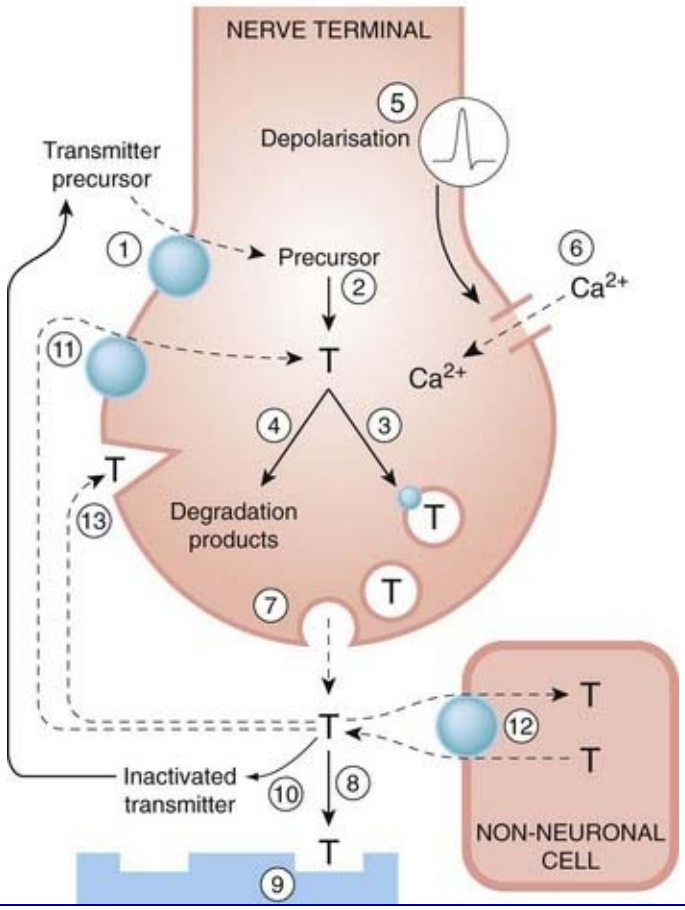


Fig. 12.8 The main processes involved in synthesis, storage and release of amine and amino acid transmitters.

1, Uptake of precursors; 2, synthesis of transmitter; 3, uptake/transport of transmitter into vesicles; 4, degradation of surplus transmitter; 5, depolarisation by propagated action potential; 6, influx of Ca^{2+} in response to depolarisation; 7, release of transmitter by exocytosis; 8, diffusion to postsynaptic membrane; 9, interaction with postsynaptic receptors; 10, inactivation of transmitter; 11, reuptake of transmitter or degradation products by nerve terminals; 12, uptake of transmitter by non-neuronal cells; and 13, interaction with presynaptic receptors. The transporters (11 and 12) can release transmitter under certain conditions by working in reverse. These processes are well characterised for many transmitters (e.g. acetylcholine, monoamines, amino acids, ATP). Peptide mediators (see Ch. 19) differ in that they may be synthesised and packaged in the cell body rather than the terminals.

Vesicular transporters (Ch. 4), which load synaptic vesicles with transmitter molecules, are closely related to the membrane transporters. Membrane transporters usually act as co-transporters of Na^+, Cl^- and transmitter molecules, and it is the inwardly directed ‘downhill’ gradient

for Na^+ that provides the energy for the inward 'uphill' movement of the transmitter. The simultaneous transport of ions along with the transmitter means that the process generates a net current across the membrane, which can be measured directly and used to monitor the transport process. Very similar mechanisms are responsible for other physiological transport processes, such as glucose uptake (Ch. 30) and renal tubular transport of amino acids. Because it is the electrochemical gradient for sodium that drives the inward transport of transmitter molecules, a reduction of this gradient can reduce or even reverse the flow of transmitter. This is probably not important under normal conditions, but when the nerve terminals are depolarised or abnormally loaded with sodium (e.g. in ischaemic conditions), the resulting non-vesicular release of transmitter (and inhibition of the normal synaptic reuptake mechanism) may play a significant role in the effects of ischaemia on tissues such as heart and brain (see Chs 21 and 39). Studies with transgenic 'knockout' mice (see Torres et al., 2003) show that the store of releasable transmitter is substantially depleted in animals lacking the membrane transporter, showing that synthesis is unable to maintain the store if the recapture mechanism is disabled. As with receptors (see Ch. 3), many genetic polymorphisms of transporter genes occur in humans, which raised hopes of finding associations with various neurological, cardiovascular and psychiatric disorders. But despite intensive research efforts, the links have so far remained elusive (see Lin & Madras, 2006).

As we shall see in subsequent chapters, both membrane and vesicular transporters are targets for various drug effects, and defining the physiological role and pharmacological properties of these molecules is the focus of much current research.

Basic Steps in Neurochemical Transmission: Sites of Drug

Action

Figure 12.8 summarises the main processes that occur in a classical chemically transmitting synapse, and provides a useful basis for understanding the actions of the many different classes of drug, discussed in later chapters, that act by facilitating or blocking neurochemical transmission.

All the steps shown in Figure 12.8 (except for transmitter diffusion, step 8) can be influenced by drugs. For example, the enzymes involved in synthesis or inactivation of the transmitter can be inhibited, as can the transport systems responsible for the neuronal and vesicular uptake of the transmitter or its precursor. The actions of the great majority of drugs that act on the peripheral nervous system (Chs 13 and 14) and the central nervous system fit into this general scheme.

References and Further Reading

General references

acq Z.M. *Chemical transmission of nerve impulses: a historical sketch*. Oxford: Pergamon Press; 1975. (*Lively account of the history of the discovery of chemical transmission*)

urnstock G. Autonomic neurotransmission: 60 years since Sir Henry Dale. *Ann. Rev. Pharmacol.*. 2009;49:1-30. (*Elegant and well-illustrated account of many of the topics discussed in this chapter. Recommended*)

ooper J.C., Bloom F.E., Roth R.H. *The biochemical basis of neuropharmacology*, eighth ed. New York: Oxford University Press; 2003. (*Excellent general account covering a broad area of neuropharmacology*)

oyal R.K., Hirano I. The enteric nervous system. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1996;334:1106-1115. (*Excellent review article*)

ánig W., McLachlan E.M. Characteristics of function-specific pathways in the sympathetic nervous

system. *Trends Neurosci.*. 1992;15:475-481. (*Short article emphasising that the sympathetic system is far from being an all-or-none alarm system*)

uis E.M.Q., Noel F. Mechanisms of adaptive supersensitivity in vas deferens. *Auton. Neurosci.*. 2009;146:38-46. (*Summarises mechanisms contributing to denervation supersensitivity in a typical organ supplied by the sympathetic nervous system*)

obertson D.W., editor. Primer on the autonomic nervous system. New York: Academic Press, 2004. (*An excellent comprehensive textbook on all aspects, including pharmacology, of the autonomic nervous system. By no means elementary despite its title*)

alenstein E.S. *The war of the soups and the sparks*. New York: Columbia University Press; 2005. (*Readable and informative account of origins of the theory of chemical transmission*)

Presynaptic modulation

oehm S., Kubista H. Fine tuning of sympathetic transmitter release via ionotropic and metabotropic receptors. *Pharm. Rev.*. 2002;54:43-99. (*Comprehensive review of presynaptic modulation, focusing on sympathetic neurons though mechanisms are widespread*)

onçalves J., Bueltmann R., Driessen B. Opposite modulation of cotransmitter release in guinea-pig vas deferens: increase of noradrenaline and decrease of ATP release by activation of prejunctional β-receptors. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch. Pharmacol.*. 1996;353:184-192. (*Shows that presynaptic regulation can affect specific transmitters in different ways*)

ubista H., Boehm S. Molecular mechanisms underlying the modulation of exocytotic noradrenaline release via presynaptic receptors. *Pharm. Ther.*. 2006;112:213-242. (*Describes the wide variety of mechanisms by which presynaptic receptors affect transmitter release*)

tarke K., Gothert M., Kilbinger H. Modulation of neurotransmitter release by presynaptic autoreceptors. *Physiol. Rev.*. 1989;69:864-989. (*Comprehensive review article*)

Cotransmission

an Y.N., Jan L.Y. A LHRH-like peptidergic neurotransmitter capable of 'action at a distance' in autonomic ganglia. *Trends Neurosci.*. 1983;6:320-325. (*Electrophysiological analysis of cotransmission*)

upfermann I. Functional studies of cotransmission. *Physiol. Rev.*. 1991;71:683-732. (*Good review article*)

undberg J.M. Pharmacology of cotransmission in the autonomic nervous system: integrative aspects on amines, neuropeptides, adenosine triphosphate, amino acids and nitric oxide. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 1996;48:114-192. (*Detailed and informative review article*)

Transporters

ether U., Andersen P.H., Larsson O.M., *et al.* Neurotransmitter transporters: molecular function of important drug targets. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2006;27:375-383. (*Useful short review article*)

in Z., Madras B.K. Human genetics and pharmacology of monoamine transporters. In: Sitte, H.H., Freissmuth, M. (Eds.), Neurotransmitter transporters. Handb. Exp. Pharmacol. 175:2006:327-371 (*Summarises evidence of linkage between transporter polymorphisms and human disease—complex and unclear so far*)

elson N. The family of Na^+/Cl^- neurotransmitter transporters. *J. Neurochem.*. 1998;71:1785-1803. (*Review article describing the molecular characteristics of the different families of neurotransporters*)

orres G.E., Gainetdinov R.R., Caron M.G. Plasma membrane monoamine transporters: structure, regulation and function. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2003;4:13-25. (*Describes molecular, physiological and pharmacological aspects of transporters*)

izi E.S. Role of high-affinity receptors and membrane transporters in non-synaptic communication and drug action in the central nervous system. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2001;52:63-89. (*Comprehensive review on pharmacological relevance of presynaptic receptors and transporters; useful for reference*)

13

Cholinergic transmission

Overview

This chapter is concerned mainly with cholinergic transmission in the periphery, and the ways in which drugs affect it. Here we describe the different types of acetylcholine (ACh) receptors and their functions, as well as the synthesis and release of ACh. Drugs that act on ACh receptors, many of which have clinical uses, are described in this chapter. Cholinergic mechanisms in the central nervous system (CNS) and their relevance to dementia are discussed in Chapters 38 and 39.

Muscarinic and Nicotinic Actions of Acetylcholine

▼ The discovery of the pharmacological action of ACh came, paradoxically, from work on adrenal glands, extracts of which were known to produce a rise in blood pressure owing to their content of adrenaline (epinephrine). In 1900, Reid Hunt found that after adrenaline had been removed from such extracts, they produced a fall in blood pressure instead of a rise. He attributed the fall to the presence of choline, but later concluded that a more potent derivative of choline must be responsible. With Taveau, he tested a number of choline derivatives and discovered that ACh was some 100 000 times more active than choline in lowering the rabbit's blood pressure. The physiological role of ACh was not apparent at that time, and it remained a pharmacological curiosity until Loewi and Dale and their colleagues

discovered its transmitter role in the 1930s.

Analysing the pharmacological actions of ACh in 1914, Dale distinguished two types of activity, which he designated as *muscarinic* and *nicotinic* because they mimicked, respectively, the effects of injecting **muscarine**, the active principle of the poisonous mushroom *Amanita muscaria*, and of injecting **nicotine**. Muscarinic actions closely resemble the effects of parasympathetic stimulation, as shown in Table 12.1. After the muscarinic effects have been blocked by **atropine**, larger doses of ACh produce nicotine-like effects, which include:

- stimulation of all autonomic ganglia
- stimulation of voluntary muscle
- secretion of adrenaline from the adrenal medulla.

The muscarinic and nicotinic actions of ACh are demonstrated in Figure 13.1. Small and medium doses of ACh produce a transient fall in blood pressure due to arteriolar vasodilatation and slowing of the heart —muscarinic effects that are abolished by atropine. A large dose of ACh given after atropine produces nicotinic effects: an initial rise in blood pressure due to a stimulation of sympathetic ganglia and consequent vasoconstriction, and a secondary rise resulting from secretion of adrenaline.

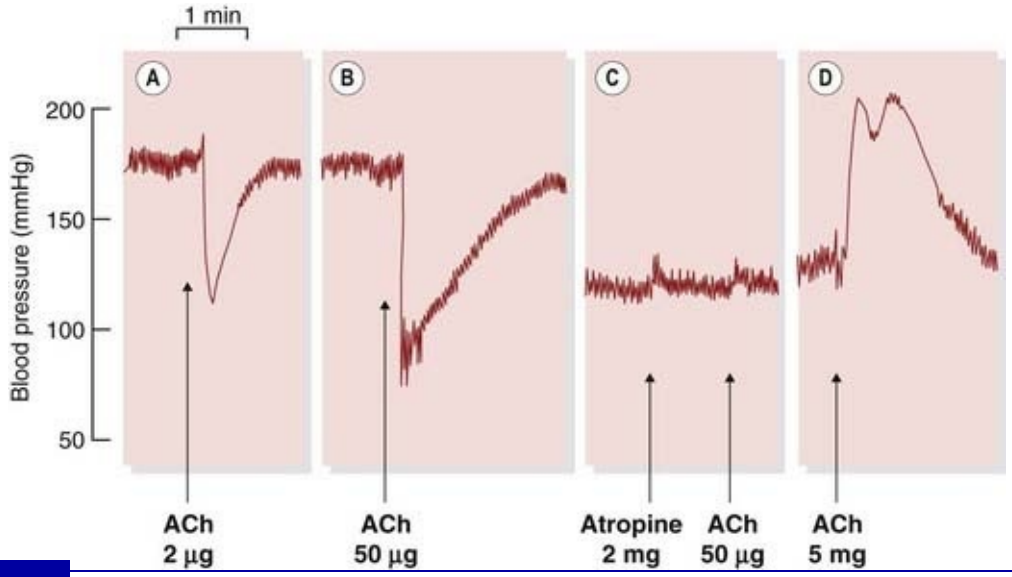


Fig. 13.1 Dale's experiment showing that acetylcholine (ACh) produces two kinds of effect on the cat's blood pressure.

Arterial pressure was recorded with a mercury manometer from a spinal cat. [**A**] ACh causes a fall in blood pressure due to vasodilatation. [**B**] A larger dose also produces bradycardia. Both [**A**] and [**B**] are muscarinic effects. [**C**] After atropine (muscarinic antagonist), the same dose of ACh has no effect. [**D**] Still under the influence of atropine, a much larger dose of ACh causes a rise in blood pressure (due to stimulation of sympathetic ganglia), accompanied by tachycardia, followed by a secondary rise (due to release of adrenaline from the adrenal gland). These effects result from its action on nicotinic receptors.

(From Burn J H 1963 Autonomic pharmacology. Blackwell, Oxford.)

Dale's pharmacological classification corresponds closely to the main physiological functions of ACh in the body. The muscarinic actions correspond to those of ACh released at postganglionic parasympathetic nerve endings, with two significant exceptions:

1 Acetylcholine causes generalised vasodilatation, even though most blood vessels have no parasympathetic innervation. This is an indirect effect: ACh (like many other mediators) acts on vascular endothelial cells to release **nitric oxide** (see Ch. 20), which relaxes smooth muscle. The physiological function of this is uncertain, because ACh is not normally present in circulating blood.

2 Acetylcholine evokes secretion from sweat glands, which are innervated by cholinergic fibres of the sympathetic nervous system (see Table 12.1).

The nicotinic actions correspond to those of ACh acting on autonomic ganglia of the sympathetic and parasympathetic systems, the motor endplate of voluntary muscle and the secretory cells of the adrenal medulla.

Acetylcholine Receptors

Although Dale himself dismissed the concept of receptors as sophistry rather than science, his functional classification provided the basis for distinguishing the two major classes of ACh receptor (see Ch. 3).

Nicotinic Receptors

Nicotinic ACh receptors (nAChRs) fall into three main classes, the muscle, ganglionic and CNS types, whose subunit compositions are summarised in Table 13.1. Muscle receptors are confined to the skeletal neuromuscular junction; ganglionic receptors are responsible for transmission at sympathetic and parasympathetic ganglia; and CNS-type receptors are widespread in the brain, and are heterogeneous with respect to their molecular composition and location (see Ch. 38).

Table 13.1 Nicotinic receptor subtypes[a]

	Muscle type	Ganglion type	CNS types		Notes
Main molecular form	$(\alpha1)_2\beta1\delta\varepsilon$ (adult form)	$(\alpha3)_2(\beta2)_3$	$(\alpha4)_2(\beta2)_3$	$(\alpha7)_5$	—
Main synaptic location	Skeletal neuromuscular junction: mainly postsynaptic	Autonomic ganglia: mainly postsynaptic	Many brain regions: pre- and postsynaptic	Many brain regions: pre- and postsynaptic	—
Membrane response	Excitatory. Increased cation permeability (mainly Na^+, K^+)	Excitatory. Increased cation permeability (mainly Na^+, K^+)	Pre- and postsynaptic excitation. Increased cation permeability (mainly Na^+, K^+)	Pre- and postsynaptic excitation. Increased cation permeability	$(\alpha7)_5$ receptor produces large Ca^{2+} entry, evoking transmitter release
Agonists	Acetylcholine Carbachol Succinylcholine	Acetylcholine Carbachol Nicotine Epibatidine Dimethylphenyl-piperazinium	Nicotine Epibatidine Acetylcholine Cytosine Varenicline[b]	Epibatidine Dimethylphenyl-piperazinium Varenicline[b]	$(\alpha4)_2(\beta2)_3$ is main brain 'nicotine receptor' See Ch. 38
Antagonists	Tubocurarine Pancuronium Atracurium Vecuronium α-Bungarotoxin α-Conotoxin	Mecamylamine Trimetaphan Hexamethonium α-Conotoxin	Mecamylamine Methylaconitine	α-Bungarotoxin α-Conotoxin Methylaconitine	

[a] This table shows only the main subtypes expressed in mammalian tissues. Several other subtypes are expressed in selected brain regions, and also in the peripheral nervous system and in non-neuronal tissues. For further details, see Ch. 38 and reviews by Dajas-Bailador & Wonnacott (2004) and Kalamida et al. (2007).
[b] Varenicline is a recently introduced drug for smoking cessation. It acts as a partial agonist on $(\alpha4)_2(\beta2)_3$ receptors and a full agonist on $(\alpha7)_5$ receptors (see Ch. 48).

▼ All nAChRs are pentameric structures that function as ligand-gated ion channels (see Ch. 3). The five subunits that form the receptor–channel complex are similar in structure, and so far 17 different members of the family have been identified and cloned, designated α (10 types), β (4 types), γ, δ and ε (one of each). The five subunits each possess four membrane-spanning helical domains, and one of these helices (M_2) from each subunit defines the central pore (see Ch. 3). nAChR subtypes generally contain both α and β subunits, the exception being the homomeric $(\alpha7)_5$ subtype found mainly in the brain (Ch. 38). The adult muscle receptor has the composition $(\alpha1)_2/\beta1\varepsilon\delta$, while the main ganglionic subtype is $(\alpha3)_2(\beta2)_3$. The two binding sites for ACh (both of which need to be occupied to cause the channel to open) reside at the interface between the extracellular domain of each of the α subunits and its neighbour. The diversity of the nAChR family (for

details see Hogg et al., 2003 and Kalamida et al., 2007), which emerged from cloning studies in the 1980s, took pharmacologists somewhat by surprise. Although they knew that the neuromuscular and ganglionic synapses differed pharmacologically, and suspected that cholinergic synapses in the CNS might be different again, the molecular diversity goes far beyond this, and its functional significance is only slowly emerging.

The different action of agonists and antagonists on neuromuscular, ganglionic and brain synapses is of practical importance and mainly reflects the differences between the muscle and neuronal nAChRs (Table 13.1).

Muscarinic Receptors

Muscarinic receptors (mAChRs) are typical G-protein-coupled receptors (see Ch. 3), and five molecular subtypes (M_1–M_5) are known (see Wess, 1996). The odd-numbered members of the group (M_1, M_3, M_5) couple with G_q to activate the inositol phosphate pathway (Ch. 3), while the even-numbered receptors (M_2, M_4) act through G_i to inhibit adenylyl cyclase and thus reduce intracellular cAMP (see Goyal, 1989). Both groups activate the MAP kinase pathway. The location and pharmacology of these subtypes are summarized in Table 13.2.

Table 13.2 Muscarinic receptor subtypes[a]

	M_1 ('neural')	M_2 ('cardiac')	M_3 ('glandular/ smooth muscle')	M_4	M_5
Main locations	Autonomic ganglia Glands: gastric, salivary, lacrimal, etc. Cerebral cortex	Heart: atria CNS: widely distributed	Exocrine glands: gastric, salivary, etc. Smooth muscle: gastrointestinal tract, eye, airways, bladder Blood vessels: endothelium	CNS	CNS: very localised expression in substantia nigra Salivary glands Iris/ciliary muscle
Cellular response	↑ IP_3, DAG Depolarisation Excitation (slow epsp) ↓ K^+ conductance	↓ cAMP Inhibition ↓ Ca^{2+} conductance ↑ K^+ conductance	↑ IP_3 Stimulation ↑ $[Ca^{2+}]_i$	↓ cAMP Inhibition	↑ IP_3 Excitation
Functional response	CNS excitation (? improved cognition) Gastric secretion	Cardiac inhibition Neural inhibition Central muscarinic effects (e.g. tremor, hypothermia)	Gastric, salivary secretion Gastrointestinal smooth muscle contraction Ocular accommodation Vasodilatation	Enhanced locomotion	Not known
Non-selective agonists (see also Table 13.3)	Acetylcholine Carbachol Oxotremorine Pilocarpine **Bethanechol**				
Selective agonists	McNA343		**Cevimeline**		
Non-selective antagonists (see also Table 13.5)	**Atropine** **Dicycloverine** **Tolterodine** **Oxybutynin** **Ipratropium**				
Selective antagonists	**Pirenzepine** Mamba toxin MT7	Gallamine (see p. 164)	**Darifenacin**	Mamba toxin MT3	

*This table shows only the predominant subtypes expressed in mammalian tissues. For further details, see Ch. 38 and reviews by Caulfield & Birdsall (1998) and Kalamida et al. (2007).
CNS, central nervous system; DAG, diacylglycerol; epsp, excitatory postsynaptic potential; IP_3, inositol trisphosphate.
Drugs in clinical use are shown in **bold**.

M_1 receptors ('neural') are found mainly on CNS and peripheral neurons and on gastric parietal cells. They mediate excitatory effects, for example the slow muscarinic excitation mediated by ACh in sympathetic ganglia (Ch. 12) and central neurons. This excitation is produced by a decrease in K^+ conductance, which causes membrane depolarisation. Deficiency of this kind of ACh-mediated effect in the brain is possibly associated with dementia (see Ch. 39), although transgenic M_1 receptor knockout mice show only slight cognitive impairment (see Wess et al., 2007). M_1 receptors are also involved in the increase of gastric acid secretion following vagal stimulation (see Ch. 29).

M_2 receptors ('cardiac') occur in the heart, and also on the presynaptic terminals of peripheral and central neurons. They exert inhibitory effects, mainly by increasing K^+ conductance and by inhibiting calcium channels (see Ch. 4). M_2 receptor activation is responsible for cholinergic inhibition of the heart, as well as presynaptic inhibition in the CNS and periphery (Ch. 12). They are also co-expressed with M_3 receptors in visceral smooth muscle, and contribute to the smooth-muscle-stimulating effect of muscarinic agonists in several organs.

M_3 receptors ('glandular/smooth muscle') produce mainly excitatory effects, *i.e.* stimulation of glandular secretions (salivary, bronchial, sweat, etc.) and contraction of visceral smooth muscle. M_3 receptors also mediate relaxation of smooth muscle (mainly vascular), which results from the release of nitric oxide from neighbouring endothelial cells (Ch. 20). M_1, M_2 and M_3 receptors occur also in specific locations in the CNS (see Ch. 38).

M_4 and M_5 receptors are largely confined to the CNS, and their functional role is not well understood, although mice lacking these receptors do show behavioural changes (Wess et al., 2007). Recently it has been discovered that cytokine secretion from lymphocytes and other cells is regulated by M_1 and M_3 receptors, while M_2 and M_4 receptors affect cell proliferation in various situations, opening up hitherto unsuspected therapeutic roles for muscarine receptor ligands (see Wessler & Kirkpatrick, 2008).

The agonist binding region is highly conserved between the different subtypes, so attempts to develop selective agonists and antagonists have had limited success. Most known agonists are non-selective, though two experimental compounds, **McNA343** and **oxotremorine**, are selective for M_1 receptors, on which **carbachol** is relatively inactive. Other M_1

selective agents (e.g. **xanomeline**) are in development as possible treatments for dementia.[1]

[1]**Cevimeline** was recently introduced to improve salivary and lacrimal secretion in Sjögren's disease, a rare autoimmune disease causing loss of parasympathetic effects.

There is more selectivity among antagonists. Although most of the classic muscarinic antagonists (e.g. **atropine**, **hyoscine**) are non-selective, **pirenzepine** is selective for M_1 receptors, and **darifenacin** for M_2 receptors. **Gallamine**, better known as a neuromuscular-blocking drug (see p. 164), is also a selective, although weak, M_2 receptor antagonist.[2] Recently, toxins from the venom of the green mamba have been discovered to be highly selective mAChR antagonists (see Table 13.2), as well as various synthetic compounds with some degree of selectivity (see Eglen et al., 1999, for more details). Compounds that have recently been approved for clinical use are described below (p. 160).

Acetylcholine receptors

• Main subdivision is into nicotinic (nAChR) and muscarinic (mAChR) subtypes.

• nAChRs are directly coupled to cation channels, and mediate fast excitatory synaptic transmission at the neuromuscular junction, autonomic ganglia and various sites in the central nervous system (CNS). Muscle and neuronal nAChRs differ in their molecular structure and pharmacology.

• mAChRs and nAChRs occur presynaptically as well as postsynaptically, and function to regulate transmitter release.

• mAChRs are G-protein-coupled receptors causing:

– activation of phospholipase C (hence formation of inositol trisphosphate and

diacylglycerol as second messengers)

– inhibition of adenylyl cyclase

– activation of potassium channels or inhibition of calcium channels.

• mAChRs mediate acetylcholine effects at postganglionic parasympathetic synapses (mainly heart, smooth muscle and glands), and contribute to ganglionic excitation. They occur in many parts of the CNS.

• Three main types of mAChR occur:

– M_1 receptors ('neural') producing slow excitation of ganglia. They are selectively blocked by **pirenzepine**.

– M_2 receptors ('cardiac') causing decrease in cardiac rate and force of contraction (mainly of atria). They are selectively blocked by **gallamine**. M_2 receptors also mediate presynaptic inhibition.

– M_3 receptors ('glandular') causing secretion, contraction of visceral smooth muscle, vascular relaxation. **Cevimeline** is a selective M_3 agonist.

• Two further molecular mAChR subtypes, M_4 and M_5, occur mainly in the CNS.

• All mAChRs are activated by acetylcholine and blocked by **atropine**. There are also subtype-selective agonists and antagonists.

Physiology of Cholinergic Transmission

[2]Unlike most other antagonists, gallamine acts *allosterically* (i.e. at a site distinct from the ACh binding site).

The physiology of cholinergic neurotransmission[3] is described in detail by Nicholls *et al.* (2001). The main ways in which drugs can affect cholinergic transmission are shown in Figure 13.2.

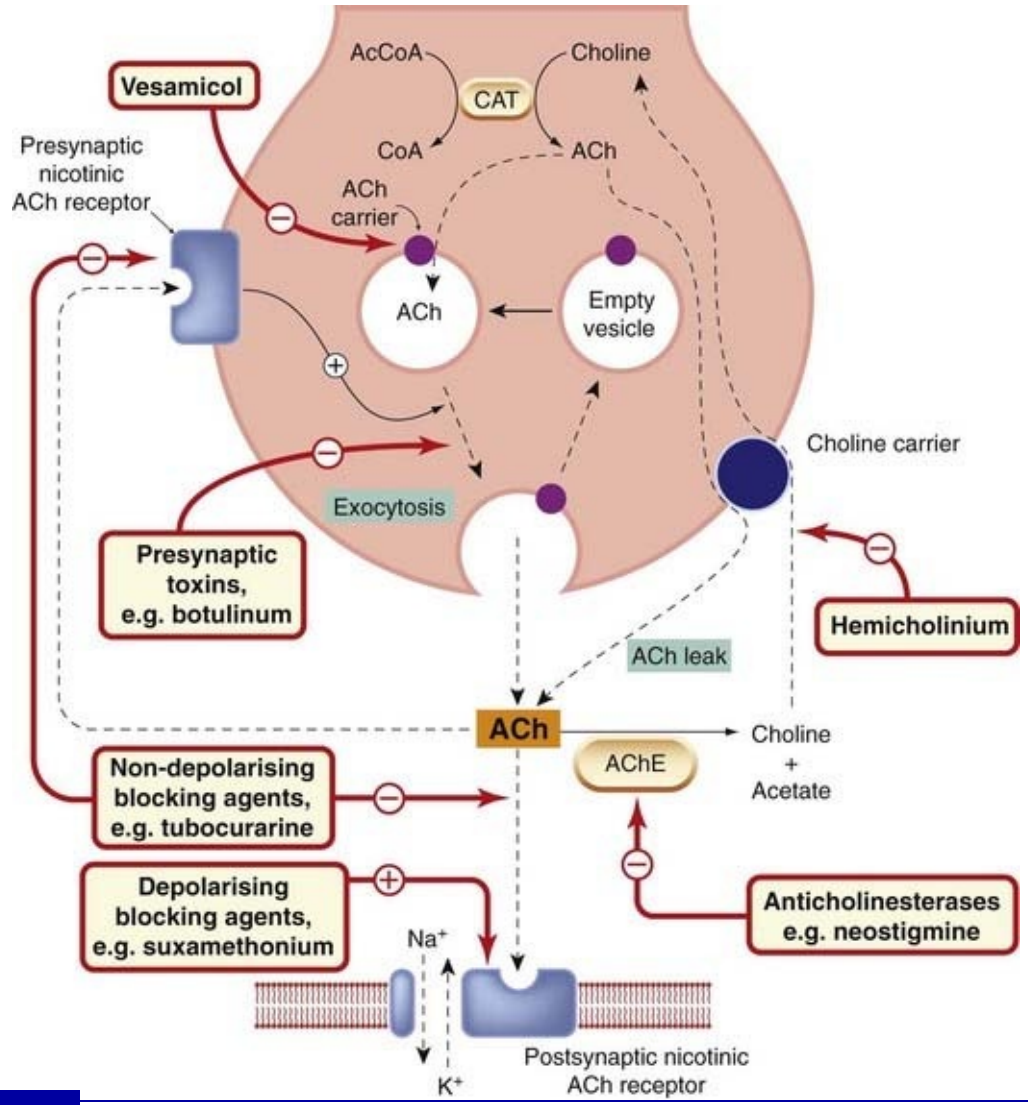


Fig. 13.2 Events and sites of drug action at a nicotinic cholinergic synapse.

Acetylcholine (ACh) is shown acting postsynaptically on a nicotinic receptor controlling a cation channel (e.g. at the neuromuscular or ganglionic synapse), and also on a presynaptic nicotinic receptor that acts to facilitate ACh release during sustained synaptic activity. The nerve terminal also contains acetylcholinesterase (not shown); when this is inhibited, the amount of free ACh, and the rate of leakage of ACh via the choline carrier, is increased. Under normal conditions, this leakage of ACh is insignificant. At muscarinic cholinergic junctions (e.g. heart, smooth muscle and exocrine glands), both postsynaptic and presynaptic (inhibitory) receptors are of the muscarinic type. AcCoA, acetyl coenzyme A; AChE, acetylcholinesterase; CAT, choline acetyltransferase; CoA, coenzyme A.

Acetylcholine Synthesis and Release

[3]Acetylcholine is synthesised, stored and released by many non-neuronal

cells, such as epithelia and cells of the immune system. The regulatory and trophic functions of non-neuronal ACh are a current topic of investigation (see Wessler & Kirkpatrick, 2008).

Acetylcholine metabolism is well reviewed by Parsons *et al.* (1993). ACh is synthesised within the nerve terminal from choline, which is taken up into the nerve terminal by a specific transporter (Ch. 12), similar to that which operates for many transmitters. The difference is that it transports the precursor, choline, not ACh, so it is not important in terminating the action of the transmitter. The concentration of choline in the blood and body fluids is normally about 10 μmol/l, but in the immediate vicinity of cholinergic nerve terminals it increases, probably to about 1 mmol/l, when the released ACh is hydrolysed, and more than 50% of this choline is normally recaptured by the nerve terminals. Free choline within the nerve terminal is acetylated by a cytosolic enzyme, *choline acetyltransferase* (CAT), which transfers the acetyl group from acetyl coenzyme A. The rate-limiting process in ACh synthesis appears to be choline transport, the activity of which is regulated according to the rate at which ACh is being released. *Cholinesterase* is present in the presynaptic nerve terminals, and ACh is continually being hydrolysed and resynthesised. Inhibition of the nerve terminal cholinesterase causes the accumulation of 'surplus' ACh in the cytosol, which is not available for release by nerve impulses (although it is able to leak out via the choline carrier). Most of the ACh synthesised, however, is packaged into synaptic vesicles, in which its concentration is very high (about 100 mmol/l), and from which release occurs by exocytosis triggered by Ca^{2+} entry into the nerve terminal (see Ch. 4).

Cholinergic vesicles accumulate ACh actively, by means of a specific transporter (see Usdin et al., 1995) belonging to the family of amine transporters described in Chapter 12. Accumulation of ACh is coupled to

the large electrochemical gradient for protons that exists between intracellular organelles and the cytosol; it is blocked selectively by the experimental drug **vesamicol** (see Parsons et al., 1993). Following its release, the ACh diffuses across the synaptic cleft to combine with receptors on the postsynaptic cell. Some of it succumbs on the way to hydrolysis by *acetylcholinesterase* (AChE), an enzyme that is bound to the basement membrane, which lies between the pre-and postsynaptic membranes. At fast cholinergic synapses (e.g. the neuromuscular and ganglionic synapses), but not at slow ones (smooth muscle, gland cells, heart, etc.), the released ACh is hydrolysed very rapidly (within 1 ms), so that it acts only very briefly.

▼ At the neuromuscular junction, which is a highly specialised synapse, a single nerve impulse releases about 300 synaptic vesicles (altogether about three million ACh molecules) from the nerve terminals supplying a single muscle fibre, which contain altogether about three million synaptic vesicles. Approximately two million ACh molecules combine with receptors, of which there are about 30 million on each muscle fibre, the rest being hydrolysed without reaching a receptor. The ACh molecules remain bound to receptors for, on average, about 2 ms, and are quickly hydrolysed after dissociating, so that they cannot combine with a second receptor. The result is that transmitter action is very rapid and very brief, which is important for a synapse that has to initiate speedy muscular responses, and that may have to transmit signals faithfully at high frequency. Muscle cells are much larger than neurons and require much more synaptic current to generate an action potential. Thus all the chemical events happen on a larger scale than at a neuronal synapse; the number of transmitter molecules in a quantum, the number of quanta released, and the number of receptors activated by each quantum are all 10–100 times greater. Our brains would be huge,

but not very clever, if their synapses were built on the industrial scale of the neuromuscular junction.

Presynaptic Modulation

Acetylcholine release is regulated by mediators, including ACh itself, acting on presynaptic receptors, as discussed in Chapter 12. At postganglionic parasympathetic nerve endings, inhibitory M_2 receptors participate in autoinhibition of ACh release; other mediators, such as noradrenaline, also inhibit the release of ACh (see Ch. 12). At the neuromuscular junction, on the other hand, presynaptic nAChRs facilitate ACh release (see Prior et al., 1995), a mechanism that may allow the synapse to function reliably during prolonged high-frequency activity. In the brain (see review by Dajas-Bailador & Wonnacott, 2004), most of the nAChRs are located presynaptically and serve to facilitate or inhibit the release of other mediators, such as glutamate and dopamine.

Electrical Events in Transmission at Fast Cholinergic Synapses

Acetylcholine, acting on the postsynaptic membrane of a nicotinic (neuromuscular or ganglionic) synapse, causes a large increase in its permeability to cations, particularly to Na^+ and K^+, and to a lesser extent Ca^{2+}. The resulting inflow of Na^+ depolarises the postsynaptic membrane. This transmitter-mediated depolarisation is called an *endplate potential (epp)* in a skeletal muscle fibre, or a *fast excitatory postsynaptic potential (fast epsp)* at the ganglionic synapse. In a muscle fibre, the localised epp spreads to adjacent, electrically excitable parts of the muscle fibre; if its amplitude reaches the threshold for excitation, an action potential is initiated, which propagates to the rest of the fibre and evokes a contraction (Ch. 4).

In a nerve cell, depolarisation of the soma or a dendrite by the fast

epsp causes a local current to flow. This depolarises the axon hillock region of the cell, where, if the epsp is large enough, an action potential is initiated. Figure 13.3 shows that **tubocurarine**, a drug that blocks postsynaptic ACh receptors (see p. 164), reduces the amplitude of the fast epsp until it no longer initiates an action potential, although the cell is still capable of responding when it is stimulated antidromically. Most ganglion cells are supplied by several presynaptic axons, and it requires simultaneous activity in more than one to make the postganglionic cell fire. At the neuromuscular junction, only one nerve fibre supplies each muscle fibre. Nevertheless, the amplitude of the epp is normally more than enough to initiate an action potential—indeed, transmission still occurs when the epp is reduced by 70–80%, and is said to show a large margin of safety so that fluctuations in transmitter release (e.g. during repetitive stimulation) do not affect transmission.

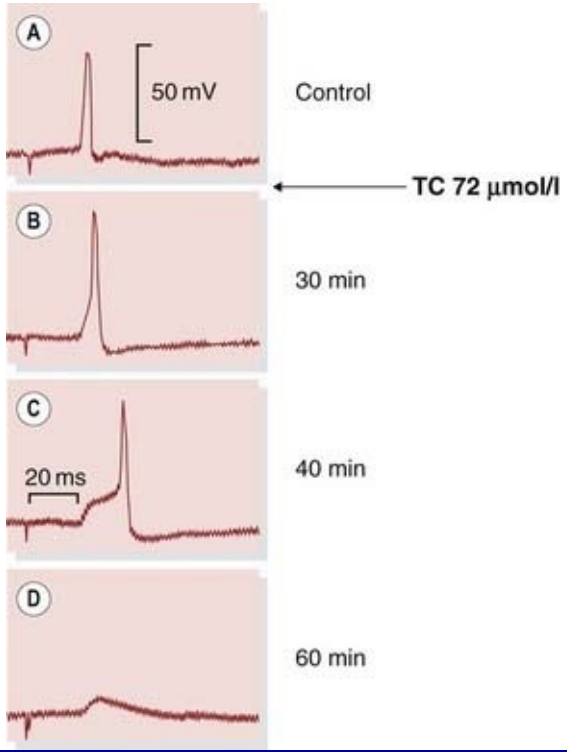


Fig. 13.3 Cholinergic transmission in an autonomic ganglion cell.
Records were obtained with an intracellular microelectrode from a guinea pig parasympathetic

ganglion cell. The artefact at the beginning of each trace shows the moment of stimulation of the preganglionic nerve. Tubocurarine (TC), an acetylcholine antagonist, causes the epsp to become smaller. In record [**C**], it only just succeeds in triggering the action potential, and in [**D**] it has fallen below the threshold. Following complete block, antidromic stimulation (not shown) will still produce an action potential (cf. depolarisation block, Fig. 13.4).

(From Blackman J G et al. 1969 J Physiol 201: 723.)

▼ Transmission at the ganglionic synapse is more complex than at the neuromuscular junction. Although the primary event at both is the epp or fast epsp produced by ACh acting on nAChRs, this is followed in the ganglion by a succession of much slower postsynaptic responses, comprising the following:

• A *slow inhibitory (hyperpolarising) postsynaptic potential (slow ipsp)*, lasting 2–5 s. This mainly reflects a muscarinic (M_2) receptor-mediated increase in K^+ conductance, but other transmitters, such as dopamine and adenosine, also contribute.

• A *slow epsp*, which lasts for about 10 s. This is produced by ACh acting on M_1 receptors, which close K^+ channels.

• A *late slow epsp*, lasting for 1–2 min. This is thought to be mediated by a peptide co-transmitter, which may be substance P in some ganglia, and a gonadotrophin-releasing hormone-like peptide in others (see Ch. 12). Like the slow epsp, it is produced by a decrease in K^+ conductance.

Cholinergic transmission

• Acetylcholine (ACh) synthesis:

– requires choline, which enters the neuron via carrier-mediated transport

– choline is acetylated to form ACh by choline acetyl transferase, a cytosolic enzyme found only in cholinergic neurons. Acetyl coenzyme A is the source of acetyl groups.

• ACh is packaged into synaptic vesicles at high concentration by carrier-mediated transport.

• ACh release occurs by Ca^{2+}-mediated exocytosis. At the neuromuscular junction, one presynaptic nerve impulse releases 100–500 vesicles.

• At the neuromuscular junction, ACh acts on nicotinic receptors to open cation channels, producing a rapid depolarisation (endplate potential), which normally initiates an action potential in the muscle fibre. Transmission at other 'fast' cholinergic synapses (e.g. ganglionic) is similar.

• At 'fast' cholinergic synapses, ACh is hydrolysed within about 1 ms by acetylcholinesterase, so a presynaptic action potential produces only one postsynaptic action potential.

• Transmission mediated by muscarinic receptors is much slower in its time course, and synaptic structures are less clearly defined. In many situations, ACh functions as a modulator rather than as a direct transmitter.

• Main mechanisms of pharmacological block: inhibition of choline uptake, inhibition of ACh release, block of postsynaptic receptors or ion channels, persistent postsynaptic depolarisation.

Depolarisation Block

▼ Depolarisation block occurs at cholinergic synapses when the excitatory nAChRs are persistently activated, and it results from a decrease in the electrical excitability of the postsynaptic cell. This is shown in Figure 13.4. Application of nicotine to a sympathetic ganglion causes a depolarisation of the cell, which at first initiates action potential discharge. After a few seconds, this discharge ceases and transmission is blocked. The loss of electrical excitability at this time is shown by the fact that antidromic stimuli also fail to produce an action potential. The main reason for the loss of electrical excitability during a period of maintained depolarisation is that the voltage-sensitive sodium

channels (see Ch. 4) become inactivated (i.e. refractory) and no longer able to open in response to a brief depolarising stimulus.

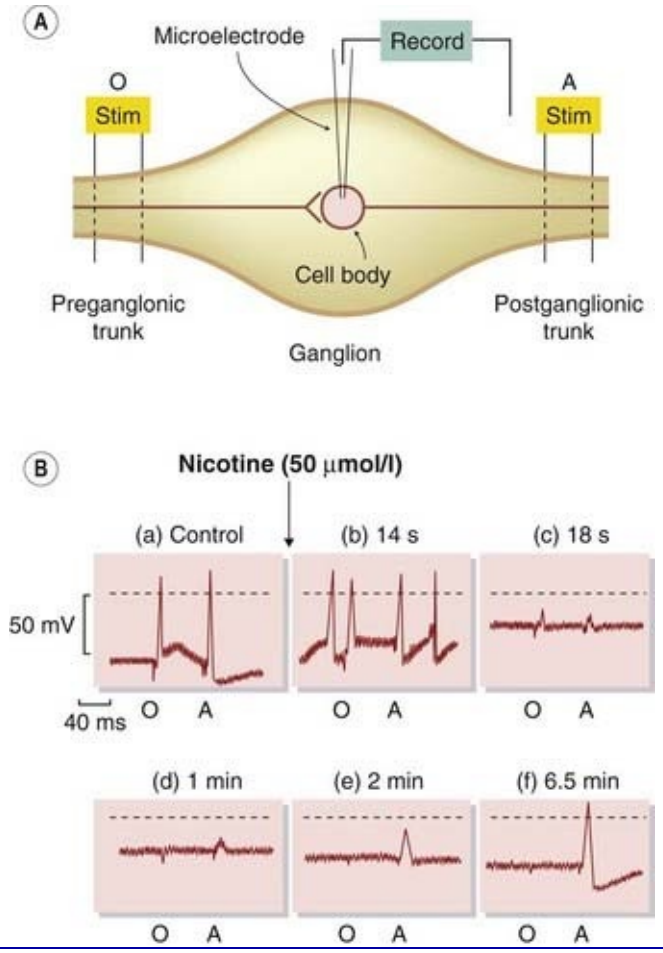


Fig. 13.4 Depolarisation block of ganglionic transmission by nicotine.

[**A**] System used for intracellular recording from sympathetic ganglion cells of the frog, showing the location of orthodromic (O) and antidromic (A) stimulating (stim) electrodes. Stimulation at O excites the cell via the cholinergic synapse, whereas stimulation at A excites it by electrical propagation of the action potential. [**B**] The effect of nicotine. (a) Control records. The membrane potential is −55 mV (dotted line = 0 mV), and the cell responds to both O and A. (b) Shortly after adding nicotine, the cell is slightly depolarised and spontaneously active, but still responsive to O and A. (c and d) The cell is further depolarised, to −25 mV, and produces only a vestigial action potential. The fact that it does not respond to A shows that it is electrically inexcitable. (e and f) In the continued presence of nicotine, the cell repolarises and regains its responsiveness to A, but it is still unresponsive to O because the ACh receptors are desensitised by nicotine.

(From Ginsborg B L, Guerrero S 1964 J Physiol 172: 189.)

A second type of effect is also seen in the experiment shown in Figure 13.4. After nicotine has acted for several minutes, the cell partially repolarises and its electrical excitability returns but, despite this, transmission remains blocked. This type of secondary, *non-depolarising block* occurs also at the neuromuscular junction if repeated doses of the depolarising drug **suxamethonium**[4] (see below) are used. The main factor responsible for the secondary block (known clinically as *phase II block*) appears to be receptor desensitisation (see Ch. 2). This causes the depolarising action of the blocking drug to subside, but transmission remains blocked because the receptors are desensitised to ACh.

Effects of Drugs on Cholinergic Transmission

[4]Known in the USA as **succinylcholine**.

As shown in Figure 13.2, drugs can influence cholinergic transmission either by acting on postsynaptic ACh receptors as agonists or antagonists (Tables 13.1 and 13.2), or by affecting the release or destruction of endogenous ACh.

In the rest of this chapter, we describe the following groups of drugs, subdivided according to their site of action:

- muscarinic agonists
- muscarinic antagonists
- ganglion-stimulating drugs
- ganglion-blocking drugs
- neuromuscular-blocking drugs
- anticholinesterases and other drugs that enhance cholinergic transmission.

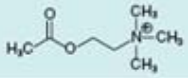
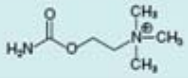
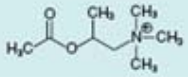
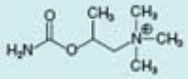
Drugs Affecting Muscarinic Receptors

Muscarinic Agonists

Structure–activity relationships

Muscarinic agonists, as a group, are often referred to as *parasympathomimetic*, because the main effects that they produce in the whole animal resemble those of parasympathetic stimulation. The structures of acetylcholine and related choline esters are given in Table 13.3. They are agonists at both mAChRs and nAChRs, but act more potently on mAChRs (see Fig. 13.1). **Bethanechol**, **pilocarpine** and **cevimeline** (a recent introduction) are the only ones used clinically.

Table 13.3 Muscarinic agonists

Compound	Structure	Receptor specificity		Hydrolysis by cholinesterase	Clinical uses
		Muscarinic	Nicotinic		
Acetylcholine		+++	+++	+++	None
Carbachol		++	+++	–	None
Methacholine		+++	+	++	None
Bethanechol		+++	–	–	Treatment of bladder and gastrointestinal hypotonia[a]
Muscarine		+++	–	–	None[b]
Pilocarpine		++	–	–	Glaucoma
Oxotremorine		++	–	–	None
Cevimeline		++[c]	–	–	Sjögren's syndrome (to increase salivary and lacrimal secretion)

[a] Essential to check that bladder neck is not obstructed.
[b] Cause of one type of mushroom poisoning.
[c] Selective for M_3 receptors.

The key features of the ACh molecule that are important for its activity

are the quaternary ammonium group, which bears a positive charge, and the ester group, which bears a partial negative charge and is susceptible to rapid hydrolysis by cholinesterase. Variants of the choline ester structure (Table 13.3) have the effect of reducing the susceptibility of the compound to hydrolysis by cholinesterase, and altering the relative activity on mAChRs and nAChRs.

Carbachol and **methacholine** are used as experimental tools. Bethanechol, which is a hybrid of these two molecules, is stable to hydrolysis and selective for mAChRs, and is occasionally used clinically. Pilocarpine is a partial agonist and shows some selectivity in stimulating secretion from sweat, salivary, lacrimal and bronchial glands, and contracting iris smooth muscle (see below), with weak effects on gastrointestinal smooth muscle and the heart.

Effects of muscarinic agonists

The main actions of muscarinic agonists are readily understood in terms of the parasympathetic nervous system.

Cardiovascular effects

These include cardiac slowing and a decrease in cardiac output. The latter action is due mainly to a decreased force of contraction of the atria, because the ventricles have only a sparse parasympathetic innervation and a low sensitivity to muscarinic agonists. Generalised vasodilatation also occurs (a nitric oxide-mediated effect; see Ch. 20), and these two effects combine to produce a sharp fall in arterial pressure (Fig. 13.1). The mechanism of action of muscarinic agonists on the heart is discussed in Chapter 21.

Smooth muscle

Smooth muscle other than vascular smooth muscle contracts in response

to muscarinic agonists. Peristaltic activity of the gastrointestinal tract is increased, which can cause colicky pain, and the bladder and bronchial smooth muscle also contract.

Sweating, lacrimation, salivation and bronchial secretion

These result from stimulation of exocrine glands. The combined effect of bronchial secretion and constriction can interfere with breathing.

Effects on the eye

Such effects are of some importance. The parasympathetic nerves to the eye supply the constrictor pupillae muscle, which runs circumferentially in the iris, and the ciliary muscle, which adjusts the curvature of the lens (Fig. 13.5). Contraction of the ciliary muscle in response to activation of mAChRs pulls the ciliary body forward and inward, thus relaxing the tension on the suspensory ligament of the lens, allowing the lens to bulge more and reducing its focal length. This parasympathetic reflex is thus necessary to accommodate the eye for near vision. The constrictor pupillae is important not only for adjusting the pupil in response to changes in light intensity, but also in regulating the intraocular pressure. Aqueous humour is secreted slowly and continuously by the cells of the epithelium covering the ciliary body, and it drains into the *canal of Schlemm* (Fig. 13.5), which runs around the eye close to the outer margin of the iris. The intraocular pressure is normally 10–15 mmHg above atmospheric, which keeps the eye slightly distended. Abnormally raised intraocular pressure (associated with *glaucoma*) damages the eye and is one of the commonest preventable causes of blindness. In acute glaucoma, drainage of aqueous humour becomes impeded when the pupil is dilated, because folding of the iris tissue occludes the drainage angle, causing the intraocular pressure to rise. Activation of the constrictor pupillae muscle by muscarinic agonists in these

circumstances lowers the intraocular pressure, although in a normal individual it has little effect. The increased tension in the ciliary muscle produced by these drugs may also play a part in improving drainage by realigning the connective tissue trabeculae through which the canal of Schlemm passes. Drugs used in the treatment of glaucoma are summarised in Table 13.4.

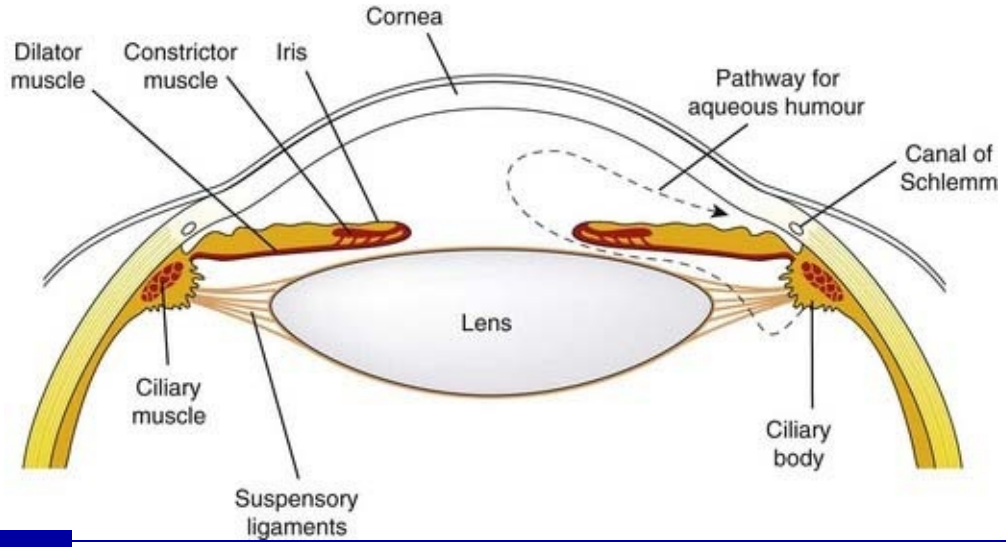


Fig. 13.5 The anterior chamber of the eye, showing the pathway for secretion and drainage of the aqueous humour.

Table 13.4 Drugs that lower intraocular pressure

Drug[a]	Mechanism	Notes	See Chapter
Timolol, carteolol	β-Adrenoceptor antagonist	Given as eye drops but may still cause systemic side effects: bradycardia, bronchoconstriction	14
Acetazolamide, dorzolamide	Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor	Acetazolamide is given systemically Side effects include diuresis, loss of appetite, tingling, neutropenia Dorzolamide is used as eye drops Side effects include bitter taste and burning sensation	28
Clonidine, apraclonidine	α_2 Adrenoceptor agonist	Used as eye drops	14
Latanoprost	Prostaglandin analogue	Can alter iris pigmentation	17
Pilocarpine	Muscarinic agonist	Used as eye drops	This chapter
Ecothiophate	Anticholinesterase	Used as eye drops Can cause muscle spasm and systemic effects	This chapter

[a]The most important drugs are shown in **bold**.

In addition to these peripheral effects, muscarinic agonists that are able to penetrate the blood–brain barrier produce marked central effects due to activation mainly of M_1 receptors in the brain. These include tremor, hypothermia and increased locomotor activity, as well as improved cognition (see Ch. 38). M_1-selective agonists (e.g. **xanomeline**) are being investigated for possible use in treating dementia (see Eglen 2006; Ch. 39).

Clinical use

Currently there are few important uses for muscarinic agonists (though there are expectations that new, more selective agents may prove useful in various CNS disorders, particularly dementia). Current clinical uses are summarized in the clinical box (p. 160).

Clinical uses of muscarinic agonists and related drugs

• **Pilocarpine** eye drops cause constriction of the pupils (miosis) and have been used to treat glaucoma (raised pressure within the eye).

• Pilocarpine or **cevimeline**, a selective M3 agonist, can be used to increase salivation and lacrimal secretion in patients with dry mouth or dry eyes (e.g. following irradiation, or in patients with autoimmune damage to the salivary or lacrimal glands as in Sjögren's syndrome).

• **Bethanechol** or **distigmine** (a cholinesterase inhibitor) are seldom used as stimulant laxatives or to stimulate bladder emptying.

Muscarinic Antagonists

Muscarinic receptor antagonists (*parasympatholytic drugs*; Table 13.5) are competitive antagonists whose chemical structures usually contain ester and basic groups in the same relationship as ACh, but they have a bulky

aromatic group in place of the acetyl group. The two naturally occurring compounds, **atropine** and **hyoscine** (also known as **scopolamine**), are alkaloids found in solanaceous plants. The deadly nightshade (*Atropa belladonna*) contains mainly atropine, whereas the thorn apple (*Datura stramonium*) contains mainly hyoscine. These are tertiary ammonium compounds that are sufficiently lipid-soluble to be readily absorbed from the gut or conjunctival sac and, importantly, to penetrate the blood–brain barrier. Quaternary ammonium compounds, which have peripheral actions very similar to those of atropine but, because of their exclusion from the brain, lack central actions, include **hyoscine butylbromide** and **propantheline**. **Ipratropium**, another quaternary ammonium compound, is used by inhalation as a bronchodilator. **Cyclopentolate** and **tropicamide** are tertiary amines developed for ophthalmic use and administered as eye drops. **Pirenzepine** is a relatively selective M_1 receptor antagonist. **Oxybutynin**, **tolterodine** and **darifenacin** (M_3-selective) are drugs that act on the bladder to inhibit micturition, and are used for treating urinary incontinence. They produce unwanted effects typical of muscarinic antagonists, such as dry mouth, constipation and blurred vision, but these are less severe than with earlier drugs.

Table 13.5 Muscarinic antagonists[a]

Compound	Pharmacological properties	Clinical uses	Notes
Atropine	Non-selective antagonist Well absorbed orally CNS stimulant	Adjunct for anaesthesia (reduced secretions, bronchodilatation) Anticholinesterase poisoning Bradycardia Gastrointestinal hypermotility (antispasmodic)	Belladonna alkaloid Main side effects: urinary retention, dry mouth, blurred vision Dicycloverine (dicyclomine) is similar and used mainly as antispasmodic agent
Hyoscine	Similar to atropine CNS depressant	As atropine Motion sickness	Belladonna alkaloid (also known as scopolamine) Causes sedation; other side effects as atropine
Hyoscine butylbromide	Similar to atropine but poorly absorbed and lacks CNS effects Significant ganglion-blocking activity	Mainly for gastrointestinal hypermotility	Quaternary ammonium derivative Similar drugs include atropine methonitrate, propantheline
Tiotropium	Similar to atropine methonitrate Does not inhibit mucociliary clearance from bronchi	By inhalation for asthma, bronchitis	Quaternary ammonium compound Ipratropium similar
Tropicamide	Similar to atropine May raise intraocular pressure	Ophthalmic use to produce mydriasis and cycloplegia (as eye drops) Short acting	—
Cyclopentolate	Similar to tropicamide	As tropicamide (long acting)	—
Pirenzepine	Selective for M_1 receptors Inhibits gastric secretion by action on ganglion cells Little effect on smooth muscle or CNS	Peptic ulcer	Fewer side effects than other muscarinic antagonists Largely superseded by other antiulcer drugs (see Ch. 29)
Darifenacin	Selective for M_3 receptors	Urinary incontinence	Few side effects

Other non-selective muscarinic antagonists in clinical use, with very similar actions and side effects, include **oxybutynin**, **tolterodine**, **fesoterodine**, **solifenacin** and **trospium**—an example of me-too development by pharmacetical companies.
*For chemical structures, see Brunton L et al. 2006 Goodman and Gilman's pharmacological basis of therapeutics, 11th edn. McGraw-Hill, New York.

Effects of muscarinic antagonists

All the muscarinic antagonists produce basically similar peripheral effects, although some show a degree of selectivity, for example for the heart or bladder, reflecting heterogeneity among mAChRs (see p. 153).

The main effects of atropine are as follow.

Inhibition of secretions

Salivary, lacrimal, bronchial and sweat glands are inhibited by very low doses of atropine, producing an uncomfortably dry mouth and skin. Gastric secretion is only slightly reduced. Mucociliary clearance in the bronchi is inhibited, so that residual secretions tend to accumulate in the lungs. Ipratropium lacks this effect.

Effects on heart rate

Atropine causes tachycardia through block of cardiac mAChRs. The tachycardia is modest, up to 80–90 beats/min in humans. This is because there is no effect on the sympathetic system, but only inhibition of the existing parasympathetic tone. Tachycardia is most pronounced in young people, in whom vagal tone at rest is highest; it is often absent in the elderly. At very low doses, atropine causes a paradoxical bradycardia, possibly due to a central action. The response of the heart to exercise is unaffected. Arterial blood pressure is unaffected, because most resistance vessels have no cholinergic innervation.

Effects on the eye

The pupil is dilated (*mydriasis*) by atropine administration, and becomes unresponsive to light. Relaxation of the ciliary muscle causes paralysis of accommodation (*cycloplegia*), so that near vision is impaired. Intraocular pressure may rise; although this is unimportant in normal individuals, it can be dangerous in patients suffering from narrow-angle glaucoma.

Effects on the gastrointestinal tract

Gastrointestinal motility is inhibited by atropine, although this requires larger doses than the other effects listed, and is not complete. This is because excitatory transmitters other than ACh are important in normal function of the myenteric plexus (see Ch. 12). Atropine is used in pathological conditions in which there is increased gastrointestinal motility. Pirenzepine, owing to its selectivity for M_1 receptors, inhibits gastric acid secretion in doses that do not affect other systems.

Effects on other smooth muscle

Bronchial, biliary and urinary tract smooth muscle are all relaxed by atropine. Reflex bronchoconstriction (e.g. during anaesthesia) is

prevented by atropine, whereas bronchoconstriction caused by local mediators, such as histamine and leukotrienes (e.g. in asthma; Ch. 27) is unaffected. Biliary and urinary tract smooth muscle are only slightly affected in normal individuals, probably because transmitters other than ACh (see Ch. 12) are important in these organs; nevertheless, atropine and similar drugs commonly precipitate urinary retention in elderly men with prostatic enlargement. Incontinence due to bladder overactivity is reduced by muscarinic antagonists.

Effects on the CNS

Atropine produces mainly excitatory effects on the CNS. At low doses, this causes mild restlessness; higher doses cause agitation and disorientation. In atropine poisoning, which occurs mainly in young children who eat deadly nightshade berries, marked excitement and irritability result in hyperactivity and a considerable rise in body temperature, which is accentuated by the loss of sweating. These central effects are the result of blocking mAChRs in the brain, and they are opposed by anticholinesterase drugs such as **physostigmine**, which is an effective antidote to atropine poisoning. Hyoscine in low doses causes marked sedation, but has similar effects in high dosage. Hyoscine also has a useful antiemetic effect and is used in treating motion sickness. Muscarinic antagonists also affect the extrapyramidal system, reducing the involuntary movement and rigidity of patients with Parkinson's disease (Ch. 39) and counteracting the extrapyramidal side effects of many antipsychotic drugs (Ch. 45).

Drugs acting on muscarinic receptors 

Muscarinic agonists

- Important compounds include acetylcholine, carbachol, methacholine, muscarine and

pilocarpine. They vary in muscarinic/nicotinic selectivity, and in susceptibility to cholinesterase.

• Main effects are bradycardia and vasodilatation (endothelium-dependent), leading to fall in blood pressure; contraction of visceral smooth muscle (gut, bladder, bronchi, etc.); exocrine secretions, pupillary constriction and ciliary muscle contraction, leading to decrease of intraocular pressure.

• Main use is in treatment of glaucoma (especially pilocarpine).

• Most agonists show little receptor subtype selectivity, but more selective compounds are in development.

Muscarinic antagonists

• Most important compounds are atropine, hyoscine, ipratropium and pirenzepine.

• Main effects are inhibition of secretions; tachycardia, pupillary dilatation and paralysis of accommodation; relaxation of smooth muscle (gut, bronchi, biliary tract, bladder); inhibition of gastric acid secretion (especially pirenzepine); central nervous system effects (mainly excitatory with atropine; depressant, including amnesia, with hyoscine), including antiemetic effect and antiparkinsonian effect.

Clinical use

The main uses of muscarinic antagonists (Table 13.5; clinical box, p. 162) are:

• to prevent bronchial secretion in preparation for anaesthesia (atropine)

• to dilate the pupil for ophthalmoscopic examination

• as bronchodilators in asthma and bronchitis (tiotropium)

• to relax the bladder for the treatment of urinary incontinence (darifenacin and others).

Apart from pirenzepine (M_1-selective) and darifenacin (M_3-selective), currently used muscarinic antagonists show little subtype selectivity, and differ mainly in their pharmacokinetic behaviour.

Clinical uses of muscarinic antagonists

Cardiovascular

• Treatment of sinus bradycardia (e.g. after myocardial infarction; see Ch. 21): for example **atropine**.

Ophthalmic

• To dilate the pupil: for example **tropicamide** or **cyclopentolate** eye drops.

Neurological

• Prevention of motion sickness: for example **hyoscine** (orally or transdermally).

• Parkinsonism (see Ch. 39), especially to counteract movement disorders caused by antipsychotic drugs (see Ch. 45): for example **benzhexol**, **benztropine**.

Respiratory

• Asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (see Ch. 27, clinical boxes): **ipratropium** or **tiotropium** by inhalation.

Anaesthetic premedication

• To dry secretions: for example **atropine**, **hyoscine**. (Current anaesthetics are relatively non-irritant, see Ch. 40, so this use is now less important.)

Gastrointestinal

• To facilitate endoscopy and gastrointestinal radiology by relaxing gastrointestinal smooth muscle (antispasmodic action; see Ch. 29): for example **hyoscine**.

• As an antispasmodic in irritable bowel syndrome or colonic diverticular disease: for example **dicycloverine** (dicyclomine).

• To treat peptic ulcer disease by suppressing gastric acid secretion (see Ch. 29): for example **pirenzepine** (M_1-selective antagonist). This is used less since the introduction of histamine H_2 antagonists and proton pump inhibitors.

Drugs Affecting Autonomic Ganglia

Ganglion Stimulants

Most nAChR agonists (apart from acetylcholine itself) act on either ganglionic and CNS receptors or at the motor endplate (Table 13.6).

Table 13.6 Nicotinic receptor agonists and antagonists

Drug	Main site	Type of action	Notes
Agonists			
Nicotine	Autonomic ganglia CNS	Stimulation then block Stimulation	See Ch. 48 For CNS effects, see Ch. 48
Lobeline	Autonomic ganglia Sensory nerve terminals	Stimulation Stimulation	—
Epibatidine	Autonomic ganglia, CNS	Stimulation	Isolated from frog skin Highly potent No clinical use
Varenicline	CNS, autonomic ganglia	Stimulation	Used for nicotine addiction (see Ch. 48)
Suxamethonium	Neuromuscular junction	Depolarisation block	Used clinically as muscle relaxant
Decamethonium	Neuromuscular junction	Depolarisation block	No clinical use
Antagonists			
Hexamethonium	Autonomic ganglia	Transmission block	No clinical use
Trimetaphan	Autonomic ganglia	Transmission block	Blood pressure-lowering in surgery (rarely used)
Tubocurarine	Neuromuscular junction	Transmission block	Now rarely used
Pancuronium Atracurium Vecuronium	Neuromuscular junction	Transmission block	Widely used as muscle relaxants in anaesthesia

Nicotine and **lobeline** are tertiary amines found in the leaves of tobacco and lobelia plants, respectively. Nicotine belongs in pharmacological folklore, as it was the substance on the tip of Langley's

paintbrush causing stimulation of muscle fibres when applied to the endplate region, leading him to postulate in 1905 the existence of a 'receptive substance' on the surface of the fibres (Ch. 12). **Epibatidine**, found in the skin of poisonous frogs, is a highly potent nicotinic agonist selective for ganglionic and CNS receptors. It was found, unexpectedly, to be a powerful analgesic (see Ch. 41), though its autonomic side effects ruled out its clinical use. **Varenicline**, a synthetic agonist relatively selective for CNS receptors, is used (as is nicotine itself) to treat nicotine addiction (Ch. 48). Otherwise these drugs are used only as experimental tools.

They cause complex peripheral responses associated with generalised stimulation of autonomic ganglia. The effects of nicotine on the gastrointestinal tract and sweat glands are familiar to neophyte smokers (see Ch. 48), although usually insufficient to act as an effective deterrent.

Ganglion-Blocking Drugs

Ganglion block is often used in experimental studies on the autonomic nervous system but is of little clinical importance. It can occur by several mechanisms:

• By interference with ACh release, as at the neuromuscular junction (see p. 167 and Ch. 12).

• By prolonged depolarisation. Nicotine (see Fig. 13.4) can block ganglia, after initial stimulation, in this way, as can ACh itself if cholinesterase is inhibited so that it can exert a continuing action on the postsynaptic membrane.

• By interference with the postsynaptic action of ACh. The few ganglion-blocking drugs of practical importance act by blocking neuronal nAChRs

or the associated ion channels.

▼ Sixty years ago, Paton and Zaimis investigated a series of linear bisquaternary compounds. Compounds with five or six carbon atoms (**hexamethonium**; Table 13.6) in the methylene chain linking the two quaternary groups produced ganglionic block, whereas compounds with nine or ten carbon atoms (**decamethonium**) produced neuromuscular block.[5]

Hexamethonium, although no longer used, deserves recognition as the first effective antihypertensive agent (see Ch. 22). The only ganglion-blocking drug currently in clinical use is **trimetaphan** (Table 13.6; see below).

Effects of ganglion-blocking drugs

[5]Based on their structural similarity to ACh, these compounds were originally believed to act as competitive antagonists. However, they are now known to act mainly by blocking the ion channel rather than the receptor site itself.

The effects of ganglion-blocking drugs are numerous and complex, as would be expected, because both divisions of the autonomic nervous system are blocked indiscriminately. The description by Paton of 'hexamethonium man' cannot be bettered:

▼ He is a pink-complexioned person, except when he has stood in a queue for a long time, when he may get pale and faint. His handshake is warm and dry. He is a placid and relaxed companion; for instance he may laugh but he can't cry because the tears cannot come. Your rudest story will not make him blush, and the most unpleasant circumstances will fail to make him turn pale. His collars and socks stay very clean and sweet. He wears corsets and may, if you meet him out, be rather fidgety (corsets to compress his splanchnic vascular pool, fidgety to keep the

venous return going from his legs). He dislikes speaking much unless helped with something to moisten his dry mouth and throat. He is long-sighted and easily blinded by bright light. The redness of his eyeballs may suggest irregular habits and in fact his head is rather weak. But he always behaves like a gentleman and never belches or hiccups. He tends to get cold and keeps well wrapped up. But his health is good; he does not have chilblains and those diseases of modern civilization, hypertension and peptic ulcer, pass him by. He gets thin because his appetite is modest; he never feels hunger pains and his stomach never rumbles. He gets rather constipated so that his intake of liquid paraffin is high. As old age comes on, he will suffer from retention of urine and impotence, but frequency, precipitancy and strangury will not worry him. One is uncertain how he will end, but perhaps if he is not careful, by eating less and less and getting colder and colder, he will sink into a symptomless, hypoglycaemic coma and die, as was proposed for the universe, a sort of entropy death.

(From Paton W D M 1954 The principles of ganglion block. Lectures on the scientific basis of medicine, vol. 2.)

In practice, the main effect is marked fall in arterial blood pressure resulting mainly from block of sympathetic ganglia, which causes arteriolar vasodilatation, and the block of cardiovascular reflexes. In particular, the venoconstriction, which occurs normally when a subject stands up and which is necessary to prevent the central venous pressure (and hence cardiac output) from falling sharply, is reduced. Standing thus causes a sudden fall in arterial pressure (*postural hypotension*) that can cause fainting. Similarly, the vasodilatation of skeletal muscle during exercise is normally accompanied by vasoconstriction elsewhere (e.g. splanchnic area) produced by sympathetic activity. If this adjustment is prevented, the overall peripheral resistance falls and the blood pressure

also falls (*postexercise hypotension*).

Drugs acting on autonomic ganglia

Ganglion-stimulating drugs

• Compounds include nicotine, dimethylphenylpiperazinium (DMPP).

• Both sympathetic and parasympathetic ganglia are stimulated, so effects are complex, including tachycardia and increase of blood pressure; variable effects on gastrointestinal motility and secretions; increased bronchial, salivary and sweat secretions. Additional effects result from stimulation of other neuronal structures, including sensory and noradrenergic nerve terminals.

• Ganglion stimulation may be followed by depolarisation block.

• Nicotine also has important central nervous system effects.

• No therapeutic uses, except for nicotine to assist giving up smoking.

Ganglion-blocking drugs

• Compounds include **hexamethonium**, **trimetaphan**, **tubocurarine** (also nicotine; see above).

• Block all autonomic ganglia and enteric ganglia. Main effects: hypotension and loss of cardiovascular reflexes, inhibition of secretions, gastrointestinal paralysis, impaired micturition.

• Clinically obsolete, except for occasional use of trimetaphan to produce controlled hypotension in anaesthesia.

Clinical use

Ganglion-blocking drugs, because of their many side effects, are obsolete as hypotensive agents, with the exception of **trimetaphan**, a very short-

acting drug occasionally used as an intravenous infusion to produce controlled hypotension and minimise bleeding during certain types of surgery. Trimetaphan can also be used to lower blood pressure as an emergency procedure.

Neuromuscular-Blocking Drugs

The pharmacology of neuromuscular function is well reviewed by Bowman (1990). Drugs can block neuromuscular transmission either by acting presynaptically to inhibit ACh synthesis or release, or by acting postsynaptically, the latter being the site of action of all the clinically important drugs (except for **botulinum toxin**; see below).

Clinically, neuromuscular block is used only as an adjunct to anaesthesia, when artificial ventilation is available; it is not a therapeutic intervention. The drugs that are used all work postsynaptically, either (a) by blocking ACh receptors (or in some cases the ion channel) or (b) by activating ACh receptors and thus causing persistent depolarisation of the motor endplate. Apart from **suxamethonium** (see below) all of the drugs used clinically are *non-depolarising agents*.

Non-Depolarising Blocking Agents

In 1856, Claude Bernard, in a famous experiment, showed that 'curare' causes paralysis by blocking neuromuscular transmission, rather than by abolishing nerve conduction or muscle contractility. Curare is a mixture of naturally occurring alkaloids found in various South American plants and used as arrow poisons by South American Indians. The most important component is **tubocurarine**, which is now rarely used in clinical medicine, being superseded by synthetic drugs with improved properties. The most important are **pancuronium**, **vecuronium** and **atracurium** (Table 13.7), which differ mainly in their duration of action.

Gallamine was the first useful synthetic successor to tubocurarine, but has been replaced by compounds with fewer side effects. These substances are all quaternary ammonium compounds, which means that they are poorly absorbed and generally rapidly excreted. They also fail to cross the placenta, which is important in relation to their use in obstetric anaesthesia. The low oral absorption of tubocurarine allowed it to be used safely in the hunting of animals for food, leaving the meat safe to eat.

Table 13.7 Characteristics of neuromuscular-blocking drugs[a]

Drug	Speed of onset	Duration of action	Main side effects	Notes
Tubocurarine	Slow (> 5 min)	Long (1–2 h)	Hypotension (ganglion block plus histamine release) Bronchoconstriction (histamine release)	Plant alkaloid, now rarely used Alcuronium is a semisynthetic derivative with similar properties but fewer side effects
Pancuronium	Intermediate (2–3 min)	Long	Slight tachycardia No hypotension	The first steroid-based compound Better side effect profile than tubocurarine Widely used Pipecuronium is similar
Vecuronium	Intermediate	Intermediate (30–40 min)	Few side effects	Widely used Occasionally causes prolonged paralysis, probably owing to active metabolite Rocuronium is similar, with faster onset
Atracurium	Intermediate	Intermediate (< 30 min)	Transient hypotension (histamine release)	Unusual mechanism of elimination (spontaneous non-enzymic chemical degradation in plasma); degradation slowed by acidosis Widely used Doxacurium is chemically similar but stable in plasma, giving it long duration of action Cisatracurium is the pure isomeric constituent of atracurium, similar but with less histamine release
Mivacurium	Fast (~2 min)	Short (~15 min)	Transient hypotension (histamine release)	Chemically similar to atracurium but rapidly inactivated by plasma cholinesterase (therefore longer acting in patients with liver disease or with genetic cholinesterase deficiency [see p. 166])
Suxamenthonium	Fast	Short (~10 min)	Bradycardia (muscarinic agonist effect) Cardiac dysrhythmias (increased plasma K^+ concentration—avoid in patients with burns or severe trauma) Raised intraocular pressure (nicotinic agonist effect on extraocular muscles) Postoperative muscle pain	Acts by depolarisation of endplate (nicotinic agonist effect)—the only drug of this type still in use Paralysis is preceded by transient muscle fasciculations Short duration of action owing to hydrolysis by plasma cholinesterase (prolonged action in patients with liver disease or genetic deficiency of plasma cholinesterase) Used for brief procedures (e.g. tracheal intubation, electroconvulsive shock therapy) Rocuronium has similar speed of onset and recovery, with fewer unwanted effects

[a]For chemical structures, see Hardman J G, Limbird L E, Gilman A G, Goodman-Gilman A et al. 2001 Goodman and Gilman's pharmacological basis of therapeutics, 10th edn. McGraw-Hill, New York.

Mechanism of action

Non-depolarising blocking agents all act as competitive antagonists (see Ch. 2) at the ACh receptors of the endplate.

▼ The amount of ACh released by a nerve impulse normally exceeds by

several-fold what is needed to elicit an action potential in the muscle fibre. It is therefore necessary to block 70–80% of the receptor sites before transmission actually fails. In any individual muscle fibre, transmission is all or nothing, so graded degrees of block represent a varying proportion of muscle fibres failing to respond. In this situation, where the amplitude of epp in all the fibres is close to threshold (just above in some, just below in others), small variations in the amount of transmitter released, or in the rate at which it is destroyed, will have a large effect on the proportion of fibres contracting, so the degree of block is liable to vary according to various physiological circumstances (e.g. stimulation frequency, temperature and cholinesterase inhibition), which normally have relatively little effect on the efficiency of transmission.

Non-depolarising blocking agents also block facilitatory presynaptic autoreceptors, and thus inhibit the release of ACh during repetitive stimulation of the motor nerve (see Prior et al., 1995), resulting in the phenomenon of 'tetanic fade', which is often used by anaesthetists to monitor postoperative recovery of neuromuscular transmission (see p. 166).

Effects of non-depolarising blocking drugs

The effects of non-depolarising neuromuscular-blocking agents are mainly due to motor paralysis, although some of the drugs also produce clinically significant autonomic effects.

▼ The first muscles to be affected are the extrinsic eye muscles (causing double vision) and the small muscles of the face, limbs and pharynx (causing difficulty in swallowing). Respiratory muscles are the last to be affected and the first to recover. An experiment in 1947 in which a heroic volunteer was fully curarised under artificial ventilation

established this orderly paralytic march, and showed that consciousness and awareness of pain were quite normal even when paralysis was complete.[6]

Unwanted effects

[6]The risk of patients waking up paralysed during surgery is a serious worry for anaesthetists.

The main side effect of tubocurarine is a fall in arterial pressure, due to (a) ganglion block and (b) histamine release from mast cells (see Ch. 17), which can also give rise to bronchospasm in sensitive individuals. This is unrelated to nAChRs but also occurs with **atracurium** and **mivacurium** (as well as with some unrelated drugs such as morphine; see Ch. 41). The other non-depolarising blocking drugs lack these side effects, and hence cause less hypotension. **Pancuronium** (and also **gallamine**, now obsolete) blocks mAChRs, particularly in the heart, which results in tachycardia.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Neuromuscular-blocking agents are used mainly in anaesthesia to produce muscle relaxation. They are given intravenously but differ in their rates of onset and recovery (Fig. 13.6 and Table 13.7).

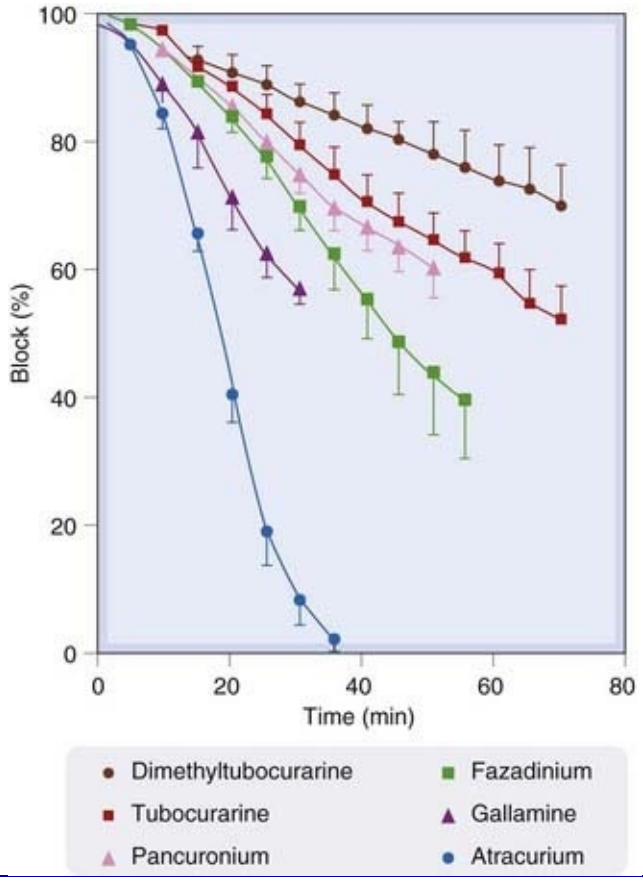


Fig. 13.6 Rate of recovery from various non-depolarising neuromuscular-blocking drugs in humans.

Drugs were given intravenously to patients undergoing surgery, in doses just sufficient to cause 100% block of the tetanic tension of the indirectly stimulated adductor pollicis muscle. Recovery of tension was then followed as a function of time.

(From Payne J P, Hughes R 1981 Br J Anaesth 53: 45.)

Most of the non-depolarising blocking agents are metabolised by the liver or excreted unchanged in the urine, exceptions being **atracurium**, which hydrolyses spontaneously in plasma, and **mivacurium**, which, like **suxamethonium** (see below), is hydrolysed by plasma cholinesterase. Their duration of action varies between about 15 min and 1–2 h (Table 13.7), by which time the patient regains enough strength to cough and breathe properly. The route of elimination is important, because many patients undergoing anaesthesia have impaired

renal or hepatic function, which, depending on the drug used, can enhance or prolong the paralysis to an important degree.

Atracurium was designed to be chemically unstable at physiological pH (splitting into two inactive fragments by cleavage at one of the quaternary nitrogen atoms), although indefinitely stable when stored at an acid pH. It has a short duration of action, which is unaffected by renal or hepatic function. Because of the marked pH dependence of its degradation, however, its action becomes considerably briefer during respiratory alkalosis caused by hyperventilation.

Rapid postoperative recovery of muscle strength is needed to reduce the risk of complications. The cholinesterase inhibitor, **neostigmine** (see p. 169) is often used to reverse the action of non-depolarising drugs postoperatively. Co-administration of atropine is necessary to prevent unwanted parasympathomimetic effects. An alternative approach currently in development (see Nicholson et al., 2007) is the use of a synthetic cyclodextrin, **sugammadex**, a macromolecule that selectively binds steroidal neuromuscular blocking drugs such as **pancuronium** as an inactive complex in the plasma. The complex is excreted unchanged in the urine. Sugammadex is claimed to produce more rapid reversal of block with fewer unwanted effects than neostigmine.

Depolarising Blocking Agents

▼ This class of neuromuscular-blocking drugs was discovered by Paton and Zaimis in their study of the effects of symmetrical bisquaternary ammonium compounds. One of these, decamethonium, was found to cause paralysis without appreciable ganglion-blocking activity. Several features of its action showed it to be different from competitive blocking drugs such as tubocurarine. In particular, it was found to produce a transient twitching of skeletal muscle (fasciculation) before causing

block, and when it was injected into chicks it caused a powerful extensor spasm,[7] whereas tubocurarine simply caused flaccid paralysis. In 1951, Burns and Paton showed that it acted as an agonist, causing a maintained depolarisation at the endplate region of the muscle fibre, which led to a loss of electrical excitability (see p. 156), and they coined the term depolarisation block. Fasciculation occurs because the developing endplate depolarisation initially causes a discharge of action potentials in the muscle fibre. This subsides after a few seconds as the electrical excitability of the endplate region of the fibre is lost. Decamethonium itself was used clinically but has the disadvantage of too long a duration of action.

[7]Birds (and frogs) possess a special type of skeletal muscle, rare in mammals, that has many endplates scattered over the surface of each muscle fibre. Agonists cause a diffuse depolarisation in such muscles, resulting in a maintained contracture. In normal skeletal muscle, with only one endplate per fibre, endplate depolarisation is too localised to cause contracture on its own.

Suxamethonium (Table 13.7)—the only depolarising blocking drug currently used—is closely related in structure to both decamethonium and ACh (consisting of two ACh molecules linked by their acetyl groups) and acts similarly, but its action is brief, because it is quickly hydrolysed by plasma cholinesterase. When given intravenously, however, its depolarising action lasts for long enough to cause the endplate region of the muscle fibres to become inexcitable. ACh, in contrast, when released from the nerve, reaches the endplate in very brief spurts and is rapidly hydrolysed in situ, so it never causes sufficiently prolonged depolarisation to result in block. If cholinesterase is inhibited, however (see p. 171), it is possible for the circulating ACh concentration to reach a level sufficient to cause depolarisation block.

Comparison of non-depolarising and depolarising blocking drugs

▼ There are several differences in the pattern of neuromuscular block produced by depolarising and non-depolarising mechanisms:

• Anticholinesterase drugs are very effective in overcoming the blocking action of competitive agents. This is because the released ACh, protected from hydrolysis, can diffuse further within the synaptic cleft, and so gains access to a wider area of postsynaptic membrane than it normally would. The chances of an ACh molecule finding an unoccupied receptor before being hydrolysed are thus increased. This diffusional effect seems to be of more importance than a truly competitive interaction, for it is unlikely that appreciable dissociation of the antagonist can occur in the short time for which the ACh is present. In contrast, depolarisation block is unaffected, or even increased, by anticholinesterase drugs.

• The fasciculations seen with suxamethonium (see Table 13.7) as a prelude to paralysis do not occur with competitive drugs. There appears to be a correlation between the amount of fasciculation and the severity of the postoperative muscle pain that is often produced by suxamethonium.

• *Tetanic fade* (a term used to describe the failure of muscle tension to be maintained during a brief period of nerve stimulation at a frequency high enough to produce a fused tetanus) is increased by non-depolarising blocking drugs, compared with normal muscle. This is due mainly to the block of presynaptic nAChRs, which normally serve to sustain transmitter release during a tetanus, and it does not occur with depolarisation block.

Unwanted effects and dangers of suxamethonium

Suxamethonium has several unwanted, and in some cases dangerous,

side effects (see Table 13.7), but remains in use because of the rapid recovery that follows its withdrawal—significantly more rapid than the recovery from non-depolarising agents.

Bradycardia

This is preventable by atropine and is due to a direct muscarinic action.

Potassium release

The increase in cation permeability of the motor endplates causes a net loss of K^+ from muscle, and thus a small rise in plasma K^+ concentration. In normal individuals, this is not important, but in cases of trauma, especially burns or injuries causing muscle denervation, it may be (Fig. 13.7). This is because denervation causes ACh receptors to spread to regions of the muscle fibre away from the endplates (see Ch. 12), so that a much larger area of membrane is sensitive to suxamethonium. The resulting hyperkalaemia can be enough to cause ventricular dysrhythmia or even cardiac arrest.

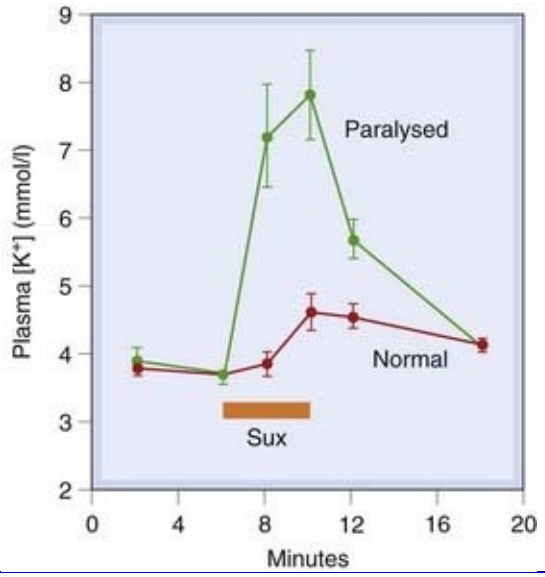


Fig. 13.7 Effect of suxamethonium (Sux) on plasma potassium concentration in humans. Blood was collected from veins draining paralysed and non-paralysed limbs of seven injured patients undergoing surgery. The injuries had resulted in motor nerve degeneration, and hence

denervation supersensitivity of the affected muscles.

(From Tobey R E et al. 1972 Anaesthesiology 37: 322.)

Increased intraocular pressure

This results from contracture of extraocular muscles applying pressure to the eyeball. It is particularly important to avoid this if the eyeball has been injured.

Prolonged paralysis

The action of suxamethonium given intravenously normally lasts for less than 5 min, because the drug is hydrolysed by plasma cholinesterase. Its action is prolonged by various factors that reduce the activity of this enzyme:

- Genetic variants of plasma cholinesterase with reduced activity (see Ch. 11). Severe deficiency, enough to increase the duration of action to 2 h or more, occurs in only about 1 in 3500 individuals. Very rarely, the enzyme is completely absent and the paralysis lasts for many hours. Biochemical testing of enzyme activity in the plasma and its sensitivity to inhibitors is used clinically to detect patients likely to suffer prolonged apnoea following suxamethonium; genotyping is also possible.

- Anticholinesterase drugs. The use of organophosphates to treat glaucoma (see Table 13.4) can inhibit plasma cholinesterase and prolong the action of suxamethonium. Competing substrates for plasma cholinesterase (e.g. **procaine**, **propanidid**) can also have this effect.

- Neonates and patients with liver disease may have low plasma cholinesterase activity and show prolonged paralysis with suxamethonium.

Malignant hyperthermia

This is a rare inherited condition, due to a mutation of the Ca^{2+} release channel of the sarcoplasmic reticulum (the *ryanodine receptor*, see Ch. 4), which results in intense muscle spasm and a dramatic rise in body temperature when certain drugs are given (see Ch. 11). The most commonly implicated drugs are suxamethonium and **halothane** (see Ch. 40), although it can be precipitated by a variety of other drugs. The condition carries a very high mortality (about 65%) and is treated by administration of **dantrolene**, a drug that inhibits muscle contraction by preventing Ca^{2+} release from the sarcoplasmic reticulum.

Neuromuscular-blocking drugs

• Substances that block choline uptake: for example **hemicholinium** (not used clinically).

• Substances that block acetylcholine release: **aminoglycoside antibiotics**, **botulinum toxin**.

• Drugs used to cause paralysis during anaesthesia are as follows:

– Non-depolarising neuromuscular-blocking agents: **tubocurarine**, **pancuronium**, **atracurium**, **vecuronium**, **mivacuronium**. These act as competitive antagonists at nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and differ mainly in duration of action.

– Depolarising neuromuscular-blocking agents: **suxamethonium**.

• Important characteristics of non-depolarising and depolarising blocking drugs:

– Non-depolarising block is reversible by anticholinesterase drugs, depolarising block is not.

– Steroidal ('curonium') drugs are reversed by **sugammadex**.

– Depolarising block produces initial fasciculations and often postoperative muscle pain.

– Suxamethonium is hydrolysed by plasma cholinesterase and is normally very short-acting, but may cause long-lasting paralysis in a small group of congenitally cholinesterase-deficient individuals.

• Main side effects: tubocurarine causes ganglion block, histamine release, hence hypotension, bronchoconstriction; newer non-depolarising blocking drugs have fewer side effects; suxamethonium may cause bradycardia, cardiac dysrhythmias due to K^+ release (especially in burned or injured patients), increased intraocular pressure, malignant hyperthermia (rare).

Drugs That Act Presynaptically

Drugs That Inhibit Acetylcholine Synthesis

The steps in the synthesis of ACh in the presynaptic nerve terminals are shown in Figure 13.2. The rate-limiting process appears to be the transport of choline into the nerve terminal. **Hemicholinium** blocks this transport and thereby inhibits ACh synthesis. It is useful as an experimental tool but has no clinical applications. Its blocking effect on transmission develops slowly, as the existing stores of ACh become depleted. **Vesamicol**, which acts by blocking ACh transport into synaptic vesicles, has a similar effect.

Drugs That Inhibit Acetylcholine Release

Acetylcholine release by a nerve impulse involves the entry of Ca^{2+} into the nerve terminal; the increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ stimulates exocytosis and increases the rate of quantal release (Fig. 13.2). Agents that inhibit Ca^{2+} entry include Mg^{2+} and various aminoglycoside antibiotics (e.g. **streptomycin** and **neomycin**; see Ch. 50), which occasionally produce muscle paralysis as an unwanted side effect when used clinically.

Two potent neurotoxins, namely **botulinum toxin** and **β-bungarotoxin**, act specifically to inhibit ACh release. Botulinum toxin is a protein produced by the anaerobic bacillus *Clostridium botulinum*, an organism that can multiply in preserved food and can cause botulism, an extremely serious type of food poisoning.[8]

▼ The potency of botulinum toxin is extraordinary, the minimum

lethal dose in a mouse being less than 10^{-12} g—only a few million molecules. It belongs to the group of potent bacterial exotoxins that includes tetanus and diphtheria toxins. They possess two subunits, one of which binds to a membrane receptor and is responsible for cellular specificity. By this means, the toxin enters the cell, where the other subunit produces the toxic effect (see Montecucco & Schiavo, 1995). Botulinum toxin contains several components (A–G). They are peptidases that cleave specific proteins involved in exocytosis (*synaptobrevins*, *syntaxins*, etc.; see Ch. 4), thereby producing a long-lasting block of synaptic function. Each toxin component inactivates a different functional protein—a remarkably coordinated attack by a humble bacterium on a vital component of mammalian physiology.

[8]Among the more spectacular outbreaks of botulinum poisoning was an incident on Loch Maree in Scotland in 1922, when all eight members of a fishing party died after eating duck pâté for their lunch. Their ghillies, consuming humbler fare no doubt, survived. The innkeeper committed suicide.

Botulinum poisoning causes progressive parasympathetic and motor paralysis, with dry mouth, blurred vision and difficulty in swallowing, followed by progressive respiratory paralysis. Treatment with antitoxin is effective only if given before symptoms appear, for once the toxin is bound its action cannot be reversed. Mortality is high, and recovery takes several weeks. Anticholinesterases and drugs that increase transmitter release (see p. 172) are ineffective in restoring transmission. **Botulinum toxin**, given by local injection, has a number of clinical uses, including:

- *blepharospasm* (persistent and disabling eyelid spasm)
- *spasticity* (excessive extensor muscle tone, usually associated with birth

injury)

• *urinary incontinence* associated with bladder overactivity (given by intravesical injection)

• *squint* (given by injection into extraocular muscles)

• *sialorrhoea* (excessive salivary secretion).

Injections need to be repeated every few months. Botulinum toxin is antigenic, and may lose its effectiveness due to its immunogenicity. There is a risk of more general muscle paralysis if the toxin spreads beyond the injected region.

Botox, as well as being a potential biological weapon of war, is famously fashionable as a wrinkle remover—reflecting strangely on the modern world. It removes frown lines by paralysing the superficial muscles that pucker the skin.

▼ β-Bungarotoxin is a protein contained in the venom of various snakes of the cobra family, and has a similar action to botulinum toxin, although its active component is a phospholipase rather than a peptidase. The same venoms also contain α-bungarotoxin (see p. 23), which blocks postsynaptic ACh receptors. These snakes evidently cover all eventualities as far as causing paralysis of their victims is concerned.

Drugs That Enhance Cholinergic Transmission

Drugs that enhance cholinergic transmission act either by inhibiting cholinesterase (the main group) or by increasing ACh release. In this chapter, we focus on the peripheral actions of such drugs; drugs affecting cholinergic transmission in the CNS, used to treat senile dementia, are discussed in Chapter 39.

Distribution and Function of Cholinesterase

There are two distinct types of cholinesterase, namely *acetylcholinesterase* (AChE) and *butyrylcholinesterase* (BuChE), closely related in molecular structure but differing in their distribution, substrate specificity and functions (see Chatonnet & Lockridge, 1989). Both consist of globular catalytic subunits, which constitute the soluble forms found in plasma (BuChE) and cerebrospinal fluid (AChE). Elsewhere, the catalytic units are linked to accessory proteins, which tether them like a bunch of balloons to the basement membrane (at the neuromuscular junction) or to the neuronal membrane at neuronal synapses (and also, oddly, the erythrocyte membrane, where the function of the enzyme is unknown).

The bound AChE at cholinergic synapses serves to hydrolyse the released transmitter and terminate its action rapidly. Soluble AChE is also present in cholinergic nerve terminals, where it has a role in regulating the free ACh concentration, and from which it may be secreted; the function of the secreted enzyme is so far unclear. AChE is quite specific for ACh and closely related esters such as methacholine. Certain neuropeptides, such as substance P (Ch. 19) are inactivated by AChE, but it is not known whether this is of physiological significance. Overall, there is poor correspondence between the distribution of cholinergic synapses and that of AChE, both in the brain and in the periphery, and AChE most probably has synaptic functions other than disposal of ACh, although the details remain unclear (see review by Silman & Sussman, 2005; Zimmerman & Soreq, 2006).

Butyrylcholinesterase (BuChE, or pseudocholinesterase) has a widespread distribution, being found in tissues such as liver, skin, brain and gastrointestinal smooth muscle, as well as in soluble form in the plasma. It is not particularly associated with cholinergic synapses, and its physiological function is unclear. It has a broader substrate specificity than AChE. It hydrolyses the synthetic substrate butyrylcholine more

rapidly than ACh, as well as other esters, such as **procaine**, **suxamethonium** and **propanidid** (a short-acting anaesthetic agent; see Ch. 40). The plasma enzyme is important in relation to the inactivation of the drugs listed above. Genetic variants of BuChE causing significantly reduced enzymic activity occur rarely (see above and Ch. 11), and these partly account for the variability in the duration of action of these drugs. The very short duration of action of ACh given intravenously (see Fig. 13.1) results from its rapid hydrolysis in the plasma. Normally, AChE and BuChE between them keep the plasma ACh at an undetectably low level, so ACh (unlike noradrenaline) is strictly a neurotransmitter and not a hormone.

Both AChE and BuChE belong to the class of serine hydrolases, which includes many proteases such as trypsin. The active site of AChE comprises two distinct regions (Fig. 13.8): an *anionic site* (glutamate residue), which binds the basic (choline) moiety of ACh; and an *esteratic (catalytic) site* (histidine + serine). As with other serine hydrolases, the acidic (acetyl) group of the substrate is transferred to the serine hydroxyl group, leaving (transiently) an acetylated enzyme molecule and a molecule of free choline. Spontaneous hydrolysis of the serine acetyl group occurs rapidly, and the overall turnover number of AChE is extremely high (over 10 000 molecules of ACh hydrolysed per second by a single active site).

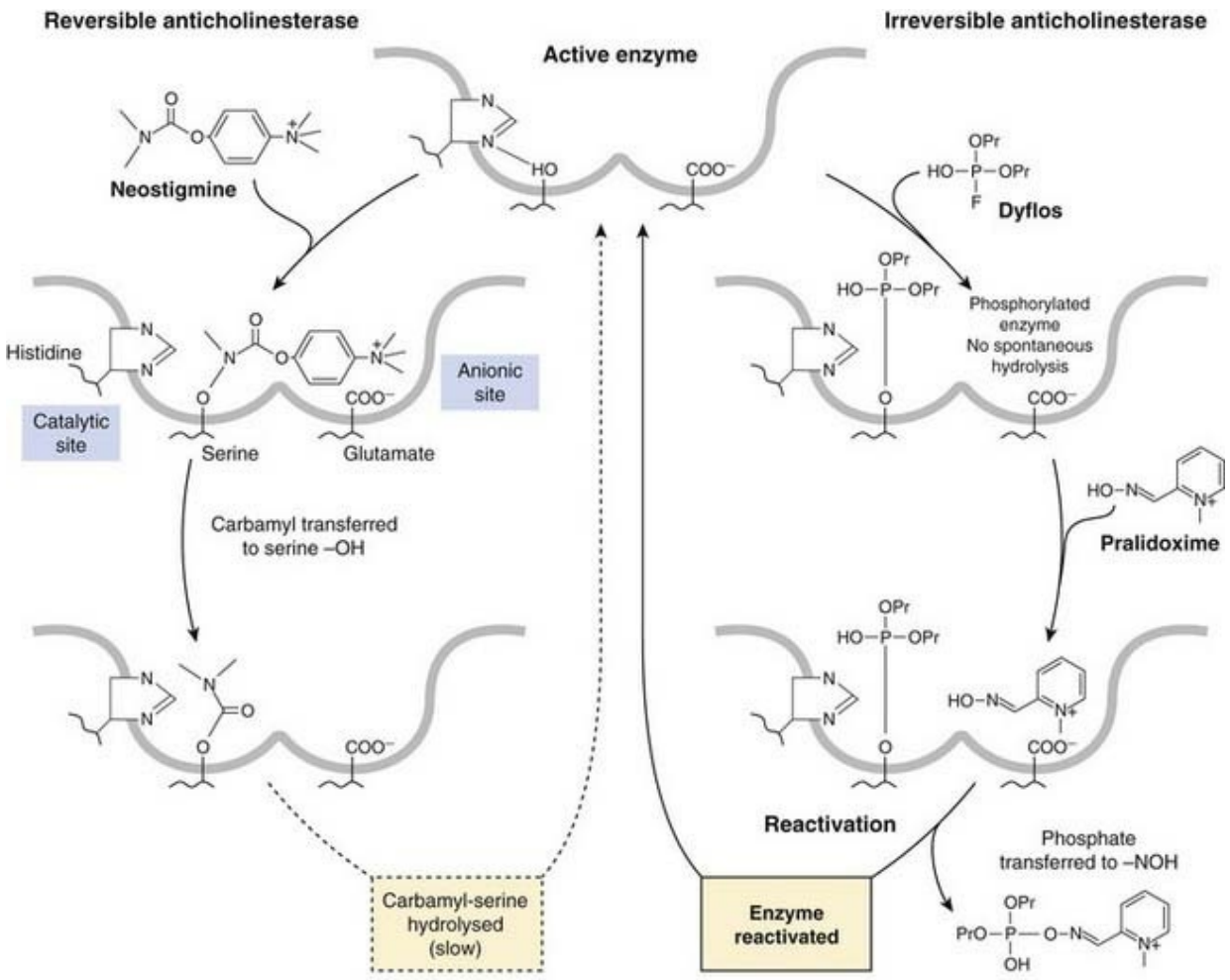


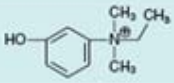
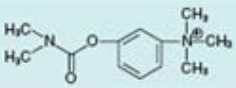
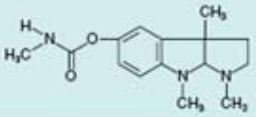
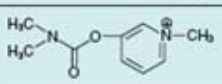
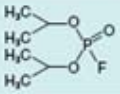
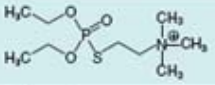
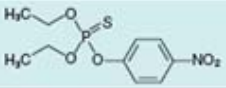
Fig. 13.8 Action of anticholinesterase drugs.

Reversible anticholinesterase (neostigmine): recovery of activity by hydrolysis of the carbamylated enzyme takes many minutes. Irreversible anticholinesterase (dyflos): reactivation of phosphorylated enzyme by pralidoxime. The representation of the active site is purely diagrammatic and by no means representative of the actual molecular structure.

Drugs That Inhibit Cholinesterase

Peripherally acting anticholinesterase drugs, summarized in Table 13.8, fall into three main groups according to the nature of their interaction with the active site, which determines their duration of action. Most of them inhibit AChE and BuChE about equally. Centrally acting anticholinesterases, developed for the treatment of dementia, are discussed in Chapter 39.

Table 13.8 Anticholinesterase drugs

Drug	Structure	Duration of action	Main site of action	Notes
Edrophonium		Short	NMJ	Used mainly in diagnosis of myasthenia gravis Too short-acting for therapeutic use
Neostigmine		Medium	NMJ	Used intravenously to reverse competitive neuromuscular block Used orally in treatment of myasthenia gravis Visceral side effects
Physostigmine		Medium	P	Used as eye drops in treatment of glaucoma
Pyridostigmine		Medium	NMJ	Used orally in treatment of myasthenia gravis Better absorbed than neostigmine and has longer duration of action
Dyflos		Long	P	Highly toxic organophosphate, with very prolonged action Has been used as eye drops for glaucoma
Ecothiophate		Long	P	Used as eye drops in treatment of glaucoma Prolonged action; may cause systemic effects
Parathion		Long	—	Converted to active metabolite by replacement of sulfur by oxygen Used as insecticide but commonly causes poisoning in humans

Other anticholinesterase drugs developed for the treatment of dementia are described in Chapter 39.
NMJ, neuromuscular junction; P, postganglionic parasympathetic junction.

Short-acting anticholinesterases

The only important drug of this type is **edrophonium**, a quaternary ammonium compound that binds to the anionic site of the enzyme only. The ionic bond formed is readily reversible, and the action of the drug is very brief. It is used mainly for diagnostic purposes, because improvement of muscle strength by an anticholinesterase is characteristic of myasthenia gravis (see p. 171) but does not occur when muscle weakness is due to other causes.

Medium-duration anticholinesterases

These include **neostigmine** and **pyridostigmine**, which are quaternary ammonium compounds of clinical importance, and **physostigmine**

(eserine), a tertiary amine, which occurs naturally in the Calabar bean.[9]

[9]Otherwise known as the ordeal bean. In the Middle Ages, extracts of these beans were used to determine the guilt or innocence of those accused of crime or heresy. Death implied guilt.

These drugs are all carbamyl, as opposed to acetyl, esters, and all possess basic groups that bind to the anionic site. Transfer of the carbamyl group to the serine hydroxyl group of the esteratic site occurs as with ACh, but the carbamylated enzyme is very much slower to hydrolyse (Fig. 13.8), taking minutes rather than microseconds. The anticholinesterase drug is therefore hydrolysed, but at a negligible rate compared with ACh, and the slow recovery of the carbamylated enzyme means that the action of these drugs is quite long-lasting.

Irreversible anticholinesterases

Irreversible anticholinesterases (Table 13.8) are pentavalent phosphorus compounds containing a labile group such as fluoride (in **dyflos**) or an organic group (in **parathion** and **ecothiophate**). This group is released, leaving the serine hydroxyl group of the enzyme phosphorylated (Fig. 13.8). Most of these organophosphate compounds, of which there are many, were developed as war gases and pesticides as well as for clinical use; they interact only with the esteratic site of the enzyme and have no cationic group. **Ecothiophate** is an exception in having a quaternary nitrogen group designed to bind also to the anionic site.

The inactive phosphorylated enzyme is usually very stable. With drugs such as dyflos, no appreciable hydrolysis occurs, and recovery of enzymic activity depends on the synthesis of new enzyme molecules, a process that may take weeks. With other drugs, such as ecothiophate, slow hydrolysis occurs over the course of a few days, so that their action is not strictly irreversible. Dyflos and parathion are volatile non-polar

substances of very high lipid solubility, and are rapidly absorbed through mucous membranes and even through unbroken skin and insect cuticles; the use of these agents as war gases or insecticides relies on this property. The lack of a specificity-conferring quaternary group means that most of these drugs block other serine hydrolases (e.g. trypsin, thrombin), although their pharmacological effects result mainly from cholinesterase inhibition.

Effects of anticholinesterase drugs

Cholinesterase inhibitors affect peripheral as well as central cholinergic synapses.

Some organophosphate compounds can produce, in addition, a severe form of neurotoxicity.

Effects on autonomic cholinergic synapses

These mainly reflect enhancement of ACh activity at parasympathetic postganglionic synapses (i.e. increased secretions from salivary, lacrimal, bronchial and gastrointestinal glands; increased peristaltic activity; bronchoconstriction; bradycardia and hypotension; pupillary constriction; fixation of accommodation for near vision; fall in intraocular pressure). Large doses can stimulate, and later block, autonomic ganglia, producing complex autonomic effects. The block, if it occurs, is a depolarisation block and is associated with a build-up of ACh in the plasma and body fluids. Neostigmine and pyridostigmine tend to affect neuromuscular transmission more than the autonomic system, whereas physostigmine and organophosphates show the reverse pattern. The reason is not clear, but therapeutic usage takes advantage of this partial selectivity.

Acute anticholinesterase poisoning (e.g. from contact with insecticides

or war gases) causes severe bradycardia, hypotension and difficulty in breathing. Combined with a depolarising neuromuscular block and central effects (see below), the result may be fatal.

Effects on the neuromuscular junction

The twitch tension of a muscle stimulated via its motor nerve is increased by anticholinesterases, owing to repetitive firing in the muscle fibre associated with prolongation of the epp. Normally, the ACh is hydrolysed so quickly that each stimulus initiates only one action potential in the muscle fibre, but when AChE is inhibited this is converted to a short train of action potentials in the muscle fibre, and hence greater tension. Much more important is the effect produced when transmission has been blocked by a non-depolarising blocking agent such as pancuronium. In this case, addition of an anticholinesterase can dramatically restore transmission. If a large proportion of the receptors is blocked, the majority of ACh molecules will normally encounter, and be destroyed by, an AChE molecule before reaching a vacant receptor; inhibiting AChE gives the ACh molecules a greater chance of finding a vacant receptor before being destroyed, and thus increase the epp so that it reaches threshold. In myasthenia gravis (see below), transmission fails because there are too few ACh receptors, and cholinesterase inhibition improves transmission just as it does in curarised muscle.

In large doses, such as can occur in poisoning, anticholinesterases initially cause twitching of muscles. This is because spontaneous ACh release can give rise to epps that reach the firing threshold. Later, paralysis may occur due to depolarisation block, which is associated with the build-up of ACh in the plasma and tissue fluids.

Effects on the CNS

Tertiary compounds, such as physostigmine, and the non-polar

organophosphates penetrate the blood–brain barrier freely and affect the brain. The result is an initial excitation, which can result in convulsions, followed by depression, which can cause unconsciousness and respiratory failure. These central effects result mainly from the activation of mAChRs, and are antagonised by atropine. The use of anticholinesterases to treat senile dementia is discussed in Chapter 39.

Cholinesterase and anticholinesterase drugs

• There are two main forms of cholinesterase: *acetylcholinesterase* (AChE), which is mainly membrane-bound, relatively specific for acetylcholine, and responsible for rapid acetylcholine hydrolysis at cholinergic synapses; and *butyrylcholinesterase* (BuChE) or pseudocholinesterase, which is relatively non-selective and occurs in plasma and many tissues. Both enzymes belong to the family of serine hydrolases.

• Anticholinesterase drugs are of three main types: short-acting (**edrophonium**); medium-acting (**neostigmine**, **physostigmine**); irreversible (organophosphates, **dyflos**, **ecothiophate**). They differ in the nature of their chemical interaction with the active site of cholinesterase.

• Effects of anticholinesterase drugs are due mainly to enhancement of cholinergic transmission at cholinergic autonomic synapses and at the neuromuscular junction. Anticholinesterases that cross the blood–brain barrier (e.g. physostigmine, organophosphates) also have marked central nervous system effects. Autonomic effects include bradycardia, hypotension, excessive secretions, bronchoconstriction, gastrointestinal hypermotility and decrease of intraocular pressure. Neuromuscular action causes muscle fasciculation and increased twitch tension, and can produce depolarisation block.

• Anticholinesterase poisoning may occur from exposure to insecticides or nerve gases.

Neurotoxicity of organophosphates

Many organophosphates can cause a severe, though rare, type of delayed

peripheral nerve degeneration, leading to progressive weakness and sensory loss. This is not a problem with clinically used anticholinesterases but occasionally results from poisoning with insecticides or nerve gases. In 1931, an estimated 20 000 Americans were affected, some fatally, by contamination of fruit juice with an organophosphate insecticide, and other similar outbreaks have been recorded. The mechanism of this reaction is only partly understood, but it seems to result from inhibition of a *neuropathy target esterase* distinct from cholinesterase.

The main uses of anticholinesterases are summarised in the clinical box, above.

Clinical uses of anticholinesterase drugs

• To reverse the action of non-depolarising neuromuscular-blocking drugs at the end of an operation (**neostigmine**). Atropine must be given to limit parasympathomimetic effects.

• To treat myasthenia gravis (**neostigmine** or **pyridostigmine**).

• As a test for myasthenia gravis and to distinguish weakness caused by anticholinesterase overdosage ('cholinergic crisis') from the weakness of myasthenia itself ('myasthenic crisis'): **edrophonium**, a short-acting drug given intravenously.

• Alzheimer's disease (e.g. **donepezil**; see Ch. 39).

• Glaucoma (**ecothiophate** eye drops).

Cholinesterase Reactivation

Spontaneous hydrolysis of phosphorylated cholinesterase is extremely slow, a fact that makes poisoning with organophosphates very dangerous. **Pralidoxime** (Fig. 13.8) reactivates the enzyme by bringing an oxime group into close proximity with the phosphorylated esteratic

site. This group is a strong nucleophile and lures the phosphate group away from the serine hydroxyl group of the enzyme. The effectiveness of pralidoxime in reactivating plasma cholinesterase activity in a poisoned subject is shown in Figure 13.9. The main limitation to its use as an antidote to organophosphate poisoning is that, within a few hours, the phosphorylated enzyme undergoes a chemical change ('ageing') that renders it no longer susceptible to reactivation, so that pralidoxime must be given early in order to work. Pralidoxime does not enter the brain, but related compounds have been developed to treat the central effects of organophosphate poisoning.

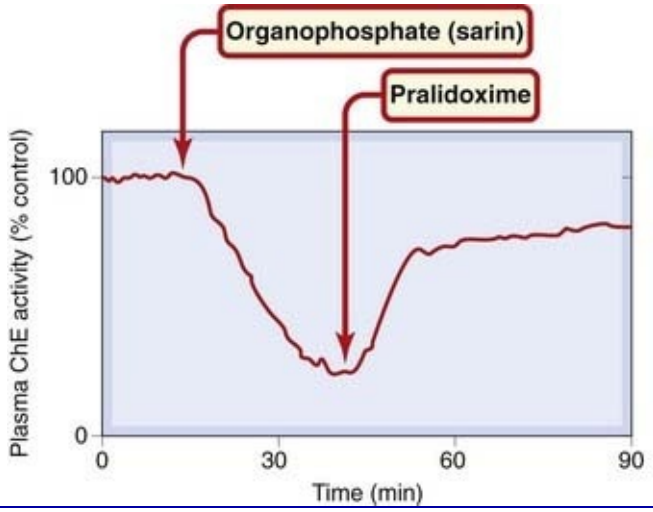


Fig. 13.9 Reactivation of plasma cholinesterase (ChE) in a volunteer subject by intravenous injection of pralidoxime.

(Redrawn from Sim V M 1965 JAMA 192: 404.)

Myasthenia gravis

▼ The neuromuscular junction is a robust structure that very rarely fails, myasthenia gravis being one of the very few disorders that specifically affects it (see Lindstrom, 2000). This disease affects about 1 in 2000 individuals, who show muscle weakness and increased fatiguability resulting from a failure of neuromuscular transmission. The tendency for

transmission to fail during repetitive activity can be seen in Figure 13.10. Functionally, it results in the inability of muscles to produce sustained contractions, of which the characteristic drooping eyelids of myasthenic patients are a sign. The effectiveness of anticholinesterase drugs in improving muscle strength in myasthenia was discovered in 1931, long before the cause of the disease was known.

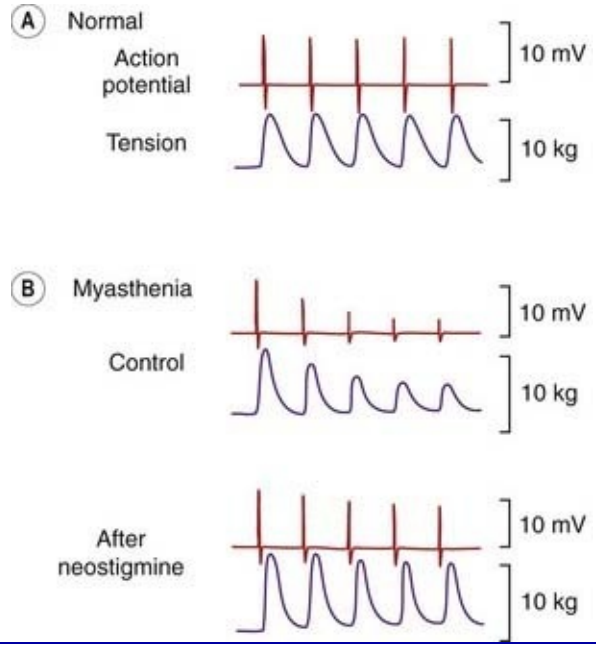


Fig. 13.10 Neuromuscular transmission in a normal and a myasthenic human subject.

Electrical activity was recorded with a needle electrode in the adductor pollicis muscle, in response to ulnar nerve stimulation (3 Hz) at the wrist. In a normal subject, electrical and mechanical response is well sustained. In a myasthenic patient, transmission fails rapidly when the nerve is stimulated. Treatment with neostigmine improves transmission.

(From Desmedt J E 1962 Bull Acad Roy Med Belg VII 2: 213.)

The cause of the transmission failure is an autoimmune response that causes a loss of nAChRs from the neuromuscular junction, first revealed in studies showing that the number of bungarotoxin-binding sites at the endplates of myasthenic patients was reduced by about 70% compared with normal. It had been suspected that myasthenia had an

immunological basis, because removal of the thymus gland was frequently of benefit. Immunisation of rabbits with purified ACh receptor causes, after a delay, symptoms very similar to those of human myasthenia gravis. The presence of antibody directed against the ACh receptor protein can be detected in the serum of myasthenic patients, but the reason for the development of the autoimmune response in humans is still unknown (see Lindstrom, 2000).

The improvement of neuromuscular function by anticholinesterase treatment (shown in Fig. 13.10) can be dramatic, but if the disease progresses too far, the number of receptors remaining may become too few to produce an adequate epp, and anticholinesterase drugs will then cease to be effective.

Alternative approaches to the treatment of myasthenia are to remove circulating antibody by plasma exchange, which is transiently effective, or, for a more prolonged effect, to inhibit antibody production with steroids (e.g. **prednisolone**) or immunosuppressant drugs (e.g. **azathioprine**; see Ch. 26).

Other Drugs That Enhance Cholinergic Transmission

▼ It was observed many years ago that **tetraethylammonium**, better known as a ganglion-blocking drug, could reverse the neuromuscular-blocking action of tubocurarine, and this was shown to be because it increases the release of transmitter evoked by nerve stimulation. Subsequently, **aminopyridines**, which block potassium channels (see Ch. 4), and thus prolong the action potential in the presynaptic nerve terminal, were found to act similarly and to be considerably more potent and selective in their actions than tetraethylammonium. These drugs are not selective for cholinergic nerves but increase the evoked release of many different transmitters, so have too many unwanted effects to be

useful in treating neuromuscular disorders.

References and Further Reading

General reference

icholls J.G., Martin A.R., Wallace B.G., Fuchs P. *From neuron to brain*. Sunderland: Sinauer; 2001. (*Excellent general textbook*)

Acetylcholine receptors

aulfield M.P., Birdsall N.J. International Union of Pharmacology. XVII. Classification of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 1998;50:279-290. (*The accepted definitions and characteristics of mAChRs*)

ajas-Bailador F., Wonnacott S. Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and the regulation of neuronal signalling. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2004;25:217-324. (*Short review article focusing on the presynaptic actions of nAChRs in the CNS and periphery*)

glen R.M. Muscarinic receptor subtypes in neuronal and non-neuronal cholinergic function. *Auton. Autacoid. Pharmacol.*. 2006;26:219-233. (*Covers the conventional roles of mAChRs in the autonomic system as well as possible more general involvement in immunological and other mechanisms*)

glen R.M., Choppin A., Dillon M.P., Hedge S. Muscarinic receptor ligands and their therapeutic potential. *Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol.*. 1999;3:426-432. (*Review of the future development of muscarinic agonists and antagonists for different indications*)

oyal R.K. Muscarinic receptor subtypes: physiology and clinical implications. *New Engl. J. Med.*. 1989;321:1022-1029. (*Good general review*)

ogg R.C., Raggenbass M., Bertrand D. Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: from structure to brain function. *Rev. Physiol. Biochem. Pharmacol.*. 2003;147:1-46. (*Comprehensive review covering all aspects of nAChR structure and function*)

alamida D., Poulas K., Avramopoulou V., *et al.* Muscle and neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: structure, function and pathogenicity. *FEBS J.*. 2007;274:3799-3845. (*Excellent*

comprehensive review)

Jess J. Molecular biology of muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. *Crit. Rev. Neurobiol.*. 1996;10:69-99. (*Describes receptor subtypes in detail*)

Jess J., Eglen R.M., Gautam D. Muscarinic acetylcholine receptors: mutant mice provide new insights for drug development. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2007;6:721-733. (*Describes the subtle functional deficits in mice lacking particular receptor subtypes*)

Jessler I., Kirkpatrick C.J. Acetylcholine beyond neurons: the non-neuronal cholinergic system in humans. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;154:1558-1571. (*Summarises recent findings that reveal surprisingly diverse roles for acetylcholine*)

Cholinergic transmission

indstrom J.M. Acetylcholine receptors and myasthenia. *Muscle Nerve*. 2000;23:453-477. (*Good review article on nAChR subtypes and current views on the pathophysiology of myasthenia gravis and related neuromuscular disorders*)

arsons S.M., Prior C., Marshall I.G. Acetylcholine transport, storage and release. *Int. Rev. Neurobiol.*. 1993;35:279-390. (*Useful review of the local metabolism of ACh*)

sdin T.B., Eiden L.E., Bonner T.I., Erickson J.D. Molecular biology of the vesicular ACh transporter. *Trends Neurosci.*. 1995;18:218-224. (*Short review article*)

Drugs affecting the neuromuscular junction

owman W.C. *Pharmacology of neuromuscular function*. Bristol: Wright; 1990. (*Detailed textbook*)

Iontecucco C., Schiavo G. Structure and function of botulinum neurotoxins. *Q. Rev. Biophys.*. 1995;28:423-472. (*Discusses the mode of action of an important group of presynaptic neurotoxins*)

icholson W.T., Sprung J., Jankowski C.J. Sugammadex: a novel agent for the reversal of neuromuscular blockade. *Pharmacotherapy*. 2007;27:1181-1188. (*An alternative to neostigmine*)

rior C., Tian L., Dempster J., Marshall I.G. Prejunctional actions of muscle relaxants: synaptic vesicles and transmitter mobilization as sites of action. *Gen. Pharmacol.*. 1995;26:659-666. (*Emphasises the role of presynaptic inhibition in the action of neuromuscular-blocking drugs*)

Cholinesterase

hatonnet A., Lockridge O. Comparison of butyrylcholinesterase and acetylcholinesterase. *Biochem. J.*. 1989;260:625-634. (*Short review on the nature and functions of cholinesterases*)

ilman I., Sussman J.L. Acetylcholinesterase: 'classical' and 'non-classical' functions and pharmacology. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:293-302. (*Review, covering molecular structure, as well as functions of cholinesterase*)

immerman G., Soreq H. Termination and beyond: acetylcholinesterase as a modulator of synaptic transmission. *Cell Tissue Res.*. 2006;326:655-669. (*Speculative review of evidence suggesting functions for AChE other than ACh hydrolysis*)

14

Noradrenergic transmission

Overview

The peripheral noradrenergic neuron and the structures that it innervates are important targets for drug action, both as objects for investigation in their own right and as points of attack for many clinically useful drugs. In this chapter, we describe the physiology and function of noradrenergic neurons and the properties of *adrenoceptors* (the receptors on which noradrenaline and adrenaline act), and discuss the various classes of drugs that affect them. For convenience, much of the pharmacological information is summarised in tables later in the chapter.

Catecholamines

Catecholamines are compounds containing a catechol moiety (a benzene ring with two adjacent hydroxyl groups) and an amine side chain (Fig. 14.1). Pharmacologically, the most important ones are:

- **Noradrenaline** (**norepinephrine**),[1] a transmitter released by sympathetic nerve terminals.

- **Adrenaline** (**epinephrine**), a hormone secreted by the adrenal medulla.

- **Dopamine**, the metabolic precursor of noradrenaline and adrenaline, also a transmitter/neuromodulator in the central nervous system.

• **Isoprenaline** (also known as **isoproterenol**), a synthetic derivative of noradrenaline, not present in the body.

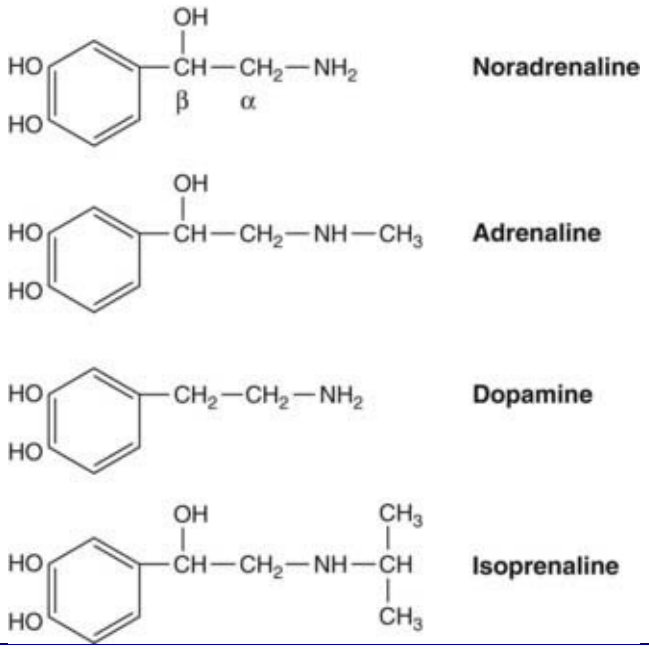


Fig. 14.1 Structures of the major catecholamines.

Classification of Adrenoceptors

[1]The conventional British names (e.g. adrenaline, noradrenaline) are used, although the recommended international non-proprietary names (rINNs) are now epinephrine and norepinephrine.

In 1896, Oliver and Schafer discovered that injection of extracts of adrenal gland caused a rise in arterial pressure. Following the subsequent isolation of adrenaline as the active principle, it was shown by Dale in 1913 that adrenaline causes two distinct kinds of effect, namely vasoconstriction in certain vascular beds (which normally predominates and, together with its actions on the heart—see below—causes the rise in arterial pressure) and vasodilatation in others. Dale showed that the vasoconstrictor component disappeared if the animal was first injected with an ergot derivative[2] (see p. 198), and noticed that

adrenaline then caused a fall, instead of a rise, in arterial pressure. This result paralleled Dale's demonstration of the separate muscarinic and nicotinic components of the action of acetylcholine (see Ch. 13). He avoided interpreting it in terms of different types of receptor, but later pharmacological work, beginning with that of Ahlquist, showed clearly the existence of several subclasses of adrenoceptor.

[2]Dale was a new recruit in the laboratories of the Wellcome pharmaceutical company, given the job of checking the potency of batches of adrenaline coming from the factory. He tested one batch at the end of a day's experimentation on a cat that he had earlier injected with an ergot preparation. Because it produced a fall in blood pressure rather than the expected rise, he advised that the whole expensive consignment should be rejected. Unknown to him, he was given the same sample to test a few days later, and reported it to be normal. How he explained this to Wellcome's management is not recorded.

Ahlquist found in 1948 that the rank order of the potencies of various catecholamines, including adrenaline, noradrenaline and isoprenaline, fell into two distinct patterns, depending on what response was being measured. He postulated the existence of two kinds of receptor, α and β, defined in terms of agonist potencies as follows:

α: noradrenaline > adrenaline > isoprenaline

β: isoprenaline > adrenaline > noradrenaline

It was then recognised that certain ergot alkaloids, which Dale had studied, act as selective α-receptor antagonists, and that Dale's adrenaline reversal experiment reflected the unmasking of the β effects of adrenaline by α-receptor blockade. Selective β-receptor antagonists were not developed until 1955, when their effects fully confirmed Ahlquist's original classification and also suggested the existence of

further subdivisions of both α and β receptors. Subsequently (see Bylund et al., 1994) it has emerged that there are two α-receptor subtypes (α_1 and α_2), each comprising three further subclasses (α_{1A}, α_{1B}, α_{1D} and α_{2A}, α_{2B}, α_{2C}) and three β-receptor subtypes (β_1, β_2 and β_3)—altogether nine distinct subtypes—all of which are typical G-protein-coupled receptors (Table 14.1). Evidence from specific agonists and antagonists, as well as studies on receptor knockout mice (Philipp & Hein, 2004), has shown that α_1 receptors are particularly important in the cardiovascular system and lower urinary tract, while α_2 receptors are predominantly neuronal, acting to inhibit transmitter release both in the brain and at autonomic nerve terminals in the periphery. The distinct functions of the different subclasses of α_1- and α_2 adrenoceptors remain for the most part unclear; they are frequently co-expressed in the same tissues, and may form heterodimers, making pharmacological analysis difficult.

Table 14.1 Characteristics of adrenoceptors

Tissues and effects	α_1	α_2	β_1	β_2	β_3
Smooth muscle					
Blood vessels	Constrict	Constrict/dilate	—	Dilate	—
Bronchi	Constrict	—	—	Dilate	—
Gastrointestinal tract	Relax	Relax (presynaptic effect)	—	Relax	—
Gastrointestinal sphincters	Contract	—	—	—	—
Uterus	Contract	—	—	Relax	—
Bladder detrusor	—	—	—	Relax	—
Bladder sphincter	Contract	—	—	—	—
Seminal tract	Contract	—	—	Relax	—
Iris (radial muscle)	Contract	—	—	—	—
Ciliary muscle	—	—	—	Relax	—
Heart					
Rate	—	—	Increase	Increase[a]	—
Force of contraction	—	—	Increase	Increase[a]	—
Skeletal muscle	—	—	—	Tremor Increased muscle mass and speed of contraction Glycogenolysis	Thermogenesis
Liver	Glycogenolysis	—	—	Glycogenolysis	—
Fat	—	—	—	—	Lipolysis Thermogenesis
Pancreatic islets	—	Decrease insulin secretion	—	—	—
Nerve terminals					
Adrenergic	—	Decrease release	—	Increase release	—
Cholinergic	—	Decrease release	—	—	—
Salivary gland	K^+ release	—	Amylase secretion	—	—
Platelets	—	Aggregation	—	—	—
Mast cells	—	—	—	Inhibition of histamine release	—
Brain stem	—	Inhibits sympathetic outflow	—	—	—
Second messengers and effectors	Phospholipase C activation ↑ Inositol trisphosphate ↑ Diacylglycerol ↑ Ca^{2+}	↓ cAMP ↓ Calcium channels ↑ Potassium channels	↑ cAMP	↑ cAMP	↑ cAMP
Agonist potency order	NA ≥ A ≫ ISO	A > NA ≫ ISO	ISO > NA > A	ISO > A > NA	ISO > NA = A
Selective agonists	Phenylephrine Methoxamine	Clonidine	Dobutamine Xamoterol	Salbutamol Terbutaline Salmeterol Formoterol Clenbuterol	BRL 37344
Selective antagonists	Prazosin Doxazocin	Yohimbine Idazoxan	Atenolol Metoprolol	Butoxamine	—

[a]Minor component normally but may become significant in heart failure.

A, adrenaline; ISO, isoprenaline; NA, noradrenaline.

Each of the three main receptor subtypes is associated with a specific second messenger system (Table 14.1). Thus α_1 receptors are coupled to phospholipase C and produce their effects mainly by the release of intracellular Ca^{2+}; α_2 receptors are negatively coupled to adenylyl

cyclase, and reduce cAMP formation as well as inhibiting Ca^{2+} channels and activating K^+ channels ; and all three types of β receptor act by stimulation of adenylyl cyclase. The major effects that are produced by these receptors, and the main drugs that act on them, are shown in Table 14.1.

The distinction between β_1 and β_2 receptors is an important one, for β_1 receptors are found mainly in the heart, where they are responsible for the positive inotropic and chronotropic effects of catecholamines (see Ch. 21). β_2 receptors, on the other hand, are responsible for causing smooth muscle relaxation in many organs. The latter is often a useful therapeutic effect, while the former is more often harmful; consequently, considerable efforts have been made to find selective β_2 agonists, which would relax smooth muscle without affecting the heart, and selective β_1 antagonists, which would exert a useful blocking effect on the heart without at the same time blocking β_2 receptors in bronchial smooth muscle (see Table 14.1). It is important to realise that the available drugs are not completely selective, and that compounds used as selective β_1 antagonists invariably have some action on β_2 receptors as well, which can cause unwanted effects such as bronchoconstriction.

In relation to vascular control, it is broadly true that α_1 and β_2 receptors act mainly on the smooth muscle cells themselves, while α_2 receptors act on presynaptic terminals, but different vascular beds deviate from this general rule. Both α-and β-receptor subtypes are expressed in smooth muscle cells, nerve terminals and endothelial cells, and their role in physiological regulation and pharmacological responses of the cardiovascular system is only partly understood (see Guimaraes & Moura, 2001).

Classification of adrenoceptors

• Main pharmacological classification into α and β subtypes, based originally on order of potency among agonists, later on selective antagonists.

• Adrenoceptor subtypes:

– two main α-adrenoceptor subtypes, α1 and α2, each divided into three further subtypes

– three β-adrenoceptor subtypes (β1, β2, β3)

– all belong to the superfamily of G-protein-coupled receptors.

• Second messengers:

– α1 receptors activate phospholipase C, producing inositol trisphosphate and diacylglycerol as second messengers

– α2 receptors inhibit adenylyl cyclase, decreasing cAMP formation

– all types of β receptor stimulate adenylyl cyclase.

• The main effects of receptor activation are as follows:

– α1 receptors: vasoconstriction, relaxation of gastrointestinal smooth muscle, salivary secretion and hepatic glycogenolysis

– α2 receptors: inhibition of transmitter release (including noradrenaline and acetylcholine release from autonomic nerves), platelet aggregation, contraction of vascular smooth muscle, inhibition of insulin release

– β1 receptors: increased cardiac rate and force, delayed cardiac hypertrophy

– β2 receptors: bronchodilatation, vasodilatation, relaxation of visceral smooth muscle, hepatic glycogenolysis and muscle tremor

– β3 receptors: lipolysis.

Physiology of Noradrenergic Transmission

The Noradrenergic Neuron

Noradrenergic neurons in the periphery are postganglionic sympathetic neurons whose cell bodies lie in sympathetic ganglia. They generally have long axons that end in a series of varicosities strung along the

branching terminal network. These varicosities contain numerous synaptic vesicles, which are the sites of synthesis and release of noradrenaline and of co-released mediators such as ATP and neuropeptide Y (see Ch. 12), which are stored in vesicles and release by exocytosis (Ch. 4). In most peripheral tissues, the tissue content of noradrenaline closely parallels the density of the sympathetic innervation. With the exception of the adrenal medulla, sympathetic nerve terminals account for all the noradrenaline content of peripheral tissues. Organs such as the heart, spleen, vas deferens and some blood vessels are particularly rich in noradrenaline (5–50 nmol/g of tissue) and have been widely used for studies of noradrenergic transmission. For detailed information on noradrenergic neurons, see Robertson (2004) and Cooper *et al.* (1996).

Noradrenaline Synthesis

The biosynthetic pathway for noradrenaline synthesis is shown in Figure 14.2. The metabolic precursor for noradrenaline is *L-tyrosine*, an aromatic amino acid that is present in the body fluids and is taken up by adrenergic neurons. *Tyrosine hydroxylase*, a cytosolic enzyme that catalyses the conversion of tyrosine to *dihydroxyphenylalanine* (dopa), is found only in catecholamine-containing cells. It is a rather selective enzyme; unlike other enzymes involved in catecholamine metabolism, it does not accept indole derivatives as substrates, and so is not involved in 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) metabolism. This first hydroxylation step is the main control point for noradrenaline synthesis. Tyrosine hydroxylase is inhibited by the end product of the biosynthetic pathway, noradrenaline, and this provides the mechanism for the moment-to-moment regulation of the rate of synthesis; much slower regulation, taking hours or days, occurs by changes in the rate of production of the enzyme.

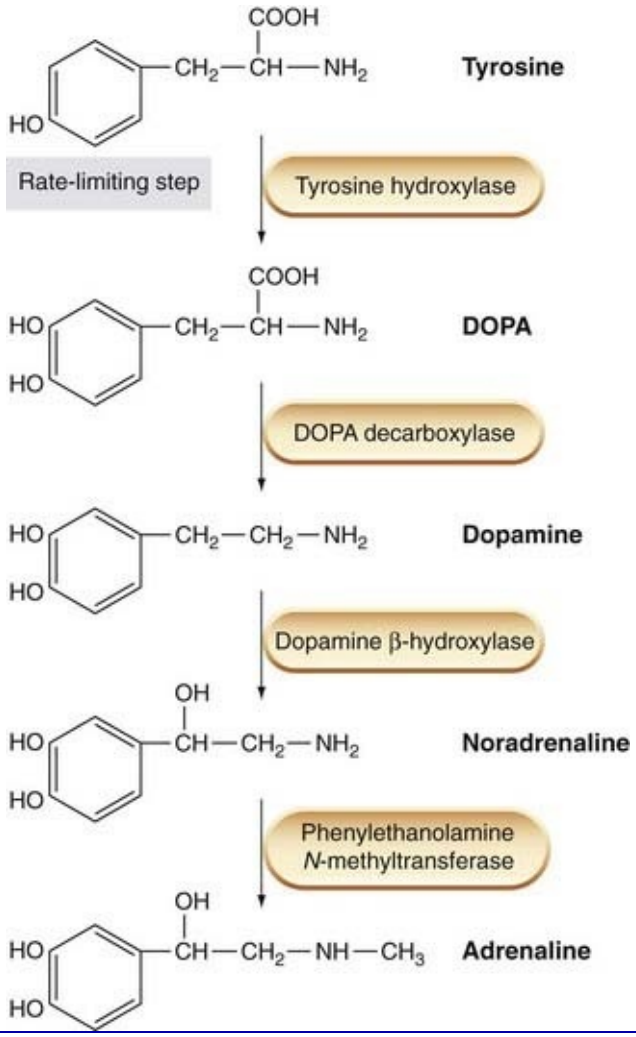


Fig. 14.2 Biosynthesis of catecholamines.
DOPA, dihydroxyphenylalanine.

The tyrosine analogue **α-methyltyrosine** strongly inhibits tyrosine hydroxylase and may be used experimentally to block noradrenaline synthesis.

The next step, conversion of dopa to dopamine, is catalysed by *dopa decarboxylase*, a cytosolic enzyme that is by no means confined to catecholamine-synthesising cells. It is a relatively non-specific enzyme, and catalyses the decarboxylation of various other L-aromatic amino acids, such as *L-histidine* and *L-tryptophan*, which are precursors in the synthesis of histamine (Ch. 17) and 5-HT (Ch. 15), respectively. Dopa

decarboxylase activity is not rate limiting for noradrenaline synthesis. Although various factors, including certain drugs, affect the enzyme, it is not an effective means of regulating noradrenaline synthesis.

Dopamine-β-hydroxylase (DBH) is also a relatively non-specific enzyme, but is restricted to catecholamine-synthesising cells. It is located in synaptic vesicles, mainly in membrane-bound form. A small amount of the enzyme is released from adrenergic nerve terminals in company with noradrenaline, representing the small proportion in a soluble form within the vesicle. Unlike noradrenaline, the released DBH is not subject to rapid degradation or uptake, so its concentration in plasma and body fluids can be used as an index of overall sympathetic nerve activity.

Many drugs inhibit DBH, including copper-chelating agents and **disulfiram** (a drug used mainly for its effect on ethanol metabolism; see Chs 9 and 48). Such drugs can cause a partial depletion of noradrenaline stores and interference with sympathetic transmission. A rare genetic disorder, DBH deficiency, causes failure of noradrenaline synthesis resulting in severe orthostatic hypotension (see Ch. 22).

Phenylethanolamine N-*methyl transferase* (PNMT) catalyses the *N*-methylation of noradrenaline to adrenaline. The main location of this enzyme is in the adrenal medulla, which contains a population of adrenaline-releasing (A) cells separate from the smaller proportion of noradrenaline-releasing (N) cells. The A cells, which appear only after birth, lie adjacent to the adrenal cortex, and the production of PNMT is induced by an action of the steroid hormones secreted by the adrenal cortex (see Ch. 32). PNMT is also found in certain parts of the brain, where adrenaline may function as a transmitter, but little is known about its role.

Noradrenaline turnover can be measured under steady-state conditions

by measuring the rate at which labelled noradrenaline accumulates when a labelled precursor, such as tyrosine or dopa, is administered. The turnover time is defined as the time taken for an amount of noradrenaline equal to the total tissue content to be degraded and resynthesised. In peripheral tissues, the turnover time is generally about 5–15 h, but it becomes much shorter if sympathetic nerve activity is increased. Under normal circumstances, the rate of synthesis closely matches the rate of release, so that the noradrenaline content of tissues is constant regardless of how fast it is being released.

Noradrenaline Storage

Most of the noradrenaline in nerve terminals or chromaffin cells is contained in vesicles; only a little is free in the cytoplasm under normal circumstances. The concentration in the vesicles is very high (0.3–1.0 mol/l) and is maintained by the *vesicular monoamine transporter* (VMAT), which is similar to the amine transporter responsible for noradrenaline uptake into the nerve terminal (see Ch. 12), but uses the transvesicular proton gradient as its driving force. Certain drugs, such as **reserpine** (see below; Table 14.2) block this transport and cause nerve terminals to become depleted of their vesicular noradrenaline stores. The vesicles contain two major constituents besides noradrenaline, namely ATP (about four molecules per molecule of noradrenaline) and a protein called *chromogranin A*. These substances are released along with noradrenaline, and it is generally assumed that a reversible complex, depending partly on the opposite charges on the molecules of noradrenaline and ATP, is formed within the vesicle. This would serve both to reduce the osmolarity of the vesicle contents and also to reduce the tendency of noradrenaline to leak out of the vesicles within the nerve terminal.

Table 14.2 Characteristics of noradrenaline (norepinephrine) transport systems

	Neuronal (NET)	Extraneuronal (EMT)	Vesicular (VMAT)
Transport of NA (rat heart) V_{max} (nmol/g per min)	1.2	100	—
K_m (μmol/l)	0.3	250	~0.2
Specificity	NA > A > ISO	A > NA > ISO	NA = A = ISO
Location	Neuronal membrane	Non-neuronal cell membrane (smooth muscle, cardiac muscle, endothelium)	Synaptic vesicle membrane
Other substrates	Tyramine Methylnoradrenaline Adrenergic neuron-blocking drugs (e.g. guanethidine) Amphetamine[a]	(+)-Noradrenaline Dopamine 5-Hydroxytryptamine Histamine	Dopamine 5-Hydroxytryptamine Guanethidine MPP+ (see Ch. 37)
Inhibitors	Cocaine Tricyclic antidepressants (e.g. desipramine) Phenoxybenzamine Amphetamine[a]	Normetanephrine Steroid hormones (e.g. corticosterone) Phenoxybenzamine	Reserpine Tetrabenazine

A, adrenaline; ISO, isoprenaline; NA, noradrenaline.
[a] Amphetamine is transported slowly, so acts both as a substrate and as an inhibitor of noradrenaline uptake. For details, see Gainetdinov & Caron (2003).

ATP itself has a transmitter function at noradrenergic synapses (see Lundberg, 1996; Fig. 12.5; Ch. 16), being responsible for the fast excitatory synaptic potential and the rapid phase of contraction produced by sympathetic nerve activity in many smooth muscle tissues.

Noradrenaline Release

The processes linking the arrival of a nerve impulse at a nerve terminal to Ca^{2+} entry and the release of transmitter are described in Chapter 4.

An unusual feature of the release mechanism at the varicosities of noradrenergic nerves is that the probability of release, even of a single vesicle, when a nerve impulse arrives at a varicosity is very low (less than 1 in 50; see Cunnane, 1984). A single neuron possesses many thousand varicosities, so one impulse leads to the discharge of a few hundred vesicles, scattered over a wide area. This contrasts sharply with the neuromuscular junction (Ch. 13), where the release probability at a single terminal is high, and release of acetylcholine is sharply localised.

Regulation of noradrenaline release

Noradrenaline release is affected by a variety of substances that act on presynaptic receptors (see Ch. 12). Many different types of nerve terminal (cholinergic, noradrenergic, dopaminergic, 5-HT-ergic, etc.) are subject to this type of control, and many different mediators (e.g. acetylcholine acting through muscarinic receptors, catecholamines acting through α and β receptors, angiotensin II, prostaglandins, purine nucleotides, neuropeptides, etc.) can act on presynaptic terminals. Presynaptic modulation represents an important physiological control mechanism throughout the nervous system.

Furthermore, noradrenaline, by acting on presynaptic β_2 receptors, can regulate its own release, and also that of co-released ATP (see Ch. 12). This is believed to occur physiologically, so that released noradrenaline exerts a local inhibitory effect on the terminals from which it came—the so-called *autoinhibitory feedback* mechanism (Fig. 14.3; see Starke et al., 1989). Agonists or antagonists affecting these presynaptic receptors can have large effects on sympathetic transmission. The physiological significance of presynaptic autoinhibition in the sympathetic nervous system is still somewhat contentious, and there is evidence that, in most tissues, it is less influential than biochemical measurements of transmitter overflow would imply. Thus, although blocking autoreceptors causes large changes in noradrenaline *overflow*—the amount of noradrenaline released into the bathing solution or the bloodstream when sympathetic nerves are stimulated—the associated changes in the tissue response are often rather small. This suggests that what is measured in overflow experiments may not be the physiologically important component of transmitter release.

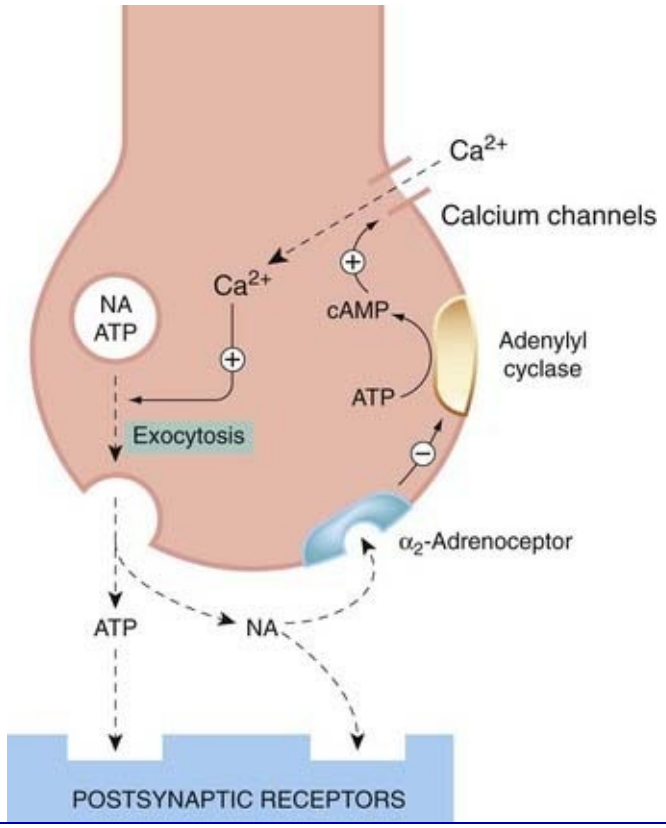


Fig. 14.3 Feedback control of noradrenaline release.

The presynaptic α_2 receptor inhibits adenylyl cyclase, thereby reducing intracellular cAMP. cAMP acts to promote Ca^{2+} influx in response to membrane depolarisation, and hence to promote the release of noradrenaline and ATP.

The inhibitory feedback mechanism operates through α_2 receptors, which inhibit adenylyl cyclase and prevent the opening of calcium channels. Sympathetic nerve terminals also possess β_2 receptors, coupled to activation of adenylyl cyclase, which cause an increased noradrenaline release. Whether they have any physiological function is not yet clear.

Uptake and Degradation of Catecholamines

The action of released noradrenaline is terminated mainly by reuptake of the transmitter into noradrenergic nerve terminals. Some is also sequestered by other cells in the vicinity. Circulating adrenaline and

noradrenaline are degraded enzymically, but much more slowly than acetylcholine (see Ch. 13), where synaptically located acetylcholinesterase inactivates the transmitter in milliseconds. The two main catecholamine-metabolising enzymes are located intracellularly, so uptake into cells necessarily precedes metabolic degradation.

Uptake of Catecholamines

About 75% of the noradrenaline released by sympathetic neurons is recaptured and repackaged into vesicles. This serves to cut short the action of the released noradrenaline, as well as recycling it. The remaining 25% is captured by non-neuronal cells in the vicinity, limiting its local spread. These two uptake mechanisms depend on distinct transporter molecules. Neuronal uptake is performed by the plasma membrane noradrenaline transporter (generally known as NET, the *norepinephrine transporter*), which belongs to the family of neurotransmitter transporter proteins (NET, DAT, SERT, etc.) specific for different amine transmitters, described in Chapter 12; these act as co-transporters of Na^+, Cl^- and the amine in question, using the electrochemical gradient for Na^+ as a driving force. Packaging into vesicles occurs through the *vesicular monoamine transporter* (VMAT), driven by the proton gradient between the cytosol and the vesicle contents. Extraneuronal uptake is performed by the *extraneuronal monoamine transporter* (EMT), which belongs to a large and widely distributed family of organic cation transporters. NET is relatively selective for noradrenaline, with high affinity and a low maximum rate of uptake, and it is important in maintaining releasable stores of noradrenaline. EMT has lower affinity and higher transport capacity than NET, and transports adrenaline and isoprenaline as well as noradrenaline. The effects of several important drugs that act on noradrenergic neurons depend on their ability either to inhibit NET or to

enter the nerve terminal with its help. Table 14.2 summarises the properties of neuronal and extraneuronal uptake.

Metabolic Degradation of Catecholamines

Endogenous and exogenous catecholamines are metabolised mainly by two enzymes: *monoamine oxidase* (MAO) and *catechol*-O-*methyl transferase* (COMT). MAO (of which there are two distinct isoforms, MAO-A and MAO-B; see Chs 38 and 46) occurs within cells, bound to the surface membrane of mitochondria. It is abundant in noradrenergic nerve terminals but is also present in many other places, such as liver and intestinal epithelium. MAO converts catecholamines to their corresponding aldehydes,[3] which, in the periphery, are rapidly metabolised by *aldehyde dehydrogenase* to the corresponding carboxylic acid (3,4-dihydroxyphenylglycol being formed from noradrenaline; Fig. 14.4). MAO can also oxidise other monoamines, including dopamine and 5-HT. It is inhibited by various drugs (see Table 14.3), which are used mainly for their effects on the central nervous system, where these three amines all have transmitter functions (see Ch. 38). These drugs have important side effects that are related to disturbances of peripheral noradrenergic transmission. Within sympathetic neurons, MAO controls the content of dopamine and noradrenaline, and the releasable store of noradrenaline increases if the enzyme is inhibited. MAO and its inhibitors are discussed in more detail in Chapter 46.

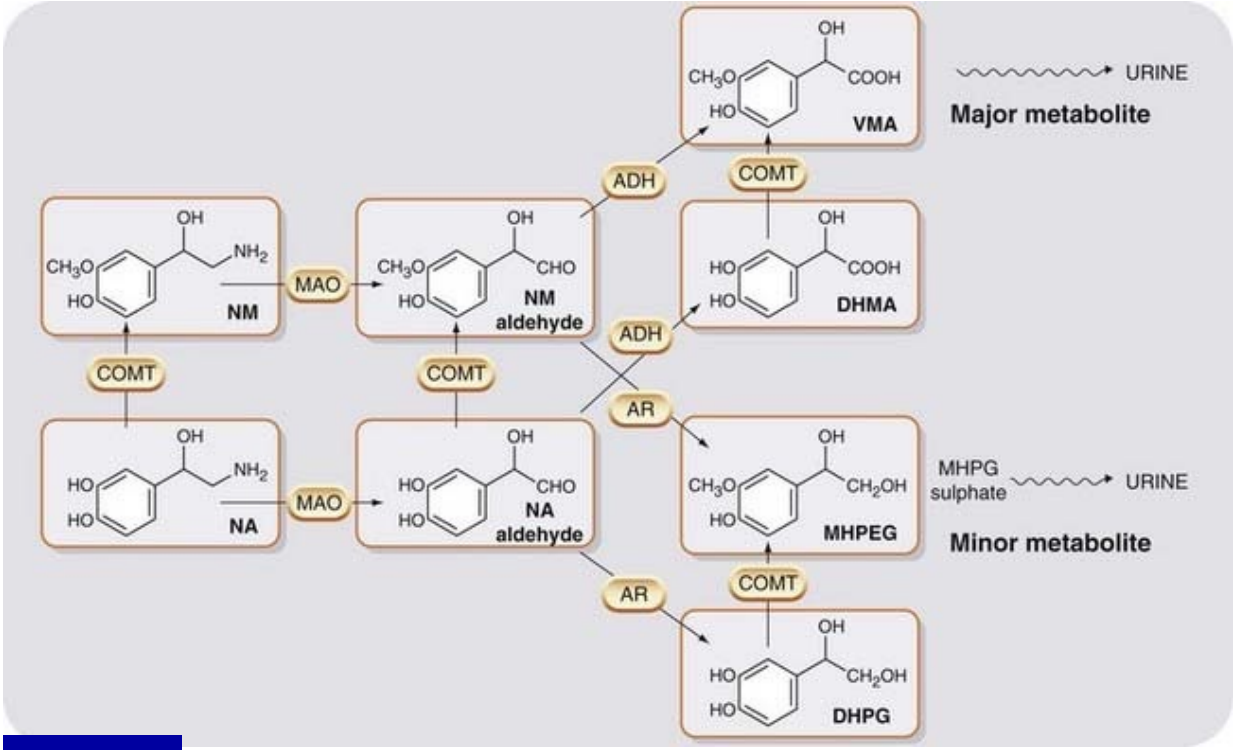


Fig. 14.4 The main pathways of noradrenaline metabolism.

The oxidative branch (catalysed by ADH) predominates, giving VMA as the main urinary metabolite. The reductive branch (catalysed by AR) produces the less abundant metabolite, MHPG, which is conjugated to MHPG sulfate before being excreted. ADH, aldehyde dehydrogenase; AR, aldehyde reductase; COMT, catechol-*O*-methyl transferase; DHMA, 3,4-dihydroxymandelic acid; DHPG, 3,4-dihydroxyphenylglycol; MAO, monoamine oxidase; MHPG, 3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol; NA, noradrenaline; NM, normetanephrine; VMA, vanillylmandelic acid.

Table 14.3 Summary of drugs that affect noradrenergic transmission

Type	Drug[a]	Main action	Uses/function	Unwanted effects	Pharmacokinetic aspects	Notes
Adrenoceptor agonists	Norepinephrine[b]	α/β Agonist	Not used clinically Transmitter at postganglionic sympathetic neurons, and in CNS Hormone of adrenal medulla	Hypertension, vasoconstriction, tachycardia (or reflex bradycardia), ventricular dysrhythmias	Poorly absorbed by mouth Rapid removal by tissues Metabolised by MAO and COMT Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~2 min	—
	Epinephrine[b]	α/β Agonist	Asthma (emergency treatment), anaphylactic shock, cardiac arrest Added to local anaesthetic solutions Main hormone of adrenal medulla	As norepinephrine	As norepinephrine Given i.m. or s.c.	See Ch. 27
	Isoprenaline	β Agonist (non-selective)	Asthma (obsolete) Not an endogenous substance	Tachycardia, dysrhythmias	Some tissue uptake, followed by inactivation (COMT) Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~2 h	Now replaced by salbutamol in treatment of asthma (see Ch. 27)
	Dobutamine	β_1 Agonist (non-selective)	Cardiogenic shock	Dysrhythmias	Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~2 min Given i.v.	See Ch. 21
	Salbutamol	β_2 Agonist	Asthma, premature labour	Tachycardia, dysrhythmias, tremor, peripheral vasodilatation	Given orally or by aerosol Mainly excreted unchanged Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~4 h	See Ch. 27
	Salmeterol	β_2 Agonist	Asthma	As salbutamol	Given by aerosol Long acting	Formoterol is similar
	Terbutaline	β_2 Agonist	Asthma Delay of parturition	As salbutamol	Poorly absorbed orally Given by aerosol Mainly excreted unchanged Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~4 h	See Ch. 27
	Clenbuterol	β_2 Agonist	'Anabolic' action to increase muscle strength	As salbutamol	Active orally Long acting	Illicit use in sport
	Ritodrine	β_2 Agonist	Delay of parturition	As salbutamol	Poorly absorbed by mouth; given i.v.	Rarely used
	Phenylephrine	α_1 Agonist	Nasal decongestion	Hypertension, reflex bradycardia	Given intranasally Metabolised by MAO Short plasma $t_{1/2}$	–
	Methoxamine	α Agonist (non-selective)	Nasal decongestion	As phenylephrine	Given intranasally Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~1 h	–
	Clonidine	α_2 Partial agonist	Hypertension, migraine	Drowsiness, orthostatic hypotension, oedema and weight gain, rebound hypertension	Well absorbed orally Excreted unchanged and as conjugate Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~12 h	See Ch. 21
Indirectly-acting sympathomimetic agents	Tyramine	NA release	No clinical uses Present in various foods	As norepinephrine	Normally destroyed by MAO in gut Does not enter brain	See Ch.46
	Amphetamine	NA release, MAO inhibitor, NET inhibitor, CNS stimulant	Used as CNS stimulant in narcolepsy, also (paradoxically) in hyperactive children Appetite suppressant Drug of abuse	Hypertension, tachycardia, insomnia Acute psychosis with overdose Dependence	Well absorbed orally Penetrates freely into brain Excreted unchanged in urine Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~12 h, depending on urine flow and pH	See Ch. 47 Methylphenidate and atomoxetine are similar (used for CNS effects; see Ch. 47)
	Ephedrine	NA release, β agonist, weak CNS stimulant action	Nasal decongestion	As amphetamine but less pronounced	Similar to amphetamine aspects	Contraindicated if MAO inhibitors are given

α-Adrenoceptor antagonists	Phenoxybenzamine	α Antagonist (non-selective, irreversible) Uptake 1 inhibitor	Phaeochromocytoma	Postural hypotension, flushing, tachycardia, nasal congestion, impotence	Absorbed orally Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~12 h	Action outlasts presence of drug in plasma, because of covalent binding to receptor
	Phentolamine	α Antagonist (non-selective), vasodilator	Rarely used	As phenoxybenzamine	Usually given i.v. Metabolised by liver Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~2 h	Tolazoline is similar
	Prazosin	α_1 Antagonist	Hypertension	As phenoxybenzamine	Absorbed orally Metabolised by liver Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~4 h	Doxazosin, terazosin are similar but longer acting See Ch. 22
	Tamsulosin	α_1 Antagonist ('uroselective')	Prostatic hyperplasia	Failure of ejaculation	Absorbed orally Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~5 h	Selective for α_{1A}-adrenoceptor
	Yohimbine	α_2 Antagonist	Not used clinically Claimed to be aphrodisiac	Excitement, hypertension	Absorbed orally Metabolised by liver Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~4 h	Idazoxan is similar
	Propranolol	β Antagonist (non-selective)	Angina, hypertension, cardiac dysrhythmias, anxiety, tremor, glaucoma	Bronchoconstriction, cardiac failure, cold extremities, fatigue and depression, hypoglycaemia	Absorbed orally Extensive first-pass metabolism About 90% bound to plasma protein Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~4 h	Timolol is similar and used mainly to treat glaucoma See Ch. 21
	Alprenolol	β Antagonist (non-selective) (partial agonist)	As propranolol	As propranolol	Absorbed orally Metabolised by liver Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~4 h	Oxprenolol and pindolol are similar See Ch. 21
	Metoprolol	β_1 Antagonist	Angina, hypertension, dysrhythmias	As propranolol, less risk of bronchoconstriction	Absorbed orally Mainly metabolised in liver Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~3 h	Atenolol is similar, with a longer half-life See Ch. 21
	Nebivolol	β_1 Antagonist Enhances nitric oxide-mediated transmission	Hypertension	Fatigue, headache	Absorbed orally $t_{1/2}$ ~10 h	—
	Butoxamine	β_2 selective antagonist Weak α agonist	No clinical uses	—	—	—
Mixed α/β antagonists	Labetalol	α/β Antagonist	Hypertension in pregnancy	Postural hypotension, brochoconstriction	Absorbed orally Conjugated in liver Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~4 h	See Chs 21 and 22
	Carvedilol	β/α_1 Antagonist	Heart failure	As for other β-blockers Initial exacerbation of heart failure Renal failure	Absorbed orally $t_{1/2}$ ~10 h	Additional actions may contribute to clinical benefit See Ch. 21

Drugs affecting NA synthesis	α-Methyl-p-tyrosine	Inhibits tyrosine hydroxylase	Occasionally used in phaeochromocytoma	Hypotension, sedation	—	—
	Carbidopa	Inhibits dopa decarboxylase	Used as adjunct to levodopa to prevent peripheral effects	—	Absorbed orally Does not enter brain	See Ch. 39
	Methyldopa	False transmitter precursor	Hypertension in pregnancy	Hypotension, drowsiness, diarrhoea, impotence, hypersensitivity reactions	Absorbed slowly by mouth Excreted unchanged or as conjugate Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~6 h	See Ch. 22
	Droxidopa	Converted to NA by dopa decarboxylase, thus increasing NA synthesis and release	Orthostatic hypotension	Not known	Absorbed orally Duration of action ~6 h	Experimental drug currently in clinical trials
Drugs affecting NA release	Reserpine	Depletes NA stores by inhibiting VMAT	Hypertension (obsolete)	As methyldopa Also depression, parkinsonism, gynaecomastia	Poorly absorbed orally Slowly metabolised Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~100 h Excreted in milk	Antihypertensive effect develops slowly and persists when drug is stopped
	Guanethidine	Inhibits NA release Also causes NA depletion and can damage NA neurons irreversibly	Hypertension (obsolete)	As methyldopa Hypertension on first administration	Poorly absorbed orally Mainly excreted unchanged in urine Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~100 h	Action prevented by NET inhibitors Bethanidine and debrisoquin are similar
Drugs affecting NA uptake	Imipramine	Blocks neuronal transporter (NET) Also has atropine-like action	Depression	Atropine-like side effects Cardiac dysrhythmias in overdose	Well absorbed orally 95% bound to plasma protein Converted to active metabolite (desmethylimipramine) Plasma $t_{1/2}$ ~4 h	Desipramine and amitriptyline are similar See Ch. 46
	Cocaine	Local anaesthetic; blocks NET CNS stimulant	Rarely used local anaesthetic Major drug of abuse	Hypertension, excitement, convulsions, dependence	Well absorbed orally or intranasally	See Ch. 42 and 47

[a]For chemical structures, see Brunton et al. 2006 Goodman and Gilman's pharmacological basis of therapeutics, 11th edn. McGraw-Hill, New York.
[b]Note that norepinephrine and epinephrine are the recommended drug names for noradrenaline and adrenaline, respectively.
COMT, catechol-O-methyltransferase; MAO, monoamine oxidase; NA, noradrenaline.

[3]Aldehyde metabolites are potentially neurotoxic, and are thought to play a role in certain degenerative CNS disorders (see Ch. 39).

The second major pathway for catecholamine metabolism involves methylation of one of the catechol hydroxyl groups by COMT to give a methoxy derivative. COMT is absent from noradrenergic neurons but present in the adrenal medulla and many other cells and tissues. The final product formed by the sequential action of MAO and COMT is *3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol* (MHPG; see Fig. 14.4). This is partly conjugated to sulfate or glucuronide derivatives, which are excreted in the urine, but most of it is converted to *vanillylmandelic acid* (VMA; Fig.

14.4) and excreted in the urine in this form.[4] In patients with tumours of chromaffin tissue that secrete these amines (a rare cause of high blood pressure), the urinary excretion of VMA is markedly increased, this being used as a diagnostic test for this condition.

[4]The amounts of MHPG and VMA excreted are often taken to reflect noradrenaline release from sympathetic neurons and central nervous system neurons, respectively, but this is now believed to be unreliable (see Eisenhofer et al., 2004).

In the periphery, neither MAO nor COMT is primarily responsible for the termination of transmitter action, most of the released noradrenaline being quickly recaptured by NET. Circulating catecholamines are sequestered and inactivated by a combination of NET, EMT and COMT, the relative importance of these processes varying according to the agent concerned. Thus circulating noradrenaline is removed mainly by NET, whereas adrenaline is more dependent on EMT. Isoprenaline, on the other hand, is not a substrate for NET, and is removed by a combination of EMT and COMT.

In the central nervous system (see Ch. 38), MAO is more important as a means of terminating transmitter action than it is in the periphery, and MAO knockout mice show a greater enhancement of noradrenergic transmission in the brain than do NET knockouts, in which neuronal stores of noradrenaline are much depleted (see Gainetdinov & Caron, 2003). The main excretory product of noradrenaline released in the brain is MHPG.

Noradrenergic transmission

• Transmitter synthesis involves the following:

– L-tyrosine is converted to dihydroxyphenylalanine (dopa) by tyrosine hydroxylase (rate-

limiting step). Tyrosine hydroxylase occurs only in catecholaminergic neurons.

– Dopa is converted to dopamine by dopa decarboxylase.

– Dopamine is converted to noradrenaline by dopamine β-hydroxylase (DBH), located in synaptic vesicles.

– In the adrenal medulla, noradrenaline is converted to adrenaline by phenylethanolamine *N*-methyltransferase.

• Transmitter storage: noradrenaline is stored at high concentration in synaptic vesicles, together with ATP, chromogranin and DBH, all of which are released by exocytosis. Transport of noradrenaline into vesicles occurs by a reserpine-sensitive transporter (VMAT). Noradrenaline content of cytosol is normally low due to monoamine oxidase in nerve terminals.

• Transmitter release occurs normally by Ca^{2+}-mediated exocytosis from varicosities on the terminal network. Non-exocytotic release occurs in response to indirectly acting sympathomimetic drugs (e.g. amphetamine), which displace noradrenaline from vesicles. Noradrenaline escapes via the NET transporter (reverse transport).

• Transmitter action is terminated mainly by reuptake of noradrenaline into nerve terminals via the NET transporter. NET is blocked by tricyclic antidepressant drugs and cocaine.

• Noradrenaline release is controlled by autoinhibitory feedback mediated by α_2 receptors.

• Co-transmission occurs at many noradrenergic nerve terminals, ATP and neuropeptide Y being frequently co-released with NA. ATP mediates the early phase of smooth muscle contraction in response to sympathetic nerve activity.

Drugs Acting on Noradrenergic Transmission

Many clinically important drugs, particularly those used to treat cardiovascular, respiratory and psychiatric disorders (see Chs 21, 22, 27 and 46), act by affecting noradrenergic neuron function, acting on adrenoceptors, transporters or catecholamine-metabolising enzymes. The

properties of the most important drugs in this category are summarised in Table 14.3.

Drugs Acting on Adrenoceptors

The overall activity of these drugs is governed by their affinity, efficacy and selectivity with respect to different types of adrenoceptor, and intensive research has been devoted to developing drugs with the right properties for specific clinical indications. As a result, the pharmacopoeia is awash with adrenoceptor ligands. Many clinical needs are met, it turns out, by drugs that relax smooth muscle in different organs of the body[5] and those that block the cardiac stimulant effects of the sympathetic nervous system; on the other hand, cardiac stimulation is generally undesirable.

[5]And conversely, contracting smooth muscle is usually bad news. This bald statement must not be pressed too far, but the exceptions (such as nasal decongestants and drugs acting on the eye) are surprisingly few.

Broadly speaking, β-adrenoceptor agonists are useful as smooth muscle relaxants (especially in the airways), while β-adrenoceptor antagonists (often called β-blockers) are used mainly for their cardiodepressant effects. α-Adrenoceptor antagonists are used mainly for their vasodilator effects in cardiovascular indications and also for the treatment of prostatic hyperplasia. α-Adrenoceptor agonists have few clinical uses.

Adrenoceptor Agonists

Examples of adrenoceptor agonists (also known as *directly-acting sympathomimetic* drugs) are given in Table 14.1, and the characteristics of individual drugs are summarised in Table 14.3.

Actions

The major physiological effects mediated by different types of

adrenoceptor are summarised in Table 14.1.

Smooth muscle

All types of smooth muscle, except that of the gastrointestinal tract, contract in response to stimulation of α_1-adrenoceptors, through activation of the signal transduction mechanism described in Chapter 4.

When α agonists are given systemically to experimental animals or humans, the most important action is on vascular smooth muscle, particularly in the skin and splanchnic vascular beds, which are strongly constricted. Large arteries and veins, as well as arterioles, are also constricted, resulting in decreased vascular compliance, increased central venous pressure and increased peripheral resistance, all of which contribute to an increase in systolic and diastolic arterial pressure and increased cardiac work. Some vascular beds (e.g. cerebral, coronary and pulmonary) are relatively little affected.

In the whole animal, baroreceptor reflexes are activated by the rise in arterial pressure produced by α agonists, causing reflex bradycardia and inhibition of respiration.

Smooth muscle in the vas deferens, spleen capsule and eyelid retractor muscles (or nictitating membrane, in some species) is also stimulated by α agonists, and these organs are often used for pharmacological studies.

The α receptors involved in smooth muscle contraction are mainly α_1 in type, although vascular smooth muscle possesses both α_1 and α_2 receptors. It appears that α_1 receptors lie close to the sites of release (and are mainly responsible for neurally mediated vasoconstriction), while α_2 receptors lie elsewhere on the muscle fibre surface and are activated by circulating catecholamines.

Stimulation of β receptors causes relaxation of most kinds of smooth

muscle by increasing cAMP formation (see Ch. 4). Additionally, β-receptor activation enhances Ca^{2+} extrusion and intracellular Ca^{2+} binding, both effects acting to reduce intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration.

Relaxation is usually produced by β_2 receptors, although the receptor that is responsible for this effect in gastrointestinal smooth muscle is not clearly β_1 or β_2. In the vascular system, β_2-mediated vasodilatation is (particularly in humans) mainly endothelium dependent and mediated by nitric oxide release (see Ch. 20). It occurs in many vascular beds and is especially marked in skeletal muscle.

The powerful inhibitory effect of the sympathetic system on gastrointestinal smooth muscle is produced by both α and β receptors, this tissue being unusual in that α receptors cause relaxation in most regions. Part of the effect is due to stimulation of presynaptic α_2 receptors (see below), which inhibit the release of excitatory transmitters (e.g. acetylcholine) from intramural nerves, but there are also α receptors on the muscle cells, stimulation of which hyperpolarises the cell (by increasing the membrane permeability to K^+) and inhibits action potential discharge. The sphincters of the gastrointestinal tract are contracted by α-receptor activation.

Bronchial smooth muscle is relaxed by activation of β_2-adrenoceptors, and selective β_2 agonists are important in the treatment of asthma (see Ch. 27). Uterine smooth muscle responds similarly, and these drugs are also used to delay premature labour (Ch. 34).

α_1-Adrenoceptors also mediate a long-lasting trophic response, stimulating smooth muscle proliferation in various tissues, for example in blood vessels and in the prostate gland, which is of pathological importance. *Benign prostatic hyperplasia* (see Ch. 34) is commonly treated with α-adrenoceptor antagonists (see the clinical box on p. 187). 'Cross-

talk' between the α_1-adrenoceptor and the growth factor signalling pathways (see Ch. 3) probably accounts for this effect.

Nerve terminals

Presynaptic adrenoceptors are present on both cholinergic and noradrenergic nerve terminals (see Chs 4 and 12). The main effect (α_2 mediated) is inhibitory, but a weaker facilitatory action of β receptors on noradrenergic nerve terminals has also been described.

Heart

Catecholamines, acting on β_1 receptors, exert a powerful stimulant effect on the heart (see Ch. 21). Both the heart rate (*chronotropic effect*) and the force of contraction (*inotropic effect*) are increased, resulting in a markedly increased cardiac output and cardiac oxygen consumption. The cardiac efficiency (see Ch. 21) is reduced. Catecholamines can also cause disturbance of the cardiac rhythm, culminating in ventricular fibrillation. (Paradoxically, but importantly, adrenaline is also used to treat ventricular fibrillation arrest as well as other forms of cardiac arrest; Ch. 21, Table 21.1, p. 255.). In normal hearts, the dose required to cause marked dysrhythmia is greater than that which produces the chronotropic and inotropic effects, but in ischaemic conditions dysrhythmias are produced much more readily. Figure 14.5 shows the overall pattern of cardiovascular responses to catecholamine infusions in humans, reflecting their actions on both the heart and vascular system.

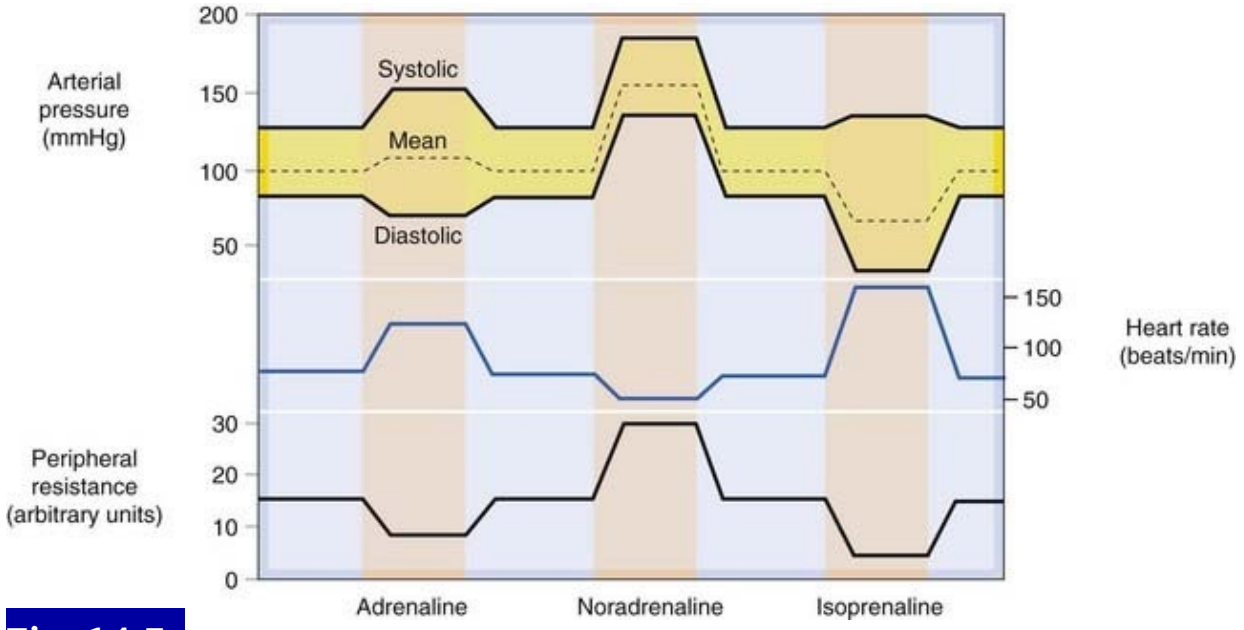


Fig. 14.5 Schematic representation of the cardiovascular effects of intravenous infusions of adrenaline, noradrenaline and isoprenaline in humans.

Noradrenaline (predominantly α agonist) causes vasoconstriction and increased systolic and diastolic pressure, with a reflex bradycardia. Isoprenaline (β agonist) is a vasodilator, but strongly increases cardiac force and rate. Mean arterial pressure falls. Adrenaline combines both actions.

Cardiac hypertrophy occurs in response to activation of both β_1 and α_1 receptors, probably by a mechanism similar to the hypertrophy of vascular and prostatic smooth muscle. This may be important in the pathophysiology of hypertension and cardiac failure, conditions associated with sympathetic overactivity (see Ch. 21).

Metabolism

Catecholamines encourage the conversion of energy stores (glycogen and fat) to freely available fuels (glucose and free fatty acids), and cause an increase in the plasma concentration of the latter substances. The detailed biochemical mechanisms (see review by Nonogaki, 2000) vary from species to species, but in most cases the effects on carbohydrate metabolism of liver and muscle (Fig. 14.6) are mediated through β_1

receptors (although hepatic glucose release can also be produced by α agonists), and the stimulation of lipolysis is produced by β_3 receptors (see Table 14.1). Activation of α_2 receptors inhibits insulin secretion, an effect that further contributes to the hyperglycaemia. The production of *leptin* by adipose tissue (see Ch. 31) is also inhibited. Adrenaline-induced hyperglycaemia in humans is blocked completely by a combination of α and β antagonists but not by either on its own. Selective β_3-receptor agonists (e.g. BRL 37344) have been developed as possible treatments for obesity, but their action is too transient for them to be clinically useful.

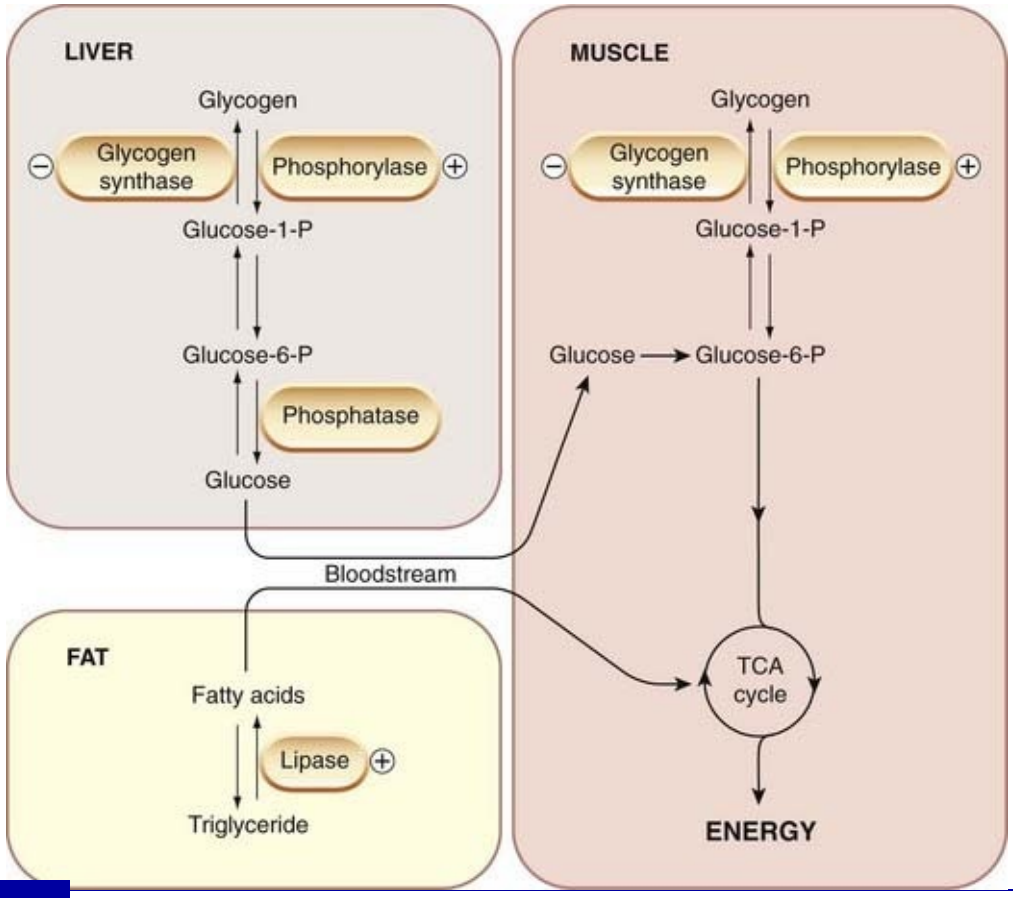


Fig. 14.6 Regulation of energy metabolism by catecholamines.

The main enzymic steps that are affected by β-adrenoceptor activation are indicated by + and − signs, denoting stimulation and inhibition, respectively. The overall effect is to mobilise glycogen and fat stores to meet energy demands.

Other effects

Skeletal muscle is affected by adrenaline, acting on β_2 receptors, although the effect is far less dramatic than that on the heart. The twitch tension of fast-contracting fibres (white muscle) is increased by adrenaline, particularly if the muscle is fatigued, whereas the twitch of slow (red) muscle is reduced. These effects depend on an action on the contractile proteins, rather than on the membrane, and the mechanism is poorly understood. In humans, adrenaline and other β_2 agonists cause a marked tremor, the shakiness that accompanies fear, excitement or the excessive use of β_2 agonists (e.g. **salbutamol**) in the treatment of asthma being examples of this. It probably results from an increase in muscle spindle discharge, coupled with an effect on the contraction kinetics of the fibres, these effects combining to produce an instability in the reflex control of muscle length. β-Receptor antagonists are sometimes used to control pathological tremor. The tendency to cardiac dysrhythmias associated with β_2 agonists is thought to be partly due to hypokalaemia, caused by an increase in K^+ uptake by skeletal muscle. β_2 Agonists also cause long-term changes in the expression of sarcoplasmic reticulum proteins that control contraction kinetics, and thereby increase the rate and force of contraction of skeletal muscle (see Zhang et al., 1996). **Clenbuterol**, an 'anabolic' drug used illicitly by athletes to improve performance (see Ch. 58), is a β_2 agonist that acts in this way.

Histamine release by human and guinea pig lung tissue in response to anaphylactic challenge (see Ch. 17) is inhibited by catecholamines, acting on β_2 receptors.

Lymphocytes and other cells of the immune system also express adrenoceptors (mainly β-adrenoceptors). Lymphocyte proliferation, lymphocyte-mediated cell killing, and production of many cytokines are

inhibited by β-adrenoceptor agonists. The physiological and clinical importance of these effects has not yet been established. For a review of the effects of the sympathetic nervous system on immune function, see Elenkov et al., 2000.

Adrenoceptor agonists

• **Noradrenaline** and **adrenaline** show relatively little receptor selectivity.

• Selective α_1 agonists include **phenylephrine** and **oxymetazoline**.

• Selective α_2 agonists include **clonidine** and **α-methylnoradrenaline**. They cause a fall in blood pressure, partly by inhibition of noradrenaline release and partly by a central action. Methylnoradrenaline is formed as a false transmitter from **methyldopa**, developed as a hypotensive drug (now largely obsolete).

• Selective β_1 agonists include **dobutamine**. Increased cardiac contractility may be useful clinically, but all β_1 agonists can cause cardiac dysrhythmias.

• Selective β_2 agonists include **salbutamol**, **terbutaline** and **salmeterol**, used mainly for their bronchodilator action in asthma.

• Selective β_3 agonists may be developed for the treatment of obesity.

Clinical use

The main clinical uses of adrenoceptor agonists are summarised in the clinical box above and Table 14.3, the most important being the use of β-adrenoceptor agonists for the treatment of asthma (Ch. 27).

Clinical uses of adrenoceptor agonists

• Cardiovascular system:

  – cardiac arrest: **adrenaline**

– cardiogenic shock (see Ch. 22): **dobutamine** (β_1 agonist).

• Anaphylaxis (acute hypersensitivity, see Chs 17 and 27): **adrenaline**.

• Respiratory system:

– asthma (Ch. 27): selective β_2-receptor agonists (**salbutamol**, **terbutaline**, **salmeterol**, **formoterol**)

– nasal decongestion: drops containing **xylometazoline** or **ephedrine** for short-term use.

• Miscellaneous indications:

– **adrenaline**: with local anaesthetics to prolong their action (see Ch. 42)

• premature labour (**salbutamol**; see Ch. 34)

– α_2 agonists (e.g. **clonidine**): to lower blood pressure (Ch. 22) and intraocular pressure; as an adjunct during drug withdrawal in addicts (Ch. 48; Table 48.3); to reduce menopausal flushing; and to reduce frequency of migraine attacks (Ch. 15).

Adrenoceptor Antagonists

The main drugs are listed in Table 14.1, and further information is given in Table 14.3. Most are selective for α or β receptors, and many are also subtype selective.

α-Adrenoceptor antagonists

The main groups of α-adrenoceptor antagonists are:

• non-selective between subtypes (e.g. **phenoxybenzamine**, **phentolamine**)

• α_1 selective (e.g. **prazosin**, **doxazosin**, **terazosin**)

• α_2 selective (e.g. **yohimbine**, **idazoxan**)

In addition, *ergot derivatives* (e.g. **ergotamine**, **dihydroergotamine**) block α receptors as well as having many other actions, notably on 5-HT receptors. They are described in Chapter 15. Their action on α-

adrenoceptors is of pharmacological interest (see p. 174) but not used therapeutically.

Non-selective α-adrenoceptor antagonists

Phenoxybenzamine is not specific for α receptors, and also antagonises the actions of acetylcholine, histamine and 5-HT. It is long lasting because it binds covalently to the receptor. **Phentolamine** is more selective, but it binds reversibly and its action is short lasting. In humans, these drugs cause a fall in arterial pressure (because of block of α-receptor-mediated vasoconstriction) and postural hypotension. The cardiac output and heart rate are increased. This is a reflex response to the fall in arterial pressure, mediated through β receptors. The concomitant block of α_2 receptors tends to increase noradrenaline release, which has the effect of enhancing the reflex tachycardia that occurs with any blood pressure-lowering agent. Phenoxybenzamine retains a niche (but vital) use in preparing patients with *phaeochromocytoma* (see below) for surgery; its irreversible antagonism and the resultant depression in the maximum of the agonist dose–response curve (see Ch. 2, Fig. 2.4, p. 10) are desirable in a situation where surgical manipulation of the tumour may release a large bolus of pressor amines into the circulation.

Labetalol and **carvedilol** are mixed α_1- and β-receptor-blocking drugs, although clinically they act predominantly on β receptors. Much has been made of the fact that they combine both activities in one molecule. To a pharmacologist, accustomed to putting specificity of action high on the list of pharmacological saintly virtues, this may seem like a step backwards rather than forwards. Carvedilol is used mainly to treat hypertension and heart failure (see Chs 21 and 22); labetalol is used to treat hypertension in pregnancy.

Selective α_1 antagonists

Prazosin was the first α_1-selective antagonist. Similar drugs with longer half-lives (e.g. **doxazosin**, **terazosin**), which have the advantage of allowing once-daily dosing, are now available. They are highly selective for α_1-adrenoceptors and cause vasodilatation and fall in arterial pressure, but less tachycardia than occurs with non-selective α-receptor antagonists, presumably because they do not increase noradrenaline release from sympathetic nerve terminals. Some postural hypotension may occur.

The α_1-receptor antagonists cause relaxation of the smooth muscle of the bladder neck and prostate capsule, and inhibit hypertrophy of these tissues, and are therefore useful in treating urinary retention associated with *benign prostatic hypertrophy*. **Tamsulosin**, an α_{1A}-receptor antagonist, shows some selectivity for the bladder, and causes less hypotension than drugs such as prazosin, which act on α_{1B} receptors to control vascular tone.

It is believed that α_{1A} receptors play a part in the pathological hypertrophy not only of prostatic and vascular smooth muscle, but also in the cardiac hypertrophy that occurs in hypertension and heart failure, and the use of selective α_{1A}-receptor antagonists to treat these chronic conditions is under investigation.

Selective α_2 antagonists

Yohimbine is a naturally occurring alkaloid; various synthetic analogues have been made, such as **idazoxan**. These drugs are used experimentally to analyse α-receptor subtypes, and yohimbine, probably by virtue of its vasodilator effect, historically enjoyed notoriety as an aphrodisiac, but they are not used therapeutically.

α-Adrenoceptor antagonists

• Drugs that block α1- and α2 adrenoceptors (e.g. **phenoxybenzamine** and **phentolamine**) were once used to produce vasodilatation in the treatment of peripheral vascular disease, but this use is now largely obsolete.

• Selective α1 antagonists (e.g. **prazosin**, **doxazosin**, **terazosin**) are used in treating hypertension. Postural hypotension and impotence are unwanted effects.

• **Yohimbine** is a selective α2 antagonist. It is not used clinically.

• **Tamsulosin** is α1A selective and acts mainly on the urogenital tract.

Clinical uses and unwanted effects of α-adrenoceptor antagonists

The main uses of α-adrenoceptor antagonists are related to their cardiovascular actions, and are summarised in the clinical box above. They have been tried for many purposes, but have only limited therapeutic applications. In hypertension, non-selective α-blocking drugs are unsatisfactory, because of their tendency to produce tachycardia and cardiac dysrhythmias, and increased gastrointestinal activity. Selective α_1-receptor antagonists (especially the longer-acting compounds **doxazosin** and **terazosin**) are, however, useful. They do not affect cardiac function appreciably, and postural hypotension is less troublesome than with prazosin or non-selective α-receptor antagonists. They have a place in treating severe hypertension, where they are added to treatment with first-and second-line drugs, but are not used as first-line agents (see Ch. 22). Unlike other antihypertensive drugs, they cause a modest decrease in low-density lipoprotein, and an increase in high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (see Ch. 23), although the clinical importance of these ostensibly beneficial effects is uncertain. They are also used to control urinary retention in patients with benign prostatic

hypertrophy.

Phaeochromocytoma is a catecholamine-secreting tumour of chromaffin tissue, which causes episodes of severe hypertension. A combination of α-and β-receptor antagonists is the most effective way of controlling the blood pressure. The tumour may be surgically removable, and it is essential to block α and β receptors before surgery is begun, to avoid the effects of a sudden release of catecholamines when the tumour is disturbed. A combination of phenoxybenzamine and atenolol is effective for this purpose.

Clinical uses of α-adrenoceptor antagonists 

• Severe hypertension (see Ch. 22): α_1-selective antagonists (e.g. **doxazosin**) in combination with other drugs.

• Benign prostatic hypertrophy (e.g. **tamsulosin**, a selective α_{1A}-receptor antagonist).

• Phaeochromocytoma: **phenoxybenzamine** (irreversible antagonist) in preparation for surgery.

β-Adrenoceptor antagonists

The β-adrenoceptor antagonists are an important group of drugs. They were first discovered in 1958, 10 years after Ahlquist had postulated the existence of β-adrenoceptors. The first compound, **dichloroisoprenaline**, had fairly low potency and was a partial agonist. Further development led to **propranolol**, which is much more potent and a pure antagonist that blocks β_1 and β_2 receptors equally. The potential clinical advantages of drugs with some partial agonist activity, and/or with selectivity for β_1 receptors, led to the development of **practolol** (selective for β_1 receptors but withdrawn because of its toxicity), **oxprenolol** and **alprenolol** (non-selective with considerable

partial agonist activity), and **atenolol** (β_1 selective with no agonist activity). Two newer drugs are **carvedilol** (a non-selective β-adrenoceptor antagonist with additional α_1-blocking activity) and **nebivolol** (a β_1-selective antagonist that also causes vasodilatation by inducing endothelial nitric oxide production; see Ch. 20). Both of these drugs have proven more effective than conventional β-adrenoceptor antagonists in treating heart failure (see Ch. 21). The characteristics of the most important compounds are set out in Table 14.3. Most β-receptor antagonists are inactive on β_3 receptors so do not affect lipolysis.

Actions

The pharmacological actions of β-receptor antagonists can be deduced from Table 14.1. The effects produced in humans depend on the degree of sympathetic activity and are slight in subjects at rest. The most important effects are on the cardiovascular system and on bronchial smooth muscle (see Chs 21, 22 and 27).

In a subject at rest, propranolol causes little change in heart rate, cardiac output or arterial pressure, but reduces the effect of exercise or excitement on these variables (Fig. 14.7). Drugs with partial agonist activity, such as oxprenolol, increase the heart rate at rest but reduce it during exercise. Maximum exercise tolerance is considerably reduced in normal subjects, partly because of the limitation of the cardiac response, and partly because the β-mediated vasodilatation in skeletal muscle is reduced. Coronary flow is reduced, but relatively less than the myocardial oxygen consumption, so oxygenation of the myocardium is improved, an effect of importance in the treatment of angina pectoris (see Ch. 21). In normal subjects, the reduction of the force of contraction of the heart is of no importance, but it may have serious consequences

for patients with heart disease (see below).

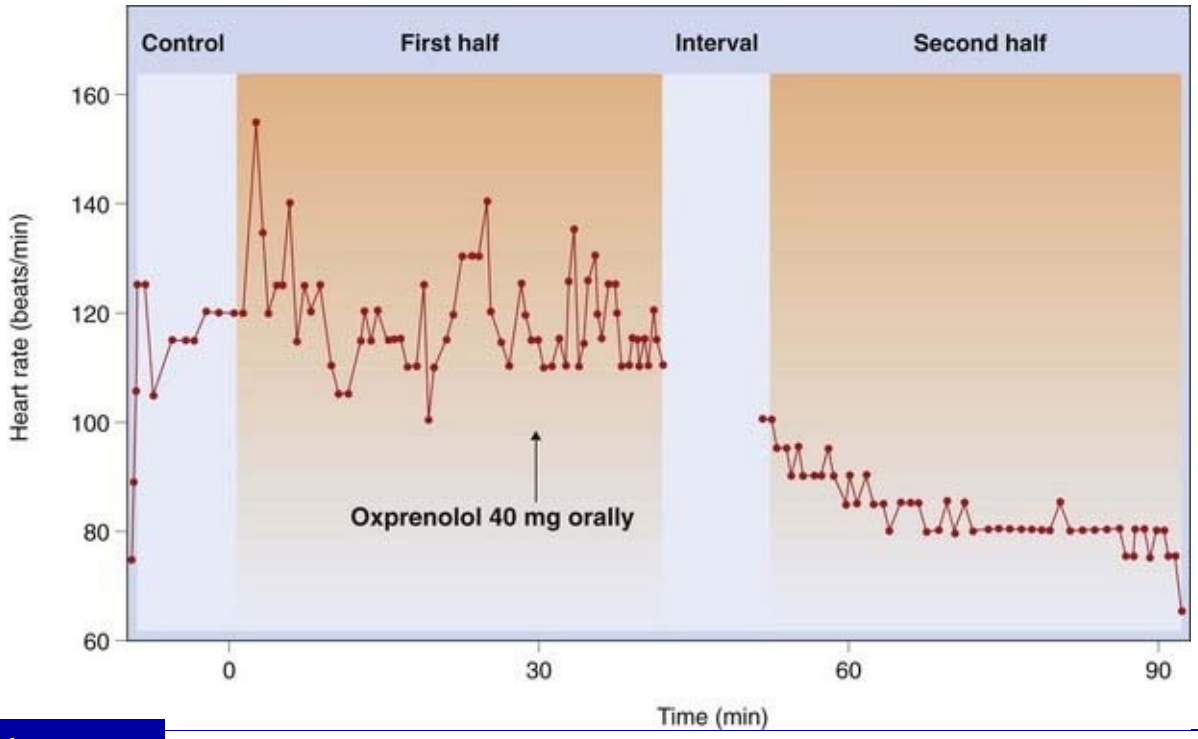


Fig. 14.7 Heart rate recorded continuously in a spectator watching a live football match, showing the effect of the β-adrenoceptor antagonist oxprenolol.

(From Taylor S H, Meeran M K 1973. In: Burley et al. (eds) New perspectives in beta-blockade. CIBA Laboratories, Horsham.)

An important, and somewhat unexpected, effect of β-receptor antagonists is their antihypertensive action (see Ch. 22). Patients with hypertension (although not normotensive subjects) show a gradual fall in arterial pressure that takes several days to develop fully. The mechanism is complex and involves the following:

- reduction in cardiac output
- reduction of renin release from the juxtaglomerular cells of the kidney
- a central action, reducing sympathetic activity.

Carvedilol and nebivolol (see above) are particularly effective in lowering blood pressure, because of their additional vasodilator

properties.

Blockade of the facilitatory effect of presynaptic β receptors on noradrenaline release (see Table 14.1) may also contribute to the antihypertensive effect. The antihypertensive effect of β-receptor antagonists is clinically very useful. Because reflex vasoconstriction is preserved, postural and exercise-induced hypotension (see Ch. 21) are less troublesome than with many other antihypertensive drugs.

Many β-receptor antagonists have an antidysrhythmic effect on the heart, which is of clinical importance (see Ch. 21).

Airways resistance in normal subjects is only slightly increased by β-receptor antagonists, and this is of no consequence. In asthmatic subjects, however, non-selective β-receptor antagonists (such as propranolol) can cause severe bronchoconstriction, which does not, of course, respond to the usual doses of drugs such as salbutamol or adrenaline. This danger is less with β_1-selective antagonists, but none is so selective that this danger can be ignored.

Despite the involvement of β receptors in the hyperglycaemic actions of adrenaline, β-receptor antagonists cause only minor metabolic changes in normal subjects. They do not affect the onset of hypoglycaemia following an injection of insulin, but somewhat delay the recovery of blood glucose concentration. In diabetic patients, the use of β-receptor antagonists increases the likelihood of exercise-induced hypoglycaemia, because the normal adrenaline-induced release of glucose from the liver is diminished.

β-Adrenoceptor antagonists 

- Non-selective between β_1- and β_2-adrenoceptors: **propranolol**, **alprenolol**, **oxprenolol**.

• β_1 selective: atenolol, nebivolol.

• **Alprenolol** and **oxprenolol** have partial agonist activity.

• Many clinical uses (see clinical box).

• Important hazards are bronchoconstriction, and bradycardia and cardiac failure (possibly less with partial agonists).

• Side effects include cold extremities, insomnia, depression, fatigue.

• Some show rapid first-pass metabolism, hence poor bioavailability.

• Some drugs (e.g. **labetalol, carvedilol**) block both α and β-adrenoceptors.

Clinical use

The main uses of β-receptor antagonists are connected with their effects on the cardiovascular system, and are discussed in Chapters 21 and 22. They are as summarised in the clinical box above.

The use of β-receptor antagonists in cardiac failure deserves special mention, as clinical opinion has undergone a U-turn in recent years. Patients with heart disease may rely on a degree of sympathetic drive to the heart to maintain an adequate cardiac output, and removal of this by blocking β receptors can exacerbate cardiac failure, so using these drugs in patients with cardiac failure was considered ill-advised. In theory, drugs with partial agonist activity (e.g. oxprenolol, alprenolol) offer an advantage because they can, by their own action, maintain a degree of β_1-receptor activation, while at the same time blunting the cardiac response to increased sympathetic nerve activity or to circulating adrenaline. Clinical trials, however, have not shown a clear advantage of these drugs measurable as a reduced incidence of cardiac failure.

Paradoxically, β-receptor antagonists are increasingly being used in

low doses to treat cardiac failure, although at the outset there is a danger of exacerbating the problem. Several mechanisms may contribute, including inhibition of central sympathetic outflow, direct vasodilator effects (see review by Pfeffer & Stevenson, 1996) and prevention of cardiac hypertrophy by interference with signalling pathways other than the major cAMP pathway—a phenomenon still poorly understood. **Carvedilol** is often used for this purpose.

Clinical uses of β-adrenoceptor antagonists 

- Cardiovascular (see Chs 21 and 22):
  - angina pectoris
  - myocardial infarction
  - dysrhythmias
  - heart failure
  - hypertension (no longer first choice; Ch. 22).
- Other uses:
  - glaucoma (e.g. **timolol** eye drops)
  - thyrotoxicosis (Ch. 33), as adjunct to definitive treatment (e.g. preoperatively)
  - anxiety (Ch. 43), to control somatic symptoms (e.g. palpitations, tremor)
  - migraine prophylaxis (Ch. 15)
  - benign essential tremor (a familial disorder).

Unwanted effects

The main side effects of β-receptor antagonists result from their receptor-blocking action.

Bronchoconstriction

This is of little importance in the absence of airways disease, but in asthmatic patients the effect can be dramatic and life-threatening. It is

also of clinical importance in patients with other forms of obstructive lung disease (e.g. chronic bronchitis, emphysema).

Cardiac depression

Cardiac depression can occur, leading to signs of heart failure, particularly in elderly people. Patients suffering from heart failure who are treated with β-receptor antagonists (see above) often deteriorate in the first few weeks before the beneficial effect develops.

Bradycardia

This side effect can lead to life-threatening heart block and can occur in patients with coronary disease, particularly if they are being treated with antiarrhythmic drugs that impair cardiac conduction (see Ch. 21).

Hypoglycaemia

Glucose release in response to adrenaline is a safety device that may be important to diabetic patients and to other individuals prone to hypoglycaemic attacks. The sympathetic response to hypoglycaemia produces symptoms (especially tachycardia) that warn patients of the urgent need for carbohydrate (usually in the form of a sugary drink). β-Receptor antagonists reduce these symptoms, so incipient hypoglycaemia is more likely to go unnoticed by the patient. The use of β-receptor antagonists is generally to be avoided in patients with poorly controlled diabetes. There is a theoretical advantage in using β_1-selective agents, because glucose release from the liver is controlled by β_2 receptors.

Fatigue

This is probably due to reduced cardiac output and reduced muscle perfusion in exercise. It is a frequent complaint of patients taking β-receptor-blocking drugs.

Cold extremities

This is due to a loss of β-receptor-mediated vasodilatation in cutaneous vessels, and is a common side effect. Theoretically, β_1-selective drugs are less likely to produce this effect, but it is not clear that this is so in practice.

Other side effects associated with β-receptor antagonists are not obviously the result of β-receptor blockade. One is the occurrence of bad dreams, which occur mainly with highly lipid-soluble drugs such as propranolol, which enter the brain easily.

▼ There are several additional factors that make β-adrenoceptor pharmacology more complicated than it appears at first sight, and may have implications for the clinical use of β-adrenoceptor antagonists:

• Several drugs that act on adrenoceptors have the characteristics of partial agonists (see Ch. 2), *i.e.* they block receptors and thus antagonise the actions of full agonists, but also have a weak agonist effect of their own. Examples include **ergotamine** (α_1 receptors) and **clonidine** (α_2 receptors). Some β-adrenoceptor-blocking drugs (e.g. **alprenolol**, **oxprenolol**) cause, under resting conditions, an increase in heart rate while at the same time opposing the tachycardia produced by sympathetic stimulation. This has been interpreted as a partial agonist effect, although there is evidence that mechanisms other than β-receptor activation may contribute to the tachycardia.

• The high degree of receptor specificity found for some compounds in laboratory animals is seldom found in humans

• Though in normal hearts cardiac stimulation is mediated through β_1 receptors, in heart failure (see Ch. 21) β_2 receptors contribute significantly.

• There is evidence that β-adrenoceptor agonists and partial agonists may act not only through cAMP formation, but also through other signal transduction pathways (e.g. the mitogen-activated protein [MAP] kinase pathway; see Ch. 3), and that the relative contribution of these signals differs for different drugs. Furthermore, the pathways show different levels of constitutive activation, which is reduced by ligands that function as inverse agonists. Clinically used β-adrenoceptor antagonists differ in respect of these properties, and drugs classified as partial agonists may actually activate one pathway while blocking the other (see Baker et al., 2003).

• Genetic variants of both β_1 and β_2 receptors occur in humans, and influence the effects of agonists and antagonists (see Brodde, 2008).

Drugs That Affect Noradrenergic Neurons

Emphasis in this chapter is placed on peripheral sympathetic transmission. The same principles, however, are applicable to the central nervous system (see Ch. 36), where many of the drugs mentioned here also act.

Drugs That Affect Noradrenaline Synthesis

Only a few clinically important drugs affect noradrenaline synthesis directly. Examples are **α-methyltyrosine**, which inhibits tyrosine hydroxylase (used rarely to treat phaeochromocytoma), and **carbidopa**, a hydrazine derivative of dopa, which inhibits dopa decarboxylase and is used in the treatment of parkinsonism (see Ch. 39).

Methyldopa, a drug still used in the treatment of hypertension during pregnancy (see Ch. 22), is taken up by noradrenergic neurons, where it is converted to the false transmitter α-methylnoradrenaline. This substance is not deaminated within the neuron by MAO, so it

accumulates and displaces noradrenaline from the synaptic vesicles. α-Methylnoradrenaline is released in the same way as noradrenaline, but is less active than noradrenaline on α_1 receptors and thus is less effective in causing vasoconstriction. On the other hand, it is more active on presynaptic (α_2) receptors, so the autoinhibitory feedback mechanism operates more strongly than normal, thus reducing transmitter release below the normal levels. Both of these effects (as well as a central effect, probably caused by the same cellular mechanism) contribute to the hypotensive action. It produces side effects typical of centrally acting antiadrenergic drugs (e.g. sedation), as well as carrying a risk of immune haemolytic reactions and liver toxicity, so it is now little used, except for hypertension in late pregnancy.

6-Hydroxydopamine (identical with dopamine except that it possesses an extra ring hydroxyl group) is a neurotoxin of the Trojan horse kind. It is taken up selectively by noradrenergic nerve terminals, where it is converted to a reactive quinone, which destroys the nerve terminal, producing a 'chemical sympathectomy'. The cell bodies survive, and eventually the sympathetic innervation recovers. The drug is useful for experimental purposes but has no clinical uses. If injected directly into the brain, it selectively destroys those nerve terminals (i.e. dopaminergic, noradrenergic and adrenergic) that take it up, but it does not reach the brain if given systemically. **MPTP** (**1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,5-tetrahydropyridine**; see Ch. 39) is a similar selective neurotoxin.

Droxidopa (dihydroxyphenylserine, DOPS) is currently under investigation for treating hypotensive states associated with reduced noradrenaline synthesis. It can be regarded as β-hydroxy-dopa, which is converted to noradrenaline directly by dopa decarboxylase, bypassing the DBH-catalysed hydroxylation step, which is normally rate limiting. It

raises blood pressure by increasing noradrenaline release.

Drugs That Affect Noradrenaline Storage

Reserpine is an alkaloid from the shrub *Rauwolfia*, which has been used in India for centuries for the treatment of mental disorders. Reserpine, at very low concentration, blocks the transport of noradrenaline and other amines into synaptic vesicles, by blocking the vesicular monoamine transporter. Noradrenaline accumulates instead in the cytoplasm, where it is degraded by MAO. The noradrenaline content of tissues drops to a low level, and sympathetic transmission is blocked. Reserpine also causes depletion of 5-HT and dopamine from neurons in the brain, in which these amines are transmitters (see Ch. 38). Reserpine is now used only experimentally, but was at one time used as an antihypertensive drug. Its central effects, especially depression, which probably result from impairment of noradrenergic and 5-HT-mediated transmission in the brain (see Ch. 46), are a serious disadvantage.

Drugs That Affect Noradrenaline Release

Drugs can affect noradrenaline release in four main ways:

1 By directly blocking release (noradrenergic neuron-blocking drugs).

2 By evoking noradrenaline release in the absence of nerve terminal depolarisation (indirectly acting sympathomimetic drugs).

3 By acting on presynaptic receptors that indirectly inhibit or enhance depolarisation-evoked release. Examples include α_2 agonists (see above), angiotensin II, dopamine and prostaglandins.

4 By increasing or decreasing available stores of noradrenaline (e.g. reserpine, see above; MAO inhibitors, see Ch. 46).

Noradrenergic Neuron-Blocking Drugs

Noradrenergic neuron-blocking drugs (e.g. **guanethidine**) were first discovered in the mid-1950s when alternatives to ganglion-blocking drugs, for use in the treatment of hypertension, were being sought. The main effect of guanethidine is to inhibit the release of noradrenaline from sympathetic nerve terminals. It has little effect on the adrenal medulla, and none on nerve terminals that release transmitters other than noradrenaline. Drugs very similar to it include **bretylium**, **bethanidine** and **debrisoquin** (which is of interest mainly as a tool for studying drug metabolism; see Ch. 11).

Actions

Drugs of this class reduce or abolish the response of tissues to sympathetic nerve stimulation, but do not affect (or may potentiate) the effects of circulating noradrenaline.

The action of guanethidine on noradrenergic transmission is complex (see Broadley, 1996). It is selectively accumulated by noradrenergic nerve terminals, being a substrate for NET (see above). Its initial blocking activity is due to block of impulse conduction in the nerve terminals that selectively accumulate the drug. Its action is prevented by drugs, such as *tricyclic antidepressants* (see Ch. 46), which block NET.

Guanethidine is also concentrated in synaptic vesicles by means of the vesicular transporter VMAT, possibly interfering with their ability to undergo exocytosis, and also displacing noradrenaline. In this way, it causes a gradual and long-lasting depletion of noradrenaline in sympathetic nerve endings, similar to the effect of reserpine.

Given in large doses, guanethidine causes structural damage to noradrenergic neurons, which is probably due to the fact that the terminals accumulate the drug in high concentration. It can therefore be

used experimentally as a selective neurotoxin.

Guanethidine, bethanidine and debrisoquin are no longer used clinically, now that better antihypertensive drugs are available. Although extremely effective in lowering blood pressure, they produce severe side effects associated with the loss of sympathetic reflexes. The most troublesome are postural hypotension, diarrhoea, nasal congestion and failure of ejaculation.

Indirectly Acting Sympathomimetic Amines

Mechanism of action and structure–activity relationships

The most important drugs in the indirectly acting sympathomimetic amine category are **tyramine**, **amphetamine** and **ephedrine**, which are structurally related to noradrenaline. Drugs that act similarly and are used for their central effects (see Ch. 47) include **methylphenidate** and **atomoxetine**.

These drugs have only weak actions on adrenoceptors, but sufficiently resemble noradrenaline to be transported into nerve terminals by NET. Once inside the nerve terminals, they are taken up into the vesicles by VMAT, in exchange for noradrenaline, which escapes into the cytosol. Some of the cytosolic noradrenaline is degraded by MAO, while the rest escapes via NET, in exchange for the foreign monoamine, to act on postsynaptic receptors (Fig. 14.8). Exocytosis is not involved in the release process, so their actions do not require the presence of Ca^{2+}. They are not completely specific in their actions, and act partly by a direct effect on adrenoceptors, partly by inhibiting NET (thereby enhancing the effect of the released noradrenaline) and partly by inhibiting MAO.

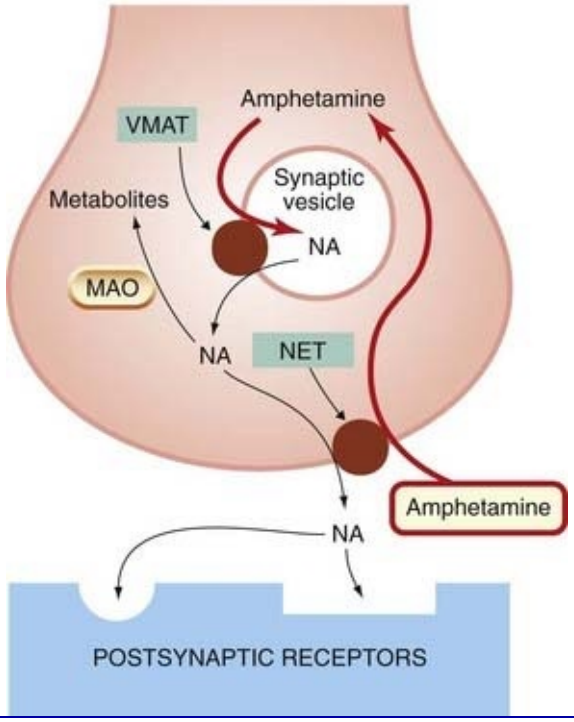


Fig. 14.8 The mode of action of amphetamine, an indirectly acting sympathomimetic amine.

Amphetamine enters the nerve terminal via the noradrenaline transporter (NET) and enters synaptic vesicles via the vesicular monoamine transporter (VMAT), in exchange for NA, which accumulates in the cytosol. Some of the NA is degraded by monoamine oxidase (MAO) within the nerve terminal and some escapes, in exchange for amphetamine via the noradrenaline transporter, to act on postsynaptic receptors. Amphetamine also reduces NA reuptake via the transporter, so enhancing the action of the released NA.

As would be expected, the effects of these drugs are strongly influenced by other drugs that modify noradrenergic transmission. Thus reserpine and 6-hydroxydopamine abolish their effects by depleting the terminals of noradrenaline. MAO inhibitors, on the other hand, strongly potentiate their effects by preventing inactivation, within the terminals, of the transmitter displaced from the vesicles. MAO inhibition particularly enhances the action of tyramine, because this substance is itself a substrate for MAO. Normally, dietary tyramine is destroyed by MAO in the gut wall and liver before reaching the systemic circulation. When MAO is inhibited this is prevented, and ingestion of tyramine-rich foods

such as fermented cheese (e.g. ripe Brie) can then provoke a sudden and dangerous rise in blood pressure. Inhibitors of NET, such as **imipramine** (see below), interfere with the effects of indirectly acting sympathomimetic amines by preventing their uptake into the nerve terminals.

These drugs, especially amphetamine, have important effects on the central nervous system (see Ch. 47) that depend on their ability to release not only noradrenaline, but also 5-HT and dopamine from nerve terminals in the brain. An important characteristic of the effects of indirectly acting sympathomimetic amines is that marked tolerance develops. Repeated doses of amphetamine or tyramine, for example, produce progressively smaller pressor responses. This is probably caused by a depletion of the releasable store of noradrenaline. A similar tolerance to the central effects also develops with repeated administration, which partly accounts for the liability of amphetamine and related drugs to cause dependence.

Actions

The peripheral actions of the indirectly acting sympathomimetic amines include bronchodilatation, raised arterial pressure, peripheral vasoconstriction, increased heart rate and force of myocardial contraction, and inhibition of gut motility. They have important central actions, which account for their significant abuse potential and for their limited therapeutic applications (see Chs 47 and 58). Apart from ephedrine, which is still sometimes used as a nasal decongestant because it has much less central action, these drugs are no longer used for their peripheral sympathomimetic effects.

Inhibitors of Noradrenaline Uptake

Reuptake of released noradrenaline by NET is the most important

mechanism by which its action is brought to an end. Many drugs inhibit NET, and thereby enhance the effects of both sympathetic nerve activity and circulating noradrenaline. NET is not responsible for clearing circulating adrenaline, so these drugs do not affect responses to this amine.

The main class of drugs whose primary action is inhibition of NET are the *tricyclic antidepressants* (see Ch. 46), for example **imipramine**. These drugs have their major effect on the central nervous system but also cause tachycardia and cardiac dysrhythmias, reflecting their peripheral effect on sympathetic transmission. **Cocaine**, known mainly for its abuse liability (Ch. 48) and local anaesthetic activity (Ch. 42), enhances sympathetic transmission, causing tachycardia and increased arterial pressure. Its central effects of euphoria and excitement (Ch. 47) are probably a manifestation of the same mechanism acting in the brain. It strongly potentiates the actions of noradrenaline in experimental animals or in isolated tissues provided the sympathetic nerve terminals are intact.

Many drugs that act mainly on other steps in sympathetic transmission also inhibit NET to some extent, presumably because the carrier molecule has structural features in common with other noradrenaline recognition sites, such as receptors and degradative enzymes.

The extraneuronal monoamine transporter EMT, which is important in clearing circulating adrenaline from the bloodstream, is not affected by most of the drugs that block NET. It is inhibited by **phenoxybenzamine**, however, and also by various *corticosteroids* (see Ch. 26). This action of corticosteroids may have some relevance to their therapeutic effect in conditions such as asthma, but is probably of minor importance.

The main sites of action of drugs that affect adrenergic transmission

are summarised in Figure 14.9.

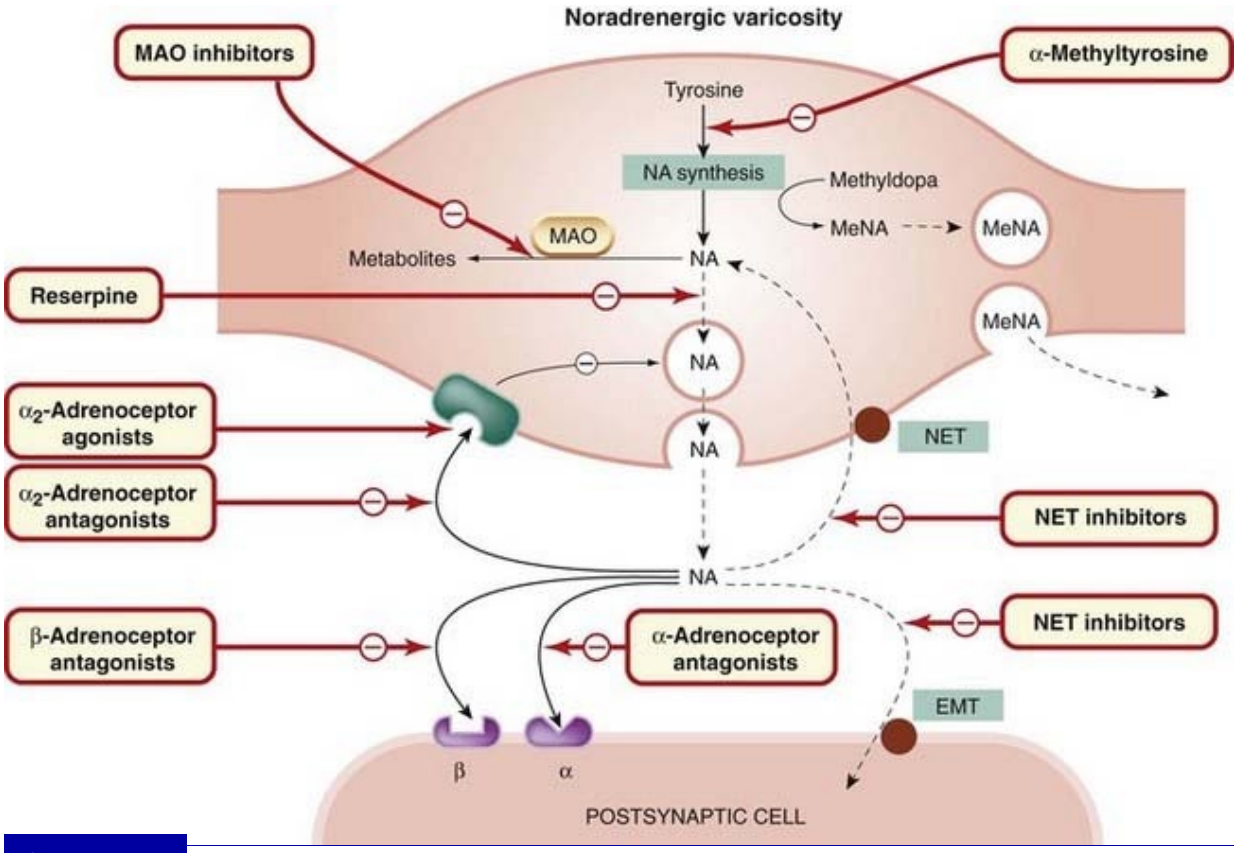


Fig. 14.9 Generalised diagram of a noradrenergic nerve terminal, showing sites of drug action.

EMT, extraneuronal monoamine transporter; MAO, monoamine oxidase; MeNA, methylnoradrenaline; NA, noradrenaline; NET, neuronal noradrenaline transporter.

Drugs acting on noradrenergic nerve terminals

• Drugs that inhibit noradrenaline synthesis include:

– **α-methyltyrosine**: blocks tyrosine hydroxylase; not used clinically

– **carbidopa**: blocks dopa decarboxylase and is used in treatment of parkinsonism (see Ch. 37); not much effect on noradrenaline synthesis.

• **Methyldopa** gives rise to false transmitter (methylnoradrenaline), which is a potent α2 agonist, thus causing powerful presynaptic inhibitory feedback (also central actions). Rarely

used as antihypertensive agent.

• **Reserpine** blocks noradrenaline accumulation in vesicles by VMAT, thus depleting noradrenaline stores and blocking transmission. Effective in hypertension but may cause severe depression. Clinically obsolete.

• Noradrenergic neuron-blocking drugs (e.g. **guanethidine**, **bethanidine**) are selectively concentrated in terminals and in vesicles (by NET and VMAT respectively), and block transmitter release, partly by local anaesthetic action. Effective in hypertension but cause severe side effects (postural hypotension, diarrhoea, nasal congestion, etc.), so now little used.

• **6-Hydroxydopamine** is selectively neurotoxic for noradrenergic neurons, because it is taken up and converted to a toxic metabolite. Used experimentally to eliminate noradrenergic neurons, not clinically.

• Indirectly acting sympathomimetic amines (e.g. **amphetamine**, **ephedrine**, **tyramine**) are accumulated by NET and displace noradrenaline from vesicles, allowing it to escape. Effect is much enhanced by monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibition, which can lead to severe hypertension following ingestion of tyramine-rich foods by patients treated with MAO inhibitors.

• Indirectly acting sympathomimetic agents are central nervous system stimulants. **Methylphenidate** and **atomoxetine** are used to treat attention deficit–hyperactivity disorder.

• Drugs that inhibit NET include **cocaine** and **tricyclic antidepressant** drugs. Sympathetic effects are enhanced by such drugs.

References and Further Reading

General

roadley K.J. *Autonomic pharmacology*. London: Taylor & Francis; 1996. (*Detailed textbook*)

ooper J.R., Bloom F.E., Roth R.H. *The biochemical basis of neuropharmacology*. New York: Oxford University Press; 1996. (*Excellent standard textbook*)

obertson D.W., editor. Primer on the autonomic nervous system. New York: Academic Press, 2004. (*An excellent comprehensive textbook on all aspects, including pharmacology, of the autonomic nervous system. By no means elementary despite its title*)

rendelenburg U., Weiner N. Catecholamines. Handbook of experimental pharmacology vol. 90. 1988 Springer-Verlag Berlin. (*Massive compilation of knowledge to date*) parts 1 and 2

Adrenoceptors

aker J.G., Hall I.P., Hill S.J. Agonist and inverse agonist actions of β-blockers at the human β_2-adrenoceptor provide evidence for agonist-directed signalling. *Mol. Pharmacol.*. 2003;64:1357-1369. (*Recent studies showing that β-blockers differ in their ability to activate and block cAMP and mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways, possibly explaining why some are better than others in treating heart disease*)

rodde O. β_1- and β_2-Adrenoceptor polymorphisms and cardiovascular diseases. *Fund. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2008;22:107-125. (*Comprehensive review of possible genetic influences on human response to drugs acting on β-adrenoceptors*)

uimaraes S., Moura D. Vascular adrenoceptors: an update. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2001;53:319-356. (*Review describing the complex roles of different adrenoceptors in blood vessels*)

ısel P.A. Adrenergic receptors—evolving concepts and clinical implications. *New Engl. J. Med.*. 1996;334:580-585. (*Excellent review focusing on applications*)

Noradrenergic neurons

ylund D.B., Eikenberg D.C., Hieble J.P., *et al.* International Union of Pharmacology nomenclature of adrenoceptors. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 1994;46:121-136. (*Rationalisation of the taxonomy of adrenoceptors*)

unnane T.C. The mechanism of neurotransmitter release from sympathetic nerves. *Trends Neurosci.*. 1984;7:248-253. (*Points out important differences between adrenergic and cholinergic neurons*)

lenkov I.J., Wilder R.L., Chrousos G.P., *et al.* The sympathetic nerve—an integrative interface between two supersystems: the brain and the immune system. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2000;52:595-

638. (*Detailed catalogue of effects of catecholamines and the sympathetic nervous system on the immune system*)

ainetdinov R.R., Caron M.G. Monoamine transporters: from genes to behaviour. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2003;43:261-284. (*Review article focusing on the characteristics of transgenic mice lacking specific monoamine transporters*)

iu Y., Edwards R.H. The role of vesicular transport proteins in synaptic transmission and neural degeneration. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.*. 1997;20:125-156. (*Review of recent ideas about the functional role of transporters*)

undberg J.M. Pharmacology of co-transmission in the autonomic nervous system: integrative aspects on amines, neuropeptides, adenosine triphosphate, amino acids and nitric oxide. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 1996;48:114-192. (*Comprehensive and informative review*)

hilipp M., Hein L. Adrenergic receptor knockout mice: distinct functions of 9 receptor subtypes. *Pharm. Ther.*. 2004;101:65-74.

tarke K., Göthert M., Kilbinger H. Modulation of transmitter release by presynaptic autoreceptors. *Physiol. Rev.*. 1989;69:864-989. (*Comprehensive review*)

Miscellaneous topics

isenhofer G., Kopin I.J., Goldstein D.S. Catecholamine metabolism: a contemporary view with implications for physiology and medicine. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2004;56:331-349. (*Review that dismisses a number of fallacies concerning the routes by which catecholamines from different sources are metabolised and excreted*)

onogaki K. New insights into sympathetic regulation of glucose and fat metabolism. *Diabetologia*. 2000;43:533-549. (*Review of the complex adrenoceptor-mediated effects on the metabolism of liver, muscle and adipose tissue; up to date, but not a particularly easy read*)

feffer M.A., Stevenson L.W. β-Adrenergic blockers and survival in heart failure. *New Engl. J. Med.*. 1996;334:1396-1397. (*Shows that β-adrenergic blockers in low doses can be beneficial in heart failure*)

hang K.-M., Hu P., Wang S.-W., *et al.* Salbutamol changes the molecular and mechanical

properties of canine skeletal muscle. *J. Physiol.*. 1996;496:211-220. (*Surprising finding that salbutamol affects muscle function by non-receptor mechanisms*)

15

5-Hydroxytryptamine and the pharmacology of migraine

Overview

In this chapter, we discuss the role of 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT), which functions as a neurotransmitter in the brain and periphery and also as a local hormone. We describe the synthesis, storage and release of 5-HT, the receptor subtypes, its role in the pathophysiology of three important disorders (migraine, carcinoid syndrome and pulmonary hypertension) and the numerous drugs in current use that act wholly or partly on 5-HT receptors.

5-Hydroxytryptamine

This amine, originally detected in extracts of gut ('enteramine') and in serum after blood had clotted ('serotonin') was eventually identified chemically as *5-hydroxytryptamine*. Today, the terms '5-HT' and 'serotonin' are used interchangeably. 5-HT was subsequently found in the central nervous system (CNS), and shown to function both as a neurotransmitter and as a local hormone in the peripheral vascular system. This chapter deals with the metabolism, distribution and possible physiological roles of 5-HT in the periphery, and with the different types of 5-HT receptor and the drugs that act on them. Further information on the role of 5-HT in the brain, and its relationship to psychiatric disorders and the actions of psychotropic drugs, is presented in Chapters 38, 45 and 46. The use of drugs that modulate 5-HT in the

gut is dealt with in Chapter 29.

Distribution, Biosynthesis and Degradation

5-Hydroxytryptamine occurs in the highest concentrations in three organs.

• *In the wall of the intestine.* Over 90% of the total amount in the body is present in the *enterochromaffin* cells in the gut (endocrine cells with distinctive staining properties). These are cells derived from the neural crest and resemble those of the adrenal medulla. They are found mainly in the stomach and small intestine and are interspersed with mucosal cells. Some 5-HT also occurs in nerve cells of the myenteric plexus, where it functions as an excitatory neurotransmitter (see Chs 12 and 29).

• *In blood.* 5-HT is present in high concentrations in platelets, which accumulate it from the plasma by an active transport system and release it when they aggregate at sites of tissue damage (see Ch. 24).

• *In the CNS.* 5-HT is a transmitter in the CNS and is present in high concentrations in localised regions of the midbrain. Its functional role is discussed in Chapter 38.

Although 5-HT is present in the diet, most of this is metabolised before entering the bloodstream. Endogenous 5-HT arises from a biosynthetic pathway similar to that which generates noradrenaline (norepinephrine; see Ch. 14), except that the precursor amino acid is *tryptophan* instead of tyrosine (Fig. 15.1). Tryptophan is converted to 5-hydroxytryptophan (in chromaffin cells and neurons, but not in platelets) by the action of *tryptophan hydroxylase*, an enzyme confined to 5-HT-producing cells. The 5-hydroxytryptophan is then decarboxylated to 5-HT by a ubiquitous *amino acid decarboxylase* that also participates in the synthesis of

catecholamines (Ch. 14) and histamine (Ch. 17). Platelets (and neurons) possess a high-affinity 5-HT uptake mechanism, and platelets become loaded with 5-HT as they pass through the intestinal circulation, where the local concentration is relatively high. The mechanisms of synthesis, storage, release and reuptake of 5-HT are very similar to those of noradrenaline. Many drugs affect both processes indiscriminately (see Ch. 14), but *selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors* (SSRIs) have been developed and are important therapeutically as anxiolytics and antidepressants (Chs 43 and 46). 5-HT is often stored in neurons and chromaffin cells as a co-transmitter together with various peptide hormones, such as *somatostatin*, *substance P* or *vasoactive intestinal polypeptide*.

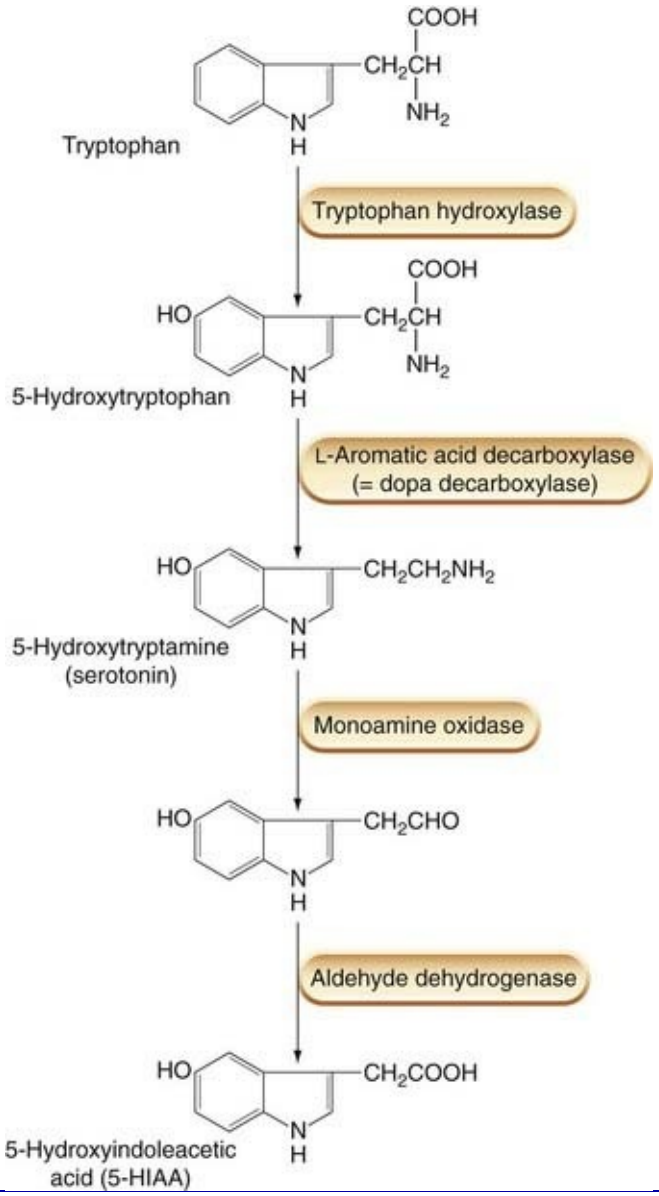


Fig. 15.1 Biosynthesis and metabolism of 5-hydroxytryptamine.

Degradation of 5-HT (Fig. 15.1) occurs mainly through oxidative deamination, catalysed by *monoamine oxidase A*, followed by oxidation to *5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid* (5-HIAA), the pathway being the same as that of noradrenaline catabolism. 5-HIAA is excreted in the urine and serves as an indicator of 5-HT production in the body. This is used, for example, in the diagnosis of carcinoid syndrome (see below).

Distribution, biosynthesis and degradation of 5-hydroxytryptamine

• Tissues rich in 5-HT are:

– gastrointestinal tract (chromaffin cells and enteric neurons)

– platelets

– central nervous system.

• Metabolism closely parallels that of noradrenaline.

• 5-HT is formed from dietary tryptophan, which is converted to 5-hydroxytryptophan by tryptophan hydroxylase, then to 5-HT by a non-specific decarboxylase.

• 5-HT is transported into cells by a specific serotonin uptake transporter (SERT).

• Degradation occurs mainly by monoamine oxidase, forming 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid (5-HIAA), which is excreted in urine.

Pharmacological Effects

The actions of 5-HT are numerous and complex and there is considerable species variation. This complexity reflects a profusion of 5-HT receptor subtypes, which has been revealed in recent years (see below). The main sites of action are as follows.

Gastrointestinal tract

Most 5-HT receptor subtypes (see below) are present in the gut with the exception of those of the 5-$HT_{5/6}$ family. Only about 10% of 5-HT in the intestine is located in neurons, where it acts as a neurotransmitter, while the remainder is located in the enterochromaffin cells, which act as sensors to transduce information about the state of the gut. The 5-HT is released from enterochromaffin cells into the *lamina propria* and elsewhere, to stimulate its receptors. The responses observed are very

complex and the reader is referred to Beattie & Smith (2008) for a recent comprehensive account. Broadly speaking, 5-HT receptors are present on most neuronal components of the enteric nervous system as well as smooth muscle, secretory and other cells. Their main function is to regulate peristalsis, intestinal motility, secretion and visceral sensitivity.

The importance of 5-HT in the gut is underlined by the widespread distribution of the *serotonin uptake transporter* (SERT), which rapidly and efficiently removes released 5-HT, thus limiting its action. Inhibitors of this transporter such as the SSRIs (Ch. 46) may exaggerate the action of 5-HT in the gut, explaining some of the common side effects of these drugs, which include diarrhoea. Back-up transporters have also been identified. Interestingly, there is evidence for genetic defects in this reuptake system in irritable bowel syndrome (Ch. 29), which might explain the rather bewildering symptoms of the disease.

Smooth muscle

In many species (although only to a minor extent in humans), smooth muscle (e.g. uterus and bronchial tree) is contracted by 5-HT.

Blood vessels

The effect of 5-HT on blood vessels depends on various factors, including the size of the vessel, the species and the prevailing sympathetic activity. Large vessels, both arteries and veins, are usually constricted by 5-HT, although the sensitivity varies greatly. This is a direct action on vascular smooth muscle cells, mediated through 5-HT_{2A} receptors (see below). Activation of 5-HT_1 receptors causes constriction of large intracranial vessels, dilatation of which contributes to headache (see below). 5-HT can also cause vasodilatation, partly by acting on endothelial cells to release nitric oxide (see Ch. 20) and partly by inhibiting noradrenaline release from sympathetic nerve terminals. If 5-HT is injected

intravenously, the blood pressure usually first rises, owing to the constriction of large vessels, and then falls, owing to arteriolar dilatation. 5-HT may play a role in the pathology of *pulmonary hypertension*.

Platelets

5-HT causes platelet aggregation (see Ch. 24) by acting on 5-HT_{2A} receptors, and the platelets that collect in the vessel release further 5-HT. If the endothelium is intact, 5-HT release from adherent platelets causes vasodilatation, which helps to sustain blood flow; if it is damaged (e.g. by atherosclerosis), 5-HT causes constriction and impairs blood flow further. These effects of platelet-derived 5-HT are thought to be important in vascular disease.

Nerve endings

5-HT stimulates nociceptive (pain-mediating) sensory nerve endings, an effect mediated mainly by 5-HT_3 receptors. If injected into the skin, 5-HT causes pain; when given systemically, it elicits a variety of autonomic reflexes through stimulation of afferent fibres in the heart and lungs, which further complicate the cardiovascular response. Nettle stings contain 5-HT among other mediators. 5-HT also inhibits transmitter release from adrenergic neurons in the periphery.

Central nervous system

5-HT excites some neurons and inhibits others; it may also act presynaptically to inhibit transmitter release from nerve terminals. Different receptor subtypes and different membrane mechanisms mediate these effects. The role of 5-HT in the CNS is discussed in Chapter 38.

Actions and functions of 5-hydroxytryptamine

• Important actions are:

– increased gastrointestinal motility (direct excitation of smooth muscle and indirect action via enteric neurons)

– contraction of other smooth muscle (bronchi, uterus)

– mixture of vascular constriction (direct and via sympathetic innervation) and dilatation (endothelium dependent)

– platelet aggregation

– stimulation of peripheral nociceptive nerve endings

– excitation/inhibition of central nervous system neurons.

• Postulated physiological and pathophysiological roles include:

– in periphery: peristalsis, vomiting, platelet aggregation and haemostasis, inflammatory mediator, sensitisation of nociceptors and microvascular control

– in CNS: many postulated functions, including control of appetite, sleep, mood, hallucinations, stereotyped behaviour, pain perception and vomiting.

• Clinical conditions associated with disturbed 5-hydroxytryptamine function include migraine, carcinoid syndrome, mood disorders and anxiety.

Classification of 5-HT Receptors

▼ It was long ago realised that the actions of 5-HT are not all mediated by receptors of the same type, and various pharmacological classifications have come and gone. The current system is summarised in Table 15.1. This classification takes into account sequence data derived from cloning, signal transduction mechanisms and pharmacological specificity as well as the phenotypes of 5-HT receptor ‘knockout’ mice.

Table 15.1 Significant drugs acting at the main 5-HT receptor subtypes

Receptor	Location	Main function	Signalling system	Significant drugs	
				Agonists	Antagonists
5-HT_{1A}	CNS	Neuronal inhibition Behavioural effects: sleep, feeding, thermoregulation, anxiety	G protein (G_i/G_o) ↓ cAMP (may also modulate Ca^{2+} channels)	Buspirone (PA) *5-CT* *8-OH-DPAT*	Ergotamine (PA)
5-HT_{1B}	CNS, vascular smooth muscle, many other sites	Presynaptic inhibition Behavioural effects Pulmonary vasoconstriction		Ergotamine (PA) Triptans	Methiothepin
5-HT_{1C}	CNS, lymphocytes	—		—	—
5-HT_{1D}	CNS, blood vessels	Cerebral vasoconstriction Behavioural effects: locomotion		*5-CT* Triptans	Ergotamine (PA)
5-HT_{1E}	CNS	—		—	—
5-HT_{1F}	CNS, uterus, heart, GI tract	—		Triptans?	—
5-HT_{2A}	CNS, PNS, smooth muscle, platelets	Neuronal excitation Behavioural effects Smooth muscle contraction (gut, bronchi, etc.) Platelet aggregation, Vasoconstriction/vasodilatation	G protein (G_q/G_{11}) ↑ IP_3, Ca^{2+}	*LSD* (CNS) *LSD* (periphery) *α-Me-5-HT*	*Ketanserin* Cyproheptadine Pizotifen (NS) Methysergide
5-HT_{2B}	Gastric fundus	Contraction		*LSD* *α-Me-5-HT*	
5-HT_{2C}	CNS, lymphocytes	—		*LSD* *α-Me-5-HT*	Methysergide
5-HT_3	PNS, CNS	Neuronal excitation (autonomic, nociceptive neurons) Emesis Behavioural effects: anxiety	Ligand-gated cation channel	*2-Me-5-HT* *Chloromethyl biguanide*	Dolesatron Granisetron Ondansetron Palonosetron Tropisetron
5-HT_4	PNS (GI tract), CNS	Neuronal excitation GI motility	G protein (G_s) ↑ cAMP	Metoclopramide *5-methoxytryptamine*	—
5-HT_{5A}	CNS	Modulation of exploratory behaviour (rodents)?	As above	—	—
5-HT_6	CNS, leukocytes	Learning and memory?	As above	—	—
5-HT_7	CNS, GI tract, blood vessels	Thermoregulation? Circadian rhythm?	As above	*LSD* *5-CT*	—

Drugs in italics are not used clinically. 2-Me-5-HT, 2-methyl-5-hydroxytryptamine; 5-CT, 5-carboxamidotryptamine; 8-OH-DPAT, 8-hydroxy-2-(di-*n*-propylamino) tetraline; CNS, central nervous system; DAG, diacylglycerol; GI, gastrointestinal; IP_3, inositol trisphosphate; LSD, lysergic acid diethylamide; PA, partial agonist; PNS, peripheral nervous system; α-Me-5-HT, α-methyl 5-hydroxytryptamine; NS, non-selective.
The receptor classification system is from Hoyer et al. (2009) IUPHAR database at http://www.iuphar-db.org.
The list of agonists and antagonists includes only the better-known compounds. Many new selective 5-HT receptor ligands, known only by code numbers, are being developed.

Their diversity is astonishing. Currently, there are some 14 known receptor subtypes (together with an extra gene in mouse). These are divided into seven classes (5-$HT_{1–7}$), one of which (5-HT_3) is a ligand-gated cation channel while the remainder are G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs; see Ch. 3). The six GPCR families are further subdivided into some 13 receptor types based on their sequence and

pharmacology. Most subtypes are found in all species so far examined, but there are some exceptions (5-HT_{5B} gene is found in mouse but has not been found in humans). The sequences of 5-HT_1 and 5-HT_2 receptors are highly conserved among species but the 5-$HT_{4–7}$ receptors are less conserved and are grouped into these families largely on pharmacological grounds.

The most common signalling system appears to be cAMP dependent, but some members (the 5-HT_2 subtype) activate phospholipase C to generate phospholipid-derived second messengers (see Ch. 3).

It is not just the sheer numbers of 5-HT receptor genes that is perplexing. Many isoforms have been found, giving rise to four or more variants of some of these receptors. Coupled with this are the polymorphisms which have been reported and which probably contribute to signalling abnormalities found in some types of disease.

With the possible exception of the 5-HT_3 family, which are structurally distinct ligand-gated ion channels, the 5-HT receptors are highly promiscuous in their relationships with agonists and antagonists. This makes the pharmacology difficult to interpret in many cases and very difficult to summarise in a meaningful way.

Many transgenic mice lacking functional members of this receptor family have been produced (see for example Bonasera & Tecott, 2000). The functional deficits in such animals are generally quite subtle, suggesting that these receptors may serve to tune, rather than to enable, physiological responses. Table 15.1 gives an overview of the most important receptors. Some of the more significant drug targets include the following.

5-HT_1 receptors. Those of pharmacological significance occur mainly in the brain, the subtypes being distinguished on the basis of their

regional distribution and their pharmacological specificity. They function mainly as inhibitory presynaptic receptors. The 5-HT_{1A} subtype is particularly important in the brain, in relation to mood and behaviour (see Chs 43, 45, 46) and 5-HT_1 'knockout' mice exhibit defects in sleep regulation, learning ability and other CNS functions. Receptor polymorphisms may be associated with increased susceptibility to substance abuse. The 5-HT_{1B} and 5-HT_{1D} subtypes, which are expressed in cerebral blood vessels, are believed to be important in migraine (see below) and are the target for **sumatriptan** and other *triptans*, an important group of drugs used to treat acute attacks. Unfortunately, the 5-HT_{1B} receptor is also present in the vasculature of the heart and elsewhere, explaining some of the unwanted effects associated with triptan therapy. The hapless '5-HT_{1C}' receptor—actually the first to be cloned—has been officially declared non-existent, having been ignominiously reclassified as the 5-HT_{2C} receptor when it was found to be linked to inositol trisphosphate production rather than adenylyl cyclase.

5-HT$_2$ receptors. These are present in the CNS but are also particularly important in the periphery. The effects of 5-HT on smooth muscle and platelets, which have been known for many years, are mediated by the 5-HT_{2A} receptor, as are some of the behavioural effects of agents such as **lysergic acid diethylamide** (LSD; see Table 15.1 and Ch. 47). 5-HT_2 receptors are linked to phospholipase C and thus stimulate inositol trisphosphate formation. The 5-HT_{2A} subtype is functionally the most important, the others having a much more limited distribution and functional role. The role of 5-HT_2 receptors in normal physiological processes is probably a minor one, but it becomes more prominent in pathological conditions such as asthma and vascular thrombosis (see Chs 24 and 27). Mice lacking the 5-HT_2 receptors exhibit defects in colonic

motility (5-HT_{2A}), heart defects (5-HT_{2B}) and CNS disorders (5-HT_{2C}).

5-HT$_3$ receptors. 5-HT_3 receptors are exceptional in being membrane ion channels (Ch. 3) and cause excitation directly, without involvement of any second messenger. The receptor itself consists of a pentameric assembly of distinct subunits which are designated by further subscript letters (e.g. 5-$HT_{3A–E}$ in humans). 5-HT_3 receptors occur mainly in the peripheral nervous system, particularly on nociceptive sensory neurons (see Ch. 41) and on autonomic and enteric neurons, where 5-HT exerts a strong excitatory effect. 5-HT itself evokes pain when injected locally; when given intravenously, it elicits a fine display of autonomic reflexes, which result from excitation of many types of vascular, pulmonary and cardiac sensory nerve fibres. 5-HT_3 receptors also occur in the brain, particularly in the *area postrema*, a region of the medulla involved in the vomiting reflex, and selective 5-HT_3 antagonists are used as antiemetic drugs (see Ch. 29). Polymorphisms in the subunits are associated with increased susceptibility to nausea and emesis.

5-HT$_4$ receptors. These occur in the brain, as well as in peripheral organs such as the gastrointestinal tract, bladder and heart. Their main physiological role appears to be in the gastrointestinal tract, where they produce neuronal excitation and mediate the effect of 5-HT in stimulating peristalsis. Mice deficient in the 5-HT_4 receptor show a complex phenotype including abnormal feeding behaviour in response to stress.

5-HT$_5$, 5-HT$_6$ and 5-HT$_7$ receptors. Little is known about these receptors. All are present in the CNS as well as other tissues. There are two genes for 5-HT_5 isoforms but only one codes for a functional receptor in humans although both may be functional in rodents. At the time of writing, no drugs (other than experimental compounds) are

known to act through these receptors although a recent report of selective antagonists at the 5-HT_7 receptor may open the way for a detailed examination of the role of this receptor in CNS pathology (Agosti, 2007).

5-Hydroxytryptamine receptors

• There are seven families (5-HT1–7), with further subtypes of 5-HT1 (A–F) and 5-HT2 (A–C). Many polymorphisms and splice variants have also been observed.

• All are G-protein-coupled receptors, except 5-HT3, which is a ligand-gated cation channel.

– *5-HT1* receptors occur mainly in the CNS (all subtypes) and some blood vessels (5-$HT_{1B/D}$ subtypes). Effects, some mediated through inhibition of adenylyl cyclase, include neural inhibition and vasoconstriction. Specific agonists include triptans (used in migraine therapy) and buspirone (used in anxiety). Ergotamine is a partial agonist. Specific antagonists include spiperone and methiothepin.

– *5-HT2* receptors occur in the CNS and many peripheral sites (especially blood vessels, platelets, autonomic neurons). Neuronal and smooth muscle effects are excitatory and some blood vessels are dilated as a result of nitric oxide release from endothelial cells. 5-HT_2 receptors act through the phospholipase C/inositol trisphosphate pathway. Specific ligands include lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD; agonist in CNS, antagonist in periphery). Specific antagonists are pizotifen, methysergide and cyproheptadine.

– *5-HT3* receptors occur in the peripheral nervous system, especially nociceptive afferent neurons and enteric neurons, and in the CNS. Effects are excitatory, mediated through direct receptor-coupled ion channels. 2-Methyl-5-HT is a specific agonist. Specific antagonists include ondansetron and tropisetron. Antagonists are used mainly as antiemetic drugs but may also be anxiolytic.

– *5-HT4* receptors occur mainly in the enteric nervous system (also in the CNS). Effects are excitatory, through stimulation of adenylyl cyclase, causing increased gastrointestinal motility. Specific agonists include metoclopramide (used to stimulate gastric emptying).

– *5-HT5* receptors (one subtype in humans) are located in the CNS. Little is known about their role in humans.

– *5-HT6* receptors are located in the CNS and on leukocytes. Little is known about their role in humans.

– *5-HT7* receptors are located in the CNS and the gastrointestinal tract. Little is known about their role in humans.

Drugs Acting on 5-HT Receptors

Table 15.1 lists some clinically significant agonists and antagonists for the different receptor types. Many are only partly selective. The improved understanding of the location and function of the different receptor subtypes has, however, caused an upsurge of interest in developing compounds with improved receptor selectivity, and useful new drugs are likely to appear in the near future.

Important drugs that act on 5-HT receptors in the periphery include the following:

• Selective 5-HT_{1A} agonists, such as 8-hydroxy-2-(di-*n*-propylamino) tetralin, are potent hypotensive agents, acting by a central mechanism, but are not used clinically.

• 5-$HT1_{B/D}$ receptor agonists (e.g. the triptans) are used for treating migraine (see below).

• 5-HT_2 receptor antagonists (e.g. **dihydroergotamine**, **methysergide**, **cyproheptadine**, **ketanserin**, **ketotifen**, **pizotifen**) act mainly on 5-HT_{2A} receptors but also block other 5-HT receptors, as well as α-adrenoceptors and histamine receptors (Ch. 26). Dihydroergotamine and methysergide belong to the ergot family (see below) and are used mainly for migraine prophylaxis. Other 5-HT_2 antagonists are used to control the symptoms of carcinoid tumours.

• 5-HT_3 receptor antagonists (e.g. **dolesatron**, **granisetron**, **ondansetron**, **palonosetron**, **tropisetron**) are used as antiemetic drugs (see Chs 29 and 55), particularly for controlling the severe nausea and vomiting that occurs with many forms of cancer chemotherapy.

• 5-HT_4 receptor agonists, which stimulate coordinated peristaltic activity (known as a 'prokinetic action'), could be used for treating gastrointestinal disorders (see Ch. 29). **Metoclopramide** acts in this way, as well as by blocking dopamine receptors. Similar but more selective drugs such as **cisapride** and **tegaserod** were introduced to treat irritable bowel syndrome, but withdrawn on account of cardiovascular side effects.

5-HT is also important as a neurotransmitter in the CNS, and several important antipsychotic and antidepressant drugs owe their actions to effects on these pathways (see Chs 38, 45 and 46). LSD is a relatively non-selective 5-HT receptor agonist or partial agonist, which acts centrally as a potent hallucinogen (see Ch. 47).

Ergot Alkaloids

Ergot alkaloids constitute a hard-to-classify group of drugs that have preoccupied pharmacologists for more than a century. Many of them act on 5-HT receptors, but not selectively, and their actions are complex and diverse.

▼ Ergot contains many active substances, and it was the study of their pharmacological properties that led Dale to many important discoveries concerning acetylcholine, histamine and catecholamines. Ergot alkaloids occur naturally in a fungus (*Claviceps purpurea*) that infests cereal crops. Epidemics of ergot poisoning have occurred, and still occur, when contaminated grain is used for food. The symptoms produced include mental disturbances and intensely painful peripheral vasoconstriction

leading to gangrene. This came to be known in the Middle Ages as *St Anthony's fire*, because it was believed that it could be cured by a visit to the Shrine of St Anthony (which happened to be in an ergot-free region of France).

Ergot alkaloids are complex molecules based on lysergic acid (a naturally occurring tetracyclic compound). The important members of the group (Table 15.2) include various naturally occurring and synthetic derivatives with different substituent groups arranged around a basic nucleus. These compounds display many different types of pharmacological action, and it is difficult to discern any clear relationship between chemical structure and pharmacological properties.

Table 15.2 Properties of ergot alkaloids

Drug	Actions at receptors			Uterus	Main uses	Side effects etc.
	5-HT	α-Adrenoceptor	Dopamine			
Ergotamine	Antagonist/partial agonist (5-HT_1) Antagonist (other sites)	Partial agonist (blood vessels)	Inactive	Contracts ++	Migraine (largely obsolete)	Emesis, vasospasm (avoid in peripheral vascular disease and pregnancy)
Dihydroergotamine	Antagonist/partial agonist (5-HT_1)	Antagonist	Inactive	Contracts +	Migraine (largely obsolete)	Less emesis than with ergotamine
Ergometrine	Weak antagonist/ partial agonist (5-HT_1)	Weak antagonist/ partial agonist	Weak	Contracts +++	Prevention of postpartum haemorrhage (Ch. 34)	Nausea, vomiting
Bromocriptine	Inactive	Weak antagonist	Agonist/partial agonist	—	Parkinson's disease (Ch. 39) Endocrine disorders (Ch. 30)	Drowsiness, emesis
Methysergide	Antagonist/partial agonist (5-HT_2)	—	—	—	Carcinoid syndrome Migraine (prophylaxis)	Retroperitoneal and mediastinal fibrosis Emesis

Ergot alkaloids

• These active substances are produced by a fungus that infects cereal crops, and are responsible for occasional poisoning incidents. The most important compounds are:

– ergotamine and dihydroergotamine, used in migraine prophylaxis

– ergometrine, used in obstetrics to prevent postpartum haemorrhage

– methysergide, used to treat carcinoid syndrome, and occasionally for migraine prophylaxis

– bromocriptine, used in parkinsonism and endocrine disorders.

• Main sites of action are 5-HT receptors, dopamine receptors and adrenoceptors (mixed agonist, antagonist and partial agonist effects).

• Unwanted effects include nausea and vomiting, vasoconstriction (ergot alkaloids are contraindicated in patients with peripheral vascular disease).

Actions

Most of the effects of ergot alkaloids appear to be mediated through adrenoceptors, 5-HT or dopamine receptors, although some effects may be produced through other mechanisms. All alkaloids stimulate smooth muscle, some being relatively selective for vascular smooth muscle while others act mainly on the uterus. **Ergotamine** and **dihydroergotamine** are, respectively, a partial agonist and an antagonist at α-adrenoceptors. **Bromocriptine** is an agonist on dopamine receptors, particularly in the CNS (Ch. 38), and **methysergide** is an antagonist at 5-HT_{2A} receptors.

The main pharmacological actions and uses of these drugs are summarised in Table 15.2. As one would expect of drugs with so many actions, their physiological effects are complex and rather poorly understood. Ergotamine, dihydroergotamine and methysergide are discussed here; further information on **ergometrine** and bromocriptine is given in Chapters 32, 34 and 39.

Vascular effects

When injected into an anaesthetised animal, ergotamine activates α-adrenoceptors, causing vasoconstriction and a sustained rise in blood

pressure. At the same time, ergotamine reverses the pressor effect of adrenaline (epinephrine; see Ch. 14). The vasoconstrictor effect of ergotamine is responsible for the peripheral gangrene of St Anthony's Fire, and probably also for some of the effects of ergot on the CNS. Methysergide and dihydroergotamine have much less vasoconstrictor effect. Methysergide is a potent 5-HT_{2A} receptor antagonist, whereas ergotamine and dihydroergotamine act selectively on 5-HT_1 receptors. Although generally classified as antagonists, they show partial agonist activity in some tissues, and this may account for their activity in treating migraine attacks (see below).

Clinical use

The only use of ergotamine is in the treatment of attacks of migraine unresponsive to simple analgesics (see below). Methysergide is occasionally used for migraine prophylaxis, but its main use is in treating the symptoms of carcinoid tumours (see below). All these drugs can be used orally or by injection.

Unwanted effects

Ergotamine often causes nausea and vomiting, and it must be avoided in patients with peripheral vascular disease because of its vasoconstrictor action. Methysergide also causes nausea and vomiting, but its most serious side effect, which considerably restricts its clinical usefulness, is retroperitoneal and mediastinal fibrosis, which impairs the functioning of the gastrointestinal tract, kidneys, heart and lungs. The mechanism of this is unknown, but it is noteworthy that similar fibrotic reactions also occur in carcinoid syndrome (see below), in which there is a high circulating level of 5-HT.

Migraine and Other Clinical Conditions in Which 5-HT

Plays a Role

In this section, we discuss three situations in which the peripheral actions of 5-HT are believed to be important, namely *migraine*, *carcinoid syndrome* and *pulmonary hypertension*. The use of 5-HT_3 antagonists for treating drug-induced emesis is discussed in Chapter 29. Modulation of 5-HT-mediated transmission in the CNS is an important mechanism of action of antidepressant and antipsychotic drugs (see Chs 38, 43 and 46).

Migraine and Antimigraine Drugs

Migraine[1] is a common and debilitating condition affecting 10–15% of people. Although the causes are not well understood, both genetic and environmental factors seem to be important. A 'textbook' migraine attack consists of an initial visual disturbance (the aura), in which a flickering pattern, followed by a blind spot (a 'scintillating scotoma'), progresses gradually across an area of the visual field. This visual disturbance is followed, about 30 minutes later, by a severe throbbing headache, starting unilaterally, often accompanied by photophobia, nausea, vomiting and prostration, which lasts for several hours. In fact, the visual aura occurs only in about 20% of migraine sufferers, although many experience other kinds of premonitory sensation. Sometimes attacks are precipitated by particular foods or by visual stimuli, but more often they occur without obvious cause. In women, migraine may be linked to the menstrual cycle or other reproductive events. It appears that rapidly falling oestrogen levels can precipitate attacks in susceptible subjects.

Pathophysiology

[1]The word is apparently of French origin and is probably a corruption of

hemicrania, the Latin name for the disease.

Although controversy abounds and opinions vary, there are three fundamental views of the physiological mechanisms underlying migraine, linking it to primary events in blood vessels, the brain or sensory nerves. The history of these ideas has been reviewed by Eadie (2005).

The classic '*vascular*' *theory*, first proposed around 50 years ago by Wolff, implicated an initial humorally-mediated intracerebral vasoconstriction causing the aura, followed by an extracerebral vasodilatation causing the headache. This venerable hypothesis has not, however, been generally supported by more recent blood flow studies involving non-invasive monitoring techniques in patients with migraine (see review by Friberg, 1999). In episodes of migraine with aura, there is indeed a biphasic change in cerebral blood flow (Fig. 15.2), with a reduction of 20–30% preceding the premonitory aura, followed by a highly variable increase of similar magnitude. However, the headache usually begins during the initial vasoconstrictor phase, and blood flow changes of similar magnitude caused by other factors do not produce symptoms. The vasoconstriction starts posteriorly and gradually spreads forwards over the hemisphere, implying a neural rather than a humoral cause. These changes occur only in association with an aura and do not occur in the remaining 80% of migraine sufferers. No consistent blood flow changes are associated with the headache phase itself.

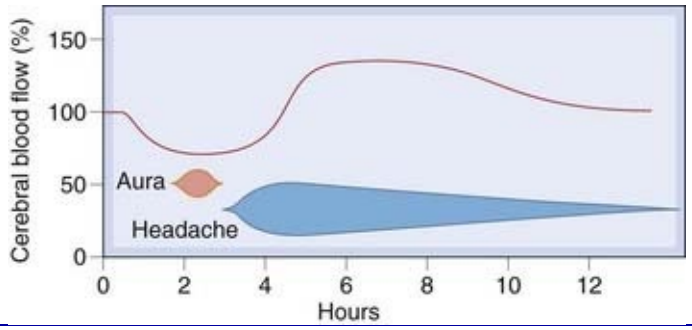


Fig. 15.2 Cerebral blood flow changes during migraine.

(After Olesen et al. 1990 Ann Neurol 28: 791-798.)

The headache originates not in the brain itself, but in extracerebral structures lying within the cranial cavity innervated by nociceptive sensory nerve fibres of the trigeminal pathway, such as the meninges and large arteries. The vascular theory attributes the headache to dilatation in these large arteries. While some studies have shown a unilateral widening of the middle cerebral artery on the same side as the headache sensation, others have shown no clear change. Overall, the evidence for arterial dilatation as a cause of the headache is inconclusive (see Thomsen, 1997).

The '*brain*' *hypothesis* (see Lauritzen, 1987) links migraine to the phenomenon of *cortical spreading depression*. This is a dramatic although poorly understood phenomenon, triggered in experimental animals by local application of K^+ to the cortex and also thought to occur in humans after (for example) concussion. This causes an advancing wave of profound neural inhibition, which progresses slowly over the cortical surface at a rate of about 2 mm/min. In the depressed area, the ionic balance is grossly disturbed, with an extremely high extracellular K^+ concentration, and the blood flow is reduced. There is strong evidence to suggest that the aura phase of a migraine attack is associated with a wave of spreading depression, although what initiates it remains obscure. However, spreading depression triggered in animal models does

not lead to activation or sensitisation of trigeminal afferents (Ebersberger et al., 2001). It is now believed that the aura is associated with spreading depression, but that this is not a necessary step in the pathogenesis of the migraine attack itself.

The '*inflammation*' *hypothesis* (see Waeber & Moskowitz, 2005) proposes that activation of trigeminal nerve terminals in the meninges and extracranial vessels is the primary event in a migraine attack. This would cause pain directly and also induce inflammatory changes through the release of neuropeptides and other inflammatory mediators from the sensory nerve terminals (neurogenic inflammation; see Chs 19 and 41). This theory is supported by experiments showing that one such peptide (*calcitonin gene-related peptide*; see Ch. 19) is released into the meningeal circulation during a migraine attack and that antagonists of this peptide such as **telcagepant** (in the final stage of clinical trials) are extremely effective in aborting attacks (Farinelli et al., 2008).

These theories are summarised in Figure 15.3. Many variants of these mechanisms have been proposed, but it is noteworthy that none can explain at the biochemical level what initiates a migraine attack or define the underlying abnormality that predisposes particular individuals to suffer such attacks. In some rare types of familial migraine, inherited mutations affecting calcium channels and Na^+-K^+-ATPase have been found, suggesting that abnormal membrane function may be responsible, but in most forms of migraine there is no clear genetic cause. Whether one inclines to the view that migraine is a vascular disorder, a type of spontaneous concussion, an inflammatory disease or just a bad headache, there are two important factors that implicate 5-HT in its pathogenesis:

1 There is a sharp increase in the urinary excretion of the main 5-HT

metabolite, 5-HIAA, during the attack. The blood concentration of 5-HT falls, probably because of depletion of platelet 5-HT.

2 Many of the drugs that are effective in treating migraine are 5-HT receptor agonists or antagonists. See Figure 15.3 and the clinical box for further information.

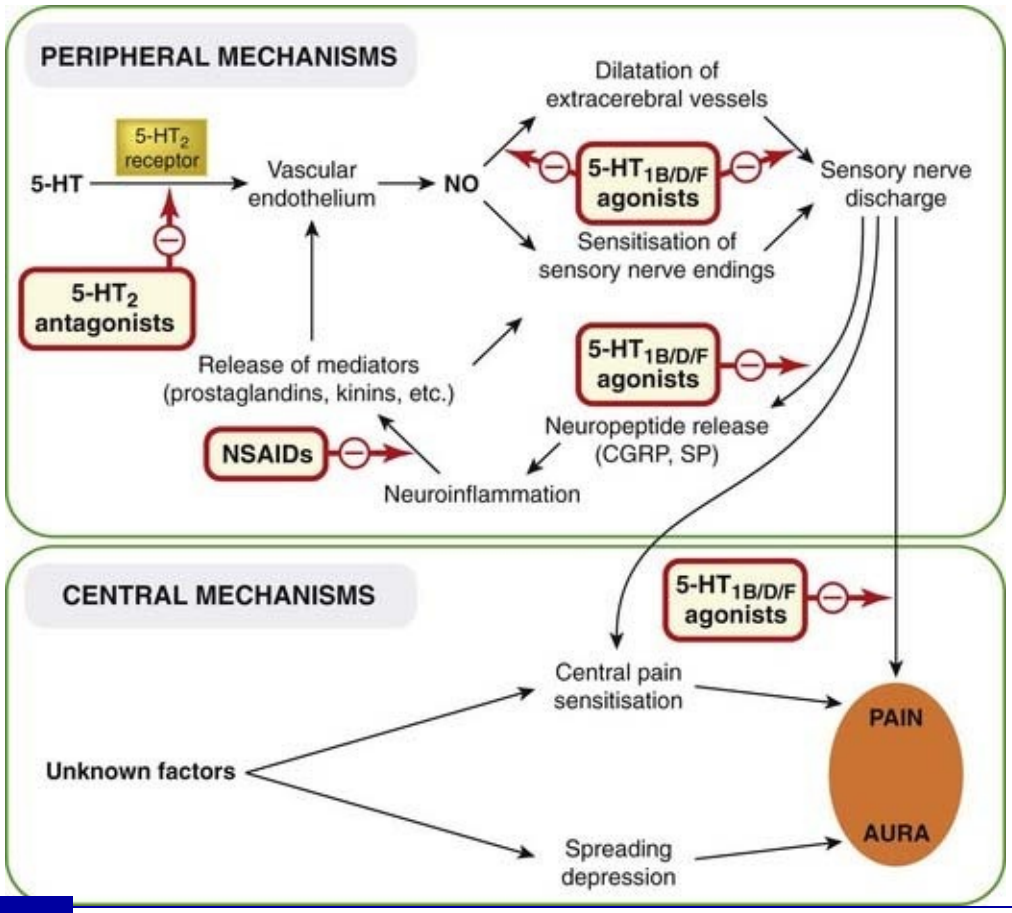


Fig. 15.3 Postulated pathogenesis of migraine.

The initiating event is uncertain but may be an abnormal neuronal discharge set off by emotional or biochemical disturbances. This leads to localised 'spreading depression', which causes the aura and may also lead to sensitisation of central pain pathways. In migraine without aura, the primary event is excitation (cause unknown) of nociceptive nerve terminals in the meningeal vessels, leading to the cycle of neurogenic inflammation shown in the upper part of the diagram. 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; CGRP, calcitonin gene-related peptide; NO, nitric oxide; NSAIDs, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs; SP, substance P.

Drugs used for migraine

Acute attack

- Simple analgesics (e.g. **aspirin**, **paracetamol**; see Ch. 26) with or without **metoclopramide** (see Ch. 29) to hasten absorption.
- **Ergotamine** (5-HT_{1D} receptor partial agonist).
- **Sumatriptan**, **zolmitriptan** (5-HT_{1D} agonists).

Prophylaxis

- β-Adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. **propranolol**, **metoprolol**; see Ch. 14).
- **Pizotifen** (5-HT_2 receptor antagonist).
- Other 5-HT_2 receptor antagonists:
  - **cyproheptadine**: also has antihistamine actions
  - **methysergide**: rarely used because of risk of retroperitoneal fibrosis.
- Tricyclic antidepressants (e.g. **amitriptyline**; see Ch. 46).
- **Clonidine**, an α_2 adrenoceptor agonist (see Ch. 14).
- Calcium antagonists (e.g. dihydropyridines, **verapamil**; see Ch. 21): headache is a side effect of these drugs but, paradoxically, they may reduce frequency of migraine attacks.

Antimigraine Drugs

The main drugs currently used to treat migraine are summarised in Table 15.3, and their postulated sites of action are shown in Figure 15.3. It is important to distinguish between drugs used *therapeutically* to treat acute attacks of migraine (appropriate when the attacks are fairly infrequent) and drugs that are used *prophylactically*. Apart from 5-HT_2 receptor antagonists, the drugs used prophylactically are a mixed bag, and their mechanism of action is poorly understood.

Table 15.3 Antimigraine drugs[a]

Use	Drug(s)	Mode of action	Side effects	Pharmacokinetic aspects	Notes
Acute	Sumatriptan	5-$HT_{1B/1D/1F}$ receptor agonist Constricts large arteries, inhibits trigeminal nerve transmission	Coronary vasoconstriction, dysrhythmias	Poor oral absorption, hence delayed response Can be given s.c. Does not cross blood–brain barrier Plasma half-life 1.5 h	Effective in ~70% of migraine attacks Short duration of action is a drawback Contraindicated in coronary disease
Acute	Almotriptan Eletriptan Frovatriptan Naratriptan Rizatriptan Zolmitriptan	As sumatriptan; additional actions on CNS	Side effects less than with sumatriptan	Improved bioavailability and duration of action Able to cross blood–brain barrier	Similar to sumatriptan; but improved pharmacokinetics and reduced cardiac side effects
Acute	Ergotamine	5-HT_1 receptor partial agonist; also affects α-adrenoceptors Vasoconstrictor Blocks trigeminal nerve transmission	Peripheral vasoconstriction, including coronary vessels Nausea and vomiting Contracts uterus and may damage fetus	Poorly absorbed Can be given by suppository, inhalation, etc. Duration of action 12–24 h	Effective, but use limited by side effects
Prophylaxis	Methysergide	5-HT_2 receptor antagonist/partial agonist	Nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea Retroperitoneal or mediastinal fibrosis (rare but serious)	Used orally	Effective, but rarely used because of side effects and insidious toxicity
Prophylaxis	Pizotifen	5-HT_2 receptor antagonist Also histamine antagonist	Weight gain, antimuscarinic side effects	Used orally	
Prophylaxis	Cyproheptadine	5-HT_2 receptor antagonist Also blocks histamine receptors and Ca^{2+} channels	Sedation, weight gain	Used orally	Rarely used
Prophylaxis	Propranolol and similar drugs	β-adrenoceptor antagonists Mechanism of antimigraine effect not clear	Fatigue, bronchoconstriction	Used orally	Effective and widely used for migraine

[a]Other drugs used for the acute treatment of migraine include NSAIDs or opiate analgesic drugs (see Chs 41 and 46). Other drugs used for migraine prophylaxis include calcium channel blockers (e.g. nifedipine, see Ch. 22), antidepressants (e.g. amitriptyline; see Ch. 46), antiepileptics such as topiramate and sodium valproate (see Ch. 44) and the antihypertensive, clonidine (Ch. 14). Their efficacy is limited.

The most important agents for the treatment of acute attacks are currently the triptans. These are 5-HT_1 agonists, and are usually classified as 5-$HT_{1B/1D}$ agonists, largely because it is difficult to distinguish between actions at these two receptors. However, selective high-affinity 5-HT_{1D} subtype agonists have proved disappointing in the clinic, arguing against a role for this subtype. Recently, the 5-HT_{1F} receptor has been cloned and has been found to bind sumatriptan with

high affinity (Agosti, 2007) suggesting another potential target. This is significant because one of the drawbacks to triptan therapy has always been the vasoconstriction caused in other peripheral vascular beds including the heart. If drugs acting through the 5-HT_{1F} receptor are found to have antimigraine properties, this may prove a useful way forward for drug developers.

Carcinoid Syndrome

Carcinoid syndrome (see Creutzfeld & Stockmann, 1987) is a rare disorder associated with malignant tumours of enterochromaffin cells, which usually arise in the small intestine and metastasise to the liver. These tumours secrete a variety of chemical mediators: 5-HT is the most important, but neuropeptides such as substance P (Ch. 19), and other agents such as prostaglandins and bradykinin (Ch. 17), are also produced. The release of these substances into the bloodstream results in several unpleasant symptoms, including flushing, diarrhoea, bronchoconstriction and hypotension, which may cause dizziness or fainting. Fibrotic stenosis of heart valves, which can result in cardiac failure, also occurs. It is reminiscent of retroperitoneal and mediastinal fibrosis, which are adverse effects of methysergide (see above), and appears to be related to overproduction of 5-HT.

The syndrome is readily diagnosed by measuring the urinary excretion of the main metabolite of 5-HT, 5-HIAA. Excretion in the disease may increase 20-fold and is raised even during periods when the tumour is asymptomatic. 5-HT_2 antagonists, such as **cyproheptadine**, are effective in controlling some of the symptoms of carcinoid syndrome. A complementary therapeutic approach is to use **octreotide** (a long-acting analogue of somatostatin), which suppresses hormone secretion from neuroendocrine, including carcinoid, cells (see Ch. 32).

Pulmonary Hypertension

Pulmonary hypertension (see also Ch. 27) is an extremely serious disease characterised by the progressive remodelling of the pulmonary vascular tree. This leads to an inexorable rise in pulmonary arterial pressure which, if untreated (and treatment is difficult), inevitably leads to right heart failure and death. The role of 5-HT in this pathology was suggested by the fact that at least one form of the condition was precipitated by the use of appetite suppressants (e.g. **dexfenfluramine**) that were at one time widely prescribed as 'weight loss' or 'slimming' aids. These drugs apparently blocked SERT and since 5-HT promotes the growth and proliferation of pulmonary arterial smooth muscle cells and also produces a net vasoconstrictor effect in this vascular bed, the hypothesis seemed reasonable.

Since it was first mooted, however, this hypothesis has been overturned in the face of apparently conflicting data, reborn in the light of emerging facts on SERT polymorphisms and undergone several important changes of emphasis. The bottom line is that pulmonary hypertension is still considered to be a disease in which 5-HT plays an important role and which therefore may become a target for novel drug development. The interested reader is referred to MacLean (2007) for an accessible account of the current thinking in this area, and to Chapter 27, where this topic is also covered.

References and Further Reading

5-Hydroxytryptamine

gosti R.M. $5HT_{1F}$- and $5HT_7$-receptor agonists for the treatment of migraines. *CNS Neurol. Disord. Drug Targets*. 2007;6:235-237. (*Describes cutting-edge research in the field of migraine treatment utilising agonists at newly cloned 5-HT receptors*)

arnes N.M., Sharp T. A review of central 5-HT receptors and their function. *Neuropharmacology*. 1999;38:1083-1152. (*Useful general review focusing on CNS*)

eattie D.T., Smith J.A. Serotonin pharmacology in the gastrointestinal tract: a review. *Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch. Pharmacol.*. 2008;377:181-203. (*Very comprehensive and up-to-date review dealing with a complex topic. Easy to read*)

onasera S.J., Tecott L.H. Mouse models of serotonin receptor function: towards a genetic dissection of serotonin systems Pharmacol. Ther. 88:2000:133-142 (*Review of studies on transgenic mice lacking 5-HT1 or 5-HT2 receptors; shows how difficult it can be to interpret such experiments*)

ranchek T.A., Blackburn T.P. 5-HT6 receptors as emerging targets for drug discovery. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2000;40:319-334. (*Emphasises future therapeutic opportunities*)

arinelli I., Missori S., Martelletti P. Proinflammatory mediators and migraine pathogenesis: moving towards CGRP as a target for a novel therapeutic class. *Expert Rev. Neurother.*. 2008;8:1347-1354.

ershon M.D. Review article: serotonin receptors and transporters—roles in normal and abnormal gastrointestinal motility. *Aliment. Pharmacol. Ther*. 2004;20(Suppl. 7):3-14.

roeze W.K., Kristiansen K., Roth B.L. Molecular biology of serotonin receptors structure and function at the molecular level. *Curr. Top. Med. Chem.*. 2002;2:507-528.

piller R. Serotonergic agents and the irritable bowel syndrome: what goes wrong? Curr. Opin. Pharmacol. 8:2008:709-714 (*A very interesting account of the development—and withdrawl—of 5-HT3/4 antagonists in irritable bowel syndrome and a discussion of the role of SERT polymorphisms in the disease. Illustrates the type of problems encountered when trying to develop useful drugs that act at 5-HT receptors*)

Migraine and other pathologies

reutzfeld W., Stockmann F. Carcinoids and carcinoid syndrome. *Am. J. Med.*. 1987;82(Suppl. 58):4-16.

adie M.J. The pathogenesis of migraine—17th to early 20th century understandings. *J. Clin.*

Neurosci.. 2005;12:383-388. (*Fascinating account of the historical development of theories of causes of migraine. Good if you are interested in the history of medicine!*)

bersberger A., Schaible H.-G., Averbeck B., *et al.* Is there a correlation between spreading depression, neurogenic inflammation, and nociception that might cause migraine headache? *Ann. Neurol.*. 2001;49:7-13. (*Their conclusion is that there is no connection—spreading depression does not produce inflammation or affect sensory neurons*)

dvinsson L., editor. Migraine and headache pathophysiology. London: Martin Dunitz, 1999. (*Collected articles summarising current, and often conflicting, views on the mechanism of migraine*)

riberg L. Migraine pathophysiology, its relation to cerebral haemodynamic changes. In: Edvinsson L., editor. *Migraine and headache pathophysiology*. London: Martin Dunitz, 1999. (*Useful summary of findings in a controversial area*)

oadsby P.J. Can we develop neurally acting drugs for the treatment of migraine? *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.*. 2005;4:741-750. (*Useful review of the causes and treatments of migraine*)

auritzen M. Cerebral blood flow in migraine and cortical spreading depression Acta. Neurol. Scand. Suppl. 113:1987:140 (*Review of clinical measurements of cerebral blood flow in migraine, which overturn earlier hypotheses*)

IacLean M.R. Pulmonary hypertension and the serotonin hypothesis: where are we now? Int. J. Clin. Pract. Suppl.:2007:27-31 (*Easy-to-read account of current thinking on the role of 5-HT receptors in pulmonary hypertension by a leading researcher in the field*)

homsen L.L. Investigations into the role of nitric oxide and the large intracranial arteries in migraine headache. *Cephalalgia*. 1997;17:873-895. (*Revisits the old vascular theory of migraine in the light of recent advances in the nitric oxide field*)

illalon C.M., Centurion D., Valdivia L.F., *et al.* Migraine: pathophysiology, pharmacology, treatment and future trends. *Curr. Vasc. Pharmacol.*. 2003;1:71-84.

/aeber C., Moskowitz M.A. Migraine as an inflammatory disorder. *Neurology*. 2005;64:S9-S15. (*Useful review of the 'inflammation' hypothesis of migraine*)

Books

reen A.R., editor. Neuropharmacology of serotonin. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1985. (*Useful—if dated—compilation of articles on 5-HT pharmacology*)

oerdsma A.G. *Starting with serotonin: how a high-rolling father of drug discovery repeatedly beat the odds*. Silver Spring MD: Improbable Books; 2008.

16

Purines

Overview

In this chapter we describe the role of purine nucleosides and nucleotides as chemical mediators subserving a wide range of functions. The mechanisms responsible for their synthesis and release are considered, as well as the various receptors on which they act, and drugs that affect purinergic signalling.

Introduction

Nucleosides (especially adenosine) and nucleotides (especially ADP and ATP) will already be familiar to you because of their crucial role in DNA/RNA synthesis and energy metabolism, but it may come as a surprise to learn that they also produce a wide range of unrelated pharmacological effects. Interest in this field probably began with the observation in 1929 that adenosine injected into anaesthetised animals caused bradycardia, hypotension, vasodilatation and inhibition of intestinal movements. Since then, it has become clear that purines participate in many physiological control mechanisms, including the regulation of coronary flow and myocardial function (Chs 21 and 22), platelet aggregation and immune responses (Chs 17 and 24), as well as neurotransmission in both the central and peripheral nervous system (Chs 12 and 38).

There is, therefore, increasing interest in purine pharmacology and the potential role of purinergic agents in the treatment of pain and a variety

of disorders, particularly of thrombotic and respiratory origin. The full complexity of purinergic control systems, and their importance in many pathophysiological mechanisms, is only now emerging, and the therapeutic relevance of the various receptor subtypes is still being unravelled.[1] There is no doubt that drugs affecting these systems will assume growing significance but, recognising that the overall picture is far from complete, we will focus our discussion on a few prominent areas.

[1]Indeed, a journal, *Purinergic Signalling*, devoted exclusively to these issues was launched recently.

Figure 16.1 summarises the mechanisms by which purines are released and interconverted, and the main receptor types on which they act.

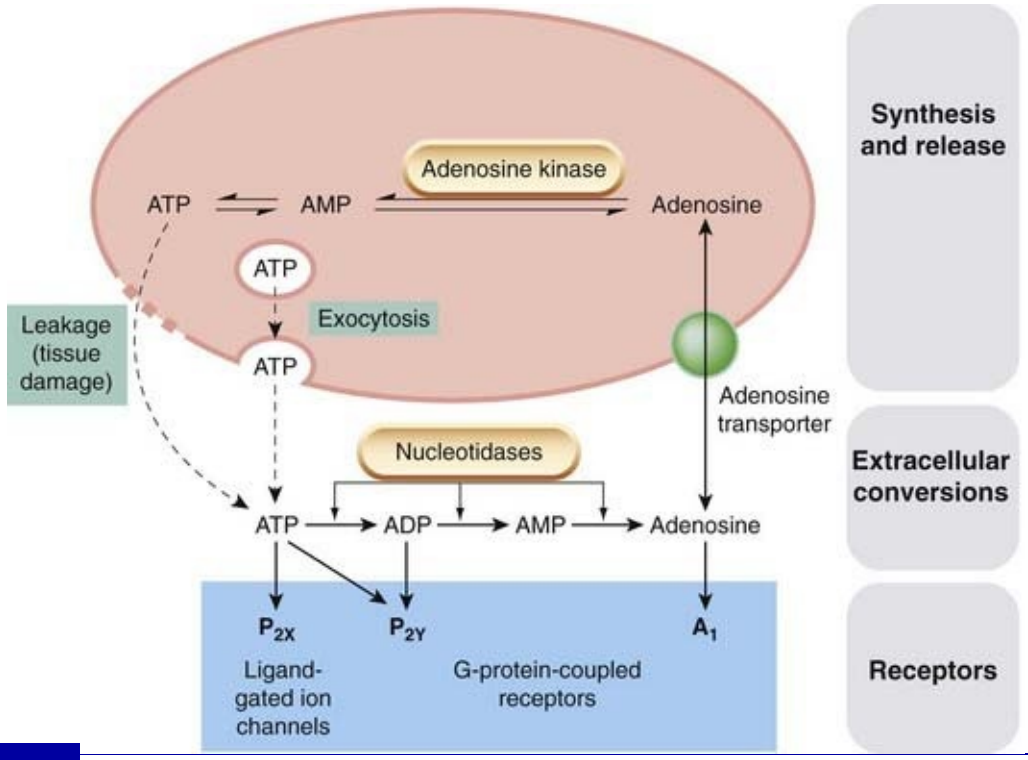


Fig. 16.1 Purines as mediators.

ATP (and, in platelets, ADP) is stored in vesicles and released by exocytosis. It is also present in the cytosol of all cells, from which large quantities may be released by cellular damage. Adenosine is present in the cytosol of all cells, and is taken up and released via a specific

membrane transporter. When released, ATP and ADP are rapidly converted to adenosine by the action of tissue nucleotidases.

Purinergic Receptors

Purines exert their biological actions through three families of receptors. Table 16.1 lists these and summarises what is known about their signalling systems, their endogenous ligands and antagonists of pharmacological interest. It should be noted, however, that the family of purinergic receptors continues to grow and their pharmacology can be confusing. In part, this is because nucleotides are rapidly degraded by ecto-enzymes and there is also evidence of interconversion by phosphate exchange. Thus it is possible to envisage a situation where ATP may produce effects at all three receptor subclasses depending upon the extent of its enzymatic hydrolysis.

Table 16.1 Purinergic receptors

Receptor	Subtype	Class	Principal endogenous ligands	Notes
Adenosine (also called P_1)	A_1	G-protein coupled ($G_{i/o}$) Lowers cAMP	Adenosine (high affinity)	Caffeine, theophylline (antagonists)
	A_{2A}	G-protein coupled (G_s) Raises cAMP	Adenosine (high affinity)	Caffeine, theophylline (antagonists)
	A_{2B}	G-protein coupled ($G_{s/q}$) Raises cAMP	Adenosine (low affinity)	Theophylline (antagonist)
	A_3	G-protein coupled ($G_{i/q}$) Lowers cAMP	Adenosine (low affinity)	Theophylline (antagonist)
P2Y 'metabotropic'[a]	$P2Y_1$	G-protein coupled (mainly G_q) Activates PLCβ mobilises Ca^{2+} Sometimes alters cAMP	ATP (antagonist or partial agonist)	Suramin (antagonist)
	$P2Y_2$		Adenine, UTP and ATP	Suramin (antagonist)
	$P2Y_4$		ATP (antagonist) and UTP	Pyrimidinoceptor
	$P2Y_6$		UDP	—
	$P2Y_{11}$		ATP > ADP	Suramin (antagonist)
	$P2Y_{12}$	G-protein coupled (mainly $G_{i/o}$) Reduces cAMP	ADP	Platelet ADP receptor Clopidigrel, prasugrel and ticlopidine (potent antagonists)
	$P2Y_{13}$		ADP	—
	$P2Y_{14}$		UDP-glucose	Pyrimidinoceptor
P2X 'ionotropic'	$P2X_1$	Receptor-gated cation-selective ion channels	ATP	Suramin (antagonist)
	$P2X_2$			
	$P2X_3$			
	$P2X_4$			
	$P2X_5$			
	$P2X_6$			
	$P2X_7$			

[a]Only functional human receptors are listed. The missing numbers in the sequence indicate that while these receptors have been cloned, their ligands have not yet been identified. A further family of related receptors that binds extracellular cAMP (CAR_{1-4}) is omitted as little is known about their biology.

The three main types of purine receptor are:

1 *Adenosine receptors* (A_1, A_{2A}, A_{2B} and A_3), formerly known as *P_1 receptors*, which are G-protein-coupled receptors that regulate cAMP.

2 *P2Y metabotropic receptors* ($P2Y_{1–14}$), which are G-protein-coupled receptors that utilise either cAMP or phospholipase C activation as their signalling system (see Ch. 3); they respond to various adenine nucleotides, generally preferring ATP over ADP or AMP.

3 *P2X ionotropic receptors* ($P2X_{1–7}$) which are multimeric ATP-gated cation channels.

The subtypes in each family may be distinguished on the basis of their molecular structure as well as their agonist and antagonist selectivity.

The latter has usually been determined by the use of groups of experimental compounds with varying degrees of receptor selectivity and need not concern us here. The P2Y group is particularly problematic: several receptors have been cloned on the basis of homology with other family members, but their ligands have yet to be identified (in other words they are 'orphan receptors'). In addition, some members of this family also recognise pyrimidines such as UTP and UDP as well as purines, and as such are sometimes classed as *pyrimidinoceptors*. Little is known about the role of pyrimidines in cell signalling.

With the exception of platelet $P2Y_{12}$ antagonists such as **clopidogrel**, there are so far few therapeutic agents that act on these receptors, and we will confine this account to some prominent and interesting aspects; the reading list provides further information.

Purines as mediators

• *Adenosine* acts through A_1, A_{2A}, A_{2B} and A_3 G-protein receptors, coupled to inhibition or stimulation of adenylyl cyclase. Adenosine receptors are blocked by methylxanthines such as **theophylline**.

– Adenosine affects many cells and tissues, including smooth muscle and nerve cells. It is not a conventional transmitter but may be important as a local hormone and 'homeostatic modulator'.

– Important sites of action include the heart and the lung. Adenosine is very short acting and is sometimes used for its antidysrhythmic effect.

• *ADP* acts through the $P2Y_{1–14}$ 'metabotropic' G-protein receptor family. These are coupled to cAMP or PLCβ.

– Important sites of action include platelets where ADP released from granules promotes aggregation by acting on the PY_{12} receptor. This is antagonised by the drug **clopidogrel**.

• *ATP* is stored in vesicles and released by exocytosis. Cytoplasmic ATP may be released when cells are damaged. It also functions as an intracellular mediator, inhibiting the opening of membrane potassium channels.

– ATP may act on P2Y or on P2X receptors: these are ligand-gated ion channels.

– Suramin blocks the ATP actions at most receptors.

– Important sites of ATP action include the CNS, peripheral and central pathways and inflammatory cells.

– Released ATP is rapidly converted to ADP and adenosine that may act on other purinergic receptors.

Adenosine as a Mediator

The simplest of the purines, adenosine is found in biological fluids throughout the body. It exists free in the cytosol of all cells and is transported in and out mainly by a membrane transporter. Little is known about the way in which this is controlled but the extracellular concentrations are usually quite low compared with intracellular levels. Adenosine in tissues comes partly from this intracellular source and partly from extracellular hydrolysis of released ATP or ADP (Fig. 16.1).

Virtually all cells express one or more A-receptors and so adenosine produces many pharmacological effects, both in the periphery and in the CNS. Based on its ability to inhibit cell function and thus minimise the metabolic requirements of cells, one of its functions may be as an 'acute' protective agent that is released immediately when tissue integrity is threatened (e.g. by coronary or cerebral ischaemia; see Chs 21 and 39). Under less extreme conditions, variations in adenosine release may play a role in controlling blood flow and (through effects on the carotid bodies) respiration, matching them to the metabolic needs of the tissues.

Adenosine and the Cardiovasular System

Adenosine inhibits cardiac conduction and it is likely that all four of the adenosine receptors are involved in this effect. Because of this, adenosine itself may be used as a drug, being given as an intravenous bolus injection to terminate supraventricular tachycardia (Ch. 21). In this respect it is safer than alternatives such as β-adrenoceptor antagonists or **verapamil**, because of its short duration of action: it is destroyed or taken up within a few seconds of intravenous administration. Longer-lasting analogues have been discovered that also show greater receptor selectivity. Adenosine uptake is blocked (and thus its action prolonged) by **dipyridamole**, a vasodilator and antiplatelet drug (see Ch. 24).

Adenosine and Asthma

Adenosine receptors are found on all the cell types involved in asthma and the overall pharmacology is complex. However, by acting through its A_1 receptor, adenosine promotes mediator release from mast cells, and causes enhanced mucus secretion, bronchoconstriction and leukocyte activation. Methylxanthines, especially analogues of **theophylline** (Ch. 27), are adenosine receptor antagonists. Theophylline has been used for the treatment of asthma and part of its beneficial activity may be ascribed to its antagonism of the A_1 receptor; however, methylxanthines also increase cAMP by inhibiting phosphodiesterase, which contributes to their pharmacological actions independently of adenosine receptor antagonism. Certain derivatives of theophylline are claimed to show greater selectivity for adenosine receptors over phosphodiesterase. In contrast to the A_1 receptor, activation of the A_{2A} subtype exerts a largely protective and anti-inflammatory effect.

Activation of the A_{2B} receptor also promotes mast cell mediator release, while the role of the A_3 receptor has yet to be fully elucidated.

Recent thinking therefore suggests that an antagonist of the A_1 and A_{2B} receptor or an agonist of the A_{2A} receptor would represent a significant therapeutic advance (see Brown et al., 2008).

Adenosine in the CNS

Acting through A_1 and A_{2A} receptors, adenosine has an inhibitory effect on many CNS neurons, and the stimulation experienced after consumption of methylxanthines such as **caffeine** (see Ch. 47) occurs partly as a result of block of these receptors.

ADP as a Mediator

ADP is usually stored in vesicles in cells. When released, it exerts its biological effects predominantly through the P2Y family of receptors.

ADP and Platelets

The secretory vesicles of blood platelets store both ATP and ADP in high concentrations, and release them when the platelets are activated (see Chs 23 and 24). One of the many effects of ADP is to promote platelet aggregation, so this system provides positive feedback—an important mechanism for controlling this process. The receptor involved is $P2Y_{12}$. **Clopidogrel**, prasugrel and the earlier agent, **ticlopidine** (not available in the UK), are $P2Y_{12}$ antagonists and exert their antiaggregating effects through this mechanism (Ch. 24).

ATP as a Mediator

ATP exerts its action primarily through the P2X receptors. The extracellular domain of these multimeric receptors can bind three molecules of ATP. When activated, the receptor gates the cation-selective ion channels that trigger ongoing intracellular signalling. The

other actions of ATP in mammals are mediated through the P2Y receptors. **Suramin** (a drug originally developed to treat trypanasome infections) and an experimental compound PPADS antagonise ATP and have broad-spectrum inhibitory activity at most P2X and P2Y receptors. ATP is present in all cells in millimolar concentrations and is released, independently of exocytosis, if the cells are damaged (e.g. by ischaemia). ATP released from cells is rapidly dephosphorylated by a range of tissue-specific nucleotidases, producing ADP and adenosine (Fig. 16.1), both of which produce a wide variety of receptor-mediated effects. The role of intracellular ATP in controlling membrane potassium channels, which is important in the control of vascular smooth muscle (Ch. 22) and of insulin secretion (Ch. 30), is quite distinct from its transmitter function.

ATP as a Neurotransmitter

The idea that such a workaday metabolite as ATP might be a member of the neurotransmitter elite was resisted for a long time, but is now firmly established. ATP is a transmitter in the periphery, both as a primary mediator and as a co-transmitter in noradrenergic nerve terminals. $P2X_2$, $P2X_4$ and $P2X_6$ are the predominant receptor subtypes expressed in neurons. $P2X_1$ predominates in smooth muscle.

The nucleotide is contained in synaptic vesicles of both adrenergic and cholinergic neurons, and it accounts for many of the actions produced by stimulation of autonomic nerves that are not caused by acetylcholine or noradrenaline (see Ch. 12). These effects include the relaxation of intestinal smooth muscle evoked by sympathetic stimulation, and contraction of the bladder produced by parasympathetic nerves. Burnstock and his colleagues have shown that ATP is released on nerve stimulation in a Ca^{2+}-dependent fashion, and that exogenous ATP, in general, mimics the effects of nerve stimulation in various preparations.

ATP functions as a conventional ‘fast’ transmitter in the CNS and in autonomic ganglia.

Adenosine, produced following hydrolysis of ATP, exerts presynaptic inhibitory effects on the release of excitatory transmitters in the CNS and periphery.

ATP in Nociception

ATP causes pain when injected, as a result of activation of $P2X_2$ and/or $P2X_3$ receptors in afferent neurons involved in the transduction of nociception (see Ch. 41). Oddly, perhaps, the same receptors seem to be involved in taste perception on the tongue. Elsewhere in the CNS, $P2X_4$ receptors on microglia may be important in the development of neuropathic pain.

ATP in Inflammation

The $P2X_7$ receptor is widely distributed on cells of the immune system, and ATP, apparently acting through this receptor, causes the release from macrophages and mast cells of cytokines and other mediators of the inflammatory response. Mice in which the receptor is deleted by genetic techniques show a reduced capacity to develop chronic inflammation.

Future Prospects

While it is true that few currently available drugs act through purinergic receptors when compared, for example, with 5-HT receptors discussed in Chapter 15, the area as a whole holds promise for future therapeutic exploitation, particularly in the treatment of asthma (Brown et al., 2008), pain (Liu et al., 2005; Burnstock, 2006) and gastrointestinal disorders (Burnstock, 2008), provided compounds with sufficient

receptor selectivity can be found.

References and Further Reading

(A note of caution: the nomenclature of these receptors has changed several times and this can make for difficulties when reading some older papers. For the latest version of the nomenclature, always refer to http://www.iuphar-db.org.)

rown R.A., Spina D., Page C.P. Adenosine receptors and asthma. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;153(Suppl. 1):S446-S456. (*Excellent review of the pharmacology of adenosine in the lung. Very accessible*)

rundege J.M., Dunwiddie T.V. Role of adenosine as a modulator of synaptic activity in the central nervous system. *Adv. Pharmacol.*. 1997;39:353-391. (*Good review article*)

urnstock G. Potential therapeutic targets in the rapidly expanding field of purinergic signalling. *Clin. Med.*. 2002;2:45-53.

urnstock G. Purinergic P2 receptors as targets for novel analgesics. *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2006;110:433-454. (*This paper, and the reviews that follow by the same author, cover various aspects of purinergic signalling and its therapeutic application*)

urnstock G. Purinergic receptors as future targets for treatment of functional GI disorders. *Gut.* 2008;57:1193-1194.

unha R.A. Adenosine as a neuromodulator and as a homeostatic regulator in the nervous system: different roles, different sources and different receptors. *Neurochem. Int.*. 2001;38:107-125. (*Speculative review on the functions of adenosine in the nervous system*)

redholm B.B., Arslan G., Halldner L., *et al.* Structure and function of adenosine receptors and their genes. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch. Pharmacol.*. 2001;362:364-374. (*General review article*)

les P., Klotz K.-N., Lohse M.J. Signalling by extracellular nucleotides and nucleosides. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch. Pharmacol.*. 2000;362:295-298. (*Introductory article in a series of useful reviews on purinergic mechanisms in the same issue*)

hakh B.S., North R.A. P2X receptors as cell-surface ATP sensors in health and disease. *Nature.*

2006;442:527-532. (*Excellent and very readable review on P2X receptors. Recommended*)

lotz K.-N. Adenosine receptors and their ligands. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch. Pharmacol.*. 2000;362:382-391. (*Account of known agonists and antagonists at adenosine receptors*)

iu X.J., Salter M.W. Purines and pain mechanisms: recent developments. *Curr. Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2005;6:65-75.

tone T.W. Purines and neuroprotection. *Adv. Exp. Med. Biol.*. 2002;513:249-280.

urprenant A., North R.A. Signaling at purinergic P2X receptors. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*. 2009;71:333-359. (*Extremely comprehensive review of P2X receptor biology if you are interested in following up the latest cutting-edge thinking*)

on Kügelglen I., Wetter A. Molecular pharmacology of P2Y receptors. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Arch. Pharmacol.*. 2000;362:310-323.

17

Local hormones

Cytokines, biologically active lipids, amines and peptides

Overview

In Chapter 6 we discussed the cellular players in host defence and alluded to the crucial role played by soluble chemical messengers in the inflammatory response. Here, we take a close look at these mediators as well as others which, while having a normal physiological role, are pressed into service by the host defence mechanism when necessary. The exceptions are the *cytokines* and *chemokines* which, as a general rule, are mainly of importance in inflammation and immunity. Many of the mediators described here are important targets for anti-inflammatory and other drug action.

Introduction

A 'mediator' is operationally defined as a substance that fulfils a set of criteria generally modelled on the original suggestions of Sir Henry Dale in 1933. A modified version, more applicable to the field today, was considered by Dale & Foreman (1994). They defined a 'mediator' as a substance that fulfils certain criteria, including the following:

- Applying the substance should produce the effect in question, and receptors should be present locally.

- The synthetic pathway should be present, and the substance generated locally.

• There should be a mechanism for termination of its effects.

• Interfering with its synthesis, release or termination should modify the physiological reaction accordingly.

The principal mediators of inflammation will be described below beginning with the cytokines.

Cytokines

'Cytokine' is an all-purpose functional term that is applied to protein or polypeptide mediators synthesised and released by cells of the immune system during inflammation. They are enormously important for the overall coordination of the inflammatory response. Cytokines act locally by *autocrine* or *paracrine* mechanisms. Their synthesis is massively upregulated during inflammatory episodes and they are usually active at very low (sub-nanomolar) concentrations.

On the target cell, they bind to and activate specific, high-affinity receptors that, in most cases, are also upregulated during inflammation. Except for *chemokines* (see below), which act on G-protein-coupled receptors, most cytokines act on kinase-linked receptors, regulating phosphorylation cascades that affect gene expression, such as the Jak/Stat pathway (Ch. 3).

In addition to their own direct actions on cells, some cytokines amplify inflammation by inducing the formation of other inflammatory mediators. Others can induce receptors for other cytokines on their target cell, or engage in synergistic or antagonistic interactions with other cytokines. Cytokines may be likened to a complex signalling language, with the final response of a particular cell involved being determined by the strength and number of different messages received concurrently at the cell surface.

Various systems for classifying cytokines can be found in the literature, as can a multitude of diagrams depicting complex networks of cytokines interacting with each other and with a range of target cells. No one system of classification does justice to the complexity of cytokine biology. The terminology and nomenclature are horrendous and a comprehensive coverage of this area is beyond the scope of this book. For the purposes of this chapter, however, Table 17.1 lists some significant species and their biological actions using a very simplified classification scheme. The cytokine aficionado can find further classification tables in Janeway et al. (2004), or by using the Web links listed at the end of the chapter.

Table 17.1 Some examples of significant cytokines and their actions

Main function	Cytokine	Main cell source	Main target cells/action	Comments
Cytokines that stimulate immune cells to proliferate and differentiate	IL-1	Monocyte/macrophages and other cells	Stimulates proliferation, maturation and activation of Th, B and NK lymphocytes: causes inflammation, fever	Two subtypes and IL-1ra—a receptor antagonist
	IL-2	Th1 cells	Stimulates proliferation, maturation and activation of T, B and NK cells	
	IL-4	Th2 cells	Stimulates proliferation, maturation of T and B cells and IgG and E synthesis	
	IL-5	Th2 cells	Stimulates proliferation, maturation of B cells and IgA synthesis	
	IL-6	Monocyte/macrophages and Th2 cells	Stimulates differentiation of B cells, plasma cells and Ig secretion	Target for anti-inflammatory drugs (Ch. 26)
	IL-10	Th2 cells	Inhibits cytokine production by macrophages Activates B cells	
	IL-17	T cells, various	Stimulates Th17 cells	
	GM-CSF	Th cells	Stimulates growth of dendritic and other progenitor cells	
	IL-8	Macrophages, endothelial cells	Neutrophil chemotaxis	C-X-C chemokine
Cytokines that mainly signal other cellular functions	MIP-1	Macrophages/lymphocyes	Chemotaxis of monocytes/T cells	Two subtypes C-C chemokine
	TGF-α	T cells, monocytes	Chemotaxis of macrophages/ lymphocytes and IL-1 synthesis Stimulates B cell IgA synthesis	
	TNF-α	Macrophages, mast cells and NK cells	Stimulates macrophage cytokine expression Kills tumour cells	Target for anti-inflammatory drugs (Ch. 26)
	TNF-β	Th1 cells	Stimulates macrophage phagocytosis and NO production Kills tumour cells	
	Eotaxin	Several	Chemotaxis, activation of eosinophils	C-C chemokine
	MCP-1	Bone and other cells	Chemotaxis of T cells/dendritic cells	C-C chemokine
	RANTES	T cells	Chemotaxis of T cells Chemotaxis and activation of other leukocytes	
Interferons	IFN-α	Leukocytes	Inhibits viral replication in various cell types	Multiple molecular species
	IFN-γ	Th1, NK cells	Inhibits Th2 cell proliferation Stimulates macrophage pathogen killing	

GM-CSF, granulocyte-macrophage–colony-stimulating factor; IFN, interferon; Ig, immunoglobulin; IL, interleukin; MCP, monocyte chemoattractant protein; MIP, macrophage inflammatory protein; NK, natural killer (cell); NO, nitric oxide; RANTES, regulated on activation normal T cell expressed and secreted; TGF, transforming growth factor; Th, T-helper (cell); TNF, tumour necrosis factor.

More than 100 cytokines have been identified, falling into four main groups, namely *interleukins, chemokines, interferons* and *colony-stimulating factors* (discussed separately in Ch. 25).

Interleukins

Originally so named as they signalled between leukocytes, the

distinction has become less useful with time. The primary proinflammatory interleukins (IL) are usually considered to be tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α and IL-1. The latter cytokine actually comprises a family of three cytokines consisting of two agonists, IL-1α, IL-1β and, surprisingly, an endogenous IL-1-receptor *antagonist* (IL-1ra).[1] Mixtures of these are released from macrophages and many other cells during inflammation and can initiate the synthesis and release of a cascade of secondary cytokines, among which are the *chemokines* (see below). Some interleukins are anti-inflammatory. These include transforming growth factor (TGF)-β, IL-4, IL-10 and IL-13. They inhibit chemokine production, and the anti-inflammatory interleukins can inhibit responses driven by T-helper (Th)1 cells, whose inappropriate activation is involved in the pathogenesis of several diseases. Both TNF-α and IL-1 are important targets for anti-inflammatory biopharmaceuticals (Ch. 26).

Chemokines

[1]One might have expected evolution to have generated more examples of endogenous receptor antagonists as physiological regulators, but apart from IL-1ra, they are only exploited as toxins directed against other species.

Chemokines are defined as *chemoattractant cytokines* that control the migration of leukocytes, functioning as traffic coordinators during immune and inflammatory reactions. Again, the nomenclature (and the classification) is confusing, because some non-cytokine mediators also control leukocyte movement (C5a, LTB_4, f-Met-Leu-Phe, etc; see Fig. 6.2). Furthermore, many chemokines have other actions, for example causing mast cell degranulation or promoting angiogenesis.

More than 40 chemokines have been identified, and for those of us who are not professional chemokinologists they can be conveniently

distinguished by considering the configuration of key cysteine residues in their polypeptide chain. Chemokines with one cysteine are known as *C-chemokines*. If there are two adjacent residues they are called *C-C chemokines*. Other members have cysteines separated by one (*C-X-C* chemokines) or three other residues (*C-XXX-C* chemokines).

The C-X-C chemokines (main example IL-8; see Fig. 6.2) act on neutrophils and are predominantly involved in acute inflammatory responses. The C-C chemokines (main examples eotaxin, MCP-1 and RANTES[2]) act on monocytes, eosinophils and other cells, and are involved predominantly in chronic inflammatory responses.

▼ Chemokines generally act through G-protein-coupled receptors, and alteration or inappropriate expression of these is implicated in multiple sclerosis, cancer, rheumatoid arthritis and some cardiovascular diseases (Gerard & Rollins, 2001). Some types of virus (herpes virus, cytomegalovirus, pox virus and members of the retrovirus family) can exploit the chemokine system and subvert the host's defences (Murphy, 2001). Some produce proteins that mimic host chemokines or chemokine receptors, some act as antagonists at chemokine receptors and some masquerade as growth or angiogenic factors. The AIDS-causing HIV virus is responsible for the most audacious exploitation of the host chemokine system. This virus has a protein (gp120) in its envelope that recognises and binds T-cell receptors for CD4 *and* a chemokine coreceptor that allows it to penetrate the T cell (see Ch. 51).

Interferons

[2]MCP, monocyte chemoattractant protein; RANTES, regulated on activation normal T cell expressed and secreted.

There are three classes of interferon, termed IFN-α, IFN-β and IFN-γ. IFN-α is not a single substance but a family of approximately 20 proteins

with similar activities. IFN-α and IFN-β have antiviral activity, and IFN-α also has some antitumour action. Both are released from virus-infected cells and activate antiviral mechanisms in neighbouring cells. IFN-γ has a role in induction of Th1 responses (Fig. 6.3; see also Abbas et al., 1996).

Clinical Use of Interferons

IFN-α is used in the treatment of chronic hepatitis B and C, and has some action against *herpes zoster* and in the prevention of the common cold. Antitumour action against some lymphomas and solid tumours has been reported. A variety of dose-related side effects may occur. IFN-β is used in some patients with multiple sclerosis, whereas IFN-γ is used in chronic granulomatous disease in conjunction with antibacterial drugs (see clinical box for more details).

Clinical uses of interferons

• **α:** Chronic hepatitis B or C (ideally combined with **ribavirin**).

• Malignant disease (alone or in combination with other drugs, *e.g.* **cytarabine**): chronic myelogenous leukemia (CML), hairy cell leukemia, follicular lymphoma, metastatic carcinoid, multiple myeloma, malignant melanoma (as an adjunct to surgery), myelodysplastic syndrome.

• Conjugation with polyethylene glycol ('pegylation') results in preparations that are more slowly eliminated and are administered intermittently subcutaneously.

• **β:** Multiple sclerosis (especially the relapsing remitting form of this disease).

• **β:** To reduce infection in children with chronic granulomatous disease.

Interfering with cytokine action using biopharmaceuticals has proved to be a particularly fertile area of drug development: several successful

strategies have been adopted including direct antibody neutralisation or the use of 'decoy' receptor proteins that remove the biologically active pool from the circulation. These are explained in detail in Chapters 26 and 59.

Cytokines

• Cytokines are polypeptides that are rapidly induced and released during inflammation. They regulate the action of inflammatory and immune system cells.

• The cytokine superfamily includes the *interferons*, *interleukins*, *chemokines* and *colony-stimulating factors*.

• Utilising both autocrine or paracrine mechanisms, they exert complex effects on leukocytes, vascular endothelial cells, mast cells, fibroblasts, haemopoietic stem cells and osteoclasts, controlling proliferation, differentiation and/or activation.

• Interleukins IL-1 and TNF-α are important primary inflammatory cytokines, inducing the formation of other cytokines.

• Chemokines, such as IL-8, are mainly involved in the regulation of cell trafficking.

• Interferons IFN-α and IFN-β have antiviral activity, and IFN-α is used as an adjunct in the treatment of viral infections. IFN-γ has significant immunoregulatory function and is used in the treatment of multiple sclerosis.

Histamine

In a classic study, Sir Henry Dale and his colleagues demonstrated that a local anaphylactic reaction (a type I or 'immediate hypersensitivity reaction'; see below) was caused by antigen–antibody reactions in sensitised tissue, and found that histamine mimicked this effect both in vitro and in vivo. Later studies confirmed that histamine is present in

tissues, and released (along with other mediators described below) during anaphylaxis.

Synthesis and Storage of Histamine

Histamine is a basic amine formed from histidine by *histidine decarboxylase*. It is found in most tissues but is present in high concentrations in the lungs and the skin, and in particularly high concentrations in the gastrointestinal tract. At the cellular level, it is found largely in mast cells (approximately 0.1–0.2 pmol/cell) and basophils (0.01 pmol/cell), but non-mast cell histamine occurs in 'histaminocytes' in the stomach and in *histaminergic neurons* in the brain (see Ch. 38). In mast cells and basophils, histamine is complexed in intracellular granules with an acidic protein and a high-molecular-weight heparin termed *macroheparin*.

Histamine Release

Histamine is released from mast cells by exocytosis during inflammatory or allergic reactions. Stimuli include C3a and C5a that interact with specific surface receptors, and the combination of antigen with cell-fixed immunoglobulin (Ig)E antibodies. In common with many secretory processes (Ch. 4), histamine release is initiated by a rise in cytosolic [Ca^{2+}]. Various basic drugs, such as **morphine** and **tubocurarine**, release histamine through a non-receptor action. Agents that increase cAMP formation (e.g. β-adrenoceptor agonists; see Ch. 14) inhibit histamine secretion. Replenishment of secreted histamine by mast cells or basophils is a slow process, which may take days or weeks, whereas turnover of histamine in the gastric histaminocyte is very rapid. Histamine is metabolised by histaminase and/or by the methylating enzyme *imidazole* N-*methyltransferase*.

Histamine Receptors

Histamine acts on G-protein-coupled receptors, of which four main types have been identified; all four are implicated in the inflammatory response (see Gutzmer et al., 2005, for a review). Selective antagonists at H_1, H_2 and H_3 receptors include **mepyramine**, **cimetidine** and **thioperamide**, respectively. Selective agonists for H_2 and H_3 receptors are, respectively, **dimaprit** and **(*R*)-methylhistamine**. Histamine H_1 antagonists are the principal antihistamines used in the treatment of inflammation (notably rhinitis). Other clinical uses of subtype antagonists may be found in Chapters 27, 36 and 47. At the time of writing, the pharmacology of H_4 receptors is less well developed.

Actions

Smooth muscle effects

Histamine, acting on H_1 receptors, contracts the smooth muscle of the ileum, bronchi, bronchioles and uterus. The effect on the ileum is not as marked in humans as it is in the guinea pig (this tissue remains the de facto standard preparation for histamine bioassay). Histamine reduces air flow in the first phase of bronchial asthma (see Ch. 27 and Fig. 27.3).

Cardiovascular effects

Histamine dilates human blood vessels by an action on H_1 receptors, the effect being partly endothelium dependent in some vascular beds. It also increases the rate and the output of the heart by action on cardiac H_2 receptors.

Gastric secretion

Histamine stimulates the secretion of gastric acid by action on H_2 receptors. In clinical terms, this is the most important action of

histamine, because it is implicated in the pathogenesis of peptic ulcer. It is considered in detail in Chapter 29.

Itching

Itching occurs if histamine is injected into the skin or applied to a blister base, because it stimulates sensory nerve endings by an H_1-dependent mechanism.

Central nervous system effects

Histamine is a transmitter in the CNS (Ch. 38).

The 'triple response'

When injected intradermally, histamine causes a reddening of the skin, accompanied by a weal with a surrounding flare. This is the *triple response* described by Sir Thomas Lewis over 80 years ago and is explained by the foregoing effects. The reddening reflects vasodilatation of the small arterioles and precapillary sphincters, and the weal the increased permeability of the postcapillary venules. These effects are mainly mediated through activation of H_1 receptors. The flare is an axon reflex: stimulation of sensory nerve fibres evokes antidromic impulses through neighbouring branches of the same nerve, releasing vasodilators such as calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP; see Chs 19 and 26).

Despite the fact that histamine release is evidently capable of reproducing many of the inflammatory signs and symptoms, histamine H_1 antagonists do not have much clinical utility in the acute inflammatory response per se, because other mediators are more important. Histamine is, however, significant in type I hypersensitivity reactions such as allergic rhinitis and urticaria. The use of H_1 antagonists in these and other conditions is dealt with in Chapter 26.

Histamine

• Histamine is a basic amine, stored in mast cell and basophil granules, and secreted when C3a and C5a interact with specific membrane receptors or when antigen interacts with cell-fixed immunoglobulin E.

• Histamine produces effects by acting on H_1, H_2 or H_3 (and possibly H_4) receptors on target cells.

• The main actions in humans are:

– stimulation of gastric secretion (H_2)

– contraction of most smooth muscle, except blood vessels (H_1)

– cardiac stimulation (H_2)

– vasodilatation (H_1)

– increased vascular permeability (H_1).

• Injected intradermally, histamine causes the 'triple response': *reddening* (local vasodilatation), *weal* (direct action on blood vessels) and *flare* (from an 'axon' reflex in sensory nerves releasing a peptide mediator).

• The main pathophysiological roles of histamine are:

– as a stimulant of gastric acid secretion (treated with H_2-receptor antagonists)

– as a mediator of type I hypersensitivity reactions such as urticaria and hay fever (treated with H_1-receptor antagonists)

– CNS functions (see Ch. 36).

Eicosanoids

General Remarks

Unlike histamine, eicosanoids are not preformed in cells but are generated from phospholipid precursors on demand. They are implicated in the control of many physiological processes, and are among the most

important mediators and modulators of the inflammatory reaction (Fig. 17.1) and are a very significant target for drug action.

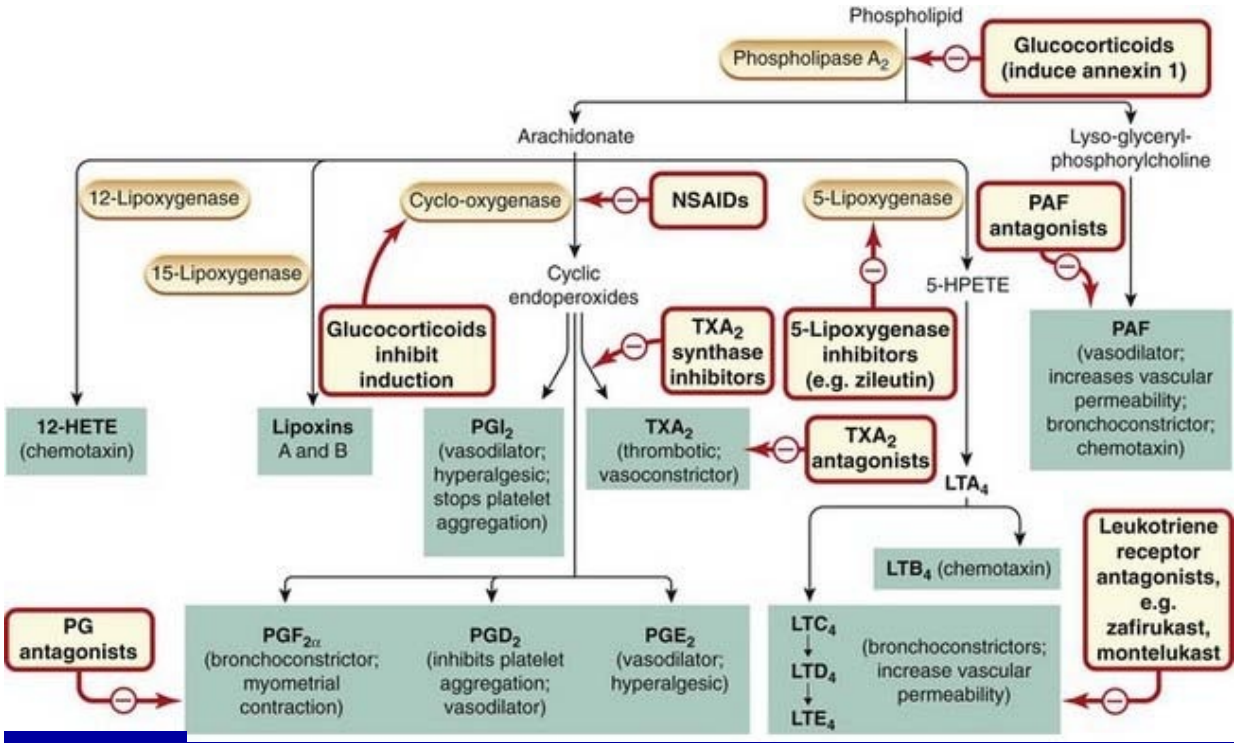


Fig. 17.1 Summary diagram of the inflammatory mediators derived from phospholipids, with an outline of their actions and the sites of action of anti-inflammatory drugs.

The arachidonate metabolites are eicosanoids. The glucocorticoids inhibit transcription of the gene for cyclo-oxygenase-2, induced in inflammatory cells by inflammatory mediators. The effects of prostaglandin (PG)E2 depend on which of the three receptors for this prostanoid are activated. HETE, hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; HPETE, hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid; LT, leukotriene; NSAID, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug; PAF, platelet-activating factor; PGI2, prostacyclin; TX, thromboxane.

Interest in eicosanoids arose in the 1930s after reports that semen contained a lipid substance that contracted uterine smooth muscle. Later, it became clear that *prostaglandin* (as the factor was named[3]) was not a single substance but a whole family of compounds that could be generated from 20-carbon unsaturated fatty acids by virtually all cells.

Structure and Biosynthesis

[3]The name arose through an anatomical error. In some species it is difficult to differentiate the prostaglandin-rich seminal vesicles from the prostate gland which, ironically, contains virtually none. Nevertheless the name stuck, outlasting the term *vesiglandin* which, while being suggested later, would have been more appropriate.

In mammals, the main eicosanoid precursor is *arachidonic acid* (5,8,11,14-eicosatetraenoic acid), a 20-carbon unsaturated fatty acid containing four double bonds (hence *eicosa*, referring to the 20 carbon atoms, and *tetraenoic*, referring to the four double bonds). In most cell types, arachidonic acid is esterified in the phospholipid pool, and the concentration of the free acid is low. The principal eicosanoids are the *prostaglandins*, the *thromboxanes* and the *leukotrienes*, although other derivatives of arachidonate, for example the *lipoxins*, are also produced. (The term prostanoid will be used here to encompass both prostaglandins and thromboxanes.)

In most instances, the initial and rate-limiting step in eicosanoid synthesis is the liberation of arachidonate, usually in a one-step process catalysed by the enzyme *phospholipase A_2* (PLA_2; Fig. 17.2), although a multistep process involving phospholipases C or D in conjunction with diacylglycerol lipase is sometimes utilised. Several species of PLA_2 exist, but the most important is probably the highly regulated *cytosolic PLA_2*. This enzyme generates not only arachidonic acid (and thus eicosanoids) but also *lysoglyceryl-phosphorylcholine* (*lyso-PAF*), the precursor of *platelet activating factor*, another inflammatory mediator (see Fig. 17.2).

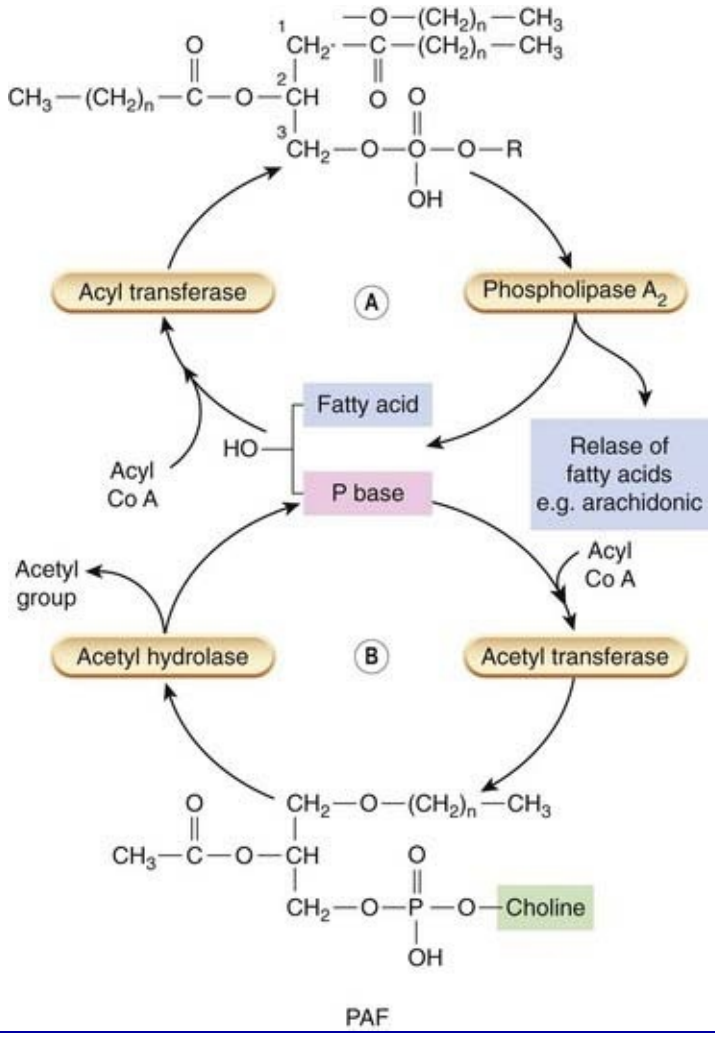


Fig. 17.2 The structure of phospholipids, the release of fatty acids and platelet-activating factor (PAF) precursors.

The structure of a 'generic' phospholipid is shown. Different bases are found at C3 yielding phosphatidyl-choline, -ethanolamine, -serine or -inositol species. Generally speaking, unsaturated fatty acids such as arachidonic acid are esterified at the C2 position and saturated fatty acids are linked to C1. Two bonds are possible: an ether linkage or an ester linkage. Arachidonic acid can be removed by phospholipase A2 and used for synthesis of eicosanoids. This yields a lyso-phospholipid that is normally rapidly reacylated and converted back to phospholipids (A). If the species is lysophosphatidyl choline and it contains an ether-linked hexadecyl or octadecyl fatty acid at C1, it can serve as a precursor for PAF. This is accomplished by a further acetylation step. PAF is inactivated by an acetylhydrolase that removes the acetyl group and converts it back to lyso-PAF, where it can be recycled (B).

Cytosolic PLA_2 is activated (and hence arachidonic acid liberated) by phosphorylation. This occurs in response to signal transduction events

triggered by many stimuli, such as thrombin action on platelets, C5a on neutrophils, bradykinin on fibroblasts and antigen–antibody reactions on mast cells. General cell damage also triggers the activation process. The free arachidonic acid is metabolised separately (or sometimes jointly) by several pathways, including the following.

• *Fatty acid cyclo-oxygenase* (*COX*). Two main isoforms, COX-1 and COX-2, transform arachidonic acid to prostaglandins and thromboxanes.

• *Lipoxygenases*. Several subtypes synthesise leukotrienes, lipoxins or other compounds (Figs 17.1 and 17.3).

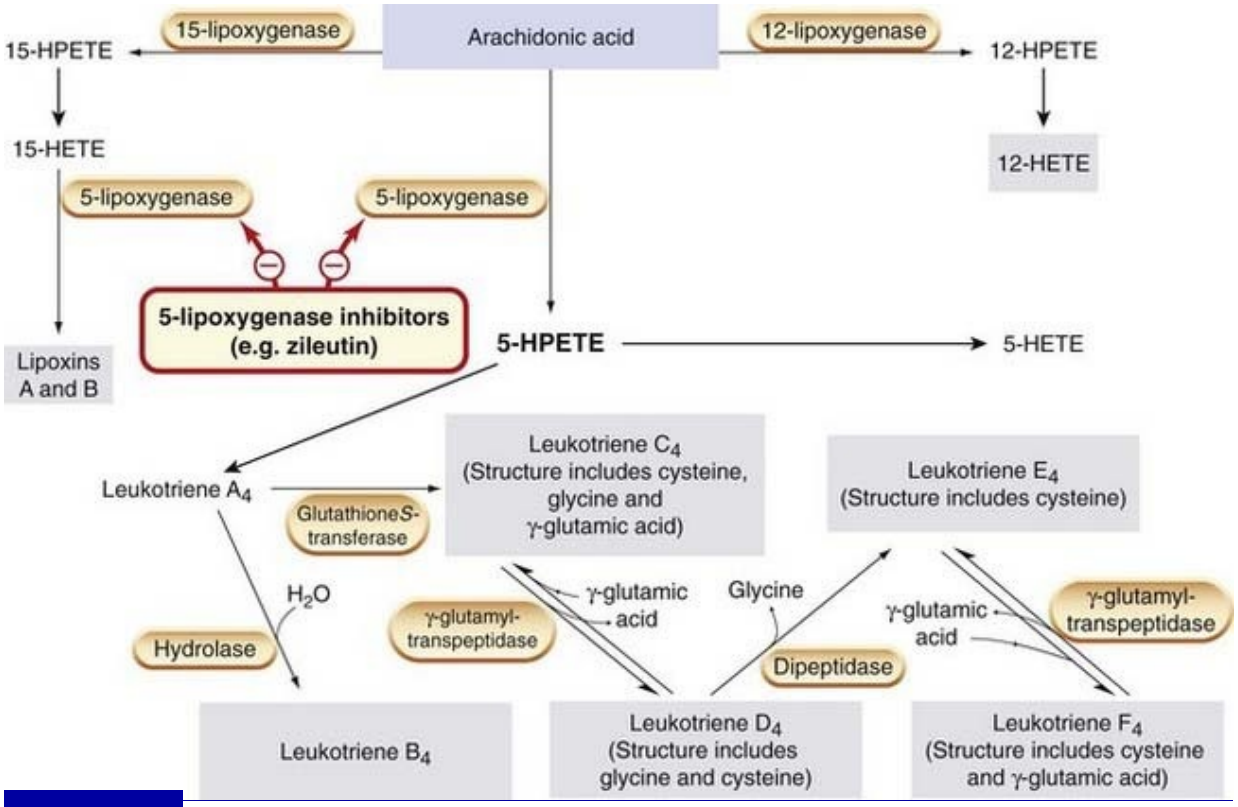


Fig. 17.3 The biosynthesis of leukotrienes from arachidonic acid.
Compounds with biological action are shown in grey boxes. HETE, hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; HPETE, hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid.

Chapter 26 deals in detail with the way inhibitors of these pathways

(including non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs [NSAIDs] and glucocorticoids) produce anti-inflammatory effects.

Mediators derived from phospholipids

• The main phospholipid-derived mediators are the eicosanoids (prostanoids and leukotrienes) and platelet-activating factor (PAF).

• The eicosanoids are synthesised from arachidonic acid released directly from phospholipids by phospholipase A_2, or by a two-step process involving phospholipase C and diacylglycerol lipase.

• Arachidonate is metabolised by cyclo-oxygenases (COX)-1 or COX-2 to prostanoids, by 5-lipoxygenase to leukotrienes and, after further conversion, to lipoxins.

• PAF is derived from phospholipid precursors by phospholipase A_2, giving rise to lyso-PAF, which is then acetylated to give PAF.

Prostanoids

COX-1 is present in most cells as a constitutive enzyme that produces prostanoids that act as homeostatic regulators (e.g. modulating vascular responses), whereas COX-2 is not normally present (at least in most tissues) but it is strongly induced by inflammatory stimuli and therefore believed to be more relevant to inflammation therapy (see Ch. 26 for a full discussion of this point). Both enzymes catalyse the incorporation of two molecules of oxygen into each arachidonate molecule, forming the highly unstable *endoperoxides* PGG_2 and PGH_2. These are rapidly transformed by isomerase or synthase enzymes to PGE_2, PGI_2, PGD_2, $PGF_{2\alpha}$ and TXA_2, which are the principal bioactive end products of this reaction. The mix of eicosanoids thus produced varies between cell types depending on the particular endoperoxide isomerases or synthases

present. In platelets, for example, TXA_2 predominates, whereas in vascular endothelium PGI_2 is the main product. Macrophages, neutrophils and mast cells synthesise a mixture of products. If *eicosatrienoic* acid (three double bonds) rather than arachidonic acid is the substrate, the resulting prostanoids have only a single double bond, for example PGE_1, while *eicosapentaenoic acid*, which contains five double bonds, yields PGE_3. The latter substrate is significant because it is present in abundance in some fish oils and may, if present in sufficient amounts in the diet, come to represent a significant fraction of cellular fatty acids. When this occurs, the production of the proinflammatory PGE_2 is diminished and, more significantly, the generation of TXA_2 as well. This may partly underlie the beneficial anti-inflammatory and cardiovascular actions that are ascribed to diets rich in this type of marine product (see *Resolvins* below).

Catabolism of the Prostanoids

This is a multistep process. After carrier-mediated uptake, most prostaglandins are rapidly inactivated by 'prostaglandin-specific' enzymes, and the inactive products are further degraded by general fatty acid-oxidising enzymes. The prostaglandin-specific enzymes are present in high concentration in the lung, and 95% of infused PGE_2, PGE_1 or $PGF_{2\alpha}$ is inactivated on first passage. The half-life of most prostaglandins in the circulation is less than 1 min.

PGI_2 and TXA_2 are slightly different. Both are inherently unstable and decay spontaneously and rapidly (within 5 min and 30 s, respectively) in biological fluids into inactive 6-keto-$PGF_{1\alpha}$ and TXB_2. Further metabolism occurs, but it is not really relevant to us here.

Prostanoid Receptors

There are five main classes of prostanoid receptors (Coleman & Humphrey, 1993), all of which are typical G-protein-coupled receptors (Table 17.2). They are termed DP, FP, IP, EP and TP receptors, respectively, depending on whether their ligands are PGD, PGF, PGI, PGE or TXA species. Some have further subtypes; for example, the EP receptors are subdivided into four subgroups.

Table 17.2 Prostanoid receptors classified according to their general physiological effects

Receptor	Physiological ligands	Second messenger	General physiological effect	Distribution
IP	Iloprost[a] > $E_1 = E_2$	↑ cAMP	'Inhibitory': e.g. smooth muscle relaxation	Abundant in cardiovascular system, platelets and neurons
DP	D_2			Least abundant prostanoid receptor; restricted distribution (e.g. vascular smooth muscle and cutaneous blood vessels)
EP_2	$E_1 = E_2$			Least abundant EP receptor; induced in response to stimuli
EP_4	$E_1 = E_2$			Widespread distribution throughout body
TP	$TxA_2 > D_2$	↑ Ca^{2+}	'Excitatory': e.g. smooth muscle contraction	Abundant in cardiovascular system, platelets and immune cells
FP	$F_{2\alpha} > D_2$			Two subtypes known, opposing actions Very high expression in female reproductive organs
EP_1	$E_2 > E_1 > F_{2\alpha}$			Mainly kidney, lung and stomach
EP_3	$E_1 = E_2$ > iloprost	↓ cAMP	'Inhibitory': inhibits smooth muscle relaxation	Widespread distribution throughout body

[a] Iloprost is an analogue of PGI_2 and is used because I_2 is unstable.
(Adapted from Narumiya et al. 1999 Phys Rev 79: 1193–1226.)

Actions of the Prostanoids

The prostanoids affect most tissues and exert a bewildering variety of effects.

- *PGD_2* causes vasodilatation, inhibition of platelet aggregation, relaxation of gastrointestinal and uterine muscle, and modification of release of hypothalamic/pituitary hormones. It has a bronchoconstrictor effect through an action on TP receptors.

- *$PGF_{2\alpha}$* causes myometrial contraction in humans (see Ch. 34),

luteolysis in some species (e.g. cattle) and bronchoconstriction in other species (cats and dogs).

• *PGI_2* causes vasodilatation, inhibition of platelet aggregation (see Ch. 24), renin release and natriuresis through effects on tubular reabsorption of Na^+.

• *TXA_2* causes vasoconstriction, platelet aggregation (see Ch. 24) and bronchoconstriction (more marked in guinea pig than in humans).

• *PGE_2* has the following actions:

  – on EP_1 receptors, it causes contraction of bronchial and gastrointestinal smooth muscle

  – on EP_2 receptors, it causes bronchodilatation, vasodilatation, stimulation of intestinal fluid secretion and relaxation of gastrointestinal smooth muscle

  – on EP_3 receptors, it causes contraction of intestinal smooth muscle, inhibition of gastric acid secretion (see Ch. 29), increased gastric mucus secretion, inhibition of lipolysis, inhibition of autonomic neurotransmitter release and stimulation of contraction of the pregnant human uterus (Ch. 34).

The Role of the Prostanoids in Inflammation

The inflammatory response is inevitably accompanied by the release of prostanoids. PGE_2 predominates, although PGI_2 is also important. In areas of acute inflammation, PGE_2 and PGI_2 are generated by the local tissues and blood vessels, while mast cells release mainly PGD_2. In chronic inflammation, cells of the monocyte/macrophage series also release PGE_2 and TXA_2. Together, the prostanoids exert a sort of yin–yang effect in inflammation, stimulating some responses and decreasing others. The most striking effects are as follows.

In their own right, PGE_2, PGI_2 and PGD_2 are powerful vasodilators and synergise with other inflammatory vasodilators such as histamine and bradykinin. It is this combined dilator action on precapillary arterioles that contributes to the redness and increased blood flow in areas of acute inflammation. Prostanoids do not directly increase the permeability of the postcapillary venules, but potentiate this effect of histamine and bradykinin. Similarly, they do not themselves produce pain, but potentiate the effect of bradykinin by sensitising afferent C fibres (see Ch. 41) to the effects of other noxious stimuli. The anti-inflammatory effects of NSAIDs stem largely from their ability to block these actions.

Prostaglandins of the E series are also pyrogenic (i.e. they induce fever). High concentrations are found in cerebrospinal fluid during infection, and there is evidence that the increase in temperature (attributed to cytokines) is actually finally mediated by the release of PGE_2. NSAIDs exert antipyretic actions (Ch. 26) by inhibiting PGE_2 synthesis in the hypothalamus.

However, some prostaglandins have anti-inflammatory effects under some circumstances. For example, PGE_2 decreases lysosomal enzyme release and the generation of toxic oxygen metabolites from neutrophils, as well as the release of histamine from mast cells. Several prostanoids are available for clinical use (see clinical box).

Prostanoids

• The term *prostanoids* encompasses the prostaglandins and the thromboxanes.

• Cyclo-oxygenases (COX) oxidise arachidonate, producing the unstable intermediates prostaglandins PGG_2 and PGH_2. These are enzymatically transformed to the different prostanoid species.

• There are two main COX isoforms: COX-1, a constitutive enzyme, and COX-2, which is often induced by inflammatory stimuli.

• PGI_2 (prostacyclin), predominantly from vascular endothelium, acts on IP receptors, producing vasodilatation and inhibition of platelet aggregation.

• Thromboxane (TX)A_2, predominantly from platelets, acts on TP receptors, causing platelet aggregation and vasoconstriction.

• PGE_2 is prominent in inflammatory responses and is a mediator of fever and pain. Other effects include:

  – at EP_1 receptors: contraction of bronchial and gastrointestinal (GI) tract smooth muscle

  – at EP_2 receptors: relaxation of bronchial, vascular and GI tract smooth muscle

  – at EP_3 receptors: inhibition of gastric acid secretion, increased gastric mucus secretion, contraction of pregnant uterus and of gastrointestinal smooth muscle, inhibition of lipolysis and of autonomic neurotransmitter release.

• $PGF_{2\alpha}$ acts on FP receptors, found in uterine (and other) smooth muscle, and corpus luteum, producing contraction of the uterus and luteolysis (in some species).

• PGD_2 is derived particularly from mast cells and acts on DP receptors, causing vasodilatation and inhibition of platelet aggregation.

Clinical uses of prostanoids

• Gynaecological and obstetric (see Ch. 34):

  – termination of pregnancy: **gemeprost** or **misoprostol** (a metabolically stable prostaglandin (PG)E analogue

  – induction of labour: **dinoprostone** or **misoprostol**

  – postpartum haemorrhage: **carboprost**.

• Gastrointestinal:

  – to prevent ulcers associated with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug use: **misoprostol**

(see Ch. 29).

• Cardiovascular:

– to maintain the patency of the ductus arteriosus until surgical correction of the defect in babies with certain congenital heart malformations: **alprostadil** (PGE_1)

– to inhibit platelet aggregation (e.g. during haemodialysis): **epoprostenol** (PGI_2), especially if heparin is contraindicated

– primary pulmonary hypertension: **epoprostenol** (see Ch. 22).

• Ophthalmic:

– open-angle glaucoma: **latanoprost** eye drops.

Leukotrienes

Leukotrienes (*leuko-* because they are made by white cells, and *-trienes* because they contain a conjugated triene system of double bonds) are synthesised from arachidonic acid by lipoxygenase-catalysed pathways. These soluble cytosolic enzymes are mainly found in lung, platelets, mast cells and white blood cells. The main enzyme in this group is *5-lipoxygenase*. On cell activation, this enzyme translocates to the nuclear membrane, where it associates with a crucial accessory protein affectionately termed *FLAP* (five-lipoxygenase activating protein). The 5-lipoxygenase incorporates a hydroperoxy group at C5 in arachidonic acid to form 5-hydroperoxytetraenoic acid (5-HPETE, Fig. 17.3), leading to the production of the unstable compound *leukotriene (LT)A_4*. This may be converted enzymically to LTB_4 and, utilising a separate pathway, is also the precursor of the cysteinyl-containing leukotrienes *LTC_4*, *LTD_4*, *LTE_4* and *LTF_4* (also referred to as the sulfidopeptide leukotrienes). Mixtures of these cysteinyl adducts constitute the *slow-reacting substance of anaphylaxis* (SRS-A), a substance shown many years ago to be generated in guinea pig lung during anaphylaxis, and believed to be

important in asthma. LTB_4 is produced mainly by neutrophils, and the cysteinyl-leukotrienes mainly by eosinophils, mast cells, basophils and macrophages. *Lipoxins* and other active products, some of which have anti-inflammatory properties, are also produced from arachidonate by this pathway (Fig. 17.3).

LTB_4 is metabolised by a unique membrane-bound P450 enzyme in neutrophils, and then further oxidised to 20-carboxy-LTB_4. LTC_4 and LTD_4 are metabolised to LTE_4, which is excreted in the urine.

Leukotriene Receptors

Leukotriene receptors are termed *BLT* if the ligand is LTB_4, and *CysLT* for the cysteinyl-leukotrienes. LTB_4 acts on specific LTB_4 receptors as defined by selective agonists and antagonists. The transduction mechanism utilises inositol trisphosphate and increased cytosolic Ca^{2+}.

Leukotriene Actions

Cysteinyl-leukotrienes have important actions on the respiratory and cardiovascular systems, and specific receptors for LTD_4 have been defined on the basis of numerous selective antagonists. The CysLT-receptor antagonists **zafirlukast** and **montelukast** are now in use in the treatment of asthma (see Ch. 27). Cysteinyl-leukotrienes may mediate the cardiovascular changes of acute anaphylaxis. Agents that inhibit 5-lipoxygenase are under development as antiasthmatic agents (see Ch. 27) and anti-inflammatory agents. One such drug, **zileuton**, is available in some parts of the world but has not won a definite place in therapy yet (see Larsson et al., 2006).

The respiratory system

Cysteinyl-leukotrienes are potent spasmogens, causing dose-related contraction of human bronchiolar muscle in vitro. LTE_4 is less potent

than LTC_4 and LTD_4, but its effect is much longer lasting. All cause an increase in mucus secretion. Given by aerosol to human volunteers, they reduce specific airway conductance and maximum expiratory flow rate, the effect being more protracted than that produced by histamine (Fig. 17.4).

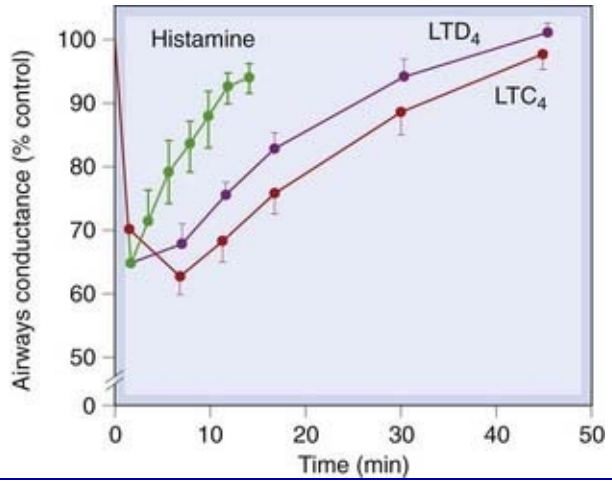


Fig. 17.4 The time course of action on specific airways conductance of the cysteinyl-leukotrienes and histamine, in six normal subjects.

Specific airways conductance was measured in a constant volume whole-body plethysmograph, and the drugs were given by inhalation.

(From Barnes P J, Piper P J, Costello J K 1984 Thorax 39: 500.)

The cardiovascular system

Small amounts of LTC_4 or LTD_4 given intravenously cause a rapid, short-lived fall in blood pressure, and significant constriction of small coronary resistance vessels. Given subcutaneously, they are equipotent with histamine in causing weal and flare. Given topically in the nose, LTD_4 increases nasal blood flow and increases local vascular permeability.

The role of leukotrienes in inflammation

LTB_4 is a potent chemotactic agent for neutrophils and macrophages (see

Fig. 6.2). On neutrophils, it also upregulates membrane adhesion molecule expression, and increases the production of toxic oxygen products and the release of granule enzymes. On macrophages and lymphocytes, it stimulates proliferation and cytokine release. It is found in inflammatory exudates and tissues in many inflammatory conditions, including rheumatoid arthritis, psoriasis and ulcerative colitis.

The cysteinyl-leukotrienes are present in the sputum of chronic bronchitis patients in amounts that are biologically active. On antigen challenge, they are released from samples of human asthmatic lung in vitro, and into nasal lavage fluid in subjects with allergic rhinitis. There is evidence that they contribute to the underlying bronchial hyperreactivity in asthmatics, and it is thought that they are among the main mediators of both the early and late phases of asthma (Fig. 27.2).

Leukotrienes

• 5-Lipoxygenase oxidises arachidonate to give 5-hydroperoxyeicosatetraenoic acid (5-HPETE), which is converted to leukotriene (LT)A4. This, in turn, can be converted to either LTB4 or to a series of glutathione adducts, the cysteinyl-leukotrienes LTC4, LTD4 and LTE4.

• LTB4, acting on specific receptors, causes adherence, chemotaxis and activation of polymorphs and monocytes, and stimulates proliferation and cytokine production from macrophages and lymphocytes.

• The cysteinyl-leukotrienes cause:

– contraction of bronchial muscle

– vasodilatation in most vessels, but coronary vasoconstriction.

• LTB4 is an important mediator in all types of inflammation; the cysteinyl-leukotrienes are of particular importance in asthma.

Lipoxins and Resolvins

A recently identified group of trihydroxy arachidonate metabolites termed *lipoxins* (Fig. 17.3) are formed by the concerted action of the 5- and the 12-or 15-lipoxygenase enzymes during inflammation. They act on polymorphonuclear leukocytes to oppose the action of proinflammatory stimuli, supplying what might be called 'stop signals' to inflammation. Lipoxins utilise the same formyl peptide G-protein-coupled receptor system that recognises other endogenous anti-inflammatory factors such as annexin-A1. Oddly, aspirin (a COX inhibitor, see Ch. 26) stimulates the synthesis of these substances because COX-2 can still produce hydroxy fatty acids even when inhibited by aspirin, even though it cannot synthesise prostaglandins. The formation of lipoxins probably contributes to aspirin's anti-inflammatory effects, some of which are not completely explained through inhibition of prostaglandin generation (see Gilroy & Perretti, 2005; Serhan, 2005). *Resolvins*, as the name implies, are a series of compounds that fulfil a similar function, but unlike lipoxins, their precursor fatty acid is *eicosapentaenoic acid*. Fish oils are rich in this fatty acid and it is likely that at least some of their anti-inflammatory benefit is produced through conversion to these highly active species (see Ariel & Serhan, 2007, for a review of this promising area). The leukocyte receptor for resolvins is called *Chem 23*.

Platelet-Activating Factor

Platelet-activating factor, also variously termed *PAF-acether* and *AGEPC* (*acetyl-glyceryl-ether-phosphorylcholine*), is a biologically active lipid that can produce effects at exceedingly low concentrations (less than 10^{-10} mol/l). The name is somewhat misleading, because PAF has actions on a variety of different target cells, and is believed to be an important mediator in both acute and chronic allergic and inflammatory

phenomena. PAF is biosynthesised from acyl-PAF in a two-step process (Fig. 17.2). The action of PLA_2 on acyl-PAF produces lyso-PAF, which is then acetylated to give PAF. PAF, in turn, can be deacetylated to the inactive lyso-PAF. It is produced by platelets in response to thrombin, and by activated inflammatory cells.

Actions and Role in Inflammation

By acting on specific receptors, PAF is capable of producing many of the signs and symptoms of inflammation. Injected locally, it produces vasodilatation (and thus erythema), increased vascular permeability and weal formation. Higher doses produce hyperalgesia. It is a potent chemotaxin for neutrophils and monocytes, and recruits eosinophils into the bronchial mucosa in the late phase of asthma (Fig. 27.3). It can activate PLA_2 and initiates eicosanoid synthesis.

PAF stimulates arachidonate turnover and TXA_2 generation by platelets, producing shape change and the release of the granule contents. This is important in haemostasis and thrombosis (see Ch. 24). PAF has spasmogenic effects on both bronchial and ileal smooth muscle.

The anti-inflammatory actions of the glucocorticoids may be caused, at least in part, by inhibition of PAF synthesis (Fig. 17.2). Competitive antagonists of PAF and/or specific inhibitors of lyso-PAF acetyltransferase could well be useful anti-inflammatory drugs and/or antiasthmatic agents. The PAF antagonist **lexipafant** is in clinical trial in the treatment of acute pancreatitis (see Leveau et al., 2005). **Rupatidine** is a combined H_1 and PAF antagonist that is available in some parts of the world for treating allergic symptoms.

Platelet-activating factor 

• PAF precursors are released from activated inflammatory cells by phospholipase A_2. After acetylation, the resultant PAF is released and acts on specific receptors in target cells.

• Pharmacological actions include vasodilatation, increased vascular permeability, chemotaxis and activation of leukocytes (especially eosinophils), activation and aggregation of platelets, and smooth muscle contraction.

• PAF is implicated in bronchial hyperresponsiveness and in the delayed phase of asthma.

• A PAF antagonist, **lexipafant**, is undergoing clinical trial in pancreatitis.

Bradykinin

Bradykinin and lysyl bradykinin (*kallidin*) are active peptides formed by proteolytic cleavage of circulating proteins termed kininogens through a protease cascade pathway (Fig. 6.1).

Source and Formation of Bradykinin

An outline of the formation of bradykinin from high-molecular-weight kininogen in plasma by the serine protease *kallikrein* is given in Figure 17.5. Kininogen is a plasma α-globulin that exists in both high- (M_r 110 000) and low- (M_r 70 000) molecular-weight forms. Kallikrein is derived from the inactive precursor prekallikrein by the action of *Hageman factor* (factor XII; see Ch. 24 and Fig. 6.1). Hageman factor is activated by contact with negatively charged surfaces such as collagen, basement membrane, bacterial lipopolysaccharides, urate crystals and so on. Hageman factor, prekallikrein and the kininogens leak out of the vessels during inflammation because of increased vascular permeability, and exposure to negatively charged surfaces promotes the interaction of Hageman factor with prekallikrein. The activated enzyme then ‘clips’ bradykinin from its kininogen precursor (Fig. 17.6). Kallikrein can also activate the complement system and can convert plasminogen to plasmin

(see Fig. 6.1 and Ch. 24).

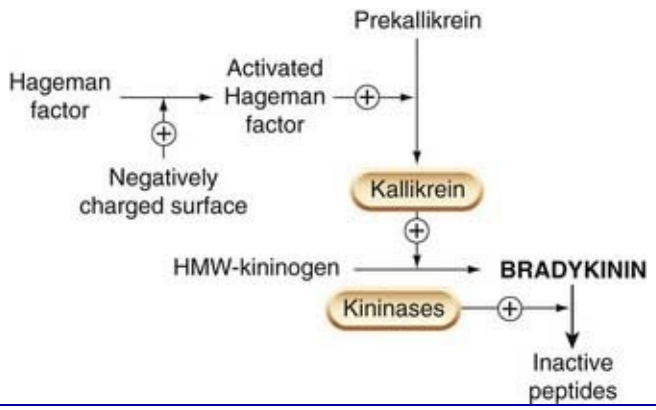


Fig. 17.5 The generation and breakdown of bradykinin.

High-molecular-weight kininogen (HMW-kininogen) probably acts both as a substrate for kallikrein and as a co-factor in the activation of prekallikrein.

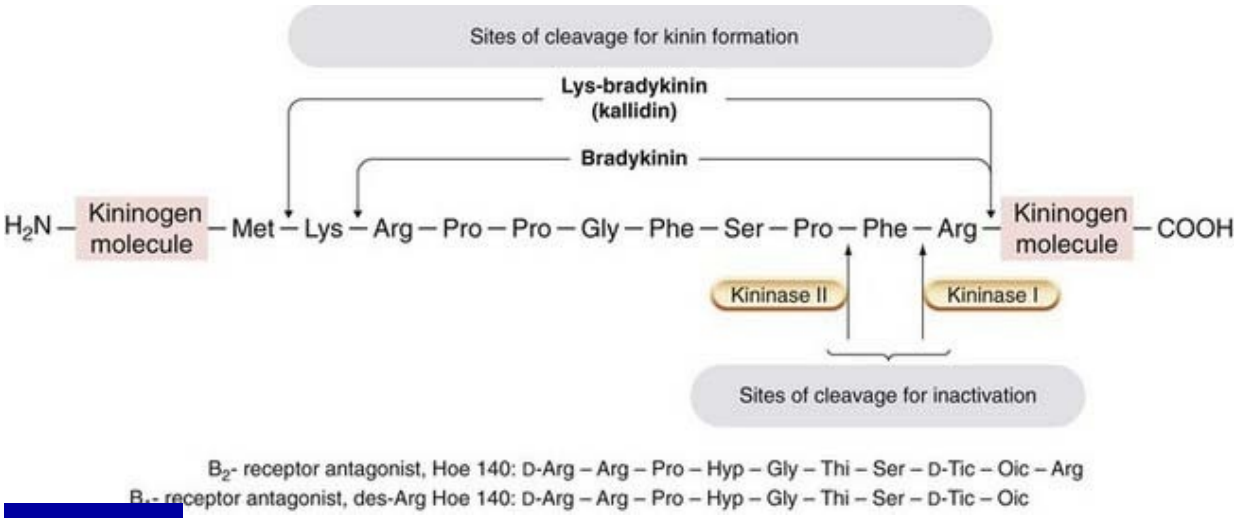


Fig. 17.6 Structure of bradykinin and some bradykinin antagonists.

The sites of proteolytic cleavage of high-molecular-weight kininogen by kallikrein kallidin involved in the formation of bradykinin are shown in the upper half of the figure; the sites of cleavage associated with bradykinin inactivation are shown in the lower half. The B2-receptor antagonist icatibant (Hoe 140) has a p*A*2 of 9, and the competitive B1-receptor antagonist des-Arg Hoe 140 has a p*A*2 of 8. The Hoe compounds contain unnatural amino acids: Thi, d-Tic and Oic, which are analogues of phenylalanine and proline.

In addition to plasma kallikrein, there are other kinin-generating isoenzymes found in pancreas, salivary glands, colon and skin. These

tissue kallikreins act on both high-and low-molecular-weight kininogens and generate mainly kallidin, a peptide with actions similar to those of bradykinin.

Metabolism and Inactivation of Bradykinin

Specific enzymes that inactivate bradykinin and related kinins are called *kininases* (Fig. 17.5). One of these, *kininase II*, is a peptidyl dipeptidase that inactivates kinins by removing the two C-terminal amino acids. This enzyme, which is bound to the luminal surface of endothelial cells, is identical to *angiotensin-converting enzyme* (ACE; see Ch. 21), which cleaves the two C-terminal residues from the inactive peptide angiotensin I, converting it to the active vasoconstrictor peptide angiotensin II. Thus kininase II inactivates a vasodilator and activates a vasoconstrictor. Potentiation of bradykinin actions by ACE inhibitors may contribute to some side effects of these drugs (e.g. cough). Kinins are also metabolised by various less specific peptidases, including a serum carboxypeptidase that removes the C-terminal arginine, generating *des-Arg^9-bradykinin*, a specific agonist at one of the two main classes of bradykinin receptor (see below).

Bradykinin Receptors

There are two bradykinin receptors, designated B_1 and B_2. Both are G-protein-coupled receptors and mediate very similar effects. B_1 receptors are normally expressed at very low levels but are strongly induced in inflamed or damaged tissues by cytokines such as IL-1. B_1 receptors respond to des-Arg^9-bradykinin but not to bradykinin itself. A number of selective peptide and non-peptide antagonists are known. It is likely that B_1 receptors play a significant role in inflammation and hyperalgesia (see Ch. 41), and antagonists could be developed for use in cough and neurological disorders (see Chung, 2005; Rodi et al., 2005).

B_2 receptors are constitutively present in many normal cells and are activated by bradykinin and kallidin, but not by des-Arg^9-bradykinin. Peptide and non-peptide antagonists have been developed, the best known being the bradykinin analogue **icatibant**, which has recently been approved by the European Medicines Agency for treating acute attacks in patients with hereditary angioedema (an uncommon disorder caused by deficiency of *C1-esterase inhibitor* that normally restrains complement activation).

Actions and Role in Inflammation

Bradykinin causes vasodilatation and increased vascular permeability. Its vasodilator action is partly a result of generation of PGI_2 (Fig. 17.1) and release of nitric oxide (NO). It is a potent pain-producing agent at sensory neurons, and its action here is potentiated by prostaglandins (which are released by bradykinin). Bradykinin also has spasmogenic actions on intestinal, uterine and bronchial smooth muscle (in some species). The contraction is slow and sustained in comparison with that produced by histamine (hence *brady*, which means 'slow').

Although bradykinin reproduces many inflammatory signs and symptoms, its role in inflammation and allergy has not been clearly defined, partly because its effects are often part of a complex cascade of events triggered by other mediators. However, excessive bradykinin production contributes to the diarrhoea of gastrointestinal disorders, and in allergic rhinitis it stimulates nasopharyngeal secretion. Bradykinin also contributes to the clinical picture in pancreatitis. Physiologically, the release of bradykinin by tissue kallikrein may regulate blood flow to certain exocrine glands, and influence secretions. It also stimulates ion transport and fluid secretion by some epithelia, including intestine, airways and gall bladder.

Bradykinin

• Bradykinin (BK) is a nonapeptide 'clipped' from a plasma α-globulin, *kininogen*, by *kallikrein*.

• It is converted by *kininase I* to an octapeptide, $BK_{1–8}$ (des-Arg^9-BK), and inactivated by *kininase II* (angiotensin-converting enzyme) in the lung.

• Pharmacological actions:

– vasodilatation (largely dependent on endothelial cell nitric oxide and prostaglandin I_2)

– increased vascular permeability

– stimulation of pain nerve endings

– stimulation of epithelial ion transport and fluid secretion in airways and gastrointestinal tract

– contraction of intestinal and uterine smooth muscle.

• There are two main subtypes of BK receptors: B_2, which is constitutively present, and B_1, which is induced in inflammation.

• Des-Arg Hoe 140 is a selective competitive antagonist for B1 receptors (PA_2:8)

• Icatibant, a peptide analogue of BK, is a selective competitive antagonist for B_2 receptors (PA_2:9). It was recently approved in Europe for the treatment of acute attacks of hereditary angioedema.

• Other, non-peptide antagonists for both B_1 and B_2 receptors are known, and may be developed for treating inflammatory disorders.

Nitric Oxide

Chapter 20 discusses NO in detail, and here we will consider only its role in inflammation. *Inducible NO synthase* (iNOS) is the chief isoform relevant to inflammation, and virtually all inflammatory cells express the enzyme in response to cytokine stimulation. iNOS is also present in the

bronchial epithelium of asthmatic subjects, in the mucosa of the colon in patients with ulcerative colitis, and in synoviocytes in inflammatory joint disease. NO probably has a net proinflammatory effect: it increases vascular permeability and prostaglandin production, and is a potent vasodilator. Some other properties may be seen as anti-inflammatory; for example, endothelial NO inhibits adhesion of neutrophils and platelets, and platelet aggregation. NO, or compounds derived from it, also has cytotoxic actions, killing bacteria, fungi, viruses and metazoan parasites, so in this respect NO enhances local defence mechanisms. However, produced in excess, it may also harm host cells.

Inhibitors of iNOS are under investigation for treatment of inflammatory conditions. Patients with septic shock have benefited from inhibitors of iNOS, and in experimental arthritis iNOS inhibitors reduce disease activity. Laboratory studies on compounds consisting of NSAIDs coupled with NO-releasing groups suggest that these have fewer side effects than conventional NSAIDs and greater anti-inflammatory efficacy (see Ch. 26).

Neuropeptides

Neuropeptides released from sensory neurons cause *neurogenic inflammation* (Maggi, 1996). The main peptides involved are substance P, neurokinin A and CGRP (see Ch. 19). Substance P and neurokinin A (members of the tachykinin family) act on mast cells, releasing histamine and other mediators, and producing smooth muscle contraction and mucus secretion, whereas CGRP is a potent vasodilator. Neurogenic inflammation is implicated in the pathogenesis of several inflammatory conditions, including the delayed phase of asthma, allergic rhinitis, inflammatory bowel disease and some types of arthritis.

Concluding Remarks

Even from the, albeit superficial, sketch of the host defence response that we have presented here and in Chapter 6, it must be evident to the reader that this is among the most complicated of all physiological responses. Perhaps that is not surprising, given the central importance of its mission to the very survival of the organism. Perhaps it is also understandable that it can recruit so many different mediators that regulate and orchestrate the workings of the immune system that run into the hundreds.

What do come as a shock are experimental observations suggesting that the activity of many of these local hormones can apparently be blocked with little or no effect on the outcome of inflammation. This fact speaks to the redundancy of many of the component systems and goes at least some of the way to explaining why, until the advent of antibody-based therapies (see Ch. 26), our ability to curb the worst ravages of chronic inflammatory disease was very limited.

References and Further Reading

Mediators

bbas A.K., Murphy K.M., Sher A. Functional diversity of helper lymphocytes. *Nature*. 1996;383:787-793. (*Excellent review, helpful diagrams; commendable coverage of Th1 and Th2 cells and their respective cytokine subsets*)

riel A., Serhan C.N. Resolvins and protectins in the termination program of acute inflammation. *Trends Immunol.*. 2007;28:176-183. (*Very accessible review on these unusual lipid mediators which promote inflammatory resolution and the link with fish oils*)

oleman R.A., Humphrey P.A. Prostanoid receptors: their function and classification. In: Vane J., O'Grady J., editors. *Therapeutic applications of prostaglandins*. London: Edward Arnold; 1993:15-36. (*Useful coverage; includes structures of prostanoids, their analogues and antagonists—*

a classification that brought forth order from chaos!)

erard C., Rollins B. Chemokines and disease. *Nat. Immunol.*. 2001;2:108-115. (*Discusses diseases associated with inappropriate activation of the chemokine network, and discusses some therapeutic implications; describes how viruses evade the immune responses by mimicry of the chemokines or their receptors*)

utzmer R., Diestel C., Mommert S., *et al.* Histamine H4 receptor stimulation suppresses IL-12p70 production and mediates chemotaxis in human monocyte-derived dendritic cells. *J. Immunol.*. 2005;174:5224-5232.

oruk R. Chemokine receptors. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev.*. 2001;12:313-335. (*Comprehensive review focusing on recent findings in chemokine receptor research; describes the molecular, physiological and biochemical properties of each chemokine receptor*)

im N., Luster A.D. Regulation of immune cells by eicosanoid receptors. *ScientificWorldJournal.* 2007;7:1307-1328. (*Useful overview of eicosanoids, their biology and receptor family*)

uster A.D. Mechanisms of disease: chemokines—chemotactic cytokines that mediate inflammation. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1998;338:436-445. (*Excellent review; outstanding diagrams*)

lackay C.R. Chemokines: immunology's high impact factors. *Nat. Immunol.*. 2001;2:95-101. (*Clear, elegant coverage of the role of chemokines in leukocyte–endothelial interaction, control of primary immune responses and T/B cell interaction, T cells in inflammatory diseases and viral subversion of immune responses*)

laggi C.A. Pharmacology of the efferent function of primary sensory neurones. In: Geppetti P., Holzer P., editors. *Neurogenic inflammation*. London: CRC Press, 1996. (*Worthwhile. Covers neurogenic inflammation, the release of neuropeptides from sensory nerves and inflammatory mediators. Discusses agents that inhibit release and the pharmacological modulation of receptor-mediated release*)

lantovani A., Bussolino F., Introna M. Cytokine regulation of endothelial cell function: from molecular level to the bedside. *Immunol. Today*. 1997;5:231-239. (*Pathophysiology of endothelial cell–cytokine interactions; detailed diagrams*)

lurphy P.M. Viral exploitation and subversion of the immune system through chemokine

mimicry. *Nat. Immunol.*. 2001;2:116-122. (*Excellent description of viral/immune system interaction*)

ease J.E., Williams T.J. The attraction of chemokines as a target for specific anti-inflammatory therapy. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2006;147(Suppl. 1):S212-S221. (*Very good review of the history of chemokine research with particular emphasis on their potential role as drug targets*)

erretti M., D'Acquisto F. Annexin A1 and glucocorticoids as effectors of the resolution of inflammation. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.*. 2009;9:62-70. (*Explores the role of the glucocorticoid-regulated protein annexin 1 in the control of inflammatory resolution. Easy to read and good diagrams*)

odi D., Couture R., Ongali B., *et al.* Targeting kinin receptors for the treatment of neurological diseases. *Curr. Pharm. Des.*. 2005;11:1313-1326. (*An overview of the potential role of kinin receptor antagonists in neurological diseases, dealing particularly with those of immunological origin*)

amuelsson B. Leukotrienes: mediators of immediate hypersensitivity reactions and inflammation. *Science*. 1983;220:568-575. (*Seminal article on leukotrienes*)

chulze-Topphoff U., Prat A. Roles of the kallikrein/kinin system in the adaptive immune system. *Int. Immunopharmacol.*. 2008;8:155-160. (*Up-to-date overview of these mediators particularly with respect to their involvement in the adaptive response*)

zolcsànyi J. Neurogenic inflammation: reevaluation of the axon reflex theory. In: Geppetti P., Holzer P., editors. *Neurogenic inflammation*. London: CRC Press; 1996:33-42. (*Good coverage of neurogenic inflammation*)

hu Y., Michalovich D., Wu H., et al Cloning, expression, and pharmacological characterization of a novel human histamine receptor Mol. Pharmacol. 59:2001:434-441 (*Describes the cloning of the fourth type of histamine receptor, H4*)

Some relevant anti-inflammatory papers

hung K.F. Drugs to suppress cough. *Expert. Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2005;14:19-27. (*Useful review of cough treatments, including a section on the role of neurokinin and bradykinin receptor antagonists*)

ilroy D.W., Perretti M. Aspirin and steroids: new mechanistic findings and avenues for drug

discovery. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:405-411. (*A very interesting review dealing with anti-inflammatory substances that are released during the inflammatory response and that bring about resolution; it also deals with a rather odd effect of aspirin—its ability to boost the production of anti-inflammatory lipoxins. Easy to read and informative*)

arsson B.M., Kumlin M., Sundblad B.M., *et al.* Effects of 5-lipoxygenase inhibitor zileuton on airway responses to inhaled swine house dust in healthy subjects. *Respir. Med.*. 2006;100:226-237. (*A paper dealing with the effects of zileuton, a 5-lipoxygenase inhibitor, on the allergic response in humans; the results are not unequivocally positive, but the study is an interesting one*)

eveau P., Wang X., Sun Z., *et al.* Severity of pancreatitis-associated gut barrier dysfunction is reduced following treatment with the PAF inhibitor lexipafant. *Biochem. Pharmacol.*. 2005;69:1325-1331. (*A paper dealing with the role of the PAF inhibitor lexipafant in pancreatitis; this is an experimental study using a rat model but provides a useful insight into the potential clinical role of such an antagonist*)

erhan C.N. Lipoxins and aspirin-triggered 15-epi-lipoxins are the first lipid mediators of endogenous anti-inflammation and resolution. *Prostaglandins Leukot. Essent. Fatty Acids*. 2005;73:141-162. (*A paper reviewing the lipoxins—anti-inflammatory substances formed by the 5-lipoxygenase enzyme; also discusses the action of aspirin in boosting the synthesis of these compounds and the receptors on which they act. A good review that summarises a lot of work*)

Books

ale M.M., Foreman J.C., Fan T.-P., editors. Textbook of immunopharmacology, third ed, Oxford: Blackwell Scientific, 1994. (*Excellent textbook written with second-and third-year medical and science students in mind; contains many sections relevant to this chapter*)

aneway C.A., Travers P., Nolan A., *et al. Immunobiology: the Immune System in Health and Disease*, sixth ed. Edinburgh: Churchill Livingstone; 2004. (*Excellent textbook, good diagrams*)

Useful Web links

ttp://microvet.arizona.edu/Courses/MIC419/Tutorials/cytokines.html (*This is a useful Web site with a series of immunological tutorials. The cytokines module is worth looking at, and it has a good*

[although not complete] list of the most important members of the family, their targets and function. Also contains other material that is likely to be useful in understanding this chapter)

ttp://www.copewithcytokines.de/ (*A very comprehensive site dealing with practically all known cytokines. Also contains a list of terms, links to reviews and short pieces on individual cytokines. Worth a look if you are stuck for some information*)

18

Cannabinoids

Overview

Modern pharmacological interest in cannabinoids dates from the discovery that Δ^9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) is the active principle of cannabis, and took off with the discovery of specific cannabinoid receptors—termed CB receptors—and endogenous ligands (endocannabinoids), together with mechanisms for their synthesis and elimination. Drugs that act on this endocannabinoid system have considerable therapeutic potential. Here we consider plant-derived cannabinoids, cannabinoid receptors, endocannabinoids, physiological functions, pathological mechanisms, synthetic ligands and potential clinical applications. More detailed information is given by Kano *et al.* (2009). The pharmacology of cannabinoids in the central nervous system (CNS) is discussed in Chapters 36, 47 and **48**.

Plant-Derived Cannabinoids and Their Pharmacological Effects

Cannabis sativa, the hemp plant, has been used for its psychoactive properties for thousands of years (Ch. 47). Its medicinal use was advocated in antiquity, but serious interest resurfaced only in 1964 with the identification of Δ^9-*tetrahydrocannabinol* (THC, see Fig. 18.1), as the main psychoactive component. Cannabis extracts contain numerous related compounds, called cannabinoids, most of which are insoluble in

water. The most abundant cannabinoids are THC, its precursor *cannabidiol*, and *cannabinol*, a breakdown product formed spontaneously from THC. Cannabidiol and cannabinol lack the psychoactive properties of THC, but can exhibit anticonvulsant activity and induce hepatic drug metabolism (see Ch. 9).

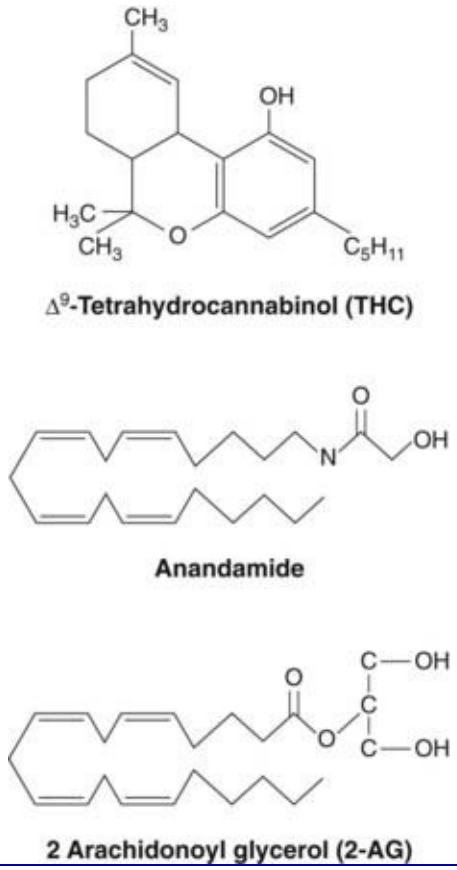


Fig. 18.1 Structures of Δ^9-tetrahydrocannabinol and two endocannabinoids.

Pharmacological Effects

THC acts mainly on the central nervous system (CNS), producing a mixture of psychotomimetic and depressant effects, together with various centrally mediated peripheral autonomic effects. The main subjective effects in humans consist of the following:

- Sensations of relaxation and well-being, similar to the effect of ethanol

but without the accompanying recklessness and aggression. (Insensitivity to risk is an important feature of alcohol—often a factor in road accidents. Cannabis users are less accident prone, even though their motor performance is similarly impaired.)

• Feelings of sharpened sensory awareness, with sounds and sights seeming more intense and fantastic.

These effects are similar to, but usually less pronounced than, those produced by psychotomimetic drugs such as lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD; see Ch. 47). Subjects report that time passes extremely slowly. The alarming sensations and paranoid delusions that often occur with LSD are seldom experienced after cannabis. Some studies support a connection between chronic use and subsequent schizophrenia and mood disorder (Henquet et al., 2005; Leweke & Koethe, 2008).

Central effects that can be directly measured in human and animal studies include:

• impairment of short-term memory and simple learning tasks—subjective feelings of confidence and heightened creativity are not reflected in actual performance

• impairment of motor coordination (e.g. driving performance)

• catalepsy—the adoption of fixed unnatural postures

• hypothermia

• analgesia

• antiemetic action

• increased appetite.

The main peripheral effects of cannabis are:

• tachycardia, which can be prevented by drugs that block sympathetic transmission

• vasodilatation, which is particularly marked on the scleral and conjunctival vessels, producing a bloodshot appearance characteristic of cannabis smokers

• reduction of intraocular pressure

• bronchodilatation.

Cannabis

• Main active constituent is Δ^9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC); a pharmacologically active 11-hydroxy metabolite is also important.

• Actions on the central nervous system include both depressant and psychotomimetic effects.

• Subjective experiences include euphoria and a feeling of relaxation, with sharpened sensory awareness.

• Objective tests show impairment of learning, memory and motor performance, including impaired driving ability.

• THC also shows analgesic and antiemetic activity, as well as causing catalepsy and hypothermia in animal tests.

• Peripheral actions include vasodilatation, reduction of intraocular pressure and bronchodilatation.

• Cannabinoids are less liable than opiates, nicotine or alcohol to cause dependence but may have long-term psychological effects.

Pharmacokinetic and Analytical Aspects

The effect of cannabis, taken by smoking, takes about 1 h to develop fully and lasts for 2–3 h. A small fraction of THC is converted to 11-hydroxy-THC, which is more active than THC itself and probably contributes to the pharmacological effect of smoking cannabis, but most is converted to inactive metabolites that are subject to conjugation and enterohepatic recirculation. Being highly lipophilic, THC and its metabolites are sequestered in body fat, and excretion continues for several days after a single dose. Radioimmunoassay of THC is bedevilled by cross-reactivity, and accurate identification and quantification of THC in biological fluids, important for medicolegal reasons, depends on mass spectrometry.

Adverse Effects

In overdose, THC is relatively safe, producing drowsiness and confusion but not life-threatening respiratory or cardiovascular depression. In this respect, it is safer than most abused substances, particularly opiates and ethanol. Even in low doses, THC and synthetic derivatives such as **nabilone** (see below) produce euphoria and drowsiness, sometimes accompanied by sensory distortion and hallucinations. These effects, together with legal restrictions on the use of cannabis, have precluded the widespread therapeutic use of cannabinoids.

In rodents, THC produces teratogenic and mutagenic effects, and an increased incidence of chromosome breaks in circulating white cells has been reported in humans. Such breaks are, however, by no means unique to cannabis, and epidemiological studies have not shown an increased risk of fetal malformation or cancer among cannabis users.

Tolerance and Dependence

Tolerance to cannabis, and physical dependence, occur only to a minor

degree and mainly in heavy users. The abstinence symptoms are similar to those of ethanol or opiate withdrawal, namely nausea, agitation, irritability, confusion, tachycardia and sweating, but are relatively mild and do not result in a compulsive urge to take the drug. Psychological dependence does occur with cannabis, but it is less compelling than with the major drugs of addiction (Ch. 48), and it has been argued whether cannabis should be classified as addictive (see Fattore et al., 2008 and reviews by Maldonado & Rodríguez de Fonseca, 2002; Taber & Hurley 2009).

Cannabinoid Receptors

Cannabinoids, being highly lipid soluble, were originally thought to act in a similar way to general anaesthetics. However, in 1988, saturable high-affinity binding of a tritiated cannabinoid was demonstrated in membranes prepared from homogenised rat brain. This led to the identification of specific cannabinoid receptors in brain. These are now termed CB_1 receptors to distinguish them from the CB_2 receptors subsequently identified in peripheral tissues. Cannabinoid receptors are typical members of the family of G-protein-coupled receptors (Ch. 3). CB_1 receptors are linked via $G_{i/o}$ to inhibition of adenylyl cyclase and of voltage-operated calcium channels, and to activation of G-protein-sensitive inward-rectifying potassium (GIRK) channels, causing hyperpolarisation (Fig. 18.2). These effects are similar to those mediated by opioid receptors (Ch. 41). CB_1 receptors are located in the plasma membrane of nerve endings and inhibit transmitter release from presynaptic terminals, which is caused by depolarisation and Ca^{2+} entry (Ch. 4). CB receptors also influence gene expression, both directly by activating mitogen-activated protein kinase, and indirectly by reducing the activity of protein kinase A as a result of reduced adenylyl cyclase

activity (see Ch. 3).

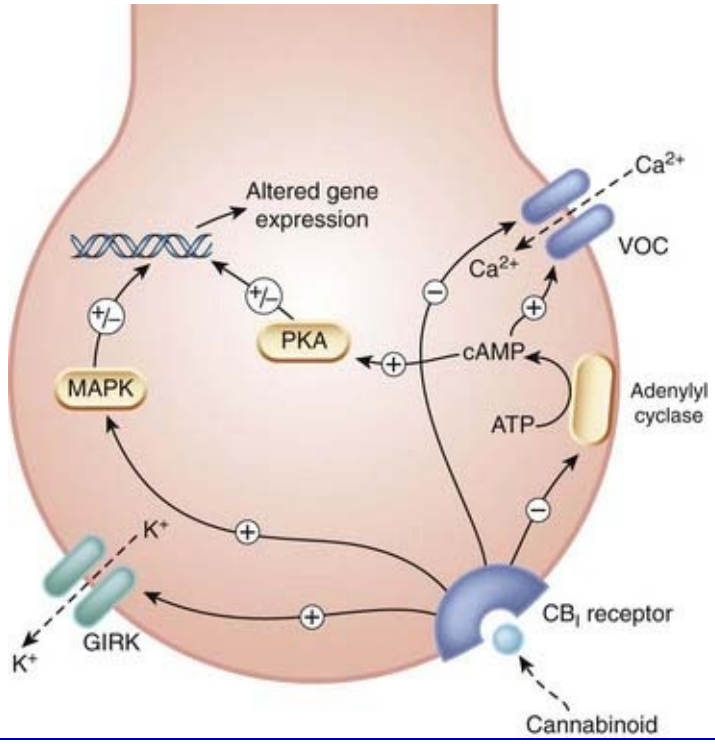


Fig. 18.2 Cellular actions of cannabinoids.

CB_1 receptor activation inhibits neurotransmitter release via inhibition of Ca^{2+} entry and hyperpolarisation due to activation of potassium channels. It also alters gene expression. GIRK: G-protein-sensitive inward-rectifying potassium channel; MAPK: mitogen-activated protein kinase; PKA: protein kinase A; VOC, voltage-operated calcium channel.

(Redrawn from Devane et al. 1992.)

CB_1 receptors are among the most abundant receptors in the brain, being comparable in this regard with receptors for glutamate and GABA —the main central excitatory and inhibitory neurotransmitters (Ch. 37). They are not homogeneously distributed, being concentrated in the hippocampus (relevant to effects of cannabinoids on memory), cerebellum (relevant to loss of coordination), hypothalamus (important in control of appetite and body temperature; see Ch. 29 and below), substantia nigra, mesolimbic dopamine pathways that have been

implicated in psychological 'reward' (Ch. 48), and in association areas of the cerebral cortex. There is a relative paucity of CB_1 receptors in the brain stem, perhaps explaining the lack of serious respiratory or cardiovascular toxicity of the cannabinoids. At a cellular level, CB_1 receptors are localised presynaptically, and inhibit transmitter release as explained above. Like opioids, they can, however, increase the activity of some neuronal pathways by inhibiting inhibitory connections, including GABA-ergic interneurons in the hippocampus and amygdala.

In addition to their well-recognised location in the CNS, CB_1 receptors are also expressed in peripheral tissues, for example on endothelial cells, adipocytes and peripheral nerves. Cannabinoids promote lipogenesis through activation of CB_1 receptors, an action that could contribute to their effect on body weight (Cota et al., 2003).

The CB_2 receptor has only approximately 45% amino acid homology with CB_1 and is located mainly in lymphoid tissue (spleen, tonsils and thymus as well as circulating lymphocytes, monocytes and tissue mast cells). CB_2 receptors are also present on microglia—immune cells in the CNS (Ch. 36). The localisation of CB_2 receptors on cells of the immune system was unexpected, but may account for inhibitory effects of cannabis on immune function. CB_2 receptors differ from CB_1 receptors in their responsiveness to cannabinoid ligands (see Table 18.1). They are linked via $G_{i/o}$ to adenylyl cyclase, GIRK channels and mitogen-activated protein kinase similarly to CB_1, but not to voltage-operated calcium channels (which are not expressed in immune cells). So far, rather little is known about their function. They are present in atherosclerotic lesions (see Ch. 22), and CB_2 agonists have antiatherosclerotic effects (Mach & Steffens, 2008).

Table 18.1 Definite and possible endocannabinoids

Endocannabinoid	Selectivity
Definite endocannabinoids	
Anandamide	$CB_1 > CB_2$
2-Arachidonoyl glycerol	$CB_1 = CB_2$
Less well-established endocannabinoid candidates	
Virhodamine	$CB_2 > CB_1$
Noladin	$CB_1 >> CB_2$
N-Arachidonoyl dopamine	$CB_1 >> CB_2$

Some endocannabinoids turned out, surprisingly,[1] to activate vanilloid receptors, ionotropic receptors that stimulate nociceptive nerve endings (see Ch. 41). Other as-yet-unidentified G-protein-coupled receptors are also implicated, because cannabinoids exhibit analgesic actions and activate G-proteins in the brain of CB_1 knockout mice despite the absence of CB_1 receptors.

Endocannabinoids

[1]Surprising because capsaicin, the active principle of chilli peppers, causes intense burning pain, whereas the endocannabinoid anandamide is associated with pleasure, or even bliss … so perhaps not so surprising after all!

The discovery of specific cannabinoid receptors led to a search for endogenous mediators. The first success was chalked up by a team that screened fractions of extracted pig brain for ability to compete with a radiolabelled cannabinoid receptor ligand (Devane et al., 1992). This led to the purification of N-*arachidonylethanolamide*, an eicosanoid mediator (see Ch. 17), the structure of which is shown in Figure 18.1. This was christened *anandamide*.[2] Anandamide not only displaced labelled cannabinoid from synaptosomal membranes in the binding assay, but

also inhibited electrically evoked twitches of mouse vas deferens, a bioassay for psychotropic cannabinoids (Fig. 18.3). A few years later, a second endocannabinoid, *2-arachidonoyl glycerol* (2-AG, Fig 18.1), was identified, and more recently three further endocannabinoid candidates with distinct CB_1/CB_2 (see below) receptor selectivities have been added to the list (Table 18.1). Endocannabinoids are made 'on demand' like eicosanoids (see Ch. 17), rather than being presynthesised and stored for release when needed.

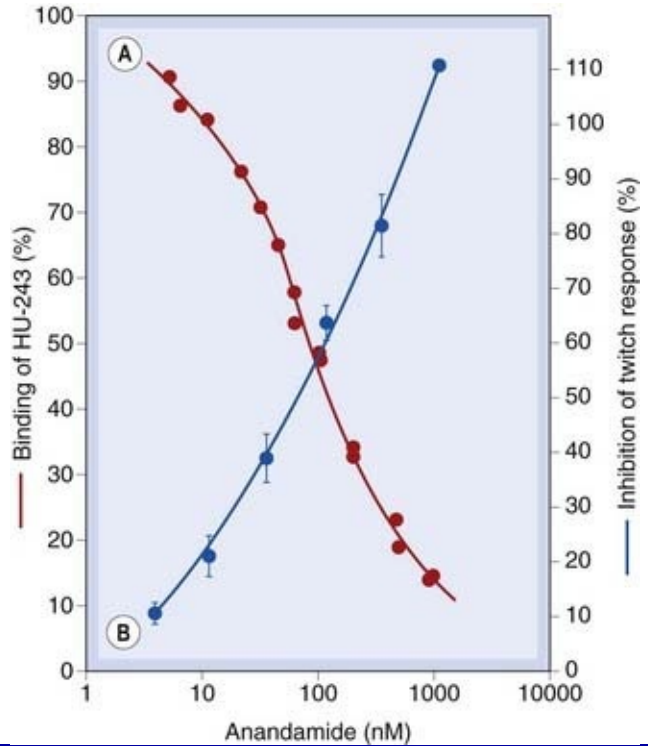


Fig. 18.3 Anandamide as an endocannabinoid.

Anandamide is an endogenous cannabinoid. [**A**] Competitive inhibition of tritiated HU-243 (a cannabinoid receptor ligand) binding to synaptosomal membranes from rat brain by natural anandamide (red circles, left hand ordinate axis). [**B**] Inhibition of vas deferens twitch response (a bioassay for cannabinoids) by natural anandamide (blue symbols, right hand ordinate). Note the similarity between the binding and bioactivity.

(Redrawn from Devane et al. 1992.)

Biosynthesis of Endocannabinoids

[2]From a Sanskrit word meaning ‘bliss’ + amide.

Biosynthesis of anandamide and of 2-AG is summarised in Figure 18.4. A fuller account of biosynthesis and degradation is given by Di Marzo (2008).

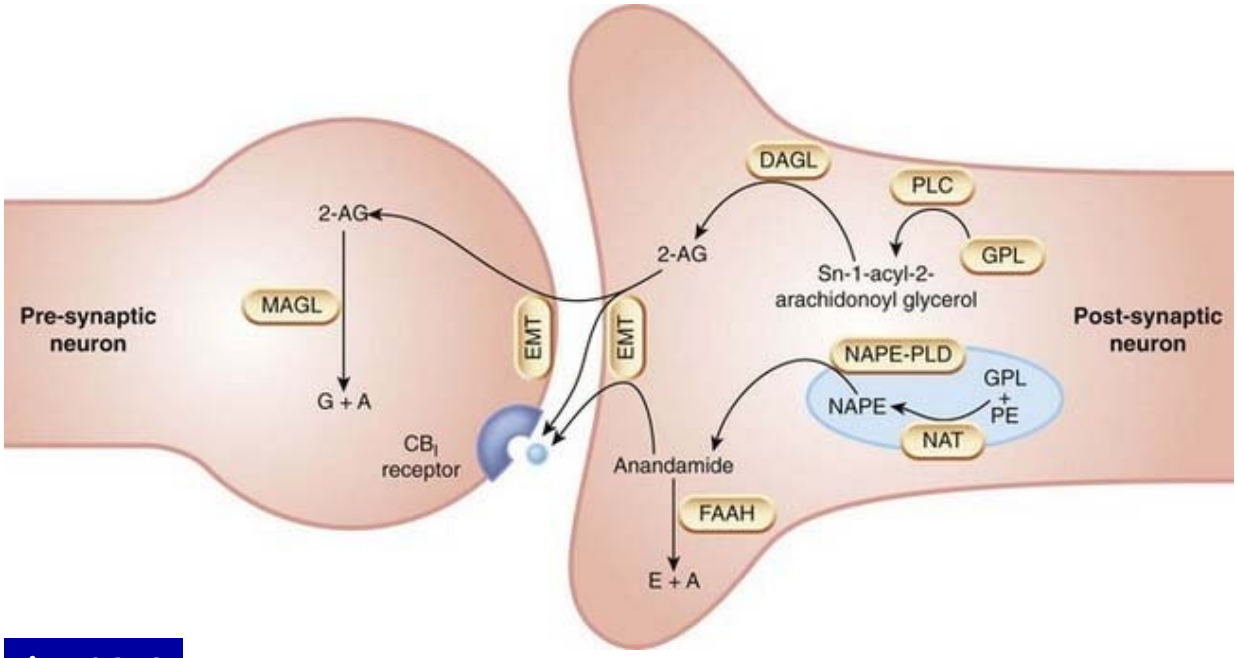


Fig. 18.4 Biosynthesis and inactivation of endocannabinoids.
2-AG, 2-arachidonoyl glycerol; A, arachidonic acid; DAGL, diacylglycerol lipase; E, ethanolamine; EMT, endocannabinoid membrane transporter; FAAH, fatty acid amide hydrolase; GPL, glycerophospholipid; MAGL, monoacyl glycerol lipase; NAPE, *N*-acyl-phosphatidylethanolamine; NAPE-PLD, *N*-acyl phosphatidylethanolamine-specific phopholipase D; NAT, *N*-acyl-transferase; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PLC, phospholipase C.

▼ Anandamide is formed by a distinct phospholipase D (PLD) selective for *N*-acyl-phosphatidylethanolamine (NAPE) but with low affinity for other membrane phospholipids, and known as NAPE-PLD. NAPE-PLD is a zinc metallohydrolase that is stimulated by Ca^{2+} and also by polyamines. Selective inhibitors for NAPE-PLD are being sought. The precursors are produced by an as-yet-uncharacterised but Ca^{2+}-sensitive transacylase that transfers an acyl group from the *sn*-1 position of phospholipids to the nitrogen atom of phosphatidylethanolamine.

2-AG is also produced by hydrolysis of precursors derived from phospholipid metabolism. The key enzymes are two recently cloned *sn*-1-selective diacylglycerol lipases (DAGL-α and DAGL-β), which belong to the family of serine lipases. Both these enzymes, like NAPE-PLD, are Ca^{2+} sensitive, consistent with intracellular Ca^{2+} acting as the physiological stimulus to endocannabinoid synthesis. The DAGLs are located in axons and presynaptic axon terminals during development, but postsynaptically in dendrites and cell bodies of adult neurons, consistent with a role for 2-AG in neurite growth, and with a role as a retrograde mediator (see below) in adult brain.

Little is known as yet about the biosynthesis of the more recent endocannabinoid candidates noladin, virhodamine and *N*-arachidonoyl dopamine. pH-dependent non-enzymatic interconversion of vihrodamine and anandamide is one possibility, and could result in a switch between CB_2- and CB_1-mediated responses (see Table 18.1).

Termination of the Endocannabinoid Signal

Endocannabinoids are rapidly taken up from the extracellular space. Being lipid soluble, they diffuse through plasma membranes down a concentration gradient. There is also evidence for a saturable, temperature-dependent, facilitated transport mechanism for anandamide and 2-AG, dubbed the 'endocannabinoid membrane transporter', for which selective uptake inhibitors (e.g. UCM-707) have been developed. Pathways of endocannabinoid metabolism are summarised in Figure 18.4. The key enzyme for anandamide is a microsomal serine hydrolase known as fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH). FAAH converts anandamide to arachidonic acid plus ethanolamine and also hydrolyses 2-AG, yielding arachidonic acid and glycerol.

The phenotype of FAAH 'knockout' mice gives some clues to

endocannabinoid physiology; such mice have an increased brain content of anandamide and an increased pain threshold. Selective inhibitors of FAAH have analgesic and anxiolytic properties in mice (see Ch. 43 for an explanation of how drugs are tested for anxiolytic properties in rodents). In contrast to anandamide, brain content of 2-AG is not increased in FAAH knockout animals, indicating that another route of metabolism of 2-AG is likely to be important. Other possible routes of metabolism include esterification, acylation and oxidation by cyclo-oxygenase-2 to prostaglandin ethanolamides ('prostamides'), or by 12-or 15-lipoxygenase (see Ch. 17).

Physiological Mechanisms

Stimuli that release endocannabinoids, leading to activation of CB_1 receptors and the linkage to downstream events including behavioural or psychological effects, are very incompletely defined. Increased intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration is probably an important cellular trigger because, as mentioned above, Ca^{2+} activates NAPE-PLD and other enzymes involved in endocannabinoid biosynthesis.

Activation of CB receptors is implicated in a phenomenon known as *depolarisation-induced suppression of inhibition* (DSI). DSI occurs in hippocampal pyramidal cells; when these are depolarised by an excitatory input, this suppresses the GABA-mediated inhibitory input to the pyramidal cells, implying a retrograde flow of information from the depolarised pyramidal cell to inhibitory axons terminating on it. Such a reverse flow of information from post-to presynaptic cell is a feature of other instances of neuronal plasticity, such as 'wind-up' in nociceptive pathways (Fig. 41.3) and long-term potentiation in the hippocampus (Fig. 37.7). DSI is blocked by the CB_1 antagonist **rimonabant**. The presynaptic location of CB_1 receptors and cellular distributions of the

DAGL and MAGL enzymes (Fig. 18.4) fit nicely with the idea that the endocannabinoid 2-AG could be a 'retrograde' messenger in DSI (see Fig. 38.8).

Neuromodulatory actions of endocannabinoids could influence a wide range of physiological activities, including nociception, cardiovascular, respiratory and gastrointestinal function. Hypothalamic hormone interactions could influence food intake and reproductive function. Mouse models lacking CB receptors support important and balanced roles of endocannabinoid signalling in male and female fertility and are implicated in spermatogenesis, fertilisation, preimplantation development of the early embryo, implantation and postimplantation growth of the embryo (reviewed by Wang et al., 2006). Effects of endocannabinoids on food intake are of particular interest, because of the importance of obesity (Ch. 29).

The endocannabinoid system

• Cannabinoid receptors (CB_1, CB_2) are G-protein coupled ($G_{i/o}$).

• Activation of CB_1 inhibits adenylyl cyclase and calcium channels, and activates potassium channels, inhibiting synaptic transmission.

• The peripheral receptor (CB_2) is expressed mainly in cells of the immune system.

• Selective agonists and antagonists have been developed.

• Endogenous ligands for CB receptors are known as endocannabinoids. They are eicosanoid mediators (see Ch. 17).

• The best-established endocannabinoids are anandamide and 2-arachidonoyl glycerol (2-AG), which have many roles, including functioning as 'retrograde' mediators passing information from postsynaptic to presynaptic neurons.

• The main enzyme that inactivates anandamide is fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH).

• A putative 'endocannabinoid membrane transporter' may transport cannabinoids from postsynaptic neurons, where they are synthesised, to the synaptic cleft, where they access CB_1 receptors, and into presynaptic terminals, where 2-AG is metabolised.

• FAAH 'knockout' mice have an increased brain content of anandamide and an increased pain threshold; selective inhibitors of FAAH have analgesic and anxiolytic properties, implicating endocannabinoids in nociception and anxiety.

• **Rimonabant**, an antagonist at CB_1 receptors, causes sustained weight loss and may promote abstinence from tobacco.

Pathological Involvement

There is evidence, both from experimental animals and from human tissue, that endocannabinoid signalling is abnormal in various neurodegenerative diseases (see Ch. 39). Other diseases where abnormalities of cannabinoid signalling have been reported in human tissue as well as experimental models include hypotensive shock (both haemorrhagic and septic; see Ch. 22), advanced cirrhosis of the liver (where there is evidence that vasodilatation is mediated by endocannabinoids acting on vascular CB_1 receptors—see Bátkai et al., 2001), miscarriage (see Wang et al., 2006) and malignant disease. It seems likely that in some disorders endocannabinoid activity is a compensatory mechanism limiting the progression of disease or occurrence of symptoms, whereas in others it may be 'too much of a good thing' and actually contribute to disease progression. Consequently, there may be a place in therapeutics for drugs that potentiate or inhibit the cannabinoid system; see Di Marzo & Petrosino (2007) for a fuller discussion.

Synthetic Cannabinoids

Cannabinoid receptor agonists were developed in the 1970s in the hope that they would prove useful non-opioid/non-NSAID analgesics (cf. Chs 41 and 26, respectively, for limitations of opioids and NSAIDs), but adverse effects, particularly sedation and memory impairment, were problematic. Nevertheless, one such drug, **nabilone**, is sometimes used clinically for nausea and vomiting caused by cytotoxic chemotherapy if this is unresponsive to conventional antiemetics (Ch. 29). The cloning of CB_2 receptors, and their absence from healthy brain, led to the synthesis of CB_2-selective agonists in the hope that these would lack the CNS-related adverse effects of plant cannabinoids. Several such drugs are being investigated for possible use in inflammatory and neuropathic pain.

The first selective CB_1 receptor antagonist, **rimonabant**, also has inverse agonist properties in some systems. It was licensed in Europe for treating obesity, but was withdrawn because of psychiatric problems including depression. Synthetic inhibitors of endocannabinoid uptake and/or metabolism have shown potentially useful effects in animal models of pain, epilepsy, multiple sclerosis, Parkinson's disease, anxiety and diarrhoea.

Clinical Applications

Clinical uses of drugs that act on the cannabinoid system remain controversial, but in both the UK and the USA cannabinoids have been used as antiemetics and to encourage weight gain in patients with chronic disease such as HIV-AIDS and malignancy. A substantial randomised controlled trial of THC in patients with multiple sclerosis found no objective evidence of benefit on spasticity but improved

mobility (see also Ch. 39). Adverse events were generally mild at the doses used—see UK MS Research Group (2003). Endocannabinoids have been implicated in shock and hypotension in liver disease (Malinowska et al., 2008), and modulation of this system is a potential therapeutic target. Other potential clinical uses (see Pacher et al., 2006 for a review of emerging therapeutic targets) are given in the clinical box.

Potential and actual clinical uses of cannabinoid agonists and antagonists

Cannabinoid agonists and antagonists are undergoing evaluation for a wide range of possible indications, including the following.

- Agonists:
  - glaucoma (to reduce pressure in the eye)
  - nausea/vomiting associated with cancer chemotherapy
  - cancer and AIDS (to reduce weight loss)
  - neuropathic pain
  - head injury
  - Tourette's syndrome (to reduce tics—rapid involuntary movements that are a feature of this disorder)
  - Parkinson's disease (to reduce involuntary movements caused as an adverse effect of L-dopa; see Ch. 39).
- Antagonists:
  - obesity
  - tobacco dependence
  - drug addiction
  - alcoholism.

The CB_1 receptor antagonist **rimonabant**, combined with a reduced calorie diet, caused a dose-related weight loss (of approximately 6 kg at

the higher dose) after 12 months' treatment in one placebo-controlled trial (see Fig. 18.5, and see also Ch. 29). Adverse effects included nausea and diarrhoea, and importantly depression and other psychological disturbances which led to its withdrawal from clinical use as an anorectic agent, but interest remains in the therapeutic potential of blocking the endocannabinoid system in order to reduce weight and improve cardiometabolic risk factors (reviewed by Samaha & Chou, 2009).

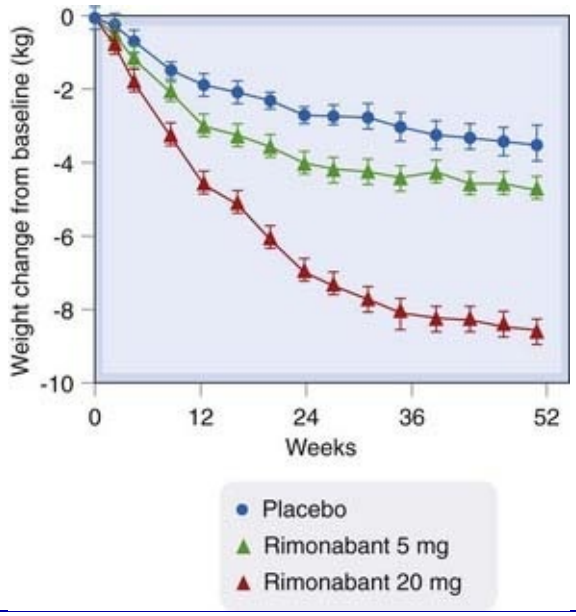


Fig. 18.5 Change from baseline in body weight in a double-blind, placebo-controlled trial of rimonabant versus placebo in 1507 overweight patients.

(Redrawn from Van Gaal et al., 2005.)

References and Further Reading

Further reading

reund T.F., Katona I., Piomelli D. Role of endogenous cannabinoids in synaptic signaling Physiol. Rev. 83:2003:1017-1066 (*The fine-grain anatomical distribution of the neuronal cannabinoid receptor CB1 is described, and possible functions of endocannabinoids as retrograde synaptic signal*

molecules discussed in relation to synaptic plasticity and network activity patterns)

ano M., Ohno-Shosaku T., Hashimotodani Y., *et al. Physiol. Rev.*. 2009;89:309-380. (*Integrates current pharmacological with anatomical, electrophysiological and behavioural knowledge*)

Ialdonado R., Rodríguez de Fonseca F. Cannabinoid addiction: behavioral models and neural correlates. *J. Neurosci.*. 2002;22:3326-3331. (*Deals mainly with animal models and argues that cannabis meets criteria for classification as addictive*)

amaha F.F., Chou C.M. Blockade of the endocannabinoid system for the reduction of cardiometabolic risk factors. *Obesity*. 2009;17:220-225. (*Reviews rimonabant action in animals and clinical trials in context of cardiovascular risk factors, including future prospects*)

/ilson R.I., Nicoll R.A. Endocannabinoid signaling in the brain. *Science*. 2002;296:678-682.

Specific aspects

átkai S., Járai Z., Wagner JA., et al Endocannabinoids acting at vascular CB_1 receptors mediate the vasodilated state in advanced liver cirrhosis Nat. Med. 7:2001:827-832 (*Rats with cirrhosis have low blood pressure, which is elevated by a CB_1 receptor antagonist. Compared with non-cirrhotic controls, in cirrhotic human livers there was a three-fold increase in CB_1 receptors on isolated vascular endothelial cells*)

ota D., Marsicano G., Tschöp M., et al The endogenous cannabinoid system affects energy balance via central orixogenic drive and peripheral lipogenesis J. Clin. Invest. 112:2003:423-431 (*Investigation of CB_1 knockout mice, implicating this receptor in regulation of energy homeostasis via both central effect on food intake and on peripheral lipogenesis; see also related commentary by Horvath, T.L. pp. 323–326 of the same issue, on endocannabinoids and regulation of body fat*)

evane W.A., Hanu L., Breurer A., *et al.* Isolation and structure of a brain constituent that binds to the cannabinoid receptor. *Science*. 1992;258:1946-1949. (*Identification of arachidonylethanolamide, extracted from pig brain, both chemically and via a bioassay, as a natural ligand for the cannabinoid receptor; the authors named it anandamide after a Sanskrit word meaning 'bliss' + amide*)

i Marzo V. Endocannabinoids: synthesis and degradation. *Rev. Physiol. Biochem. Pharmacol.*. 2008;160:1-24. (*Reviews current knowledge*)

i Marzo V., Petrosino S. Endocannabinoids and the regulation of their levels in health and disease. *Curr. Opin. Lipidol.*. 2007;18:129-140. (*Gastrointestinal disorders, inflammation, neurodegeneration*)

attore L., Fadda P., Spano M.S., *et al.* Neurobiological mechanisms of cannabinoid addiction. *Mol. Cell. Endocrinol.*. 2008;286:S97-S107. (*Addiction mechanisms*)

enquet C., Krabbendam L., Spauwen J., *et al.* Prospective cohort study of cannabis use, predisposition for psychosis, and psychotic symptoms in young people. *Br. Med. J.*. 2005;330:11-14. (*Cannabis use moderately increased the risk of psychotic symptoms but had a much stronger effect in young people with evidence of predisposition for psychosis*)

arst M., Salim K., Burstein S., *et al.* Analgesic effect of the synthetic cannabinoid CT-3 on chronic neuropathic pain. A randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2003;290:1757-1762. (*CT-3, a potent cannabinoid, produces marked antiallodynic and analgesic effects in animals. In a preliminary randomised cross-over study in 21 patients with chronic neuropathic pain, CT-3 was effective in reducing chronic neuropathic pain compared with placebo*)

eweke F., Koethe D. Cannabis and psychiatric disorders: it is not only addiction. *Addict. Biol.*. 2008;13:264-275. (*Association of chronic use with subsequent psychiatric disorder*)

Iach F., Steffens S. The role of the endocannabinoid system in atherosclerosis. *J. Neuroendocrinol.*. 2008;20:53-57. (*Review*)

Ialinowska B., Lupinski S., Godlewski G., *et al.* Role of endocannabinoids in cardiovascular shock. *J. Physiol. Pharmacol.*. 2008;59:91-107.

acher P., Batkai S., Kunos G. The endocannabinoid system as an emerging target of pharmacotherapy. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2006;58:390-462.

teffens S. Low dose oral cannabinoid therapy reduces progression of atherosclerosis in mice Nature 434:2005:782-786 (*Oral administration of THC (1 mg/kg per day) resulted in significant inhibition of disease progression in apoE knockout mice. CB_2 receptors were expressed in both human and mouse atherosclerotic plaques. Lymphoid cells isolated from THC-treated mice showed diminished proliferation capacity and decreased interferon secretion. Macrophage chemotaxis, crucial for the development of atherosclerosis, was also inhibited in vitro by THC. All these effects were completely blocked by a specific CB_2 receptor antagonist. Concludes that cannabinoids with*

activity at the CB2 receptor may be valuable targets for treating atherosclerosis. See also News and Views, p. 708 of the same issue, for comment by Roth, M.D.)

aber K.H., Hurley R.A. Endocannabinoids: stress, anxiety and fear. *J. Neuropsychiat. Clin. Neurosci.*. 2009;21:108-113. (*Succinctly reviews the involvement of the endocannabinoid system in brain function, and potential therapeutic applications in treating mood/anxiety, degenerative disease and brain injury*)

K MS Research Group. Cannabinoids for treatment of spasticity and other symptoms related to multiple sclerosis (CAMS study): multicentre randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2003;362:1517-1526. (*Randomised, placebo-controlled trial in 667 patients with stable multiple sclerosis and muscle spasticity. Trial duration was 15 weeks. There was no treatment effect of THC or cannabis extract on the primary outcome of spasticity assessed with a standard rating scale, but there was an improvement in patient-reported spasticity and pain, which might be clinically useful*)

an Gaal L.F., Rissanen A.M., Scheen A.J., et alfor the RIO-Europe Study Group. Effects of the cannabinoid-1 receptor blocker rimonabant on weight reduction and cardiovascular risk factors in overweight patients: 1-year experience from the RIO-Europe study. *Lancet.* 2005;365:1389-1397. (*A total of 1507 overweight patients treated with rimonabant 5 or 20 mg or with placebo daily for 1 year in addition to dietary advice: significant dose-related decrease in weight and improvement in cardiovascular risk factors in actively treated patients; adverse effects were mild*)

*l*ang H., Dey S.K., Maccarrone M. Jekyll and Hyde: two faces of cannabinoid signaling in male and female fertility. *Endocr. Rev.*. 2006;27:427-448. (*Reviews lipid signalling in reproductive endocrinology, and potential for clinical interventions to treat infertility*)

19

Peptides and proteins as mediators

Overview

In this chapter we consider the special features of peptides and proteins, which are ubiquitous chemical mediators, and whose characteristics differ in some important respects from the small molecule mediators discussed in earlier chapters. The field is advancing rapidly through the application of molecular biological techniques, and many clinical applications are in prospect.

Introduction

Pharmacology has traditionally concerned itself with signalling molecules that are of low molecular weight and non-peptide in nature. Since the 1970s, however, it has emerged that peptides and proteins are at least as important—maybe even more so—as signalling molecules. Yet the pharmacological manipulation of peptide signalling is less advanced than that of, say, the cholinergic, adrenergic or 5-hydroxytryptamine systems (Chs 12–14). Pharmacology, one could say, has some catching up to do. In this chapter, we give an overview of the main characteristics of peptides and proteins as mediators and as drugs, bringing out the contrasts between these and non-peptides, and we evaluate the present and possible future use of peptides as therapeutic agents. For reviews, with more detail than can be provided here, see Buckel (1996), Cooper *et al.* (1996), Hökfelt *et al.* (2000) and Nestler *et al.* (2001).

Historical Aspects

▼ Despite the fact that some peptide mediators were discovered early in the history of our discipline (e.g. substance P was discovered in the 1930s), pharmacology has historically harboured a strong bias towards non-peptides. One reason for this apparently irrational dislike is that, at one time, most drugs were natural (mainly plant) products. Very few were peptides or acted through what we now recognise as peptide signalling systems. A second reason is that the methodology required to study peptides is of more recent origin. The development of high-performance liquid chromatography and solid-phase peptide synthesis, and the use of antibodies for radioimmunoassay and immunocytochemistry, as well as the use of molecular biology, have greatly accelerated the development of the area.

In 1953, du Vigneaud made history, and earned a Nobel Prize, by determining the structure of, and subsequently synthesising, oxytocin, the first peptide mediator to be characterised and the first to be produced commercially for clinical use. The structures of many other mediators, for example substance P, bradykinin and angiotensin, which had been identified as peptides in the 1930s, remained unsolved for many years. While all are small peptides of 11 residues or fewer, determination of their structure, and their total chemical synthesis, was a Herculean effort. The structure of bradykinin was not elucidated until 1960, while that of substance P was published in 1970.

By contrast, the use of contemporary techniques enabled endothelin (a much larger peptide) to be fully characterised, synthesised and cloned within about a year, the complete information being published in a single paper (Yanagisawa et al., 1988). Protein mediators, such as cytokines and growth factors (Ch. 17) containing 50 or more residues are still difficult to synthesise chemically, and major advances must rely largely on molecular biology. The use of recombinant proteins as

therapeutic agents—a development driven mainly by the emergent biotechnology industry—is rapidly gaining ground (see Ch. 59). Whereas the discovery of new 'small molecule' mediators has virtually dried up, the discovery of new protein and peptide mediators continues apace.

General Principles of Peptide Pharmacology

Structure of Peptides

Peptide and protein mediators generally vary from 3 to about 200 amino acid residues in size (Fig. 19.1), the arbitrary dividing line between peptides and proteins being about 50 residues. For convenience, in this chapter, we use the term peptide to cover both classes. Specific residues in peptides often undergo post-translational modifications, such as C-terminal *amidation*, *glycosylation*, *acetylation*, *carboxylation*, *sulfation* or *phosphorylation*. They also may contain *intramolecular* disulfide bonds, such that the molecule adopts a cyclic or partially cyclic conformation; or they may comprise two or more separate chains linked by *intermolecular* disulfide bonds.

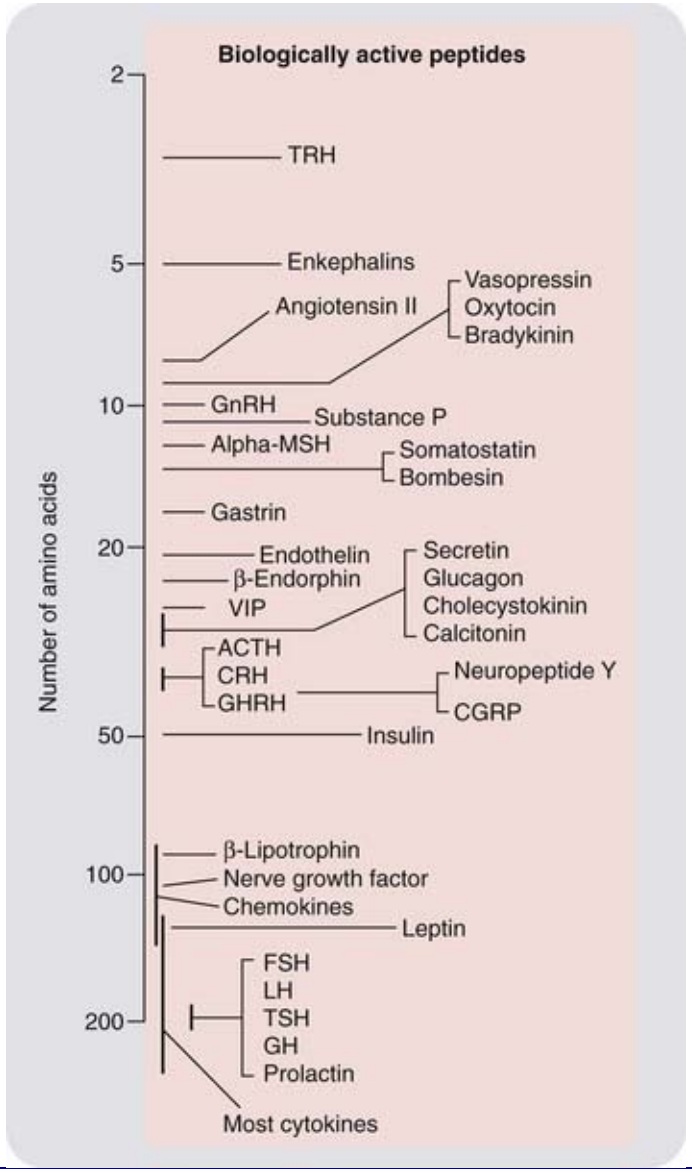


Fig. 19.1 Some typical peptide mediators.

ACTH, adrenocorticotrophic hormone; Alpha-MSH, α-melanocyte-stimulating hormone; CGRP, calcitonin gene-related peptide; CRH, corticotrophin-releasing hormone; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; GH, growth hormone; GHRH, growth hormone-releasing hormone; GnRH, gonadotrophin-releasing hormone; LH, luteinising hormone; TRH, thyrotrophin-releasing hormone; TSH, thyroid-stimulating hormone; VIP, vasoactive intestinal peptide.

It is difficult to determine the conformation of peptides in solution because they are so flexible, and peptides of fewer than about 40 residues have proved difficult to crystallise, precluding the use of X-ray diffraction methods to study their conformation (although some other

techniques, such as nuclear magnetic resonance, have proved helpful). Larger proteins adopt more restricted conformations, but because of their size they generally interact with multiple sites on their receptors. To envisage peptides fitting into a receptor site in a precise 'lock and key' mode is to imagine that you can unlock your front door with a length of cooked spaghetti. Such problems have greatly impeded the rational design of non-peptide analogues (*peptidomimetics*) that mimic the action of peptides at their receptors. The use of random screening methods has (somewhat to the chagrin of the rationalists) nevertheless led in recent years to the discovery of many non-peptide antagonists—although few agonists—for peptide receptors (see below; Betancur et al., 1997—an exception is the opioid field; see Ch. 41).

Types of Peptide Mediator

Peptide mediators that are secreted by cells and act on surface receptors of the same or other cells can be very broadly divided into four groups:

1 *Neurotransmitters and neuroendocrine* mediators (discussed further in this chapter).

2 *Hormones from non-neural sources*: these comprise (a) plasma-derived peptides, notably angiotensin (Ch. 22) and bradykinin (Ch. 17), and (b) substances such as insulin (Ch. 30) endothelin (Ch. 22), atrial natriuretic peptide (Ch. 21) and leptin (Ch. 31).

3 *Growth factors*: produced by many different cells and tissues that control cell growth and differentiation (see Ch. 5).

4 *Mediators of the immune system* (cytokines and chemokines; see Ch. 17).

Some important examples of peptide and protein mediators are shown in Figure 19.1.

Role of Molecular Biology

▼ Because peptide structures are represented directly in the genome, molecular biology has been the key to most of the recent advances in knowledge. It is used in many ways, as in the following examples.

• *Cloning of the genes encoding peptide precursors* has shown how several active peptides can arise from a single precursor protein. *Calcitonin gene-related peptide* (CGRP) was discovered in this way.

• *Cloning of the genes encoding peptide receptors* has revealed that most belong either to the class of G-protein-coupled receptors or the tyrosine kinase-linked receptors (see Ch. 3). Very few peptides act on ligand-gated channels.

• Several new peptide mediators have been discovered by *screening for ligands of 'orphan receptors'* (see Civelli et al., 2001). Searching in an extract of brain peptides for possible ligands for an opioid receptor-like orphan (called ORL1) led to the identification of the novel neuropeptide *nociceptin* (Meunier et al., 1995). When the gene encoding nociceptin was cloned, it was found also to encode another peptide, *nocistatin* that acted on yet another receptor (see Okuda-Ashitaka & Ito, 2000). The discovery of *orexins* (peptides involved in appetite and obesity; see Ch. 31) arose through similar molecular orienteering.

• The control of precursor synthesis can be studied indirectly by *measuring mRNA*, for which highly sensitive and specific assays have been developed. The technique of *in situ hybridisation* enables the location and abundance of the mRNA to be mapped at microscopic resolution.

• Transgenic animals with peptide or receptor genes deleted or overexpressed provide valuable clues to the functions of novel peptides.

Antisense oligonucleotides and RNA interference techniques (see also Ch. 59) can also be used to silence such genes.

Peptides in the Nervous System: Comparison with Conventional Transmitters

The abundance of neuropeptides in the brain and elsewhere became evident in the 1970–1980s, and new examples are still emerging. In most respects, neuropeptide-mediated transmission resembles transmission by 'conventional' non-peptide mediators; the mechanisms for peptide storage and release (summarised in Fig. 19.2) and the receptor mechanisms through which their effects are produced are essentially the same in both cases. One difference is that the vesicles are loaded with peptide precursors in the cell body, the active peptides being generated within the vesicles as they move to the nerve terminals. Following exocytosis, the vesicles cannot be reloaded in situ but must instead be replaced with new preloaded vesicles. Transmitter turnover is therefore less rapid than with conventional mediators, and recapture of the released transmitter does not occur.

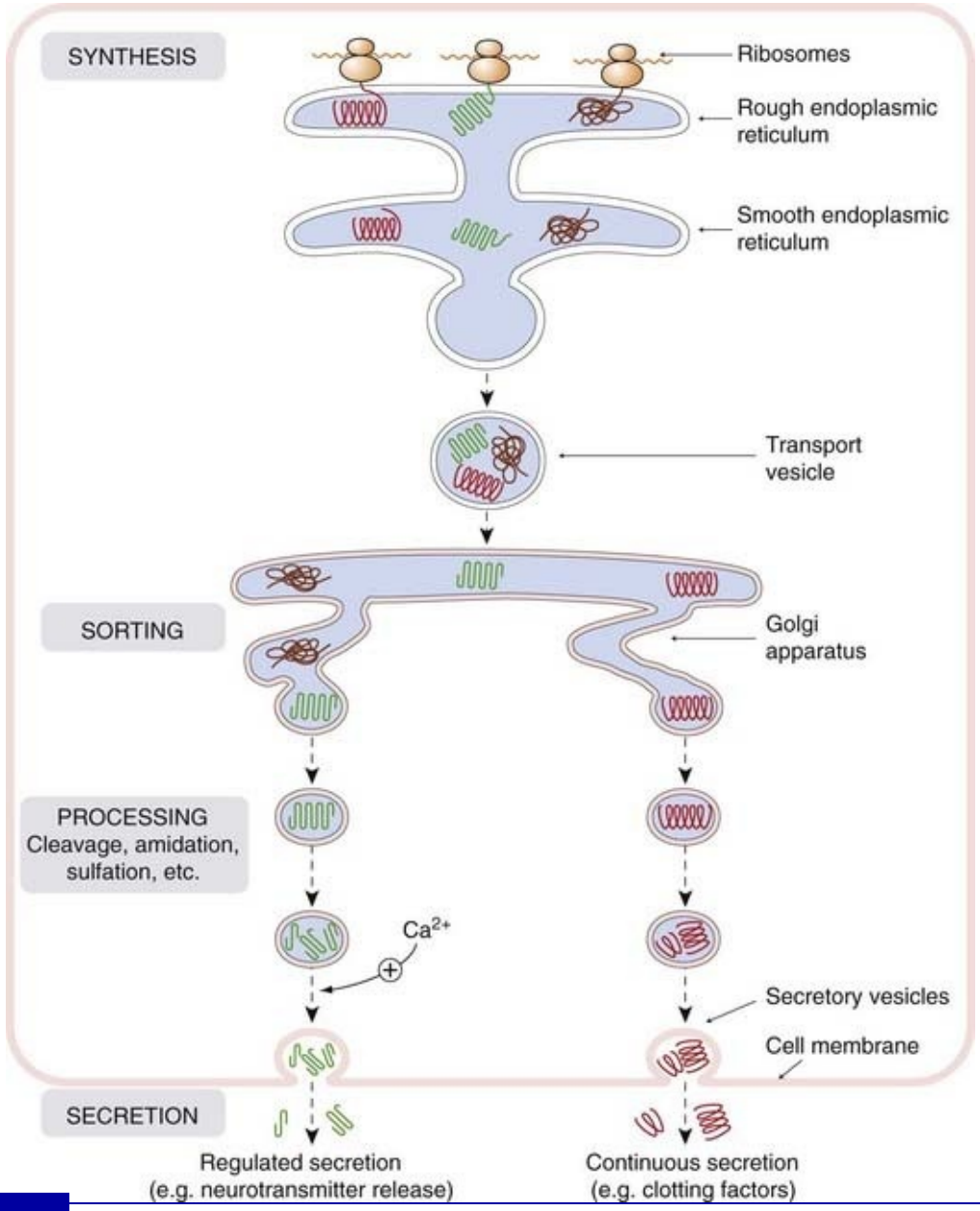


Fig. 19.2 Cellular mechanisms for peptide synthesis and release.

Proteins synthesised by ribosomes are threaded through the membrane of the rough endoplasmic reticulum, from where they are conveyed in transport vesicles to the Golgi apparatus. Here, they are sorted and packaged into secretory vesicles. Processing (cleavage, glycosylation, amidation, sulfation, etc.) occurs within the transport and secretory vesicles, and the products are released from the cell by exocytosis. Constitutive secretion (e.g. of plasma proteins and clotting factors by liver cells) occurs continuously, and little material is stored in secretory vesicles. Regulated secretion (e.g. of neuropeptides or cytokines) occurs in response to increased intracellular Ca^{2+} or other intracellular signals, and material is typically stored in significant amounts in secretory vesicles awaiting release.

As with other chemical mediators, the effects of peptides may be excitatory or inhibitory, pre-or postsynaptic, and exerted over short or long distances from the site of release. There are, however, certain monopolies of function between peptide and non-peptide mediators. For example, endogenous peptides rarely activate ligand-gated ion channels,[1] and therefore do not function as fast neurotransmitters in the manner of non-peptides such as acetylcholine, glutamate, glycine or GABA (see Chs 13 and 37). Instead, they serve (as do many non-peptides) mainly as neuromodulators, by activating G-protein-coupled receptors. In contrast, the ligands for tyrosine kinase-linked receptors are all peptides or proteins.

[1]But there are non-physiological exceptions. Some spider venom peptides, for example, produce pain by activating the ion-channel linked capsaicin receptor TRPV1.

In summary, the similarities in function between peptide and non-peptide mediators are more striking than the differences. The main difference stems from the fact that peptides, being gene products, represent variations on a single theme—a linear string of amino acids. Such sequences are much more susceptible to evolutionary change than are the structures of non-peptide mediators, and the number of known peptide mediators now greatly exceeds that of non-peptides. As Iversen pointed out in 1983: ‘almost overnight, the number of putative transmitters in the mammalian nervous system has jumped from the ten or so monoamine and amino acid candidates to more than 40’. Since then, no new monoamine transmitters have appeared, but there are at least another 60 peptides.

The role of peptides as co-transmitters is discussed in Chapter 12. Two well-documented examples (reviewed by Lundberg, 1996) are the parasympathetic nerves innervating the salivary glands (where the

secretory response is produced by acetylcholine and the vasodilatation partly by *vasoactive intestinal peptide*) and the sympathetic innervation to many tissues, which releases the vasoconstrictor *neuropeptide Y* in addition to noradrenaline (norepinephrine).

The distinction between neuropeptides and peripherally acting hormones is useful but not absolute. Thus the incretins and insulin (Ch. 30), angiotensin, atrial natriuretic peptide (Chs 21 and 22) and oxytocin (Ch. 34) are best known as hormones that are formed, released and act in the periphery. They are, however, also found in the brain, although their role there is uncertain. Similarly, endothelin (Ch. 22) was first discovered in blood vessels but is now known to occur extensively in the brain as well.

Multiple Physiological Roles of Peptides

▼ In common with many non-peptide mediators, such as noradrenaline, dopamine, 5-hydroxytryptamine or acetylcholine, the same peptides may function as mediators in several different organs, and intriguingly often appear to subserve some coordinated physiological function. For example, angiotensin acts on the cells of the hypothalamus to release antidiuretic hormone (vasopressin), which in turn causes water retention. Angiotensin also acts elsewhere in the brain to promote drinking behaviour and to increase blood pressure by activation of the sympathetic system; in addition, it releases aldosterone, which causes salt and water retention and acts directly to constrict blood vessels. Each of these effects plays a part in the overall response of the body to water deprivation and reduced circulating volume. There are other examples of what appears to be an orchestrated functional response produced by the various actions of a single mediator, but there are many more examples where the multiple effects seem just to be exactly that—multiple effects.

So far, the stream of new information about neuropeptides since the 1970s has led to few useful generalisations about their functional role, and surprisingly few new drugs—with the exception of antihypertensive drugs acting on the renin–angiotensin system (see Ch. 22), most of which are peptidomimetics. For whatever reason, peptide pharmacology has proved to be something of a graveyard for drug discovery projects. For example, substance P antagonists were confidently expected to be effective analgesic drugs based on copious data from animal studies, but proved to have no analgesic activity in humans, although one such drug, **aprepitant**, has been found to have a role in preventing vomiting caused by cisplatin-based cytotoxic chemotherapy (Ch. 55). They also have unexpected anxiolytic properties.

Structure and function of peptide mediators

• Size varies from three to several hundred amino acid residues. Conventionally, molecules of fewer than 50 residues are called peptides, larger molecules being proteins.

• Neural and endocrine mediators range in size from 3 to over 200 residues. Cytokines, chemokines and growth factors are generally larger than 100 residues.

• Most known peptide mediators come from the nervous system and endocrine organs. However, some are found in the plasma, and many occur at other sites (e.g. vascular endothelium, heart, cells of the immune system). The same peptide may occur in several places and serve different functions.

• Small peptides and chemokines act mainly on G-protein-coupled receptors, and act through the same second messenger systems as those used by other mediators. Cytokines and growth factors generally act through tyrosine kinase-linked membrane receptors.

• Peptides frequently function in the nervous system as co-transmitters with other peptides or with non-peptide transmitters.

• The number of known peptide mediators now greatly exceeds that of non-peptides.

Biosynthesis and Regulation of Peptides

Peptide structure is, of course, directly coded in the genome, in a manner that the structure of (say) acetylcholine is not, so intracellular manufacture is simpler. Peptide synthesis (Fig. 19.3) begins with the manufacture of a precursor protein in which the peptide sequence is embedded, along with specific proteolytic enzymes that excise the active peptide, a process of sculpture rather than synthesis. The precursor protein is packaged into vesicles at the point of synthesis, and the active peptide is formed in situ ready for release (Fig. 19.2). Thus there is no need for specialised biosynthetic pathways, or for the uptake or recapturing mechanisms, that are important for the synthesis and release of non-peptide mediators.

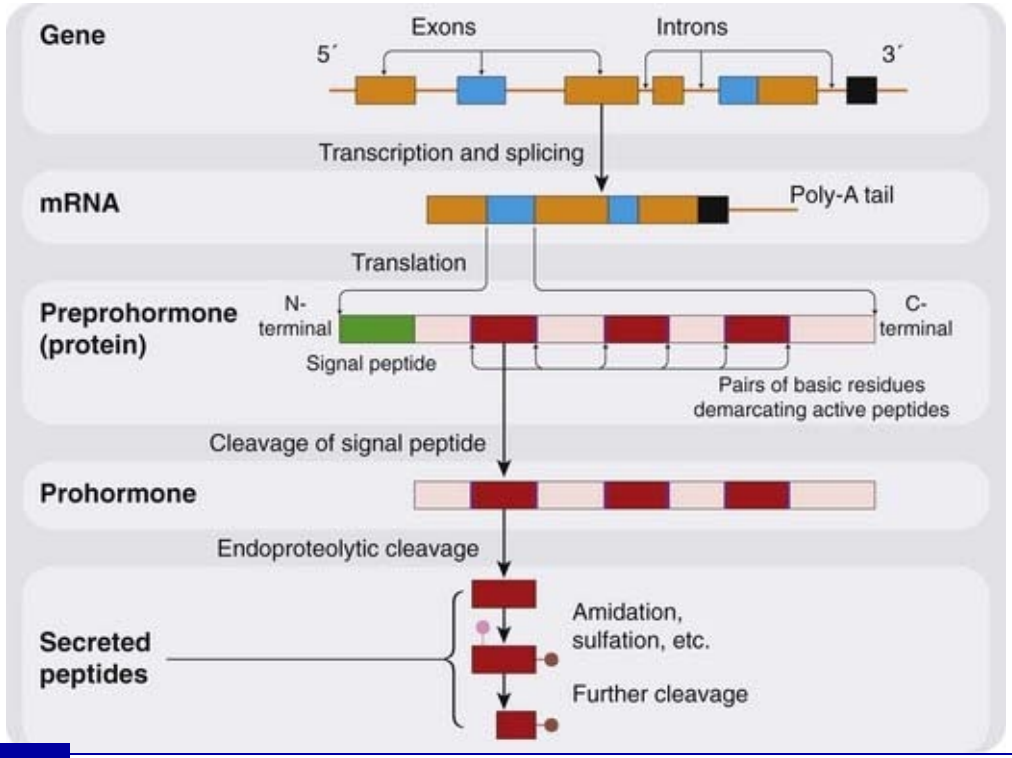


Fig. 19.3 Synthesis of a peptide mediator.

The coding regions of the gene (exons) are transcribed and spliced to give rise to mRNA,

segments of which (blue) are translated to produce preprohormones. Cleavage of the N-terminal signal peptide produces the prohormone, from which endopeptidases excise peptide fragments. These may be active as such, or they may undergo further post-translational processing (amidation etc.).

Peptide Precursors

The precursor protein, or *preprohormone*, usually 100–250 residues in length, consists of an N-terminal signal sequence (peptide), followed by a variable stretch of unknown function, and a peptide-containing region in which several copies of active peptide fragments may be contained. Often, several different peptides are found within one precursor, but sometimes there is only one in multiple copies. An extreme example occurs in the invertebrate *Aplysia*, in which the precursor contains 28 copies of the same short peptide. The signal peptide, which is strongly hydrophobic, facilitates insertion of the protein into the endoplasmic reticulum and is then cleaved off at an early stage, yielding the *prohormone*.

The active peptides are usually demarcated within the prohormone sequence by pairs of basic amino acids (Lys-Lys or Lys-Arg), which are cleavage points for the trypsin-like proteases that release the peptides. This *endoproteolytic* cleavage generally occurs in the Golgi apparatus or the secretory vesicles. The enzymes responsible are known as *prohormone convertases*, of which two subtypes (PC1 and PC2) have been studied in detail (see Cullinan et al., 1991). Scrutiny of the prohormone sequence often reveals likely cleavage points that demarcate unknown peptides. In some cases (e.g. CGRP; see below), new peptide mediators have been discovered in this way, but there are many examples where no function has yet been assigned. Whether these peptides are, like strangers at a funeral, waiting to declare their purpose or merely functionless relics, remains a mystery. There are also large stretches of the prohormone

sequence of unknown function lying between the active peptide fragments.

The abundance of mRNA coding for particular preprohormones, which reflects the level of gene expression, is very sensitive to physiological conditions, and this type of transcriptional control is one of the main mechanisms by which peptide expression and release are regulated over the medium to long term. Inflammation, for example, increases the expression, and hence the release, of various cytokines by immune cells (see Ch. 16). Sensory neurons respond to peripheral inflammation by increased expression of tachykinins, which is important in the genesis of inflammatory pain (see Ch. 41).

Diversity Within Peptide Families

▼ Peptides commonly occur in families with similar or related sequences and actions. Opioid peptides (see Ch. 41) provide a good example of the representation of such a family at the genomic level. *Opioid peptides*, defined as peptides with opiate-like pharmacological effects, are coded by three distinct genes whose products are, respectively, *prepro-opiomelanocortin* (POMC), *preproenkephalin* and *preprodynorphin*. Each of these precursors contains the sequences of a number of opioid peptides (Fig. 19.4). Hughes and Kosterlitz, who discovered the enkephalins in 1975, noticed that the sequence of *met-enkephalin* is contained within that of a pituitary hormone, β-*lipotrophin*. About this time, three other peptides with morphine-like actions were discovered, *α-, β-and* γ-*endorphin*, which also were contained within the β-lipotrophin molecule. It was then found that the enkephalins actually come from the other gene products, *proenkephalin* and *prodynorphin*, POMC itself serving as a source of *adrenocorticotrophic hormone* (ACTH), *melanocyte-stimulating hormones* (MSH) and β-endorphin, but not of enkephalins.

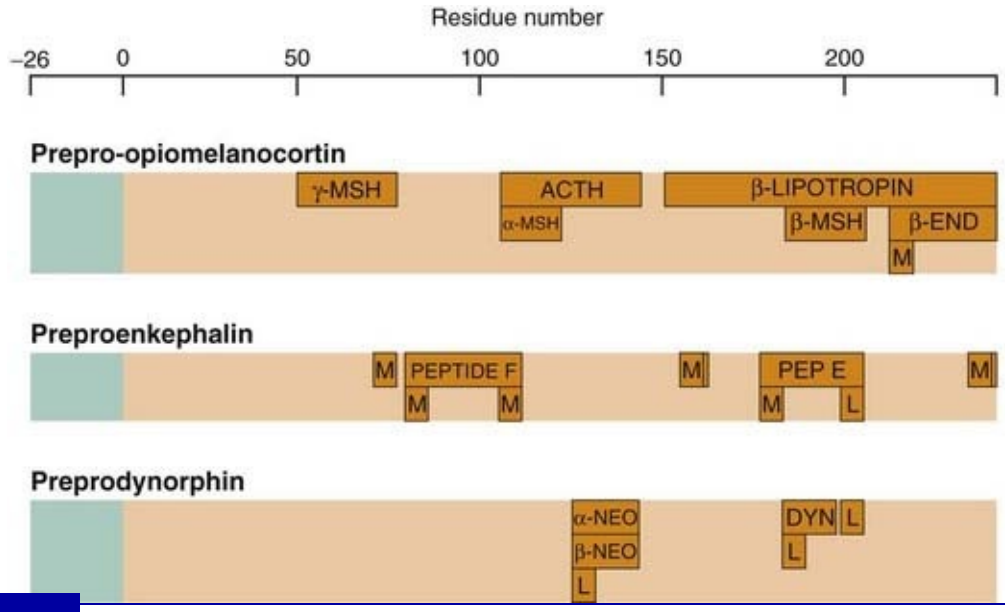


Fig. 19.4 Opioid precursors.

Structures of the three opioid precursor proteins, showing the location of opioid and other peptides within the sequence. These embedded peptides are bounded by pairs of basic amino acids, which form points of attack for enzymatic cleavage. The signal peptide sequence is shown in green. β-END, β-endorphin; ACTH, adrenocorticotrophic hormone; DYN, dynorphin; L, leucine enkephalin; M, methionine enkephalin; MSH, melanocyte-stimulating hormone; NEO, neoendorphin.

The expression of the precursor proteins varies greatly in different tissues and brain areas. For example, POMC and its peptide products are found mainly in the pituitary and hypothalamus, whereas endorphin, met-enkephalin, leu-enkephalin and dynorphin are more widely distributed. In the spinal cord, dynorphin occurs mainly in interneurons, while the enkephalins are found mainly in long descending pathways from the midbrain to the dorsal horn. Opioid peptides are also produced by many non-neuronal cells, including endocrine and exocrine glands and cells of the immune system, as well as in brain areas distinct from those involved in nociception, and correspondingly they play a regulatory role in many different physiological systems, as reflected in the rather complex pharmacological properties of opiate drugs.

Diversity of members of a peptide family can also arise by *gene splicing*

or during *post-translational processing* of the prohormone.

Gene splicing as a source of peptide diversity

▼ Genes contain coding regions (exons) interspersed with non-coding regions (introns), and when the gene is transcribed, RNA (*heterologous nuclear RNA*; hnRNA) is spliced to remove the introns and some of the exons, forming the final mRNA that is translated. Control of the splicing process allows a measure of cellular control over the peptides that are produced. Good examples of this are calcitonin/CGRP and substance P/neurokinin A.

The calcitonin gene codes for calcitonin itself (Ch. 35) and also for a completely dissimilar peptide, CGRP. Alternative splicing allows cells to produce either *procalcitonin* (expressed in thyroid cells) or *pro-CGRP* (expressed in many neurons) from the same gene. Substance P and neurokinin A are two closely related tachykinins belonging to the same family, and are encoded on the same gene. Alternative splicing results in the production of two precursor proteins; one of these includes both peptides, the other includes only substance P. The ratio of the two varies widely between tissues, which correspondingly produce either one or both peptides. The control of the splicing process is not well understood.

Post-translational modifications as a source of peptide diversity

▼ Many peptides, such as tachykinins and peptides related to ACTH (see Ch. 32), must undergo enzymatic amidation at the C-terminus to acquire full biological activity. Tissues may also generate peptides of varying length from the same primary sequence by the action of specific peptidases that cut the chain at different points. For example, procholecystokinin (pro-CCK) contains the sequences of at least five CCK-like peptides ranging in length from 4 to 58 amino acid residues, all with the same C-terminal sequence. CCK itself (33 residues) is the main

peptide produced by the intestine, whereas the brain produces mainly CCK-8. The opioid precursor, prodynorphin, similarly gives rise to several peptides with a common terminal sequence, the proportions of which vary in different tissues and in different neurons in the brain. In some cases (e.g. the inflammatory mediator bradykinin; Ch. 17), peptide cleavage occurring after release generates a new active peptide (des-Arg^9-bradykinin), which acts on a different receptor, both peptides contributing differently to the inflammatory response.

In some cases cyclic peptides may be produced. This is often seen in plant and fungal tissues and some of the products are pharmacologically important (e.g. ciclosporin; Ch. 26).

Peptide Trafficking and Secretion

The basic mechanisms by which peptides are synthesised, packaged into vesicles, processed and secreted are summarised in Figure 19.2 (see review by Perone et al., 1997). Two secretory pathways exist, for constitutive and regulated secretion, respectively. Constitutively secreted proteins (e.g. plasma proteins, some clotting factors) are not stored in appreciable amounts, and secretion is coupled to synthesis. Regulated secretion is, as with many hormones and transmitters, controlled mainly by intracellular Ca^{2+} (see Ch. 4), and peptides awaiting release are stored in cytoplasmic vesicles. Specific protein–protein interactions appear to be responsible for the sorting of different proteins into different vesicles, and for their selective release. Identification of the specific 'trafficking' proteins involved in particular secretory pathways may yield novel drug targets for the selective control of secretion, but the prospect is still some way off, and conventional receptor-based pharmacology will be the basis for shorter-term therapeutic developments.

Biosynthesis and release of peptides

• The genetically coded *preprohormone* is a large protein comprising a signal sequence (involved in transfer of the protein across the membrane) and the *prohormone*, containing the embedded sequences of one or more active peptides.

• The active peptides are produced intracellularly by selective enzymic cleavage, centred on pairs of adjacent Arg or Lys residues. In most cases, the active peptides are stored (often in vesicles) in a releasable form.

• A single precursor gene may give rise to several peptides by selective mRNA splicing before translation, by selective cleavage of the prohormone or by post-translational modification.

• Peptides and proteins are located in intracellular vesicles, which are budded off from the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus.

• After sorting and post-translational processing of the peptide products, the vesicles differentiate into secretory vesicles, which discharge their contents by exocytosis.

• With constitutive release (e.g. plasma proteins, clotting factors), secretory vesicles are discharged as soon as they are formed, and secretion is continuous. With regulated release (neuropeptides and endocrine peptides), exocytosis is controlled by intracellular Ca^{2+}, as with release of conventional transmitters.

• There are many examples of closely related peptides, presumably produced by divergent evolution from a single gene, with different locations and physiological functions.

Peptide Antagonists

Although selective antagonists are available for the great majority of non-peptide receptors, only a few peptide antagonists are so far in clinical use, although their therapeutic potential is considerable (see Betancur et al., 1997). Substitution into endogenous peptides of

unnatural amino acids, such as D-amino acids, sometimes produces excellent antagonists. This strategy was successful in the case of substance P, angiotensin and bradykinin. However, for reasons discussed below, such peptide antagonists are of little use therapeutically, so effort has been channelled instead into discovering non-peptides that bind to peptide receptors. In a few cases, 'peptoids' have been produced by modifying the peptide backbone, while retaining as far as possible the disposition of the side-chain groups that are responsible for binding to the receptor. Such compounds have been developed as antagonists for several peptide receptors (e.g. CCK and neuropeptide Y). In other cases, random screening of large compound libraries has succeeded where rational approaches failed, resulting in highly potent and selective antagonists, some of which are in use, or under development, as therapeutic agents. The most important peptide receptor antagonists in clinical use, all of them non-peptides, include:

- **naloxone**, **naltrexone** (μ-opioid receptors): used to antagonise opiate effects (see Ch. 41)

- **losartan**, **valsartan**, *etc.* (angiotensin AT_1 receptors): used as antihypertensive drugs (see Ch. 22)

- **bosentan** (endothelin ET_1/ET_2 receptors): used in the treatment of pulmonary hypertension (see Ch. 22).

Antagonists for many other peptides, including bradykinin, substance P, CGRP, corticotrophin-releasing factor, neuropeptide Y, neurotensin, oxytocin, antidiuretic hormone and somatostatin, have been discovered but, with some notable exceptions (e.g. the oxytocin antagonist **atosiban**; see Ch. 34, and the substance P antagonist **aprepitant**; see Ch. 55), have not yet been developed for clinical use. Details can be found in Alexander *et al.* (2006) and in the review by Betancur *et al.* (1997).

▼ Few, if any, *agonists* at peptide receptors have been discovered by random screening, and morphine-like compounds are probably the most important clinical examples of non-peptide agonists at peptide receptors. It is becoming increasingly clear, however, that some peptide receptors are 'promiscuous', in that they can bind both peptide and non-peptide ligands. A recent example is that of the formyl peptide receptor (FPR) family of G-protein-coupled receptors, one member of which (FPRL1/ALX) recognises a whole range of molecular species including the bacterial tripeptide fMLP, several endogenous *anti-inflammatory* proteins and peptides including annexin A1 as well as the anti-inflammatory lipid lipoxin A_4 (Ch. 16). Binding of these ligands probably occurs at different receptor domains but, in an additional twist, this receptor can also recognise *proinflammatory* substances such as serum amyloid A and correctly transduce the appropriate signal to the cell (see Ye et al., 2009). How this occurs and what makes non-peptides chemically recognisable by peptide receptors is incompletely understood, much to the frustration of medicinal chemists who would dearly like to be able to design such compounds de novo. There remain many peptide mediators for which no antagonists are known, but strenuous efforts are being made to fill this gap in the hope of developing new therapeutic agents.

Not surprisingly, it has proved easier to find synthetic compounds that block receptors for small peptides (e.g. most neuropeptides), which have only a few points of attachment, than for large peptides and proteins (e.g. cytokines and growth factors), which can interact with the receptor at many points. These receptors are not easily fooled by small molecules, and efforts to target them therapeutically rely on protein-based approaches (see below).

Proteins and Peptides as Drugs

Many proteins, including hormones, antibodies, decoy receptors, cytokines, enzymes and clotting factors, are registered for use as therapeutic agents in specific conditions; they are mainly given by injection but occasionally by other routes (see Table 19.1). Many of the proteins currently in therapeutic use are functional human proteins prepared by recombinant technology, which are used to supplement the action of endogenous mediators. Although their preparation requires advanced technology, such proteins are relatively straightforward to develop as drugs, because they rarely cause toxicity (although some may be immunogenic) and have a more predictable therapeutic effect than synthetic drugs.

Table 19.1 Some peptide and protein drugs

Drug	Use	Route
Peptides		
Captopril/enalapril (peptide related)	Hypertension, heart failure (Ch. 22)	Oral
ADH, desmopressin and lypressin	Diabetes insipidus (Ch. 30)	Intranasal, injection
Oxytocin	Induction of labour (Ch. 34)	Injection
GnRH analogues (e.g. buserelin)	Infertility, suppression of ovulation (Ch. 34), prostate and breast tumours	Intranasal, injection
ACTH	Diagnosis of adrenal insufficiency (Ch. 32)	Injection
TSH/TRH	Diagnosis of thyroid disease (Ch. 33)	Injection
Calcitonin	Paget's disease of bone (Ch. 35)	Intranasal, injection
Insulin	Diabetes (Ch. 30)	Injection
Somatostatin, octreotide	Acromegaly, gastrointestinal tract tumours (Ch. 32)	Intranasal, injection
Growth hormone		Injection

Growth hormone	Dwarfism (Ch. 32)	Injection
Ciclosporin	Immunosuppression (Ch. 26)	Oral
F(ab) fragment	Digoxin overdose	Injection
Proteins		
Streptokinase, TPA	Thromboembolism (Ch. 24)	Injection
Asparaginase	Tumour chemotherapy (Ch. 55)	Injection
DNAase	Cystic fibrosis (Ch. 27)	Inhalation
Glucocerebrosidase	Gaucher's disease	Injection
Interferons	Tumour chemotherapy (Chs 17 and 55), multiple sclerosis (Ch. 39)	Injection
Erythropoietin, GMCF, *etc.*	Anaemia (Ch. 25)	Injection
Clotting factors	Clotting disorders (Ch. 24)	Injection
Monoclonal antibodies (e.g. TNF-α)	Inflammatory diseases (Chs 6, 26)	Injection, infusion
Antibodies, vaccines, *etc.*	Infectious diseases	Injection, oral
Enfurvitide	HIV infection (Ch. 51)	Injection

ACTH, adrenocorticotrophic hormone; ADH, antidiuretic hormone; GMCF, granulocyte colony-stimulating factor; GnRH, gonadotrophin-releasing hormone; TNF-α, tumour necrosis factor-α; TPA, tissue plasminogen activator; TRH, thyrotrophin-releasing hormone; TSH, thyroid-stimulating hormone.

While clearly different from conventional drugs in many ways, the same principles of *pharmacodynamics* apply to proteins and peptides although their *pharmacokinetic* properties are usually radically different from those of their small-molecule cousins, largely because of the way that they are metabolised (see Lin, 2009, for a good discussion of this point).

'Designer proteins'—genetically engineered variants of natural proteins

—for specific purposes are already a reality (see Ch. 59). Examples include ‘humanised antibodies’ and fusion proteins consisting of an antibody (targeted, for example, at a tumour antigen) or a peptide (e.g. bombesin or somatostatin, which bind to receptors on tumour cells) linked to a toxin (such as ricin or diphtheria toxin) to kill the target cells (see Ch. 55). Many ingenious ideas are being explored, and some prophets anticipate the dawn of a new era of therapeutics, as the hegemony of small-molecule therapeutics begins to fade. Pharmacologists, needless to say, are somewhat sceptical, but nobody can afford to ignore the potential of biotechnology-based therapeutics in the future. A full discussion of this exciting area is provided in Ch. 59.

Smaller peptides are used therapeutically mainly when there is simply no viable alternative (e.g. insulin and its designer variants, Ch. 30) but, in general, peptides make bad drugs. There are several reasons for this:

- Most must be administered by injection or nasal spray, because they are poorly absorbed or metabolised in the gut. (An important exception is **ciclosporin**, discussed in Ch. 26, which contains so many unnatural amino acids that no peptidase will touch it.)
- They are expensive to manufacture.
- They usually have a short biological half-life because of hydrolysis by plasma and tissue peptidases, although there are exceptions to this.
- Penetration of the blood–brain barrier is unpredictable.
- They may be immunogenic

A list of some important therapeutic proteins and peptides is given in Table 19.1.

Concluding Remarks

The physiology and pharmacology of peptides—particularly neuropeptides—has stimulated a formidable corpus of research since the early 1980s, and the flow of data continues unabated. With more than a dozen major families of peptides, and a host of minor players, it is beyond the scope of this book to cover them individually or in detail. Instead, we will introduce information on peptide pharmacology wherever it has relevance to the physiology and pharmacology under discussion. Examples are bradykinin (Ch. 17) and monoclonal antibodies (Chs 26 and 59) in inflammation; endothelins and angiotensin in cardiovascular regulation (Ch. 22); tachykinins in asthma (Ch. 27); tachykinins and opioid peptides in nociception (Ch. 41); and leptin, neuropeptide Y and orexins in obesity (Ch. 31). Useful general accounts of peptide pharmacology include Sherman *et al.* (1989), Cooper *et al.* (1996), Hökfelt (1991), Hökfelt *et al.* (2000) and Nestler *et al.* (2001).

Peptides and proteins as drugs

• Despite the large number of known peptide mediators, only a few peptides, mostly close analogues of endogenous mediators, are currently useful as drugs.

• In most cases, peptides make poor drugs, because:

– they are poorly absorbed when given orally

– they have a short duration of action because of rapid degradation in vivo

– they do not predictably cross the blood–brain barrier

– they are expensive and difficult to manufacture

– they may be immunogenic.

• Peptide antagonists were slow to be discovered, but many are now available for experimental purposes and in development as therapeutic agents.

• Important peptide antagonists used clinically include *naloxone*, *losartan* and *bosentan*.

• Protein-based therapeutic agents are of growing importance and include hormones (e.g. *insulin*, *growth hormone*), clotting factors, cytokines, antibodies and enzymes. In many cases, these are produced using recombinant technology.

• 'Designer proteins' prepared by recombinant techniques are expected to play an increasing therapeutic role in the future.

References and Further Reading

lexander S.P., Mathie A., Peters J.A. Guide to receptors and channels, 2nd ed. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2006;147(Suppl. 3):S1-S168. *Comprehensive summary of receptors, including peptide receptors, and compounds that act on them*

anks W.A. The CNS as a target for peptides and peptide-based drugs. *Expert Opin. Drug. Deliv.*. 2006;3:707-712. *Getting useful peptide drugs into the CNS is problematic and this paper reviews some of the major issues*

etancur C., Azzi M., Rostene W. Nonpeptide antagonists of neuropeptide receptors. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1997;18:372-386. *Describes success in finding non-peptide antagonists—for a long time elusive—and their possible therapeutic uses*

ruckdorfer T., Marder O., Albericio F. From production of peptides in milligram amounts for research to multi-tons quantities for drugs of the future. *Curr. Pharm. Biotechnol.*. 2004;5:29-43. *Deals with the considerable technical problems in scaling up the synthesis of peptide drugs, and gives the example of enfurvitide, the anti-AIDS drug that was the first peptide to be produced in multi-ton amounts; it is a remarkable story, even if you are not a chemical engineering geek*

uckel P. Recombinant proteins for therapy. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1996;17:450-456. *Good account of therapeutic proteins*

ivelli O., Nothacker H.-P., Saito Y, *et al.* Novel neurotransmitters as natural ligands of orphan G-protein-coupled receptors. *Trends Neurosci.*. 2001;24:230-237. *Describes how new peptide mediators have been discovered by screening orphan receptors*

ooper J.R., Bloom F.E., Roth R.H. *Biochemical basis of neuropharmacology*. New York: Oxford University Press; 1996. *Excellent standard textbook*

ullinan W.E., Day N.C., Schafer M.K., *et al.* Neuroanatomical and functional studies of peptide precursor-processing enzymes. *Enzyme*. 1991;45:285-300. *Review of enzyme mechanisms involved in neuropeptide processing*

ökfelt T. Neuropeptides in perspective: the last ten years. *Neuron*. 1991;7:867-879. *Excellent overview by a neuropeptide pioneer*

ökfelt T., Broberger C., Xu Z.-Q.D., *et al.* Neuropeptides—an overview. *Neuropharmacology*. 2000;39:1337-1356. *Excellent summary of developments at the millennium*

in J.H. Pharmacokinetics of biotech drugs: peptides, proteins and monoclonal antibodies. *Curr. Drug. Metab*. 2009. Epub ahead of print. (*Excellent discussion of the factors that regulate the pharmacokinetics of protein and peptide drugs as opposed to small-molecule inhibitors*)

undberg J.M. Pharmacology of co-transmission in the autonomic nervous system: integrative aspects on amines, neuropeptides, adenosine triphosphate, amino acids and nitric oxide. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 1996;48:114-192.

leunier J.-C., Mollereau C., Toll L., *et al.* Isolation and structure of the endogenous agonist of opioid receptor-like ORL1 receptor. *Nature*. 1995;377:532-535. *Describes the discovery of an opioid-like peptide ligand for a hitherto 'orphan' receptor*

lizejewski G.J. Peptides as receptor ligand drugs and their relationship to G-coupled signal transduction. *Expert Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2001;10:1063-1073. *Useful general review of peptide therapeutics, dealing with many issues including the advantages and disadvantages of peptides as drugs and their potential use in anticancer therapy*

estler E.J., Hyman S.E., Malenka R.C. *Molecular neuropharmacology*. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2001. *Good modern textbook*

kuda-Ashitaka E., Ito S. Nocistatin: a novel neuropeptide encoded by the gene for the nociceptin/orphanin FQ precursors. *Peptides*. 2000;21:1101-1109.

erone M.J., Windeatt S., Castro M.G. Intracellular trafficking of prohormones and proneuropeptides: cell type-specific sorting and targeting. *Exp. Physiol.*. 1997;82:609-628. *Excellent review of mechanisms by which cells manage to avoid getting their many neuropeptides confused*

herman T.G., Akil H., Watson S.J. The molecular biology of neuropeptides. *Disc. Neurosci.*. 1989;6:1-58. *General review*

iemens J., Zhou S., Piskorowski R., *et al.* Spider toxins activate the capsaicin receptor to produce inflammatory pain. *Nature*. 2006;444:208-212. *Definitely not for arachnophobes!*

anagisawa M., Kurihara H., Kimura S., *et al.* A novel potent vasoconstrictor peptide produced by vascular endothelial cells. *Nature*. 1988;332:411-415. *The discovery of endothelin—a remarkable tour de force*

e R.D., Boulay F., Wang J.M., *et al.* International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology. LXXIII. Nomenclature for the formyl peptide receptor (FPR) family. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2009;61:119-161. *Heavyweight review that describes the biology of the FPR receptor family which includes examples of 'promiscuous' G-protein-coupled receptors that can recognise peptides, proteins and lipids as ligands*

20

Nitric oxide

Overview

Nitric oxide (NO) is a ubiquitous mediator with diverse functions. It is generated from L-arginine by nitric oxide synthase (NOS), an enzyme that occurs in endothelial, neuronal and inducible isoforms. In this chapter, we concentrate on general aspects of NO, especially its biosynthesis, degradation and effects. We touch on evidence that it can act as a circulating as well as a local mediator, and conclude with a brief consideration of the therapeutic potential of drugs that act on the L-arginine/NO pathway.

Introduction

Nitric oxide, a free radical gas, is formed in the atmosphere during lightning storms. Less dramatically, but with far-reaching biological consequences, it is also formed in an enzyme-catalysed reaction between molecular oxygen and L-arginine. The convergence of several lines of research led to the realisation that NO is a key signalling molecule in the cardiovascular and nervous systems, and that it has a role in host defence.

A physiological function of NO was discovered in the vasculature when it was shown that the *endothelium-derived relaxing factor* described by Furchgott & Zawadzki (1980) is NO (Figs 20.1 and 20.2). NO is the endogenous activator of soluble guanylyl cyclase, leading to the formation of cyclic GMP (cGMP), an important 'second messenger' (Ch.

3) in many cells, including nerves, smooth muscle, monocytes and platelets. Nitrogen and oxygen are neighbours in the periodic table, and NO shares several properties with O_2, in particular a high affinity for haem and other iron–sulfur groups. This is important for activation of guanylyl cyclase, which contains a haem group, and for the inactivation of NO by haemoglobin (see below).

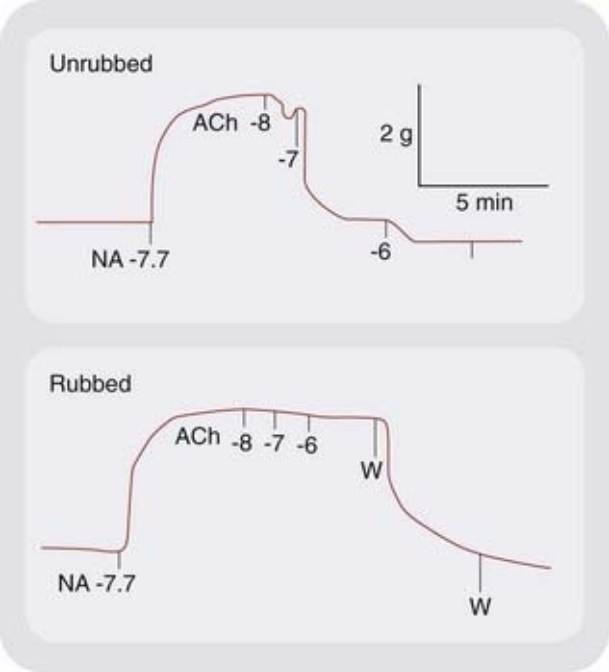


Fig. 20.1 Endothelium-derived relaxing factor.

Acetylcholine (ACh) relaxes a strip of rabbit aorta precontracted with noradrenaline (NA) if the endothelium is intact ('unrubbed': upper panel), but not if it has been removed by gentle rubbing ('rubbed': lower panel). The numbers are logarithms of molar concentrations of drugs.

(From Furchgott & Zawadzki, 1980.)

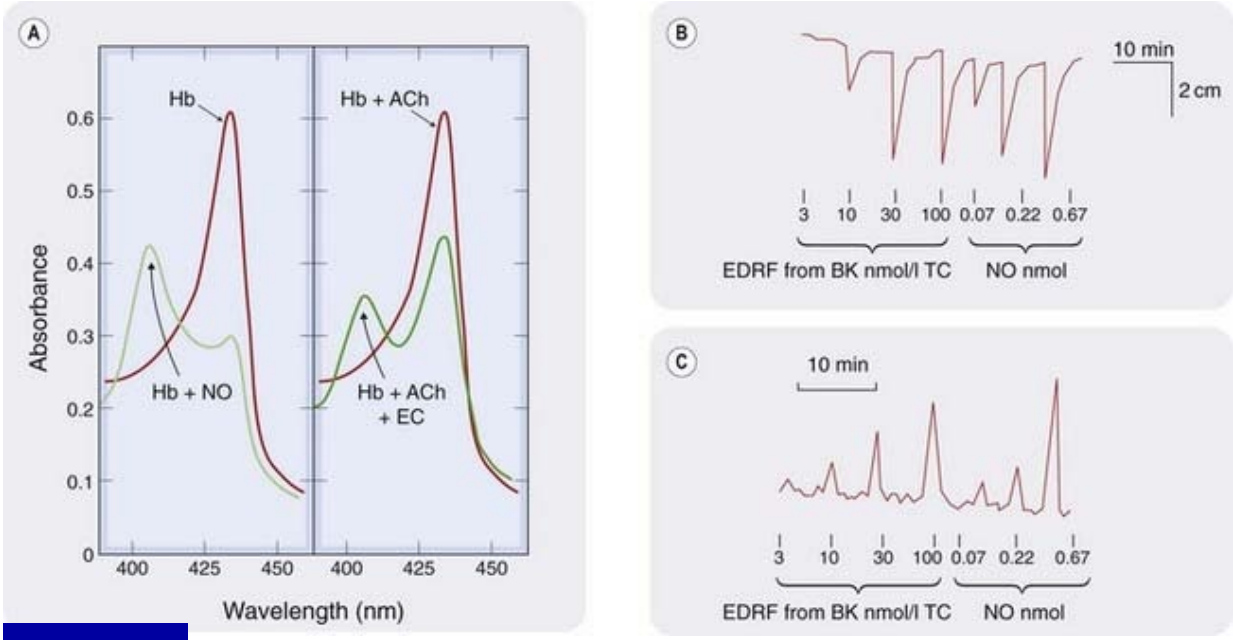


Fig. 20.2 Endothelium-derived relaxing factor (EDRF) is closely related to nitric oxide (NO).

[**A**] EDRF released from aortic endothelial cells (EC) by acetylcholine (ACh) (right-hand panel) has the same effect on the absorption spectrum of deoxyhaemoglobin (Hb) as does authentic NO (left panel). [**B**] EDRF is released from a column of cultured endothelial cells by bradykinin (BK 3–100 nmol) applied through the column of cells (TC) and relaxes a de-endothelialised precontracted bioassay strip, as does authentic NO (upper trace). [**C**] A chemical assay of NO based on chemiluminescence shows that similar concentrations of NO are present in the EDRF released from the column of cells as in equiactive authentic NO solutions.

(From: Ignarro et al. 1987 Circ Res 61: 866–879; and Palmer et al. 1987 Nature 327: 524–526.)

The role of NO in specific settings is described in other chapters: the endothelium in Chapter 22, the autonomic nervous system in Chapter 12, as a chemical transmitter and mediator of excitotoxicity in the central nervous system (CNS) in Chapters 36–38, and in the innate mediator-derived reactions of acute inflammation and the immune response in Chapter 17. Therapeutic uses of organic nitrates and of nitroprusside (NO donors) are described in Chapters 21 and 22.

Biosynthesis of Nitric Oxide and Its Control

Nitric oxide synthase (NOS) enzymes are central to the control of NO biosynthesis. There are three known isoforms: an *inducible* form (iNOS or NOS-II; expressed in macrophages and Kupffer cells, neutrophils, fibroblasts, vascular smooth muscle and endothelial cells in response to pathological stimuli such as invading microorganisms) and two so-called *constitutive* forms, which are present under physiological conditions in endothelium (eNOS or NOS-III) and in neurons (nNOS or NOS-I). eNOS is not restricted to endothelium. It is also present in cardiac myocytes, renal mesangial cells, osteoblasts and osteoclasts, airway epithelium and, in small amounts, platelets. The constitutive enzymes generate small amounts of NO, whereas iNOS produces much greater amounts both because of its high activity and because of its abundance, at least in pathological states associated with cytokine release.[1]

[1]It is possible that some of the NO made in healthy animals under basal conditions is derived from the action of iNOS, just as the inducible form of cyclo-oxygenase is active under basal conditions (Ch. 17)—whether this is because there is some iNOS expressed even when there is no pathology, or because there is enough 'pathology' in healthy mammals, for example gut microflora, to induce it, is a moot point.

▼ All three NOS isoenzymes are dimers. They are structurally and functionally complex, bearing similarities to the cytochrome P450 enzymes (described in Ch. 9) that are so important in drug metabolism. Each isoform contains iron protoporphyrin IX (haem), flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD), flavin mononucleotide (FMN) and tetrahydrobiopterin (H_4B) as bound prosthetic groups. They also bind L-arginine, reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) and calcium–calmodulin. These prosthetic groups and ligands control the assembly of the enzyme into the active dimer. Calcium–calmodulin regulates electron transfer within the molecule.

Both nNOS and iNOS are soluble cytosolic enzymes, and eNOS is dually acylated by *N*-myristoylation and cysteine palmitoylation; these post-translational modifications lead to its association with membranes in the Golgi apparatus and in caveolae, specialised cholesterol-rich microdomains in the plasma membrane derived from the Golgi apparatus. In the caveolae, eNOS is associated with *caveolin*, a membrane protein involved in signal transduction. Association of eNOS with caveolin is reversible, dissociation from caveolin activating the enzyme. Oxidised low-density lipoprotein (oxLDL) displaces eNOS from caveolae by binding to endothelial cell CD36 receptors. This depletes the caveolae of cholesterol, disturbing eNOS function.

The nitrogen atom in NO is derived from the terminal guanidino group of L-arginine. NOS enzymes are functionally 'bimodal', in that they combine oxygenase and reductase activities associated with distinct structural domains. The oxygenase domain contains haem, while the reductase domain binds calcium–calmodulin. In pathological states, the enzyme can undergo structural change leading to electron transfer between substrates, enzyme co-factors and products becoming 'uncoupled', so that electrons are transferred to molecular oxygen, leading to the synthesis of superoxide anion (O_2^-) rather than NO. This is important, as superoxide anion reacts with NO to form a toxic product (peroxynitrite anion; see p. 240 below).

L-Arginine is usually present in excess in endothelial cell cytoplasm, so the rate of production of NO is determined by the activity of the enzyme rather than by substrate availability. Nevertheless, very high doses of L-arginine can restore endothelial NO biosynthesis in some pathological states (e.g. hypercholesterolaemia; see below) in which endothelial function is impaired. Possible explanations for this paradox include:

• compartmentation: *i.e.* existence of a distinct pool of substrate in a cell compartment with access to the synthase enzyme, which can become depleted despite apparently plentiful total cytoplasmic arginine concentrations

• competition with endogenous inhibitors of NOS such as *asymmetric dimethylarginine* (ADMA; see below), which is elevated in plasma from patients with hypercholesterolaemia

• reassembly/reactivation of enzyme in which transfer of electrons has become uncoupled from L-arginine as a result of an action of supraphysiological concentrations of L-arginine.

The activity of constitutive isoforms of NOS is controlled by intracellular calcium–calmodulin (Fig. 20.3). Control is exerted in two ways:

1 Many endothelium-dependent agonists (e.g. acetylcholine, bradykinin, substance P) increase the cytoplasmic concentration of calcium ions, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$; the consequent increase in calcium–calmodulin activates eNOS or nNOS.

2 Phosphorylation of specific residues on eNOS controls its sensitivity to calcium–calmodulin; this can alter NO synthesis in the absence of any change in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.

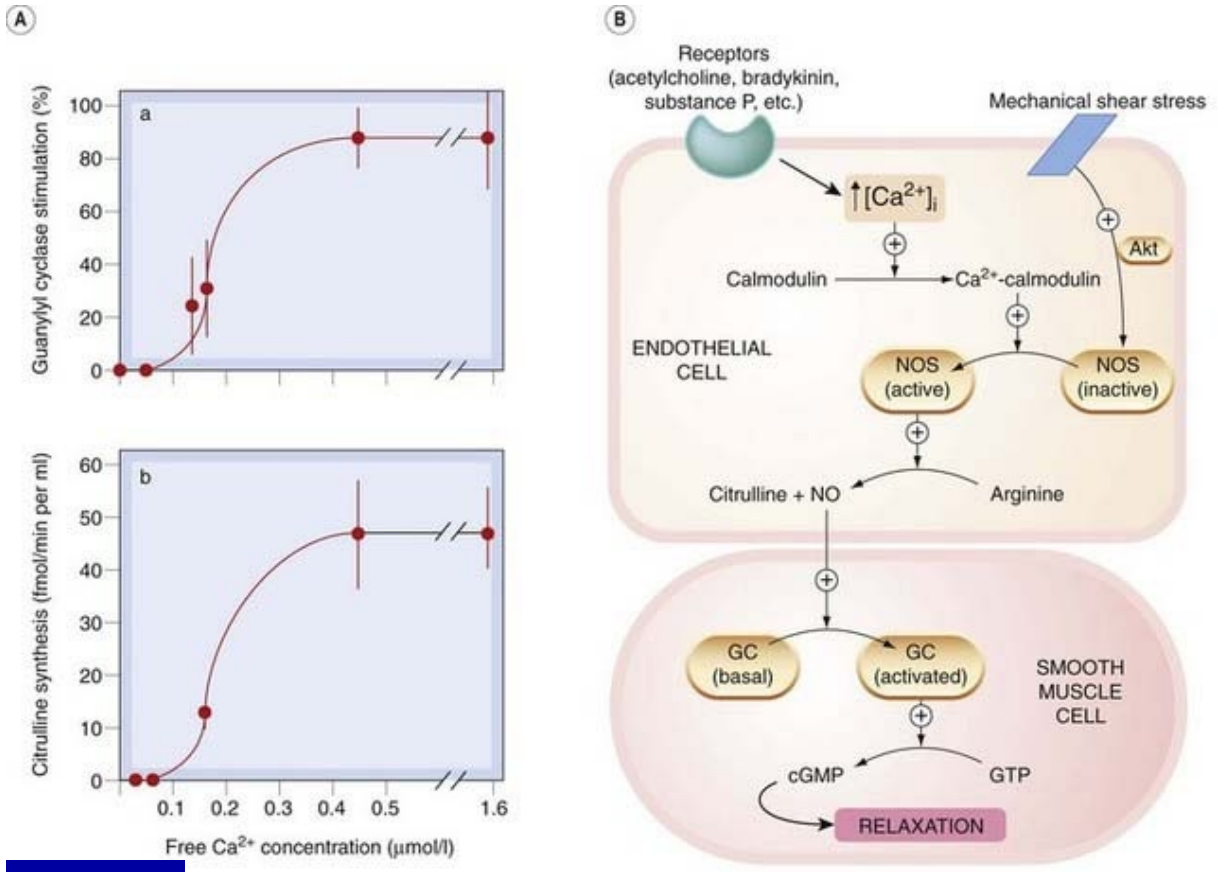


Fig. 20.3 Control of constitutive nitric oxide synthase (NOS) by calcium–calmodulin.

[**A**] Dependence on Ca^{2+} of nitric oxide (NO) and citrulline synthesis from L-arginine by rat brain synaptosomal cytosol. Rates of synthesis of NO from L-arginine were determined by stimulation of guanylyl cyclase (GC) (upper) or by synthesis of [^{3}H]-citrulline from L-[^{3}H]-arginine (lower). [**B**] Regulation of GC in smooth muscle by NO formed in adjacent endothelium. Akt is a protein kinase that phosphorylates NOS, making it more sensitive to calcium–calmodulin.

(From: [A] Knowles R G et al. 1989 Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 86: 5159–5162.)

One important physiological stimulus controlling endothelial NO synthesis in resistance vessels is believed to be shear stress. This is sensed by endothelial mechanoreceptors and transduced via a serine–threonine protein kinase called Akt. Agonists that increase cAMP in endothelial cells (e.g. β_2-adrenoceptor agonists) also increase eNOS activity, but via protein kinase A-mediated phosphorylation,[2] whereas

protein kinase C reduces eNOS activity by phosphorylating residues in the calmodulin-binding domain, thereby reducing the binding of calmodulin. Insulin increases eNOS activity via tyrosine kinase activation (and also increases the expression of nNOS in diabetic mice).

[2]As explained in Chapter 4, β_2 agonists also act directly on smooth muscle cells, causing relaxation via cAMP.

In contrast to constitutive NOS isoforms, the activity of iNOS is effectively independent of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, being fully activated even at the low values of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ present under resting conditions. The enzyme is induced by bacterial lipopolysaccharide and/or cytokines synthesised in response to lipopolysaccharide, notably interferon-γ, the antiviral effect of which can be explained by this action. Tumour necrosis factor-α and interleukin-1 do not alone induce iNOS, but they each synergise with interferon-γ in this regard (see Ch. 17). Induction of iNOS is inhibited by glucocorticoids and by several cytokines, including transforming growth factor-β. There are important species differences in the inducibility of iNOS, which is less readily induced in human than in mouse cells.

Nitric oxide synthesis, inactivation and carriage

• Nitric oxide (NO) is synthesised from L-arginine and molecular O_2 by nitric oxide synthase (NOS).

• NOS exists in three isoforms: inducible, and constitutive endothelial and neuronal forms (respectively, iNOS, eNOS and nNOS). NOSs are dimeric flavoproteins, contain tetrahydrobiopterin and have homology with cytochrome P450. The constitutive enzymes are activated by calcium–calmodulin. Sensitivity to calcium–calmodulin is controlled by phosphorylation of specific residues on the enzymes.

• iNOS is induced in macrophages and other cells by interferon-γ.

• nNOS is present in the central nervous system (see Chs 36–38) and in autonomic nerves (see Ch. 12).

• eNOS is present in platelets and other cells in addition to endothelium.

• NO is inactivated by combination with the haem of haemoglobin or by oxidation to nitrite and nitrate, which are excreted in urine.

• NO is unstable but can react reversibly with cysteine residues (e.g. in globin or albumin) to form stable nitrosothiols; as a result, red cells can act as an O_2-regulated source of NO. NO released in this way escapes inactivation by haem by being exported via cysteine residues in the anion exchange protein in red cell membranes.

Degradation and Carriage of Nitric Oxide

Nitric oxide reacts with oxygen to form N_2O_4, which combines with water to produce a mixture of nitric and nitrous acids. Nitrite ions are oxidised to nitrate by oxyhaemoglobin. These reactions are summarised as follow:

$$2NO + O_2 \rightarrow N_2O_4 \quad (20.1)$$

$$N_2O_4 + H_2O \rightarrow NO_3^- + NO_2^- + 2H^+ \quad (20.2)$$

$$NO_2^- + HbO \rightarrow NO_3^- + Hb \quad (20.3)$$

Low concentrations of NO are relatively stable in air, so small amounts of NO produced in the lung escape degradation and can be detected in exhaled air. In contrast, NO reacts very rapidly with even low concentrations of superoxide anion (O_2^-) to produce peroxynitrite anion ($ONOO^-$), which is responsible for some of its toxic effects. Haem has an affinity for NO > 10 000 times greater than for oxygen. In the absence of oxygen, NO bound to haem is relatively stable, but in the presence of oxygen NO is converted to nitrate and the haem iron oxidised to methaemoglobin.

Endothelium-derived NO acts locally on underlying vascular smooth muscle or on adherent monocytes or platelets. A strong, but still controversial, case has been made that NO can also act at a distance in the mammalian circulation via reversible interactions with haemoglobin.[3]

[3]The potential for action at a distance elswhere in the animal kingdom is neatly demonstrated by *Rhodnius prolixus*, a blood-sucking insect that produces a salivary vasodilator/platelet inhibitor with the properties of a nitrovasodilator. This consists of a mixture of nitrosylated haemoproteins, which bind NO in the salivary glands of the insect but release it in the tissues of its prey. The consequent vasodilatation and inhibition of platelet activation presumably facilitates extraction of the bug's meal in liquid form.

Distinct from the inactivation reaction between NO and haem, a specific cysteine residue in globin combines reversibly with NO under physiological conditions. It is proposed that the resulting *S*-nitrosylated haemoglobin acts as a circulating oxygen-sensitive NO carrier. Albumin

can also be reversibly nitrosylated and could function similarly, as could the inorganic nitrite ion—indeed, foods rich in inorganic nitrate (reduced to nitrite in vivo by anaerobic organisms in the mouth) have potential for prevention of vascular disease; see below. Readers who require a more detailed account of the case that NO acts at a distance within the mammalian circulation are directed to reviews by Singel & Stamler (2005) and, for a sceptical view, Schechter & Gladwyn (2003).

Effects of Nitric Oxide

Nitric oxide reacts with various metals, thiols and oxygen species, thereby modifying proteins, DNA and lipids. One of its most important biochemical effects (see Ch. 3) is activation of soluble guanylyl cyclase, a heterodimer present in vascular and nervous tissue as two distinct isoenzymes. Guanylyl cyclase synthesises the second messenger cGMP. NO activates the enzyme by combining with its haem group, and many physiological effects of low concentrations of NO are mediated by cGMP. These effects are prevented by inhibitors of guanylyl cyclase (e.g. 1H-[1,2,4]-oxadiazole-[4,3-α]-quinoxalin-1-one, better known as 'ODQ'), which are useful investigational tools. NO activates soluble guanylyl cyclase in intact cells (neurons and platelets) extremely rapidly, and activation is followed by desensitisation to a steady-state level. This contrasts with its effect on the isolated enzyme, which is slower but more sustained. Guanylyl cyclase contains another regulatory site, which is NO independent. This is activated by several investigational drugs.

Effects of cGMP are terminated by phosphodiesterase enzymes. **Sildenafil** and **tadalafil** are inhibitors of phosphodiesterase type V that are used to treat erectile dysfunction, because they potentiate NO actions

in the corpora cavernosa of the penis by this mechanism (see Ch. 34). NO also combines with haem groups in other biologically important proteins, notably cytochrome *c* oxidase, where it competes with oxygen, contributing to the control of cellular respiration (see Erusalimsky & Moncada, 2007). Cytotoxic and/or cytoprotective effects of higher concentrations of NO relate to its chemistry as a free radical (see Ch. 37). Some physiological and pathological effects of NO are shown in Table 20.1.

Table 20.1 Postulated roles of endogenous nitric oxide

System	Physiological role	Pathological role	
		Excess production	Inadequate production or action
Cardiovascular			
Endothelium/vascular smooth muscle	Control of blood pressure and regional blood flow	Hypotension (septic shock)	Atherogenesis, thrombosis (e.g. in hypercholesterolaemia, diabetes mellitus)
Platelets	Limitation of adhesion/ aggregation	—	—
Host defence			
Macrophages, neutrophils, leukocytes	Defence against viruses, bacteria, fungi, protozoa, parasites	—	—
Nervous system			
Central	Neurotransmission, long-term potentiation, plasticity (memory, appetite, nociception)	Excitotoxicity (Ch. 39) (e.g. ischaemic stroke, Huntington's disease, AIDS dementia)	—
Peripheral	Neurotransmission (e.g. gastric emptying, penile erection)	—	Hypertrophic pyloric stenosis, erectile dysfunction

Biochemical and Cellular Aspects

Pharmacological effects of NO can be studied with NO gas dissolved in deoxygenated salt solution. More conveniently, but less directly, various donors of NO, such as **nitroprusside**, S-*nitrosoacetylpenicillamine* (SNAP) or S-*nitrosoglutathione* (SNOG), have been used as surrogates. This has pitfalls; for example, ascorbic acid potentiates SNAP but inhibits responses to authentic NO.[4]

[4]Ascorbic acid releases NO from SNAP but accelerates NO degradation in solution, which could explain this divergence.

Nitric oxide can activate guanylyl cyclase in the same cells that produce it, giving rise to autocrine effects, for example on the barrier function of the endothelium. NO also diffuses from its site of synthesis and activates guanylyl cyclase in neighbouring cells. The resulting increase in cGMP affects protein kinase G, cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterases, ion channels and possibly other proteins. This inhibits the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$-induced smooth muscle contraction and platelet aggregation that occur in response to contractile or proaggregatory agonists. NO also hyperpolarises vascular smooth muscle, as a consequence of potassium channel activation. NO inhibits monocyte adhesion and migration, adhesion and aggregation of platelets, and smooth muscle and fibroblast proliferation. These cellular effects probably underlie the antiatherosclerotic action of NO (see Ch. 23).

Large amounts of NO (released following induction of NOS or excessive stimulation of NMDA receptors in the brain) cause cytotoxic effects (either directly or via peroxynitrite anions). These contribute to host defence, but also to the neuronal destruction that occurs when there is overstimulation of NMDA receptors by glutamate (see Chs 37 and 39). Paradoxically, NO is also cytoprotective under some circumstances (see Ch. 39).

Vascular Effects (See Also Ch. 22)

The L-arginine/NO pathway is tonically active in resistance vessels, reducing peripheral vascular resistance and hence systemic blood pressure. Mutant mice that lack the gene coding for eNOS are

hypertensive, consistent with a role for NO biosynthesis in the physiological control of blood pressure. In addition, NO derived from nNOS has recently been implicated in the control of basal resistance vessel tone in human forearm and cardiac muscle vascular beds (Seddon et al., 2008, 2009). Increased NO generation may contribute to the generalised vasodilatation that occurs during pregnancy.

Neuronal Effects (See Also Ch. 12)

Nitric oxide is a non-noradrenergic non-cholinergic (NANC) neurotransmitter in many tissues (Ch. 12), and is important in the upper airways, gastrointestinal tract and control of penile erection (Chs 27, 29 and 34). It is implicated in the control of neuronal development and of synaptic plasticity in the CNS (Chs 36 and 38). Mice carrying a mutation disrupting the gene coding nNOS have grossly distended stomachs similar to those seen in human hypertrophic pyloric stenosis (a disorder characterised by pyloric hypertrophy causing gastric outflow obstruction, which occurs in approximately 1 in 150 male infants and is corrected surgically). nNOS knockout mice resist stroke damage caused by middle cerebral artery ligation but are aggressive and oversexed (characteristics that may not be unambiguously disadvantageous, at least in the context of natural selection!).

Host Defence (See Ch. 17)

Cytotoxic and/or cytostatic effects of NO are implicated in primitive non-specific host defence mechanisms against numerous pathogens, including viruses, bacteria, fungi, protozoa and parasites, and against tumour cells. The importance of this is evidenced by the susceptibility to *Leishmania major* (to which wild-type mice are highly resistant) of mice

lacking iNOS. Mechanisms whereby NO damages invading pathogens include nitrosylation of nucleic acids and combination with haem-containing enzymes, including the mitochondrial enzymes involved in cell respiration.

Actions of nitric oxide

- Nitric oxide (NO) acts by:
  - combining with haem in guanylyl cyclase, activating the enzyme, increasing cGMP and thereby lowering $[Ca^{2+}]_i$
  - combining with haem groups in other proteins (e.g. cytochrome *c* oxidase)
  - combining with superoxide anion to yield the cytotoxic peroxynitrite anion
  - nitrosation of proteins, lipids and nucleic acids.
- Effects of NO include:
  - vasodilatation, inhibition of platelet and monocyte adhesion and aggregation, inhibition of smooth muscle proliferation, protection against atheroma
  - synaptic effects in the peripheral and central nervous system
  - host defence and cytotoxic effects on pathogens
  - cytoprotection.

Therapeutic Approaches

Nitric Oxide

Inhalation of high concentrations of NO (as occurred when cylinders of nitrous oxide, N_2O, for anaesthesia were accidentally contaminated) causes acute pulmonary oedema and methaemoglobinaemia, but concentrations below 50 ppm (parts per million) are not toxic. NO (5–300 ppm) inhibits bronchoconstriction (at least in guinea pigs), but the main action of inhaled NO is pulmonary vasodilatation. Inspired NO acts preferentially on ventilated alveoli, and could therefore be therapeutically useful in respiratory distress syndrome. This condition

has a high mortality and is caused by diverse insults (e.g. infection). It is characterised by intrapulmonary 'shunting' (i.e. pulmonary arterial blood entering the pulmonary vein without passing through capillaries in contact with ventilated alveoli), resulting in arterial hypoxaemia, and by acute pulmonary arterial hypertension. Inhaled NO dilates blood vessels in ventilated alveoli (which are exposed to the inspired gas) and thus reduces shunting. NO is used in intensive care units to reduce pulmonary hypertension and to improve oxygen delivery in patients with respiratory distress syndrome, but it is not known whether this improves long-term survival in these severely ill patients. Ethyl nitrite gas has been investigated in newborns (who are at much increased risk of respiratory distress syndrome because of their immature lungs) as a potentially less toxic alternative.

Nitric Oxide Donors/Precursors

Nitrovasodilators have been used therapeutically for over a century. The common mode of action of these drugs is as a source of NO (Chs 21 and 22). There is interest in the potential for selectivity of nitrovasodilators; for instance, **glyceryl trinitrate** is more potent on vascular smooth muscle than on platelets, whereas SNOG (see above) selectively inhibits platelet function. It was shown recently that dietary nitrate (contained in beetroot juice) acutely lowers arterial blood pressure in parallel with a rise in plasma nitrite concentration and improved endothelial and platelet function. Interruption of the enterosalivary conversion of nitrate to nitrite prevents the rise in plasma nitrite, blocks the fall in blood pressure and abolishes the inhibitory effect on platelet aggregation (Webb et al., 2008).[5]

[5]Perhaps dietary nitrate contributes to the beneficial effects of a vegetable-rich diet, highlighting the potential of a ‘natural’ low-cost approach for the prevention of cardiovascular disease.

Inhibition of Nitric Oxide Synthesis

Drugs can inhibit NO synthesis or action by several mechanisms. Certain arginine analogues compete with arginine for NOS. Several such compounds, for example *N*^{G}-monomethyl-L-arginine (L-NMMA) and *N*^{G}-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester (L-NAME), have proved of great value as experimental tools. One such compound, ADMA (see above), is approximately equipotent with L-NMMA. It is present in human plasma and is excreted in urine. Its plasma concentration correlates with vascular mortality in patients receiving haemodialysis for chronic renal failure, and is increased in people with hypercholesterolaemia. In addition to urinary excretion, ADMA is also eliminated by metabolism to a mixture of citrulline and methylamine by *dimethylarginine dimethylamino hydrolase* (DDAH), an enzyme that exists in two isoforms, each with a functionally essential reactive cysteine residue in the active site that is subject to control by nitrosylation. Inhibition of DDAH by NO causes feedback inhibition of the L-arginine/NO pathway by allowing cytoplasmic accumulation of ADMA. Conversely, activation of DDAH could potentiate the L-arginine/NO pathway; see Figure 20.4.

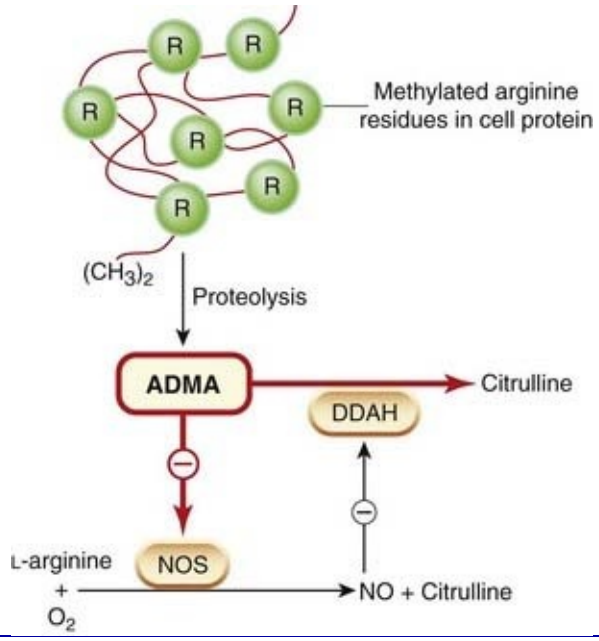


Fig. 20.4 Effect of asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA).

DDAH, dimethylarginine dimethylamino hydrolase; NO, nitric oxide; NOS, nitric oxide synthase.

Infusion of a low dose of L-NMMA into the brachial artery causes local vasoconstriction (Fig. 20.5), owing to inhibition of the basal production of NO in the infused arm, probably by inhibiting nNOS (Seddon et al., 2008), without influencing blood pressure or causing other systemic effects, whereas intravenous L-NMMA causes vasoconstriction in renal, mesenteric, cerebral and striated muscle resistance vessels, increases blood pressure and causes reflex bradycardia.

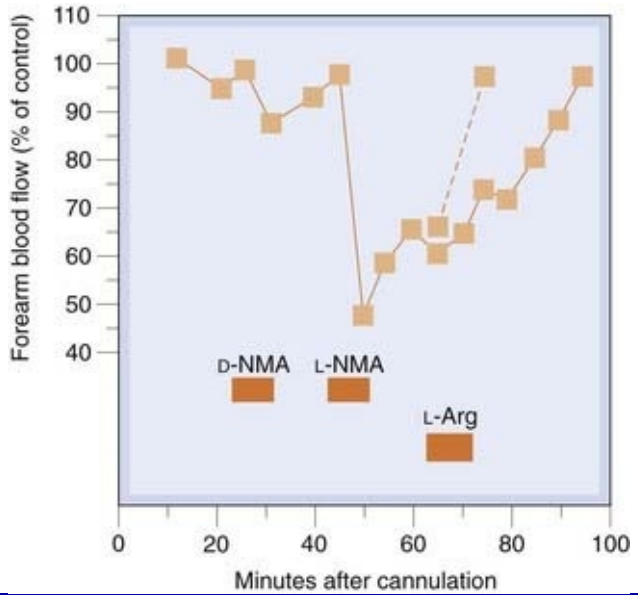


Fig. 20.5 Basal blood flow in the human forearm is influenced by nitric oxide (NO) biosynthesis.

Forearm blood flow is expressed as a percentage of the flow in the non-cannulated control arm (which does not change). Brachial artery infusion of the D-isomer of the arginine analogue N^G-monomethyl-L-arginine (D-NMA) has no effect, while the L-isomer (L-NMA) causes vasoconstriction. L-Arginine (L-Arg) accelerates recovery from such vasoconstriction (dashed line).

(From Vallance et al. 1989 Lancet ii: 997–1000.)

There is therapeutic interest in selective inhibitors of different isoforms of NOS. Selective inhibitors of iNOS versus the two constitutive forms have been described (e.g. *N*-iminoethyl-L-lysine), and have potential for the treatment of inflammatory and other conditions in which iNOS has been implicated (e.g. asthma). 7-Nitroindazole selectively inhibits nNOS, the mechanism of selectivity being uncertain. *S*-methyl-L-thiocitrulline is a potent and selective inhibitor of human nNOS (Furfine et al., 1994), and has recently provided new understanding of the importance of nNOS in control of human resistance vessel tone in vivo (Seddon et al., 2008, 2009).

An endogenous protein inhibitor of nNOS (termed *PIN*) works by an

entirely different mechanism, namely destabilising the NOS dimer (Jaffrey & Snyder, 1996).

Inhibition of the Larginine/nitric oxide pathway

• Glucocorticoids inhibit biosynthesis of inducible (but not constitutive) nitric oxide synthase (NOS).

• Synthetic arginine analogues (e.g. L-NMMA, L-NAME; see text) compete with arginine and are useful experimental tools.

• Endogenous NOS inhibitors include ADMA (see text) and PIN (a protein that inhibits NOS dimerisation).

• Isoform-selective inhibitors include *S*-methyl-L-thiocitrulline (selective for nNOS).

Potentiation of Nitric Oxide

Several means whereby the L-arginine/NO pathway could be enhanced are under investigation. Some of these rely on existing drugs of proven value in other contexts. The hope (as yet unproven) is that, by potentiating NO, they will prevent atherosclerosis or its thrombotic complications or have other beneficial effects attributed to NO. Possibilities include:

• selective NO donors as 'replacement' therapy (see above)

• dietary supplementation with L-arginine (see above)

• antioxidants (to reduce concentrations of reactive oxygen species and hence stabilise NO; Ch. 22)

• drugs that restore endothelial function in patients with metabolic risk factors for vascular disease (e.g. angiotensin-converting enzyme

inhibitors, statins, insulin, oestrogens; Chs 22, 23, 30 and 34)

• β_2-adrenoceptor agonists and related drugs (e.g. **nebivolol**, a β_1-adrenoceptor antagonist that is metabolised to an active metabolite that activates the L-arginine/NO pathway)

• phosphodiesterase type V inhibitors (e.g. **sildenafil**; see above and Ch. 34).

Clinical Conditions in Which Nitric Oxide May Play A Part

The wide distribution of NOS enzymes and diverse actions of NO suggest that abnormalities in the L-arginine/NO pathway could be important in disease. Either increased or reduced production could play a part, and hypotheses abound. Evidence is harder to come by but has been sought using various indirect approaches, including:

• analysing nitrate and/or cGMP in urine: these studies are bedevilled, respectively, by dietary nitrate and by membrane-bound guanylyl cyclase (which is stimulated by endogenous natriuretic peptides; see Ch. 21)

• a considerable refinement is to administer [^{15}N]-arginine and use mass spectrometry to measure the enrichment of ^{15}N over naturally abundant [^{14}N]-nitrate in urine

• measuring NO in exhaled air

• measuring effects of NOS inhibitors (e.g. L-NMMA)

• comparing responses to endothelium-dependent agonists (e.g. **acetylcholine**) and endothelium-independent agonists (e.g.

nitroprusside)

• measuring responses to increased blood flow ('flow-mediated dilatation'), which are largely mediated by NO

• studying histochemical appearances and pharmacological responses in vitro of tissue obtained at operation (e.g. coronary artery surgery).

All these methods have limitations, and the dust is far from settled. Nevertheless, it seems clear that the L-arginine/NO pathway is indeed a player in the pathogenesis of several important diseases, opening the way to new therapeutic approaches. Some pathological roles of excessive or reduced NO production are summarised in Table 20.1. We touch only briefly on these clinical conditions, and would caution the reader that not all of these exciting possibilities are likely to withstand the test of time!

Nitric oxide in pathophysiology

• Nitric oxide (NO) is synthesised under physiological and pathological circumstances.

• Either reduced or increased NO production can contribute to disease.

• Underproduction of neuronal NO is reported in babies with hypertrophic pyloric stenosis. Endothelial NO production is reduced in patients with hypercholesterolaemia and some other risk factors for atherosclerosis, and this may contribute to atherogenesis.

• Overproduction of NO may be important in neurodegenerative diseases (see Ch. 39) and in septic shock (Ch. 22).

Sepsis can cause multiple organ failure. Whereas NO benefits host defence by killing invading organisms, excessive NO causes harmful hypotension. Disappointingly, however, L-NMMA worsened survival in

one controlled clinical trial. Chronic low-grade endotoxaemia occurs in patients with *hepatic cirrhosis*. Systemic vasodilatation is typical in such patients. Urinary excretion of cGMP is increased, and vasodilatation may be a consequence of induction of NOS leading to increased NO synthesis. Nitrosative stress and nitration of proteins in airway epithelium may contribute to steroid resistance in *asthma*, and the ineffectiveness of glucocorticoids in *chronic obstructive pulmonary disease* (see Ch. 27).

Nitric oxide biosynthesis is reduced in patients with *hypercholesterolaemia* and some other disorders that predispose to atheromatous vascular disease, including cigarette smoking and diabetes mellitus. In hypercholesterolaemia, evidence of blunted NO release in forearm and coronary vascular beds is supported by evidence that this can be corrected by lowering plasma cholesterol (with a statin; see Ch. 24) or by dietary supplementation with L-arginine.

Endothelial dysfunction in diabetic patients with *erectile dysfunction* occurs in tissue from the corpora cavernosum of the penis, as evidenced by blunted relaxation to acetylcholine despite preserved responses to nitroprusside (Fig. 20.6). Vasoconstrictor responses to intra-arterial L-NMMA are reduced in forearm vasculature of insulin-dependent diabetics, especially in patients with traces of albumin in their urine (‘microalbuminuria’: early evidence of glomerular endothelial dysfunction), suggesting that basal NO synthesis may be reduced throughout their circulation.

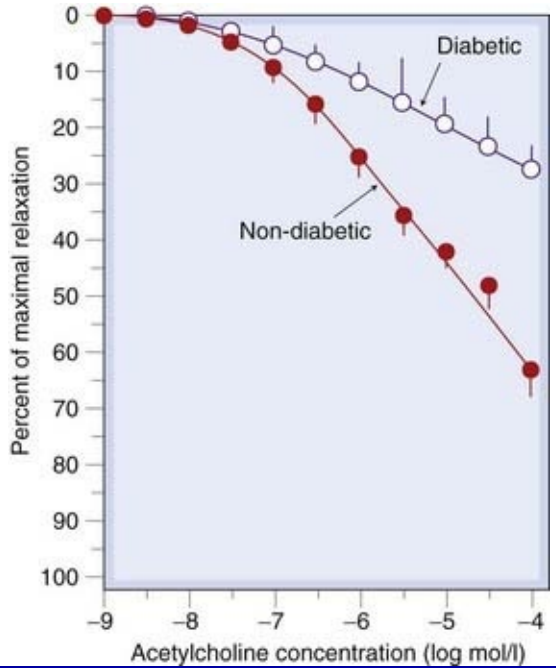


Fig. 20.6 Impaired endothelium-mediated relaxation of penile smooth muscle from diabetic men with erectile dysfunction.

Mean (± SE) relaxation responses to acetylcholine in corpora cavernosa tissue (obtained at the time of performing surgical implants to treat impotence) from 16 diabetic men and 22 non-diabetic subjects.

(Data from Saenz de Tejada et al. 1989 N Engl J Med 320: 1025–1030.)

It is thought that failure to increase endogenous NO biosynthesis normally during pregnancy contributes to *eclampsia*. This is a hypertensive disorder that accounts for many maternal deaths and in which the normal vasodilatation seen in healthy pregnancy is lost.

Excessive NMDA receptor activation increases NO synthesis, which contributes to several forms of neurological damage (see Ch. 39). nNOS is absent in pyloric tissue from babies with idiopathic hypertrophic pyloric stenosis.

Established clinical uses of drugs that influence the L-arginine/NO system are summarised in the clinical box.

Nitric oxide in therapeutics

• Nitric oxide (NO) donors (e.g. **nitroprusside** and **organic nitrovasodilators**) are well established (see Chs. 21 and 22).

• Type V phosphodiesterase inhibitors (e.g. **sildenafil**, **tadalafil**) potentiate the action of NO. They are used to treat erectile dysfunction (Ch. 34).

• Other possible uses (e.g. pulmonary hypertension, gastric stasis) are being investigated.

• Inhaled NO is used in adult and neonatal respiratory distress syndrome.

• Inhibition of NO biosynthesis is being investigated in disorders where there is overproduction of NO (e.g. inflammation and neurodegenerative disease). Disappointingly, L-NMMA increases mortality in one such condition (sepsis).

References and Further Reading

Biochemical aspects

ellamy T.C., Wood J., Goodwin D.A., Garthwaite J. Rapid desensitization of the nitric oxide receptor, soluble guanylyl cyclase, underlies diversity of cellular cGMP responses. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.*. 2000;97:2928-2933. *In its natural environment, soluble guanylyl cyclase behaves much more like a neurotransmitter receptor than had been expected from previous enzymological studies; rapid desensitisation is likely to be important under physiological conditions*

ulton D., Fontana J., Sowa G., *et al.* Localization of endothelial nitric-oxide synthase phosphorylated on serine 1179 and nitric oxide in Golgi and plasma membrane defines the existence of two pools of active enzyme. *J. Biol. Chem.*. 2002;277:4277-4284. *Activated, phosphorylated eNOS resides in caveolin-enriched plasmalemma and Golgi membranes; both pools are VEGF-regulated to produce NO*

urfine E.S., Harmon M.F., Paith J.E., *et al.* Potent and selective inhibition of human nitric oxide synthases: selective inhibition of neuronal nitric oxide synthase by *S*-methyl-L-thiocitrulline and *S*-ethyl-L-thiocitrulline. *J. Biol. Chem.*. 1994;269:26677-26683.

ess D.T., Matsumoto A., Kim S.O., *et al.* Protein *S*-nitrosylation: purview and parameters. *Nature Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2005;6:150-166.

affrey S.R., Snyder S. PIN: an associated protein inhibitor of neuronal nitric oxide synthase. *Science*. 1996;274:774-777. *Works by destabilising the nNOS dimer*

im-Shapiro D.B., Schechter A.N., Gladwin M.T. Unraveling the reactions of nitric oxide, nitrite, and hemoglobin in physiology and therapeutics. *Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol.*. 2006;26:697-705. *Reviews recent evidence that nitrite anion may be the main intravascular NO storage molecule; cf. Singel & Stamler, 2005, below*

rumenacker J., Hanafy K.A., Murad F. Regulation of nitric oxide and soluble guanylyl cyclase. *Brain Res. Bull.*. 2004;62:505-515.

ee J., Ryu H., Ferrante R.J., *et al.* Translational control of inducible nitric oxide synthase expression by arginine can explain the arginine paradox. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 2003;100:4843-4848. *Inhibition of NOS activity by arginine depletion in stimulated astrocyte cultures occurs via inhibition of translation of iNOS mRNA, and provides one explanation for the 'arginine paradox' while indicating a distinct mechanism by which substrate can regulate the activity of its associated enzyme*

iu J., Garcia-Cardena G., Sessa W.C. Palmitoylation of endothelial nitric oxide synthase is necessary for optimal stimulated release of nitric oxide: implications for caveolae localization. *Biochemistry*. 1996;35:13277-13281. *N-Myristoylation of eNOS is necessary for its association and targeting into the Golgi complex, whereas palmitoylation influences its targeting to caveolae*

Iatsubara M., Hayashi N., Jing T., Titani K. Regulation of endothelial nitric oxide synthase by protein kinase C. *J. Biochem.*. 2003;133:773-781. *Protein kinase C inhibits eNOS activity by changing the binding of calmodulin to the enzyme*

awloski J.R., Hess D.T., Stamler J.S. Export by red cells of nitric oxide bioactivity. *Nature*. 2001;409:622-626. *Movement of NO from red blood cells via anion exchange protein AE1; see also editorial by Gross, S.S. pp. 577–578*

ibiero J.M.C., Hazzard J.M.H., Nussenzveig R.H., *et al.* Reversible binding of nitric oxide by a salivary haem protein from a blood sucking insect. *Science*. 1993;260:539-541. *Action at a distance*

chechter A.N., Gladwyn M.T. Hemoglobin and the paracrine and endocrine functions of nitric oxide. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2003;348:1483-1485. *See also dissenting correspondence in New Engl. J Med. 394, 402–406*

haul P.W. Regulation of endothelial nitric oxide synthase: location, location, location. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*. 2002;64:749-774.

ingel D.J., Stamler J.S. Chemical physiology of blood flow regulation by red blood cells: the role of nitric oxide and *S*-nitrosohemoglobin. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*. 2005;67:99-145.

tuehr D.J., Santolini J., Wang Z.Q., *et al.* Update on mechanism and catalytic regulation in the NO synthases. *J. Biol. Chem.*. 2004;279:36167-36170.

u W.M., Charles I.G., Moncada S. Nitric oxide: orchestrating hypoxia regulation through mitochondrial respiration and the endoplasmic reticulum stress response. *Cell Res.*. 2005;15:63-65.

Physiological aspects

hiavegatto S., Nelson R.J. Interaction of nitric oxide and serotonin in aggressive behavior. *Horm. Behav.*. 2003;44:233-241. '*NO appears to play an important role in normal brain 5-HT function and may have significant implications for the treatment of psychiatric disorders characterised by aggressive and impulsive behaviors.*'

oggins M.P., Bloch K.D. Nitric oxide in the pulmonary vasculature. *Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol.*. 2007;27:1877-1885.

iesen D.L., Hess D.T., Stamler J.S. Hypoxic vasodilation by red blood cells evidence for an *S*-nitrosothiol-based signal Circ. Res. 103:2008:545-553 *Untreated human red blood cells [RBCs] relax thoracic aorta at low* P*O2 but not at high* P*O2. Relaxation is largely endothelium independent and unaffected by NO synthase inhibition or nitrite. Robust relaxations by RBCs are elicited in the absence of endothelial, neuronal or inducible NO synthase. The results suggest that an S-nitrosothiol originating from RBCs mediates hypoxic vasodilatation by RBCs*

rusalimsky J.D., Moncada S. Nitric oxide and mitochondrial signaling from physiology to pathophysiology Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol. 27:2007:2524-2531 *Reviews the evidence that binding of NO to cytochrome* c *oxidase elicits intracellular signalling events*

urchgott R.F., Zawadzki J.V. The obligatory role of endothelial cells in the relaxation of arterial smooth muscle by acetylcholine. *Nature*. 1980;288:373-376. *Classic*

elson R.J., Demas G.E., Huang P.L., *et al.* Behavioural abnormalities in male mice lacking neuronal nitric oxide synthase. *Nature*. 1995;378:383-386. '*A large increase in aggressive behaviour and excess, inappropriate sexual behaviour in nNOS knockout mice*'

eddon M.D., Chowienczyk P.J., Brett S.E., *et al.* Neuronal nitric oxide synthase regulates basal microvascular tone in humans in vivo. *Circulation*. 2008;117:1991-1996. *Paradigm shift?—very possibly; see next reference*

eddon M., Melikian N., Dworakowski R., *et al.* Effects of neuronal nitric oxide synthase on human coronary artery diameter and blood flow in vivo. *Circulation*. 2009;119:2656-2662. *Local nNOS-derived NO regulates basal blood flow in the human coronary vascular bed, whereas substance P-stimulated vasodilatation is eNOS mediated*

oda N., Okamura T. The pharmacology of nitric oxide in the peripheral nervous system of blood vessels. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2003;55:271-324.

allance P., Leiper J. Cardiovascular biology of the asymmetric dimethylarginine:dimethylarginine dimethylaminohydrolase pathway. *Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol.*. 2004;24:1023-1030.

ictor V.M., Núñez C., D'Ocón P., et al Regulation of oxygen distribution in tissues by endothelial nitric oxide Circ. Res. 104:2009:1178-1183 *Endogenously released endothelial NO inhibits cytochrome* c *oxidase and can modulate tissue O_2 consumption and regulates O_2 distribution to the surrounding tissues*

Pathological aspects

oger R.H., Tsikas D., Bode-Boger S.M., *et al.* Hypercholesterolemia impairs basal nitric oxide synthase turnover rate: a study investigating the conversion of L-[guanidino-$^{15}N_2$]-arginine to N-15-labeled nitrate by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry. *Nitric Oxide Biol. Chem.*. 2004;11:1-8. *The mechanism of impaired NOS activity in hypercholesterolaemia most likely involves inhibition of NOS by ADMA*

icciardolo F.L.M., Sterk P.J., Gaston B., *et al.* Nitric oxide in health and disease of the respiratory system. *Physiol. Rev.*. 2004;84:731-765.

haul P.W. Endothelial nitric oxide synthase, caveolae and the development of atherosclerosis. *J. Physiol. (Lond)*. 2003;547:21-33. *oxLDL displaces eNOS from caveolae by binding to endothelial cell CD36 receptors and by depleting caveolae cholesterol content, resulting in the disruption of eNOS activation; the adverse effects of oxLDL are prevented by high-density lipoprotein and could be involved in early phases of atherogenesis*

Clinical and therapeutic aspects

riffiths M.J.D., Evans T.W. Drug therapy: inhaled nitric oxide therapy in adults. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;353:2683-2695. *Concludes that, on the available evidence, inhaled NO is not effective in patients with acute lung injury, but that it may be useful as a short-term measure in acute hypoxia ± pulmonary hypertension*

Ialmström R.E., Törnberg D.C., Settergren G., *et al.* Endogenous nitric oxide release by vasoactive drugs monitored in exhaled air. *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.*. 2003;168:114-120. *In humans, acetylcholine evokes a dose-dependent increase of NO in exhaled air; NO release by vasoactive agonists can be measured online in the exhaled air of pigs and humans*

Iiller M.R., Megson I.L. Review—Recent developments in nitric oxide donor drugs. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2007;151:305-321. *Explores some of the more promising recent advances in NO donor drug development and challenges associated with NO as a therapeutic agent*

Ioya M.P., Gow A.J., Califf R.M., *et al.* Inhaled ethyl nitrite gas for persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn. *Lancet.* 2002;360:141-143. *'Ethyl nitrite can improve oxygenation and systemic haemodynamics in neonates, and seems to reduce rebound hypoxaemia and production of toxic byproducts'*

awloski J.R., Hess D.T., Stamler J.S. Impaired vasodilation by red blood cells in sickle cell disease Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 102:2005:2531-2536 *Sickle red cells are deficient in membrane* S-*nitrosothiol and impaired in their ability to mediate hypoxic vasodilation; the magnitudes of these impairments correlate with the clinical severity of disease*

/ebb A.J., Patel N., Loukogeorgakis S., *et al.* Acute blood pressure lowering, vasoprotective, and antiplatelet properties of dietary nitrate via bioconversion to nitrite. *Hypertension.* 2008;51:784-790.

Section 3
Drugs affecting major organ systems

21

The heart

Overview

In this chapter, we review briefly the physiology of cardiac function in terms of electrophysiology, of contraction, of oxygen consumption and coronary blood flow, of autonomic control and as a source of peptide hormones. This provides a basis for understanding effects of drugs on the heart and their place in treating cardiac disease. The main drugs considered are drugs that act directly on the heart, namely antidysrhythmic drugs and drugs that increase the force of contraction of the heart (especially digoxin); antianginal drugs are also covered in this chapter. The commonest forms of heart disease are caused by atheroma in the coronary arteries, and thrombosis on ruptured atheromatous plaques; drugs to treat and prevent these are considered in Chapters 23 and 24. Heart failure is mainly treated by drugs that work indirectly on the heart via actions on vascular smooth muscle, discussed in Chapter 22, by diuretics (Ch. 28) and β-adrenoceptor antagonists (Ch. 14).

Introduction

In this chapter, we consider effects of drugs on the heart under three main headings:

1 Rate and rhythm.

2 Myocardial contraction.

3 Metabolism and blood flow.

The effects of drugs on these aspects of cardiac function are not, of course, independent of each other. For example, if a drug affects the electrical properties of the myocardial cell membrane, it is likely to influence both cardiac rhythm and myocardial contraction. Similarly, a drug that affects contraction will inevitably alter metabolism and blood flow as well. Nevertheless, from a therapeutic point of view, these three classes of effect represent distinct clinical objectives in relation to the treatment, respectively, of cardiac dysrhythmias, cardiac failure and coronary insufficiency (as occurs during angina pectoris or myocardial infarction).

Physiology of Cardiac Function

Cardiac Rate and Rhythm

The chambers of the heart normally contract in a coordinated manner, pumping blood efficiently by a route determined by the valves. Coordination of contraction is achieved by a specialised conducting system. Physiological sinus rhythm is characterised by impulses arising in the sinoatrial (SA) node and conducted in sequence through the atria, the atrioventricular (AV) node, bundle of His, Purkinje fibres and ventricles. Cardiac cells owe their electrical excitability to voltage-sensitive plasma membrane channels selective for various ions, including Na^+, K^+ and Ca^{2+}, the structure and function of which are described in Chapter 4. Electrophysiological features of cardiac muscle that distinguish it from other excitable tissues include:

• pacemaker activity

- absence of fast Na^+ current in SA and AV nodes, where slow inward Ca^{2+} current initiates action potentials
- long action potential ('plateau') and refractory period
- influx of Ca^{2+} during the plateau.

Thus several of the special features of cardiac rhythm relate to Ca^{2+} currents. The heart contains *intracellular* calcium channels (i.e. ryanodine receptors and inositol trisphosphate-activated calcium channels described in Ch. 4, which are important in myocardial contraction) and voltage-dependent calcium channels in the plasma membrane, which are important in controlling cardiac rate and rhythm. The main type of voltage-dependent calcium channel in adult working myocardium is the L-type channel, which is also important in vascular smooth muscle; L-type channels are important in specialised conducting regions as well as in working myocardium.

The action potential of an idealised cardiac muscle cell is shown in Figure 21.1A and is divided into five phases: 0 (fast depolarisation), 1 (partial repolarisation), 2 (plateau), 3 (repolarisation) and 4 (pacemaker).

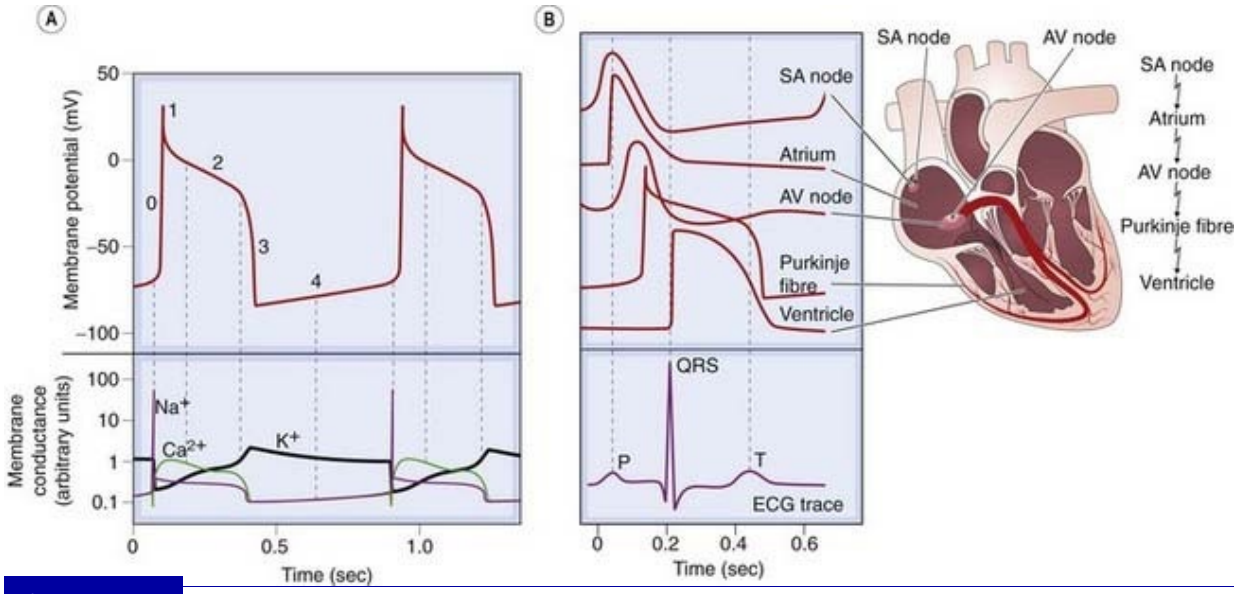


Fig. 21.1 The cardiac action potential.

[**A**] Phases of the action potential: 0, rapid depolarisation; 1, partial repolarisation; 2, plateau; 3, repolarisation; 4, pacemaker depolarisation. The lower panel shows the accompanying changes in membrane conductance for Na^+, K^+ and Ca^{2+}. [**B**] Conduction of the impulse through the heart, with the corresponding electrocardiogram (ECG) trace. Note that the longest delay occurs at the atrioventricular (AV) node, where the action potential has a characteristically slow waveform. SA, sinoatrial.

*(Adapted from: [**A**] Noble D 1975 The initiation of the heartbeat. Oxford University Press, Oxford.)*

▼ Ionic mechanisms underlying these phases can be summarised as follows.

Phase 0, rapid depolarisation, occurs when the membrane potential reaches a critical firing threshold (about −60 mV), at which the inward current of Na^+ flowing through the voltage-dependent sodium channels becomes large enough to produce a regenerative (‘all-or-nothing’) depolarisation. This mechanism is the same as that responsible for action potential generation in neurons (see Ch. 4). Activation of sodium channels by membrane depolarisation is transient, and if the membrane remains depolarised for more than a few milliseconds, they close again (inactivation). They are therefore closed during the plateau of the action

potential and remain unavailable for the initiation of another action potential until the membrane repolarises.

Phase 1, *partial repolarisation*, occurs as the Na^+ current is inactivated. There may also be a transient voltage-sensitive outward current.

Phase 2, the *plateau*, results from an inward Ca^{2+} current. Calcium channels show a pattern of voltage-sensitive activation and inactivation qualitatively similar to sodium channels, but with a much slower time course. The plateau is assisted by a special property of the cardiac muscle membrane known as inward-going rectification, which means that the K^+ conductance falls to a low level when the membrane is depolarised. Because of this, there is little tendency for outward K^+ current to restore the resting membrane potential during the plateau, so a relatively small inward Ca^{2+} current suffices to maintain the plateau.

Phase 3, *repolarisation*, occurs as the Ca^{2+} current inactivates and a delayed outwardly rectifying K^+ current (analogous to, but much slower than, the K^+ current that causes repolarisation in nerve fibres; Ch. 4) activates, causing outward K^+ current. This is augmented by another K^+ current, which is activated by high intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ during the plateau, and sometimes also by other K^+ currents, including one through channels activated by acetylcholine (see below) and another that is activated by arachidonic acid, which is liberated under pathological conditions such as myocardial infarction.

Phase 4, the *pacemaker potential*, is a gradual depolarisation during diastole. Pacemaker activity is normally found only in nodal and conducting tissue. The pacemaker potential is caused by a combination of increasing inward currents and declining outward currents during diastole. It is usually most rapid in cells of the SA node, which therefore acts as pacemaker for the whole heart. Cells in the SA node have a

greater background conductance to Na^+ than do atrial or ventricular myocytes, leading to a greater background inward current. In addition, inactivation of voltage-dependent calcium channels wears off during diastole, resulting in increasing inward Ca^{2+} current during late diastole. Activation of T-type calcium channels during late diastole contributes to pacemaker activity in the SA node. The negative membrane potential early in diastole activates a cation channel that is permeable to Na^+ and K^+, giving rise to another inward current, called I_f.[1] An inhibitor of this current, **ivabradine**, slows the heart and is used therapeutically (see below).

[1]'f' for 'funny', because it is unusual for cation channels to be activated by hyperpolarisation; electrophysiologists have a peculiar sense of humour!

Several voltage-and time-dependent outward currents play a part as well: delayed rectifier K^+ current (I_K), which is activated during the action potential, is turned off by the negative membrane potential early in diastole. Current from the electrogenic Na^+/K^+ pump also contributes to the outward current during the pacemaker potential.

Figure 21.1B shows the action potential configuration in different parts of the heart. Phase 0 is absent in the nodal regions, where the conduction velocity is correspondingly slow (~5 cm/s) compared with other regions such as the Purkinje fibres (conduction velocity ~200 cm/s), which propagate the action potential rapidly to the ventricles. Regions that lack a fast inward current have a much longer refractory period than fast-conducting regions. This is because recovery of the slow inward current following its inactivation during the action potential takes a considerable time (a few hundred milliseconds), and the refractory period outlasts the action potential. With fast-conducting fibres, inactivation of the Na^+ current recovers rapidly, and the cell

becomes excitable again almost as soon as it is repolarised.

The orderly pattern of sinus rhythm can be disrupted either by heart disease or by the action of drugs or circulating hormones, and an important therapeutic use of drugs is to restore a normal cardiac rhythm where it has become disturbed. The commonest cause of cardiac dysrhythmia is ischaemic heart disease, and many deaths following myocardial infarction result from *ventricular fibrillation* ('fibrillation' is a state where heart chambers stop contracting in a coordinated way because of chaotic electrical activity; instead, the affected heart chambers 'fibrillate'—rapid uncoordinated contractions within ventricles or atria that are visible to the naked eye but do not support output from the affected chambers) rather than directly from contractile failure.

Disturbances of Cardiac Rhythm

Clinically, dysrhythmias are classified according to:

- the site of origin of the abnormality—atrial, junctional or ventricular
- whether the rate is increased (*tachycardia*) or decreased (*bradycardia*).

They may cause palpitations (awareness of the heartbeat) or symptoms from cerebral hypoperfusion (faintness or loss of consciousness). Their diagnosis depends on the surface electrocardiogram (ECG), and details are beyond the scope of this book—see Braunwald & Opie (2001). The commonest types of tachyarrhythmia are *atrial fibrillation*, where the heartbeat is completely irregular, and *supraventricular tachycardia* (SVT), where the heartbeat is rapid but regular. Occasional ectopic beats (ventricular as well as supraventricular) are common. Sustained ventricular tachyarrhythmias are much less common but much more serious; they include *ventricular tachycardia*, and *ventricular fibrillation* where the electrical activity in the ventricles is completely chaotic and

cardiac output ceases. Bradyarrhythmias include various kinds of *heart block* (e.g. at the AV or SA node) and complete cessation of electrical activity (‘*asystolic arrest*’). It is often unclear which of the various mechanisms discussed below are responsible. These cellular mechanisms nevertheless provide a useful starting point for understanding how antidysrhythmic drugs work. Four basic phenomena underlie disturbances of cardiac rhythm:

1 Delayed after-depolarisation.

2 Re-entry.

3 Ectopic pacemaker activity.

4 Heart block.

The main cause of delayed after-depolarisation is abnormally raised $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, which triggers inward current and hence a train of abnormal action potentials (Fig. 21.2). After-depolarisation is the result of a net inward current, known as the transient inward current. A rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ activates Na^+/Ca^{2+} exchange. This transfers one Ca^{2+} ion out of the cell in exchange for entry of three Na^+ ions, resulting in a net influx of one positive charge and hence membrane depolarisation. Additionally, raised $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ opens non-selective cation channels in the plasma membrane, causing depolarisation analogous to the endplate potential at the neuromuscular junction (Ch. 13). Consequently, hypercalcaemia (which increases the entry of Ca^{2+}) promotes after-depolarisation. Hypokalaemia also influences repolarisation,via an effect on the gating of cardiac delayed rectifier potassium channels. Many drugs, including ones whose principal effects are on other organs, delay cardiac repolarisation by binding to potassium or other cardiac channels or by influencing electrolyte concentrations (see Roden, 2004). Delayed

repolarisation increases Ca^{2+} entry during the prolonged action potential, leading to after-depolarisation. Prolongation of the QT interval, which carries a risk of causing dangerous ventricular dysrhythmias, is a concern in drug development (see section below, Class III drugs, and see Ch. 57).

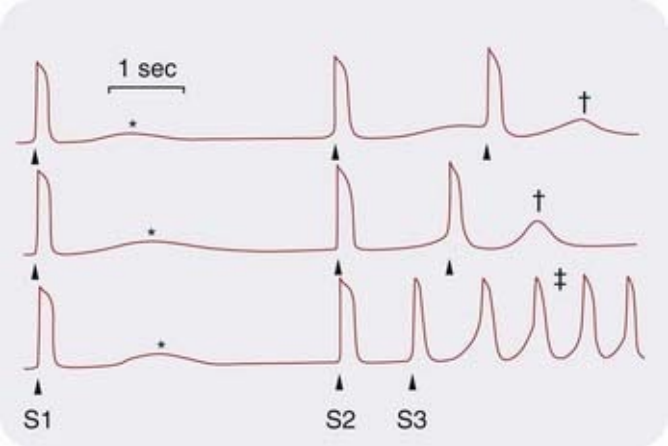


Fig. 21.2 After-depolarisation in cardiac muscle recorded from a dog coronary sinus in the presence of noradrenaline (norepinephrine).

The first stimulus (S1) causes an action potential followed by a small after-depolarisation. As the interval S2–S3 is decreased, the after-depolarisation gets larger (†) until it triggers an indefinite train of action potentials (‡).

(Adapted from Wit A L, Cranefield P F 1977 Circ Res 41: 435.)

Normally, a cardiac action potential dies out after it has activated the ventricles because it is surrounded by refractory tissue, which it has just traversed. Re-entry (Fig. 21.3) describes a situation in which the impulse re-excites regions of the myocardium after the refractory period has subsided, causing continuous circulation of action potentials. It can result from anatomical anomalies or, more commonly, from myocardial damage. Re-entry underlies many types of dysrhythmia, the pattern depending on the site of the re-entrant circuit, which may be in the atria, ventricles or nodal tissue. A simple ring of tissue can give rise to a re-entrant rhythm if a transient or unidirectional conduction block is

present. Normally, an impulse originating at any point in the ring will propagate in both directions and die out when the two impulses meet, but if a damaged area causes either a transient block (so that one impulse is blocked but the second can get through; Fig. 21.3) or a unidirectional block, continuous circulation of the impulse can occur. This is known as *circus movement* and was demonstrated experimentally on rings of jellyfish tissue many years ago.

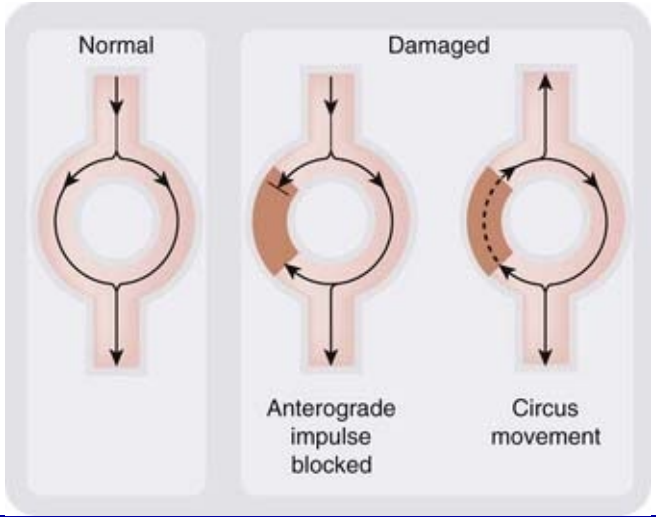


Fig. 21.3 Generation of a re-entrant rhythm by a damaged area of myocardium.
The damaged area (brown) conducts in one direction only. This disturbs the normal pattern of conduction and permits continuous circulation of the impulse to occur.

Although the physiological pacemaker resides in the SA node, other cardiac tissues can take on pacemaker activity. This provides a safety mechanism in the event of failure of the SA node but can also trigger tachyarrhythmias. Ectopic pacemaker activity is encouraged by sympathetic activity and by partial depolarisation, which may occur during ischaemia. Catecholamines, acting on β_1 adrenoceptors (see below), increase the rate of depolarisation during phase 4 and can cause normally quiescent parts of the heart to take on a spontaneous rhythm. Several tachyarrhythmias (e.g. paroxysmal atrial fibrillation) can be

triggered by circumstances associated with increased sympathetic activity. Pain (e.g. during myocardial infarction) increases sympathetic discharge and releases adrenaline (epinephrine) from the adrenal gland. Partial depolarisation resulting from ischaemic damage also causes abnormal pacemaker activity.

Heart block results from fibrosis of, or ischaemic damage to, the conducting system (often in the AV node). In complete heart block, the atria and ventricles beat independently of one another, the ventricles beating at a slow rate determined by whatever pacemaker picks up distal to the block. Sporadic complete failure of AV conduction causes sudden periods of unconsciousness (Stokes–Adams attacks) and is treated by implanting an artificial pacemaker.

Cardiac dysrhythmias

• Dysrhythmias arise because of:

  – delayed after-depolarisation, which triggers ectopic beats

  – re-entry, resulting from partial conduction block

  – ectopic pacemaker activity

  – heart block.

• Delayed after-depolarisation is caused by an inward current associated with abnormally raised intracellular Ca^{2+}.

• Re-entry is facilitated when parts of the myocardium are depolarised as a result of disease.

• Ectopic pacemaker activity is encouraged by sympathetic activity.

• Heart block results from disease in the conducting system, especially the atrioventricular node.

• Clinically, dysrhythmias are divided:

– according to their site of origin (supraventricular and ventricular)

– according to whether the heart rate is increased or decreased (tachycardia or bradycardia).

Cardiac Contraction

Cardiac output is the product of heart rate and mean left ventricular stroke volume (i.e. the volume of blood ejected from the ventricle with each heartbeat). Heart rate is controlled by the autonomic nervous system (Chs 13 and 14, and see below). Stroke volume is determined by a combination of factors, including some intrinsic to the heart itself and other haemodynamic factors extrinsic to the heart. Intrinsic factors regulate myocardial contractility via $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and ATP, and are sensitive to various drugs and pathological processes. Extrinsic circulatory factors include the elasticity and contractile state of arteries and veins, and the volume and viscosity of the blood, which together determine cardiac load (preload and afterload). Drugs that influence these circulatory factors are of paramount importance in treating patients with heart failure. They are covered in Chapter 22.

Myocardial Contractility and Viability

The contractile machinery of myocardial striated muscle is basically the same as that of voluntary striated muscle (Ch. 4). It involves binding of Ca^{2+} to troponin C; this changes the conformation of the troponin complex, permitting cross-bridging of myosin to actin and initiating contraction. **Levosimendan** (a drug used to treat acute decompensated heart failure; Ch. 22), increases the force of contraction of the heart by binding troponin C and sensitising it to the action of Ca^{2+}.

Many effects of drugs on cardiac contractility can be explained in terms of actions on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, via effects on calcium channels in plasma membrane or sarcoplasmic reticulum, or on the Na^+/K^+ pump, which

indirectly influences the Na^+/Ca^{2+} pump (see below). Other factors that affect the force of contraction are the availability of oxygen and a source of metabolic energy such as free fatty acids. Myocardial *stunning*—contractile dysfunction that persists after ischaemia and reperfusion despite restoration of blood flow and absence of cardiac necrosis—is incompletely understood but can be clinically important. Its converse is known as *ischaemic preconditioning*; this refers to an improved ability to withstand ischaemia following previous ischaemic episodes. This potentially beneficial state could be clinically important. There is some evidence that it is mediated by *adenosine* (see Ch. 2), which accumulates as ATP is depleted. Exogenous adenosine affords protection similar to that caused by ischaemic preconditioning, and blockade of adenosine receptors prevents the protective effect of preconditioning (see Gross & Auchampach, 2007). There is considerable interest in developing strategies to minimise harmful effects of ischaemia while maximising preconditioning.

Ventricular Function Curves and Heart Failure

The force of contraction of the heart is determined partly by its intrinsic contractility (which, as described above, depends on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and availability of ATP), and partly by extrinsic haemodynamic factors that affect end-diastolic volume and hence the resting length of the muscle fibres. The end-diastolic volume is determined by the end-diastolic pressure, and its effect on stroke work is expressed in the Frank–Starling law of the heart, which reflects an inherent property of the contractile system. The Frank–Starling law can be represented as a ventricular function curve (Fig. 21.4). The area enclosed by the pressure–volume curve during the cardiac cycle provides a measure of ventricular stroke work. It is approximated by the product of stroke volume and mean arterial pressure. As Starling showed, factors extrinsic to the heart affect

its performance in various ways, two patterns of response to increased load being particularly important.

1 Increased cardiac filling pressure (*preload*), whether caused by increased blood volume or by venoconstriction, increases ventricular end-diastolic volume. This increases stroke volume and hence cardiac output and mean arterial pressure. Cardiac work and cardiac oxygen consumption both increase.

2 Resistance vessel vasoconstriction increases *afterload*. End-diastolic volume and hence stroke work are initially unchanged, but constant stroke work in the face of increased vascular resistance causes reduced stroke volume and hence increased end-diastolic volume. This in turn increases stroke work, until a steady state is re-established with increased end-diastolic volume and the same cardiac output as before. As with increased preload, cardiac work and cardiac oxygen consumption both increase.

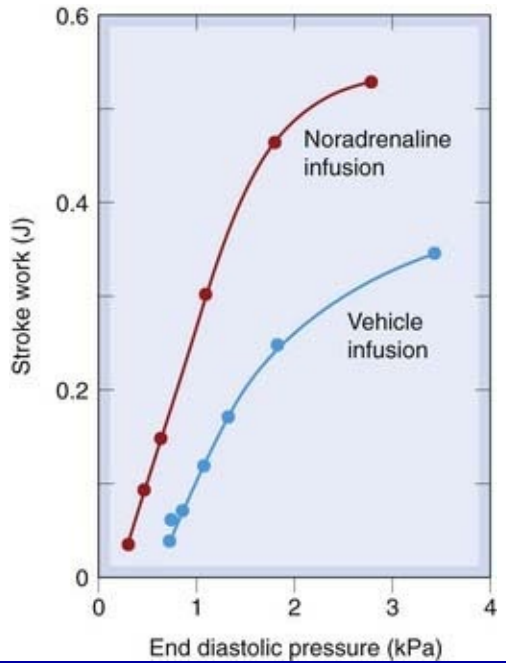


Fig. 21.4 Ventricular function curves in the dog. Infusion of physiological saline increases blood volume and hence end-diastolic pressure.

This increases stroke work ('extrinsic' control) by increasing the force of contraction of the heart. This relationship is called the Starling curve. Noradrenaline has a direct action on the heart ('intrinsic' control), increasing the slope of the Starling curve.

(Redrawn from Sarnoff S J et al. 1960 Circ Res 8: 1108.)

Normal ventricular filling pressure is only a few centimetres of water, on the steep part of the ventricular function curve, so a large increase in stroke work can be achieved with only a small increase in filling pressure. The Starling mechanism plays little part in controlling cardiac output in healthy subjects (e.g. during exercise), because changes in contractility, mainly as a result of changes in sympathetic nervous activity, achieve the necessary regulation without any increase in ventricular filling pressure (Fig. 21.4). In contrast, the denervated heart in patients who have received a heart transplant relies on the Starling mechanism to increase cardiac output during exercise.

In heart failure, the cardiac output is insufficient to meet the needs of the body, initially only when these are increased during exercise but ultimately, as disease progresses, also at rest. It has many causes, most commonly ischaemic heart disease. In patients with heart failure (see Ch. 22), the heart may be unable to deliver as much blood as the tissues require, even when its contractility is increased by sympathetic activity. Under these conditions, the basal (i.e. at rest) ventricular function curve is greatly depressed, and there is insufficient reserve, in the sense of extra contractility that can be achieved by sympathetic activity, to enable cardiac output to be maintained during exercise without a large increase in central venous pressure (Fig. 21.4). Oedema of peripheral tissues (causing swelling of the legs) and the lungs (causing breathlessness) is an important consequence of cardiac failure. It is caused by the increased venous pressure, and retention of Na^+ (see Ch. 22).

Myocardial contraction

• Controlling factors are:

– intrinsic myocardial contractility

– extrinsic circulatory factors.

• Myocardial contractility depends critically on intracellular Ca^{2+}, and hence on:

– Ca^{2+} entry across the cell membrane

– Ca^{2+} storage in the sarcoplasmic reticulum.

• The main factors controlling Ca^{2+} entry are:

– activity of voltage-gated calcium channels

– intracellular Na^{+}, which affects Ca^{2+}/Na^{+} exchange.

• Catecholamines, cardiac glycosides and other mediators and drugs influence these factors.

• Extrinsic control of cardiac contraction is through the dependence of stroke work on the end-diastolic volume, expressed in the Frank–Starling law.

• Cardiac work is affected independently by afterload (i.e. peripheral resistance and arterial compliance) and preload (i.e. central venous pressure).

Myocardial Oxygen Consumption and Coronary Blood Flow

Relative to its large metabolic needs, the heart is one of the most poorly perfused tissues in the body. Coronary flow is, under normal circumstances, closely related to myocardial oxygen consumption, and both change over a nearly 10-fold range between conditions of rest and maximal exercise.

Physiological Factors

The main physiological factors that regulate coronary flow are:

• physical factors

• vascular control by metabolites

• neural and humoral control.

Physical factors

During systole, the pressure exerted by the myocardium on vessels that pass through it equals or exceeds the perfusion pressure, so coronary flow occurs only during diastole. Diastole is shortened more than systole during tachycardia, reducing the period available for myocardial perfusion. During diastole, the effective perfusion pressure is equal to the difference between the aortic and ventricular pressures (Fig. 21.5). If diastolic aortic pressure falls or diastolic ventricular pressure increases, perfusion pressure falls and so (unless other control mechanisms can compensate) does coronary blood flow. Stenosis of the aortic valve reduces aortic pressure but increases left ventricular pressure upstream of the narrowed valve, and often causes ischaemic chest pain (angina) even in the absence of coronary artery disease.

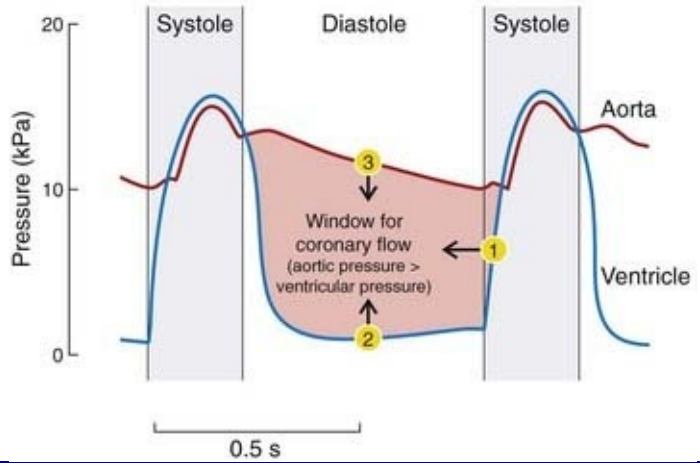


Fig. 21.5 Mechanical factors affecting coronary blood flow.

The 'window' for coronary flow may be encroached on by: (1) shortening diastole, when heart rate increases; (2) increased ventricular end-diastolic pressure; and (3) reduced diastolic arterial

pressure.

Vascular control by metabolites/mediators

Vascular control by metabolites is the most important mechanism by which coronary flow is regulated. A reduction in arterial partial pressure of oxygen (P_{O_2}) causes marked vasodilatation of coronary vessels in situ but has little effect on isolated strips of coronary artery. This suggests that it is a change in the pattern of metabolites produced by the myocardial cells, rather than the change in P_{O_2} per se, that controls the state of the coronary vessels, a popular candidate for the dilator metabolite being *adenosine* (see Ch. 16).

Neural and humoral control

Coronary vessels have a dense sympathetic innervation, but sympathetic nerves (like circulating catecholamines) exert only a small direct effect on the coronary circulation. Large coronary vessels possess α adrenoceptors that mediate vasoconstriction, whereas smaller vessels have β_2 adrenoceptors that have a dilator effect. Coronary vessels are also innervated by purinergic, peptidergic and nitrergic nerves, and basal coronary blood flow in patients with angiographically normal coronary arteries is reduced by about one-third by selective inhibition of nNOS (Seddon et al., 2009). Coronary vascular responses to altered mechanical and metabolic activity during exercise or pathological events overshadow neural and endocrine effects.

Coronary flow, ischaemia and infarction

• The heart has a smaller blood supply in relation to its oxygen consumption than most organs.

• Coronary flow is controlled mainly by:

– physical factors, including transmural pressure during systole

– vasodilator metabolites.

• Autonomic innervation is less important.

• Coronary ischaemia is usually the result of atherosclerosis and causes angina. Sudden ischaemia is usually caused by thrombosis and may result in cardiac infarction.

• Coronary spasm sometimes causes angina (variant angina).

• Cellular Ca^{2+} overload results from ischaemia and may be responsible for:

– cell death

– dysrhythmias.

Autonomic Control of the Heart

The sympathetic and parasympathetic systems (see Chs 12–14) each exert a tonic effect on the heart at rest. They influence each of the aspects of cardiac function that have been discussed above, namely rate and rhythm, myocardial contraction, and myocardial metabolism and blood flow.

Sympathetic System

The main effects of sympathetic activity on the heart are:

• increased force of contraction (positive *inotropic* effect; Fig. 21.6)

• increased heart rate (positive *chronotropic* effect; Fig. 21.7)

• increased *automaticity*

• repolarisation and *restoration of function* following generalised cardiac depolarisation

• reduced cardiac *efficiency* (i.e. oxygen consumption is increased more

than cardiac work).

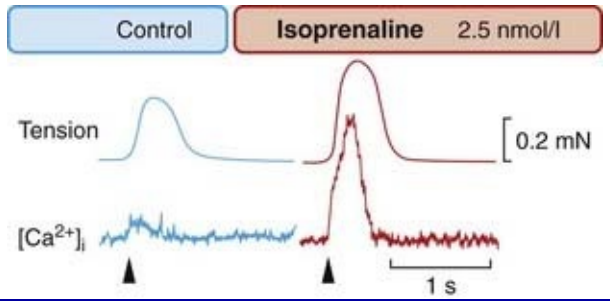


Fig. 21.6 The calcium transient in frog cardiac muscle.

A group of cells was injected with the phosphorescent Ca^{2+} indicator aequorin, which allows $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ to be monitored optically. Isoprenaline causes a large increase in the tension and in the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transient caused by an electrical stimulus (▲).

(From Allen D G, Blinks J R 1978 Nature 273: 509.)

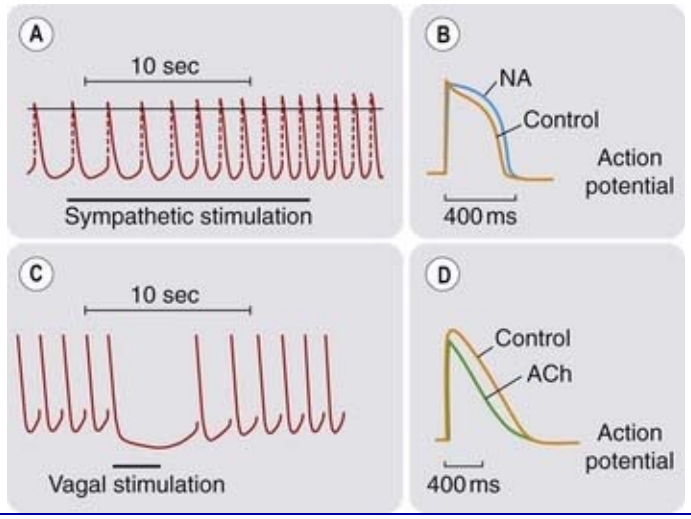


Fig. 21.7 Autonomic regulation of the heartbeat.

[**A**] and [**B**] Effects of sympathetic stimulation and noradrenaline (NA). [**C**] and [**D**] Effects of parasympathetic stimulation and acetylcholine (ACh). Sympathetic stimulation [**A**] increases the slope of the pacemaker potential and increases heart rate, whereas parasympathetic stimulation [**C**] abolishes the pacemaker potential, hyperpolarises the membrane and temporarily stops the heart (frog sinus venosus). NA [**B**] prolongs the action potential, while ACh [**D**] shortens it (frog atrium).

(From: [A] and [C] Hutter O F, Trautwein W 1956 J Gen Physiol 39: 715; [B] Reuter H 1974 J Physiol 242: 429; [D] Giles W R, Noble S J 1976 J Physiol 261: 103.)

These effects all result from activation of β_1-adrenoceptors. The β_1 effects of catecholamines on the heart, although complex, probably all occur through increased intracellular cAMP (see Ch. 3). cAMP activates protein kinase A, which phosphorylates sites on the $\alpha 1$ subunits of calcium channels. This increases the probability that the channels will open, increasing inward Ca^{2+} current and hence force of cardiac contraction (Fig. 21.6). Activation of β_1-adrenoceptors also increases the Ca^{2+} sensitivity of the contractile machinery, possibly by phosphorylating troponin C; furthermore, it facilitates Ca^{2+} capture by the sarcoplasmic reticulum, thereby increasing the amount of Ca^{2+} available for release by the action potential. The net result of catecholamine action is to elevate and steepen the ventricular function curve (Fig. 21.4). The increase in heart rate results from an increased slope of the pacemaker potential (Figs 21.1 and 21.7A). Increased Ca^{2+} entry also increases automaticity because of the effect of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ on the transient inward current, which can result in a train of action potentials following a single stimulus (Fig. 21.2).

Activation of β_1-adrenoceptors repolarises damaged or hypoxic myocardium by stimulating the Na^+/K^+ pump. This can restore function if asystole has occurred following myocardial infarction, and **adrenaline** is one of the most important drugs used during cardiac arrest.

The reduction of cardiac efficiency by catecholamines is important because it means that the oxygen requirement of the myocardium increases. This limits the use of β agonists such as adrenaline and **dobutamine** for circulatory shock (Ch. 22). Myocardial infarction activates the sympathetic nervous system (see Fig. 21.8), which has the undesirable effect of increasing the oxygen needs of the damaged myocardium.

Parasympathetic System

Parasympathetic activity produces effects that are, in general, opposite to those of sympathetic activation. However, in contrast to sympathetic activity, the parasympathetic nervous system has little effect on contractility, its main effects being on rate and rhythm, namely:

- cardiac slowing and reduced automaticity
- inhibition of AV conduction.

These effects result from activation of muscarinic (M_2) acetylcholine receptors, which are abundant in nodal and atrial tissue but sparse in the ventricles. These receptors are negatively coupled to adenylyl cyclase and thus reduce cAMP formation, acting to inhibit the opening of L-type Ca^{2+} channels and reduce the slow Ca^{2+} current, in opposition to β_1-adrenoceptors. M_2 receptors also open a potassium channel (called K_{ACh}). The resulting increase in K^+ permeability produces a hyperpolarising current that opposes the inward pacemaker current, slowing the heart and reducing automaticity (see Fig. 21.7C). Vagal activity is often increased during myocardial infarction, both in association with vagal afferent stimulation and as a side effect of opioids used to control the pain, and parasympathetic effects are important in predisposing to acute dysrhythmias.

Vagal stimulation decreases the force of contraction of the atria associated with marked shortening of the action potential (Fig. 21.7D). Increased K^+ permeability and reduced Ca^{2+} current both contribute to conduction block at the AV node, where propagation depends on the Ca^{2+} current. Shortening the atrial action potential reduces the refractory period, which can lead to re-entrant arrhythmias. Coronary vessels lack cholinergic innervation; consequently, the parasympathetic nervous system has little effect on coronary artery tone (see Ch. 13).[2]

Autonomic control of the heart

• Sympathetic activity, acting through β1-adrenoceptors, increases heart rate, contractility and automaticity, but reduces cardiac efficiency (in relation to oxygen consumption).

• The β1-adrenoceptors act by increasing cAMP formation, which increases Ca^{2+} currents.

• Parasympathetic activity, acting through muscarinic M_2 receptors, causes cardiac slowing, decreased force of contraction (atria only) and inhibition of atrioventricular conduction.

• M_2 receptors inhibit cAMP formation and also open potassium channels, causing hyperpolarisation.

Cardiac Natriuretic Peptides

[2]The Creator has, however, thoughtfully provided coronary endothelium with muscarinic receptors linked to nitric oxide synthesis (see Ch. 20), presumably for the delectation of vascular pharmacologists.

Cardiac natriuretic peptides are an important family of mediators (see Potter et al., 2009, for a review). Atrial cells contain secretory granules, and store and release *atrial natriuretic peptide* (ANP). This has powerful effects on the kidney and vascular system. Release of ANP occurs during volume overload in response to stretching of the atria, and intravenous saline infusion is sufficient to stimulate its release. B-natriuretic peptide (BNP) is released from ventricular muscle and opposes ventricular fibrosis; its plasma concentration is increased in patients with heart failure and is used as an aid to diagnosis. C-natriuretic peptide (CNP) is stored in endothelium and in addition to vascular actions influences development of long bones.

The main effects of natriuretic peptides are to increase Na^+ and water excretion by the kidney; relax vascular smooth muscle (except efferent

arterioles of renal glomeruli; see below); increase vascular permeability; and inhibit the release and/or actions of several hormones and mediators, including aldosterone, angiotensin II, endothelin and antidiuretic hormone. They exert their effects by combining with membrane receptors (natriuretic peptide receptors, NPRs, which exist in at least two subtypes, designated A and B).[3]

[3]The nomenclature of natriuretic peptides and their receptors is peculiarly obtuse. The peptides are named 'A' for atrial, 'B' for brain—despite being present mainly in cardiac ventricle—and 'C' for A, B, C …; NPRs are named NPR-A, which preferentially binds ANP; NPR-B, which binds C natriuretic peptide preferentially; and NPR-C for 'clearance' receptor, because until recently clearance via cellular uptake and degradation by lysosomal enzymes was the only definite known function of this binding site.

Both NPR-A and NPR-B incorporate a catalytic guanylyl cyclase moiety (see Ch. 3), and, when activated, increase intracellular cGMP. Organic nitrates (see later) and endothelium-derived nitric oxide (Ch. 20) act similarly, though they interact with soluble rather than membrane-bound guanylyl cyclase. Renal glomerular afferent arterioles are dilated by ANP but efferent arterioles are constricted, so filtration pressure is increased, leading to increased glomerular filtration and enhanced Na^+ excretion. Elsewhere, natriuretic peptides cause vasorelaxation and reduce blood pressure. Their therapeutic potential, which remains controversial (see Richards, 2009, for a recent editorial commentary), is considered in Chapter 22.

Ischaemic Heart Disease

Atheromatous deposits are ubiquitous in the coronary arteries of adults living in developed countries. They are asymptomatic for most of the

natural history of the disease (see Ch. 23), but can progress insidiously, culminating in acute myocardial infarction and its complications, including dysrhythmia and heart failure. Details of ischemic heart disease are beyond the scope of this book, and excellent accounts (e.g. Braunwald, 2005) are available for those seeking pathological and clinical information. Here, we merely set the scene for understanding the place of drugs that affect cardiac function in treating this most common form of heart disease.

Important consequences of coronary atherosclerosis include:

- angina (chest pain caused by cardiac ischaemia)
- myocardial infarction.

Angina

Angina occurs when the oxygen supply to the myocardium is insufficient for its needs. The pain has a characteristic distribution in the chest, arm and neck, and is brought on by exertion, cold or excitement. A similar type of pain occurs in skeletal muscle when it is made to contract while its blood supply is interrupted, and Lewis showed many years ago that chemical factors released by ischaemic muscle are responsible. Possible candidates include K^+, H^+ and adenosine (Ch. 16), all of which sensitise or stimulate nociceptors (see Ch. 41). It is possible that the same mediator that causes coronary vasodilatation is responsible, at higher concentration, for initiating pain.

Three kinds of angina are recognised clinically: stable, unstable and variant.

Stable angina

This is predictable chest pain on exertion. It is produced by an increased

demand on the heart and is caused by a fixed narrowing of the coronary vessels, almost always by atheroma. Symptomatic therapy is directed at reducing cardiac work with organic nitrates, β-adrenoceptor antagonists and/or calcium antagonists (as described below), together with treatment of the underlying atheromatous disease, usually including a statin (Ch. 23), and prophylaxis against thrombosis with an antiplatelet drug, usually **aspirin** (Ch. 24).

Unstable angina

This is characterised by pain that occurs with less and less exertion, culminating in pain at rest. The pathology is similar to that involved in myocardial infarction, namely platelet–fibrin thrombus associated with a ruptured atheromatous plaque, but without complete occlusion of the vessel. Treatment is as for myocardial infarction without ST-segment elevation on the cardiogram (NSTEMI). Antiplatelet drugs (aspirin and/or an ADP antagonist such as **clopidogrel** or **prasugrel**) reduce the risk of myocardial infarction in this setting, and **heparin** and platelet glycoprotein receptor antagonists add to this benefit (Ch. 24) at the cost of increased risk of haemorrhage, and organic nitrates relieve ischaemic pain.

Variant angina

This is uncommon. It occurs at rest and is caused by coronary artery spasm, again usually in association with atheromatous disease. Therapy is with coronary artery vasodilators (e.g. organic nitrates, calcium antagonists).

Myocardial Infarction

Myocardial infarction occurs when a coronary artery has been blocked by thrombus. This may be fatal and is a common cause of death, usually

as a result of mechanical failure of the ventricle or from dysrhythmia. Cardiac myocytes rely on aerobic metabolism. If the supply of oxygen remains below a critical value, a sequence of events leading to cell death (by necrosis or apoptosis) ensues (see Ch. 5 for a fuller account of apoptosis), detected clinically by an elevation of circulating *troponin* (the gold-standard biochemical marker of myocardial injury). The sequences leading from vascular occlusion to cell death via the two pathways are illustrated in Figure 21.8. The relative importance of necrosis and apoptosis in myocardial cell death in clinically distinct settings is unknown, but it has been suggested that apoptosis may be an adaptive process in hypoperfused regions, sacrificing some jeopardised myocytes but thereby avoiding the disturbance of membrane function and risk of dysrhythmia inherent in necrosis. Consequently, it is currently unknown if pharmacological approaches to promote or inhibit this pathway could be clinically beneficial.

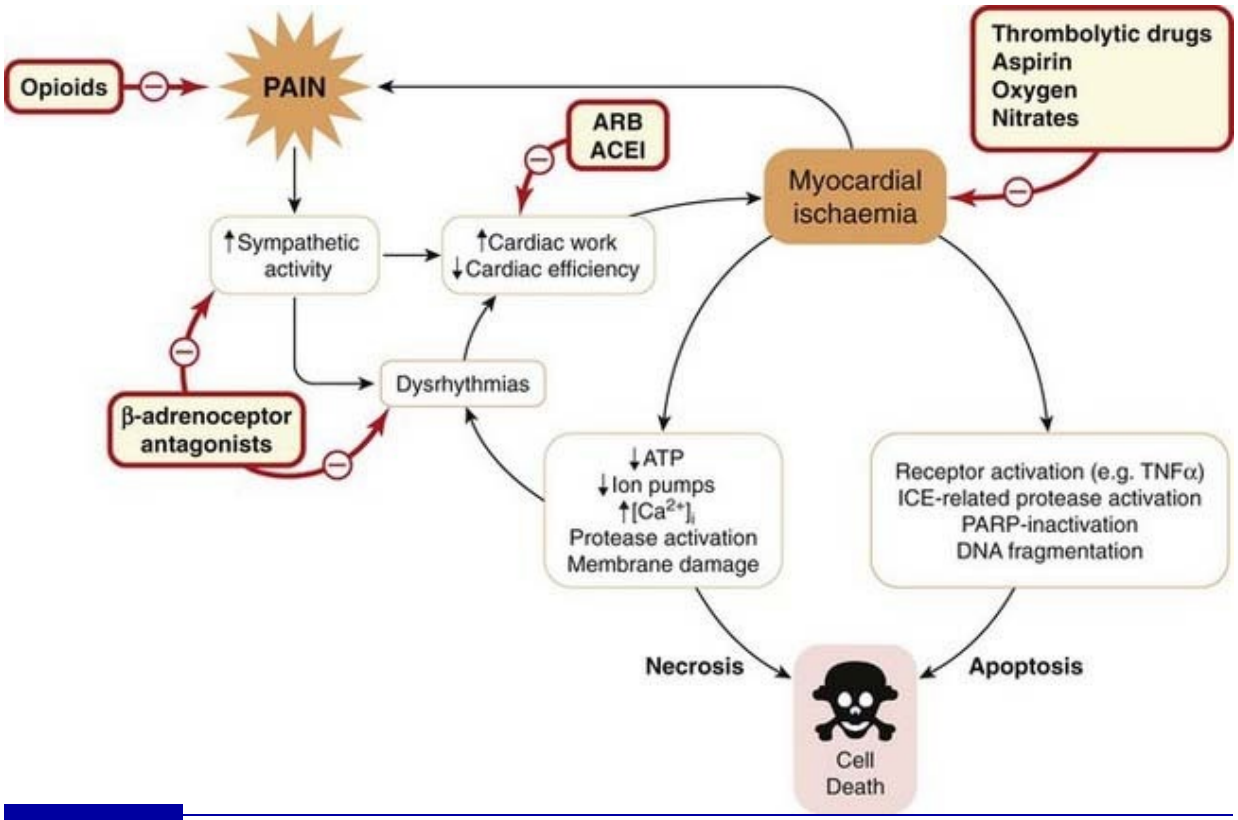


Fig. 21.8 Effects of myocardial ischaemia.

This leads to cell death by one of two pathways: necrosis or apoptosis. ACEI, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor; ARB, angiotensin AT_1 receptor antagonist; ICE, interleukin-1-converting enzyme; PARP, poly-[ADP-ribose]-polymerase; TNF-α, tumour necrosis factor-α.

Prevention of irreversible ischaemic damage following an episode of coronary thrombosis is an important therapeutic aim. Opening the occluded artery is key, and it is important that this is achieved promptly, irrespective of the means by which it is done. If logistically possible, *angioplasty* (performed using a catheter with an inflatable balloon near its tip, with a glycoprotein IIb/IIIa antagonist—see Chapter 24—to prevent reocclusion) is somewhat more effective than thrombolytic drugs. The main therapeutic drugs (see Fig. 21.8) include drugs to improve cardiac function by maintaining oxygenation and reducing cardiac work as well as treating pain and preventing further thrombosis. They are used in combination, and include:

• combinations of thrombolytic, antiplatelet (aspirin and clopidogrel) and antithrombotic (a heparin preparation) drugs to open the blocked artery and prevent reocclusion (see Ch. 24)

• oxygen if there is arterial hypoxia

• opioids (given with an antiemetic) to prevent pain and reduce excessive sympathetic activity

• organic nitrate

• β-adrenoceptor antagonists

• angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACEIs) or angiotensin AT_1 receptor antagonists (ARBs; see Ch. 22).

β-Adrenoceptor antagonists reduce cardiac work and thereby the metabolic needs of the heart, and are used as soon as the patient is stable. ACEIs and ARBs also reduce cardiac work and improve survival as does opening the coronary artery (with angioplasty or thrombolytic drug) and antiplatelet treatment.

Drugs that Affect Cardiac Function

Drugs that have a major action on the heart can be divided into three groups.

1 *Drugs that affect myocardial cells directly*. These include:
   • autonomic neurotransmitters and related drugs
   • antidysrhythmic drugs
   • cardiac glycosides and other inotropic drugs
   • miscellaneous drugs and hormones; these are dealt with elsewhere (e.g. **doxorubicin**, Ch. 55; thyroxine, Ch. 33; glucagon, Ch. 30).

2 *Drugs that affect cardiac function indirectly*. These have actions

elsewhere in the vascular system. Some antianginal drugs (e.g. nitrates) fall into this category, as do most drugs that are used to treat heart failure (e.g. diuretics and ACEIs).

3 *Calcium antagonists*. These affect cardiac function by a direct action on myocardial cells and also indirectly by relaxing vascular smooth muscle.

Antidysrhythmic Drugs

A classification of antidysrhythmic drugs based on their electrophysiological effects was proposed by Vaughan Williams in 1970. It provides a good starting point for discussing mechanisms, although many useful drugs do not fit neatly into this classification (Table 21.1). Furthermore, emergency treatment of serious dysrhythmias is usually by physical means (e.g. pacing or electrical cardioversion by applying a direct current shock to the chest or via an implanted device) rather than drugs.

Table 21.1 Antidysrhythmic drugs unclassified in the Vaughan Williams system

Drug	Use
Atropine	Sinus bradycardia
Adrenaline (epinephrine)	Cardiac arrest
Isoprenaline	Heart block
Digoxin	Rapid atrial fibrillation
Adenosine	Supraventricular tachycardia
Calcium chloride	Ventricular tachycardia due to hyperkalaemia
Magnesium chloride	Ventricular fibrillation, digoxin toxicity

There are four classes (see Table 21.2).

- Class I: drugs that block voltage-sensitive sodium channels. They are

subdivided: Ia, Ib and Ic (see below).

• Class II: β-adrenoceptor antagonists.

• Class III: drugs that substantially prolong the cardiac action potential.

• Class IV: calcium antagonists.

Table 21.2 Summary of antidysrhythmic drugs (Vaughan Williams classification)

Class	Example(s)	Mechanism
Ia	Disopyramide	Sodium channel block (intermediate dissociation)
Ib	Lidocaine	Sodium channel block (fast dissociation)
Ic	Flecainide	Sodium channel block (slow dissociation)
II	Propranolol	β-Adrenoceptor antagonism
III	Amiodarone, sotalol	Potassium channel block
IV	Verapamil	Calcium channel block

The phase of the action potential on which each of these classes of drug have their main effect is shown in Figure 21.9.

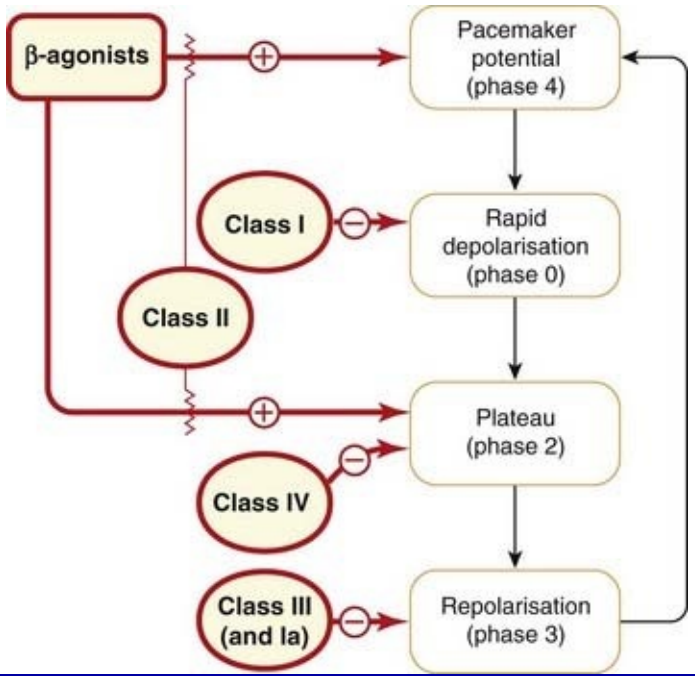


Fig. 21.9 Effects of antidysrhythmic drugs on the different phases (as defined in Fig. 21.1) of the cardiac action potential.

Mechanisms of Action

Class I drugs

Class I drugs block sodium channels, just as local anaesthetics do, by binding to sites on the α subunit (see Chs 4 and 42). Because this inhibits action potential propagation in many excitable cells, it has been referred to as 'membrane-stabilising' activity, a phrase best avoided now that the ionic mechanism is understood. The characteristic effect on the action potential is to reduce the maximum rate of depolarisation during phase 0.

The reason for further subdivision of these drugs into classes Ia, Ib and Ic is that the earliest examples, **quinidine** and **procainamide** (class Ia), have different effects from many of the more recently developed drugs, even though all share the same basic mechanism of action. A partial explanation for these functional differences comes from

electrophysiological studies of the characteristics of the sodium channel block produced by different class I drugs.

The central concept is of *use-dependent channel block*. It is this characteristic that enables all class I drugs to block the high-frequency excitation of the myocardium that occurs in tachyarrhythmias, without preventing the heart from beating at normal frequencies. Sodium channels exist in three distinct functional states: resting, open and refractory (see Ch. 4). Channels switch rapidly from resting to open in response to depolarisation; this is known as *activation*. Maintained depolarisation, as in ischaemic muscle, causes channels to change more slowly from open to refractory (*inactivation*), and the membrane must then be repolarised for a time to restore the channel to the resting state before it can be activated again. Class I drugs bind to channels most strongly when they are in either the open or the refractory state, less strongly to channels in the resting state. Their action therefore shows the property of 'use dependence' (i.e. the more frequently the channels are activated, the greater the degree of block produced).

Class Ib drugs, for example **lidocaine**, associate and dissociate rapidly within the timeframe of the normal heartbeat. The drug binds to open channels during phase 0 of the action potential (affecting the rate of rise very little, but leaving many of the channels blocked by the time the action potential reaches its peak). Dissociation occurs in time for the next action potential, provided the cardiac rhythm is normal. A premature beat, however, will be aborted because the channels are still blocked. Furthermore, class Ib drugs bind selectively to refractory channels and thus block preferentially when the cells are depolarised, for example in ischaemia.

Class Ic drugs, such as **flecainide** and **encainide**, associate and dissociate much more slowly, thus reaching a steady-state level of block

that does not vary appreciably during the cardiac cycle. They markedly inhibit conduction through the His–Purkinje system.

Class Ia, the oldest group (e.g. **quinidine**, **procainamide**, **disopyramide**), lies midway in its properties between Ib and Ic but, in addition, prolongs repolarisation, albeit less markedly than class III drugs (see below).

Class II drugs

Class II drugs comprise the β-adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. **metoprolol**).

Adrenaline can cause dysrhythmias by its effects on the pacemaker potential and on the slow inward Ca^{2+} current (see above). Ventricular dysrhythmias following myocardial infarction are partly the result of increased sympathetic activity (see Fig. 21.8), providing a rationale for using β-adrenoceptor antagonists in this setting. AV conduction depends critically on sympathetic activity; β-adrenoceptor antagonists increase the refractory period of the AV node and can therefore prevent recurrent attacks of supraventricular tachycardia (SVT). The β-adrenoceptor antagonists are also used to prevent paroxysmal attacks of atrial fibrillation when these occur in the setting of sympathetic activation.

Class III drugs

The class III category was originally based on the unusual behaviour of a single drug, **amiodarone** (see below), although others with similar properties (e.g. **sotalol**) have since been described. Both amiodarone and sotalol have more than one mechanism of antidysrhythmic action. The special feature that defines them as class III drugs is that they substantially prolong the cardiac action potential. The mechanism of this effect is not fully understood, but it involves blocking some of the

potassium channels involved in cardiac repolarisation, including the outward (delayed) rectifier. Action potential prolongation increases the refractory period, accounting for powerful and varied antidysrhythmic activity, for example by interrupting re-entrant tachycardias and suppressing ectopic activity. However, all drugs that prolong the cardiac action potential (detected clinically as prolonged QT interval on the ECG; see above) can paradoxically also have *proarrhythmic* effects, notably a polymorphic form of ventricular tachycardia called (somewhat whimsically) *torsade de pointes* (because the appearance of the ECG trace is said to be reminiscent of this ballet sequence). This occurs particularly in patients taking other drugs that can prolong QT, including several antipsychotic drugs; those with disturbances of electrolytes involved in repolarisation (e.g. hypokalaemia, hypercalcaemia); or individuals with hereditary prolonged QT (Ward–Romano syndrome).[4] The mechanism of the dysrhythmia is not fully understood; possibilities include increased dispersion of repolarisation (i.e. lack of spatial homogeneity) and increased Ca^{2+} entry during the prolonged action potential, leading to increased after-depolarisation.

Class IV drugs

[4]A 3-year-old girl began to have blackouts, which decreased in frequency with age. Her ECG showed a prolonged QT interval. When 18 years of age, she lost consciousness running for a bus. When she was 19, she became quite emotional as a participant in a live television audience and died suddenly. The molecular basis of this rare inherited disorder is now known. It is caused by a mutation in either the gene coding for a particular potassium channel—called *HERG*—or another gene, *SCN5A*, which codes for the sodium channel and disruption of which results in a loss of inactivation of the Na^+ current (see Welsh & Hoshi, 1995, for a commentary).

Class IV agents act by blocking voltage-sensitive calcium channels. Class IV drugs in therapeutic use as antidysrhythmic drugs (e.g. **verapamil**) act on L-type channels. Class IV drugs slow conduction in the SA and AV nodes where action potential propagation depends on slow inward Ca^{2+} current, slowing the heart and terminating SVT by causing partial AV block. They shorten the plateau of the action potential and reduce the force of contraction. Reduced Ca^{2+} entry reduces after-depolarisation and thus suppresses premature ectopic beats. In contrast, L-type calcium channel blockers that act mainly on vascular smooth muscle (e.g. **nifedipine**) indirectly increase sympathetic tone via their hypotensive effect and so may actually provoke tachyarrhythmias.

Details of Individual Drugs

Quinidine, procainamide and disopyramide (class Ia)

Quinidine and **procainamide** are pharmacologically similar. They are now mainly of historical interest. **Disopyramide** resembles quinidine, including in its marked atropine-like effects, which result in blurred vision, dry mouth, constipation and urinary retention. It has more negative inotropic action than quinidine but is less likely to cause hypersensitivity reactions.

Lidocaine (class Ib)

Lidocaine, also well known as a local anaesthetic (see Ch. 42), is given by intravenous infusion to treat and prevent ventricular dysrhythmias in the immediate aftermath of myocardial infarction. It is almost completely extracted from the portal circulation by hepatic first-pass metabolism (Ch. 9), and so cannot usefully be administered orally. Its plasma half-life is normally about 2 h, but its elimination is slowed if

hepatic blood flow is reduced, for example by reduced cardiac output following myocardial infarction or by drugs that reduce cardiac contractility (e.g. β-adrenoceptor antagonists). Dosage must be reduced accordingly to prevent accumulation and toxicity. Indeed, its clearance has been used to estimate hepatic blood flow, analogous to the use of *para*-aminohippurate clearance to measure renal blood flow.

The adverse effects of lidocaine are mainly due to its actions on the central nervous system and include drowsiness, disorientation and convulsions. Because of its relatively short half-life, the plasma concentration can be adjusted fairly rapidly by varying the infusion rate.

Phenytoin (an antiepileptic drug, see Ch. 44), acts similarly, but is no longer used in treating dysrhythmias.

Flecainide and encainide (class Ic)

Flecainide and **encainide** suppress ventricular ectopic beats. They are long acting and reduce the frequency of ventricular ectopic beats when administered orally. However, in clinical trials, they increase the incidence of sudden death associated with ventricular fibrillation after myocardial infarction, so they are no longer used in this setting. This counterintuitive result had a profound impact on the way clinicians and drug regulators view the use of seemingly reasonable intermediate end points (in this case, reduction of frequency of ventricular ectopic beats) as evidence of efficacy in clinical trials. Currently, the main use of flecainide is in prophylaxis against paroxysmal atrial fibrillation.

Clinical uses of class I antidysrhythmic drugs

- **Class Ia** (e.g. **disopyramide**)
  - – ventricular dysrhythmias
  - – prevention of recurrent paroxysmal atrial fibrillation triggered by vagal overactivity.

• **Class Ib** (e.g. intravenous **lidocaine**)

– treatment and prevention of ventricular tachycardia and fibrillation during and immediately after myocardial infarction.

• **Class Ic**

– to prevent paroxysmal atrial fibrillation (flecainide)

– recurrent tachyarrhythmias associated with abnormal conducting pathways (e.g. Wolff–Parkinson–White syndrome).

β-Adrenoceptor antagonists (class II)

The most important β-adrenoceptor antagonists are described in Chapter 14. Their clinical use for rhythm disorders is shown in the clinical box. **Propranolol**, like several other drugs of this type, has some class I action in addition to blocking β-adrenoceptors. This may contribute to its antidysrhythmic effects, although probably not very much, because an isomer with little β antagonist activity has little antidysrhythmic activity, despite similar activity as a class I agent.

Adverse effects are described in Chapter 14, the most important being worsening bronchospasm in patients with asthma, a negative inotropic effect, bradycardia and fatigue. It was hoped that the use of β_1-selective drugs (e.g. **metoprolol**, **atenolol**) would reduce the risk of bronchospasm, but their selectivity is insufficient to achieve this goal in clinical practice, although the once-a-day convenience of several such drugs has led to their widespread use in patients without lung disease.

Clinical uses of class II antidysrhythmic drugs (e.g. propranolol, timolol)

• To reduce mortality following myocardial infarction.

• To prevent recurrence of tachyarrhythmias (e.g. paroxysmal atrial fibrillation) provoked by

increased sympathetic activity.

Class III

Amiodarone is highly effective at suppressing dysrhythmias (see the clinical box). Like other drugs that interfere with cardiac repolarisation, it is important to monitor plasma electrolyte concentrations (especially of K^+) during its use to avoid precipitating torsades de pointes. Unfortunately it has several peculiarities that complicate its use. It is extensively bound in tissues, has a long elimination half-life (10–100 days) and accumulates in the body during repeated dosing. For this reason, a loading dose is used, and for life-threatening dysrhythmias this is given intravenously via a central vein (it causes phlebitis if given into a peripheral vessel). Adverse effects are numerous and important; they include photosensitive skin rashes and a slate-grey/bluish discoloration of the skin; thyroid abnormalities (hypo-and hyper-, connected with its high iodine content); pulmonary fibrosis, which is late in onset but may be irreversible; corneal deposits; and neurological and gastrointestinal disturbances, including hepatitis. **Dronedarone** is a related benzofuran with somewhat different effects on individual ion channels. It lacks iodine and was designed to be less lipophilic than amiodarone in hopes of reducing thyroid and pulmonary toxicities. Its elimination $t_{1/2}$ is shorter than that of amiodarone and while it increased mortality in patients with severe heart failure (Køber et al., 2008), it improved survival in high-risk patients with atrial fibrillation (Hohnloser et al., 2009) and has recently been approved by the Food and Drug Administration for this indication.

Sotalol is a non-selective β-adrenoceptor antagonist, this activity residing in the L isomer. Unlike other β antagonists, it prolongs the cardiac action potential and the QT interval by delaying the slow

outward K^+ current. This class III activity is present in both L and D isomers. Racemic sotalol (the form prescribed) appears to be somewhat less effective than amiodarone in preventing chronic life-threatening ventricular tachyarrhythmias. It shares the ability of amiodarone to cause torsades de pointes but lacks its other adverse effects; it is valuable in patients in whom β-adrenoceptor antagonists are not contraindicated. As with amiodarone, close monitoring of plasma K^+ is important during its use because of the risk of proarryhthmia.

Clinical uses of class III antidysrhythmic drugs

• Amiodarone: tachycardia associated with the Wolff–Parkinson–White syndrome. It is also effective in many other supraventricular and ventricular tachyarrhythmias but has serious adverse effects.

• (Racemic) sotalol combines class III with class II actions. It is used in paroxysmal supraventricular dysrhythmias and suppresses ventricular ectopic beats and short runs of ventricular tachycardia.

Verapamil and diltiazem (class IV)

Verapamil is given by mouth. (Intravenous preparations are available but are dangerous and almost never needed.) It has a plasma half-life of 6–8 h and is subject to quite extensive first-pass metabolism, which is more marked for the isomer that is responsible for its cardiac effects. A slow-release preparation is available for once-daily use, but it is less effective when used for prevention of dysrhythmia than the regular preparation because the bioavailability of the cardioactive isomer is reduced through the presentation of a steady low concentration to the drug-metabolising enzymes in the liver. If verapamil is added to **digoxin** in patients with poorly controlled atrial fibrillation, the dose of digoxin should be reduced and plasma digoxin concentration checked after a few

days, because verapamil both displaces digoxin from tissue-binding sites and reduces its renal elimination, hence predisposing to digoxin accumulation and toxicity (see Ch. 56).

Verapamil is contraindicated in patients with Wolff–Parkinson–White syndrome (a pre-excitation syndrome caused by a rapidly conducting pathway between atria and ventricles anatomically distinct from the physiological conducting pathway that predisposes to re-entrant tachycardia), and is ineffective and dangerous in ventricular dysrhythmias. Adverse effects of verapamil and diltiazem are described below in the section on calcium channel antagonists.

Diltiazem is similar to verapamil but has relatively more effect on smooth muscle while producing less bradycardia (said to be 'rate neutral').

Adenosine (unclassified in the Vaughan Williams classification)

Adenosine is produced endogenously and is an important chemical mediator (Ch. 16) with effects on breathing, cardiac and smooth muscle, vagal afferent nerves and on platelets, in addition to the effects on cardiac conducting tissue that underlie its therapeutic use. The A_1 receptor is responsible for its effect on the AV node. These receptors are linked to the same cardiac potassium channel (K_{ACh}) that is activated by acetylcholine, and adenosine hyperpolarises cardiac conducting tissue and slows the rate of rise of the pacemaker potential accordingly. It is administered intravenously to terminate SVT if this rhythm persists despite manoeuvres such as carotid artery massage designed to increase vagal tone. It has largely replaced verapamil for this purpose, because it is safer owing to its effect being short lived. This is a consequence of its pharmacokinetics: it is taken up via a specific nucleoside transporter by red blood cells and is metabolised by enzymes on the lumenal surface of

vascular endothelium. Consequently, the effects of a bolus dose of adenosine last only 20–30 s. Once SVT has terminated, the patient usually remains in sinus rhythm, even though adenosine is no longer present in plasma. Its short-lived unwanted effects include chest pain, shortness of breath, dizziness and nausea. **Theophylline** and other xanthine alkaloids block adenosine receptors and inhibit the actions of intravenous adenosine, whereas **dipyridamole** (a vasodilator and antiplatelet drug; see below and Ch. 24) blocks the nucleoside uptake mechanism, potentiating adenosine and prolonging its adverse effects. Both these interactions are clinically important.

Clinical uses of class IV antidysrhythmic drugs

• Verapamil is the main drug. It is used:

– to prevent recurrence of paroxysmal supraventricular tachycardia (SVT)

– to reduce the ventricular rate in patients with atrial fibrillation, provided they do not have Wolff–Parkinson–White or a related disorder.

• Verapamil was previously given intravenously to terminate SVT; it is now seldom used for this because adenosine is safer.

Drugs that Increase Myocardial Contraction

Cardiac Glycosides

Cardiac glycosides come from foxgloves (*Digitalis* spp.) and related plants. Withering (1775) wrote on the use of the foxglove: ‘it has a power over the motion of the heart to a degree yet unobserved in any other medicine …’ Foxgloves contain several cardiac glycosides with similar actions. Their basic chemical structure consists of three components: a sugar moiety, a steroid and a lactone ring, The lactone is essential for activity, the other parts of the molecule mainly determining

potency and pharmacokinetic properties. Therapeutically the most important cardiac glycoside is **digoxin**.

Endogenous cardiotonic steroids (CTSs), also called digitalis-like factors, have been mooted for nearly half a century. There is evidence in mammals of an endogenous digitalis-like factor closely similar to **ouabain**, a short-acting cardiac glycoside (see Schoner & Scheiner-Bobis, 2007). CTSs were first considered important in the regulation of renal sodium transport and arterial pressure, but they have now been implicated in the regulation of cell growth, differentiation, apoptosis, fibrosis, the modulation of immunity and of carbohydrate metabolism, and the control of various central nervous functions (Bagrov et al., 2009).

Actions and adverse effects

The main actions of glycosides are on the heart, but some of their adverse effects are extracardiac, including nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea and confusion. The cardiac effects are:

- cardiac slowing and reduced rate of conduction through the AV node
- increased force of contraction
- disturbances of rhythm, especially:
  - block of AV conduction
  - increased ectopic pacemaker activity.

Adverse effects are common and can be severe. One of the main drawbacks of glycosides in clinical use is the narrow margin between effectiveness and toxicity.

Mechanism

The mechanism whereby cardiac glycosides increase the force of cardiac

contraction (positive inotropic effect) is inhibition of the Na^+/K^+ pump in the cardiac myocytes. Cardiac glycosides bind to a site on the extracellular aspect of the α subunit of the Na^+-K^+-ATPase (which is an αβ heterodimer), and are useful experimental tools for studying this important transport system. The molecular mechanism underlying increased vagal tone (negative chronotropic effect) is unknown, but could also be due to inhibition of the Na^+/K^+ pump.

Rate and rhythm

Cardiac glycosides slow AV conduction by increasing vagal outflow. Their beneficial effect in established rapid atrial fibrillation results partly from this. If ventricular rate is excessively rapid, the time available for diastolic filling is inadequate. Increasing the refractory period of the AV node reduces ventricular rate. The atrial dysrhythmia persists, but the pumping efficiency of the heart improves owing to improved ventricular filling. SVT can be terminated by cardiac glycosides, which slow AV conduction, although other drugs are usually employed for this indication (see below).

Larger doses of glycosides disturb sinus rhythm. This can occur at plasma concentrations of digoxin within, or only slightly above, the therapeutic range. Slowing of AV conduction can progress to AV block. Glycosides can also cause ectopic beats. Because Na^+/K^+ exchange is electrogenic, inhibition of the pump by glycosides causes depolarisation, predisposing to disturbances of cardiac rhythm. Furthermore, the increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ causes increased after-depolarisation, leading first to coupled beats (bigeminy), in which a normal ventricular beat is followed by an ectopic beat; this is followed by ventricular tachycardia and eventually by ventricular fibrillation.

Force of contraction

Glycosides cause a large increase in twitch tension in isolated preparations of cardiac muscle. Unlike catecholamines, they do not accelerate relaxation (compare Fig. 21.6 with Fig. 21.10). Increased tension is caused by an increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transient (Fig. 21.10). The action potential is only slightly affected and the slow inward current little changed, so the increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ transient probably reflects a greater release of Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores. The most likely mechanism is as follows (see also Ch. 4):

1 Glycosides inhibit the Na^+/K^+ pump.

2 Increased $[Na^+]_i$ slows extrusion of Ca^{2+} via the Na^+/Ca^{2+} exchange transporter. Increasing $[Na^+]_i$ reduces the inwardly directed gradient for Na^+; the smaller this gradient, the slower is extrusion of Ca^{2+} by Na^+/Ca^{2+} exchange.

3 Increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is stored in the sarcoplasmic reticulum, and thus increases the amount of Ca^{2+} released by each action potential.

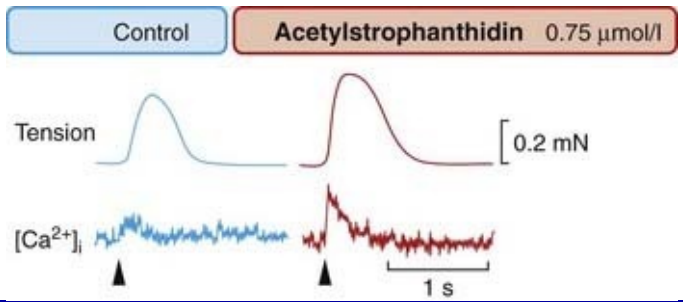


Fig. 21.10 Effect of a cardiac glycoside (acetylstrophanthidin) on the Ca^{2+} transient and tension produced by frog cardiac muscle.

The effect was recorded as in Figure 21.6

(From Allen D G, Blinks J R 1978 Nature 273: 509.)

The effect of extracellular potassium

Effects of cardiac glycosides are increased if plasma $[K^+]$ decreases,

because of reduced competition at the K^+-binding site on the Na^+-K^+-ATPase. This is clinically important, because diuretics (Ch. 28) are often used to treat heart failure, and most such drugs decrease plasma $[K^+]$, thereby increasing the risk of glycoside-induced dysrhythmia.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Digoxin is administered by mouth or, in urgent situations, intravenously. It is a polar molecule; elimination is mainly by renal excretion and involves P-glycoprotein (Ch. 8), leading to clinically significant interactions with other drugs used to treat heart failure, such as **spironolactone**, and with antidysrhythmic drugs such as **verapamil** and **amiodarone**. Elimination half-time is approximately 36 h in patients with normal renal function, but considerably longer in elderly patients and those with overt renal failure, in whom reduced doses are indicated. A loading dose is used in urgent situations. The therapeutic range of plasma concentrations, below which digoxin is unlikely to be effective and above which the risk of toxicity increases substantially, is fairly well defined (1–2.6 nmol/l). Determination of plasma digoxin concentration is useful when lack of efficacy or toxicity is suspected.

Clinical uses of cardiac glycosides (e.g. digoxin) 

- To slow ventricular rate in rapid persistent atrial fibrillation.
- Treatment of heart failure in patients who remain symptomatic despite optimal use of diuretics and angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (Ch. 22).

Other Drugs that Increase Myocardial Contraction

Certain β_1-adrenoceptor agonists, for example **dobutamine**, are used to treat acute but potentially reversible heart failure (e.g. following cardiac surgery or in some cases of cardiogenic or septic shock) on the basis of

their positive inotropic action. Dobutamine, for reasons that are not well understood, produces less tachycardia than other β_1 agonists. It is administered intravenously. **Glucagon** also increases myocardial contractility by increasing synthesis of cAMP, and has been used in patients with acute cardiac dysfunction owing to overdosage of β-adrenoceptor antagonists.

Inhibitors of the heart-specific subtype (type III) of phosphodiesterase, the enzyme responsible for the intracellular degradation of cAMP, increase myocardial contractility. Consequently, like β-adrenoceptor agonists, they increase intracellular cAMP but cause dysrhythmias for the same reason. Compounds in this group include **amrinone** and **milrinone**. They improve haemodynamic indices in patients with heart failure but paradoxically worsen survival, presumably because of dysrhythmias. This dichotomy has had a sobering effect on clinicians and drug regulatory authorities.

Antianginal Drugs

The mechanism of anginal pain is discussed above. Angina is managed by using drugs that improve perfusion of the myocardium or reduce its metabolic demand, or both. Two of the main groups of drugs, organic nitrates and calcium antagonists, are vasodilators and produce both these effects. The third group, β-adrenoceptor antagonists, slow the heart and hence reduce metabolic demand. Organic nitrates and calcium antagonists are described below. The β-adrenoceptor antagonists are covered in Ch. 14, and their antidysrhythmic actions are described above. **Ivabradine** slows the heart by inhibiting the sinus node I_f current (see above), and is an alternative to β-adrenoceptor antagonists in patients in whom these are not tolerated or are contraindicated.

Organic Nitrates

The ability of organic nitrates (see also Chs 20 and 22) to relieve angina was discovered by Lauder Brunton, a distinguished British physician, in 1867. He had found that angina could be partly relieved by bleeding, and also knew that **amyl nitrite**, which had been synthesised 10 years earlier, caused flushing and tachycardia, with a fall in blood pressure, when its vapour was inhaled. He thought that the effect of bleeding resulted from hypotension, and found that amyl nitrite inhalation worked much better. Amyl nitrite has now been replaced by **glyceryl trinitrate** (GTN).[5] Several related organic nitrates, of which the most important is **isosorbide mononitrate**, have a prolonged action.

Actions

[5]Nobel discovered how to stabilise GTN with kieselguhr, enabling him to exploit its explosive properties in dynamite, the manufacture of which earned him the fortune with which he endowed the eponymous prizes.

Organic nitrates relax smooth muscle (especially vascular smooth muscle, but also other types including oesophageal and biliary smooth muscle). They relax veins, with a consequent reduction in central venous pressure (reduced preload). In healthy subjects, this reduces stroke volume; venous pooling occurs on standing and can cause postural hypotension and dizziness. Therapeutic doses have less effect on small resistance arteries than on veins, but there is a marked effect on larger muscular arteries. This reduces pulse wave reflection from arterial branches (as appreciated in the 19th century by Murrell but neglected for many years thereafter), and consequently reduces central (aortic) pressure and cardiac afterload (see Ch. 22 for the role of these factors in determining cardiac work). The direct dilator effect on coronary arteries opposes coronary artery spasm in variant angina. With larger doses, resistance arteries and arterioles dilate, and arterial pressure falls.

Nevertheless, coronary flow is increased as a result of coronary vasodilatation. Myocardial oxygen consumption is reduced because of the reductions in both cardiac preload and afterload. This, together with the increased coronary blood flow, causes a large increase in the oxygen content of coronary sinus blood. Studies in experimental animals have shown that glyceryl trinitrate diverts blood from normal to ischaemic areas of myocardium. The mechanism involves dilatation of collateral vessels that bypass narrowed coronary artery segments (Fig. 21.11).

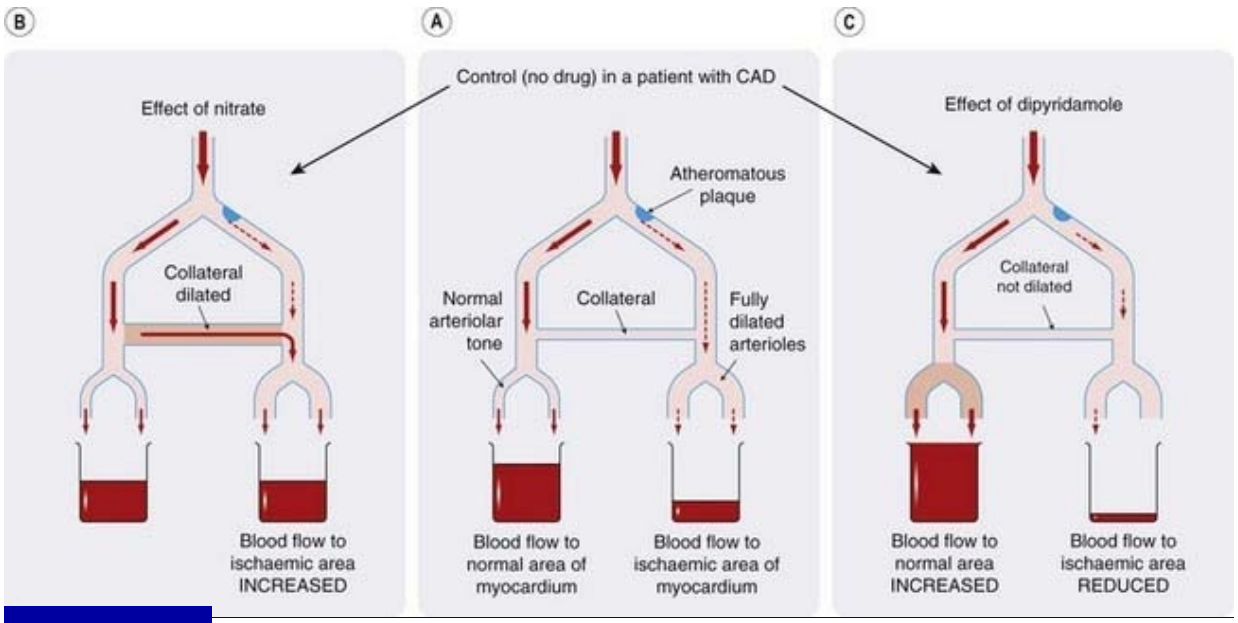


Fig. 21.11 Comparison of the effects of organic nitrates and an arteriolar vasodilator (dipyridamole) on the coronary circulation.

[**A**] Control. [**B**] Nitrates dilate the collateral vessel, thus allowing more blood through to the underperfused region (mostly by diversion from the adequately perfused area). [**C**] Dipyridamole dilates arterioles, increasing flow through the normal area at the expense of the ischaemic area (in which the arterioles are anyway fully dilated). CAD, coronary artery disease.

▼ It is interesting to compare this effect with that of other vasodilators, notably **dipyridamole**, which dilate arterioles but not collaterals. Dipyridamole is at least as effective as nitrates in increasing coronary flow in normal subjects but actually *worsens* angina. This is probably

because arterioles in an ischaemic region are fully dilated by the ischaemia, and drug-induced dilatation of the arterioles in normal areas has the effect of diverting blood away from the ischaemic areas (Fig. 21.11), producing what is termed a vascular *steal*. This effect is exploited in a pharmacological 'stress' test for coronary arterial disease, in which dipyridamole is administered intravenously to patients in whom this diagnosis is suspected but who cannot exercise, while monitoring myocardial perfusion and the ECG.

In summary, the antianginal action of nitrates involves:

- reduced cardiac oxygen consumption, because of reduced cardiac preload and afterload
- redistribution of coronary flow towards ischaemic areas via collaterals
- relief of coronary spasm.

In addition to its effects on smooth muscle, nitric oxide increases the rate of relaxation of cardiac muscle (dubbed a '*lusiotropic*' action). It is probable that organic nitrates mimic this action, which could be important in patients with impaired diastolic function, a common accompaniment of hypertension and of heart failure.

Mechanism of action

Organic nitrates are metabolised with release of nitric oxide. At concentrations achieved during therapeutic use, this involves an enzymic step and possibly a reaction with tissue sulfhydryl (–SH) groups. Nitric oxide activates soluble guanylyl cyclase (see Ch. 20), increasing formation of cGMP, which activates protein kinase G (Ch. 4) and leads to a cascade of effects in smooth muscle culminating in dephosphorylation of myosin light chains, sequestration of intracellular Ca^{2+} and consequent relaxation.

Tolerance and unwanted effects

Repeated administration of nitrates to smooth muscle preparations in vitro results in diminished relaxation, possibly partly because of depletion of free –SH groups, although attempts to prevent tolerance by agents that restore tissue –SH groups have not been clinically useful. Tolerance to the antianginal effect of nitrates does not occur to a clinically important extent with ordinary formulations of short-acting drugs (e.g. glyceryl trinitrate), but does occur with longer acting drugs (e.g. isosorbide mononitrate) or when glyceryl trinitrate is administered by prolonged intravenous infusion or by frequent application of slow-release transdermal patches (see below).

The main adverse effects of nitrates are a direct consequence of their main pharmacological actions, and include postural hypotension and headache. This was the cause of 'Monday morning sickness' among workers in explosives factories. Tolerance to these effects develops quite quickly but wears off after a brief nitrate-free interval (which is why the symptoms appeared on Mondays and not later in the week). Formation of *methaemoglobin*, an oxidation product of haemoglobin that is ineffective as an oxygen carrier, seldom occurs when nitrates are used clinically but is induced deliberately with **amyl nitrite** in the treatment of *cyanide poisoning*, because methaemoglobin binds and inactivates cyanide ions.

Pharmacokinetic and pharmaceutical aspects

Glyceryl trinitrate is rapidly inactivated by hepatic metabolism. It is well absorbed from the mouth and is taken as a tablet under the tongue or as a sublingual spray, producing its effects within a few minutes. If swallowed, it is ineffective because of first-pass metabolism. Given sublingually, the trinitrate is converted to di-and mononitrates. Its

effective duration of action is approximately 30 min. It is appreciably absorbed through the skin, and a more sustained effect can be achieved by applying it as a transdermal patch. Once a bottle of the tablets has been opened, its shelf-life is quite short because the volatile active substance evaporates; spray preparations avoid this problem.

Isosorbide mononitrate is longer acting than glyceryl trinitrate because it is absorbed and metabolised more slowly but has similar pharmacological actions. It is swallowed rather than taken sublingually, and is taken twice a day for prophylaxis (usually in the morning and at lunch, to allow a nitrate-free period during the night, when patients are not exerting themselves, to avoid tolerance). It is also available in slow-release form for once-daily use in the morning.

Organic nitrates

• Important compounds include **glyceryl trinitrate** and longer-acting **isosorbide mononitrate**.

• These drugs are powerful vasodilators, acting on veins to reduce cardiac preload and reducing arterial wave reflection to reduce afterload.

• Act via nitric oxide, to which they are metabolised. Nitric oxide stimulates cGMP formation and hence activates protein kinase G, affecting both contractile proteins (myosin light chains) and Ca^{2+} regulation.

• Tolerance occurs experimentally and is important clinically with frequent use of long-acting drugs or sustained-release preparations.

• Effectiveness in angina results partly from reduced cardiac load and partly from dilatation of collateral coronary vessels, causing more effective distribution of coronary flow. Dilatation of constricted coronary vessels is particularly beneficial in variant angina.

• Serious unwanted effects are uncommon; headache and postural hypotension may occur initially. Overdose can, rarely, cause methaemoglobinaemia.

Clinical uses of organic nitrates

• Stable angina:

– prevention (e.g. daily **isosorbide mononitrate**, or **glyceryl trinitrate** sublingually immediately before exertion)

– treatment (sublingual glyceryl trinitrate).

• Unstable angina: intravenous glyceryl trinitrate.

• Acute heart failure: intravenous glyceryl trinitrate.

• Chronic heart failure: isosorbide mononitrate, with hydralazine in patients of African origin (Ch. 22).

• Uses related to relaxation of other smooth muscles (e.g. uterine, biliary) are being investigated.

Potassium Channel Activators

Nicorandil combines activation of the potassium K_{ATP} channel (see Ch. 4) with nitrovasodilator (nitric oxide donor) actions. It is both an arterial and a venous dilator, and causes the expected unwanted effects of headache, flushing and dizziness. It is used for patients who remain symptomatic despite optimal management with other drugs, often while they await surgery or angioplasty.

β-Adrenoceptor Antagonists

β-Adrenoceptor antagonists (see Ch. 14) are important in prophylaxis of angina, and in treating patients with unstable angina. They work for these indications by reducing cardiac oxygen consumption. In addition,

they reduce the risk of death following myocardial infarction, probably via their antidysrhythmic action. Any effects on coronary vessel diameter are of minor importance, although these drugs are avoided in variant angina because of the theoretical risk that they will increase coronary spasm. Their very diverse clinical uses are summarised in the clinical box.

Calcium Antagonists

The term 'calcium antagonist' is used for drugs that block cellular entry of Ca^{2+} through calcium channels rather than its intracellular actions (Ch. 4). Some authors use the term 'Ca^{2+} entry blockers' to make this distinction clearer. Therapeutically important calcium antagonists act on L-type channels. L-type calcium antagonists comprise three chemically distinct classes: *phenylalkylamines* (e.g. **verapamil**), *dihydropyridines* (e.g. **nifedipine**, **amlodipine**) and *benzothiazepines* (e.g. **diltiazem**).

Mechanism of action: types of calcium channel

The properties of voltage-gated calcium channels have been studied by voltage clamp and patch clamp techniques (see Ch. 3). Drugs of each of the three chemical classes mentioned above all bind the α_1 subunit of the L-type calcium channel but at distinct sites. These interact allosterically with each other and with the gating machinery of the channel to prevent its opening (see below), thus reducing Ca^{2+} entry. Many calcium antagonists show properties of use dependence (i.e. they block more effectively in cells in which the calcium channels are most active; see the discussion of class I antidysrhythmic drugs above). For the same reason, they also show voltage-dependent blocking actions, blocking more strongly when the membrane is depolarised, causing calcium channel opening and inactivation.

▼ Dihydropyridines affect calcium channel function in a complex way,

not simply by physical plugging of the pore. This became clear when some dihydropyridines, exemplified by BAY K 8644, were found to bind to the same site but to do the opposite; that is, to promote the opening of voltage-gated calcium channels. Thus BAY K 8644 *increases* the force of cardiac contraction, and *constricts* blood vessels; it is competitively antagonised by nifedipine. Calcium channels can exist in one of three distinct states, termed 'modes' (Fig. 21.12). When a channel is in mode 0, it does not open in response to depolarisation; in mode 1, depolarisation produces a low opening probability, and each opening is brief. In mode 2, depolarisation produces a very high opening probability, and single openings are prolonged. Under normal conditions, about 70% of the channels at any one moment exist in mode 1, with only 1% or less in mode 2; each channel switches randomly and quite slowly between the three modes. Dihydropyridine antagonists bind selectively to channels in mode 0, thus favouring this non-opening state, whereas agonists bind selectively to channels in mode 2 (Fig. 21.12). This type of two-directional modulation resembles the phenomenon seen with the GABA/benzodiazepine interaction (Ch. 43), and invites speculation about possible endogenous dihydropyridine-like mediator(s) with a regulatory effect on Ca^{2+} entry.

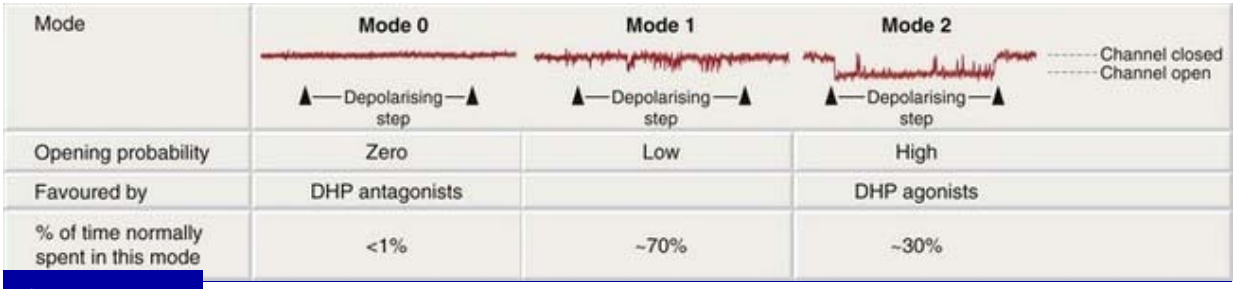


Fig. 21.12 Mode behaviour of calcium channels.

The traces are patch clamp recordings (see Ch. 3) of the opening of single calcium channels (downward deflections) in a patch of membrane from a cardiac muscle cell. A depolarising step is imposed close to the start of each trace, causing an increase in the opening probability of the channel. When the channel is in mode 1 (centre), this causes a few brief openings to occur; in

mode 2 (right), the channel stays open for most of the time during the depolarising step; in mode 0 (left), it fails to open at all. Under normal conditions, the channel spends most of its time in modes 1 and 0, and only rarely enters mode 2. DHP, dihydropyridine.

(Redrawn from Hess et al. 1984 Nature 311: 538–544.)

Mibefradil blocks T-as well as L-type channels at therapeutic concentrations, but was withdrawn from therapeutic use because it caused adverse drug interactions by interfering with drug metabolism. **Ethosuximide** (a carbonic anhydrase inhibitor used to treat absence seizures, Ch. 44) also blocks T channels in thalamic and reticular neurones.

Pharmacological effects

The main effects of calcium antagonists, as used therapeutically, are on cardiac and smooth muscle. **Verapamil** preferentially affects the heart, whereas most of the dihydropyridines (e.g. **nifedipine**) exert a greater effect on smooth muscle than on the heart. **Diltiazem** is intermediate in its actions.

Cardiac actions

The antidysrhythmic effects of verapamil and diltiazem have been discussed above. Calcium antagonists can cause AV block and cardiac slowing by their actions on conducting tissues, but this is offset by a reflex increase in sympathetic activity secondary to their vasodilator action. For example, nifedipine typically causes reflex tachycardia; diltiazem causes little or no change in heart rate and verapamil slows the heart rate. Calcium antagonists also have a negative inotropic effect, from their inhibition of Ca^{2+} entry during the action potential plateau. Verapamil has the most marked negative inotropic action, and is contraindicated in heart failure, whereas amlodipine does not worsen cardiovascular mortality in patients with severe but stable chronic heart

failure.

Vascular smooth muscle

Calcium antagonists cause generalised arterial/arteriolar dilatation, thereby reducing blood pressure, but do not much affect the veins. They affect all vascular beds, although regional effects vary considerably between different drugs. They cause coronary vasodilatation and are used in patients with coronary artery spasm (variant angina). Other types of smooth muscle (e.g. biliary tract, urinary tract and uterus) are also relaxed by calcium antagonists, but these effects are less important therapeutically than their actions on vascular smooth muscle, although they do cause adverse effects (see below).

Protection of ischaemic tissues

There are theoretical reasons (see Fig. 21.8) why calcium antagonists might exert a cytoprotective effect in ischaemic tissues and thus be of use in treating heart attack and stroke (see Ch. 39). However, randomised clinical trials have been disappointing, with little or no evidence of beneficial (or harmful) effects of calcium antagonists on cardiovascular morbidity or mortality in patient groups other than patients with hypertension, in whom calcium antagonists have beneficial effects comparable with those of other drugs that lower blood pressure to similar extents (see Ch. 22). **Nimodipine** is partly selective for cerebral vasculature and is sometimes used to reduce cerebral vasospasm following subarachnoid haemorrhage.

Pharmacokinetics

Calcium antagonists in clinical use are all well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, and are given by mouth except for some special indications, such as following subarachnoid haemorrhage, for which

intravenous preparations are available. They are extensively metabolised. Pharmacokinetic differences between different drugs and different pharmaceutical preparations are clinically important, because they determine the dose interval and also the intensity of some of the unwanted effects, such as headache and flushing (see below). Amlodipine has a long elimination half-life and is given once daily, whereas nifedipine, diltiazem and verapamil have shorter elimination half-lives and are either given more frequently or are formulated in various slow-release preparations to permit once-daily dosing.

Unwanted effects

Most of the unwanted effects of calcium antagonists are extensions of their main pharmacological actions. Short-acting dihydropyridines cause flushing and headache because of their vasodilator action, and in chronic use, dihydropyridines often cause ankle swelling related to arteriolar dilatation and increased permeability of postcapillary venules. Verapamil can cause constipation, probably because of effects on calcium channels in gastrointestinal nerves or smooth muscle. Effects on cardiac rhythm (e.g. heart block) and force of contraction (e.g. worsening heart failure) are discussed above.

Apart from these predictable effects, calcium channel antagonists, as a class, appear rather free from idiosyncratic adverse effects.

Calcium antagonists

- Block Ca^{2+} entry by preventing opening of voltage-gated L-type calcium channels.
- There are three main L-type antagonists, typified by verapamil, diltiazem and dihydropyridines (e.g. nifedipine).
- Mainly affect heart and smooth muscle, inhibiting the Ca^{2+} entry caused by depolarisation

in these tissues.

• Selectivity between heart and smooth muscle varies: verapamil is relatively cardioselective, nifedipine is relatively smooth muscle selective, and diltiazem is intermediate.

• Vasodilator effect (mainly dihydropyridines) is mainly on resistance vessels, reducing afterload. Calcium antagonists dilate coronary vessels, which is important in variant angina.

• Effects on heart (verapamil, diltiazem): antidysrhythmic action (mainly atrial tachycardias), because of impaired atrioventricular conduction; reduced contractility.

• Clinical uses:

– antidysrhythmic (mainly verapamil)

– angina (e.g. diltiazem)

– hypertension (mainly dihydropyridines).

• Unwanted effects include headache, constipation (verapamil) and ankle oedema (dihydropyridines). There is a risk of causing cardiac failure or heart block, especially with verapamil.

Clinical uses of calcium antagonists 

• Dysrhythmias (verapamil):

– to slow ventricular rate in rapid atrial fibrillation

– to prevent recurrence of supraventricular tachycardia (SVT) (intravenous administration of verapamil to terminate SVT attacks has been replaced by use of adenosine).

• Hypertension: usually a dihydropyridine drug (e.g. amlodipine or slow-release nifedipine; Ch. 22).

• To prevent angina (e.g. dihydropyridine or diltiazem).

References and Further Reading

Further reading

pie L.H., Gersh B.J. *Drugs for the heart*, seventh ed. Philadelphia: Saunders/ Elsevier; 2009.

aughan Williams E.M. Classification of antiarrhythmic actions. In: Vaughan Williams E.M., editor. *Antiarrhythmic drugs. Handbook of experimental pharmacology*, vol. 89. Berlin: Springer-Verlag; 1989. (*For a different approach, see Circulation 1994, 84, 1848*)

Specific aspects

Physiological and pathophysiological aspects

agrov A.Y., Shapiro J.I., Fedorova O.V. Endogenous cardiotonic steroids: physiology, pharmacology, and novel therapeutic targets. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2009;61:9-38. (*Reviews physiological interactions between CTS and other regulatory systems that may be important in the pathophysiology of essential hypertension, pre-eclampsia, end-stage renal disease, congestive heart failure and diabetes*)

ross G.J., Auchampach J.A. Reperfusion injury: does it exist? *J. Mol. Cell Cardiol.*. 2007;42:12-18. (*Mounting evidence supports the concept of reperfusion injury, based on work conducted with adenosine and opioid receptor ligands, and the discovery of 'postconditioning' [POC] and of the reperfusion injury salvage kinase [RISK] signalling pathway)*

otter L.R., Yoder A.R., Flora D.R., *et al.* Natriuretic peptides: their structures, receptors, physiologic functions and therapeutic applications. *Handb. Exp. Pharmacol.*. 2009;191:341-366. (*Reviews the history, structure, function and clinical applications of natriuretic peptides and their receptors)*

ichards A.M. Therapeutic potential of infused cardiac natriuretic peptides in myocardial infarction. *Heart.* 2009;95:1299-1300. (*Recent editorial on controversial issue)*

ockman H.A., Koch W.J., Lefkowitz R.J. Seven-transmembrane-spanning receptors and heart function. *Nature.* 2002;415:206-212.

choner W., Scheiner-Bobis G. Endogenous and exogenous cardiac glycosides: their roles in hypertension, salt metabolism, and cell growth. *Am. J .Physiol. Cell Physiol.*. 2007;293:C509-C536. (*Review: touches on anticancer potential also)*

eddon M., Melikian N., Dworakowski R., *et al.* Effects of neuronal nitric oxide synthase on human coronary artery diameter and blood flow in vivo. *Circulation*. 2009;119:2656-2662. (*Local nNOS-derived NO regulates basal blood flow in the human coronary vascular bed, whereas substance P-stimulated vasodilatation is eNOS mediated)*

Velsh M.J., Hoshi T. Molecular cardiology—ion channels lose the rhythm. *Nature*. 1995;376:640-641. (*Commentary on Ward–Romano syndrome)*

Therapeutic aspects

OMMIT Collaborative Group. Early intravenous then oral metoprolol in 45 852 patients with acute myocardial infarction: randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2005;366:1622-1632. *(Early β blockade reduced ventricular fibrillation and reinfarction, benefits that were offset by increased cardiogenic shock in patients with signs of heart failure; see accompanying comment by Sabatine, M.S. pp. 1587–1589 in the same issue)*

ox K., Ford I., Steg P.G., *et al.* Ivabradine for patients with stable coronary artery disease and left-ventricular systolic dysfunction (BEAUTIFUL): a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2008;372:807-816. (*Ivabradine does not improve cardiac outcomes in all patients with stable coronary artery disease and left-ventricular systolic dysfunction, but improved outcome in patients with heart rates > 70 bpm. See also adjacent paper: Fox, K., et al., 2008. Heart rate as a prognostic risk factor in patients with coronary artery disease and left-ventricular systolic dysfunction (BEAUTIFUL): a subgroup analysis of a randomised controlled trial. Lancet 372, 817–821)*

ohnloser S.H., Crijns H.J., van Eickels M., *et al.* Effect of dronedarone on cardiovascular events in atrial fibrillation. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2009;360:668-678. (*4628 patients with atrial fibrillation who had additional risk factors for death; those randomised to dronedarone had fewer hospitalisations due to cardiovascular events and longer survival)*

SIS-4 Collaborative Group. ISIS-4: a randomised factorial trial assessing early oral captopril, oral mononitrate, and intravenous magnesium sulphate in 58 050 patients with suspected acute myocardial infarction. *Lancet*. 1995;345:669-685. (*Impressive trial: disappointing results! Magnesium was ineffective; oral nitrate did not reduce 1-month mortality)*

øber L., Torp-Pedersen C., McMurray J.J.V., *et al.* Increased mortality after dronedarone therapy for severe heart failure. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2008;358:2678-2687.

ochegarov A.A. Pharmacological modulators of voltage-gated calcium channels and their therapeutical application. *Cell Calcium*. 2003;33:145-162.

ee L., Horowitz J., Frenneaux M. Metabolic manipulation in ischaemic heart disease, a novel approach to treatment. *Eur. Heart. J.*. 2004;25:634-641. (*Reviews four metabolic antianginal drugs: perhexiline, trimetazidine, ranolazine and etomoxir)*

larzilli M. Cardioprotective effects of trimetazidine: a review. *Curr. Med. Res. Opin.*. 2003;19:661-672. (*Reviews metabolic effects of this 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase inhibitor and its lack of haemodynamic effects in stable angina pectoris)*

ahimtoola S.H. Digitalis therapy for patients in clinical heart failure. *Circulation*. 2004;109:2942-2946. (*Review)*

oden D.M. Drug therapy: drug-induced prolongation of the QT interval N. Engl. J. Med. 350:2004:1013-1022 (*Adverse effect of great concern in drug development; see also* Ch. *57*)

uskin J.N. The cardiac arrhythmia suppression trial (CAST). *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1989;321:386-388. (*Enormously influential trial showing increased mortality with active treatment despite suppression of dysrhythmia)*

22

The vascular system

Overview

This chapter is concerned with the pharmacology of blood vessels. The walls of arteries, arterioles, venules and veins contain smooth muscle whose contractile state is controlled by circulating hormones and by mediators released locally from sympathetic nerve terminals (Ch. 12) and endothelial cells. These work mainly by regulating Ca^{2+} in vascular smooth muscle cells, as described in Chapter 4. In the present chapter, we first consider the control of vascular smooth muscle by the endothelium and by the renin–angiotensin system, followed by the actions of vasoconstrictor and vasodilator drugs. Finally, we briefly consider clinical uses of vasoactive drugs in some important diseases, namely hypertension (pulmonary as well as systemic), heart failure, shock, peripheral vascular disease and Raynaud's disease. The use of vasoactive drugs to treat angina is covered in Chapter 21.

Introduction

In this chapter we briefly describe the structure and function of the vascular system. Actions of drugs on the vascular system can be broken down into effects on:

- total systemic ('peripheral') vascular resistance, one of the main determinants of arterial blood pressure

• the resistance of individual vascular beds, which determines the local distribution of blood flow to and within different organs; such effects are relevant to the drug treatment of angina (Ch. 21), Raynaud's phenomenon, pulmonary hypertension and circulatory shock

• aortic compliance and pulse wave reflection, which are relevant to the treatment of cardiac failure and angina

• venous tone and blood volume (the 'fullness' of the circulation), which together determine the central venous pressure and are relevant to the treatment of cardiac failure and angina; diuretics (which reduce blood volume) are discussed in Chapter 28

• atheroma (Ch. 23) and thrombosis (Ch. 24)

• new vessel formation (angiogenesis)—important, for example, in diabetic retinopathy (Ch. 30) and in treating malignant disease (Ch. 55).

Drug effects considered in this chapter are caused by actions on vascular smooth muscle cells. Like other muscles, vascular smooth muscle contracts when cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) rises, but the coupling between $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and contraction is less tight than in striated or cardiac muscle (Ch. 4). Vasoconstrictors and vasodilators act by increasing or reducing $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, and/or by altering the sensitivity of the contractile machinery to $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. Figure 4.10 summarises cellular mechanisms that are involved in the control of smooth muscle contraction and relaxation. The control of vascular smooth muscle tone by various mediators is described in other chapters (noradrenaline in Ch. 14, 5-HT in Ch. 15, prostanoids in Ch. 17, nitric oxide [NO] in Ch. 20, cardiac natriuretic peptides in Ch. 21, antidiuretic hormone in Ch. 32). Here we focus on endothelium-derived mediators and on the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system, before describing the actions of

vasoactive drugs and their uses in some important clinical disorders (hypertension, heart failure, shock, peripheral vascular disease and Raynaud's disease).

Vascular Structure and Function

Blood is ejected with each heartbeat from the left ventricle into the aorta, whence it flows rapidly to the organs via large conduit arteries. Successive branching leads via muscular arteries to arterioles (endothelium surrounded by a layer of smooth muscle only one cell thick) and capillaries (naked tubes of endothelium), where gas and nutrient exchanges occur. Capillaries coalesce to form postcapillary venules, venules and progressively larger veins leading, via the vena cava, to the right heart. Deoxygenated blood ejected from the right ventricle travels through the pulmonary artery, pulmonary capillaries and pulmonary veins back to the left atrium.[1] Small muscular arteries and arterioles are the main resistance vessels, while veins are capacity vessels that contain a large fraction of the total blood volume. In terms of cardiac function, therefore, arteries and arterioles regulate the *afterload*, while veins and pulmonary vessels regulate the *preload* of the ventricles.

[1]William Harvey (physician to King Charles I) inferred the circulation of the blood on the basis of superbly elegant quantitative experiments long before the invention of the microscope enabled visual confirmation of the tiny vessels he had predicted. This intellectual triumph did his medical standing no good at all, and Aubrey wrote that 'he fell mightily in his practice, and was regarded by the vulgar as crack-brained'. Plus ça change …

Viscoelastic properties of large arteries determine arterial compliance (i.e. the degree to which the volume of the arterial system increases as

the pressure increases). This is an important factor in a circulatory system that is driven by an intermittent pump such as the heart. Blood ejected from the left ventricle is accommodated by distension of the aorta, which absorbs the pulsations and delivers a relatively steady flow to the tissues. The greater the compliance of the aorta, the more effectively are fluctuations damped out,[2] and the smaller the oscillations of arterial pressure with each heartbeat (i.e. the difference between the systolic and diastolic pressure, known as the 'pulse pressure'). Reflection of the pressure wave from branch points in the vascular tree also sustains arterial pressure during diastole. In young people, this helps to preserve a steady perfusion of vital organs, such as the kidney, during diastole.

[2]This cushioning action is called the 'windkessel' effect. The same principle was used to deliver a steady rather than intermittent flow from old-fashioned fire pumps.

However, excessive reflection can pathologically augment aortic systolic pressure. This results from stiffening of the aorta due to loss of elastin during ageing, especially in people with hypertension. Elastin is replaced by inelastic collagen. Cardiac work (see Ch. 21) can be reduced by increasing arterial compliance or by reducing arterial wave reflection, even if the cardiac output and mean arterial pressure are unchanged. Over around 55 years of age, pulse pressure and aortic stiffness are important risk factors for cardiac disease.

Control of Vascular Smooth Muscle Tone

Two important physiological systems regulate vascular tone, namely the vascular endothelium and the renin–angiotensin system.

The Vascular Endothelium

A new chapter in our understanding of vascular control opened with the discovery that vascular endothelium acts not only as a passive barrier between plasma and extracellular fluid, but also as a source of numerous potent mediators. These actively control the contraction of the underlying smooth muscle as well as influencing platelet and mononuclear cell function: the roles of the endothelium in haemostasis and thrombosis are discussed in Chapter 24. Several distinct classes of mediator are involved (Fig. 22.1).

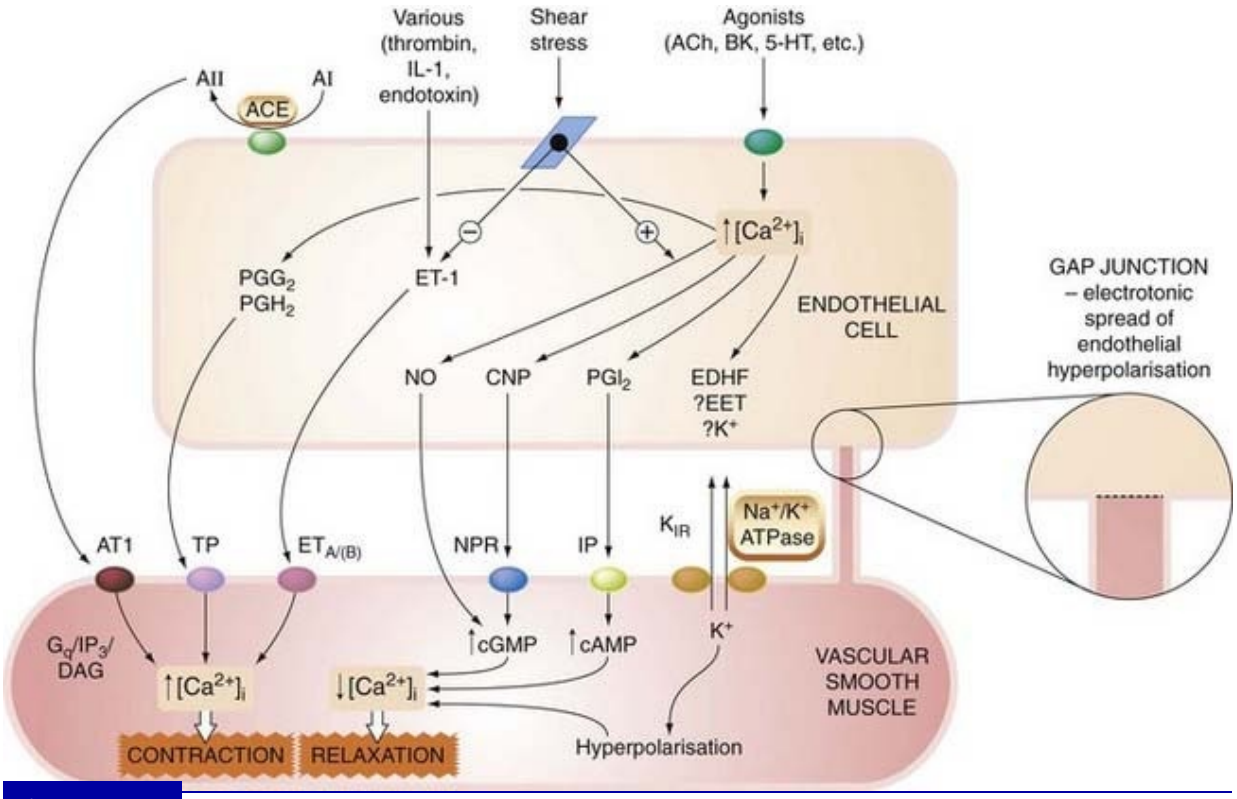


Fig. 22.1 Endothelium-derived mediators.

The schematic shows some of the more important endothelium-derived contracting and relaxing mediators; many (if not all) of the vasoconstrictors also cause smooth muscle mitogenesis, while vasodilators commonly inhibit mitogenesis. 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; A, angiotensin; ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme; ACh, acetylcholine; AT_1, angiotensin AT_1 receptor; BK, bradykinin; CNP, C-natriuretic peptide; DAG, diacylglycerol; EDHF, endothelium-derived hyperpolarising factor; EET, epoxyeicosatetraenoic acid; ET-1, endothelin-1; $ET_{A/(B)}$, endothelium A (and B) receptors; G_q, G-protein; IL-1, interleukin-1; IP, I prostanoid receptor; IP_3, inosinol 1,4,5-trisphosphate; K_{IR}, inward rectifying potassium channel; Na^+/K^+ ATPase,

electrogenic pump; NPR, natriuretic peptide receptor; PG, prostaglandin; TP, T prostanoid receptor.

Vascular smooth muscle

• Vascular smooth muscle is controlled by mediators secreted by sympathetic nerves (Chs 21 and 14) and vascular endothelium, and by circulating hormones.

• Smooth muscle cell contraction is initiated by a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, which activates myosin light-chain kinase, causing phosphorylation of myosin, or by sensitisation of the myofilaments to Ca^{2+} by inhibition of myosin phosphatase (see Ch. 4).

• Agents cause contraction via one or more mechanism:

– release of intracellular Ca^{2+} via inositol trisphosphate

– depolarising the membrane, opening voltage-gated calcium channels and causing Ca^{2+} entry

– increasing sensitivity to Ca^{2+} via actions on myosin light-chain kinase and/or myosin phosphatase (Ch. 4, Fig. 4.9).

• Agents cause relaxation by:

– inhibiting Ca^{2+} entry through voltage-gated calcium channels either directly (e.g. **nifedipine**) or indirectly by hyperpolarising the membrane (e.g. potassium channel activators such as the active metabolite of **minoxidil**)

– increasing intracellular cAMP or cGMP; cAMP inactivates myosin light-chain kinase and facilitates Ca^{2+} efflux, cGMP opposes agonist-induced increases in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.

• *Prostanoids* (see Ch. 17). The discovery by Bunting, Gryglewski, Moncada and Vane (1976) of prostaglandin PGI_2 (prostacyclin) ushered in this era. This mediator, acting on IP receptors (Ch. 17), relaxes smooth muscle and inhibits platelet aggregation by activating adenylyl cyclase. Endothelial cells from microvessels also synthesise PGE_2, which

is a direct vasodilator and inhibits noradrenaline release from sympathetic nerve terminals, while lacking the effect of PGI_2 on platelets. Prostaglandin endoperoxide intermediates (PGG_2, PGH_2) are endothelium-derived contracting factors acting via thromboxane (TX) TP receptors.

• *Nitric oxide (NO)* (see Ch. 20). *Endothelium-derived relaxing factor* (EDRF) was described by Furchgott and Zawadzki in 1980, and identified as NO by the groups of Moncada and of Ignarro (see Fig. 20.2). These discoveries enormously expanded our understanding of the role of the endothelium. NO activates guanylyl cyclase. It is released continuously in resistance vessels, giving rise to vasodilator tone and contributing to the physiological control of blood pressure. As well as causing vascular relaxation, it inhibits vascular smooth muscle cell proliferation, inhibits platelet adhesion and aggregation, and inhibits monocyte adhesion and migration; consequently, it may protect blood vessels from atherosclerosis and thrombosis (see Chs 23 and 24).

• *Peptides*. The endothelium secretes several vasoactive peptides. *C-natriuretic peptide* (Ch. 21) and *adrenomedulin* (a vasodilator peptide originally discovered in an adrenal tumour—phaeochromocytoma—but expressed in many tissues, including vascular endothelium) are vasodilators working, respectively, through cGMP and cAMP. *Angiotensin II*, formed by angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) on the surface of endothelial cells (see below), and *endothelin* are potent endothelium-derived vasoconstrictor peptides.

• *Endothelium-derived hyperpolarisation factors (EDHFs)*. PGI_2 and NO each hyperpolarise vascular smooth muscle, and this can contribute to their relaxant effects. Endothelium-dependent dilatation in response to several mediators (including acetylcholine and bradykinin) persists in

some vessels despite complete inhibition of prostaglandin and NO synthesis. Several endothelium-derived mediators have been implicated, including *epoxyeicosatrienoic acids* (EETs—derived from endothelial cytochrome P450 enzymes), various lipoxygenase (LOX) products, *hydrogen peroxide* (H_2O_2), *carbon monoxide* (CO), *hydrogen sulphide* (H_2S), and *C-natriuretic peptide* (CNP)—see Félétou & Vanhoutte (2009). These authors define an additional EDHF distinct from these mediators, and dependent on calcium-activated potassium (K_{Ca}) channels in endothelial cells. As the name implies, these channels are activated by an increase in endothelial cell $[Ca^{2+}]_i$.

In addition to secreting vasoactive mediators, endothelial cells express several enzymes and transport mechanisms that act on circulating hormones and are important targets of drug action. ACE is a particularly important example (see below).

Many endothelium-derived mediators are mutually antagonistic, conjuring an image of opposing rugby football players swaying back and forth in a scrum; in moments of exasperation, one sometimes wonders whether all this makes sense or whether the designer simply could not make up her mind! An important distinction is made between mechanisms that are tonically active in resistance vessels under basal conditions, as is the case with the noradrenergic nervous system (Ch. 14), NO (Ch. 20) and endothelin (see below), and those that operate mainly in response to injury, inflammation, etc., as with PGI_2. Some of the latter group may be functionally redundant, perhaps representing vestiges of mechanisms that were important to our evolutionary forebears, or they may simply be taking a breather on the touchline and are ready to rejoin the fray if called on by the occurrence of some vascular insult. Evidence for such a ‘back-up’ role comes, for example, from mice that lack the IP receptor for PGI_2, and that have a normal

blood pressure and do not develop spontaneous thrombosis, but are more susceptible to vasoconstrictor and thrombotic stimuli than their wild-type litter mates (Murata et al., 1997).

The Endothelium in Angiogenesis

As touched on in Chapter 8, the barrier function of vascular endothelium differs markedly in different organs, and its development during angiogenesis is controlled by several growth factors, including *vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)* and various tissue-specific factors such as endocrine gland VEGF. These are involved in repair processes and in pathogenesis (e.g. tumour growth and in neovascularisation in the eye—an important cause of blindness in patients with diabetes mellitus). These factors and their receptors are potentially fruitful targets for drug development and new therapies (including gene therapies; Ch. 59).

Endothelin

Discovery, biosynthesis and secretion

Hickey *et al.* described a vasoconstrictor factor produced by cultured endothelial cells in 1985. This was identified as *endothelin*, a 21-residue peptide, by Yanagisawa *et al.* (1988), who achieved the isolation, analysis and cloning of the gene for this peptide, which at that time was the most potent vasoconstrictor known,[3] in an impressively short space of time.

[3]Subsequently an 11-amino acid peptide (*urotensin*) was isolated from the brains of bony fish and found to be 50–100 times more potent a vasoconstrictor than endothelin in some blood vessels. It and its receptor are expressed in human tissue but its function, if any, in man remains enigmatic.

▼ Three genes encode different sequences (ET-1, ET-2 and ET-3), each

with a distinctive ‘shepherd’s crook’ structure produced by two internal disulfide bonds. These isoforms are differently expressed in organs such as brain and adrenal glands (Table 22.1), suggesting that endothelins have functions beyond the cardiovascular system, and this is supported by observations of mice in which the gene coding for ET-1 is disrupted (see below). ET-1 is the only endothelin present in endothelial cells, and is also expressed in many other tissues. Its synthesis and actions are summarised schematically in Figure 22.2. ET-2 is much less widely distributed: it is present in kidney and intestine. ET-3 is present in brain, lung, intestine and adrenal gland. ET-1 is synthesised from a 212-residue precursor molecule (prepro-ET), which is processed to ‘big ET-1’ and finally cleaved by an endothelin-converting enzyme to yield ET-1. Cleavage occurs not at the usual Lys–Arg or Arg–Arg position, but at a Trp–Val pair, implying a very atypical endopeptidase. The converting enzyme is a metalloprotease and is inhibited by **phosphoramidon** (a pharmacological tool but not used therapeutically). Big ET-1 is converted to ET-1 intracellularly and also on the surface of endothelial and smooth muscle cells.

Table 22.1 Distribution of endothelins and endothelin receptors in various tissues[a]

Tissues	Endothelin			Endothelin receptor	
	1	2	3	ET_A	ET_B
Vascular tissue Endothelium	++++				+
Smooth muscle	+			++	
Brain	+++		+	+	+++
Kidney	++	++	+	+	++
Intestines	+	+	+++	+	+++
Adrenal gland	+		+++	+	++

[a] Levels of expression of endothelins or the receptor mRNA and/or immunoreactive endothelins: ++++, highest; +++, high; ++, moderate; +, low.
(Adapted from Masaki T 1993 Endocr Rev 14: 256–268.)

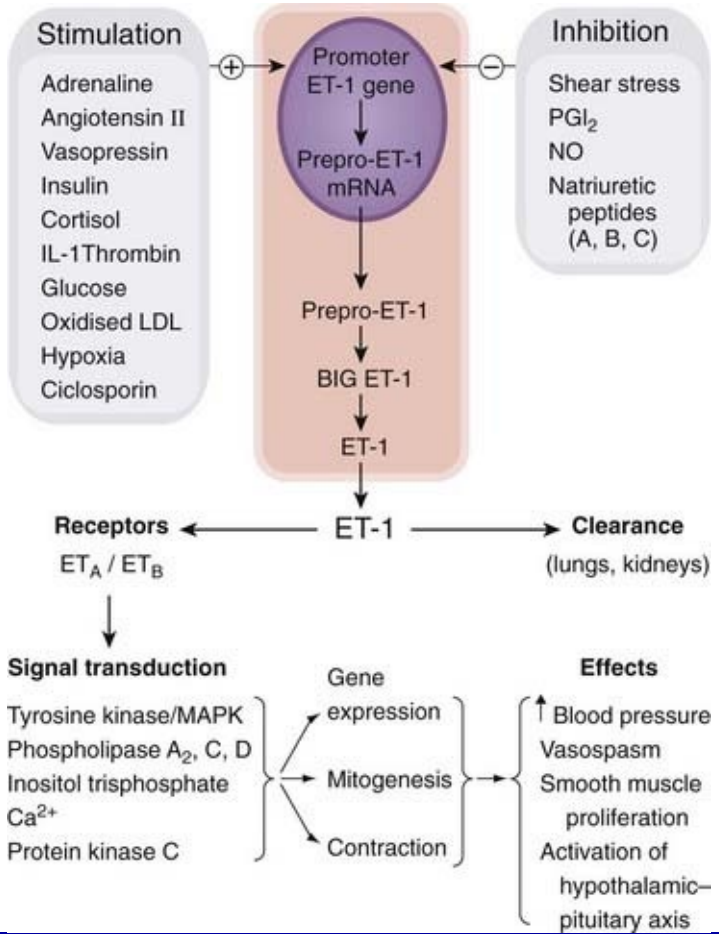


Fig. 22.2 Endothelin-1 (ET-1) synthesis and actions.
The schematic shows some of the more important actions only. IL-1, interleukin-1; LDL, low-

density lipoprotein; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; NO, nitric oxide; PGI_2, prostaglandin I_2.

Stimuli of endothelin synthesis include many vasoconstrictor mediators released by trauma or inflammation, including activated platelets, endotoxin, thrombin, various cytokines and growth factors, angiotensin II, antidiuretic hormone (ADH), adrenaline, insulin, hypoxia and low shear stress. Inhibitors of ET synthesis include NO, natriuretic peptides, PGE_2, PGI_2, heparin and high shear stress.

Release mechanisms of ET-1 are poorly understood. There is evidence that preformed ET-1 can be stored in endothelial cells, although probably not in granules. ET-1 concentration in plasma is low (< 5 pmol/l) compared with concentrations that activate endothelin receptors, but concentrations in the extracellular space between endothelium and vascular smooth muscle are presumably much higher, and endothelin receptor antagonists (see below) cause vasodilatation when infused directly into the brachial artery, consistent with tonic ET-1-mediated vasoconstrictor activity in resistance vasculature. ET-1 has an elimination half life of < 5 min, despite a much longer duration of action, and clearance occurs mainly in the lung and kidneys.

Endothelin receptors and responses

There are two types of endothelin receptor, designated ET_A and ET_B (Table 22.2), both of which are G-protein coupled (Ch. 3). The predominant overall response is vasoconstriction.

Table 22.2 Endothelin receptors

Receptor	Affinity	Pharmacological response
ET_A	ET-1 = ET-2 > ET-3	Vasoconstriction, bronchoconstriction, stimulation of aldosterone secretion

	ET-3	aldosterone secretion
ET_B	ET-1 = ET-2 = ET-3	Vasodilatation, inhibition of ex vivo platelet aggregation

(From Masaki T 1993 Endocr Rev 14: 256–268.)

▼ Endothelin-1 preferentially activates ET_A receptors. Messenger RNA for the ETA receptor is expressed in many human tissues, including vascular smooth muscle, heart, lung and kidney. It is not expressed in endothelium. ET_A-mediated responses include vasoconstriction, bronchoconstriction and aldosterone secretion. ET_A receptors are coupled to phospholipase C, which stimulates Na^+/H^+ exchange, protein kinase C and mitogenesis, as well as causing vasoconstriction through inositol trisphosphate-mediated Ca^{2+} release (Ch. 3). There are several partially selective ET_A-receptor antagonists, including BQ-123 (a cyclic pentapeptide) and several orally active non-peptide drugs (e.g. **bosentan**, a mixed ET_A/ET_B antagonist used in treating pulmonary arterial hypertension—see below). ET_B receptors are activated to a similar extent by each of the three endothelin isoforms, but *sarafotoxin S6c* (a 21-residue peptide that shares the shepherd's crook structure of the endothelins and was isolated from the venom of the burrowing asp) is a selective agonist and has proved useful as a pharmacological tool for studying the ET_B receptor. Messenger RNA for the ET_B receptor is mainly expressed in brain (especially cerebral cortex and cerebellum), with moderate expression in aorta, heart, lung, kidney and adrenals. In contrast to the ET_A receptor, it is highly expressed in endothelium, where it may initiate *vasodilatation* by stimulating NO and PGI_2 production, but it is also present in vascular smooth muscle, where it initiates vasoconstriction like the ET_A receptor. ET_B receptors play a part in clearing ET-1 from the circulation, and ET antagonists with appreciable affinity for ET_B receptors consequently increase plasma

concentrations of ET-1, complicating interpretation of experiments with these drugs.

Functions of endothelin

Endothelin-1 is a *paracrine* mediator rather than a circulating hormone, although it stimulates secretion of several hormones (see below). Administration of an ET_A-receptor antagonist or of phosphoramidon into the brachial artery increases forearm blood flow, and ET_A receptor antagonists lower arterial blood pressure, suggesting that ET-1 contributes to vasoconstrictor tone and the control of peripheral vascular resistance. Endothelins have several other possible functions, including roles in:

- release of various hormones, including atrial natriuretic peptide, aldosterone, adrenaline, and hypothalamic and pituitary hormones
- natriuresis and diuresis via actions of collecting duct-derived ET-1 on ET_B receptors on tubular epithelial cells (Ge et al., 2006)
- thyroglobulin synthesis (the concentration of ET-1 in thyroid follicles is extremely high)
- control of uteroplacental blood flow (ET-1 is present in very high concentrations in amniotic fluid)
- renal and cerebral vasospasm (Fig. 22.3)
- development of the cardiorespiratory systems (if the ET-1 gene is disrupted in mice, pharyngeal arch tissues develop abnormally and homozygotes die of respiratory failure at birth), and ET receptor antagonists are teratogenic, causing cardiorespiratory developmental disorders.

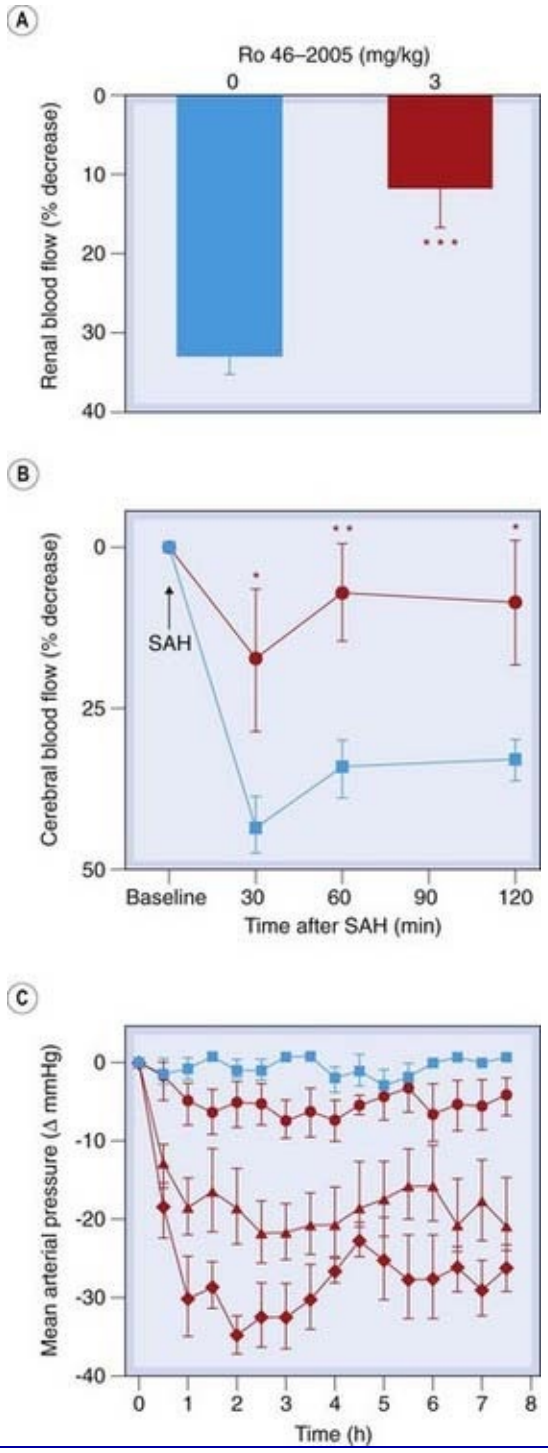


Fig. 22.3 In vivo effects of a potent non-peptide endothelin-1 ET_A- and ET_B-receptor antagonist, Ro 46-2005, in three animal models.

[**A**] Prevention by Ro 46-2005 of postischaemic renal vasoconstriction in rats. [**B**] Prevention by Ro 46-2005 of the decrease in cerebral blood flow after subarachnoid haemorrhage (SAH) in rats treated with placebo (blue) or with Ro 46-2005 (red). [**C**] Effect of orally administered Ro 46-2005 on mean arterial pressure in sodium-depleted squirrel monkeys treated with placebo

(blue) or increasing doses of antagonist (red: • < ▲ < ♦.

(From Clozel M et al. 1993 Nature 365: 759–761.)

The role of the endothelium in controlling vascular smooth muscle

• Endothelial cells release vasoactive mediators including prostacyclin (PGI_2) and nitric oxide (NO) (vasodilators), and endothelin (vasoconstrictor).

• Many vasodilators (e.g. acetylcholine and bradykinin) act via endothelial NO production. The NO derives from arginine and is produced when $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ increases in the endothelial cell, or the sensitivity of endothelial NO synthase to Ca^{2+} is increased (see Fig. 20.3).

• NO relaxes smooth muscle by increasing cGMP formation.

• Endothelin is a potent and long-acting vasoconstrictor peptide released from endothelial cells by many chemical and physical factors. It is not confined to blood vessels, and it has several functional roles.

The Renin–Angiotensin System

The renin–angiotensin system synergises with the sympathetic nervous system, for example by increasing the release of noradrenaline from sympathetic nerve terminals. It stimulates aldosterone secretion and plays a central role in the control of Na^+ excretion and fluid volume, as well as of vascular tone.

The control of renin secretion (Fig. 22.4) is only partly understood. It is a proteolytic enzyme that is secreted by the *juxtaglomerular apparatus* (see Fig. 28.2) in response to various physiological stimuli including reduced renal perfusion pressure, or reduced Na^+ concentration in distal tubular fluid which is sensed by the *macula densa* (a specialised part of the distal tubule apposed to the juxtaglomerular apparatus). Renal

sympathetic nerve activity, β-adrenoceptor agonists and PGI_2 all stimulate renin secretion directly, whereas angiotensin II causes feedback inhibition. Atrial natriuretic peptide (Ch. 21) also inhibits renin secretion. Renin is cleared rapidly from plasma. It acts on *angiotensinogen* (a plasma globulin made in the liver), splitting off a decapeptide, *angiotensin I*.

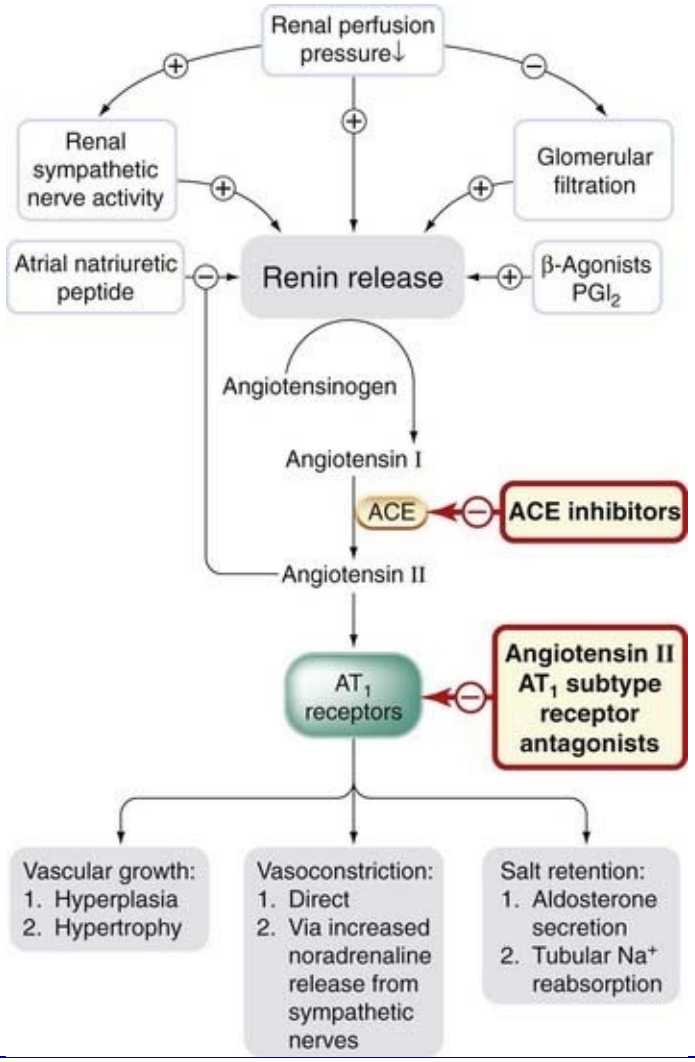


Fig. 22.4 Control of renin release and formation, and action of angiotensin II.

Sites of action of drugs that inhibit the cascade are shown. ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme; AT_1, angiotensin II receptor subtype 1.

Angiotensin I has no appreciable activity per se, but is converted by

angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) to an octapeptide, *angiotensin II*, which is a potent vasoconstrictor. Angiotensin II is a substrate for enzymes (aminopeptidase A and N) that remove single amino acid residues, giving rise, respectively, to angiotensin III and angiotensin IV (Fig. 22.5). These had been regarded as of little importance, but it is now known that angiotensin III stimulates aldosterone secretion and is involved in thirst. Angiotensin IV also has distinct actions, probably via its own receptor, including release of *plasminogen activator inhibitor-1* from the endothelium (Ch. 21). Receptors for angiotensin IV have a distinctive distribution, including the hypothalamus.

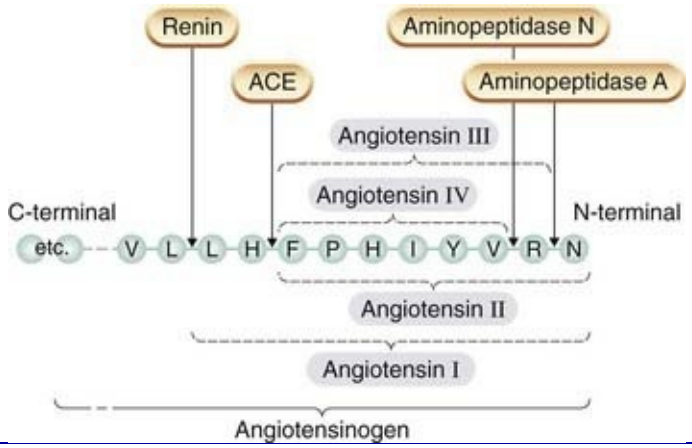


Fig. 22.5 Formation of angiotensins I–IV from the N-terminal of the precursor protein angiotensinogen.

Angiotensin-converting enzyme is a membrane-bound enzyme on the surface of endothelial cells, and is particularly abundant in the lung, which has a vast surface area of vascular endothelium.[4] The common isoform of ACE is also present in other vascular tissues, including heart, brain, striated muscle and kidney, and is not restricted to endothelial cells.[5] Consequently, local formation of angiotensin II can occur in different vascular beds, and it provides local control independent of blood-borne angiotensin II. ACE inactivates bradykinin (see Ch. 19) and

several other peptides. This may contribute to the pharmacological actions of ACE inhibitors, as discussed below. The main actions of angiotensin II are mediated via AT_1 and/or AT_2 receptors, which belong to the family of G-protein-coupled receptors. Effects mediated by AT1 receptors include:

- generalised vasoconstriction, especially marked in efferent arterioles of the renal glomeruli
- increased noradrenaline release, reinforcing sympathetic effects
- proximal tubular reabsorption of Na^+
- secretion of aldosterone from the adrenal cortex (see Ch. 32)
- growth of cardiac and vascular cells.[6]

[4]Approximately that of a football field.

[5]A different isoform of ACE is also present in testis, and male mice lacking this ACE have markedly reduced fertility.

[6]These effects are initiated by the G-protein-coupled AT_1 receptor acting via the same intracellular tyrosine phosphorylation pathways as are used by cytokines, for example the Jak/Stat pathway (Ch. 3).

AT_2 receptors are expressed during fetal life and in distinct brain regions in adults. They may be involved in growth, development and exploratory behaviour. Cardiovascular effects of AT_2 receptors (inhibition of cell growth and lowering of blood pressure) are relatively subtle and oppose those of AT_1 receptors.

The renin–angiotensin–aldosterone pathway contributes to the pathogenesis of heart failure, and several leading classes of therapeutic drug act on it at different points (see below).

Vasoactive Drugs

Drugs can affect vascular smooth muscle by acting either directly on smooth muscle cells, or indirectly, for example on endothelial cells, on sympathetic nerve terminals or on the central nervous system (CNS) (Table 22.3). Mechanisms of directly acting vasoconstrictors and vasodilators are summarised in Figure 4.10. Many indirectly acting drugs are discussed in other chapters (see Table 22.3). We concentrate here on agents that are not covered elsewhere.

Table 22.3 Classification of vasoactive drugs that act indirectly

Site	Mechanism	Examples	See Chapter
Vasoconstrictors			
Sympathetic nerves	Noradrenaline (norepinephrine) release	Tyramine	14
	Blocks noradrenaline reuptake	Cocaine	14
Endothelium	Endothelin release	Angiotensin II (in part)	This chapter
Vasodilators			
Sympathetic nerves	Inhibits noradrenaline release	Prostaglandin E_2, guanethidine	12, 14
Endothelium	Nitric oxide release	Acetylcholine, substance P	20
Central nervous system	Vasomotor inhibition	Anaesthetics	40
Enzymes	Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibition	Captopril	This chapter

Vasoconstrictor Drugs

The α_1-adrenoceptor agonists and drugs that release noradrenaline from sympathetic nerve terminals or inhibit its reuptake (sympathomimetic amines) cause vasoconstriction and are discussed in Chapter 14. Some eicosanoids (e.g. *thromboxane* A_2; see Chs 17 and 24) and several peptides, notably *endothelin*, *angiotensin* and *ADH*, are also predominantly vasoconstrictor. **Sumatriptan** and ergot alkaloids acting on certain 5-hydroxytryptamine receptors (5-HT_2 and 5-HT_{1D}) also cause vasoconstriction (Ch. 15).

Angiotensin II

The physiological role of the renin–angiotensin system is described above. Angiotensin II is roughly 40 times as potent as noradrenaline in raising blood pressure. Like α_1-adrenoceptor agonists, it constricts mainly cutaneous, splanchnic and renal vasculature, with less effect on blood flow to brain and skeletal muscle. It has no routine clinical uses, its therapeutic importance lying in the fact that other drugs (e.g. **captopril** and **losartan**, see below) affect the cardiovascular system by reducing its production or action.

Antidiuretic Hormone

Antidiuretic hormone (ADH, also known as vasopressin) is a posterior pituitary peptide hormone (Ch. 32). It is important for its antidiuretic action on the kidney (Ch. 28) but is also a powerful vasoconstrictor in skin and some other vascular beds. Its effects are initiated by two distinct receptors (V_1 and V_2). Water retention is mediated through V_2 receptors, occurs at low plasma concentrations of ADH and involves activation of adenylyl cyclase in renal collecting ducts. Vasoconstriction is mediated through V_1 receptors, requires higher concentrations of ADH and involves activation of phospholipase C (see Ch. 3). ADH causes generalised vasoconstriction, including the coeliac, mesenteric and coronary vessels. It also affects other (e.g. gastrointestinal and uterine) smooth muscle and causes abdominal cramps for this reason. It is sometimes used to treat patients with bleeding oesophageal varices and portal hypertension before more definitive treatment, although many gastroenterologists prefer to use **octreotide** (unlicensed indication; see Ch. 32) for this. It may also have a place in treating hypotensive shock (see below).

Endothelin

Endothelins are discussed above in the context of their physiological

roles; as explained above, they have vasodilator and vasoconstrictor actions, but vasoconstriction predominates. Intravenous administration causes transient vasodilatation followed by profound and long-lived vasoconstriction. The endothelins are even more potent vasoconstrictors than angiotensin II. As yet, they have no clinical uses, and ET antagonists are licensed only for the rare disease primary pulmonary hypertension (see below).

Vasoconstrictor substances

• The main groups are sympathomimetic amines (direct and indirect; Ch. 14), certain eicosanoids (especially thromboxane A_2; Ch. 17), peptides (angiotensin II, antidiuretic hormone [ADH] and endothelin; Ch. 19) and a group of miscellaneous drugs (e.g. ergot alkaloids; Ch. 15).

• Clinical uses include local applications (e.g. nasal decongestion, co-administration with local anaesthetics). Sympathomimetic amines and ADH are used in circulatory shock. Adrenaline is life-saving in anaphylactic shock and in cardiac arrest. ADH may be used to stop bleeding from oesophageal varices in patients with portal hypertension caused by liver disease.

Vasodilator Drugs

Vasodilator drugs play a major role in the treatment of common conditions including hypertension, cardiac failure and angina pectoris, as well as several less common but severe diseases including pulmonary hypertension and Raynaud's disease.

Directly Acting Vasodilators

Targets on which drugs act to relax vascular smooth muscle include plasma membrane voltage-dependent calcium channels, sarcoplasmic reticulum channels (Ca^{2+} release or reuptake) and enzymes that determine Ca^{2+} sensitivity of the contractile proteins (see Fig. 4.10).[7]

Calcium antagonists

[7]A pyridine drug, Y27632, causes vasorelaxation by inhibiting a Rho-associated protein kinase, thereby selectively inhibiting smooth muscle contraction by inhibiting Ca^{2+} sensitisation.

L-type calcium antagonists are discussed in Chapter 21. As well as their actions on the heart they cause generalised arterial vasodilatation, although individual agents exhibit distinct patterns of regional potency. Dihydropyridines (e.g. **nifedipine**) act preferentially on vascular smooth muscle, whereas **verapamil** acts directly on the heart (negative chronotropic and inotropic effects) in addition to causing vasodilatation; **diltiazem** is intermediate in specificity. Consequently, rapid-acting dihydropyridines usually produce reflex tachycardia, whereas verapamil and diltiazem do not.

Drugs that activate potassium channels

Some drugs (e.g. **minoxidil**, **diazoxide**) relax smooth muscle by opening K_{ATP} channels (see Fig. 22.6). This hyperpolarises the cells and switches off voltage-dependent calcium channels.[8] Potassium channel activators work by antagonising the action of intracellular ATP on these channels.

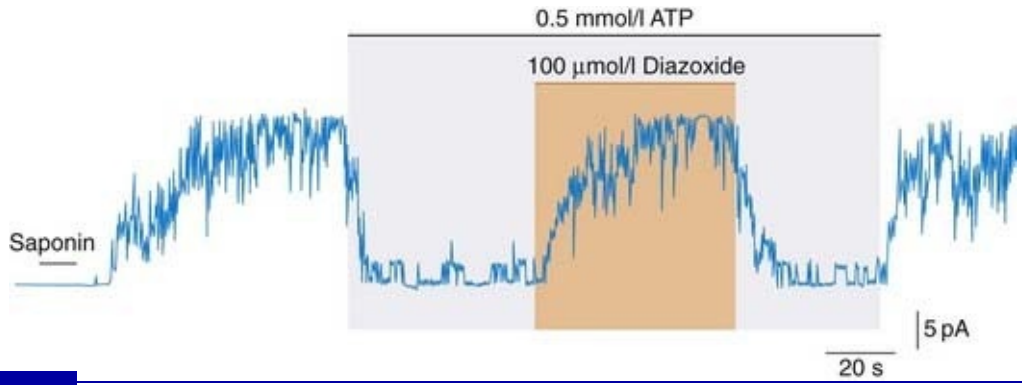


Fig. 22.6 ATP-sensitive potassium channels.

Patch clamp (see Ch. 3) record from insulin-secreting pancreatic B cell: saponin permeabilised the cell, with loss of intracellular ATP, causing the channels to open (upward deflection) until they were inhibited by ATP. Addition of diazoxide, a vasodilator drug (which also inhibits

insulin secretion; see text) reopens the channels. In smooth muscle, this causes hyperpolarisation and relaxation.

(Redrawn from Dunne et al. 1990 Br J Pharmacol 99: 169.)

[8]K_{ATP} channels in pancreatic islet B cells form an important link between the metabolic state of the cell and membrane function, and sulfonylurea drugs cause insulin secretion by mimicking the action of ATP on these channels (see Ch. 30). Conversely, potassium channel activators such as **diazoxide** (Fig. 22.6) increase blood glucose by inhibiting insulin secretion from the pancreas.

Minoxidil is a very potent and long-acting vasodilator, used as a drug of last resort in treating severe hypertension unresponsive to other drugs. It causes hirsutism (its active metabolite is actually used as a rub-on cream to treat baldness). It also causes marked salt and water retention, and is usually prescribed with a loop diuretic. It causes reflex tachycardia, and a β-adrenoceptor antagonist is used to prevent this. **Nicorandil** (Ch. 21) combines K_{ATP} channel activation with NO donor activity, and is used in refractory angina. **Levosimendan** combines K_{ATP} channel activation with sensitisation of the cardiac contractile mechanism to Ca^{2+} by binding troponin C (Ch. 21), and is used in decompensated heart failure (see below).

Drugs that act via cyclic nucleotides

Cyclase activation

Many drugs relax vascular smooth muscle by increasing the cellular concentration of either cGMP or cAMP. For example, NO, nitrates and the natriuretic peptides act through cGMP (see Chs 20 and 21); BAY41-2272, a pyrazolopyridine, activates soluble guanylyl cyclase via an NO-independent site (see Ch. 20). The *β_2 agonists*, *adenosine* and *PGI_2*

increase cytoplasmic cAMP (see Ch. 14). *Dopamine* has mixed vasodilator and vasoconstrictor actions. It selectively dilates renal vessels, where it increases cAMP by activating adenylyl cyclase. It is the precursor of *noradrenaline* (Ch. 14), and is also a transmitter in its own right in the brain (Ch. 38) and probably also in the periphery (Ch. 12). Dopamine, when administered as an intravenous infusion, produces a mixture of cardiovascular effects resulting from agonist actions on α-and β-adrenoceptors, as well as on dopamine receptors. Blood pressure increases slightly, but the main effects are vasodilatation in the renal circulation and increased cardiac output. Dopamine was widely used in intensive care units in patients in whom renal failure associated with decreased renal perfusion appeared imminent; despite its beneficial effect on renal haemodynamics, it does not, however, improve survival in these circumstances and this use is obsolete (Liang et al., 2008). **Nesiritide**, a recombinant form of human B-type natriuretic peptide (BNP) (see Ch. 21), has been approved in the USA for the treatment of acutely decompensated heart failure, but a pooled analysis of randomised controlled trials has suggested that it too may increase mortality, and indications for its use remain controversial (Potter et al., 2009).

Nitroprusside (nitroferricyanide) is a powerful vasodilator with little effect outside the vascular system. It reacts with tissue sulfhydryl groups under physiological conditions to yield NO. Unlike the organic nitrates, which preferentially dilate capacitance vessels and muscular arteries, it acts equally on arterial and venous smooth muscle. Its clinical usefulness is limited because it must be given intravenously. In solution, particularly when exposed to light, nitroprusside hydrolyses with formation of cyanide. The intravenous solution must therefore be made up freshly from dry powder and protected from light. Nitroprusside is

rapidly converted to thiocyanate in the body, its plasma half-life being only a few minutes, so it must be given as a continuous infusion with careful monitoring to avoid hypotension. Prolonged use causes thiocyanate accumulation and toxicity (weakness, nausea and inhibition of thyroid function); consequently, nitroprusside is useful only for short-term treatment (usually up to 72 h maximum). It is used in intensive care units for hypertensive emergencies, to produce controlled hypotension during surgery, and to reduce cardiac work during the reversible cardiac dysfunction that occurs after cardiopulmonary bypass surgery.

Phosphodiesterase inhibition

Phosphodiesterases (PDEs; see Ch. 3) include at least 14 distinct isoenzymes. Methylxanthines (e.g. **theophylline**) and **papaverine** are non-selective PDE inhibitors (and have other actions, too). Methylxanthines exert their main effects on bronchial smooth muscle and on the CNS, and are discussed in Chapters 27 and 47. In addition to inhibiting PDE, some methylxanthines are also purine receptor antagonists (Ch. 16). Papaverine is produced by opium poppies (see Ch. 41) and is chemically related to **morphine**. However, pharmacologically it is quite unlike morphine, its main action being to relax smooth muscle. Its mechanism is poorly understood but seems to involve a combination of PDE inhibition and block of calcium channels. Selective PDE type III inhibitors (e.g. **milrinone**) increase cAMP in cardiac muscle. They have a positive inotropic effect but, despite short-term haemodynamic improvement, increase mortality in heart failure, possibly by causing dysrhythmias. **Cilostazol**, a related drug, improves symptoms in patients with peripheral vascular disease (see below). **Dipyridamole**, as well as enhancing the actions of adenosine (see Ch. 16), also causes vasodilatation by inhbiting phosphodiesterase. It is used

to prevent stroke, but can provoke angina. Selective *PDE type V* inhibitors (e.g. **sildenafil**) inhibit the breakdown of cGMP. Penile erection is caused by increased activity in nitrergic nerves in the pelvis. These release NO (Ch. 20), which activates guanylyl cyclase in smooth muscle in the corpora cavernosa. Taken by mouth about an hour before sexual stimulation, sildenafil increases penile erection by potentiating this pathway. It has revolutionised treatment of erectile dysfunction (see Ch. 34) and has therapeutic potential in other situations, including pulmonary hypertension (see below) via potentiation of NO-mediated effects.

Vasodilator drugs

• Vasodilators act:

– to increase local tissue blood flow

– to reduce arterial pressure

– to reduce central venous pressure.

• Net effect is a reduction of cardiac preload (reduced filling pressure) and of afterload (reduced vascular resistance), hence reduction of cardiac work.

• Main uses are:

– antihypertensive therapy (e.g. AT_1 antagonists, calcium antagonists and $\alpha 1$-adrenoceptor antagonists)

– treatment/prophylaxis of angina (e.g. calcium antagonists, nitrates)

– treatment of cardiac failure (e.g. angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, AT_1 antagonists).

Vasodilators with Unknown Mechanism of Action

Hydralazine

Hydralazine acts mainly on arteries and arterioles, causing a fall in blood

pressure accompanied by reflex tachycardia and an increased cardiac output. It interferes with the action of inositol trisphosphate on Ca^{2+} release from the sarcoplasmic reticulum. Its original clinical use was in hypertension. It is still used for short-term treatment of severe hypertension in pregnancy but can cause an immune disorder resembling systemic lupus erythematosus,[9] so alternative agents are now usually preferred for long-term treatment of hypertension. It has a place in treating heart failure in patients of African origin in combination with a long-acting organic nitrate (see below).

Ethanol

[9]An autoimmune disease affecting one or more tissues, including joints, skin and pleural membranes. It is characterised by antibodies directed against DNA.

Ethanol (see Ch. 48) dilates cutaneous vessels, causing the familiar drunkard's flush. Several general anaesthetics (e.g. **propofol**) cause vasodilatation as an unwanted effect (Ch. 40).

Indirectly Acting Vasodilator Drugs

The two main groups of indirectly acting vasodilator drugs are inhibitors of:

1 sympathetic vasoconstriction

2 the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system.

The central control of sympathetically mediated vasoconstriction is believed to involve not only α_2 adrenoceptors but also another class of receptor, termed the *imidazoline I_1 receptor*, present in the brain stem in the rostral ventrolateral medulla. Drugs can inhibit the sympathetic pathway at any point from the CNS to the peripheral sympathetic nerve terminal (see Ch. 14). In addition, many vasodilators (e.g. acetylcholine,

bradykinin, substance P) exert some or all of their effects by stimulating biosynthesis of vasodilator prostaglandins or of NO (or of both) by vascular endothelium (see above and Ch. 20), thereby causing functional antagonism of the constrictor tone caused by sympathetic nerves and angiotensin II.

The renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system (RAAS—see Table 22.4 for a summary of selective antagonists) can be inhibited at several points:

- renin release: β-adrenoceptor antagonists inhibit renin release (although their other actions can result in a small increase in peripheral vascular resistance)
- renin activity: renin inhibitors
- ACE: ACE inhibitors (ACEIs)
- angiotensin II receptors: AT_1-receptor antagonists (ARBs)
- aldosterone receptors: aldosterone-receptor antagonists.

Table 22.4 Summary of drugs that inhibit the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system

Class	Drug[a]	Pharmacokinetics	Adverse effects[b]	Uses	Notes
ACE inhibitors	Captopril	Short acting $t_{1/2}$ ~2 h Dose 2–3 times daily	Cough Hypotension Proteinuria Taste disturbance	Hypertension Heart failure After MI	ACEIs are cleared mainly by renal excretion
	Enalapril	Pro-drug—active metabolite enalaprilat $t_{1/2}$ ~11 h Dose 1–2 times daily	Cough Hypotension Reversible renal impairment (in patients with renal artery stenosis)	As captopril	Lisinopril, perindopril, ramipril, trandalopril are similar Some are licensed for different uses (e.g. stroke, left ventricular hypertrophy)
Angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs)	Valsartan	$t_{1/2}$ ~6 h	Hypotension Reversible renal impairment (in patients with renal artery stenosis)	Hypertension Heart failure	ARBs are cleared by hepatic metabolism
	Losartan	Long-acting metabolite $t_{1/2}$ ~8 h	As valsartan	As valsartan Diabetic nephropathy	Irbesartan is similar, with $t_{1/2}$ ~10–15 h
	Candesartan	$t_{1/2}$ 5–10 h Long acting because receptor complex is stable	As valsartan	As valsartan	Given as prodrug ester (candesartan cilexetil)
Renin inhibitor	Aliskiren	Low oral bioavailability $t_{1/2}$ 24 h	As valsartan, also diarrhoea	Essential hypertension	Licensed in 2007, the first drug of this type
Aldosterone antagonists	Eplerenone	$t_{1/2}$ 3–5 h	As valsartan, especially hyperkalemia Nausea, diarrhoea	Heart failure after MI	
	Spironolactone	Prodrug converted to canrenone, which has $t_{1/2}$ ~24 h	As eplerenone Also oestrogenic effects (gynaecomastia, menstrual irregularity, erectile dysfunction)	Primary hyperaldosteronism Heart failure Oedema and ascites (e.g. in hepatic cirrhosis)	

[a] All drugs listed are orally active.
[b] Adverse effects common to all drugs listed include hyperkalemia (especially in patients with impaired renal function) and teratogenesis.
ACEI, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor; MI, myocardial infarction.

Renin inhibitors

Orally active renin inhibitors reduce plasma renin activity. One such drug, **aliskiren**, is licensed for essential hypertension.

Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors

The first ACEI to be marketed was **captopril** (Fig. 22.7), an early example of successful drug design based on a chemical knowledge of the target molecule. Various small peptides had been found to be weak inhibitors of the enzyme.[10] Captopril was designed to combine the steric properties of such peptide antagonists in a non-peptide molecule that was active when given by mouth. Captopril has a short plasma half-life

(about 2 h) and must be given 2 or 3 times daily. Later ACE inhibitors (Table 22.4), which are widely used in the clinic, have a longer duration of action.

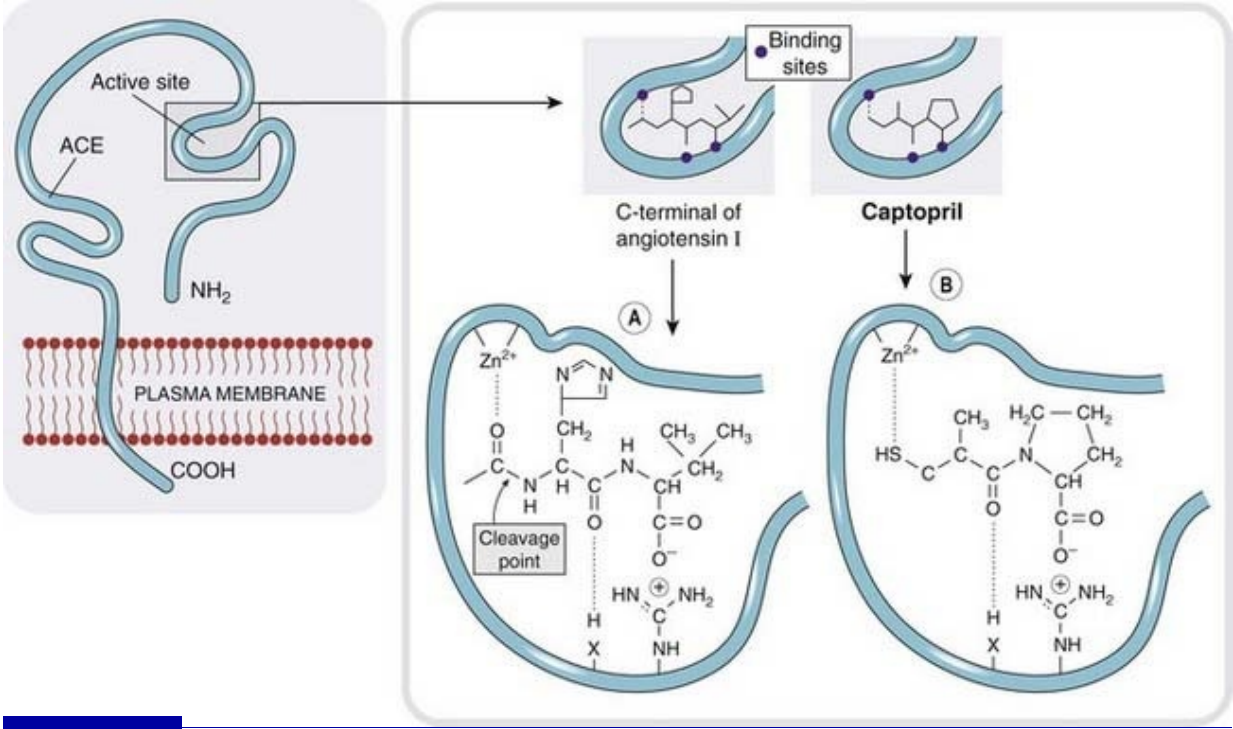


Fig. 22.7 The active site of angiotensin-converting enzyme.

[**A**] Binding of angiotensin I. [**B**] Binding of the inhibitor captopril, which is an analogue of the terminal dipeptide of angiotensin I.

Pharmacological effects

[10]The lead compound was a nonapeptide derived from the venom of *Bothrops jacaraca*—a South American snake. It was originally characterised as a bradykinin-potentiating peptide (ACE inactivates bradykinin).

ACE inhibitors cause only a small fall in arterial pressure in healthy human subjects who are consuming the amount of salt contained in a usual Western diet, but a much larger fall in hypertensive patients, particularly those in whom renin secretion is enhanced (e.g. in patients

receiving diuretics). ACEIs affect capacitance and resistance vessels, and reduce cardiac load as well as arterial pressure. They do not affect cardiac contractility, so cardiac output normally increases. They act preferentially on angiotensin-sensitive vascular beds, which include those of the kidney, heart and brain. This selectivity may be important in sustaining adequate perfusion of these vital organs in the face of reduced perfusion pressure. Critical renal artery stenosis[11] represents an exception to this, where ACE inhibition results in a fall in glomerular filtration rate (see below).

[11]Severe narrowing of the renal artery caused, for example, by atheroma (Ch. 23).

Clinical uses of ACE inhibitors are summarised in the clinical box.

Clinical uses of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors

- Hypertension.
- Cardiac failure.
- Following myocardial infarction (especially when there is ventricular dysfunction).
- In people at high risk of ischaemic heart disease.
- Diabetic nephropathy.
- Progressive renal insufficiency.

Unwanted effects

Adverse effects (Table 22.4) directly related to ACE inhibition are common to all drugs of this class. These include hypotension, especially after the first dose and especially in patients with heart failure who have been treated with loop diuretics, in whom the renin–angiotensin system

is highly activated. A dry cough, possibly the result of accumulation of bradykinin (Ch. 17), is the commonest persistent adverse effect. Kinin accumulation may also underly *angioedema* (painful swelling in tissues which can be life-threatening if it involves the airway). Patients with severe bilateral renal artery stenosis predictably develop renal failure if treated with ACEIs, because glomerular filtration is normally maintained, in the face of low afferent arteriolar pressure, by angiotensin II, which selectively constricts efferent arterioles; hyperkalaemia may be severe owing to reduced aldosterone secretion. Such renal failure is reversible provided that it is recognised promptly and treatment with ACEI discontinued.

Angiotensin II receptor antagonists

Losartan, **candesartan**, **valsartan** and **irbesartan** (sartans) are non-peptide, orally active AT_1 receptor antagonists (ARBs). ARBs differ pharmacologically from ACEIs (Fig. 22.8) but behave similarly to ACEIs in clinical practice, apart from not causing cough—consistent with the 'bradykinin accumulation' explanation of this side effect, mentioned above. ACE is not the only enzyme capable of forming angiotensin II, *chymase* (which is not inhibited by ACE inhibitors) providing one alternative route. It is not known if alternative pathways of angiotensin II formation are important in vivo, but if so, then ARBs could be more effective than ACE inhibitors in such situations. It is not known whether any of the beneficial effects of ACE inhibitors are bradykinin/NO mediated, so it is unwise to assume that ARBs will necessarily share all the therapeutic properties of ACE inhibitors. However, there is considerable overlap in the clinical indications for ARBs and ACEIs (Table 22.4).

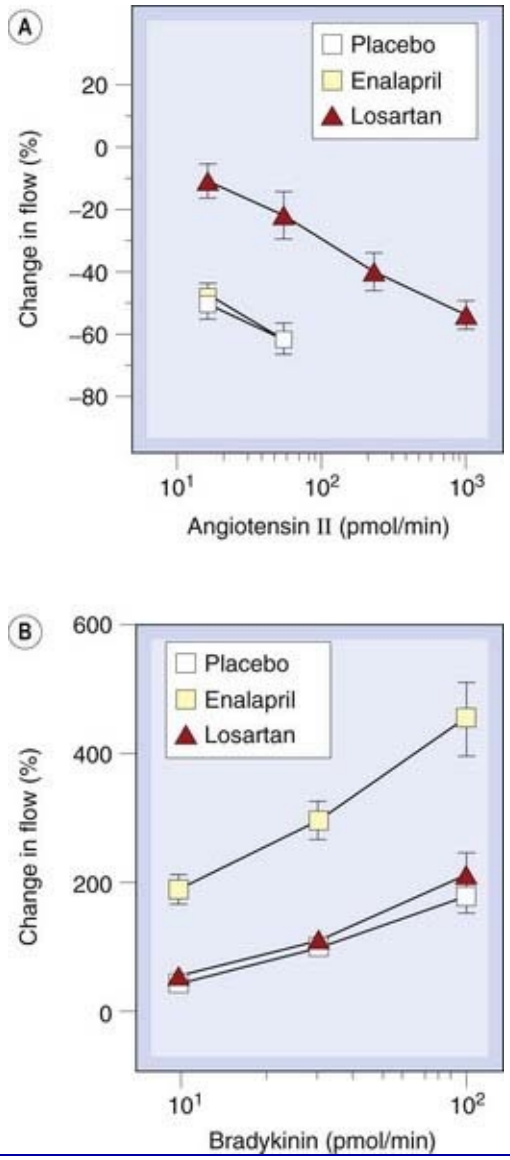


Fig. 22.8 Comparison of effects of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibition and angiotensin receptor blockade in the human forearm vasculature.

[**A**] Effect of brachial artery infusion of angiotensin II on forearm blood flow after oral administration of placebo, enalapril (10 mg) or losartan (100 mg). [**B**] Effect of brachial artery infusion of bradykinin, as in [**A**].

(From Cockcroft J R et al. 1993 J Cardiovasc Pharmacol 22: 579–584.)

Types of vasodilator drug

Directly acting vasodilators

• Calcium antagonists (e.g. **nifedipine**, **diltiazem**, **verapamil**): block Ca^{2+} entry in response to depolarisation. Common adverse effects include ankle swelling and (especially with verapamil) constipation.

• K_{ATP} channel activators (e.g. **minoxidil**): open membrane potassium channels, causing hyperpolarisation. Ankle swelling and increased hair growth are common.

• Drugs that increase cytoplasmic cyclic nucleotide concentrations by:

– increasing adenylyl cyclase activity, for example prostacyclin (**epoprostenol**), β_2-adrenoceptor agonists, adenosine

– increasing guanylyl cyclase activity: nitrates (e.g. **glyceryl trinitrate**, **nitroprusside**)

– inhibiting phosphodiesterase activity (e.g. **sildenafil**).

Indirectly acting vasodilators

• Drugs that interfere with the sympathetic nervous system (e.g. α_1-adrenoceptor antagonists). Postural hypotension is a common adverse effect.

• Drugs that block the renin–angiotensin system:

– renin inhibitors (e.g. **aliskiren**)

– angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (e.g. **ramipril**); dry cough may be troublesome

– AT_1 receptor antagonists (e.g. **losartan**).

• Drugs or mediators that stimulate endothelial NO release (e.g. acetylcholine, bradykinin).

• Drugs that block the endothelin system:

– endothelin synthesis (e.g. phosphoramidon)

– endothelin receptor antagonists (e.g. **bosentan**).

Vasodilators whose mechanism is uncertain

• Miscellaneous drugs including alcohol, **propofol** (Ch. 40) and **hydralazine**.

Clinical uses of angiotensin II subtype 1 receptor antagonists

(sartans)

The AT1 antagonists are extremely well tolerated but are teratogenic. Their uses include the following:

- Hypertension, especially in:
  - young patients (who have higher renin than older ones)
  - diabetic patients
  - hypertension complicated by left ventricular hypertrophy.
- Heart failure.
- Diabetic nephropathy.

Clinical Uses of Vasoactive Drugs

It is beyond the scope of this book to provide a detailed account of the clinical uses of vasoactive drugs, but it is nonetheless useful to consider briefly the treatment of certain important disorders, namely:

- systemic hypertension
- heart failure
- shock
- peripheral vascular disease
- Raynaud's disease
- pulmonary hypertension.

Systemic Hypertension

Systemic hypertension is a common disorder that, if not effectively treated, increases the risk of coronary thrombosis, strokes and renal failure. Until about 1950, there was no effective treatment, and the

development of antihypertensive drugs has been a major therapeutic success story. Systemic blood pressure is an excellent 'surrogate marker' for increased cardiovascular risk in that there is good evidence from randomised controlled trials that common antihypertensive drugs (diuretics, ACEIs, calcium antagonists) combined with lifestyle changes not only lowers blood pressure but also reduces the extra risks of heart attacks and strokes associated with high blood pressure.

Correctable causes of hypertension include phaeochromocytoma,[12] steroid-secreting tumours of the adrenal cortex or narrowing (coarctation) of the aorta, but most cases involve no obvious cause and are grouped as *essential hypertension* (so-called because it was originally, albeit incorrectly, thought that the raised blood pressure was 'essential' to maintain adequate tissue perfusion). Increased cardiac output may be an early feature, but by the time essential hypertension is established (commonly in middle life) there is usually increased peripheral resistance and the cardiac output is normal. Blood pressure control is intimately related to the kidneys, as demonstrated in humans requiring renal transplantation: hypertension 'goes with' the kidney from a hypertensive donor, and donating a kidney from a normotensive to a hypertensive corrects hypertension in the recipient (see also Ch. 28). Persistently raised arterial pressure leads to hypertrophy of the left ventricle and remodelling of resistance arteries, with narrowing of the lumen, and predisposes to atherosclerosis.

[12]Catecholamine-secreting tumours of chromaffin tissue, usually the adrenal medulla (Ch. 13).

Figure 22.9 summarises physiological mechanisms that control arterial blood pressure and shows sites at which antihypertensive drugs act, notably the sympathetic nervous system, the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system and endothelium-derived mediators. Remodelling of

resistance arteries in response to raised pressure reduces the ratio of lumen diameter to wall thickness and increases the peripheral vascular resistance. The role of cellular growth factors (including angiotensin II) and inhibitors of growth (e.g. NO) in the evolution of these structural changes is of great interest to vascular biologists, and is potentially important for ACEIs and ARBs.

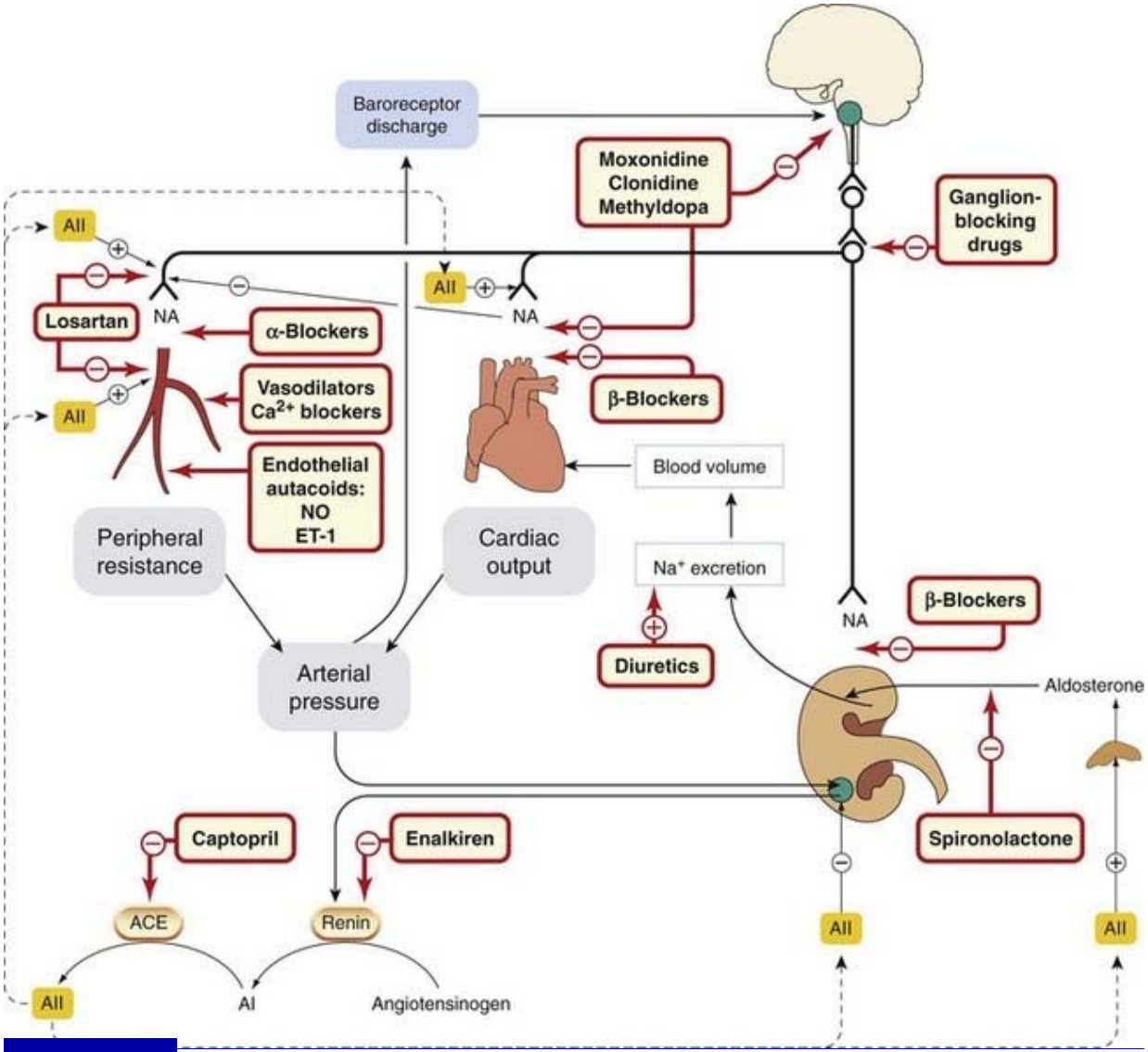


Fig. 22.9 Diagram showing the main mechanisms involved in arterial blood pressure regulation

(black lines), and the sites of action of antihypertensive drugs (hatched boxes + orange lines). ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme; AI, angiotensin I; AII, angiotensin II; ET-1, endothelin-1;

NA, noradrenaline; NO, nitric oxide.

Reducing arterial blood pressure greatly improves the prognosis of patients with hypertension. Controlling hypertension (which is asymptomatic) without producing unacceptable side effects is therefore an important clinical need, which is, in general, well catered for by modern drugs. Treatment involves non-pharmacological measures (e.g. increased exercise, reduced dietary salt and saturated fat with increased fruit and fibre, and weight and alcohol reduction) followed by the staged introduction of drugs, starting with those of proven benefit and least likely to produce side effects. Some of the drugs that were used to lower blood pressure in the early days of antihypertensive therapy, including *ganglion blockers*, *adrenergic neuron blockers* and **reserpine** (see Ch. 14), produced a fearsome array of adverse effects and are now obsolete. The preferred regimens have changed progressively as better-tolerated drugs have become available. One rational strategy with some evidence to support it, and recommended by the current British Hypertension Society guidelines, is to start treatment with either an ACEI or an AT_1 antagonist in patients who are likely to have normal or raised plasma renin (i.e. younger white people), and with either a thiazide diuretic or a calcium antagonist in older people and people of African origin (who are more likely to have low plasma renin). If the target blood pressure is not achieved but the drug is well tolerated, then a drug of the other group is added. It is best not to increase the dose of any one drug excessively, as this often causes adverse effects and engages homeostatic control mechanisms (e.g. renin release by a diuretic) that limit efficacy.

β-Adrenoceptor antagonists are less well tolerated than ACEIs or ARBs, and the evidence supporting their routine use is less strong than for other classes of antihypertensive drugs. They are useful for hypertensive

patients with some additional indication for β blockade, such as angina or heart failure.

Addition of a third or fourth drug (e.g. to ARB/diuretic or ARB/calcium antagonist combination) is often needed, and a long-acting α_1-adrenoceptor antagonist (Ch. 14) such as **doxazosin** is one option in this setting. The α_1 antagonists additionally improve symptoms of benign prostatic hypertrophy,[13] common in older men , albeit at the expense of some postural hypotension, which is the main unwanted effect of these agents. Doxazosin is used once daily and has a mild but theoretically desirable effect on plasma lipids (reducing the ratio of low- to high-density lipoproteins; see Ch. 23). **Spironolactone** (a competitive antagonist of aldosterone; Ch. 32) has staged something of a comeback in treating severe hypertension. Careful monitoring of plasma K^+ concentration is required, because spironolactone inhibits urinary K^+ excretion as well as causing oestrogen-related adverse effects, but it is usually well tolerated in low doses. **Methyldopa** is now used mainly for hypertension during pregnancy because of the lack of documented adverse effects on the baby (in contrast to ACEIs, ARBs and standard β-adrenoceptor antagonists, which are contraindicated during pregnancy). **Clonidine** (a centrally acting α_2 agonist) is now seldom used. **Moxonidine**, a centrally acting agonist at imidazoline I_1 receptors that causes less drowsiness than α_2 agonists, is licensed for mild or moderate hypertension, but there is little evidence from clinical end-point trials to support its use. **Minoxidil**, combined with a diuretic and β-adrenoceptor antagonist, is sometimes effective where other drugs have failed in severe hypertension resistant to other drugs. **Fenoldopam**, a selective dopamine D_1 receptor agonist, is approved in the USA for the short-term management in hospital of severe hypertension. Its effect is similar in magnitude to that of intravenous nitroprusside, but it lacks thiocyanate-

associated toxicity and is slower in onset and offset.

[13]Difficulty starting the stream, poor stream, terminal dribbling and needing to get up often in the night to pass urine—all depressingly common in ageing men.

Commonly used antihypertensive drugs and their common adverse effects are summarised in Table 22.5.

Table 22.5 Common antihypertensive drugs and their adverse effects

Drug	Adverse effects[a]		
	Postural hypotension	Impotence	Other
Thiazide diuretics (e.g. **bendroflumethiazide**)	±	++	Urinary frequency, gout, glucose intolerance, hypokalemia, hyponatremia
ACE inhibitors (e.g. **enalapril**)	±	–	Cough, first-dose hypotension, teratogenicity, reversible renal dysfunction (in presence of renal artery stenosis)
AT_1 antagonists (e.g. **losartan**)	–	–	Teratogenicity, reversible renal dysfunction (in presence of renal artery stenosis)
Ca^{2+} antagonists (e.g. **nifedipine**)	–	±	Ankle oedema
β-adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. **metoprolol**)	–	+	Bronchospasm, fatigue, cold hands and feet, bradycardia
α_1-adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. **doxazosin**)	++	–	First-dose hypotension

[a] ± indicates that the adverse effect occurs in special circumstances only (e.g. postural hypotension occurs with a thiazide diuretic only if the patient is dehydrated for some other reason or is taking some additional drug).

Heart Failure

Heart failure is a clinical syndrome characterised by symptoms of breathlessness and/or fatigue, usually with signs of fluid overload (edema, crackles heard when listening to the chest). The underlying physiological abnormality (see also Ch. 21) is a cardiac output that is inadequate to meet the metabolic demands of the body, initially during exercise but, as the syndrome progresses, also at rest. It may be caused by disease of the myocardium itself (most commonly secondary to coronary artery disease), or by circulatory factors such as volume overload (e.g. leaky valves, or arteriovenous shunts caused by congenital

defects) or pressure overload (e.g. stenosed—i.e. narrowed—valves, arterial or pulmonary hypertension). Some of these underlying causes are surgically correctable, and in some either the underlying disease (e.g. hyperthyroidism; Ch. 33), or an aggravating factor such as anaemia (Ch. 25) or atrial fibrillation (Ch. 21), is treatable with drugs. Here, we focus on drugs used to treat heart failure irrespective of the underlying cause.

When cardiac output is insufficient to meet metabolic demand, an increase in fluid volume occurs, partly because increased venous pressure causes increased formation of tissue fluid, and partly because reduced renal blood flow activates the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system, causing Na^+ and water retention. Irrespective of the cause, the outlook for adults with cardiac failure is grim: 50% of those with the most severe grade are dead in 6 months, and of those with 'mild/moderate' disease, 50% are dead in 5 years. Non-drug measures, including dietary salt restriction and exercise training in mildly affected patients,[14] are important, but drugs are needed to improve symptoms of oedema, fatigue and breathlessness, and to improve prognosis.

[14]Bed rest used to be recommended but results in deconditioning, and regular exercise has been shown to be beneficial in patients who can tolerate it.

A highly simplified diagram of the sequence of events is shown in Figure 22.10. A common theme is that several of the feedbacks that are activated are 'counter-regulatory'—i.e. they make the situation worse not better. This occurs because the body fails to distinguish the haemodynamic state of heart failure from haemorrhage, in which release of vasoconstrictors such as angiotensin II and ADH would be appropriate.[15] ACEIs and ARBs, β-adrenoceptor and aldosterone antagonists interrupt these counter-regulatory neurohormonal mechanisms and have each been shown to prolong life in heart failure,

although prognosis remains poor despite optimal management.

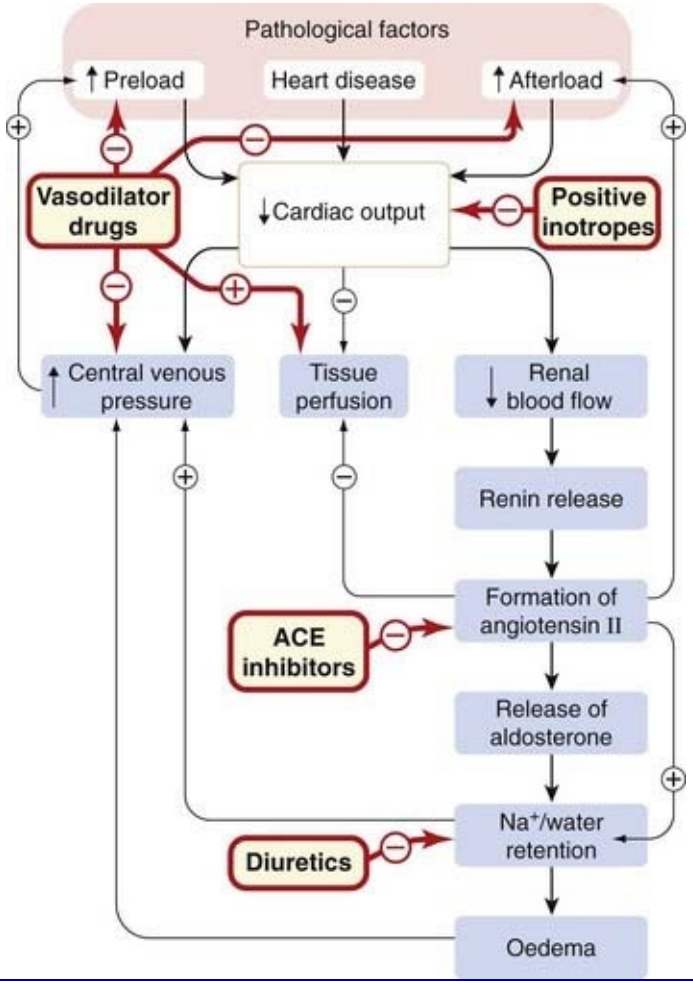


Fig. 22.10 Simplified scheme showing the pathogenesis of heart failure, and the sites of action of some of the drugs used to treat it.

The symptoms of heart failure are produced by reduced tissue perfusion, oedema and increased central venous pressure. ACE, angiotensin-converting enzyme.

[15]Natural selection presumably favoured mechanisms that would benefit young hunter gatherers at risk of haemorrhage; middle-aged or elderly people at high risk of heart failure are past their reproductive prime.

Drugs used to treat heart failure act in various complementary ways to do the following.

Increase natriuresis

Diuretics, especially loop diuretics (Ch. 28), are important in increasing salt and water excretion, especially if there is pulmonary oedema. In chronic heart failure, drugs that have been shown to improve prognosis were all studied in patients treated with diuretics.

Inhibit the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system

The renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system is inappropriately activated in patients with cardiac failure, especially when they are treated with diuretics. The β-adrenoceptor antagonists inhibit renin secretion and are used in clinically stable patients with chronic heart failure (see below). ACEIs and ARBs block the formation of angiotensin II and inhibit its action, respectively, thereby reducing vascular resistance, improving tissue perfusion and reducing cardiac afterload. They also cause natriuresis by inhibiting secretion of aldosterone and by reducing the direct stimulatory effect of angiotensin II on reabsorption of Na^+ and HCO_3^- in the early part of the proximal convoluted tubule. Most important of all, they prolong life. The question of whether ACEIs and ARBs can usefully be combined is being evaluated. Angiotensin II is not the only stimulus to aldosterone secretion, and during chronic treatment with ACEIs, circulating aldosterone concentrations return towards pretreatment values (a phenomenon known as ‘aldosterone escape’). This provided a rationale for studying the effect of combining **spironolactone** (an aldosterone antagonist; see Ch. 32) with ACEI treatment, and this further reduces mortality. **Eplerenone** is an aldosterone antagonist with less oestrogen-like adverse effects than sprironolactone; it too has been shown to improve survival in patients with heart failure when added to conventional therapy. Patients with impaired renal function were excluded from these trials, and careful

monitoring of plasma K^+ concentration is important when they are treated with an ACEI or an ARB in combination with an aldosterone antagonist.

Block β adrenoceptors

Heart failure is accompanied by potentially harmful activation of the sympathetic nervous system as well as of the renin–angiotensin system, providing a rationale for using β-adrenoceptor antagonists. Most clinicians were very wary of this approach because of the negative inotropic action of these drugs, but when started in low doses that are increased slowly, **metoprolol**, **carvedilol** and **bisoprolol** each improves survival when added to optimal treatment in clinically stable patients with chronic heart failure.

Antagonise ADH

ADH (see above) is released in heart failure and may contribute to undesirable vasoconstriction (via V_{1A} receptors) and hyponatraemia (via V_2 receptors).[16] Two non-peptide vasopressin receptor antagonists (‘vaptans’) have been licensed by the Food and Drug Administration and many more are in development (Finley et al., 2008). **Conivaptan** is a non-selective V_{1A} /V_2 antagonist licensed for treatment of the syndrome of inappropriate ADH secretion (SIADH) and intravenously for short-term treatment of hypervolaemic (or euvolaemic) heart failure. **Tolvaptan** is a selective V_2 receptor antagonist approved for oral treatment of clinically significant hypervolaemic (or euvolaemic) hyponatraemia. Neither has been shown to improve long-term survival in heart failure, and their possible place in therapy is currently the subject of intense investigation (Jessup et al., 2009).

Relax vascular smooth muscle

[16]Inappropriate secretion of ADH causes hyponatraemia because the kidney retains water while continuing to excrete sodium ions, whereas drinking, which is largely determined by habit in addition to thirst, continues. This leads to reduction of the plasma sodium concentration as a result of dilution.

Glyceryl trinitrate (Ch. 21) is infused intravenously to treat acute cardiac failure. Its venodilator effect reduces venous pressure, and its effects on arterial compliance and wave reflection reduce cardiac work. The combination of **hydralazine** (to reduce afterload) with a long-acting organic nitrate (to reduce preload) in patients with chronic heart failure improved survival in a randomised controlled trial, but the results suggested that the benefit was restricted to African-American patients. This ethnic group is genetically very heterogeneous, and it is unknown what other groups will benefit from such treatment.

Increase the force of cardiac contraction

Cardiac glycosides (Ch. 21) are used either in patients with heart failure who also have chronic rapid atrial fibrillation, or in patients who remain symptomatic despite treatment with a diuretic and ACEI. **Digoxin** does not reduce mortality in heart failure patients in sinus rhythm who are otherwise optimally treated, but does improve symptoms and reduce the need for hospital admission. In contrast, PDE inhibitors (see Ch. 21) increase cardiac output, but increase mortality in heart failure, probably through cardiac dysrhythmias. **Dobutamine** (a β_1-selective adrenoceptor agonist; see Ch. 21) is used intravenously when a rapid response is needed in the short term, for example following heart surgery.

Drugs used in chronic heart failure 

- Loop diuretics, for example **furosemide** (Ch. 28).

• Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (e.g. **ramipril**).

• Angiotensin II subtype 1 receptor antagonists (e.g. **valsartan**, **candesartan**).

• β-adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. **metoprolol**, **bisoprolol**, **carvedilol**), introduced in low dose in stable patients.

• Aldosterone receptor antagonists (e.g. **spironolactone**, Ch. 28; and **eplerenone**).

• **Digoxin** (see Ch. 21), especially for heart failure associated with established rapid atrial fibrillation. It is also indicated in patients who remain symptomatic despite optimal treatment.

• Organic nitrates (e.g. **isosorbide mononitrate**) reduce preload, and **hydralazine** reduces afterload. Used in combination, these prolong life in African-Americans.

Shock and Hypotensive States

Shock is a medical emergency characterised by inadequate perfusion of vital organs, usually because of a very low arterial blood pressure. This leads to anaerobic metabolism and hence to increased lactate production. Mortality is very high, even with optimal treatment in an intensive care unit. Shock can be caused by various insults, including haemorrhage, burns, bacterial infections, anaphylaxis (Ch. 17) and myocardial infarction (Fig. 22.11). The common factor is reduced effective circulating blood volume (hypovolaemia) caused either directly by bleeding or by movement of fluid from the plasma to the gut lumen or extracellular fluid. The physiological (homeostatic) response to this is complex: vasodilatation in a vital organ (e.g. brain, heart or kidney) favours perfusion of that organ, but at the expense of a further reduction in blood pressure, which leads to reduced perfusion of other organs. Survival depends on a balance between vasoconstriction in non-essential vascular beds and vasodilatation in vital ones. The dividing line between

the normal physiological response to blood loss and clinical shock is that in shock tissue hypoxia produces secondary effects that magnify rather than correct the primary disturbance. Therefore patients with established shock have profound and inappropriate vasodilatation in non-essential organs, and this is difficult to correct with vasoconstrictor drugs. The release of mediators (e.g. histamine, 5-hydroxytryptamine, bradykinin, prostaglandins, cytokines including interleukins and tumour necrosis factor, NO and undoubtedly many more as-yet-unidentified substances) that cause capillary dilatation and leakiness is the opposite of what is required to improve function in this setting. Mediators promoting vasodilatation in shock converge on two main mechanisms:

1 Activation of ATP-sensitive potassium channels in vascular smooth muscle by reduced cytoplasmic ATP and increased lactate and protons.

2 Increased synthesis of NO, which activates myosin light-chain phosphatase and activates K_{Ca} channels (see above).

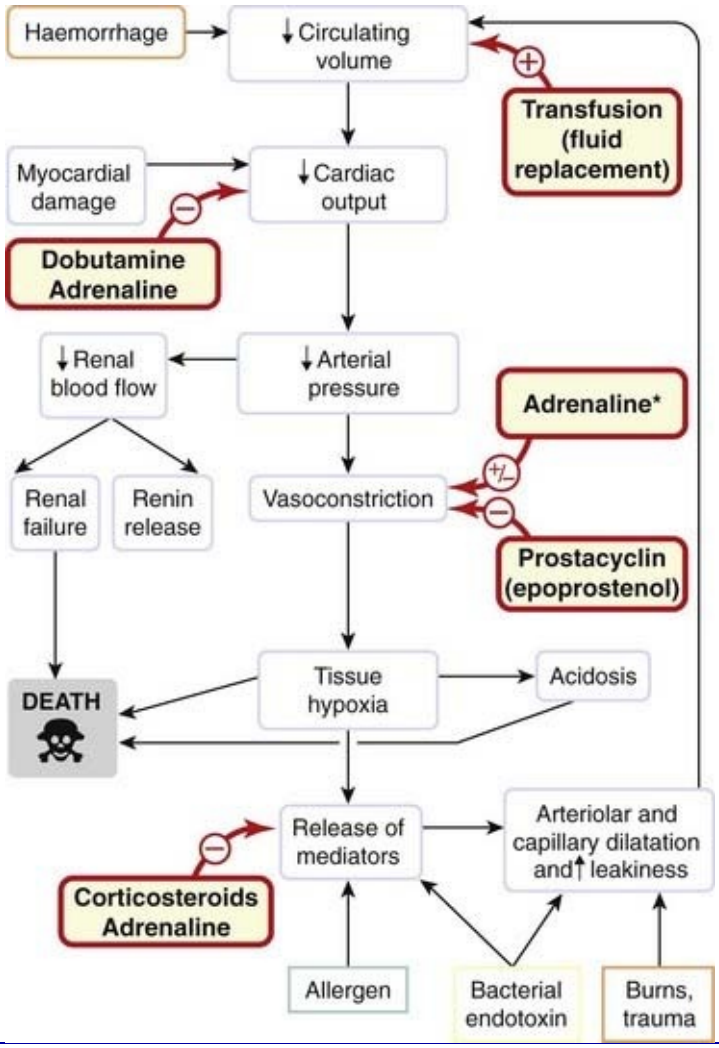


Fig. 22.11 Simplified scheme showing the pathogenesis of hypovolaemic shock.
*Adrenaline causes vasodilatation in some vascular beds, vasoconstriction in others.

A third key mechanism seems to be a relative *deficiency* of ADH, which is secreted acutely in response to haemorrhage but subsequently declines, probably because of depletion from the neurohypophysis (see Ch. 32)—contrast this with the situation in *chronic* heart failure discussed above where *excess* (rather than deficient) ADH may contribute to problems.

Patients with shock are not a homogeneous population, making it hard to perform valid clinical trials, and in contrast to hypertension and heart failure there is very little evidence to support treatment strategies based

on hard clinical end points (such as improved survival). Hypoperfusion leads to multiple organ failure (including renal failure), and intensive therapy specialists spend much effort supporting the circulations of such patients with cocktails of vasoactive drugs designed to optimise flow to vital organs. Trials of antagonists designed to block or neutralise endotoxin, interleukins, tumour necrosis factor and the inducible form of NO synthase have so far been disappointing. *Volume replacement* is of benefit if there is hypovolaemia; *antibiotics* are essential if there is persistent bacterial infection; **adrenaline** can be life-saving in anaphylaxis; a preparation of recombinant activated protein C, **drotrecogin alpha** (activated) (see Ch. 24) improves mortality in severe septic shock with multiple organ failure and is licensed for this indication; **vasopressin** may be effective in increasing blood pressure even when there is resistance to adrenaline; *corticosteroids* suppress the formation of NO and of prostaglandins but are not of proven benefit once shock is established; **epoprostenol** (PGI_2) may be useful in patients with inappropriate platelet activation (e.g. *meningococcal sepsis*); positive inotropic agents, including adrenaline and **dobutamine**, may help in individual patients, as may **levosimendan** (Mebazaa et al., 2007).

Peripheral Vascular Disease

When atheroma involves peripheral arteries, the first symptom is usually pain in the calves on walking (claudication), followed by pain at rest, and in severe cases gangrene of the feet or legs. Treatment is often surgical. Other vascular beds (e.g. coronary, cerebral and renal) are often also affected by atheromatous disease in patients with peripheral vascular disease. Drug treatment includes antiplatelet drugs (e.g. **aspirin**, **clopidogrel**; see Ch. 24), a statin (e.g. **simvastatin**; see Ch. 23) and an ACEI (e.g. **ramipril**; see above). These reduce the excess risk of ischaemic coronary and cerebral events. Additionally, several placebo-

controlled studies have demonstrated that **cilostazol**, a type III PDE inhibitor (see above), improves pain-free and maximum walking distance in such patients, but its effect on mortality is unknown.

Raynaud's Disease

Inappropriate vasoconstriction of small arteries and arterioles gives rise to Raynaud's phenomenon (blanching of the fingers during vasoconstriction, followed by blueness owing to deoxygenation of the static blood and redness from reactive hyperaemia following return of blood flow). This can be mild, but if severe causes ulceration and gangrene of the fingers. It can occur in isolation (Raynaud's disease) or in association with a number of other diseases, including several so-called connective tissue diseases (e.g. systemic sclerosis, systemic lupus erythematosus). Treatment of Raynaud's phenomenon hinges on stopping smoking (crucially) and on avoiding the cold; β-adrenoceptor antagonists are contraindicated. Vasodilators (e.g. **nifedipine**; see Ch. 21) are of some benefit in severe cases, and evidence from several small studies suggests that other vasodilators (e.g. PGI_2, CGRP) can have surprisingly prolonged effects, but are difficult to administer.

Pulmonary Hypertension

After birth, pulmonary vascular resistance is much lower than systemic vascular resistance, and systolic pulmonary artery pressure in adults is normally approximately 20 mmHg.[17]

[17]In fetal life, pulmonary vascular resistance is high; failure to adapt appropriately at birth is associated with prematurity, lack of pulmonary surfactant and hypoxaemia. The resulting pulmonary hypertension is treated by paediatric intensive care specialists with measures including replacement of surfactant and ventilatory support, sometimes including

inhaled NO—see Ch. 20.

Pulmonary artery pressure is much less easy to measure than is systemic pressure, often requiring cardiac catheterisation, so only severe and symptomatic pulmonary hypertension usually gets diagnosed. Pulmonary hypertension usually causes some regurgitation of blood from the right ventricle to the right atrium. This tricuspid regurgitation can be used to estimate the pulmonary artery pressure indirectly by ultrasonography. Pulmonary hypertension may be *idiopathic* (i.e. of unknown cause, analogous to essential hypertension in the systemic circulation), or associated with some other disease. Increased pulmonary pressure can result from an increased cardiac output (such as occurs, for example, in patients with hepatic cirrhosis—where vasodilatation may accompany intermittent subclinical exposure to bacterial endotoxin—or in patients with congenital connections between the systemic and pulmonary circulations). Vasoconstriction and/or structural narrowing of the pulmonary resistance arteries increase pulmonary arterial pressure, even if cardiac output is normal. In some situations, both increased cardiac output and increased pulmonary vascular resistance are present.

In contrast to systemic hypertension, pulmonary hypertension associated with other diseases is much more common than idiopathic pulmonary hypertension, which is a rare, severe and progressive disease. Endothelial dysfunction (see above, and also Chs 23 and 24) is implicated in its aetiology. Drugs (e.g. anorexic drugs including **dexfenfluramine**, now withdrawn) and toxins (e.g. *monocrotaline*) can cause pulmonary hypertension. Occlusion of the pulmonary arteries, for example with *recurrent pulmonary emboli* (Ch. 24), is a further cause, and *anticoagulation* (see Ch. 24) is an important part of treatment. Aggregates of deformed red cells in patients with *sickle cell anaemia* (Ch. 25) can also occlude small pulmonary arteries.

Increased pulmonary vascular resistance may, alternatively, result from vasoconstriction and/or structural changes in the walls of pulmonary resistance arteries. Many of the diseases (e.g. systemic sclerosis) associated with Raynaud's phenomenon mentioned in the section above are also associated with pulmonary hypertension. Vasoconstriction may precede cellular proliferation and medial hypertrophy which causes wall thickening in the pulmonary vasculature. Treatment with vasodilators (e.g. **nifedipine**) is used. Vasodilators with an antiproliferative action (e.g. **epoprostenol**, drugs that *potentiate NO*, or *antagonise endothelin*) are more promising.

Drugs used in treating pulmonary arterial hypertension and clinical disorders for which vasoactive drugs are important are shown in the clinical boxes.

Drugs used in pulmonary hypertension

Drugs are used where indicated to treat any underlying cause; in addition, consider the following:

- Oral anticoagulants (Ch. 24).
- Diuretics (Ch. 28).
- Oxygen.
- Digoxin (Ch. 21).
- Calcium channel blockers.
- Endothelin receptor antagonists (e.g. **bosentan**, **ambrisentan**, **sitaxentan**) by mouth for less severe stages of disease.
- Prostanoid analogues (**iloprost**, **treprostinil**, **beraprost**) by parenteral routes of administration, *e.g.* subcutaneous or inhaled, for more severe stages of disease.

• **Epoprostenol** (Ch. 17). This is given as a long-term intravenous infusion, and improves survival (Fig. 22.12).

• Inhaled NO is administered in intensive care, for example for pulmonary hypertensive crises in newborn babies.

• Phosphodiesterase V inhibitor: **sildenafil** is licensed for this indication.

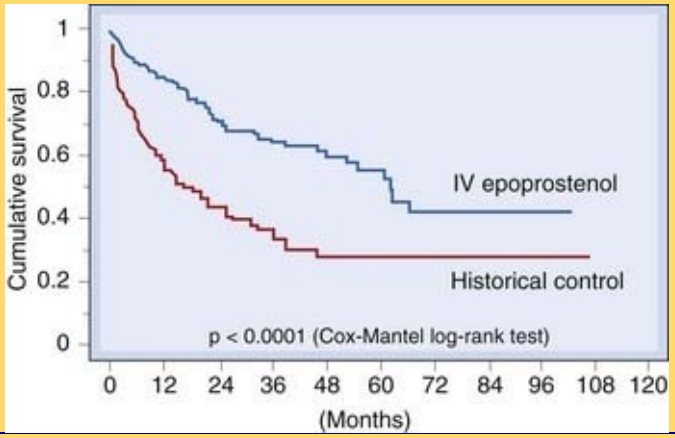


Fig. 22.12 Survival in primary pulmonary hypertension.

Survival in 178 patients treated with intravenous epoprostenol versus a historical control group of 135 patients matched for disease severity.

(Adapted from Sitbon O et al. 2002 Prog Cardiovasc Dis 45: 115.)

Clinical disorders for which vasoactive drugs are important

• Systemic hypertension:

  – secondary to underlying disease (e.g. renal or endocrine)

  – primary 'essential' hypertension, an important risk factor for atheromatous disease (Ch. 23). Treatment reduces the excess risk of stroke or myocardial infarction, the main classes of drugs being (a) angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors or AT_1 receptor antagonists; (b) β-adrenoceptor antagonists; (c) calcium antagonists; and (d) diuretics.

• Cardiac failure. Several diseases (most commonly ischaemic heart disease) impair the ability of the heart to deliver an output adequate to meet metabolic needs. Symptoms of oedema can

be improved with diuretics. Life expectancy is reduced but can be improved by treatment of haemodynamically stable patients with:

– ACE inhibitors and/or AT1 receptor antagonists

– β-adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. **carvedilol**, **bisoprolol**)

– aldosterone antagonists (e.g. **spironolactone**).

• Shock. Several diseases (e.g. overwhelming bacterial infections, Ch. 50; anaphylactic reactions, Ch. 26) lead to inappropriate vasodilatation, hypotension and reduced tissue perfusion with raised circulating concentrations of lactic acid. Pressors (e.g. **adrenaline**) are used.

• Peripheral vascular disease. Atheromatous plaques in the arteries of the legs are often associated with atheroma in other vascular territories. Statins (Ch. 23) and antiplatelet drugs (Ch. 24) are important.

• Raynaud's disease. Inappropriate vasoconstriction in small arteries in the hands causes blanching of the fingers followed by blueness and pain. **Nifedipine** or other vasodilators are used.

• Pulmonary hypertension, which can be:

– idiopathic (a rare disorder): **epoprostenol**, **iloprost**, **bosentan** and **sildenafil** are of benefit in selected patients

– associated with hypoxic lung disease.

References and Further Reading

Vascular structure and function, control of vascular smooth muscle tone

uimarães S., Moura D. Vascular adrenoceptors: an update. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2001;53:319-356. (*Functional perspective*)

Jard J.P.T., Knock G.A., Snetkov V.A., Aaronson P.I. Protein kinases in vascular smooth muscle tone—role in the pulmonary vasculature and hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction Pharmacol.

Ther. 104:2004:207-231 (*Concludes that the strongest evidence for direct involvement of protein kinases in the mechanisms of hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction concerns a central role for Rho kinase in* Ca^{2+} *sensitisation*)

Vascular endothelium (see Ch. 20 for further reading on nitric oxide)

Prostacyclin

unting S., Gryglewski R., Moncada S., Vane J.R. Arterial walls generate from prostaglandin endoperoxides a substance (*prostaglandin X*) which relaxes strips of mesenteric and celiac arteries and inhibits platelet aggregation. *Prostaglandins*. 1976;12:897-913. (*Classic*)

Iurata T., Ushikubi F., Matsuoka T., *et al.* Altered pain perception and inflammatory response in mice lacking prostacyclin receptor. *Nature*. 1997;388:678-682. (*I prostanoid receptor-deficient mice are viable, reproductive and normotensive; however, their susceptibility to thrombosis is increased … the results establish that prostacyclin is an endogenous antithrombotic agent*)

Endothelium-derived hyperpolarising factor

élétou M., Vanhoutte P.M. EDHF: an update Clin. Sci. 117:2009:139-155 (*Reviews briefly the many endothelial mediators that can cause hyperpolarisation, but focuses on the pathway that works by increasing endothelial* $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ *thereby activating* K_{Ca} *channels with consequent hyperpolarisation of underlying vascular smooth muscle both by electrotonic spread through gap junctions and release of* K^+ *with activation of* K_{IR} *and electrogenic sodium-potassium pump*)

Angiogenesis

armeliet P., Jain R.K. Angiogenesis in cancer and other diseases. *Nature*. 2000;407:249-257. (*New approaches to treatment of cancer and other diseases, via a growing number of pro-and antiangiogenic molecules; see also (in same issue) Yancopoulos, G.D., et al., 2000 Vascular specific growth factors and blood vessel formation, pp. 242–248*)

Endothelin

e Y., Bagnall A., Stricklett P.K., *et al.* Collecting duct-specific knockout of the endothelin B receptor causes sodium retention and hypertension. *Am. J. Physiol.*. 2006;291:1274-1280.

ickey K.A., Rubanyi G., Paul R.J., Highsmith R.F. Characterization of a coronary vasoconstrictor produced by cultured endothelial cells. *Am. J. Physiol.*. 1985;248(part 1):C550-C556. (*Key discovery*)

irchengast M., Luz M. Endothelin receptor antagonists—clinical realities and future directions. *J. Cardiovasc. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:182-191. (*Critically reviews clinical data on endothelin receptor antagonism in cardiovascular indications against the background of preclinical research*)

anagisawa M., Kurihara H., Kimura S., *et al.* A novel potent vasoconstrictor peptide produced by vascular endothelial cells. *Nature*. 1988;332:411-415. (*Tour de force*)

Renin–angiotensin system

urnier M., Brunner H.R. Angiotensin II receptor antagonists. *Lancet*. 2000;355:637-645. (*Reviews this class of drugs*)

eart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation Study Investigators. Effects of an angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor, ramipril, on cardiovascular events in high-risk patients. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2000;342:145-153. (*Ramipril significantly lowers rates of death, myocardial infarction and stroke in a wide range of high-risk patients*)

/atanabe T., Barker T.A., Berk B.C. Angiotensin II and the endothelium—diverse signals and effects. *Hypertension*. 2005;45:163-169. (*Reviews the renin–angiotensin system in the endothelium based on the diverse signals and effects mediated by multiple angiotensin I-and angiotensin II-derived peptides, multiple angiotensin-metabolising enzymes, multiple receptors and vascular bed-specific intracellular signals*)

Antidiuretic hormone

olmes C.L., Russell J.A. Vasopressin. *Semin. Respir. Crit. Care Med.*. 2004;25:705-711. (*'A deficiency of vasopressin exists in some shock states and replacement of physiological levels of vasopressin can restore vascular tone. Vasopressin is therefore emerging as a rational therapy for vasodilatory shock.' Reviews rationale, evidence and uncertainties for using vasopressin in shock*)

Vasodilator drugs (see Ch. 21 for further reading on calcium antagonists)

han C.K.S., Burke S.L., Zhu H., *et al.* Imidazoline receptors associated with noradrenergic terminals in the rostral ventrolateral medulla mediate the hypotensive responses of moxonidine but not clonidine. *Neuroscience*. 2005;132:991-1007. (*The hypotensive and bradycardic actions of moxonidine but not clonidine are mediated through imidazoline receptors and depend on noradrenergic CNS pathways; noradrenergic innervation may be associated with imidazoline receptor protein*)

Hypertension

lurphy M.B., Murray C., Shorten G.D. Fenoldopam—a selective peripheral dopamine receptor agonist for treatment of severe hypertension. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;345:1548-1557. *(Similar effectiveness as that of nitroprusside but without thiocyanate toxicity or instability in light; however, it is slower in onset and offset than nitroprusside)*

Chronic heart failure

inley J.J., Konstam M.A., Udelson J.E. Arginine vasopressin antagonists for the treatment of heart failure and hyponatraemia. *Circulation*. 2008;118:410-421.

heorghiade M., Gattis W.A., O'Connor C.M., *et al.* Effects of tolvaptan, a vasopressin antagonist, in patients hospitalized with worsening heart failure—a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2004;291:1963-1971. (*Tolvaptan plus standard therapy has promise for heart failure*)

ɛssup M., Brozena S. Heart failure. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2003;348:2007-2018.

ɛssup M., Abraham W.T., Casey D.E., *et al.* 2009 focused update: ACCF/AHA Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Management of Heart Failure in Adults: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines: developed in collaboration with the International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation. *Circulation*. 2009;119:1977-2016.

IcMurray J.J.V. Val-HeFT: do angiotensin-receptor blockers benefit heart failure patients already

receiving ACE inhibitor therapy? *Nat. Clin. Pract. Cardiovasc. Med.*. 2005;2:128-129.

aylor A.L., Ziesche S., Yancy C., *et al.* Combination of isosorbide dinitrate and hydralazine in blacks with heart failure. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2004;351:2049-2057. (*Addition of a fixed dose of isosorbide dinitrate plus hydralazine to standard therapy for heart failure including neurohormonal blockers increased survival among black patients with advanced heart failure*)

Shock

andry D.W., Oliver J.A. Mechanisms of disease: the pathogenesis of vasodilatory shock. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;345:588-595. (*Reviews mechanisms promoting inappropriate vasodilation in shock, including activation of ATP-sensitive potassium channels, increased synthesis of NO and depletion of ADH*)

References

ustralian and New Zealand Intensive Care Society Clinical Trials Group. Low-dose dopamine in patients with early renal dysfunction: a placebo-controlled randomized trial. *Lancet.* 2000;356:2139-2143. (*No clinically significant protection; see also accompanying editorial, Renal-dose dopamine: will the message now get through?*)

ernard G.R., Vincent J.L., Laterre P.F., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of recombinant human activated protein C for severe sepsis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;344:699-709. (*Continuous intravenous infusion of activated protein C, a vitamin K-dependent anticoagulant that promotes fibrinolysis, inhibits thrombosis and is anti-inflammatory, significantly reduced risk of death at 28 days, from 30.8 to 24.7%*)

iang K.V., Williams A.W., Greene E.L., Redfield M.M. Acute decompensated heart failure and the cardiorenal syndrome. *Crit. Care Med.*. 2008;36(Suppl. 1):S75-S88. (*Review from Mayo Clinic*)

Iebazaa A., Nieminen M.S., Packer M., et alfor the SURVIVE investigators. Levosimendan vs dobutamine for patients with acute decompensated heart failure. *JAMA*. 2007;297:1883-1891. (*Randomized, double-blind trial comparing the efficacy and safety of intravenous levosimendan versus dobutamine in 1327 patients hospitalised with acute decompensated heart failure who required inotropic support. Compared with patients in the dobutamine group, levosimendan did not*

significantly reduce all-cause mortality at 180 days or affect any secondary clinical outcomes)

otter L.R., Yoder A.R., Flora D.R., *et al.* Natriuretic peptides: their structures, receptors, physiologic functions and therapeutic applications. *Handb Exp. Pharmacol.*. 2009;191:341-366. (*Reviews the history, structure, function and clinical applications of natriuretic peptides and their receptors*)

Peripheral vascular disease, Raynaud's disease and pulmonary hypertension

iatt W.R. Medical treatment of peripheral arterial disease and claudication. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;344:1608-1621. (*Discusses risk factor modification, summarises evidence for efficacy of cilostazol, and describes rationale for several investigational drugs, for example propionyl levocarnitine*)

Further reading

adesch D.B., Abman S.H., Ahearn G.S., *et al.* Medical therapy for pulmonary arterial hypertension—ACCP evidence-based clinical practice guidelines. *Chest.* 2004;126(Suppl.):35S-62S. (*Evidence-based treatment recommendations for physicians involved in the care of these complex patients*)

eppu H., Ichinose F., Kawai N., *et al.* BMPR-II heterozygous mice have mild pulmonary hypertension and an impaired pulmonary vascular remodeling response to prolonged hypoxia. *Am. J. Physiol. Lung Cell Mol. Physiol.*. 2004;287:L1241-L1247. (*'Heterozygous mutations of the bone morphogenetic protein type II receptor, BMPR-II, gene have been identified in patients with primary pulmonary hypertension … in mice, mutation of one copy of the BMPR-II gene causes pulmonary hypertension but impairs the ability of the pulmonary vasculature to remodel in response to prolonged hypoxic breathing.'*)

igenbottam T., Laude L., Emery C., Essener M. Pulmonary hypertension as a result of drug therapy. *Clin. Chest Med.*. 2004;25:123-131. (*Reviews anorectic drug-induced pulmonary arterial hypertension and considers mechanisms*)

umbert M., Sitbon O., Simonneau G. Drug therapy: treatment of pulmonary arterial hypertension.

N. Engl. J. Med.. 2004;351:1425-1436.

ee A.J., Chiao T.B., Tsang M.P. Sildenafil for pulmonary hypertension. *Ann. Pharmacother.* 2005;39:869-884. (*Sildenafil is a promising and well-tolerated treatment for pulmonary hypertension; well-designed trials are needed*)

IcLaughlin V.V., Sitbon O., Badesch D.B., *et al.* Survival with first-line bosentan in patients with primary pulmonary hypertension. *Eur. Respir. J.*. 2005;25:244-249. (*Bosentan improved survival in patients with advanced primary pulmonary hypertension*)

apoli C., Loscalzo J. Nitric oxide and other novel therapies for pulmonary hypertension. *J. Cardiovasc. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2004;9:1-8. (*Focus on endothelial NO, NO replacement and related therapies*)

app Z., Csapo K., Pollesello P., et al Pharmacological mechanisms contributing to the clinical efficacy of levosimendan Cardiovasc. Drug Rev. 23:2005:71-98 (*Levosimendan is a* Ca^{2+} *sensitiser, binding to troponin C in the myocardium and, additionally, opening ATP-sensitive potassium channels in vascular smooth muscle. Clinical studies have suggested long-term benefits on mortality following short-term administration in patients with decompensated heart failure*)

ich S., McLaughlin V.V. Chapter 67. In: Zipes D.P., Libby P., Bonow R.O., Braunwald E., editors. *Braunwald's heart disease*. seventh ed. Philadelphia: Elsevier; 2005:1807-1842.

ask-force on Diagnosis and Treatment of Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension of the European Society of Cardiology. Guidelines on diagnosis and treatment of pulmonary arterial hypertension. *Eur. Heart J.*. 2004;25:2243-2278.

*V*est J., Fagan K., Steudel W., et al Pulmonary hypertension in transgenic mice expressing a dominant-negative BMPRII gene in smooth muscle Circ. Res. 94:2004:1109-1114 (*Bone morphogenetic peptides, BMPs, a family of cytokines critical to normal development, are implicated in the pathogenesis of familial pulmonary arterial hypertension; deletion of* BMPRII *results in early fetal death. To study BMP signalling in postnatal vascular disease, these authors constructed a smooth muscle-specific transgenic mouse expressing a dominant-negative* BMPRII *under control of a tetracycline gene switch. When the mutation was activated after birth, mice developed increased pulmonary artery pressure, indicating that loss of* BMPRII *signalling is sufficient to produce the pulmonary hypertensive phenotype*)

23

Atherosclerosis and lipoprotein metabolism

Overview

Atheromatous disease is ubiquitous and underlies the commonest causes of death (myocardial infarction caused by thrombosis—Ch. 24—on ruptured atheromatous plaque in a coronary artery) and disability (stroke, heart failure) in industrial societies. Hypertension is one of the most important risk factors for atheroma, and is discussed in Chapter 22. Here, we consider other risk factors, especially dyslipidaemia,[1] which, like hypertension, is amenable to drug therapy. We describe briefly the processes of atherogenesis and of lipid transport as a basis for understanding the actions of lipid-lowering drugs. Important agents (statins, fibrates, cholesterol absorption inhibitors, nicotinic acid derivatives, fish oil derivatives) are described, with emphasis on the statins, which reduce the incidence of arterial disease and prolong life.

Introduction

[1]The term dyslipidaemia is preferred to hyperlipidaemia because a low plasma concentration of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol is believed to be harmful and is a therapeutic target.

In this chapter we summarise the pathological process of atherogenesis and approaches to the prevention of atherosclerotic disease. Lipoprotein transport forms the basis for understanding drugs used to treat

dyslipidaemia. We emphasise the *statins*, which have been a major success story, not only lowering plasma cholesterol but also reducing cardiovascular events by approximately 25–50% and prolonging life. However, some patients cannot tolerate them, and they are not effective in all patients. Evidence that other drugs that influence dyslipidaemia improve clinical outcomes is less secure than for the statins, and two recent setbacks described below call into question the reliability of changes in circulating lipid concentrations in response to drugs as surrogates predicting clinical improvement. In the absence of hard evidence of clinical improvement, other classes of lipid-lowering drugs remain second line to statins, so there is rather a lot of 'small print' in this section.

Atherogenesis

Atheroma is a focal disease of the intima of large and medium-sized arteries. Lesions evolve over decades, during most of which time they are clinically silent, the occurrence of symptoms signalling advanced disease. Presymptomatic lesions are often difficult to detect non-invasively, although ultrasound is useful in accessible arteries (e.g. the carotids), and associated changes such as reduced aortic compliance and arterial calcification can be detected by measuring, respectively, aortic pulse wave velocity and coronary artery calcification. Until recently, there have been no good subprimate models, but transgenic mice (see Ch. 7) deficient in apolipoproteins or receptors that play key roles in lipoprotein metabolism have transformed this scene. Nevertheless, most of our current understanding of atherogenesis comes from human epidemiology and pathology, and from clinical investigations.

Epidemiological studies have identified numerous risk factors for atheromatous disease. Some of these cannot be altered (e.g. a family

history of ischaemic heart disease), but others are modifiable (see Table 23.1) and are potential targets for therapeutic drugs. Clinical trials have shown that improving risk factors can reduce the consequences of atheromatous disease. Many risk factors (e.g. type 2 diabetes, dyslipidaemia, cigarette smoking) cause endothelial dysfunction (see Ch. 22), evidenced by reduced vasodilator responses to acetylcholine or to increased blood flow (so-called 'flow-mediated dilatation', responses that are inhibited by drugs that block nitric oxide [NO] synthesis; Ch. 20). Healthy endothelium produces NO and other mediators that protect against atheroma, so it is likely that metabolic cardiovascular risk factors act by causing endothelial dysfunction.

Table 23.1 Modifiable risk factors for atheromatous disease

Raised low-density lipoprotein cholesterol
Reduced high-density lipoprotein cholesterol
Hypertension (Ch. 22)
Diabetes mellitus (Ch. 30)
Cigarette smoking (Ch. 48)
Obesity (Ch. 31)
Physical inactivity
Raised C-reactive protein[a]
Raised coagulation factors (e.g. factor VII, fibrinogen)
Raised homocysteine
Raised lipoprotein(a)[b]

[a] Strongly associated with atheromatous disease but unknown if this is causal.

[b] Potentially modifiable but strongly genetically determined: nicotinic acid does lower lipoprotein(a).

Atherogenesis involves the following processes:

1 *Endothelial dysfunction*, with altered NO (Ch. 20) biosynthesis, predisposes to atherosclerosis.

2 *Injury* of dysfunctional endothelium leads to expression of adhesion molecules. This encourages monocyte attachment and migration of monocytes from the lumen into the intima. Lesions have a predilection for regions of disturbed flow such as the origins of aortic branches.

3 *Low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol* is transported into the vessel wall. Endothelial cells and monocytes/macrophages generate free radicals that oxidise LDL (oxLDL), resulting in lipid peroxidation.

4 The *oxLDL* is taken up by macrophages via 'scavenger' receptors. Such macrophages are called *foam cells* because of their 'foamy' histological appearance, resulting from accumulation of cytoplasmic lipid, and are characteristic of atheroma. Uptake of oxLDL activates macrophages and releases proinflammatory cytokines.

5 Subendothelial collections of foam cells and T lymphocytes form *fatty streaks*.

6 Cholesterol can be *mobilised from the artery wall* and transported in plasma in the form of high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, a protective mechanism termed 'reverse cholesterol transport'.

7 Activated platelets, macrophages and endothelial cells release cytokines and growth factors, causing proliferation of smooth muscle and deposition of connective tissue components. This *inflammatory fibroproliferative response* leads to a dense fibrous cap overlying a lipid-rich core, the whole structure comprising the atheromatous plaque.

8 Plaque can *rupture*, forming a substrate for *thrombosis* (see Ch. 24, Figs 24.1 and 24.10). The presence of large numbers of macrophages predisposes to plaque rupture, whereas vascular smooth muscle and matrix proteins stabilise the plaque.

To understand how drugs prevent atheromatous disease, it is necessary briefly to review lipoprotein transport.

Lipoprotein Transport

Lipids and cholesterol are transported in the bloodstream as complexes of lipid and protein known as *lipoproteins*. These consist of a central core of hydrophobic lipid (including triglycerides and cholesteryl esters) encased in a hydrophilic coat of polar phospholipid, free cholesterol and *apoprotein*. There are four main classes of lipoprotein, differing in the relative proportion of the core lipids and in the type of apoprotein (various kinds of apoA and apoB, see below). Apoproteins bind to receptors specific for each that mediate uptake of lipoprotein particles into liver, blood or other tissues. Lipoproteins differ in size and density, and this latter property, measured originally by ultracentrifugation but now commonly estimated by simpler methods, is the basis for their classification into:

- HDL particles (contain apoA1 and apoA2), diameter 7–20 nm
- LDL particles (contain apoB-100), diameter 20–30 nm
- very-low-density lipoprotein (VLDL) particles (contain apoB-100), diameter 30–80 nm
- chylomicrons (contain apoB-48), diameter 100–1000 nm.

Each class of lipoprotein has a specific role in lipid transport, and there are different pathways for exogenous and for endogenous lipids, as well

as a pathway for reverse cholesterol transport (Fig. 23.1). In the *exogenous pathway*, cholesterol and triglycerides absorbed from the ileum are transported as chylomicrons in lymph and then blood, to capillaries in muscle and adipose tissue. Here, triglycerides are hydrolysed by lipoprotein lipase, and the tissues take up the resulting free fatty acids and glycerol. The chylomicron remnants, still containing their full complement of cholesteryl esters, pass to the liver, bind to receptors on hepatocytes and undergo endocytosis. Cholesterol liberated in hepatocytes is stored, oxidised to bile acids, secreted unaltered in bile, or can enter the endogenous pathway.

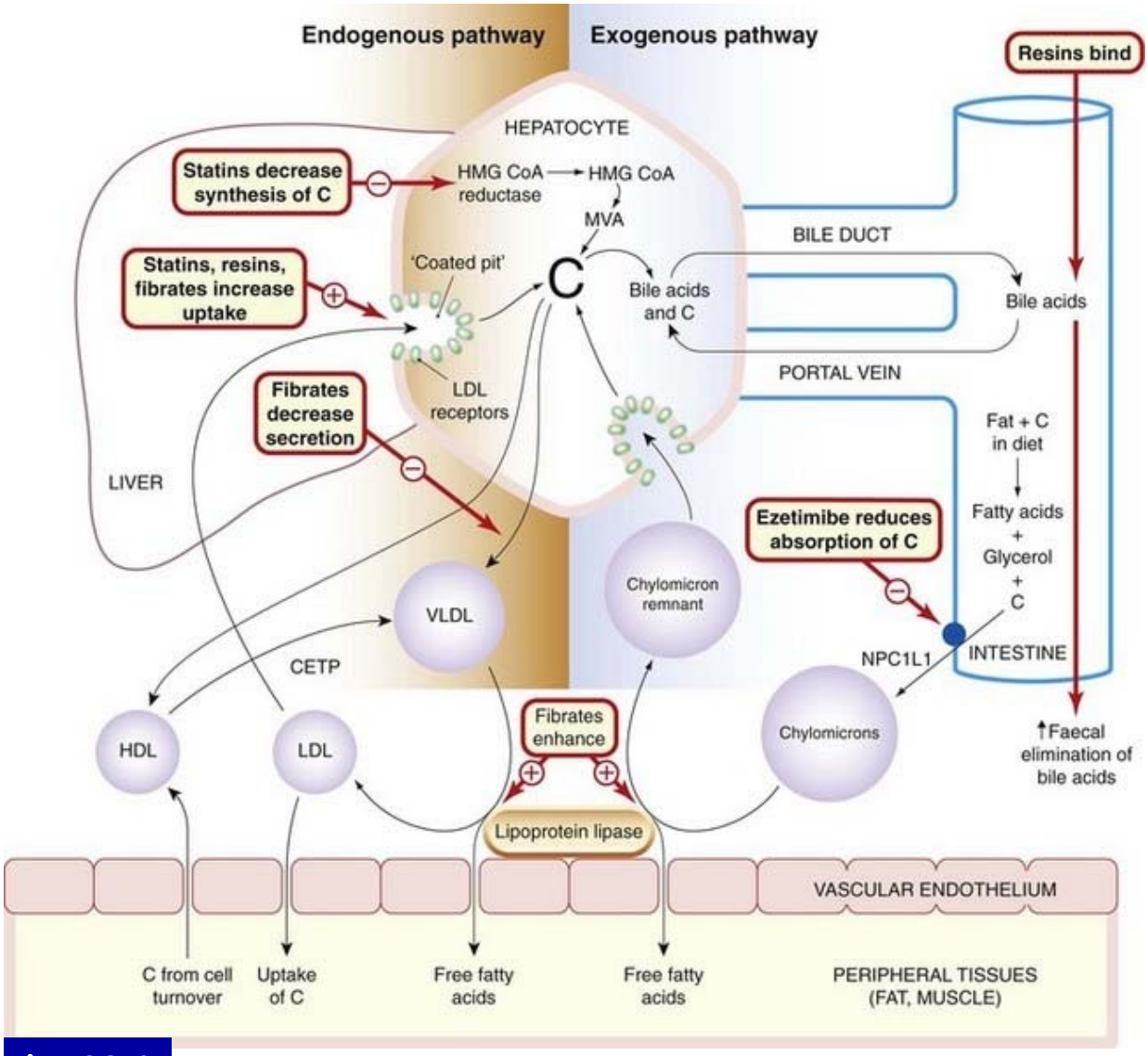


Fig. 23.1 Schematic diagram of cholesterol transport in the tissues, with sites of action of the main drugs affecting lipoprotein metabolism.

C, cholesterol; CETP, cholesteryl ester transport protein; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; HMG-CoA reductase, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A reductase; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; MVA, mevalonate; NPC1L1, a cholesterol transporter in the brush border of enterocytes; VLDL, very-low-density lipoprotein.

In the *endogenous pathway*, cholesterol and newly synthesised triglycerides are transported from the liver as VLDL to muscle and adipose tissue, where triglyceride is hydrolysed to fatty acids and glycerol; these enter the tissues as described above. During this process,

the lipoprotein particles become smaller but retain a full complement of cholesteryl esters and become LDL particles. LDL provides the source of cholesterol for incorporation into cell membranes and for synthesis of steroids (see Chs 32 and 34) but is also key in atherogenesis. Cells take up LDL by endocytosis via *LDL receptors* that recognise apoB-100. Cholesterol can return to plasma from the tissues in HDL particles (reverse cholesterol transport). Cholesterol is esterified with long-chain fatty acids in HDL particles, and the resulting cholesteryl esters are transferred to VLDL or LDL particles by a transfer protein present in the plasma and known as *cholesteryl ester transfer protein* (CETP). Lipoprotein(a), or Lp(a), is a species of LDL that is associated with atherosclerosis and is localised in atherosclerotic lesions. Lp(a) contains a unique apoprotein, apo(a), with structural similarities to plasminogen (Ch. 24). Lp(a) competes with and inhibits the binding of plasminogen to its receptors on the endothelial cell. Plasminogen is normally the substrate for plasminogen activator, which is secreted by and bound to endothelial cells, generating the fibrinolytic enzyme *plasmin* (see Fig. 24.10). The effect of the binding of Lp(a) is that less plasmin is generated, fibrinolysis is inhibited and thrombosis promoted.

▼ There is current interest in four lipid transfer proteins that have been implicated in atherogenesis (reviewed by Stein & Stein, 2005). *ACAT* (acyl coenzyme A: cholesterol acyltransferase), which is expressed in two forms, catalyses the intracellular synthesis of cholesteryl ester in macrophages, adrenal cortex, gut and liver. *LCAT* (lecithin cholesterol acyltransferase) catalyses cholesteryl ester synthesis in HDL particles. *CETP* and *PLTP* (phospholipid transfer protein) are involved in transfer of cholesterol between different classes of lipoprotein particle in plasma. **Tamoxifen**, used in the treatment and prevention of breast cancer (Chs 34 and 55), is a potent ACAT inhibitor (de Medina et al., 2004).

Dyslipidaemia

Dyslipidaemia may be primary or secondary. The *primary* forms are due to a combination of diet and genetics (often but not always polygenic). They are classified into six phenotypes (the Frederickson classification; Table 23.2). An especially great risk of ischaemic heart disease occurs in a subset of primary type IIa hyperlipoproteinaemia caused by single-gene defects of LDL receptors; this is known as *familial hypercholesterolaemia* (FH), and the plasma cholesterol concentration in affected adults is typically > 8 mmol/l in heterozygotes and 12–25 mmol/l in homozygotes. Study of FH enabled Brown & Goldstein (1986) to define the LDL receptor pathway of cholesterol homeostasis (for which they shared a Nobel Prize). Drugs used to treat primary dyslipidaemia are described below.

Table 23.2 Frederickson/World Health Organization classification of hyperlipoproteinaemia

Type	Lipoprotein elevated	Cholesterol	Triglycerides	Atherosclerosis risk	Drug treatment
I	Chylomicrons	+	+++	NE	None
IIa	LDL	++	NE	High	Statin ± ezetimibe
IIb	LDL + VLDL	++	++	High	Fibrates, statin, nicotinic acid
III	βVLDL	++	++	Moderate	Fibrates
IV	VLDL	+	++	Moderate	Fibrates
V	Chylomicrons + VLDL	+	++	NE	Fibrate, niacin, fish oil and statin combinations

+, increased concentration; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; NE, not elevated; VLDL, very-low-density lipoprotein; βVLDL, a qualitatively abnormal form of VLDL identified by its pattern on electrophoresis.

Secondary forms of dyslipidaemia are a consequence of other conditions, such as diabetes mellitus, alcoholism, nephrotic syndrome, chronic renal failure, hypothyroidism, liver disease and administration of drugs, for example **isotretinoin** (an isomer of vitamin A given by mouth as well as topically in the treatment of severe acne), **tamoxifen** (Mikhailidis et al., 1997), **ciclosporine** (Ch. 26) and *protease inhibitors*

used to treat infection with human immunodeficiency virus (Ch. 51). Secondary forms are treated where possible by correcting the underlying cause.

Lipoprotein metabolism and dyslipidaemia

Lipids, including cholesterol and triglycerides, are transported in the plasma as lipoproteins, of which there are four classes:

• Chylomicrons transport triglycerides and cholesterol from the gastrointestinal tract to the tissues, where triglyceride is split by lipoprotein lipase, releasing free fatty acids and glycerol. These are taken up in muscle and adipose tissue. Chylomicron remnants are taken up in the liver, where cholesterol is stored, secreted in bile, oxidised to bile acids or converted into:

– very-low-density lipoproteins (VLDLs), which transport cholesterol and newly synthesised triglycerides to the tissues, where triglycerides are removed as before, leaving:

– intermediate-density and low-density lipoprotein (LDL) particles with a large component of cholesterol; some LDL cholesterol is taken up by the tissues and some by the liver, by endocytosis via specific LDL receptors.

• High-density lipoprotein (HDL) particles adsorb cholesterol derived from cell breakdown in tissues (including arteries) and transfer it to VLDL and LDL particles via cholesterol ester transport protein (CETP).

• Dyslipidaemias can be primary, or secondary to a disease (e.g. hypothyroidism). They are classified according to which lipoprotein particle is abnormal into six phenotypes (the Frederickson classification). The higher the LDL cholesterol and the lower the HDL cholesterol, the higher the risk of ischaemic heart disease.

Prevention of Atheromatous Disease

Drug treatment is often justified, to supplement healthy habits. Treatment of hypertension (Ch. 22) and, to a lesser extent, diabetes mellitus (Ch. 30) reduces the incidence of symptomatic atheromatous

disease, and antithrombotic drugs (Ch. 24) reduce arterial thrombosis. Reducing LDL is also effective and is the main subject of this present chapter, but several other steps in atherogenesis are also potential targets for pharmacological attack.

▼ ***Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors*** (Ch. 22) improve endothelial function and prolong life in patients with atheromatous disease. Other drugs that also increase NO biosynthesis or availability are under investigation.

Measures to increase HDL: moderate alcohol consumption increases HDL, and epidemiological evidence favours moderate alcohol consumption in older people.[2] Regular exercise also increases circulating HDL; drug treatment to increase HDL is of uncertain benefit. Fibrates and nicotinic acid derivatives—see below—modestly increase HDL, and reduce LDL and triglycerides. In subjects with low HDL, inhibition of cholesteryl ester transfer protein (CETP) with **torcetrapib** markedly increased HDL, but also increased blood pressure and was associated with a 60% *increase* in all-cause mortality (leading to abrupt discontinuation of its development). It is unclear if this is a class effect, but **anacetrapib** markedly increases HDL without increasing blood pressure; its effect on mortality is not yet known. ApoA-I Milano is a variant of apolipoprotein A-I identified in individuals in rural Italy with very low levels of HDL but almost no cardiovascular disease. Infusion of recombinant ApoA-I Milano–phospholipid complexes causes rapid regression of atherosclerosis in animal models, and administered intravenously caused regression of atherosclerosis in patients with acute coronary syndrome. It is expensive to produce and must be administered intravenously, but the strategy continues to be a focus of intense interest (see review by Duffy & Rader, 2009).

[2]'Sinful, ginful, rum-soaked men, survive for three score years and

ten'—or longer, we rather hope…

Antioxidants (e.g. vitamin C and vitamin E) are of interest, both because of evidence that they improve endothelial function in patients with increased oxidant stress, and because of epidemiological evidence that a diet rich in antioxidants is associated with reduced risk of coronary artery disease. Results from clinical trials have been negative, however, and several antioxidants reduce HDL. **Oestrogen**, used to prevent symptoms of the menopause (Ch. 34) and to prevent postmenopausal osteoporosis, has antioxidant properties and exerts other vascular effects that could be beneficial. Epidemiological evidence suggested that women who use such hormone replacement might be at reduced risk of atheromatous disease, but controlled trials showed significant *adverse* effects on cardiovascular mortality (Ch. 34 and see commentary by Dubey et al., 2004).

Anti-inflammatory approaches: drug treatment to lower *C-reactive protein* has been mooted, but it is possible that elevated C-reactive protein is a marker of vascular inflammation rather than playing an active part in disease progression. Other anti-inflammatory measures are being investigated; for example, *acyl coenzyme A, cholesterol acyltransferase (ACAT) inhibitors*.

Other novel therapies in development include drugs that inhibit squalene synthesis, microsomal transport protein (MTP) inhibitors and drugs that alter apoB. Among drugs that alter apoB, **mipomersen** is notable as an antisense oligonucleotide complementary to the coding region for apoB-100 of mRNA. It is an interfering RNA (iRNA; see Ch. 59) modified to render it resistant to nuclease enzymes. Injected once weekly, it has a marked effect in lowering LDL in patients with homoxyzgous FH, who are highly resistant to drug treatment (Kastelein et al., 2006).

Atheromatous disease

• Atheroma is a focal disease of large and medium-sized arteries. Atheromatous plaques occur in most people, progress insidiously over many decades, and underlie the commonest causes of death (myocardial infarction) and disability (e.g. stroke) in industrialised countries.

• Fatty streaks are the earliest structurally apparent lesion and progress to fibrous and/or fatty plaques. Symptoms occur only when blood flow through the vessel is reduced below that needed to meet the metabolic demands of tissues downstream from the obstruction.

• Important modifiable risk factors include hypertension (Ch. 22), dyslipidaemia (this chapter) and smoking (Ch. 48).

• The pathophysiology is of chronic inflammation in response to injury. Endothelial dysfunction leads to loss of protective mechanisms, monocyte/macrophage and T-cell migration, uptake of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol and its oxidation, uptake of oxidised LDL by macrophages, smooth muscle cell migration and proliferation, and deposition of collagen.

• Plaque rupture leads to platelet activation and thrombosis (Ch. 24).

Lipid-Lowering Drugs

Several drugs decrease plasma LDL. Drug therapy is used in addition to dietary measures and correction of other modifiable cardiovascular risk factors.

The main agents used clinically are:

• statins: 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase inhibitors

• fibrates

• inhibitors of cholesterol absorption

• nicotinic acid or its derivatives

• fish oil derivatives.

Fish oil lowers plasma triglyceride concentration but can increase plasma cholesterol.

Statins: Hmg-COa Reductase Inhibitors

The rate-limiting enzyme in cholesterol synthesis is HMG-CoA reductase, which catalyses the conversion of HMG-CoA to mevalonic acid (see Fig. 23.1). **Simvastatin**, **lovastatin** and **pravastatin** are specific, reversible, competitive HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors with K_i values of approximately 1 nmol/l. **Atorvastatin** and **rosuvastatin** are long-lasting inhibitors. Decreased hepatic cholesterol synthesis upregulates LDL receptor synthesis, increasing LDL clearance from plasma into liver cells. The main biochemical effect of statins is therefore to reduce plasma LDL. There is also some reduction in plasma triglyceride and increase in HDL. Several large randomised placebo-controlled trials of the effects of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors on morbidity and mortality have been positive.

▼ The Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study (4S) recruited patients with ischaemic heart disease and plasma cholesterol of 5.5–8.0 mmol/l: simvastatin lowered serum LDL by 35% and death by 30% (Fig. 23.2). This was accounted for by a 42% reduction in death from coronary disease over the median follow-up period of 5.4 years. Other large trials have confirmed reduced mortality both in patients with established ischaemic heart disease (e.g. the Cholesterol and Recurrent Events [CARE] trial) and in healthy people at risk of coronary disease, with a wide range of plasma cholesterol values and other risk factors, and treated with different statins (e.g. the West of Scotland Coronary Prevention Study [WOSCOPS], the Heart Protection Study and the Anglo-Scandinavian Cardiac Outcomes Trial [ASCOT]). Intensive

lowering of LDL with atorvastatin 80 mg had a greater effect on event rate than did a 10 mg dose, but with a greater incidence of abnormally raised plasma transaminase activity (LaRosa et al., 2005). In secondary prevention trials of statins, cardiovascular event rate is approximately linearly related to the achieved plasma LDL over a concentration range from approximately 1.8 to 4.9 mmol/l, and the event rate falls on the same line in placebo-and statin-treated patients.

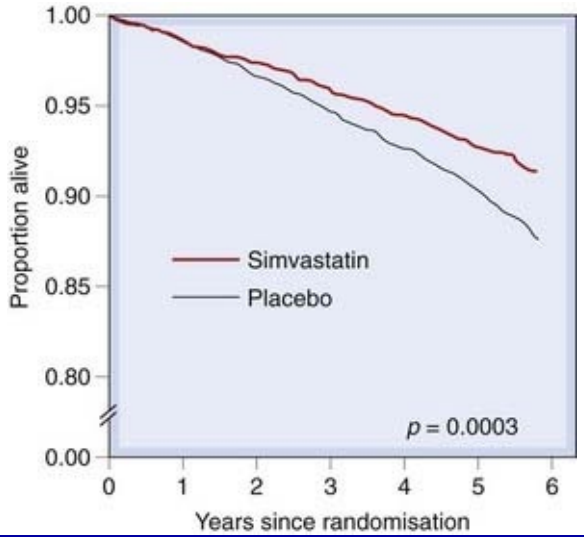


Fig. 23.2 Survival in patients with coronary heart disease and serum cholesterol 5.5–8.0 mmol/l treated either with placebo or with simvastatin.

The relative risk of death in the simvastatin group was 0.70 (95% confidence intervals 0.58–0.85).

(Based on 4S study 1994 Lancet 344: 1383–1389.)

Other actions of statins

Products of the mevalonate pathway react with protein ('lipidation', which is the addition to a protein of hydrophobic groups such as prenyl or farnesyl moieties). Several important membrane-bound enzymes (e.g. endothelial NO synthase; see Ch. 20) are modified in this way. The fatty groups serve as anchors, localising the enzyme in organelles such as caveoli and Golgi apparatus. Consequently, there is currently great

interest in actions of statins that are unrelated, or indirectly related, to their effect on plasma LDL (sometimes referred to as *pleiotropic* effects). Some of these actions are undesirable (e.g. HMG-CoA reductase guides migrating primordial germ cells, and statin use is contraindicated during pregnancy), but some offer therapeutic promise, for example in Alzheimer's disease where a role for statins is controversial (see review by Querfurth & LaFerla, 2010) and prevention of prostate cancer (Shannon et al., 2005). Such actions include:

- improved endothelial function
- reduced vascular inflammation
- reduced platelet aggregability
- increased neovascularisation of ischaemic tissue
- increased circulating endothelial progenitor cells
- stabilisation of atherosclerotic plaque
- antithrombotic actions
- enhanced fibrinolysis
- inhibition of germ cell migration during development
- immune suppression
- protection against sepsis.

The extent to which these effects contribute to the antiatheromatous actions of statins is unknown.

Pharmacokinetics

Short-acting statins are given by mouth at night to reduce peak

cholesterol synthesis in the early morning. They are well absorbed and extracted by the liver, their site of action, and are subject to extensive presystemic metabolism via cytochrome P450 and glucuronidation pathways. Simvastatin is an inactive lactone prodrug; it is metabolised in the liver to its active form, the corresponding β-hydroxy fatty acid.

Adverse effects

Statins are well tolerated; mild unwanted effects include muscle pain (myalgia), gastrointestinal disturbance, raised concentrations of liver enzymes in plasma, insomnia and rash. More serious adverse effects are rare but include severe myositis (rhabdomyolysis) and angio-oedema. Myositis is a class effect of statins, occurs also with other lipid-lowering drugs (especially fibrates) and is dose related.[3] It is commoner in patients with low lean body mass or uncorrected hypothyroidism.

Clinical uses of HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors (statins, *e.g.* simvastatin, atorvastatin)



• Secondary prevention of myocardial infarction and stroke in patients who have symptomatic atherosclerotic disease (e.g. angina, transient ischaemic attacks, or following myocardial infarction or stroke).

• Primary prevention of arterial disease in patients who are at high risk because of elevated serum cholesterol concentration, especially if there are other risk factors for atherosclerosis. Tables (available for example in the British National Formulary) are used to target treatment to those at greatest risk.

• Atorvastatin lowers serum cholesterol in patients with homozygous familial hypercholesterolaemia.

• In severe drug-resistant dyslipidaemia (e.g. heterozygous familial hypercholesterolaemia), ezetimibe is combined with statin treatment.

• Contraindicated in pregnancy.

Fibrates

[3]Cerivastatin, a potent statin introduced at relatively high dose, was withdrawn because of severe myositis occurring particularly in patients treated with gemfibrozil—discussed later in the chapter.

Several fibric acid derivatives (fibrates) are available, including **bezafibrate**, **ciprofibrate**, **gemfibrozil**, **fenofibrate** and **clofibrate**. These markedly reduce circulating VLDL, and hence triglyceride, with a modest (approximately 10%) reduction in LDL and an approximately 10% increase in HDL. Their mechanism of action is complex (see Fig. 23.1). They are agonists at PPARα nuclear receptors[4] (Ch. 3); in humans, the main effects are to increase transcription of the genes for lipoprotein lipase, apoA1 and apoA5. They increase hepatic LDL uptake. In addition to effects on lipoproteins, fibrates reduce plasma C-reactive protein and fibrinogen, improve glucose tolerance and inhibit vascular smooth muscle inflammation by inhibiting the expression of the transcription factor nuclear factor κB. As with the pleiotropic effects of statins (see above), there is great interest in these actions, although again it is unknown if they are clinically important.

[4]Standing for peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors—don't ask! (Peroxisomes are organelles that are not present in human cells, so something of a misnomer!) Thiazolidinedione drugs used in treating diabetes act on related PPARγ receptors; see Ch. 30.

▼ In one study, gemfibrozil reduced coronary heart disease by approximately one-third compared with placebo in middle-aged men with primary hyperlipoproteinaemia, but fibrates have not been shown to improve survival. An HDL intervention trial performed by the US Veterans Affairs Department in some 2500 men with coronary heart

disease and low HDL together with low LDL showed that gemfibrozil increased HDL and reduced coronary disease and stroke. Event rates were linked to changes in HDL but not to triglycerides or to LDL, suggesting that increasing HDL with a fibrate reduces vascular risk.

Adverse effects

Myositis is unusual but can be severe (rhabdomyolysis), with myoglobinuria and acute renal failure. It occurs particularly in patients with renal impairment, because of reduced protein binding and impaired drug elimination. Fibrates should be avoided in such patients and also in alcoholics, who are predisposed to hypertriglyceridaemia but are at risk of rhabdomyolysis.[5] Myositis can also be caused (rarely) by statins (see above), and the combined use of fibrates with this class of drugs is therefore generally inadvisable (although it is sometimes undertaken by specialists). Gastrointestinal symptoms, pruritus and rash are more common than with statins. Clofibrate predisposes to gallstones, and its use is therefore limited to patients who have had a cholecystectomy (i.e. removal of the gall bladder).

Clinical uses of fibrates (e.g. gemfibrozil, fenofibrate) 

• Mixed dyslipidaemia (i.e. raised serum triglyceride as well as cholesterol), provided this is not caused by excessive alcohol consumption. Fenofibrate is uricosuric, which may be useful where hyperuricaemia coexists with mixed dyslipidaemia.

• In patients with low high-density lipoprotein and high risk of atheromatous disease (often type 2 diabetic patients; see Ch. 30).

• Combined with other lipid-lowering drugs in patients with severe treatment-resistant dyslipidaemia. This may, however, increase the risk of rhabdomyolysis.

Drugs That Inhibit Cholesterol Absorption

[5]For several reasons, including a tendency to lie immobile for prolonged periods followed by generalised convulsions—'rum fits'—and delirium tremens.

Historically, bile acid-binding resins (e.g. **colestyramine**, **colestipol**) were the only agents available to reduce cholesterol absorption and were among the few means to lower plasma cholesterol. Taken by mouth, they sequester bile acids in the intestine and prevent their reabsorption and enterohepatic recirculation (Fig. 23.1). The concentration of HDL is unchanged, and they cause an unwanted increase in triglycerides.

▼ The American Lipid Research Clinics' trial of middle-aged men with primary hypercholesterolaemia showed that addition of a resin to dietary treatment caused a mean 13% fall in plasma cholesterol and a 20–25% fall in coronary heart disease over 7 years, but no studies have shown improved survival. Decreased absorption of exogenous cholesterol and increased metabolism of endogenous cholesterol into bile acids in the liver lead to increased expression of LDL receptors on hepatocytes, and hence to increased clearance of LDL from the blood and a reduced concentration of LDL in plasma. Resins are bulky, unpalatable and often cause diarrhoea. They interfere with the absorption of fat-soluble vitamins, and of *thiazide diuretics* (Chs 22 and 28), digoxin (Ch. 21) and warfarin (Ch. 24), which should therefore be taken at least 1 h before or 4–6 h after the resin. With the introduction of statins, their use in treating dyslipidaemia was relegated largely to additional treatment in patients with severe disease (e.g. FH) and (a separate use) treating bile salt-associated symptoms of pruritus (itch) and diarrhoea—see clinical box. **Colesevelam** (introduced recently) is less bulky (daily dose up to 4 g compared with a dose up to 36 g for colestyramine) but more expensive. Subsequently, plant sterols and stanols have been marketed; these are isolated from wood pulp and used to make margarines or

yoghurts. They reduce plasma cholesterol to a small extent and are tastier than resins.[6] Their mechanism is unclear; sitostanol in the gut lumen competes with cholesterol for uptake and sitosterol interferes with cholesterol transfer within the enterocyte.

Ezetimibe

[6]This is not, however, saying much.

Ezetimibe is one of a group of azetidinone cholesterol absorption inhibitors, and is used as an adjunct to diet and statins in hypercholesterolaemia. It inhibits absorption of cholesterol (and of plant stanols) from the duodenum by blocking a transport protein (NPC1L1) in the brush border of enterocytes, without affecting the absorption of fat-soluble vitamins, triglycerides or bile acids. Because of its high potency compared with resins (a daily dose of 10 mg compared with a dose of resin of up to 36 g of colestyramine), it should represent a very real advance as a substitute for resins as supplementary treatment to statins in patients with severe dyslipidaemia. However, disappointingly, in a study of 720 patients with heterozygous FH comparing simvastatin alone with the combination of simvastatin with ezetimibe, whereas ezetimibe did indeed have the desired effect on LDL (approximately an extra 20% reduction), it did not retard thickening in the inner layers of the carotid artery over 2 years of follow-up (Kastelein et al., 2008). Such thickening is closely linked to atherosclerosis. A larger trial evaluating its effect on cardiovascular outcome is ongoing and eagerly (anxiously?) awaited. The mechanism of ezetimibe is distinct from that of phytosterol and phytostanol esters, which interfere with the micellar presentation of sterols to the cell surface.

Ezetimibe is administered by mouth and is absorbed into intestinal epithelial cells, where it localises to the brush border, which is its

presumed site of action. It is also extensively (> 80%) metabolised to an active metabolite. Enterohepatic recycling results in slow elimination. The terminal half-life is approximately 22 h. It enters milk (at least in animal studies) and is contraindicated for women who are breastfeeding. It is generally well tolerated but can cause diarrhoea, abdominal pain or headache; rash and angio-oedema have been reported.

Clinical use of drugs that reduce cholesterol absorption: ezetimibe or bile acid-binding resins (e.g. colestyramine) 

- As an addition to a statin when response has been inadequate (ezetimibe).
- For hypercholesterolaemia when a statin is contraindicated.
- Uses unrelated to atherosclerosis, including:
  - pruritus in patients with partial biliary obstruction (bile acid-binding resin)
  - bile acid diarrhoea, for example caused by diabetic neuropathy (bile acid-binding resin).

Nicotinic Acid

Nicotinic acid is a vitamin, and as such is essential for many important metabolic processes. Quite separately from this, it has been used in gram quantities as a lipid-lowering agent. It is converted to nicotinamide, which inhibits hepatic VLDL secretion (see Fig. 23.1), with consequent reductions in circulating triglyceride and LDL including Lp(a), and an increase in HDL. The mechanism is poorly understood but is believed to be initiated by an effect on lipolysis via a G-protein-coupled orphan receptor called HM74A and present in adipocyte membranes (see review by Karpe & Frayn, 2004). It also influences hepatic diacylglycerol transferase. Long-term administration to survivors of myocardial infarction reduced mortality in the Coronary Drug Project trial, but unwanted effects limit its clinical use. A modified-release preparation is

better tolerated, and is a real, if modest, advance.

Adverse effects include flushing, palpitations and gastrointestinal disturbance. Flushing is associated with production of PGD_2 (Ch. 17) and is reduced by taking with aspirin or with **laropiprant** (a PGD_2 antagonist)—Figure 23.3. High doses can disturb liver function, impair glucose tolerance, and precipitate gout by increasing circulating urate concentration.

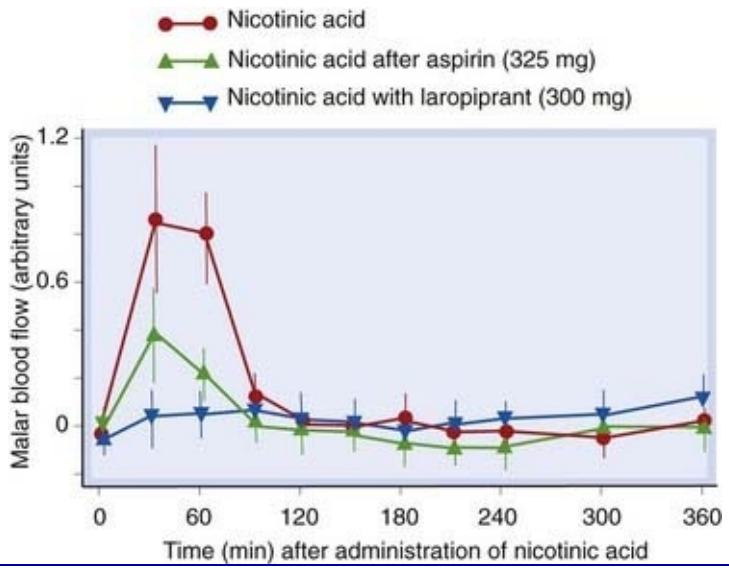


Fig 23.3 Vasodilatation caused by nicotinic acid (1.5 g, extended-release preparation) is attenuated by aspirin or by laropiprant, an antagonist of prostaglandin D2 (PGD_2).

Blood flow in the cheeks of human subjects was measured by laser Doppler perfusion imaging after either placebo or nicotinic acid. Aspirin (325 mg 30 min before nicotinic acid) or laropiprant (300 mg with nicotinic acid) reduced the increase in malar blood flow caused by nicotinic acid.

(Redrawn from Lai E et al. 2007 Suppression of niacin-induced vasodilation with an antagonist to prostaglandin D2 receptor subtype 1. Clin Pharmacol Therap 81: 849–857.)

Fish Oil Derivatives

Omega-3 marine triglycerides reduce plasma triglyceride concentrations but increase cholesterol. Plasma triglyceride concentrations are less

strongly associated with coronary artery disease than is cholesterol, but there is epidemiological evidence that eating fish regularly does reduce ischaemic heart disease, and dietary supplementation with ω-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) improves survival in patients who have recently had a myocardial infarction (GISSI-Prevenzione Investigators, 1999). The mechanism may be the potent antiarrhythmic effects of PUFA (reviewed by Leaf et al., 2003). The mechanism of action of fish oil on plasma triglyceride concentrations is unknown. Fish oil is rich in PUFA, including eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acid, and it has other potentially important effects including inhibition of platelet function, prolongation of bleeding time, anti-inflammatory effects and reduction of plasma fibrinogen. Eicosapentaenoic acid substitutes for arachidonic acid in cell membranes and gives rise to 3-series prostaglandins and thromboxanes (that is, prostanoids with three double bonds in their side chains rather than the usual two), and 5-series leukotrienes. This probably accounts for their effects on haemostasis, because thromboxane A_3 is much less active as a platelet-aggregating agent than is thromboxane A_2, whereas PGI_3 is similar in potency to PGI_2 as an inhibitor of platelet function. The alteration in leukotriene biosynthesis probably underlies the anti-inflammatory effects of fish oil. Fish oil is contraindicated in patients with type IIa hyperlipoproteinaemia because of the increase in LDL that it causes. A preparation of omega 3-acid ethyl esters is licensed in the UK for prevention of recurrent events after myocardial infarction in addition to treatment of hypertriglyceridaemia; it causes less increase in LDL and fewer problems with fishy odour, weight gain and dyspepsia than the older fish oil preparations.

Drugs in dyslipidaemia

The main drugs used in patients with dyslipidaemias are:

• HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors (*statins*, *e.g.* **simvastatin**): inhibit synthesis of cholesterol, increasing expression of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) receptors on hepatocytes and hence increasing hepatic LDL cholesterol (LDL-C) uptake. They reduce cardiovascular events and prolong life in people at risk, and clinically are the most important class of drugs used in dyslipidaemias. Adverse effects include myalgias (rarely, severe muscle damage) and raised liver enzymes.

• Fibrates (e.g. **gemfibrozil**): activate PPARα receptors, increase activity of lipoprotein lipase, decrease hepatic very-low-density lipoprotein production and enhance clearance of LDL by the liver. They markedly lower serum triglycerides, and modestly increase high-density lipoprotein cholesterol. Adverse effects include muscle damage.

• Agents that interfere with cholesterol absorption, usually as an adjunct to diet plus statin:
  – ezetimibe
  – stanol-enriched foods
  – bile acid-binding resins (e.g. colestyramine, colesevelam).

• Modified-release nicotinic acid. Flushing is the main adverse effect; it can be controlled by aspirin or by laropiprant (a PGD_2 antagonist).

• Fish oil derivatives—omega-3-acid ethyl esters.

Clinical uses of nicotinic acid derivatives

• As adjunct to a statin and diet in dyslipidaemia, especially when associated with low HDL and raised triglycerides.

• When a statin is contraindicated.

References and Further Reading

Atherosclerosis and dyslipidaemia

rown M.S., Goldstein J.L. A receptor-mediated pathway for cholesterol homeostasis. *Science*. 1986;232:34-47. (*Classic from these Nobel Prize winners; see also Goldstein, J.L., Brown, M.S., 1990. Regulation of the mevalonate pathway. Nature 343, 425–430*)

urrington P.N. *Hyperlipidaemia: diagnosis and management*, third ed. London: Hodder Arnold; 2005. (*Extremely readable, authoritative book*)

oss R. Atherosclerosis—an inflammatory disease. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1999;340:115-126.

tein O., Stein Y. Lipid transfer proteins (LTP) and atherosclerosis. *Atherosclerosis*. 2005;178:217-230. (*Reviews four lipid transfer proteins—ACAT, CETP, LCAT and PLTP—and the therapeutic potential of modulating them*)

Statins

aRosa J.C., Grundy S.M., Waters D.D., et alFor the Treating to New Targets (TNT) Investigators. Intensive lipid lowering with atorvastatin in patients with stable coronary disease. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;352:1425-1435. (*Intensive lipid-lowering therapy atorvastatin 80 mg daily in coronary heart disease patients provided significant clinical benefit beyond that afforded by 10 mg; this occurred with a greater incidence of elevated aminotransferase levels*)

iao J.K., Laufs U. Pleiotropic effects of statins. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2005;45:89-118. (*'Many pleiotropic effects are mediated by inhibition of isoprenoids, which serve as lipid attachments for intracellular signalling molecules. In particular, inhibition of small GTP-binding proteins, Rho, Ras, and Rac, whose proper membrane localisation and function are dependent on isoprenylation, may play an important role in mediating the pleiotropic effects of statins.'*)

Ierx M.W., Liehn E.A., Graf J., *et al.* Statin treatment after onset of sepsis in a murine model improves survival. *Circulation*. 2005;112:117-124. (*Statins offer the potential of effective sepsis treatment*)

uerfurth H.W., LaFerla F.M. Mechanisms of disease: Alzheimer's disease. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2010;362:329-344.

:ague W., Emberson J., Ridker P.M., For the Air Force/Texas Coronary Atherosclerosis Prevention Study Investigators. Measurement of C-reactive protein for the targeting of statin therapy in the primary prevention of acute events. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;344:1959-1965. (*Statins may be*

effective in preventing coronary events in people with unremarkable serum lipid concentrations but with elevated C-reactive protein, a marker of inflammation and risk factor for coronary disease; see also accompanying editorial, Munford, R.S., Statins and the acute phase response, pp. 2016–2018)

abbagh M.N., Connor D.J., Undas A., *et al.* Simvastatin depresses blood clotting by activation of prothrombin, factor V, and factor XIII and by enhancing factor Va inactivation. *Circulation*. 2001;103:2248-2253. (*Simvastatin effects on blood clotting independent of cholesterol reduction*)

hannon J., Tewoderos S., Garzotto M., *et al.* Statins and prostate cancer risk: a case-control study. *Am. J. Epidemiol.*. 2005;162:318-325. (*Statin use was associated with a reduction in prostate cancer risk—odds ratio, 0.38; 95% confidence interval, 0.21, 0.69—especially of more aggressive prostate cancer*)

an Doren M., Broihier H.T., Moore L.A., *et al.* HMG-CoA reductase guides migrating primordial germ cells. *Nature*. 1998;396:466-469. (*Regulated expression of HMG-CoA reductase provides spatial guide to migrating primordial germ cells*)

asa M., Fichtlscherer S., Adler K., *et al.* Increase in circulating endothelial progenitor cells by statin therapy in patients with stable coronary artery disease. *Circulation*. 2001;103:2885-2890. (*May participate in repair after ischaemic injury*)

Other therapies

Nicotinic acid

anner P.L., Furberg C.D., Terrin M.L., *et al.* Benefits of niacin by glycemic status in patients with healed myocardial infarction (from the Coronary Drug Project). *Am. J. Cardiol.*. 2005;95:254-257. (*The Coronary Drug Project, conducted during 1966 to 1974, was a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial in 8341 men with previous myocardial infarction; nicotinic acid significantly reduced total mortality during 6.2 years' treatment plus an additional 9 years of post-trial follow-up*)

arpe F., Frayn K.N. The nicotinic acid receptor—a new mechanism for an old drug. *Lancet*. 2004;363:1892-1894. (*Brief review of recent evidence that nicotinic acid acts via a G-protein-coupled orphan receptor*)

aylor A.J., Sullenberger L.E., Lee H.J., *et al.* Arterial biology for the investigation of the treatment

effects of reducing cholesterol (ARBITER) 2—A double-blind, placebo-controlled study of extended-release niacin on atherosclerosis progression in secondary prevention patients treated with statins. *Circulation*. 2004;110:3512-3517. (*A double-blind, randomised, placebo-controlled study of once-daily extended-release nicotinic acid 1 g added to background statin therapy in 167 patients with coronary heart disease and low HDL. The primary end point was the change in common carotid intima media thickness after 1 year. Nicotinic acid slowed the progression of atherosclerosis*)

Fibrates

ervois P., Torra I.P., Fruchart J.C., *et al.* Regulation of lipid and lipoprotein metabolism by PPAR activators. *Clin. Chem. Lab. Med.*. 2000;38:3-11. (*Review*)

loomfield Rubins H., Davenport J., Babikian V., *et al.* Reduction in stroke with gemfibrozil in men with coronary heart disease and low HDL cholesterol. The Veterans Affairs HDL Intervention Trial (VA-HIT). *Circulation*. 2001;103:2828-2833. (*Evidence that increasing HDL reduces stroke*)

Fish oil

ISSI-Prevenzione Investigators (Gruppo Italiano per lo Studio della Sopravivenza nell'Infarto Miocardico). Dietary supplementation with n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and vitamin E after myocardial infarction: results of the GISSI-Prevenzione trial. *Lancet*. 1999;354:447-455. (*11 324 patients surviving myocardial infarction were randomly assigned supplements of n-3 PUFA, 1 g daily, vitamin E, both or neither for 3.5 years. The primary end point was death, non-fatal myocardial infarction and stroke combined. Dietary supplementation with n-3 PUFA led to a clinically important and statistically significant benefit. Vitamin E had no benefit*)

eaf A., Kang J.X., Xiao Y.F., *et al.* Clinical prevention of sudden cardiac death by n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and mechanism of prevention of arrhythmias by n-3 fish oils. *Circulation*. 2003;107:2646-2652. (*Reviews antiarrhythmic action of PUFA, including electrophysiological effects on voltage-dependent sodium and L-type calcium channels*)

Ezetimibe

astelein J.J., Akdim F., Stroes E.S., *et al.* Simvastatin with or without ezetimibe in familial hypercholesterolemia. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2008;358:1431-1443. (*In patients with FH, combined therapy with ezetimibe and simvastatin did not result in a significant difference in changes in intima media thickness, as compared with simvastatin alone, despite decreases in LDL cholesterol and C-reactive protein*)

osoglou T., Statkevich P., Johnson-Levonas A.O., *et al.* Ezetimibe—a review of its metabolism, pharmacokinetics and drug interactions. *Clin. Pharmacokinetics*. 2005;44:467-494.

Potential therapies

e Medina P., Payrá B.L., Bernad J., *et al.* Tamoxifen is a potent inhibitor of cholesterol esterification and prevents the formation of foam cells. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*. 2004;308:1542-1548. (*Molecular modelling revealed similarity between tamoxifen and ACAT inhibitor*)

uffy D., Rader D.J. Update on strategies to increase HDL quantity and function. *Nature. Rev. Cardiol.*. 2009;6:455-463.

harbanda R.K., Wallace S., Walton B., *et al.* Systemic acyl-CoA: cholesterol acyltransferase inhibition reduces inflammation and improves vascular function in hypercholesterolemia. *Circulation*. 2005;111:804-807. (*Systemic ACAT inhibition reduced tumour necrosis factor-α levels in hypercholesterolaemic subjects and improved resistance vessel endothelial function, with small effects on circulating cholesterol*)

/ierzbicki A.S. Lipid lowering therapies in development. *Expert Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2004;13:1405-1408.

24

Haemostasis and thrombosis

Overview

This chapter summarises the main features of blood coagulation, platelet function and fibrinolysis. These processes underlie haemostasis and thrombosis, and provide a basis for understanding haemorrhagic disorders (e.g. haemophilia) and thrombotic diseases both of arteries (e.g. thrombotic stroke, myocardial infarction) and of veins (e.g. deep vein thrombosis). Drugs that act on the coagulation cascade, on platelets and on fibrinolysis are considered. Anticoagulants, antiplatelet drugs and fibrinolytic drugs are especially important clinically because of the prevalence of thrombotic disease, and are emphasised for this reason.

Introduction

Haemostasis is the arrest of blood loss from damaged blood vessels and is essential to life. A wound causes vasoconstriction, accompanied by:

- adhesion and activation of platelets
- formation of fibrin.

Platelet activation leads to the formation of a haemostatic plug, which stops the bleeding and is subsequently reinforced by fibrin. The relative importance of each process depends on the type of vessel (arterial, venous or capillary) that has been injured.

Thrombosis is the pathological formation of a ‘haemostatic’ plug within

the vasculature in the absence of bleeding ('haemostasis in the wrong place'). Over a century ago, Rudolph Virchow defined three predisposing factors—'Virchow's triad': *injury to the vessel wall*—for example, when an atheromatous plaque ruptures or becomes eroded; *altered blood flow*—for example, in the left atrial appendage of the heart during atrial fibrillation, or in the veins of the legs while sitting awkwardly on a long journey; and *abnormal coagulability* of the blood—as occurs, for example, in the later stages of pregnancy or during treatment with certain oral contraceptives (see Ch. 34). Increased coagulability of the blood can be inherited and is referred to as *thrombophilia*. A *thrombus*, which forms in vivo, should be distinguished from a *clot*, which forms in static blood in vitro. Clots are amorphous, consisting of a diffuse fibrin meshwork in which red and white blood cells are trapped indiscriminately. By contrast, arterial and venous thrombi each have a distinct structure.

An *arterial thrombus* (see Fig. 24.1) is composed of so-called white thrombus consisting mainly of platelets in a fibrin mesh. It is usually associated with atherosclerosis and can interrupt blood flow, causing ischaemia or death (infarction) of tissue downstream. Venous thrombus is composed of 'red thrombus' and consists of a small white head and a large jelly-like red tail, similar in composition to a blood clot, which streams away in the flow. Thrombus can break away from its attachment and float through the circulation, forming an embolus; venous emboli usually lodge in the lungs, while thrombus that embolises from the left heart or a carotid artery usually lodges in an artery in the brain or other organs, causing death, stroke or other disaster.

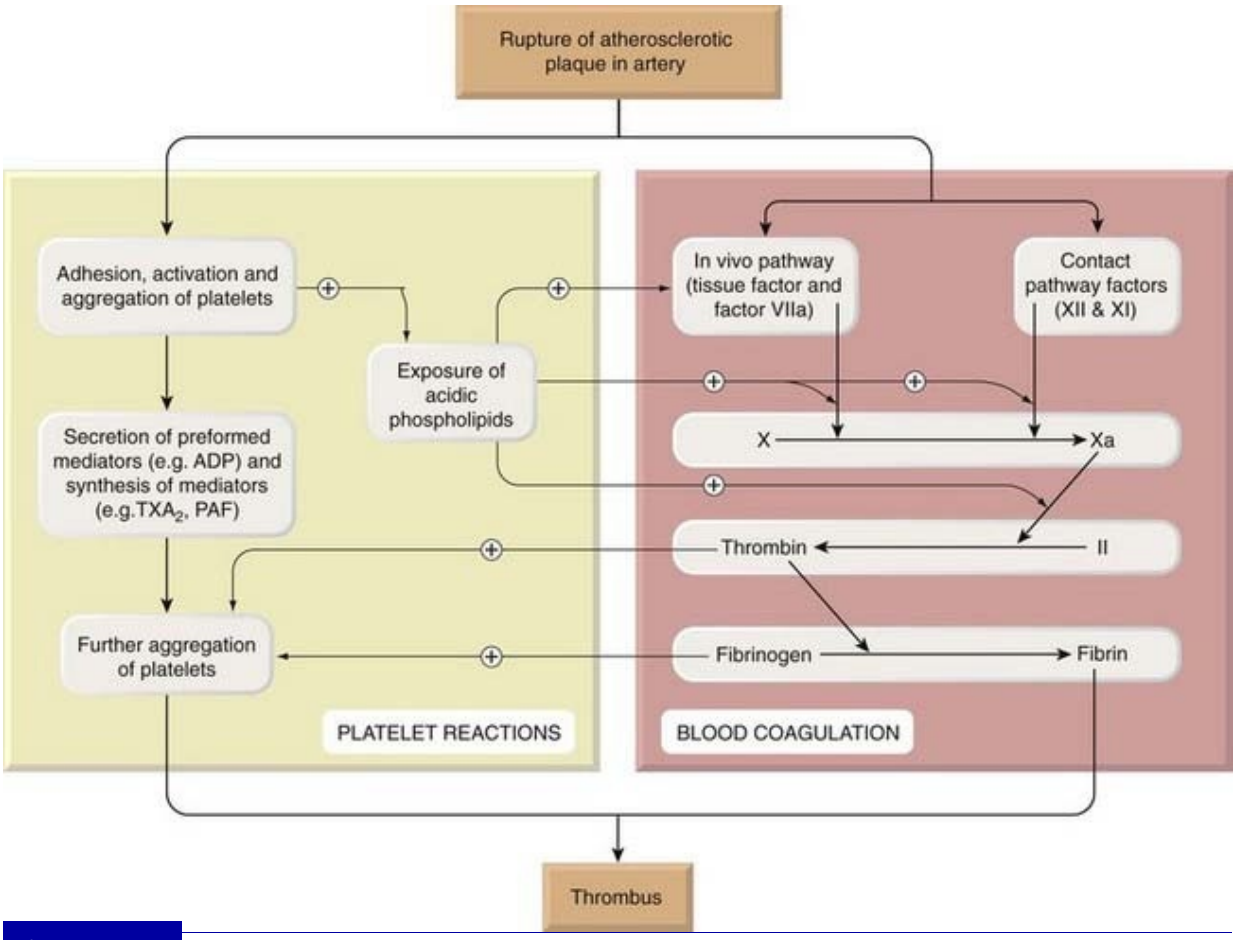


Fig. 24.1 The main events in the formation of an arterial thrombus.

Exposure of acidic phospholipids during platelet activation provides a surface on which factors IXa and VIIa interact with factor X; factor Xa then interacts with factor II, as illustrated in more detail in Figure 24.4. Activation of factor XII also initiates the fibrinolytic pathway, which is shown in Figure 24.10. (A similar series of events occurs when there is vascular damage, leading to haemostasis.) PAF, platelet-activating factor; TXA2, thromboxane A2.

Drug therapy to promote haemostasis (e.g. antifibrinolytic and haemostatic drugs; see below) is indicated when this essential process is defective (e.g. coagulation factors in haemophilia or following excessive anticoagulant therapy), or when it proves difficult to staunch haemorrhage following surgery or for menorrhagia. Drug therapy to treat or prevent thrombosis or thromboembolism is extensively used because such diseases are common as well as serious. Drugs affect haemostasis and thrombosis in three distinct ways, by influencing:

1 blood coagulation (fibrin formation)

2 platelet function

3 fibrin removal (fibrinolysis).

Blood Coagulation

Coagulation Cascade

Blood coagulation means the conversion of liquid blood to a gel or clot. The main event is the conversion by thrombin of soluble *fibrinogen* to insoluble strands of *fibrin*, the last step in a complex enzyme cascade. The components (called factors) are present in blood as inactive precursors (zymogens) of proteolytic enzymes and cofactors. They are activated by proteolysis, the active forms being designated by the suffix 'a'. Factors XIIa, XIa, Xa, IXa and thrombin (IIa) are all serine proteases. Activation of a small amount of one factor catalyses the formation of larger amounts of the next factor, which catalyses the formation of still larger amounts of the next, and so on; consequently, the cascade provides a mechanism of amplification.[1] As might be expected, this accelerating enzyme cascade has to be controlled by inhibitors, because otherwise all the blood in the body would solidify within minutes of the initiation of haemostasis. One of the most important inhibitors is *antithrombin III*, which neutralises all the serine proteases in the cascade. Vascular endothelium also actively limits thrombus extension (see below).

[1]Coagulation of 100 ml of blood requires 0.2 mg of factor VIII, 2 mg of factor X, 15 mg of prothrombin and 250 mg of fibrinogen.

Two pathways of fibrin formation were described traditionally (termed 'intrinsic'—because all the components are present in the blood—and

'extrinsic'—because some components come from outside the blood). The intrinsic or 'contact' pathway is activated when shed blood comes into contact with an artificial surface such as glass, but physiologically the system functions as a single *in vivo pathway* (Fig. 24.2). Tissue damage exposes blood to tissue factor, initiating the process and leading to production of a small amount of thrombin. This acts through several positive feedbacks (on Va, VIIIa and on platelets) that amplify and propagate the process with production of more thrombin.

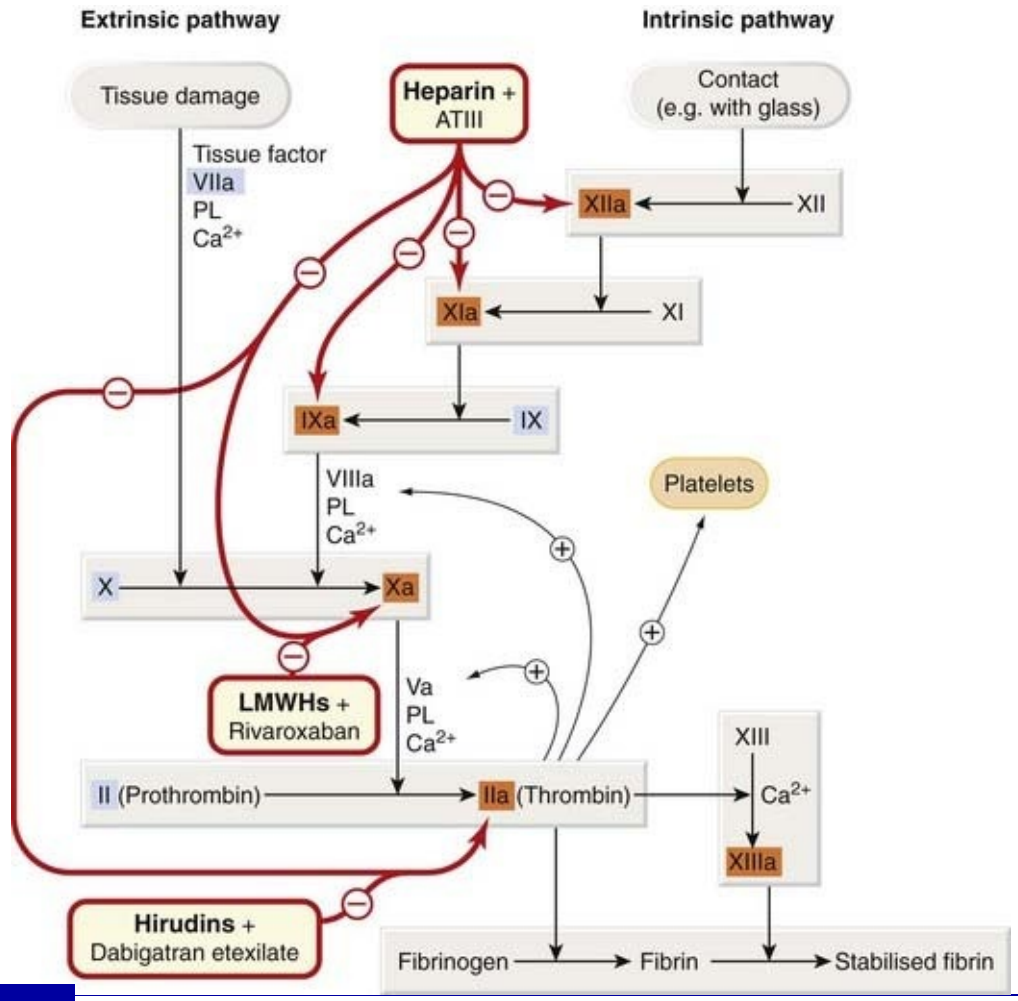


Fig. 24.2 The coagulation cascade: sites of action of anticoagulant drugs.

Oral anticoagulants interfere with post-translational γ-carboxylation of factors II, VII, IX and X (shown in blue boxes); see Figure 24.4. Heparins activate antithrombin III. ATIII, antithrombin III; LMWHs, low-molecular-weight heparins; PL, negatively charged phospholipid supplied by activated platelets.

▼ The in vivo pathway is initiated by ‘tissue factor’. This is the cellular receptor for factor VII, which, in the presence of Ca^{2+}, undergoes an active site transition. This results in rapid autocatalytic activation of factor VII to VIIa. The tissue factor–VIIa complex activates factors IX and X. Acidic phospholipids function as *surface catalysts*. They are provided during platelet activation, which exposes acidic phospholipids (especially phosphatidylserine), and these activate various clotting factors, closely juxtaposing them in functional complexes. Platelets also contribute by secreting coagulation factors, including factor Va and fibrinogen. Coagulation is sustained by further generation of factor Xa by IXa–VIIIa–Ca^{2+}–phospholipid complex. This is needed because the tissue factor–VIIa complex is rapidly inactivated in plasma by tissue factor pathway inhibitor and by antithrombin III. Factor Xa, in the presence of Ca^{2+}, phospholipid and factor Va, activates prothrombin to thrombin, the main enzyme of the cascade. The *contact* (intrinsic) pathway commences when factor XII (Hageman factor) adheres to a negatively charged surface and converges with the in vivo pathway at the stage of factor X activation (see Fig. 24.2). The proximal part of this pathway is not crucial for blood coagulation in vivo.[2] The two pathways are not entirely separate even before they converge, and various positive feedbacks promote coagulation.

Haemostasis and thrombosis

• Haemostasis is the arrest of blood loss from damaged vessels and is essential to survival. The main phenomena are:

– platelet adhesion and activation

– blood coagulation (fibrin formation).

• Thrombosis is a pathological condition resulting from inappropriate activation of

haemostatic mechanisms:

– venous thrombosis is usually associated with stasis of blood; a venous thrombus has a small platelet component and a large component of fibrin

– arterial thrombosis is usually associated with atherosclerosis, and the thrombus has a large platelet component.

• A portion of a thrombus may break away, travel as an embolus and lodge downstream, causing ischaemia and/or infarction.

The Role of Thrombin

[2]Mr Hageman (the patient deficient in factor XII after whom it was named) died not from excessive bleeding but from a pulmonaory embolism: factor XII deficiency does not give rise to a bleeding disorder.

Thrombin (factor IIa) cleaves fibrinogen, producing fragments that polymerise to form fibrin. It also activates factor XIII, a *fibrinoligase*, which strengthens fibrin-to-fibrin links, thereby stabilising the coagulum. In addition to coagulation, thrombin also causes platelet aggregation, stimulates cell proliferation and modulates smooth muscle contraction. Paradoxically, it can inhibit as well as promote coagulation (see below). Effects of thrombin on platelets and smooth muscle are initiated by interaction with specific protease-activated receptors (PARs; see Ch. 3), which belong to the superfamily of G-protein-coupled receptors. PARs initiate cellular responses that contribute not only to haemostasis and thrombosis, but also to inflammation and perhaps angiogenesis. The signal transduction mechanism is unusual: receptor activation requires proteolysis by thrombin of the extracellular N-terminal domain of the receptor, revealing a new N-terminal sequence that acts as a 'tethered agonist' (see Fig. 3.7).

Vascular Endothelium in Haemostasis and Thrombosis

Vascular endothelium, the container of the circulating blood, can change focally from a non-thrombogenic to a thrombogenic structure in response to different demands. Normally, it provides a non-thrombogenic surface by virtue of surface *heparan sulfate*, a glycosaminoglycan related to heparin, which is, like heparin, a cofactor for antithrombin III. Endothelium thus plays an essential role in preventing intravascular platelet activation and coagulation. However, it also plays an active part in haemostasis, synthesising and storing several key haemostatic components; von Willebrand factor,[3] tissue factor and plasminogen activator inhibitor (PAI)-1 are particularly important. PAI-1 is secreted in response to *angiotensin IV*, receptors for which are present on endothelial cells, providing a link between the renin–angiotensin system (see Ch. 22) and thrombosis. These prothrombotic factors are involved, respectively, in platelet adhesion and in coagulation and clot stabilisation. However, the endothelium is also implicated in thrombus limitation. Thus it generates prostaglandin (PG) I_2 (prostacyclin; Ch. 17) and nitric oxide (NO; Ch. 20); converts the platelet agonist ADP to adenosine, which inhibits platelet function (Ch. 16); synthesises *tissue plasminogen activator* (tPA; see below); and expresses *thrombomodulin*, a receptor for thrombin. After combination with thrombomodulin, thrombin activates *protein C*, a vitamin K-dependent anticoagulant. Activated protein C, helped by its cofactor protein S, inactivates factors Va and VIIa. This is known to be physiologically important, because a naturally occurring mutation of the gene coding for factor V (factor V Leiden), which confers resistance to activated protein C, results in the commonest recognised form of inherited thrombophilia. A synthetic form of activated protein C, **drotrecogin alpha (activated)**, is licensed for the treatment of severe septic shock with multiple organ failure (Ch. 22).

[3]Von Willebrand factor is a glycoprotein that is missing in a hereditary haemorrhagic disorder called von Willebrand's disease. It is synthesised by vascular endothelial cells (the presence of immunoreactive von Willebrand factor is an identifying feature of these cells in culture) and is also present in platelets.

Endotoxin and cytokines, including tumour necrosis factor, tilt the balance of prothrombotic and antithrombotic endothelial functions towards thrombosis by causing loss of heparan (see above) and expression of tissue factor, and impair endothelial NO function. If other mechanisms limiting coagulation are also faulty or become exhausted, disseminated intravascular coagulation can result. This is a serious complication of sepsis and of certain malignancies, and the main treatment is to correct the underlying disease.

Blood coagulation (fibrin formation) 

The clotting system consists of a cascade of proteolytic enzymes and cofactors.

• Inactive precursors are activated in series, each giving rise to more of the next.

• The last enzyme, thrombin, derived from prothrombin (II), converts soluble fibrinogen (I) to an insoluble meshwork of fibrin in which blood cells are trapped, forming the clot.

• There are two limbs in the cascade:

– the in vivo (extrinsic) pathway

– the contact (intrinsic) pathway.

• Both pathways result in activation of factor X to Xa, which converts prothrombin to thrombin.

• Calcium ions and a negatively charged phospholipid (PL) are essential for three steps, namely the actions of:

– factor IXa on X

– factor VIIa on X

– factor Xa on II.

• PL is provided by activated platelets adhering to the damaged vessel.

• Some factors promote coagulation by binding to PL and a serine protease factor; for example, factor Va in the activation of II by Xa, or VIIIa in the activation of X by IXa.

• Blood coagulation is controlled by:

– enzyme inhibitors (e.g. antithrombin III)

– fibrinolysis.

Drugs that Act on the Coagulation Cascade

Drugs are used to modify the cascade either when there is a defect in coagulation or when there is unwanted coagulation.

Coagulation Defects

Genetically determined deficiencies of clotting factors are not common. Examples are classic haemophilia, caused by lack of factor VIII, and an even rarer form of haemophilia (haemophilia B or Christmas disease) caused by lack of factor IX (also called Christmas factor). Missing factors can be supplied by giving fresh plasma or concentrated preparations of, respectively, factor VIII or factor IX.

Acquired clotting defects are more common than hereditary ones. The causes include liver disease, vitamin K deficiency (universal in neonates) and excessive oral anticoagulant therapy, each of which may require treatment with vitamin K.

Vitamin K

Vitamin K (for *Koagulation* in German) is a fat-soluble vitamin (Fig. 24.3) occurring naturally in plants (vitamin K_1) and as a series of bacterial

menaquinones (vitamin K_2) formed in the gut (see Shearer & Newman, 2008, for a review). It is essential for the formation of clotting factors II, VII, IX and X. These are all glycoproteins with several γ-carboxyglutamic acid (Gla) residues. The interaction of factors Xa and prothrombin (factor II) with Ca^{2+} and phospholipid is shown in Figure 24.4. γ-Carboxylation occurs after the synthesis of the amino acid chain, and the carboxylase enzyme requires reduced vitamin K as a cofactor (Fig. 24.5). Binding does not occur in the absence of γ-carboxylation. Similar considerations apply to the proteolytic activation of factor X by IXa and by VIIa (see Fig. 24.2).

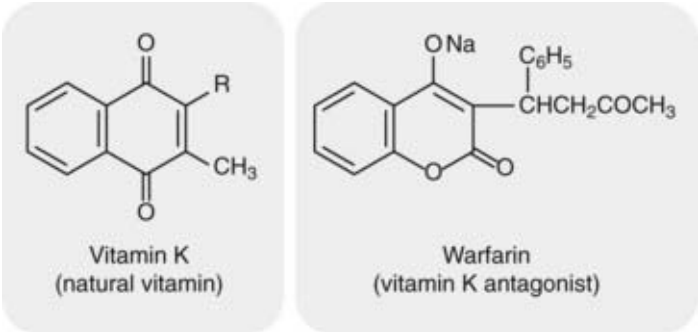


Fig. 24.3 Vitamin K and warfarin.

Warfarin, a vitamin K antagonist, is an oral anticoagulant. It competes with vitamin K (note the similarity in their structures) for the reductase enzyme (VKORC1) that activates vitamin K and is the site of its action (see Fig. 24.5).

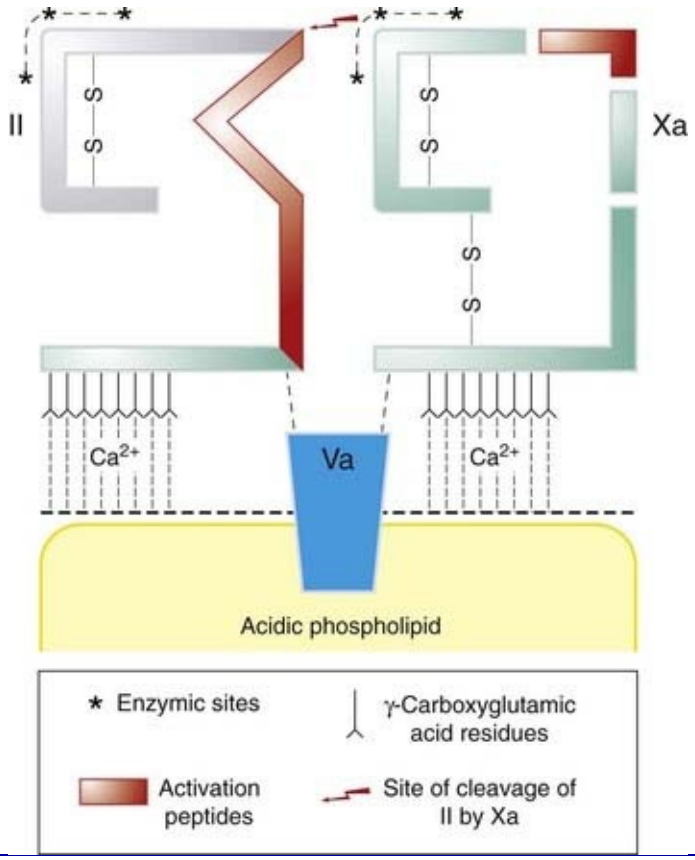


Fig. 24.4 Activation of prothrombin (factor II) by factor Xa.

The complex of factor Va with a negatively charged phospholipid surface (supplied by aggregating platelets) forms a binding site for factor Xa and prothrombin (II), which have peptide chains (shown schematically) that are similar to one another. Platelets thus serve as a localising focus. Calcium ions are essential for binding. Xa activates prothrombin, liberating thrombin (shown in grey).

(Modified from Jackson C M 1978 Br J Haematol 39: 1.)

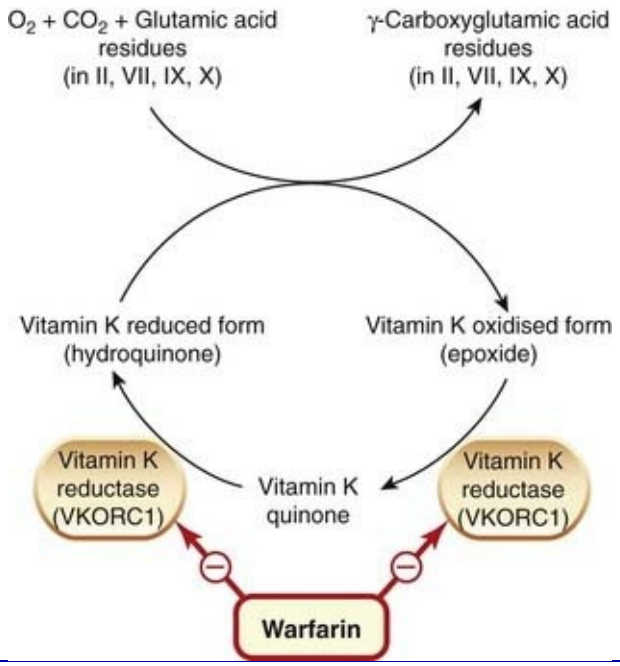


Fig. 24.5 Mechanism of vitamin K and of warfarin.

After the peptide chains in clotting factors II, VII, IX and X have been synthesised, reduced vitamin K (the hydroquinone) acts as a cofactor in the conversion of glutamic acid to γ-carboxyglutamic acid. During this reaction, the reduced form of vitamin K is converted to the epoxide, which in turn is reduced to the quinone and then the hydroquinone by vitamin K epoxide reductase component 1 (VKORC1), the site of action of warfarin.

There are several other vitamin K-dependent Gla proteins, including proteins C and S (see above) and osteocalcin in bone: the effect of the vitamin on osteoporosis is under investigation.

Administration and pharmacokinetic aspects

Natural vitamin K_1 (**phytomenadione**) may be given orally or by injection. If given by mouth, it requires bile salts for absorption, and this occurs by a saturable energy-requiring process in the proximal small intestine. A synthetic preparation, **menadiol sodium phosphate**, is also available. It is water soluble and does not require bile salts for its absorption. This synthetic compound takes longer to act than phytomenadione. There is very little storage of vitamin K in the body. It is metabolised to more polar substances that are excreted in the urine

and the bile.

Clinical uses of vitamin K are summarised in the clinical box.

Clinical uses of vitamin K

- Treatment and/or prevention of bleeding:
  - from excessive oral anticoagulation (e.g. by **warfarin**)
  - in babies: to prevent *haemorrhagic disease of the newborn*.
- For vitamin K deficiencies in adults:
  - *sprue, coeliac disease, steatorrhoea*
  - lack of bile (e.g. with *obstructive jaundice*).

Thrombosis

Thrombotic and thromboembolic disease is common and has severe consequences, including myocardial infarction, stroke, deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolus. The main drugs used for platelet-rich 'white' thrombi are the antiplatelet drugs and fibrinolytic drugs, which are considered below. The main drugs used to prevent or treat 'red' thrombus are:

- injectable anticoagulants (**heparin** and newer thrombin inhibitors)
- oral anticoagulants (**warfarin** and related compounds; orally active thrombin inhibitors).

Heparins and direct thrombin inhibitors act immediately, whereas warfarin and other vitamin K antagonists take several days to exert their effect. Consequently, if warfarin is used to treat patients with venous thrombosis, an agent that acts immediately is also administered until the effect of warfarin has become established.

Heparin (Including Low-Molecular-Weight Heparins)

Heparin was discovered in 1916 by a second-year medical student at Johns Hopkins Hospital. He was attempting to extract thromboplastic (i.e. coagulant) substances from various tissues during a vacation project, but found instead a powerful anticoagulant activity.[4] This was named heparin, because it was first extracted from liver.

[4]This kind of good fortune also favoured Vane and his colleagues in their discovery of PGI_2 (Ch. 17), where they were looking for one kind of biological activity and found another. More specific chemical assays (Ch. 7), for all their strengths, cannot throw up this kind of unexpected discovery.

Heparin is not a single substance but a family of sulfated glycosaminoglycans (mucopolysaccharides). It is present together with histamine in the granules of mast cells. Commercial preparations are extracted from beef lung or hog intestine and, because preparations differ in potency, assayed biologically against an agreed international standard: doses are specified in units of activity rather than of mass.

Heparin fragments (e.g. **enoxaparin**, **dalteparin**) or a synthetic pentasaccharide (**fondaparinux**), referred to as low-molecular-weight heparins (LMWHs), are often used in place of unfractionated heparin, which is reserved for special situations such as patients with renal failure in whom LMWHs are contraindicated (see below).

Mechanism of action

Heparin inhibits coagulation, both in vivo and in vitro, by activating antithrombin III (see above). Antithrombin III inhibits thrombin and other serine proteases by binding to the active serine site. Heparin modifies this interaction by binding, via a unique pentasaccharide sequence, to antithrombin III, changing its conformation and increasing its affinity for serine proteases.

Thrombin is considerably more sensitive to the inhibitory effect of the heparin–antithrombin III complex than is factor Xa. To inhibit thrombin, it is necessary for heparin to bind to the enzyme as well as to antithrombin III; to inhibit factor Xa, it is necessary only for heparin to bind to antithrombin III (Fig. 24.6). Antithrombin III deficiency is very rare but can cause thrombophilia and resistance to heparin therapy.

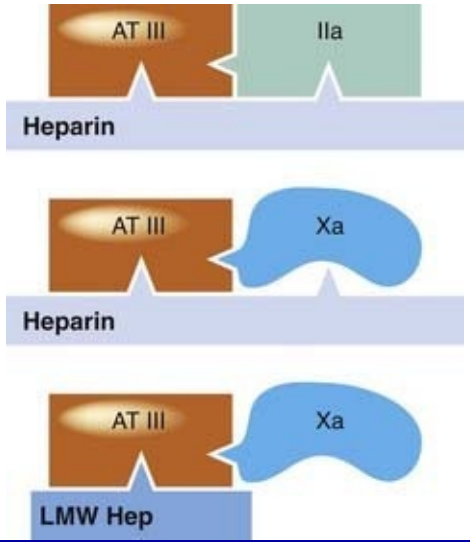


Fig. 24.6 Action of heparins.

The schematic shows interactions of heparins, antithrombin III (AT III) and clotting factors. To increase the inactivation of thrombin (IIa) by AT III, heparin needs to interact with both substances (top), but to speed up its effect on factor Xa it need only interact with AT III (middle). Low-molecular-weight heparins (LMW Hep) increase the action of AT III on factor Xa (bottom), but cannot increase the action of AT III on thrombin because they cannot bind both simultaneously.

(Modified from Hirsh J, Levine M 1992 Blood 79: 1–17.)

The LMWHs increase the action of antithrombin III on factor Xa but not its action on thrombin, because the molecules are too small to bind to both enzyme and inhibitor, essential for inhibition of thrombin but not for that of factor Xa (Fig. 24.6).

Administration and pharmacokinetic aspects

Heparin is not absorbed from the gut because of its charge and high molecular weight, and it is therefore given intravenously or subcutaneously (intramuscular injections would cause haematomas).

▼ After intravenous injection of a bolus dose, there is a phase of rapid elimination followed by a more gradual disappearance owing both to saturable processes (involving binding to sites on endothelial cells and macrophages) and to slower non-saturable processes including renal excretion. As a result, once the dose exceeds the saturating concentration, a greater proportion is dealt with by these slower processes, and the apparent half-life increases with increasing dose (saturation kinetics; see Ch. 10).

Heparin acts immediately following intravenous administration, but the onset is delayed by up to 60 min when it is given subcutaneously. The elimination half-life is approximately 40–90 min. In urgent situations, it is therefore usual to start treatment with a bolus intravenous dose, followed by a constant-rate infusion. The *activated partial thromboplastin time* (APTT), or some other in vitro clotting test, is measured and the dose of heparin adjusted to achieve a value within a target range (e.g. 1.5–2.5 times control).

Low-molecular-weight heparins are given subcutaneously. They have a longer elimination half-life than unfractionated heparin, and this is independent of dose (first-order kinetics), so the effects are more predictable and dosing less frequent (once or twice a day). LMWHs do not prolong the APTT. Unlike unfractionated heparin, the effect of a standard dose is sufficiently predictable that monitoring is not required routinely. LMWHs are eliminated mainly by renal excretion, and unfractionated heparin is preferred in renal failure, but with this exception LMWHs are at least as safe and effective as unfractionated heparin and are more convenient to use, because patients can be taught

to inject themselves at home and there is generally no need for blood tests and dose adjustment.

Unwanted effects

Haemorrhage. The main hazard is haemorrhage, which is treated by stopping therapy and, if necessary, giving **protamine sulfate.** This heparin antagonist is a strongly basic protein that forms an inactive complex with heparin; it is given intravenously. The dose is estimated from the dose of heparin that has been administered recently, and it is important not to give too much, as this can itself cause bleeding. If necessary, an in vitro neutralisation test is performed on a sample of blood from the patient to provide a more precise indication of the required dose.

Thrombosis. This is an uncommon but serious adverse effect of heparin and, as with warfarin necrosis (see below), may be misattributed to the natural history of the disease for which heparin is being administered.

▼ Paradoxically, it is associated with *heparin-induced thrombocytopenia* (HIT). A transitory early decrease in platelet numbers is not uncommon after initiating heparin treatment, and is not clinically important. More serious thrombocytopenia occurring 2–14 days after the start of therapy is uncommon and is referred to as type II HIT. This is caused by IgM or IgG antibodies against complexes of heparin and platelet factor 4. Circulating immune complexes bind to Fc receptors (see Ch. 6) on circulating platelets, thereby activating them and releasing more platelet factor 4 and causing thrombocytopenia. Antibody also binds to platelet factor 4 complexed with glycosaminoglycans on the surface of endothelial cells, leading to immune injury of the vessel wall, thrombosis and disseminated intravascular coagulation. LMWHs are less liable than standard heparin to activate platelets to release platelet factor 4, and

they bind less avidly to platelet factor 4. LMWHs are less likely than unfractionated heparin to cause thrombocytopenia and thrombosis by this mechanism. HIT is usually treated with either **danaparoid** or with a direct thrombin inhibitor (see below). Danaparoid is a low-molecular-weight heparinoid consisting of a mixture of heparan, dermatan and chondroitin sulfates, with well-established antithrombotic activity.

Osteoporosis with spontaneous fractures has been reported with long-term (6 months or more) treatment with heparin (usually during pregnancy, when warfarin is contraindicated or problematic—see below). Its explanation is unknown.

Hypoaldosteronism (with consequent hyperkalaemia) is uncommon, but increases with prolonged treatment. It is recommended to check plasma K^+ concentration if treatment is to be continued for > 7 days.

Hypersensitivity reactions are rare with heparin but more common with protamine. (Protamine sensitivity also occurs in patients treated with protamine zinc insulin; Ch. 30. Protamine is extracted from fish roe, and sensitivity to protamine occurs in some people with fish allergy.)

Direct Thrombin Inhibitors and Related Drugs

Hirudins are direct thrombin inhibitors derived from the anticoagulant present in saliva from the medicinal leech. Unlike the heparins they do not depend on activation of antithrombin. **Lepirudin** is used clinically. It is a polypeptide related to hirudin that binds irreversibly both to the fibrin-binding and catalytic sites on thrombin and is used for thromboembolic disease in patients with type II HIT. It is administered intravenously, the dose being adjusted depending on the APTT, and can cause bleeding or hypersensitivity reactions (rash or fever). **Bivalirudin**, another hirudin analogue, is used by cardiologists in selected patients

undergoing percutaneous coronary interventions. Treatment is initiated with an intravenous bolus followed by an infusion during and up to 4 h after the procedure. It can cause bleeding and hypersensitivity reactions.

Orally active inhibitors

This field has had more than one false dawn, but hope springs eternal as thrombin inhibitors could replace warfarin, a venerable but inconvenient drug that is a common cause of serious adverse effects (see below). **Dabigatran** is a synthetic serine protease inhibitor; **dabigatran etexilate**, a prodrug with a hydrophobic tail, is orally active as a direct thrombin inhibitor and is licensed for prevention of venous thromboembolism following hip or knee replacement. It works rapidly and is administered shortly after surgery and then once daily for up to a month. **Rivaroxaban**, also a synthetic inhibitor, is selective for factor Xa rather than for thrombin, but similar to dabigatran in other respects These drugs are administered in standard doses without laboratory monitoring of their anticoagulant effects. The commonest adverse effects of both drugs are predictable (bleeding, anaemia); rivaroxaban also commonly causes nausea. Other indications for both drugs are being investigated, and if they prove safe and effective for a range of indications, this could transform the clinical management of the large group of patients currently maintained on warfarin (see the clinical box on the clinical use of anticoagulants).

▼ Various other approaches are being explored. These include several naturally occurring anticoagulants (tissue factor pathway inhibitor, thrombomodulin and protein C) synthesised by recombinant technology. A particularly ingenious approach is the development of thrombin agonists that are selective for the anticoagulant properties of thrombin. One such modified thrombin, differing by a single amino acid

substitution, has substrate specificity for protein C. It produces anticoagulation in monkeys without prolonging bleeding times, suggesting that it may be less likely than standard anticoagulants to cause bleeding (Bah et al., 2009).

Clinical uses of anticoagulants

Heparin (often as low-molecular-weight heparin) is used acutely. **Warfarin** or a direct thrombin or Xa inhibitor is used for prolonged therapy. Anticoagulants are used to prevent:

- deep vein thrombosis (e.g. perioperatively)
- extension of established deep vein thrombosis
- pulmonary embolus
- thrombosis and embolisation in patients with atrial fibrillation (Ch. 21)
- thrombosis on prosthetic heart valves
- clotting in extracorporeal circulations (e.g. during haemodialysis)
- myocardial infarction in patients with unstable angina.

Vitamin K Antagonists: Warfarin

▼ Oral anticoagulants were discovered as an indirect result of a change in agricultural policy in North America in the 1920s. Sweet clover was substituted for corn in cattle feed, and an epidemic of deaths of cattle from haemorrhage ensued. This turned out to be caused by bishydroxycoumarin in spoiled sweet clover, and it led to the discovery of warfarin (named for the Wisconsin Alumni Research Foundation). One of the first uses to which this was put was as a rat poison, but for more than 50 years it has been the standard anticoagulant for the treatment and prevention of thromboembolic disease.

Warfarin (Fig. 24.3) is the most important oral anticoagulant; alternatives with a similar mechanism of action, for example **phenindione**, are now used only in rare patients who experience idiosyncratic adverse reactions to warfarin. Warfarin and other vitamin K antagonists require frequent blood tests to individualise dose, and are consequently inconvenient as well as having a low margin of safety.

Mechanism of action

Vitamin K antagonists act only in vivo and have no effect on clotting if added to blood in vitro. They interfere with the post-translational γ-carboxylation of glutamic acid residues in clotting factors II, VII, IX and X. They do this by inhibiting *vitamin K epoxide reductase component 1* (VKORC1), thus inhibiting the reduction of vitamin K epoxide to its active hydroquinone form (Fig. 24.5). Inhibition is competitive (reflecting the structural similarity between warfarin and vitamin K; Fig. 24.3). The *VKORC1* gene is polymorphic (see Ch. 11), and different haplotypes have different affinities for warfarin. Genotyping to determine the haplotype, combined with genotyping *CYP2C9* (see below), while not yet routine, can reduce the variability in response to warfarin by around one-third. The effect of warfarin takes several days to develop because of the time taken for degradation of preformed carboxylated clotting factors. Onset of action thus depends on the elimination half-lives of the relevant factors. Factor VII, with a half-life of 6 h, is affected first, then IX, X and II, with half-lives of 24, 40 and 60 h, respectively.

Administration and pharmacokinetic aspects

Warfarin is absorbed rapidly and completely from the gut after oral administration. It has a small distribution volume, being strongly bound to plasma albumin (see Ch. 8). The peak concentration in the blood

occurs within an hour of ingestion, but because of the mechanism of action this does not coincide with the peak pharmacological effect, which occurs about 48 h later. The effect on prothrombin time (PT, see below) of a single dose starts after approximately 12–16 h and lasts 4–5 days. Warfarin is metabolised by CYP2C9, which is polymorphic (see Ch. 11). Partly in consequence of this, its half-life is very variable, being of the order of 40 h in many individuals.

Warfarin crosses the placenta and is not given in the first months of pregnancy because it is teratogenic (see below), nor in the later stages because it can cause intracranial haemorrhage in the baby during delivery. It appears in milk during lactation. This could theoretically be important because newborn infants are naturally deficient in vitamin K. However, infants are routinely prescribed vitamin K to prevent haemorrhagic disease, so warfarin treatment of the mother does not generally pose a risk to the breastfed infant.

The therapeutic use of warfarin requires a careful balance between giving too little, leaving unwanted coagulation unchecked, and giving too much, thereby causing haemorrhage. Therapy is complicated not only because the effect of each dose is maximal some 2 days after its administration, but also because numerous medical and environmental conditions modify sensitivity to warfarin, including interactions with other drugs (see Ch. 56). The effect of warfarin is monitored by measuring PT, which is expressed as an *international normalised ratio* (INR).

▼ The PT is the time taken for clotting of citrated plasma after the addition of Ca^{2+} and standardised reference thromboplastin; it is expressed as the ratio (PT ratio) of the PT of the patient to the PT of a pool of plasma from healthy subjects on no medication. Because of the variability of thromboplastins, different results are obtained in different

laboratories. To standardise PT measurements internationally, each thromboplastin is assigned an international sensitivity index (ISI), and the patient's PT is expressed as an INR, where INR = (PT ratio)^{ISI}. This kind of normalisation procedure shocks purists but provides similar results when a patient moves from, say, Birmingham to Baltimore, permitting warfarin dose adjustment independent of laboratory. Pragmatic haematologists argue that the proof of the pudding is in the eating!

The dose of warfarin is usually adjusted to give an INR of 2–4, the precise target depending on the clinical situation. The duration of treatment also varies, but for several indications (e.g. to prevent thromboembolism in chronic atrial fibrillation), treatment is long term, with the logistical challenge of providing a worldwide network of anticoagulant clinics and demands on the patient in terms of repeat visits and blood tests.

Factors that Potentiate Oral Anticoagulants

Various diseases and drugs potentiate warfarin, increasing the risk of haemorrhage.

Disease

Liver disease interferes with the synthesis of clotting factors; conditions in which there is a high metabolic rate, such as fever and thyrotoxicosis, increase the effect of anticoagulants by increasing degradation of clotting factors.

Drugs (see also Chs 9 and 56)

Many drugs potentiate warfarin.

Agents that inhibit hepatic drug metabolism

Examples include **co-trimoxazole**, **ciprofloxacin**, **metronidazole**, **amiodarone** and many antifungal azoles. Stereoselective effects (warfarin is a racemate, and its isomers are metabolised differently from one another) are described in Chapter 56.

Drugs that inhibit platelet function

Aspirin increases the risk of bleeding if given during warfarin therapy, although this combination can be used safely with careful monitoring. Other non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) also increase the risk of bleeding, partly by their effect on platelet thromboxane synthesis (Ch. 26) and, in the case of some NSAIDs, also by inhibiting warfarin metabolism as above. Some antibiotics, including **moxalactam** and **carbenicillin**, inhibit platelet function.

Drugs that displace warfarin from binding sites on plasma albumin

Some of the NSAIDs and **chloral hydrate** cause a transient increase in the concentration of free warfarin in plasma by competing with it for binding to plasma albumin. This mechanism seldom causes clinically important effects, unless accompanied by inhibition of warfarin metabolism, as with **phenylbutazone** (Ch. 56).

Drugs that inhibit reduction of vitamin K

Such drugs include the *cephalosporins*.

Drugs that decrease the availability of vitamin K

Broad-spectrum antibiotics and some *sulfonamides* (see Ch. 49) depress the intestinal flora that normally synthesise vitamin K_2 (see above); this has little effect unless there is concurrent dietary deficiency.

Factors that Lessen the Effect of Oral Anticoagulants

Physiological state/disease

There is a decreased response to warfarin in conditions (e.g. pregnancy) where there is increased coagulation factor synthesis. Similarly, the effect of oral anticoagulants is lessened in hypothyroidism, which is associated with reduced degradation of coagulation factors.

Drugs (see also Chs 9 and 56)

Several drugs reduce the effectiveness of warfarin; this leads to increased doses being used to achieve the target INR. Furthermore, the dose of warfarin must be reduced when the interacting drug is discontinued, to avoid haemorrhage.

Vitamin K

This vitamin is a component of some parenteral feeds and vitamin preparations.

Drugs that induce hepatic P450 enzymes

Enzyme induction (e.g. by **rifampicin**, **carbamazepine**) increases the rate of degradation of warfarin. Induction may wane only slowly after the inducing drug is discontinued, making it difficult to adjust the warfarin dose appropriately.

Drugs that reduce absorption

Drugs that bind warfarin in the gut, for example **colestyramine**, reduce its absorption.

Drugs affecting blood coagulation 

Procoagulant drugs: vitamin K

- Reduced vitamin K is a cofactor in the post-translational γ-carboxylation of glutamic acid

(Glu) residues in factors II, VII, IX and X. The γ-carboxylated glutamic acid (Gla) residues are essential for the interaction of these factors with Ca^{2+} and negatively charged phospholipid.

Injectable anticoagulants (e.g. heparin, low-molecular-weight heparins)

• Potentiate antithrombin III, a natural inhibitor that inactivates Xa and thrombin.

• Act both in vivo and in vitro.

• Anticoagulant activity results from a unique pentasaccharide sequence with high affinity for antithrombin III.

• Heparin therapy is monitored via activated partial thromboplastin time (APTT), and dose individualised. Unfractionated heparin (UFH) is used for patients with impaired renal function.

• Low-molecular-weight heparins (LMWHs) have the same effect on factor X as heparin but less effect on thrombin; therapeutic efficacy is similar to heparin but monitoring and dose individualisation are not needed. Patients can administer them subcutaneously at home. They are preferred over UFH except for patients with impaired renal function.

Oral anticoagulants (e.g. warfarin)

• Act on vitamin K epoxide reductase component 1 (VKORC1) to inhibit the reduction of vitamin K epoxide, thus inhibiting the γ-carboxylation of Glu in II, VII, IX and X.

• Act only in vivo, and their effect is delayed until preformed clotting factors are depleted.

• Many factors modify their action; genetic factors (polymorphisms of CYP2C6 and VKORC1) and drug interactions are especially important.

• There is wide variation in response; their effect is monitored by measuring the international normalised ratio (INR) and the dose individualised accordingly.

• Orally active direct thrombin inhibitors (e.g. dabigatran etexilate) or factor Xa inhibitors

(e.g. rivaroxaban) are used increasingly and do not require monitoring/dose individualisation.

Unwanted Effects of Oral Anticoagulants

Haemorrhage (especially into the bowel or the brain) is the main hazard. Depending on the urgency of the situation, treatment may consist of withholding warfarin (for minor problems), administration of vitamin K, or fresh plasma or coagulation factor concentrates (for life-threatening bleeding).

Oral anticoagulants are *teratogenic*, causing disordered bone development which is believed to be related to binding to the vitamin K-dependent protein osteocalcin.

Hepatotoxicity occurs but is uncommon.

Necrosis of soft tissues (e.g. breast or buttock) owing to thrombosis in venules occurs shortly after starting treatment and is attributed to inhibition of biosynthesis of protein C, which has a shorter elimination half-life than do the vitamin K-dependent coagulation factors; this results in a procoagulant state soon after starting treatment. This is a rare but serious adverse effect. Treatment with a heparin is usually started at the same time as warfarin, avoiding this problem except in individuals experiencing HIT as an adverse effect of heparin (see above).

The clinical use of anticoagulants is summarised in the box.

Platelet Adhesion and Activation

Platelets maintain the integrity of the circulation: a low platelet count results in *thrombocytopenic purpura*.[5]

[5]Purpura means a purple rash caused by multiple spontaneous bleeding points in the skin. When this is caused by reduced circulating platelets, bleeding can occur into other organs, including the gut and brain.

When platelets are activated, they undergo a sequence of reactions that are essential for haemostasis, important for the healing of damaged blood vessels, and play a part in inflammation (see Ch. 17). These reactions, several of which are redundant (in the sense that if one pathway of activation is blocked another is available) and several autocatalytic, include:

• *adhesion* following vascular damage (via von Willebrand factor bridging between subendothelial macromolecules and glycoprotein [GP] Ib receptors on the platelet surface)[6]

• *shape change* (from smooth discs to spiny spheres with protruding pseudopodia)

• *secretion* of the granule contents (including platelet agonists, such as ADP and 5-hydroxytryptamine, and coagulation factors and growth factors, such as platelet-derived growth factor)

• *biosynthesis of labile mediators* such as platelet-activating factor and thromboxane (TX)A_2 (see Ch. 17 and Fig. 24.7)

• *aggregation*, which is promoted by various agonists, including collagen, thrombin, ADP, 5-hydroxytryptamine and TXA_2, acting on specific receptors on the platelet surface; activation by agonists leads to expression of GPIIb/IIIa receptors that bind fibrinogen, which links adjacent platelets to form aggregates

• *exposure of acidic phospholipid* on the platelet surface, promoting thrombin formation (and hence further platelet activation via thrombin receptors and fibrin formation via cleavage of fibrinogen; see above).

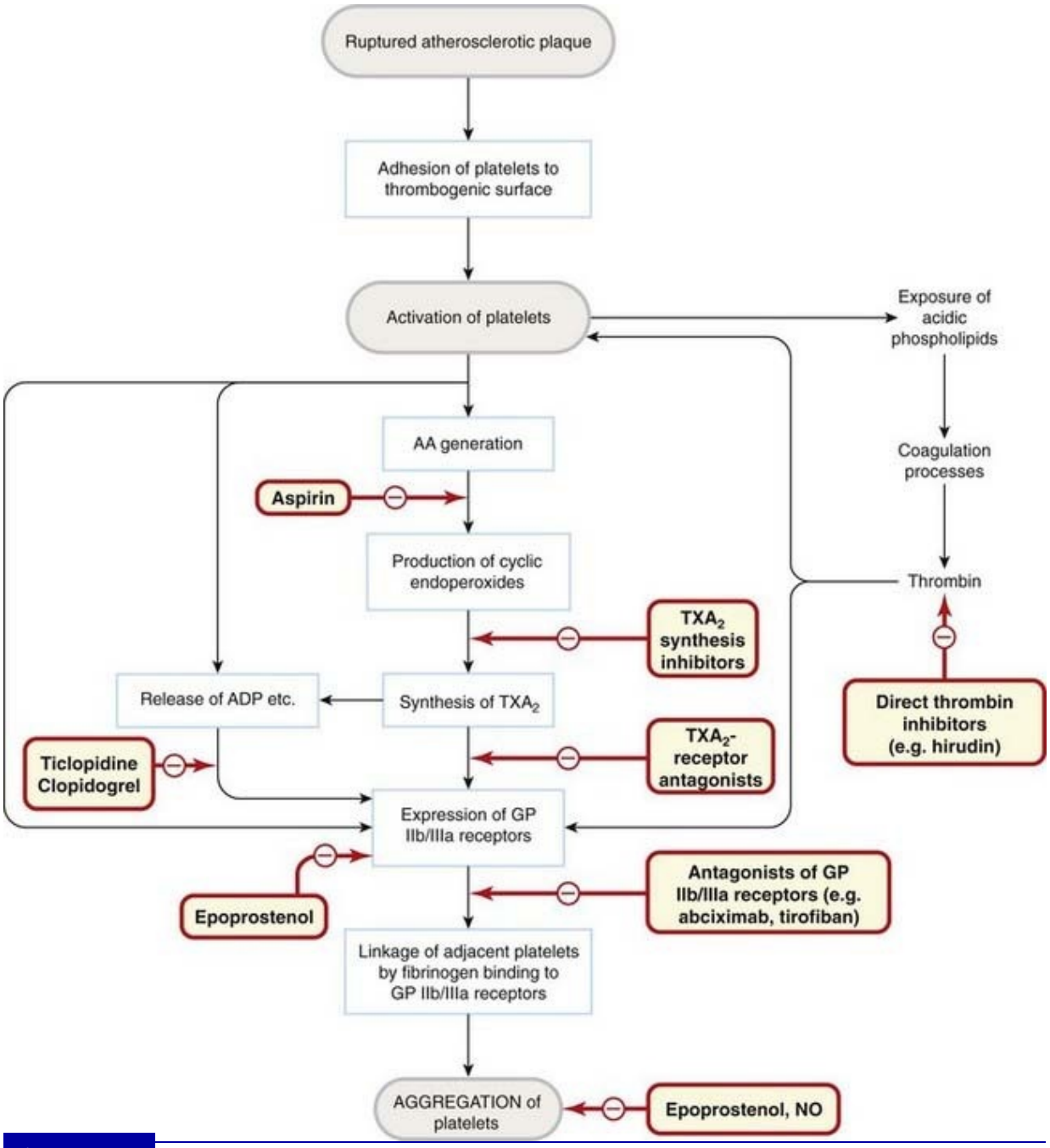


Fig. 24.7 Platelet activation.

Events involved in platelet adhesion and aggregation are shown, with the sites of action of drugs and endogenous mediators. AA, arachidonic acid; ADP, adenosine bisphosphate; GP, glycoprotein; NO, nitric oxide; TXA2, thromboxane A2.

[6]Various platelet membrane glycoproteins act as receptors or binding sites for adhesive proteins such as von Willebrand factor or fibrinogen.

These processes are essential for haemostasis but may be inappropriately triggered if the artery wall is diseased, most commonly with atherosclerosis, resulting in thrombosis (Fig. 24.7).

Platelet function

• Healthy vascular endothelium prevents platelet adhesion.

• Platelets adhere to diseased or damaged areas and become activated, *i.e.* they change shape, exposing negatively charged phospholipids and glycoprotein (GP) IIb/IIIa receptors, and synthesise and/or release various mediators, for example thromboxane A_2 and ADP, which activate other platelets, causing aggregation.

• Aggregation entails fibrinogen binding to and bridging between GPIIb/IIIa receptors on adjacent platelets.

• Activated platelets constitute a focus for fibrin formation.

• Chemotactic factors and growth factors necessary for repair, but also implicated in atherogenesis, are released during platelet activation.

Antiplatelet Drugs

Platelets play such a critical role in thromboembolic disease that it is no surprise that antiplatelet drugs are of great therapeutic value. Clinical trials of **aspirin** radically altered clinical practice, and more recently drugs that block ADP receptors and GPIIb/IIIa have also been found to be therapeutically useful. Sites of action of antiplatelet drugs are shown in Figure 24.7.

Aspirin

Low-dose **aspirin** (see Ch. 26) profoundly (> 95%) inhibits platelet TXA_2 synthesis, by irreversible acetylation of a serine residue in the

active site of cyclo-oxygenase I (COX-I). Oral administration is relatively selective for platelets because of presystemic elimination (Ch. 9). Unlike nucleated cells, platelets cannot synthesise proteins, so after administration of aspirin, TXA_2 synthesis does not recover until the affected cohort of platelets is replaced in 7–10 days. Clinical trials have demonstrated the efficacy of aspirin in several clinical settings (e.g. Fig. 24.8). Adverse effects of aspirin, mainly on the gastrointestinal tract, are, however, clearly dose related, so a low dose (often 75 mg once daily) is usually recommended for thromboprophylaxis. Thromboprophylaxis is reserved for people at high cardiovascular risk (e.g. survivors of myocardial infarction), in whom the cardiovascular benefit of aspirin usually outweighs the risk of gastrointestinal bleeding.

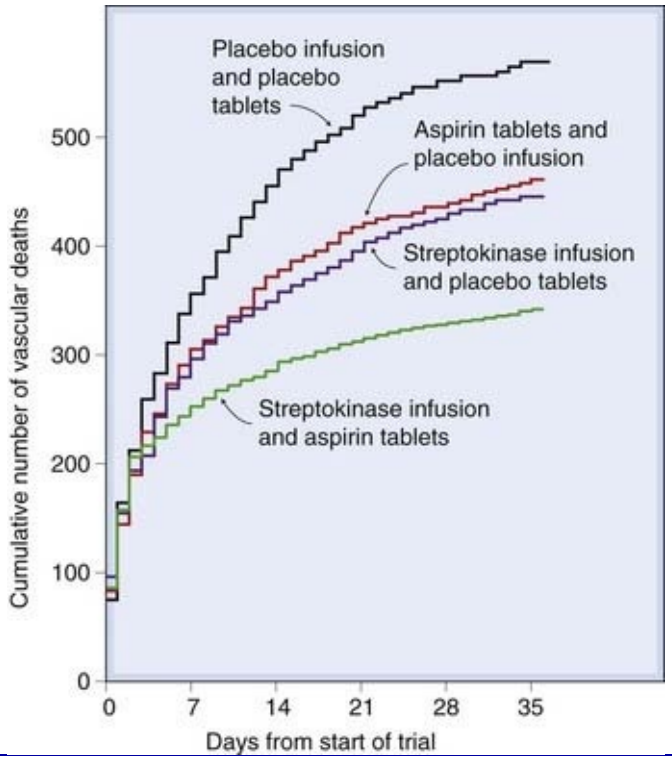


Fig. 24.8 Efficacy of aspirin and streptokinase for myocardial infarction.
The curves show cumulative vascular mortality in patients treated with placebo, aspirin alone, streptokinase alone or a combined aspirin–streptokinase regimen.

(ISIS-2 trial 1988 Lancet ii: 350–360.)

▼ Treatment failure can occur despite taking aspirin, and there is current interest in the possibility that some patients exhibit a syndrome of 'aspirin resistance', although the mechanism and possible importance of this remains controversial (see Goodman et al., 2008). Other non-steroidal drugs which inhibit platelet TXA_2 synthesis > 95% (e.g. **sulfinpyrazone**, for which there is also supportive clinical trial evidence) may have antithrombotic effects, but where inhibition of platelet TXA_2 synthesis does not reach this threshold there is evidence that such drugs are *proaggregatory*, related to inhibition of COX-2, possibly due to inhibition of antiaggregatory PGI_2.

Dipyridamole

Dipyridamole inhibits platelet aggregation by several mechanisms, including inhibition of phosphodiesterase, block of adenosine uptake into red cells (see Ch. 16) and inhibition of TXA_2 synthesis (see Ch. 26). Clinical effectiveness has been uncertain, but one study showed that a modified-release form of dipyridamole reduced the risk of stroke and death in patients with transient ischaemic attacks by around 15%—similar to aspirin (25 mg twice daily).[7] The beneficial effects of aspirin and dipyridamole were additive. The main side effects of dipyridamole are dizziness, headache and gastrointestinal disturbances; unlike aspirin, it does not increase the risk of bleeding.

Adenosine (P2y) Receptor Antagonists (Thienopyridines)

[7]This dose regimen of aspirin is unconventional, being somewhat lower than the 75 mg once daily commonly used in thromboprophylaxis.

Ticlopidine was the first to be introduced, but causes neutropenia and thrombocytopenia and is now little used. The main agent is currently **clopidogrel**; **prasugrel** has been introduced recently.

These drugs inhibit ADP-induced platelet aggregation by irreversible inhibition of $P2Y_{12}$ receptors (Ch. 16) to which they link via a disulfide bond.

Pharmacokinetics and unwanted effects

Clopidogrel is well absorbed when administered by mouth, and in urgent situations is given orally as a loading dose of 300 mg followed by maintenance dosing of 75 mg once daily. It is a prodrug and is converted into its active sulfhydryl metabolite by CYP enzymes in the liver including CYP2C19. Patients with variant alleles of *CYP2C19* (poor metabolisers) are at increased risk of therapeutic failure. There is a potential for interaction with other drugs, such as **omeprazole** (Ch. 29), that are metabolised by CYP2C19 and current labelling recommends against use with proton pump inhibitors for this reason.

Clopidogrel can cause dyspepsia, rash or diarrhoea. The serious blood dyscrasias caused by ticlopidine are very rare with clopidogrel.

Clinical use

Clopidogrel was slightly more effective than aspirin in reducing a composite outcome of ischaemic stroke, myocardial infarction or vascular death in one large trial; it can be used instead of aspirin in patients with symptomatic atheromatous disease, but, because of cost, is usually reserved for patients who are intolerant of aspirin. Clinical trials of adding clopidogrel to aspirin in patients with acute coronary syndromes (see Fig. 24.9) and (in a megatrial of over 45 000 patients) in patients with acute myocardial infarction (COMMIT Collaborative Group, 2005) demonstrated that combined treatment reduces mortality. Treatment with clopidogrel for this indication is given for 4 weeks. Prasugrel is more effective than clopidogrel in acute coronary syndromes, but more often causes serious bleeding (Wiviott et al., 2007).

Pretreatment with clopidogrel and aspirin followed by longer-term therapy is also effective in patients with ischaemic heart disease undergoing percutaneous coronary interventions.

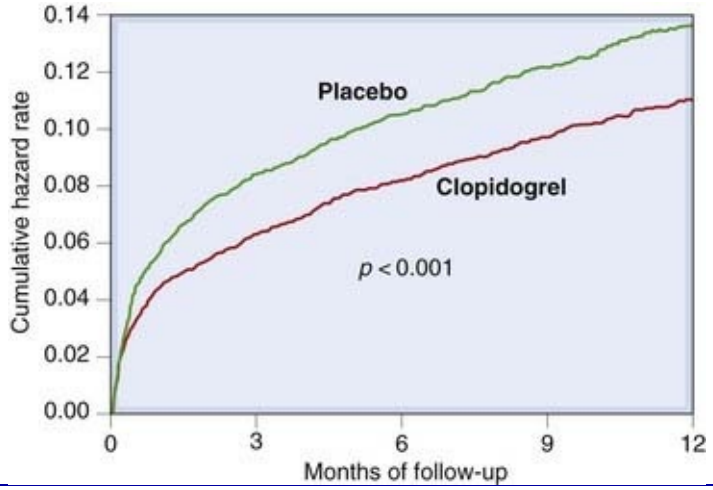


Fig. 24.9 Effect of adding clopidogrel to aspirin.

The curves show cumulative hazard rates for major vascular events in patients with acute coronary syndromes treated either with placebo + aspirin or clopidogrel + aspirin.

(Modified from CURE Investigators 2001 N Engl J Med 345: 494–502.)

Glycoprotein Iib/Iiia Receptor Antagonists

Antagonists of the GPIIb/IIIa receptor have the theoretical attraction that they inhibit all pathways of platelet activation (because these all converge on activation of GPIIb/IIIa receptors). A hybrid murine–human monoclonal antibody Fab fragment directed against the GPIIb/IIIa receptor, which rejoices in the catchy little name of **abciximab**,[8] is licensed for use in high-risk patients undergoing coronary angioplasty, as an adjunct to **heparin** and **aspirin**. It reduces the risk of restenosis at the expense of an increased risk of bleeding. Immunogenicity limits its use to a single administration.

[8]The convention for naming monoclonals is: -momab = **mo**use **m**onoclonal **a**nti**b**ody; -umab = human; -zumab = humanised; -ximab

= chimeric—a kind of medieval mouse–man nightmare.

Tirofiban is a synthetic non-peptide and **eptifibatide** is a cyclic peptide based on the Arg–Gly–Asp ('RGD') sequence that is common to ligands for GPIIb/IIIa receptors. Neither is absorbed if administered by mouth. Given intravenously as an adjunct to aspirin and a heparin preparation, they reduce early events in acute coronary syndrome, but long-term oral therapy with GPIIb/IIIa receptor antagonists is not effective and may be harmful. Unsurprisingly, they increase the risk of bleeding.

Other Antiplatelet Drugs

Epoprostenol (PGI_2), an agonist at prostanoid IP receptors (see Ch. 17), causes vasodilatation as well as inhibiting platelet aggregation. It is added to blood entering the dialysis circuit in order to prevent thrombosis during haemodialysis, especially in patients in whom heparin is contraindicated. It is also used in severe pulmonary hypertension (Ch. 22) and circulatory shock. It is unstable under physiological conditions and has a half-life of around 3 min, so it is administered by an intravenous infusion pump. Adverse effects related to its vasodilator action include flushing, headache and hypotension.

The clinical use of antiplatelet drugs is summarised in the clinical box below.

Antiplatelet drugs

• **Aspirin** inhibits cyclo-oxygenase irreversibly. Low doses very effectively (> 95%) inhibit platelet thromboxane (TX)A_2 synthesis and reduce the risk of thrombosis.

• **Clopidogrel** is a prodrug. Given by mouth, it irreversibly inhibits $P2Y_{12}$ receptors and thereby inhibits platelet responses to ADP. Its clinical effect is additive with aspirin.

Prasugrel is similar.

• Antagonists of GPIIb/IIIa receptors include a monoclonal antibody (**abciximab**) and several synthetic molecules (e.g. **tirofiban**). They inhibit diverse agonists, for example ADP and TXA_2, because different pathways of activation converge on GPIIb/IIIa receptors. They are administered intravenously for short-term treatment.

• **Dipyridamole** inhibits phosphodiesterase and adenosine uptake. It is used in addition to aspirin in some patients with stroke or transient ischaemic attack.

• **Epoprostenol** (synthetic PGI_2) is chemically unstable. Given as an intravenous infusion, it acts on I prostanoid (IP) receptors on vascular smooth muscle and platelets (Ch. 17), stimulating adenylyl cyclase and thereby causing vasodilatation and inhibiting aggregation caused by any pathway (e.g. ADP or TXA_2).

Clinical uses of antiplatelet drugs

The main drug is **aspirin**. Other drugs with distinct actions (e.g. **dipyridamole**, **clopidogrel**) can have additive effects, or be used in patients who are intolerant of aspirin. Uses of antiplatelet drugs relate mainly to arterial thrombosis and include:

• *acute myocardial infarction*

• high risk of myocardial infarction, including a history of *myocardial infarction*, *angina or intermittent claudication* (see Ch. 22)

• following *coronary artery bypass grafting*

• *unstable coronary syndromes* (**clopidogrel** is added to **aspirin**)

• following coronary artery *angioplasty* and/or *stenting* (intravenous glycoprotein IIb/IIIa antagonists, *e.g.* **abciximab**, are used in some patients in addition to aspirin)

• *transient cerebral ischaemic attack* ('ministrokes') or *thrombotic stroke*, to prevent recurrence (**dipyridamole** can be added to **aspirin**)

• *atrial fibrillation*, if oral anticoagulation is contraindicated.

Other antiplatelet drugs such as **epoprostenol** (PGI_2; see Ch. 17) have specialised clinical applications (e.g. in *haemodialysis* or *haemofiltration*, Ch. 28, or in *pulmonary hypertension*, Ch. 22).

Fibrinolysis (Thrombolysis)

When the coagulation system is activated, the fibrinolytic system is also set in motion via several endogenous *plasminogen activators*, including tissue plasminogen activator (tPA), urokinase-type plasminogen activator, kallikrein and neutrophil elastase. tPA is inhibited by a structurally related lipoprotein, *lipoprotein(a)*, increased concentrations of which constitute an independent risk factor for myocardial infarction (Ch. 23). Plasminogen is deposited on the fibrin strands within a thrombus. Plasminogen activators are serine proteases and are unstable in circulating blood. They diffuse into thrombus and cleave plasminogen, a zymogen present in plasma, to release plasmin (see Fig. 24.10).

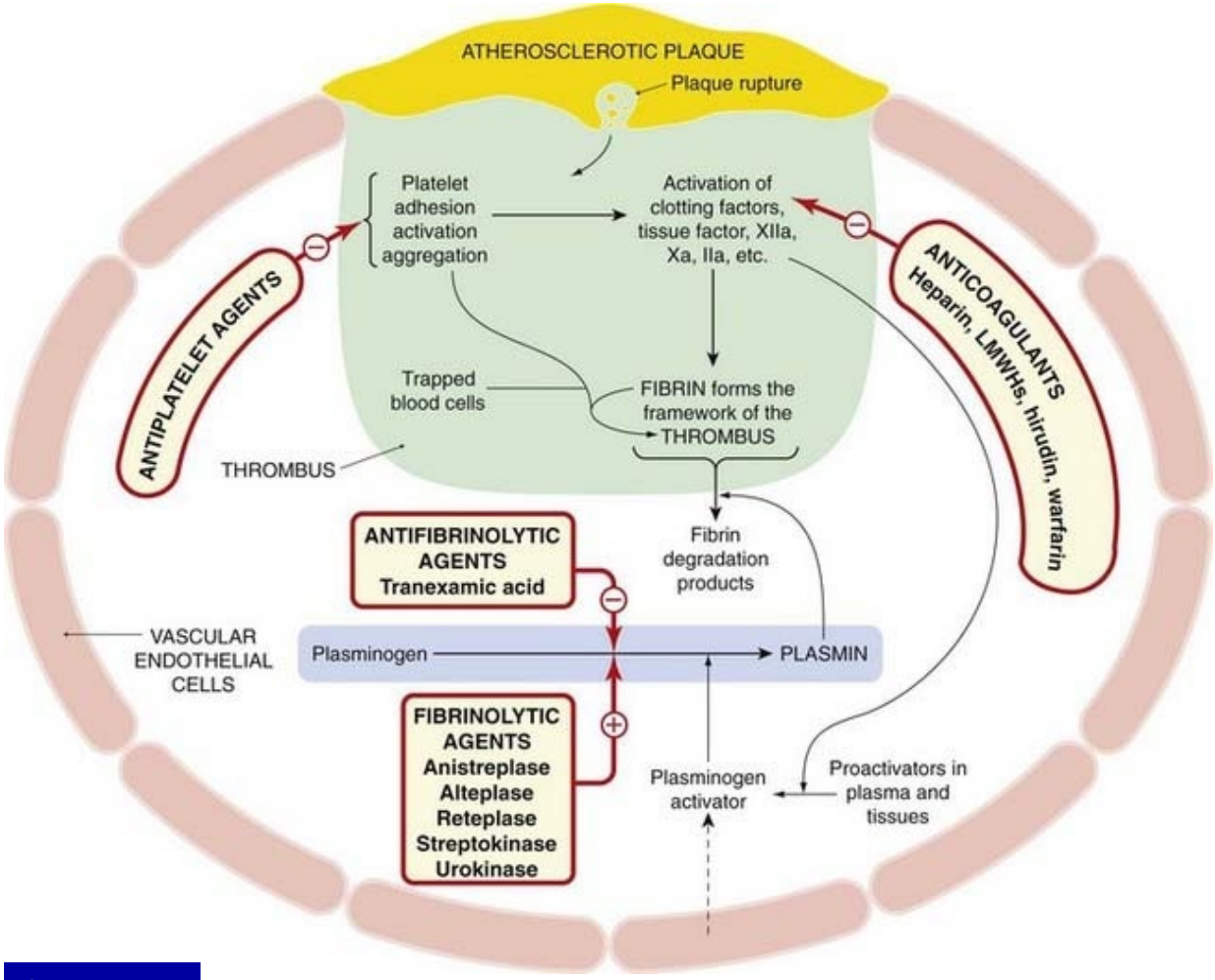


Fig. 24.10 Fibrinolytic system.

The schematic shows interactions with coagulation and platelet pathways and sites of action of drugs that modify these systems. LMHs, low-molecular-weight heparins. For more details of platelet activation and the coagulation cascade, refer to Figures 24.1, 24.2 and 24.7.

▼ Plasmin is trypsin-like, acting on Arg–Lys bonds, and thus digests not only fibrin but fibrinogen; factors II, V and VIII; and many other proteins. It is formed locally and acts on the fibrin meshwork, generating fibrin degradation products and lysing the clot. Its action is localised to the clot, because plasminogen activators are effective mainly on plasminogen adsorbed to fibrin; any plasmin that escapes into the circulation is inactivated by plasmin inhibitors, including PAI-1 (see above and Ch. 22), which protect us from digesting ourselves from

within.

Drugs affect this system by increasing or inhibiting fibrinolysis (*fibrinolytic* and *antifibrinolytic* drugs, respectively).

Fibrinolytic Drugs

Figure 24.10 summarises the interaction of the fibrinolytic system with the coagulation cascade and platelet activation, and the action of drugs that modify this. Several fibrinolytic (thrombolytic) drugs are used clinically, principally to reopen the occluded arteries in patients with acute myocardial infarction[9] or stroke, less commonly in patients with life-threatening venous thrombosis or pulmonary embolism.

[9]Fibrinolytic drugs are now less widely used in acute myocardial infarction since many units throughout the world provide an emergency angioplasty service (the blocked artery is identified angiographically, opened with a balloon catheter and, if necessary, kept open by means of a stent, Ch. 21). The important thing is to open up the thrombosed artery as swiftly as possible. If facilities are available to do this surgically, this is at least as good as using a lytic drug.

Streptokinase is a protein extracted from cultures of streptococci. It activates plasminogen. Infused intravenously, it reduces mortality in acute myocardial infarction, and this beneficial effect is additive with aspirin (Fig. 24.8). Its action is blocked by antibodies, which appear 4 days or more after the initial dose: its use should not be repeated after this time has elapsed.

Alteplase and **duteplase** are, respectively, single-and double-chain recombinant tPA. They are more active on fibrin-bound plasminogen than on plasma plasminogen, and are therefore said to be ‘clot selective’. Recombinant tPA is not antigenic, and can be used in patients likely to have antibodies to streptokinase. Because of their short half-lives, they

must be given as intravenous infusions. **Reteplase** is similar but has a longer elimination half-life, allowing for bolus administration and making for simplicity of administration. It is available for clinical use in myocardial infarction.

Unwanted Effects and Contraindications

The main hazard of all fibrinolytic agents is bleeding, including gastrointestinal haemorrhage and haemorrhagic stroke. If serious, this can be treated with **tranexamic acid** (see below), fresh plasma or coagulation factors. Streptokinase can cause allergic reactions and low-grade fever. Streptokinase causes a burst of plasmin formation, generating kinins (see Ch. 17), and can cause hypotension by this mechanism.

Contraindications to the use of these agents are active internal bleeding, haemorrhagic cerebrovascular disease, bleeding diatheses, pregnancy, uncontrolled hypertension, invasive procedures in which haemostasis is important, and recent trauma—including vigorous cardiopulmonary resuscitation.

Which Fibrinolytic Agent is Best?

Much has been written as to which drug is best, but an authoritative review (Collins et al., 1997) concluded that:

> … the choice of fibrinolytic drug makes little difference to the overall probability of stroke-free survival, because the regimens that dissolve coronary thrombi more rapidly produce greater risks of cerebral haemorrhage … It is … important that any uncertainties about which fibrinolytic regimen or dose of aspirin to use do not engender uncertainty about whether to use fibrinolytic and antiplatelet therapies routinely.

Clinical Use

Several large placebo-controlled studies in patients with myocardial infarction have shown convincingly that fibrinolytic drugs reduce mortality if given within 12 h of the onset of symptoms, and that the sooner they are administered the better is the result. Similar considerations apply to their use in thrombotic stroke. Scanning to exclude haemorrhagic stroke is advisable, though not always practicable in an emergency situation. Other uses of fibrinolytic agents are listed in the clinical box.

Fibrinolysis and drugs modifying fibrinolysis

• A fibrinolytic cascade is initiated concomitantly with the coagulation cascade, resulting in the formation within the coagulum of plasmin, which digests fibrin.

• Various agents promote the formation of plasmin from its precursor plasminogen, for example **streptokinase**, and tissue plasminogen activators (tPAs) such as **alteplase**, **duteplase** and **reteplase**. Most are infused; reteplase can be given as a bolus injection.

• Some drugs (e.g. **tranexamic acid**) inhibit fibrinolysis.

Clinical uses of fibrinolytic drugs

The main drugs are **streptokinase** and tissue plasminogen activators (tPAs), for example **alteplase**.

• The main use is in *acute myocardial infarction*, with ST segment elevation on the ECG within 12 h of onset (the earlier the better!).

• Other uses include:

– *acute thrombotic stroke* within 3 h of onset (tPA), in selected patients

– clearing *thrombosed shunts* and *cannulae*

– *acute arterial thromboembolism*

– life-threatening *deep vein thrombosis* and *pulmonary embolism* (streptokinase, given

promptly).

Antifibrinolytic and Haemostatic Drugs

Tranexamic acid inhibits plasminogen activation and thus prevents fibrinolysis. It can be given orally or by intravenous injection. It is used to treat various conditions in which there is bleeding or risk of bleeding, such as haemorrhage following prostatectomy or dental extraction, in menorrhagia (excessive menstrual blood loss) and for life-threatening bleeding following thrombolytic drug administration. It is also used in patients with the rare disorder of hereditary angio-oedema.

References and Further Reading

Blood coagulation and anticoagulants

ah A., Carrell C.J., Chen Z.W., *et al.* Stabilization of the E* form turns thrombin into an anticoagulant. *J. Biol. Chem.*. 2009;284:20034-20040. (*The anticoagulant profile caused by a mutation of the thrombin gene is due to stabilisation of the inactive E* form of thrombin that is selectively shifted to the active E form upon thrombomodulin and protein C binding*)

ates S.M., Weitz J.I. Emerging anticoagulant drugs. *Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol.*. 2003;23:1491-1500.

urm H.S., Bhatt D.L. Thrombin, an ideal target for pharmacological inhibition: a review of direct thrombin inhibitors. *Am. Heart J.*. 2005;149:S43-S53.

irsh J., O'Donnell M., Weitz J.I. New anticoagulants. *Blood.* 2005;105:453-463. (*'Limitations of existing anticoagulants, vitamin K antagonist and heparins, have led to the development of newer anticoagulant therapies … New anticoagulants under evaluation include: inhibitors of the factor VIIa/tissue factor pathway; factor Xa inhibitors, both indirect and direct; activated protein C and soluble thrombomodulin; and direct thrombin inhibitors. Several of the direct inhibitors of factor Xa and thrombin are orally active. The greatest clinical need is for an oral anticoagulant to replace warfarin for long-term prevention and treatment of patients with venous and arterial thrombosis.'*)

›botson T., Perry C.M. Danaparoid—a review of its use in thromboembolic and coagulation disorders. *Drugs*. 2002;62:2283-2314. (*Danaparoid is an effective anticoagulant that has undergone clinical evaluation in a wide range of disease indications; discusses use in HIT*)

hearer M.J., Newman P. Metabolism and cell biology of vitamin K. *Thromb. Haemost.* 2008;100:530-547. (*Review*)

Endothelium, platelets and antiplatelet agents

hew D.P., Bhatt D., Sapp S., *et al.* Increased mortality with oral platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa antagonists: a meta-analysis of phase III multicenter trials. *Circulation*. 2001;103:201-206.

OMMIT Collaborative Group. Addition of clopidogrel to aspirin in 45 852 patients with acute myocardial infarction: randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2005;366:1607-1621. (*Clopidogrel reduced the risk of death, myocardial infarction or stroke combined, and of mortality alone; see accompanying comment by Sabatine, M.S., pp. 1587–1589 in the same issue*)

URE Investigators. Effects of clopidogrel in addition to aspirin in patients with acute coronary syndromes without ST-segment elevation. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;345:494-502. (*A total of 12 562 patients randomised; primary outcome occurred in 9.4% of patients in the clopidogrel + aspirin group and in 11.3% of those in the placebo + aspirin group, a relative risk of 0.72–0.90, P < 0.001*)

oodman T., Ferro A., Sharma P. Pharmacogenetics of aspirin resistance: a comprehensive systematic review. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2008;66:222-232. (*Supports a genetic association between the PlA1/A2 molecular variant and aspirin resistance in healthy subjects, with the effect diminishing in the presence of cardiovascular disease*)

atrono C., Coller B., FitzGerald G.A., *et al.* Platelet-active drugs: the relationships among dose, effectiveness, and side effects. *Chest*. 2004;126:234S-264S.

/iviott S.D., Braunwald E., McCabe C.H., et alFor the TRITON-TIMI 38 Investigators. Prasugrel versus clopidogrel in patients with acute coronary syndromes. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2007;357:2001-2015. (*Prasugrel reduced ischaemic events, including stent thrombosis, but with an increased risk of major bleeding, including fatal bleeding. Overall mortality did not differ significantly between treatment groups*)

Clinical and general aspects

ster R.H. Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia and thrombosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1995;332:1374-1376. (*Succinct and lucid editorial; see also accompanying paper, pp. 1330–1335*)

ollins R., Peto R., Baigent C., *et al.* Aspirin, heparin and thrombolytic therapy in suspected acute myocardial infarction. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1997;336:847-860. (*Unbiased and authoritative overview; includes a section on 'general problems of unduly selective emphasis'—fighting stuff!*)

iener H., Cunha L., Forbes C., *et al.* European Stroke Prevention Study 2. Dipyridamole and acetylsalicylic acid in the secondary prevention of stroke. *J. Neurol. Sci.*. 1996;143:1-14. (*Slow-release dipyridamole 200 mg twice daily was as effective as aspirin 25 mg twice daily, and the effects of aspirin and dipyridamole were additive*)

oldhaber S.Z. Pulmonary embolism. *Lancet*. 2004;363:1295-1305.

yrle P.A., Eichinger S. Deep vein thrombosis. *Lancet*. 2005;365:1163-1174.

evine M. A comparison of low-molecular-weight heparin administered primarily at home with unfractionated heparin administered in the hospital for proximal deep vein thrombosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1995;334:677-681. (*Concludes that LMWH can be used safely and effectively at home; this has potentially very important implications for patient care*)

larkus H.S. Current treatments in neurology: stroke. *J. Neurol.*. 2005;252:260-267.

/arkentin T.E. Management of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia: a critical comparison of lepirudin and argatroban. *Thromb. Res.*. 2003;110:73-82. (*A direct thrombin inhibitor should be given alone during acute HIT, with oral anticoagulants deferred until substantial resolution of the thrombocytopenia has occurred*)

25

Haemopoietic system and treatment of anaemia

Overview

This chapter summarises the different kinds of anaemia, caused by nutrient deficiencies, bone marrow depression or increased red cell destruction, and covers the main haematinic agents used to treat them. We describe haemopoietic growth factors for red and white blood cells, and conclude by mentioning two drugs (*hydroxycarbamide* and *eculizumab*) used in treating, respectively, sickle cell anaemia and paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria.

Introduction

In this chapter we briefly review the haemopoietic system and different types of anaemia due to deficiency of nutrients, depression of the bone marrow or increased destruction of red cells (haemolytic anaemias). Nutritional deficiencies of *iron*, *vitamin B_{12}* or *folic acid* are common and important and most of the chapter is devoted to these haematinic agents (i.e. nutrients needed for healthy haemopoiesis and related drugs). Treatment of many forms of bone marrow depression is mainly supportive, but *haemopoietic growth factors* (especially *epoetins*—preparations of the natural hormone erythropoietin) have a place, especially in patients with chronic renal failure, and are covered briefly, as are other haemopoietic factors, known as *colony-stimulating factors* (CSFs), which are used to increase numbers of circulating white blood cells. Treatment of haemolytic anaemias is again mainly supportive, but

we mention two drugs (**hydroxycarbamide** and **eculizumab**) that provide mechanistic insights as well as clinical benefit in two specific haemolytic disorders.

The Haemopoietic System

The main components of the haemopoietic system are the blood, bone marrow, lymph nodes and thymus, with the spleen, liver and kidneys as important accessory organs. Blood consists of formed elements (red and white blood cells and platelets) and plasma. This chapter deals mainly with red cells, which have the principal function of carrying oxygen. Their oxygen-carrying power depends on their haemoglobin content. The most important site of formation of red blood cells in adults is the bone marrow, whereas the spleen acts as their graveyard. Red cell loss in healthy adults is precisely balanced by production of new cells. The liver stores vitamin B_{12} and is involved in the process of breakdown of the haemoglobin liberated when red blood cells are destroyed. The kidney manufactures *erythropoietin*, a hormone that stimulates red cell production. Cells from various organs synthesise and release CSFs, which regulate the production of leukocytes and platelets. Drugs used in the chemotherapy of leukemias are described in Chapter 55.

Types of Anaemia

Anaemia is characterised by a reduced concentration of haemoglobin in the blood. It may cause fatigue but, especially if it is chronic, is often surprisingly asymptomatic. The commonest cause is blood loss resulting from menstruation, drug treatment (e.g. with **aspirin** or other non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs; Ch. 26) or pathological processes such as colonic carcinoma or (especially in developing countries) parasitic infestation (Ch. 54). Pregnancy and child bearing are other important

physiological drains on iron reserves. There are several different types of anaemia and several different diagnostic levels. Determining indices of red cell size and haemoglobin content and microscopical examination of a stained blood smear allow characterisation into:

• *hypochromic, microcytic anaemia* (small red cells with low haemoglobin; caused by chronic blood loss giving rise to iron deficiency)

• *macrocytic anaemia* (large red cells, few in number)

• *normochromic normocytic anaemia* (fewer normal-sized red cells, each with a normal haemoglobin content)

• mixed pictures.

Further evaluation may include determination of concentrations of ferritin, iron, vitamin B_{12} and folic acid in serum, and microscopic examination of smears of bone marrow. This leads to more precise diagnostic groupings of anaemias into:

• Deficiency of nutrients necessary for haemopoiesis, most importantly:
  – iron
  – folic acid and vitamin B_{12}
  – pyridoxine and vitamin C.

• Depression of the bone marrow, caused by:
  – drug toxicity (e.g. anticancer drugs, **clozapine**)
  – radiation therapy
  – diseases of the bone marrow of unknown origin (e.g. idiopathic aplastic anaemia, leukaemias)
  – reduced production of, or responsiveness to, erythropoietin (e.g. chronic renal failure, rheumatoid arthritis, AIDS).

• Excessive destruction of red blood cells (i.e. haemolytic anaemia); this

has many causes, including *haemoglobinopathies* (such as sickle cell anaemia), adverse reactions to drugs and inappropriate immune reactions.

Haematinic Agents

It is important to note that the use of haematinic agents is often only an adjunct to treatment of the underlying cause of the anaemia—for example, surgery for colon cancer (a common cause of iron deficiency) or anthelminthic drugs for patients with hookworm (a frequent cause of anaemia in parts of Africa and Asia; Ch. 54). Sometimes treatment consists of stopping an offending drug, for example a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug that causes blood loss from the stomach (Ch. 26).

Iron

Iron is a transition metal with two important properties relevant to its biological role:

1 Ability to exist in several oxidation states.

2 Ability to form stable coordination complexes.

The body of a 70 kg man contains about 4 g of iron, 65% of which circulates in the blood as haemoglobin. About one-half of the remainder is stored in the liver, spleen and bone marrow, chiefly as *ferritin* and *haemosiderin*. The iron in these molecules is available for haemoglobin synthesis. The rest, which is not available for haemoglobin synthesis, is present in myoglobin, cytochromes and various enzymes.

The distribution and turnover of iron in an average adult man are shown in Table 25.1 and Figure 25.1. The corresponding values in a woman would be about 55% of the values in Table 25.1. Because most of the iron in the body is either part of—or destined to be part of—

haemoglobin, the most obvious clinical result of iron deficiency is anaemia, and the only indication for therapy with iron is for treatment or prophylaxis of iron deficiency anaemia.

Table 25.1 The distribution of iron in the body of a healthy 70 kg man

Protein	Tissue	Iron content (mg)
Haemoglobin	Erythrocytes	2600
Myoglobin	Muscle	400
Enzymes (cytochromes, catalase, guanylyl cyclase, etc.)	Liver and other tissues	25
Transferrin	Plasma and extracellular fluid	8
Ferritin and haemosiderin	Liver	410
	Spleen	48
	Bone marrow	300

Data from Jacobs A, Worwood M 1982 Chapter 5. In: Hardisty R M, Weatherall D J [eds] Blood and its disorders. Blackwell Scientific, Oxford.

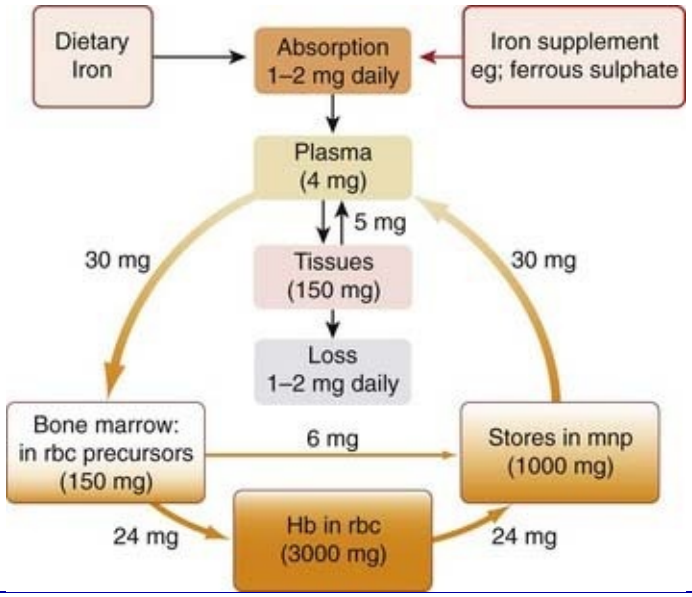


Fig. 25.1 Distribution and turnover of iron in the body.

The quantities by the arrows indicate the usual amounts transferred each day. The transfer of 6 mg from red cell precursors to phagocytes represents aborted cells that fail to develop into functional red blood cells. Hb, haemoglobin; mnp, mononuclear phagocytes (mainly in liver, spleen and bone marrow); rbc, red blood cells.

Haemoglobin is made up of four protein chain subunits (globins), each of which contains one haem moiety. Haem consists of a tetrapyrrole porphyrin ring containing ferrous (Fe^{2+}) iron. Each haem group can carry one oxygen molecule, which is bound reversibly to Fe^{2+} and to a histidine residue in the globin chain. This reversible binding is the basis of oxygen transport.

Iron Turnover and Balance

Both the normal physiological turnover of iron and pharmacokinetic factors affecting iron when it is given therapeutically will be dealt with here. The normal daily requirement for iron is approximately 5 mg for men, and 15 mg for growing children and for menstruating women. A pregnant woman needs between 2 and 10 times this amount because of the demands of the fetus and increased requirements of the mother.[1] The average diet in Western Europe provides 15–20 mg of iron daily, mostly

in meat. Iron in meat is generally present as haem, and about 20–40% of haem iron is available for absorption.

[1]Each pregnancy ‘costs’ the mother 680 mg of iron, equivalent to 1300 ml of blood, owing to the demands of the fetus, plus requirements of the expanded blood volume and blood loss at delivery.

▼ Humans are adapted to absorb haem iron. It is thought that one reason why modern humans have problems in maintaining iron balance (there are an estimated 500 million people with iron deficiency in the world) is that the change from hunting to grain cultivation 10 000 years ago led to cereals, which have a relatively small amount of utilisable iron, replacing meat in the diet. Non-haem iron in food is mainly in the ferric state, and this needs to be converted to ferrous iron for absorption. Ferric iron, and to a lesser extent ferrous iron, has low solubility at the neutral pH of the intestine; however, in the stomach iron dissolves and binds to a mucoprotein carrier. In the presence of ascorbic acid, fructose and various amino acids, iron is detached from the carrier, forming soluble low-molecular-weight complexes that enable it to remain in soluble form in the intestine. Ascorbic acid stimulates iron absorption partly by forming soluble iron–ascorbate chelates and partly by reducing ferric iron to the more soluble ferrous form. **Tetracycline** forms an insoluble iron chelate, impairing absorption of both substances.

The amount of iron in the diet and the various factors affecting its availability are thus important determinants in absorption, but the regulation of iron absorption is a function of the intestinal mucosa, influenced by the body’s iron stores. Because there is no mechanism whereby iron excretion is regulated, the absorptive mechanism has a central role in iron balance as it is the sole mechanism by which body iron is controlled.

The site of iron absorption is the duodenum and upper jejunum, and absorption is a two-stage process involving first a rapid uptake across the brush border and then transfer into the plasma from the interior of the epithelial cells. The second stage, which is rate limiting, is energy dependent. Haem iron in the diet is absorbed as intact haem, and the iron is released in the mucosal cell by the action of haem oxidase. Non-haem iron is absorbed in the ferrous state. Within the cell, ferrous iron is oxidised to ferric iron, which is bound to an intracellular carrier, a transferrin-like protein; the iron is then either held in storage in the mucosal cell as *ferritin* (if body stores of iron are high) or passed on to the plasma (if iron stores are low).

▼ Iron is carried in the plasma bound to *transferrin*, a β-globulin with two binding sites for ferric iron, which is normally only 30% saturated. Plasma contains 4 mg of iron at any one time, but the daily turnover is about 30 mg (Fig. 25.1). Most of the iron that enters the plasma is derived from mononuclear phagocytes, following the degradation of time-expired erythrocytes. Intestinal absorption and mobilisation of iron from storage depots contribute only small amounts. Most of the iron that leaves the plasma each day is used for haemoglobin synthesis by red cell precursors (erythroblasts). These have receptors that bind transferrin, releasing it again when its cargo of iron has been captured.

Iron is stored in two forms: soluble ferritin and insoluble *haemosiderin*. Ferritin is present in all cells, the mononuclear phagocytes of liver, spleen and bone marrow containing especially high concentrations. It is also present in plasma. The precursor of ferritin, *apoferritin*, is a protein of molecular weight 450 000, composed of 24 identical polypeptide subunits that enclose a cavity in which up to 4500 iron atoms can be stored. Apoferritin takes up ferrous iron, oxidises it and deposits the ferric iron in its core. In this form, it constitutes ferritin, the primary

storage form of iron, from which the iron is most readily available. The lifespan of this iron-laden protein is only a few days. Haemosiderin is a degraded form of ferritin in which the iron cores of several ferritin molecules have aggregated, following partial disintegration of the outer protein shells.

The ferritin in plasma has virtually no iron associated with it. It is in equilibrium with the storage ferritin in cells, and its concentration in plasma provides an estimate of total body iron stores.

The body has no means of actively excreting iron. Small amounts leave the body through desquamation (peeling off) of mucosal cells containing ferritin, and even smaller amounts leave in the bile, sweat and urine. A total of about 1 mg is lost daily. Iron balance is therefore critically dependent on the active absorption mechanism in the intestinal mucosa. This absorption is influenced by the iron stores in the body, but the precise mechanism of this control is still a matter of debate; the amount of ferritin in the intestinal mucosa may be important, as may the balance between ferritin and the transferrin-like carrier molecule in these cells. The daily movement of iron in the body is illustrated in Figure 25.1. Since red cells contain approximately 0.6 mg iron per ml of blood, loss of only a few ml of blood per day substantially increases dietary iron requirement.

Administration of Iron

Iron is usually given orally, *e.g.* as **ferrous sulfate**. Other salts for oral administration are **ferrous succinate**, **gluconate** or **fumarate**.

Parenteral iron (e.g. **iron dextran**, **iron sucrose**) may be necessary in individuals who are not able to absorb oral iron because of malabsorption syndromes, or as a result of surgical procedures or inflammatory conditions involving the gastrointestinal tract. It is also

used for patients who do not tolerate oral preparations, and patients with chronic renal failure or with chemotherapy-induced anaemia who are receiving treatment with erythropoietin (see below). Iron-dextran can be given by deep intramuscular injection or slow intravenous infusion; iron-sucrose is given by slow intravenous infusion. A small initial dose is given because of the risk of anaphylactoid reaction.

Unwanted effects

The unwanted effects of oral iron administration are dose related and include nausea, abdominal cramps and diarrhoea. Parenteral iron can cause anaphylactoid reactions (Ch. 57). Iron is an important nutrient for several pathogens and there is concern that excessive iron could worsen the clinical course of infection. Iron treatment is usually avoided during infection for this reason.

Acute iron toxicity, usually seen in young children who have swallowed attractively coloured iron tablets in mistake for sweets, can result in severe necrotising gastritis with vomiting, haemorrhage and diarrhoea, followed by circulatory collapse.

Clinical uses of iron salts 

To treat iron deficiency anaemia, which can be caused by:

- *chronic blood loss* (e.g. with menorrhagia, hookworm, colon cancer)
- *increased demand* (e.g. in pregnancy and early infancy)
- *inadequate dietary intake* (uncommon in developed countries)
- *inadequate absorption* (e.g. following gastrectomy).

Iron overload

Chronic iron toxicity or iron overload occurs in chronic haemolytic

anaemias requiring frequent blood transfusions, such as the *thalassaemias* (a large group of genetic disorders of globin chain synthesis) and *haemochromatosis* (a genetic iron storage disease with increased iron absorption, resulting in damage to liver, islets of Langerhans, joints and skin[2]).

[2]'Bronze diabetes'—where chronic iron overload is treated by repeated venesection, one of the few modern uses of this once near-universal 'remedy'.

The treatment of acute and chronic iron toxicity involves the use of iron chelators such as **desferrioxamine**. This is not absorbed from the gut but is nonetheless given intragastrically following acute overdose (to bind iron in the bowel lumen and prevent its absorption) as well as intramuscularly and, if necessary, intravenously. In severe poisoning, it is given by slow intravenous infusion. Desferrioxamine forms a complex with ferric iron and, unlike unbound iron, this is excreted in the urine. **Deferiprone**, an orally absorbed iron chelator, is an alternative treatment for iron overload in patients with thalassaemia major who are unable to take desferrioxamine. Agranulocytosis and other blood dyscrasias are serious potential adverse effects. **Defasirox**, an oral iron chelator, is used for selected patients with thalassaemia.

Iron



- Iron is important for the synthesis of haemoglobin, myoglobin, cytochromes and other enzymes.
- Ferric iron (Fe^{3+}) must be converted to ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) for absorption in the gastrointestinal tract.
- Absorption involves active transport into mucosal cells in the jejunum and upper ileum,

from where it can be transported into the plasma and/or stored intracellularly as ferritin.

• Total body iron is controlled exclusively by absorption; in iron deficiency, more is transported into plasma than is stored as ferritin in jejunal mucosa.

• Iron loss occurs mainly by sloughing of ferritin-containing mucosal cells.

• Iron in plasma is bound to transferrin, and most is used for erythropoiesis. Some is stored as ferritin in other tissues. Iron from time-expired erythrocytes enters the plasma for reuse.

• The main therapeutic preparation is ferrous sulfate; iron-sucrose can be given as an intravenous infusion.

• Unwanted effects include gastrointestinal disturbances. Severe toxic effects occur if large doses are ingested; these can be countered by desferrioxamine, an iron chelator.

Folic Acid and Vitamin B12

Vitamin B_{12} and folic acid are essential constituents of the human diet, being necessary for DNA synthesis and consequently for cell proliferation. Their biochemical actions are interdependent (see below), and treatment of vitamin B_{12} deficiency with folic acid corrects some, but not all, of the features of vitamin B_{12} deficiency. Deficiency of either vitamin B_{12} or folic acid affects tissues with a rapid cell turnover, particularly bone marrow, but vitamin B_{12} deficiency also causes important neuronal disorders, which are not corrected (or may even be made worse) by treatment with folic acid. Deficiency of either vitamin causes *megaloblastic haemopoiesis*, in which there is disordered erythroblast differentiation and defective erythropoiesis in the bone marrow. Large abnormal erythrocyte precursors appear in the marrow, each with a high RNA : DNA ratio as a result of decreased DNA synthesis. The circulating erythrocytes (macrocytes) are large fragile cells, often distorted in shape. Mild leukopenia and thrombocytopenia

usually accompany the anaemia, and the nuclei of polymorphonuclear leukocytes are abnormal (hypersegmented). Neurological disorders caused by deficiency of vitamin B_{12} include peripheral neuropathy and dementia, as well as subacute combined[3] degeneration of the spinal cord. Folic acid deficiency is caused by dietary deficiency, especially in settings of increased demand (e.g. during pregnancy—especially important because of the link between folate deficiency and neural tube defects in the baby [see Ch. 57] or because of chronic haemolysis in patients with haemoglobinopathies such as *sickle cell anaemia*—see below). Vitamin B_{12} deficiency, however, is usually due to decreased absorption (see below).

[3]'Combined' because the lateral as well as the dorsal columns are involved, giving rise to motor as well as sensory symptoms.

Folic Acid

Some aspects of folate structure and metabolism are dealt with in Chapters 50 and 55, because several important antibacterial and anticancer drugs are antimetabolites that interfere with folate synthesis in microorganisms or tumour cells. Liver and green vegetables are rich sources of folate. In healthy non-pregnant adults, the daily requirement is about 0.2 mg daily, but this is increased during pregnancy.

Mechanism of action

Reduction of folic acid, catalysed by *dihydrofolate reductase* in two stages yields *dihydrofolate* (FH_2) and *tetrahydrofolate* (FH_4), co-factors which transfer methyl groups (1-carbon transfers) in several important metabolic pathways. FH_4 is essential for DNA synthesis because of its role as co-factor in the synthesis of purines and pyrimidines. It is also necessary for reactions involved in amino acid metabolism.

FH_4 is especially important for the conversion of deoxyuridylate monophosphate (DUMP) to deoxythymidylate monophosphate (DTMP). This reaction is rate limiting in mammalian DNA synthesis and is catalysed by thymidylate synthetase, with FH_4 acting as methyl donor.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Therapeutically, folic acid is given orally and is absorbed in the ileum. Methyl-FH_4 is the form in which folate is usually carried in blood and which enters cells. It is functionally inactive until it is demethylated in a vitamin B_{12}-dependent reaction (see below). Folate is taken up into hepatocytes and bone marrow cells by active transport. Within the cells, folic acid is reduced and formylated before being converted to the active polyglutamate form. **Folinic acid**, a synthetic FH_4, is converted much more rapidly to the polyglutamate form.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects do not occur even with large doses of folic acid—except possibly in the presence of vitamin B_{12} deficiency, when administration of folic acid may improve the anaemia while exacerbating the neurological lesion. It is therefore important to determine whether a megaloblastic anaemia is caused by folate or vitamin B_{12} deficiency and treat accordingly.

Clinical uses of folic acid and vitamin B_{12} (hydroxocobalamin)

Folic acid

- Treatment of megaloblastic anaemia resulting from folate deficiency, which can be caused by:
  - *poor diet* (common in alcoholic individuals)
  - *malabsorption syndromes*

– drugs (e.g. **phenytoin**).

• Treatment or prevention of toxicity from methotrexate, a folate antagonist (see Ch. 51).

• Prophylactically in individuals at hazard from developing folate deficiency, for example:

– *pregnant women* and *before conception* (especially if there is a risk of birth defects)

– *premature infants*

– patients with *severe chronic haemolytic anaemias*, including haemoglobinopathies (e.g. sickle cell anaemia).

Vitamin B_{12} (hydroxocobalamin)

• Treatment of *pernicious anaemia* and other causes of vitamin B_{12} deficiency.

• Prophylactically after surgical operations that remove the site of production of intrinsic factor (the stomach) or of vitamin B_{12} absorption (the terminal ileum).

Vitamin B_{12}

Vitamin B_{12} is a complex cobalamin. The vitamin B_{12} preparation used therapeutically is **hydroxocobalamin**. The principal dietary sources are meat (particularly liver, where it is stored), eggs and dairy products. For activity, cobalamins must be converted to *methylcobalamin* (methyl-B_{12}) or *5′-deoxyadenosylcobalamin* (ado-B_{12}). The average European diet contains 5–25 μg of vitamin B_{12} per day, and the daily requirement is 2–3 μg. Absorption requires *intrinsic factor* (a glycoprotein secreted by gastric parietal cells). Vitamin B_{12}, complexed with intrinsic factor, is absorbed by active transport in the terminal ileum. Healthy stomach secretes a large excess of intrinsic factor, but in patients with pernicious anaemia (an autoimmune disorder where the lining of the stomach atrophies), or following total gastrectomy, the supply of intrinsic factor is inadequate to maintain vitamin B_{12} absorption in the long term. Surgical removal of the terminal ileum, for example to treat Crohn's

disease (see Ch. 29), can also impair B_{12} absorption.

Vitamin B_{12} is carried in the plasma by binding proteins called *transcobalamins*. It is stored in the liver, the total amount in the body being about 4 mg. This store is so large compared with the daily requirement, that if vitamin B_{12} absorption stops suddenly—as after a total gastrectomy—it takes 2–4 years for evidence of deficiency to become manifest.

Mechanism of action

Vitamin B_{12} is required for two main biochemical reactions in humans.

The conversion of methyl-FH4 to FH4

The role of vitamin B_{12} in folate coenzyme synthesis is illustrated in Figure 25.2. It is through these mechanisms that the metabolic activities of vitamin B_{12} and folic acid are linked and implicated in the synthesis of DNA. It is also through this pathway that folate/vitamin B_{12} treatment can lower plasma homocysteine concentration. Because increased homocysteine concentrations may have undesirable vascular effects (Ch. 23, Table 23.1), this has potential therapeutic and public health implications. The reaction involves conversion of both methyl-FH_4 to FH_4 and homocysteine to methionine. The enzyme that accomplishes this (*homocysteine–methionine methyltransferase*) requires vitamin B_{12} as co-factor and methyl-FH_4 as methyl donor. The methyl group from methyl-FH_4 is transferred first to B_{12}, and then to homocysteine to form methionine (Fig. 25.2). Vitamin B_{12} deficiency thus traps folate in the inactive methyl-FH_4 form, thereby depleting the folate polyglutamate coenzymes needed for DNA synthesis (see above). Vitamin B_{12}-dependent methionine synthesis also affects the synthesis of folate polyglutamate coenzymes by an additional mechanism. The preferred

substrate for polyglutamate synthesis is formyl-FH_4, and the conversion of FH_4 to formyl-FH_4 requires a formate donor such as methionine.

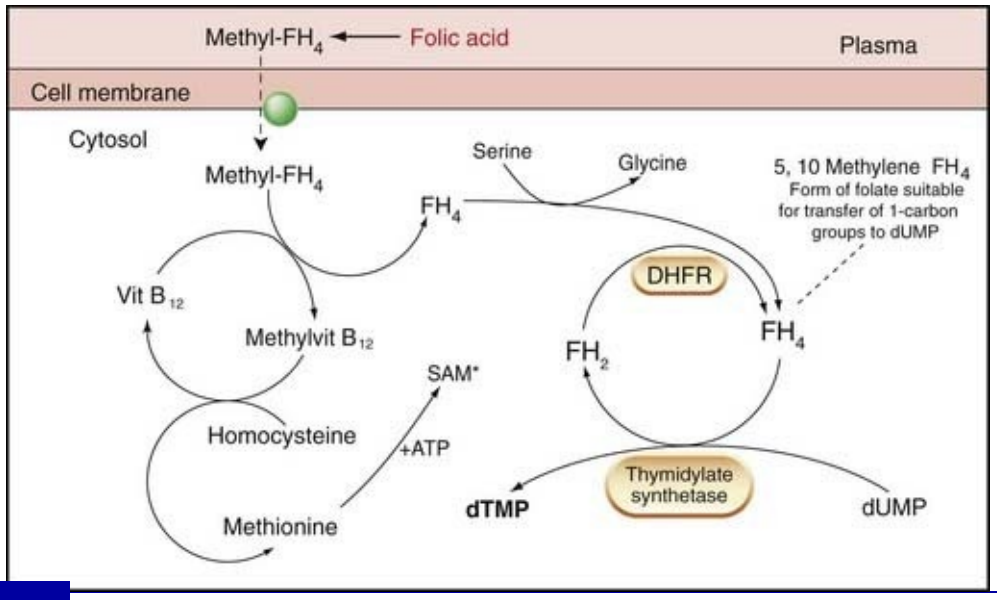


Fig. 25.2 Simplified diagram of the role of folate and vitamin B12 in the reactions necessary for the eventual synthesis of thymidylate.

Methyl-FH4 enters cells from the plasma by carrier. The methyl group is transferred to homocysteine to form methionine via vitamin B12, which is bound to a methyltransferase (not shown). Methionine reacts with ATP to form S-adenosyl methionine (SAM*) which is a universal methyl donor for several reactions including methylation of cytosine in DNA molecules. FH4 functions as a carrier of a one-carbon unit, providing the methyl group necessary for the conversion of 2′deoxyuridylate monophosphate (DUMP) to 2′ deoxythymidylate (DTMP) by thymidylate synthetase. During the transfer of the one-carbon unit, FH4 is oxidised to FH2, which must be reduced by dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR) to FH4 (before it can act again). The thymidylate synthetase action is rate-limiting in DNA synthesis. Note that in all the actions of folates it is the polyglutamate form that is most active. DHFR, dihydrofolate reductase; DTMP, thymidylate; DUMP, deoxyuridylate monophosphate.

Isomerisation of methylmalonyl-CoA to succinyl-CoA

This isomerisation reaction is part of a route by which propionate is converted to succinate. Through this pathway, cholesterol, odd-chain fatty acids, some amino acids and thymine can be used for gluconeogenesis or for energy production via the tricarboxylic acid

cycle. Coenzyme B_{12} (ado-B_{12}) is an essential co-factor, so methylmalonyl-CoA accumulates in vitamin B_{12} deficiency. This distorts the pattern of fatty acid synthesis in neural tissue and may be the basis of neuropathy in vitamin B_{12} deficiency.

Administration of vitamin B12

When vitamin B_{12} is used therapeutically (as **hydroxocobalamin**), it is usually given by injection[4] because, as explained above, vitamin B_{12} deficiency commonly results from malabsorption. Patients with pernicious anaemia require life-long therapy. Hydroxocobalamin does not cause unwanted effects.

[4]At least in Anglo-Saxon countries; in France, very large doses of vitamin B_{12} are given by mouth to achieve sufficient absorption for therapeutic efficacy despite the absence of intrinsic factor. Either method is a great improvement on eating the prodigious quantities of raw liver required by Minot and Murphy's 'liver diet' of 1925!

Vitamin B_{12} and folic acid

Both vitamin B_{12} and folic acid are needed for DNA synthesis. Deficiencies particularly affect erythropoiesis, causing macrocytic megaloblastic anaemia.

Folic acid

- There is active uptake of folic acid into cells and reduction to tetrahydrofolate (FH4) by dihydrofolate reductase; extra glutamates are then added.
- Folate polyglutamate is a co-factor (a carrier of 1-carbon units) in the synthesis of purines and pyrimidines (especially thymidylate).

Vitamin B12 (hydroxocobalamin)

- Vitamin B_{12} needs intrinsic factor (a glycoprotein) secreted by gastric parietal cells for

absorption in the terminal ileum.

• It is stored in the liver.

• It is required for:

– conversion of methyl-FH_4 (inactive form of FH_4) to active formyl-FH_4, which, after polyglutamation, is a co-factor in the synthesis of purines and pyrimidines (see above)

– isomerisation of methylmalonyl-CoA to succinyl-CoA.

• Deficiency occurs most often in pernicious anaemia, which results from malabsorption caused by lack of intrinsic factor from the stomach. It causes neurological disease as well as anaemia.

• Vitamin B_{12} is given by injection to treat pernicious anaemia.

Haemopoietic Growth Factors

Every 60 seconds, a human being must generate about 120 million granulocytes and 150 million erythrocytes, as well as numerous mononuclear cells and platelets. The cells responsible for this remarkable productivity are derived from a relatively small number of self-renewing, pluripotent stem cells laid down during embryogenesis. Maintenance of haemopoiesis necessitates a balance between self-renewal of the stem cells on the one hand, and differentiation into the various types of blood cell on the other. The factors involved in controlling this balance are the *haemopoietic growth factors*, which direct the division and maturation of the progeny of these cells down eight possible lines of development (Fig. 25.3). These cytokine growth factors are highly potent glycoproteins, acting at concentrations of 10^{-12} to 10^{-10} mol/l. They are present in plasma at very low concentrations under basal conditions, but on stimulation their concentrations can increase within hours by 1000-fold or more. *Erythropoietin* regulates the red cell line, and the signal for its

production is blood loss and/or low tissue oxygen tension. *Colony-stimulating factors* (CSFs) regulate the myeloid divisions of the white cell line, and the main stimulus for their production is infection (see also Ch. 6).

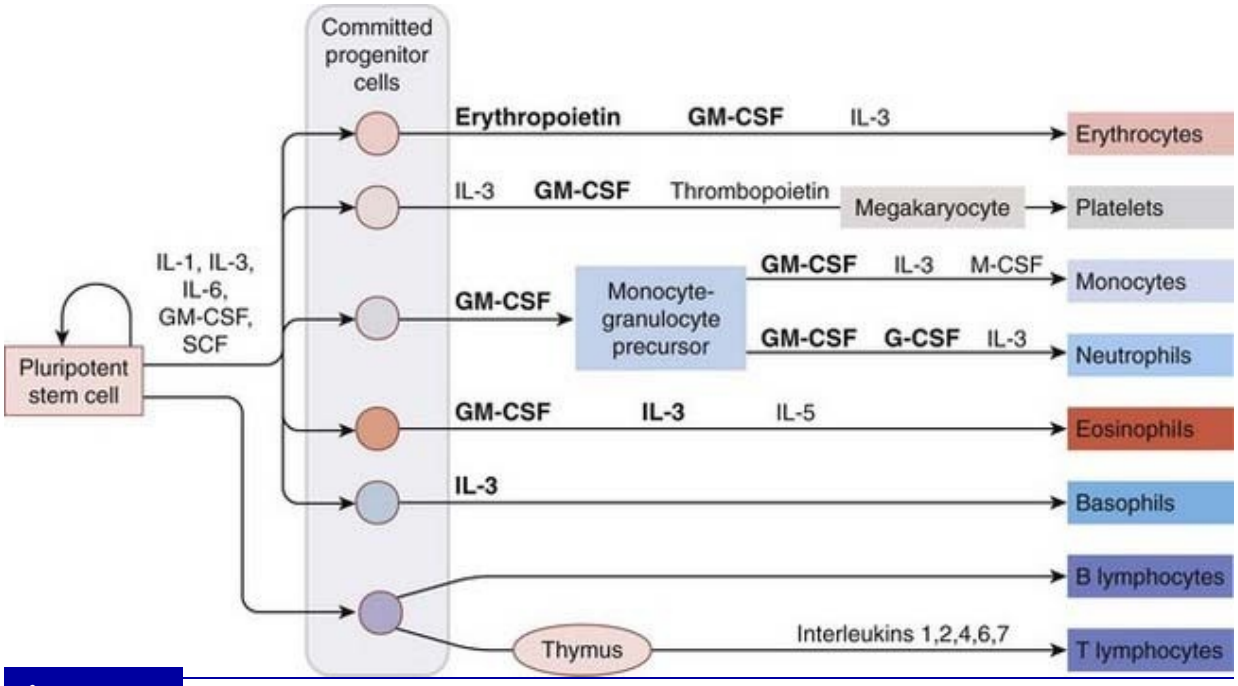


Fig. 25.3 Haemopoietic growth factors in blood cell differentiation.

Various preparations of the factors shown in bold are in clinical use (see text). Most T cells generated in the thymus die by apoptosis; those that emerge are either CD4 or CD8 T cells. The colours used for the mature blood cells reflect how they appear in common staining preparations (and after which some are named). CSF, colony-stimulating factor; G-CSF, granulocyte CSF; GM-CSF, granulocyte–macrophage CSF; IL-1, interleukin-1; IL-3, interleukin-3 or multi-CSF; M-CSF, macrophage CSF; SCF, stem cell factor. (See also Ch. 6.)

Recombinant erythropoietin (**epoetin**),[5] and recombinant granulocyte CSF (**filgrastim**, **lenograstim**, **pegfilgrastim**) are used clinically (see below); *thrombopoietin* is available in recombinant form but there are concerns about effects on tumour progression (it activates a cell surface protein that is an oncogene product). Some of the other haemopoietic growth factors (e.g. interleukin-3, interleukin-5 and various other cytokines) are covered in Chapter 6.

[5]The first therapeutic agent to be produced by recombinant technology, by Amgen in 1989—a huge commercial success, heralding the emergence of the new biotechnology industry.

Erythropoietin

Erythropoietin is produced in juxtatubular cells in the kidney and also in macrophages; it stimulates committed erythroid progenitor cells to proliferate and generate erythrocytes (Fig. 25.3). Recombinant human erythropoietins are used to treat symptomatic anaemia caused by erythropoietin deficiency. **Darbepoetin**, a hyperglycosylated form of epoetin, has a longer half-life and can be administered less frequently; **methoxy polyethylene glycol-epoetin beta** is another preparation with long half-life. Epoetin and darbopoietin are given intravenously or subcutaneously, the response being greatest after subcutaneous injection and fastest after intravenous injection.

Epoetins are reaching the end of their periods of patent protection and the first 'biosimilar' products have recently been licensed; unlicensed uses include its use in sport (e.g. 'blood-doping' in cyclists)—see Chapter 58.

Unwanted effects

Transient influenza-like symptoms are common. Hypertension is also common and can cause encephalopathy with headache, disorientation and sometimes convulsions. Iron deficiency can be induced because more iron is required for the enhanced erythropoiesis. Blood viscosity increases as the haematocrit (i.e. the fraction of the blood that is occupied by red blood cells) rises, increasing the risk of thrombosis, especially during dialysis. There have been rare reports of a devastating chronic condition known as pure red cell aplasia, connected with development of antibodies directed against erythropoietin.

Clinical use

Iron or folate deficiency must be corrected before starting treatment. Parenteral iron preparations are often needed (see above). Haemoglobin must be monitored and maintained within the range 10–12 g/dl to avoid the unwanted effects described above. The clinical use of epoetin is given in the box below.

Colony-Stimulating Factors

The CSFs are cytokines that stimulate the formation of maturing colonies of leukocytes, observable in tissue culture. They not only stimulate particular committed progenitor cells to proliferate (Fig. 25.3) but also cause irreversible differentiation. The responding precursor cells have membrane receptors for specific CSFs and may express receptors for more than one factor, thus permitting collaborative interactions between factors.

Granulocyte CSF is produced mainly by monocytes, fibroblasts and endothelial cells, and controls primarily the development of neutrophils, increasing their proliferation and maturation, stimulating their release from bone marrow storage pools and enhancing their function. Recombinant forms (**filgrastim**, which is not glycosylated, and glycosylated **lenograstim**) are used therapeutically. **Pegfilgrastim** is a derivative of filgrastim conjugated with polyethylene glycol ('pegylated'), which has the effect of increasing its duration of action.

Thrombopoietin, made in liver and kidney, stimulates proliferation and maturation of megakaryocytes to form platelets. Recombinant thrombopoietin is not used clinically.

Administration and unwanted effects

Filgrastim and lenograstim are given either subcutaneously or by

intravenous infusion. Pegfilgrastim is administered subcutaneously. Gastrointestinal effects, fever, bone pain, myalgia and rash are recognised adverse effects; less common effects include pulmonary infiltrates and enlargement of liver or spleen.

Haemopoietic growth factors

Erythropoietin

• Regulates red cell production.

• Is given intravenously, subcutaneously, intraperitoneally.

• Can cause transient flu-like symptoms, hypertension, iron deficiency and increased blood viscosity.

• Is available, as epoetin, to treat patients with anaemia caused by chronic renal failure.

Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor

• Stimulates neutrophil progenitors.

• Is available as **filgrastim**, **pegfilgrastim** or **lenograstim**; it is given parenterally.

Clinical uses of epoetin

• Anaemia of chronic *renal failure*.

• Anaemia during *chemotherapy* for cancer.

• Prevention of the anaemia that occurs in *premature infants* (unpreserved formulations are used because benzyl alcohol, used as a preservative, has been associated with a fatal toxic syndrome in neonates).

• To increase the yield of autologous blood before *blood donation*.

• Anaemia of *AIDS* (exacerbated by **zidovudine**).

• Anaemia of *chronic inflammatory conditions* such as rheumatoid arthritis (investigational).

Clinical uses of the colony-stimulating factors

Colony-stimulating factors are used in specialist centres:

• To reduce the severity/duration of neutropenia induced by cytotoxic drugs during:

– intensive *chemotherapy* necessitating autologous *bone marrow rescue*

– following *bone marrow transplant*.

• To harvest *progenitor cells*.

• To expand the number of harvested progenitor cells ex vivo before reinfusing them.

• For persistent neutropenia in *advanced HIV infection*.

• In *aplastic anaemia*.

Haemolytic Anaemia

Anaemia associated with increased red cell destruction can arise from genetic causes (e.g. sickle cell disease, thalassaemia) or a variety of non-genetic causes such as autoimmunity, infections and adverse drug reactions.

▼ Adult haemoglobin (haemoglobin A) contains two α-and two β-globin chains. The cause of sickle cell anaemia is a mutation in the gene that codes the β-globin chain, resulting in a single amino acid substitution. The abnormal haemoglobin (haemoglobin S) can polymerise when deoxygenated, changing the physical properties of the red cells (which deform to a sickle shape, hence the name) and damaging the cell membranes. This can block the microcirculation, causing painful crises, and haemolysis can reduce the availability of

nitric oxide (Ch. 20). Polymerisation is markedly reduced when other forms of haemoglobin are present. Almost 100% of the haemoglobin is in the form haemoglobin A in healthy adults of African (or European) origin, but in some ethnic groups (from Saudi Arabia), fetal haemoglobin (haemoglobin F, which contains two α-and two γ-globin chains) persists into adulthood. Such individuals, if they inherit the sickle cell gene, suffer a milder form of the illness. Since all adults possess the gene to make γ-globin, a means to turn it back on again might ameliorate the course of sickle cell disease.

Paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria (PNH) is a rare and previously untreatable form of haemolytic anaemia caused by clonal expansion of haemopoietic stem cells with somatic mutations in an X-linked gene *PIG-A*. The mutation prevents formation of glycophosphatidylinositol (GPI) which anchors many proteins to the cell surface. Haemolysis is a feature of PNH because of the absence of a GPI-linked protein, CD59, which blocks the formation of the terminal complement complex (the membrane attack complex) on the cell surface. In addition to anaemia, patients with PNH suffer from other features including thrombosis, attacks of abdominal pain and pulmonary hypertension (Ch. 22).

Eculizumab, now licensed for clinical use, is a humanised monoclonal antibody which blocks the terminal complement protein C5 (Ch. 17). In a double-blind, randomised, controlled trial in 87 patients, treatment with eculizumab dramatically reduced haemolysis and transfusion requirement during 6 months of treatment (Fig. 25.4). Patients must be innoculated against meningococcal infection before treatment. It is administered by intravenous infusion weekly for 4 weeks and then approximately every 2 weeks. Serious adverse effects include infection, notably meningococcal infection, but are uncommon. The commonest adverse effects are headache and back pain.

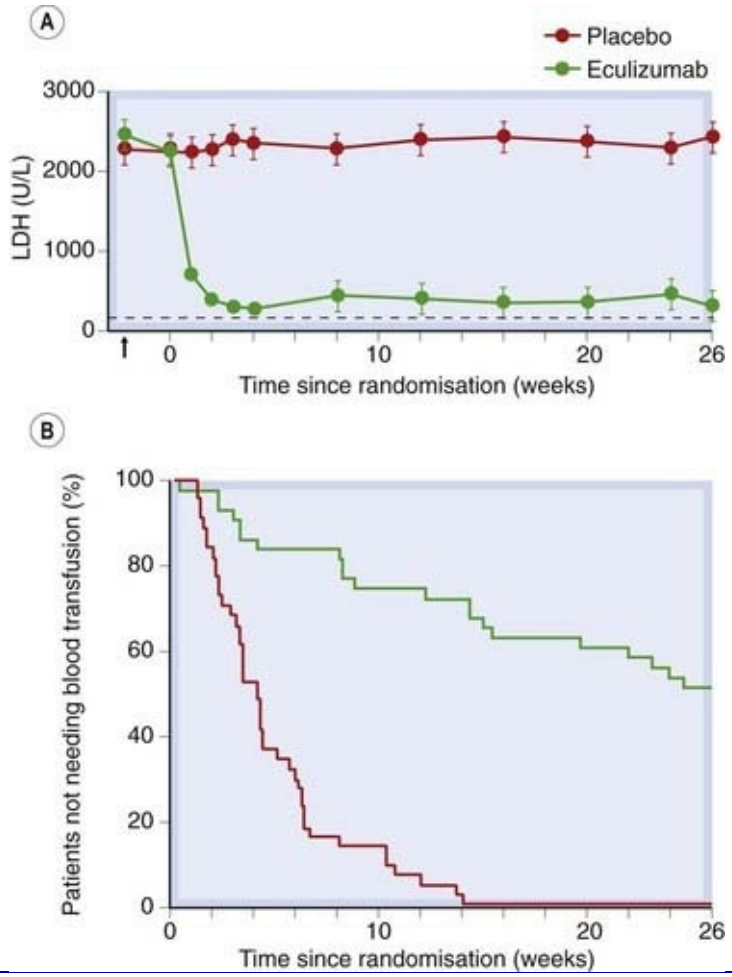


Fig 25.4 Effect of eculizumab in patients with paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria (PNH).

[**A**] Effect on plasma lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) activity, a measure of haemolyisis. The horizontal dotted line shows the upper limit of normal. The arrow shows the baseline level at screening (n = 44 in placebo group, n = 43 in eculizumab group, $P < 0.001$). [**B**] Kaplan–Meier curves for the time to first transfusion during treatment in the same patients shown in [**A**] ($P < 0.001$).

(Redrawn from Hillmen et al. 2006 NEJM 355: 1233–43.)

In most forms of haemolytic anaemia, treatment is symptomatic (e.g. analgesia for painful crises in patients with sickle cell disease) and supportive (e.g. attention to fluid balance, oxygen therapy, blood transfusion when essential, treatment of iron overload, provision of adequate folate to support increased red cell turnover and, in some

cases, antibiotics and immunisation). Acute haemolytic anaemia associated with autoantibodies may respond to treatment with glucocorticoids (Ch. 32).

Hydroxycarbamide

Hydroxycarbamide (previously known as hydroxyurea) is a cytotoxic drug that has been used for decades to lower the red cell and platelet counts in patients with *polycythaemia rubra vera* (a myeloproliferative disorder affecting especially the red cell lineage) or to treat chronic myeloid leukemia. It shifts haemoglobin production from haemoglobin S to haemoglobin F (for further details see Platt, 2008). In one randomised, controlled trial in 499 adults with sickle cell anaemia, hydroxycarbamide ameliorated the clinical course with fewer painful crises and less need for transfusion. There were no serious adverse effects, but long-term safety is uncertain (Charache et al., 1995).

Mechanism of action

Hydroxycarbamide inhibits DNA synthesis by inhibiting *ribonucleotide reductase* and is S-phase specific (Ch. 5). Consequently, it is relatively selective for rapidly dividing red cells and reduces the production of red cells containing haemoglobin S while favouring production of red cells containing a high concentration of haemoglobin F (rapidly dividing F cells). Hydroxycarbamide metabolism gives rise to nitric oxide, which may contribute to its beneficial effect in sickle cell disease. Some of its beneficial effect in reducing painful crises could relate to anti-inflammatory effects secondary to its cytotoxic action.

Administration and unwanted effects

Hydroxycarbamide is administered by mouth once daily in rather lower starting dose than is used for treating malignant disease; reduced doses

are used in patients with impaired renal function. The blood count and haemoglobin F are monitored and the dose adjusted accordingly. Once stabilised, treatment may be continued indefinitely.

Myelosuppression, nausea and rashes are the commonest adverse effects. Secondary leukaemias have occurred during treatment of myeloproliferative disorders, but it is unknown if this is drug related rather than part of the natural history of these disorders. Animal studies demonstrated teratogenicity, and potential adverse effects on spermatogenesis.

References and Further Reading

General

ishbane S. Erythropoiesis-stimulating agent treatment with full anemia correction: a new perspective. *Kidney Int.*. 2009;75:358-365.

ishman S.M., Christian P., West K.P. The role of vitamins in the prevention and control of anaemia. *Public Health Nutr.*. 2000;3:125-150.

oelzer D. Haemopoietic growth factors—not whether, but when and where. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1997;336:1822-1824. (*Edifying editorial comment*)

urzrock R. Thrombopoietic factors in chronic bone marrow failure states: the platelet problem revisited. *Clin. Cancer Res.*. 2005;11:1361-1367. (*Slow progress*)

Iron and iron deficiency

ndrews N.C. Disorders of iron metabolism. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1999;341:1986-1995.

rovan D., Weatherall D. Red cells, II: acquired anaemias and polycythaemia. *Lancet.* 2000;355:1260-1268.

oh B.-H., van Driel I.R., Gleeson P.A. Pernicious anaemia. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1997;337:1441-1448. (*Immunopathogenesis of pernicious anaemia; excellent figures*)

Folic acid and vitamin, B_{12} and their deficiencies

otto L.D., Lisi A., Robert-Gnansia E., *et al.* International retrospective cohort study of neural tube defects in relation to folic acid recommendations: are the recommendations working? *Br. Med. J.*. 2005;330:571-573. (*Not as well as might be hoped*)

efsum H. Folate, vitamin, B_{12} and homocysteine in relation to birth defects and pregnancy outcome. *Br. J. Nutr.*. 2001;85(Suppl. 2):S109-S113.

Colony-stimulating factors

ieschke G.J., Burges A.W. Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor and granulocyte–macrophage colony-stimulating factor. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1992;327:1-35. 99–106

Iohle R., Kanz L. Hematopoietic growth factors for hematopoietic stem cell mobilization and expansion. *Semin. Hematol.*. 2007;44:193-202.

Haemolytic anaemias

harache S., Terrin M.L., Moore R.D., *et al.* Effect of hydroxyurea on the frequency of painful crises in sickle-cell-anemia. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1995;332:1317-1322. (*Important randomised, controlled trial evidence of efficacy and safety over mean follow-up of 21 months*)

illmen P., Young N.S., Schubert J., *et al.* The complement inhibitor eculizumab in paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2006;355:1233-1243. (*Eculizumab is an effective therapy for PNH*)

latt O.S. Hydroxyurea for the treatment of sickle cell anaemia. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2008;358:1362-1369. (*Clinical vignette and discussion of this form of treatment*)

26

Antiinflammatory and immunosuppressant drugs

Overview

This chapter deals with the drugs used to treat inflammatory and immune disorders. While generally associated with diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis, it has become clear that inflammation forms a significant component of many, if not most, of the diseases encountered in the clinic and consequently antiinflammatory drugs are extensively employed in virtually all branches of medicine.

The chief drugs used to treat inflammation may (somewhat arbitrarily) be divided into three major groups:

• Drugs that inhibit the cyclooxygenase enzyme—the nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and the coxibs.

• Antirheumatoid drugs—the disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs) including some immunosuppressants.

• The new anticytokine, and other biological agents.

We first describe the therapeutic effects, mechanisms of action and unwanted effects common to all NSAIDs, and deal in a little more detail with aspirin, paracetamol and drugs that are selective for cyclooxygenase (COX)-2. The antirheumatoid drugs comprise a rather heterogeneous group, many of unknown mechanism of action. They include immunosuppressant drugs that are also used

to prevent rejection of organ transplants. The glucocorticoids are covered in Chapter 32, but are briefly discussed in this chapter. We then consider the latest biologicals that are revolutionising treatment in many cases of severe disease. Finally, we consider drugs that do not fit easily into these categories: those used to treat gout and the histamine H_1 receptor antagonists used to treat acute allergic conditions.

CycloOxygenase Inhibitors

This group includes the 'traditional' (in the historical sense) NSAIDs[1] as well as the newer *coxibs* that are more selective for COX-2 (see below). These drugs, sometimes called the *aspirin-like drugs*, or *antipyretic analgesics* are among the most widely used of all agents. There are now more than 50 different NSAIDs on the global market; some current examples are listed in Table 26.1 and some structures given in Figure 26.1. These drugs provide symptomatic relief from pain and swelling in chronic joint disease such as occurs in osteo-and rheumatoid arthritis, as well as in more acute inflammatory conditions such as fractures, sprains, sports and other soft tissue injuries. They are also useful in the treatment of postoperative, dental and menstrual pain, and of headaches and migraine. Several NSAIDs are available over-the-counter and they are widely used for other types of minor aches and pains. There are many different NSAID formulations available, including tablets, injections and gels. Virtually all these drugs, particularly the 'traditional' NSAIDs, can have significant unwanted effects, especially in the elderly. Newer agents have fewer adverse actions.

Table 26.1 Comparison of some common antiinflammatory cyclooxygenase inhibitors

Drug	Type	Indication	COX isoform selectivity	Comments
Aceclofenac	Phenylacetate	RA, OA, AS		
Acemetacin	Indole ester	RD, OA, MS, PO		Ester of indometacin
Aspirin	Salicylate		Weakly COX-1 selective	Mainly cardiovascular usage alone Component of many OTC preparations
Azapropazone	Pyrazolone	RD, AS, G		Used when other drugs have failed Severe gastrointestinal effects
Celecoxib	Coxib	RA, OA, AS, H&M	Moderately COX-2 selective	Fewer gastrointestinal effects
Dexibruprofen	Propionate	OA, MS, D, H&M		Active enantiomer of ibuprofen
Dexketoprofen	Propionate	PO, D, H&M		Isomer of ketoprofen
Diclofenac	Phenylacetate	RA, OA, G, MS, PO	Weakly COX-2 selective	Moderate potency
Etodolac	Pyranocarboxylate	RA, OA		Possibly fewer gastrointestinal effects
Etoricoxib	Coxib	RA, OA, G	Very COX-2 selective	
Fenbufen	Propionate	RA, OA, MS		
Fenoprofen	Propionate	RA, OA, MS, PO	Non-selective	Prodrug activated in liver
Flurbiprofen	Propionate	RA, OA, MS, PO, D, H&M	Very COX-1 selective	
Ibuprofen	Propionate	RA, OA, MS, PO, D, H&M	Weakly COX-1 selective	Suitable for children
Indometacin	Indole	RA, OA, G, MS, PO, D	Weakly COX-1 selective	Suitable for moderate to severe disease
Ketoprofen	Propionate	RA, OA, G, MS, PO		Suitable for mild disease
Ketorolac	Pyrrolizine	PO	Highly COX-1 selective	
Mefenamic acid	Fenamate	RA, OA, PO, D		Moderate activity
Meloxicam	Oxicam	RA, OA, AS		Possibly fewer gastrointestinal effects
Nabumetone	Naphthylalkenone	RA, OA		Prodrug activated in liver
Naproxen	Propionate	RA, OA, G, MS, PO, D	Weakly COX-1 selective	
Parecoxib	Coxib	PO		Prodrug activated in liver
Piroxicam	Oxicam	RA, OA, G, MS, PO	Weakly COX-2 selective	
Sulindac	Indene	RA, OA, G, MS	Weakly COX-2 selective	Prodrug
Tenoxicam	Oxicam	RA, OA, MS		
Tiaprofenic acid	Propionate	RA, OA, MS		
Tolfenamic acid	Fenamate	H&M		

AS, ankylosing spondylitis; D, dysmenorrhoea; G, acute gout; H&M, headache and migraine; MS, musculoskeletal injuries and pain; OA, osteoarthritis; OTC, over-the-counter; PO, postoperative pain; RA, rheumatoid arthritis.
(Data from British National Formulary and Warner T D, Mitchell J A 2004 FASEB J 18: 790–804.)

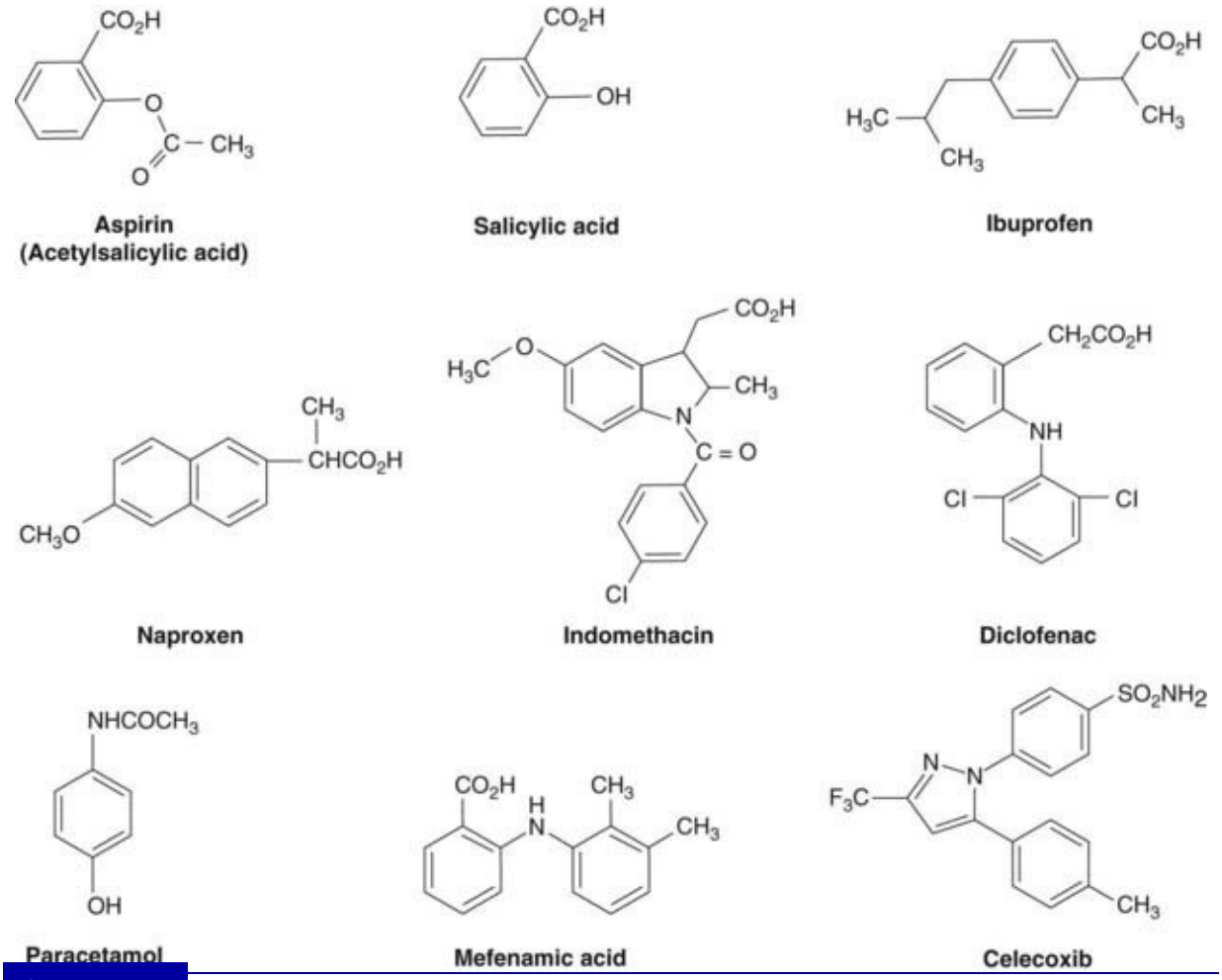


Fig. 26.1 Significant structural features of some nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and coxibs.

Aspirin contains an acetyl group that is responsible for the inactivation of the COX enzyme. Salicylic acid is the end product when aspirin is de-acetylated. Oddly it has antiinflammatory activity in its own right. Paracetamol is a commonly used analgesic agent also of simple structure. Most 'classic' NSAIDs are carboxylic acids. Coxibs (celecoxib shown here as an example), however, often contain sulfonamide or sulfone groups. These are important in the selectivity of the molecule as they impede access to the hydrophobic channel in the COX-1 enzyme (see Fig. 26.2).

[1]Here, we use the term NSAID to include the coxibs but this is not a convention always followed in the literature.

While there are differences between individual NSAIDs, their primary pharmacology is related to their shared ability to inhibit the *fatty acid*

COX enzyme, thereby inhibiting the production of prostaglandins and thromboxanes (see Ch. 17). There are two common isoforms of this enzyme, *COX-1* and *COX-2*. There may also be other COX enzymes that can generate prostaglandins but these have not been completely characterised. While COX-1 and COX-2 are closely related (> 60% sequence identity) and catalyse the same reaction, it is clear that there are important differences between the expression and role of these two isoforms. COX-1 is a *constitutive* enzyme expressed in most tissues, including blood platelets. It has a 'housekeeping' role in the body, being involved in tissue homeostasis, and is responsible for the production of prostaglandins involved in, for example, gastric cytoprotection (see Ch. 29), platelet aggregation (Ch. 24), renal blood flow autoregulation (Ch. 28) and the initiation of parturition (Ch. 34).

In contrast, COX-2 is *induced* in inflammatory cells when they are injured, infected or activated by, for example, the inflammatory cytokines—interleukin (IL)-1 and tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α (see Ch. 17). Thus the COX-2 isoform is mainly responsible for the production of the prostanoid mediators of inflammation (Vane & Botting, 2001), although there are some significant exceptions. For example, there is a considerable pool of 'constitutive' COX-2 present in the central nervous system (CNS) and some other tissues, although its function at these sites is not yet completely clear.

Most 'traditional' NSAIDs inhibit both COX-1 and COX-2, although they vary in the degree to which they inhibit each isoform. It is believed that the antiinflammatory action (and probably most analgesic and antipyretic actions) of the NSAIDs are related to inhibition of COX-2, while their unwanted effects—particularly those affecting the gastrointestinal tract—are largely a result of their inhibition of COX-1. Compounds with a selective inhibitory action on COX-2 are now in

clinical use, but while these drugs show fewer gastrointestinal side effects, they are by no means as well tolerated as was once hoped. This is partly because many patients taking these drugs have already been exposed to less selective inhibitors and have already suffered some gastrointestinal damage. As COX-2 seems to be important in healing and resolution, one can see how problems might still occur. There is also a concern about the cardiovascular effects of all NSAIDs when these are taken over a long time (see below). Some notes on the relative selectivity of some currently available NSAIDs and coxibs are given in Table 26.1.

▼ While the pharmacological actions of NSAIDs are broadly similar (although there are marked differences in toxicity and degree of patient tolerance), there are exceptions. **Aspirin** has other qualitatively different pharmacological actions (see below), and **paracetamol** is an interesting exception to the general NSAID 'stereotype'. While it is an excellent analgesic and antipyretic, its antiinflammatory activity is slight and seems to be restricted to a few special cases (e.g. inflammation following dental extraction; see Skjelbred et al., 1984). Paracetamol has been shown to inhibit prostaglandin biosynthesis in some experimental settings (e.g. during fever) but not in others. The main pharmacological actions and the common side effects of the NSAIDs are outlined below, followed by a more detailed coverage of aspirin and paracetamol and an outline of the pharmacology of the selective COX-2 inhibitors.

Cyclooxygenase inhibitors

These drugs have three major therapeutic actions, stemming from the suppression of prostanoid synthesis in inflammatory cells through inhibition of the cyclooxygenase (COX)-2 isoform of the arachidonic acid COX. They are as follows:

• *An antiinflammatory action*: the decrease in prostaglandin E_2 and prostacyclin reduces vasodilatation and, indirectly, oedema. Accumulation of inflammatory cells is not directly

reduced.

• *An analgesic effect*: decreased prostaglandin generation means less sensitisation of nociceptive nerve endings to inflammatory mediators such as bradykinin and 5-hydroxytryptamine. Relief of headache is probably a result of decreased prostaglandin-mediated vasodilatation.

• *An antipyretic effect*: interleukin-1 releases prostaglandins in the central nervous system, where they elevate the hypothalamic set point for temperature control, thus causing fever. NSAIDs prevent this.

Some important NSAIDs are **aspirin**, **ibuprofen**, **naproxen**, **indometacin**, **piroxicam** and **paracetamol**. Newer agents with more selective inhibition of COX-2 (and thus fewer adverse effects on the gastrointestinal tract) include **celecoxib** and **etoricoxib**.

Mechanism of Action

Vane and his colleagues established in 1971 that the main actions of NSAIDs were bought about through inhibition of arachidonic acid oxidation by the fatty acid COXs (see Fig. 26.2).

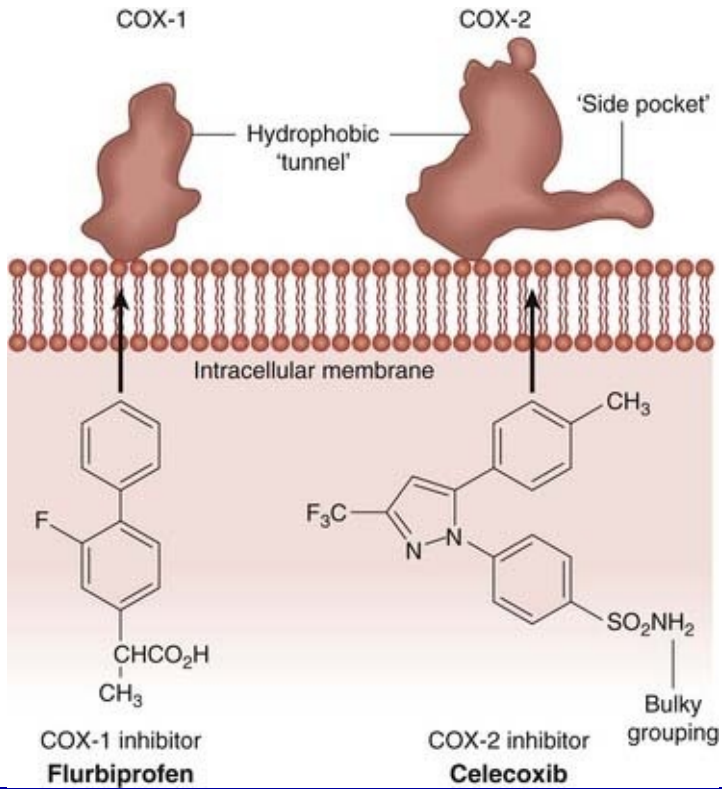


Fig. 26.2 Schematic diagram comparing the binding sites of cyclooxygenase (COX)-1 and COX-2.

The illustration shows the differences in NSAID binding sites in the two isoforms. Note that the COX-2 binding site is characterised by a 'side pocket' that can accommodate the bulky groups, such as the sulfonamide moiety of celecoxib, which would impede its access to the COX-1 site. Other NSAIDs, such as flurbiprofen (shown here), can enter the active site of either enzyme.

(After Luong et al. 1996 Nat Struct Biol 3: 927–933.)

▼ These are bifunctional enzymes, having two distinct catalytic activities. The first, dioxygenase step incorporates two molecules of oxygen into the arachidonic (or other fatty acid substrate) chain at C11 and C15, giving rise to the highly unstable endoperoxide intermediate PGG_2 with a hydroperoxy group at C15. A second, peroxidase function of the enzyme converts this to PGH_2 with a hydroxy group at C15 (see Ch. 17), which can then be transformed in a cell-specific manner by separate isomerase, reductase or synthase enzymes into other prostanoids. Both COX-1 and COX-2 are haem-containing enzymes that exist as

homodimers attached to intracellular membranes. Structurally, the isoforms are similar; both contain a hydrophobic channel into which the arachidonic or other substrate fatty acids dock so that the oxygenation reaction can proceed.

Most NSAIDs inhibit only the initial dioxygenation reaction. They are generally 'competitive reversible' inhibitors, but there are differences in their time courses. Generally, these drugs inhibit COX-1 rapidly, but the inhibition of COX-2 is more time-dependent and the inhibition is often irreversible. To block the enzymes, NSAIDs enter the hydrophobic channel, forming hydrogen bonds with an arginine residue at position 120, thus preventing substrate fatty acids from entering into the catalytic domain. However, a single amino acid change (isoleucine to valine at position 523) in the structure of the entrance of this channel in COX-2 results in a bulky side pocket that is not found in COX-1. This is important in understanding why some drugs, especially those with large sulphur-containing side groups, are more selective for the COX-2 isoform (Fig. 26.2). Aspirin is, however, an anomaly. It enters the active site and acetylates a serine at position 530, irreversibly inactivating COX. This is the basis for aspirin's long-lasting effects on platelets (see below).

Other actions besides inhibition of COX may contribute to the antiinflammatory effects of some NSAIDs. Reactive oxygen radicals produced by neutrophils and macrophages are implicated in tissue damage in some conditions, and some NSAIDs (e.g. **sulindac**) have oxygen radical-scavenging effects as well as COX inhibitory activity, so may decrease tissue damage. Aspirin also inhibits expression of the transcription factor NFκB (see Ch. 3), which has a key role in the transcription of the genes for inflammatory mediators.

Pharmacological Actions

All the NSAIDs have actions very similar to those of aspirin, the archetypal NSAID, which was introduced into clinical medicine in the 1890s. Their main pharmacological profile is listed in the clinical box.

Therapeutic Actions

AntiInflammatory Effects

As described in Chapter 17, many mediators coordinate inflammatory and allergic reactions. The NSAIDs reduce mainly those components of the inflammatory and immune response in which prostaglandins, mainly derived from COX-2, play a significant part. These include:

- *vasodilatation* (by reducing the synthesis of vasodilator prostaglandins)
- *oedema* (by an indirect action: the vasodilatation facilitates and potentiates the action of mediators such as histamine that increase the permeability of postcapillary venules; Ch. 17).

▼ While the NSAIDs suppress the signs and symptoms of inflammation, they have little or no action on underlying chronic disease itself. As a class, they are generally without direct effect on other aspects of inflammation, such as cytokine/chemokine release, leukocyte migration, lysosomal enzyme release and toxic oxygen radical production, which contribute to tissue damage in chronic inflammatory conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis, vasculitis and nephritis.

Antipyretic Effect

A centre in the hypothalamus that controls the balance between heat loss and heat production regulates normal body temperature. Fever occurs when there is a disturbance of this hypothalamic ‘thermostat’, which leads to the set point of body temperature being raised. NSAIDs ‘reset’ this thermostat. Once there has been a return to the normal set

point, the temperature-regulating mechanisms (dilatation of superficial blood vessels, sweating, etc.) then operate to reduce temperature. Normal body temperature in humans is not affected by NSAIDs.[2]

[2]With possible exception of paracetamol which has been used clinically to lower body temperature during surgery.

▼ The NSAIDs exert their antipyretic action largely through inhibition of prostaglandin production in the hypothalamus. During an inflammatory reaction, bacterial endotoxins cause the release from macrophages of IL-1 (Ch. 17), which stimulates the generation, in the hypothalamus, of E-type prostaglandins that elevate the temperature set point. COX-2 may have a role here, because IL-1 induces it in vascular endothelium in the hypothalamus. There is some evidence that prostaglandins are not the only mediators of fever, hence NSAIDs may have an additional antipyretic effect by mechanisms as yet unknown.

Analgesic Effect

The NSAIDs are effective against mild or moderate pain, especially that arising from inflammation or tissue damage. Two sites of action have been identified.

First, peripherally, they decrease production of prostaglandins that sensitise nociceptors to inflammatory mediators such as bradykinin (see Chs 17 and 41) and they are therefore effective in arthritis, bursitis, pain of muscular and vascular origin, toothache, dysmenorrhoea, the pain of postpartum states and the pain of cancer metastases in bone. All conditions are associated with increased local prostaglandin synthesis probably as a result of COX-2 induction. Alone, or in combination with opioids, they decrease postoperative pain and in some cases can reduce the requirement for opioids by as much as one-third. Their ability to relieve headache may be related to the reduction in vasodilator

prostaglandins acting on the cerebral vasculature.

In addition to these peripheral effects, there is a second, less well characterised central action, possibly in the spinal cord. Inflammatory lesions increase COX-2 and prostaglandin release within the cord, causing facilitation of transmission from afferent pain fibres to relay neurons in the dorsal horn.

Unwanted Effects

Overall, the burden of unwanted side effects is high, probably reflecting the fact that NSAIDs are used extensively in the more vulnerable elderly population, and often for extended periods of time. When used for joint diseases (which usually necessitates fairly large doses and long-continued use), there is a high incidence of side effects—particularly in the gastrointestinal tract but also in the liver, kidney, spleen, blood and bone marrow.

Because prostaglandins are involved in gastric cytoprotection, platelet aggregation, renal vascular autoregulation and induction of labour, among other effects, all NSAIDs share a broadly similar profile of mechanism-dependent side effects although there may be other additional unwanted effects peculiar to individual members of the group. COX-2-selective drugs have less, but not negligible, gastrointestinal toxicity (see below).

Gastrointestinal disturbances

Adverse gastrointestinal events are the commonest unwanted effects of the NSAIDs, and are believed to result mainly from inhibition of gastric COX-1, which is responsible for the synthesis of the prostaglandins that normally inhibit acid secretion and protect the mucosa (see Fig. 29.2).

These commonly include gastric discomfort, dyspepsia, diarrhoea (but

sometimes constipation), nausea and vomiting, and in some cases gastric bleeding and ulceration. It has been estimated that 34–46% of users of NSAIDs will sustain some gastrointestinal damage that, while it may be asymptomatic, carries a risk of serious haemorrhage and/or perforation (Fries, 1983). Severe gastrointestinal effects (perforations, ulcers or bleeding) are said to result in the hospitalisation of over 100 000 people per year in the USA. Some 15% of these patients die from this iatrogenic disease (Fries, 1998). Damage is seen whether the drugs are given orally or systemically. However, in some cases (aspirin being a good example), local damage to the gastric mucosa caused directly by the drug itself may compound the damage. Figure 26.3 gives the relative risks of gastrointestinal damage with some common NSAIDs. Oral administration of prostaglandin analogues such as **misoprostol** (see Ch. 29) can diminish the gastric damage produced by these agents.

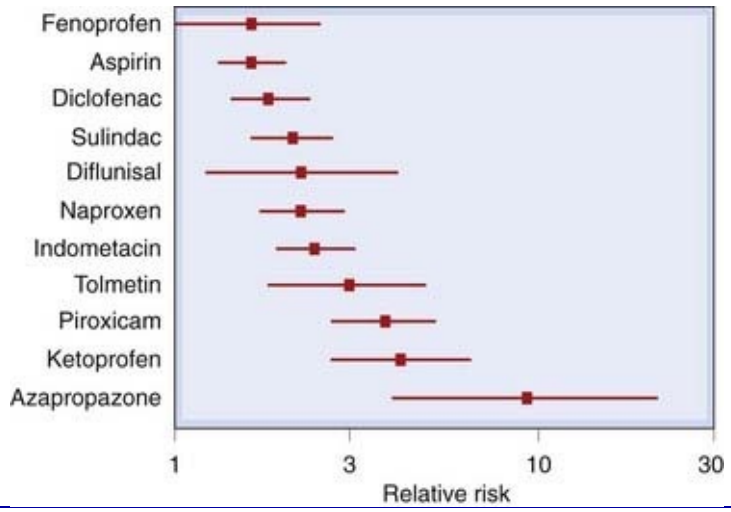


Fig. 26.3 The risk of gastrointestinal complications with various nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs.

The risk is shown relative to ibuprofen (relative risk = 1). Ibuprofen, given in a dose of 1200 mg daily, itself carries a risk double that of placebo. The lines represent 95% confidence intervals.

(From a figure by Hawkey, 2001; data derived from a meta-analysis of 12 comparative studies in Henry et al., 1996.)

Based on extensive experimental evidence, it had been predicted that COX-2-selective agents would provide good antiinflammatory and analgesic actions with less gastric damage, and some older drugs (e.g. **meloxicam**) that were believed to be better tolerated in the clinic turned out to have some COX-2 selectivity. Two large prospective studies compared the gastrointestinal side effects of celecoxib and rofecoxib with those of standard comparator NSAIDs in patients with arthritis and showed some benefit, although the results were not as clear-cut as had been hoped.

Other ideas have been proposed to explain the gastric side effects of NSAIDs. The administration of COX-1 inhibitors themselves causes COX-2 induction and, on the basis of experimental evidence, Wallace (2000) has argued that selective inhibitors of either isozyme will cause less gastric damage than non-selective drugs.

Skin reactions

Rashes are common idiosyncratic unwanted effects of NSAIDs, particularly with mefenamic acid (10–15% frequency) and sulindac (5–10% frequency). They vary from mild erythematous, urticarial and photosensitivity reactions to more serious and potentially fatal diseases including Stevens–Johnson syndrome (a blistering rash that extends into the gut), and toxic epidermal necrolysis,[3] characterised by widespread epithelial necrosis (fortunately rare). The mechanism is unclear.

[3]A horrible condition where skin peels away in sheets as if scalded.

Adverse renal effects

Therapeutic doses of NSAIDs in healthy individuals pose little threat to kidney function, but in susceptible patients they cause acute renal insufficiency, which is reversible on discontinuing the drug (see Ch. 57,

Table 57.1). This occurs through the inhibition of the biosynthesis of those prostanoids (PGE_2 and PGI_2; prostacyclin) involved in the maintenance of renal blood flow, specifically in the PGE_2-mediated compensatory vasodilatation that occurs in response to the action of noradrenaline (norepinephrine) or angiotensin II (see Ch. 28). Neonates and the elderly are especially at risk, as are patients with heart, liver or kidney disease, or a reduced circulating blood volume.

Chronic NSAID consumption, especially NSAID 'abuse',[4] can cause *analgesic nephropathy* characterised by chronic nephritis and renal papillary necrosis (Ch. 28). **Phenacetin**, now withdrawn, was the main culprit; paracetamol, one of its major metabolites, is much less toxic. Regular use of prescribed doses of NSAIDs is less hazardous for the kidney than heavy and prolonged use of over-the-counter analgesics in a social context (e.g. Swiss workers manufacturing watches would hand round analgesics in the same way as sharing sweets or cigarettes!).

[4]So called because the availability of NSAIDs in proprietary medicines over-the-counter, often in combination with other substances, such as caffeine, has tempted some people to consume them, often in prodigious quantities, for every conceivable malady.

Cardiovascular side effects

While it had been recognised for some time that NSAIDs could oppose the effects of some antihypertensive drugs, there is currently fresh concern about the potential of these drugs, when given alone, to raise blood pressure, and therefore predispose to adverse cardiovascular events such as stroke and myocardial infarction.

▼ This first arose during trials of the COX-2 inhibitor **rofecoxib**. Uncertainty about the cardiovascular risk posed by this drug during clinical trials led to the addition of a 'warning label' in 2002, but the

results from a later long-term trial designed to assess the anticancer activity of rofecoxib showed that the risk of cardiovascular events increased significantly after 18 months of drug treatment. As a result of this, the drug was withdrawn in 2004.

It now seems that adverse cardiovascular pharmacology, especially following prolonged use or in patients with pre-existing cardiovascular risk, may be an effect common to all NSAIDs, although some (e.g. **naproxen**) appear to be better tolerated in this respect than others (see Ray et al., 2009). At the time of writing it seems that the most likely explanation for this effect is that the hypertension is secondary to inhibition of COX-2 in the renin-secreting macula densa region of the kidney (Ch. 28). The hypertensive effect is dose-and time-dependent.

General unwanted effects of cyclooxygenase inhibitors

Unwanted effects, many stemming from inhibition of the constitutive housekeeping enzyme cyclooxygenase (COX)-1 isoform of COX, are common, particularly in the elderly, and include the following:

• *Dyspepsia, nausea, vomiting and other gastrointestinal effects*. Gastric and intestinal damage may occur in chronic users, with risk of haemorrhage, which can be life-threatening. The cause is suppression of gastroprotective prostaglandins in the gastric mucosa.

• *Skin reactions*. Mechanism unknown.

• *Reversible renal insufficiency*. Seen mainly in individuals with compromised renal function when the compensatory prostaglandin E_2-mediated vasodilatation is inhibited.

• *Adverse cardiovascular effects*. These can occur with many NSAIDs and coxibs and may be related to inhibition of COX-2 in the macula densa leading to hypertension.

• *'Analgesic-associated nephropathy'*. This can occur following long-term high-dose regimes of NSAIDs (e.g. paracetamol) and is often irreversible.

• *Liver disorders, bone marrow depression.* Relatively uncommon.

• *Bronchospasm.* Seen in 'aspirin-sensitive' asthmatics. Does not occur with coxibs.

Other unwanted effects

Approximately 5% of patients exposed to NSAIDs may experience *aspirin-sensitive asthma*. The exact mechanism is unknown, but inhibition of COX is implicated (see Ch. 27) and the presence of a sensitising, pre-existing viral infection may be the culprit. Aspirin is the worst offender, but there is cross-reaction with all other NSAIDs, except possibly COX-2 inhibitors (see Ch. 27). Other, much less common, unwanted effects of NSAIDs include CNS effects, bone marrow disturbances and liver disorders, the last being more likely if there is already renal impairment.[5] Paracetamol overdose causes liver failure (see below). All NSAIDs (except COX-2 inhibitors) prevent platelet aggregation and therefore may prolong bleeding. Again, aspirin is the main problem in this regard (see below).

[5]An odd side effect of the NSAID diclofenac came to light when a team of scientists investigated the curious decline in the population of several species of vulture in the Indian subcontinent. Dead cattle form an important part of the diet of these birds, and some animals had been treated with diclofenac for veterinary reasons. Apparently, residual amounts of the drug in the carcasses proved uniquely toxic to this species.

Some Important Nsaids and Coxibs

Table 26.1 lists commonly used NSAIDs, and the clinical uses of the NSAIDs are summarised in the clinical box.

Clinical uses of NSAIDs 

NSAIDs are widely used but cause serious adverse effects (especially gastrointestinal, renal, pulmonary and cardiovascular effects related to their main pharmacological actions, as well as idiosyncratic effects). Elderly patients and those with pre-existing disorders are at particular risk. The main uses are:

• *Antithrombotic*: *e.g.* **aspirin** (Ch. 24) for patients at high risk of arterial thrombosis (e.g. following myocardial infarction). (Other NSAIDs that cause less profound inhibition of platelet thromboxane synthesis than does aspirin, *increase* the risk of thrombosis and should be avoided in high-risk individuals if possible.)

• *Analgesia* (e.g. for headache, dysmenorrhoea, backache, bony metastases, postoperative pain):

– short-term use: *e.g.* aspirin, paracetamol, ibuprofen

– chronic pain: more potent, longer-lasting drugs (e.g. naproxen, piroxicam) often combined with a low-potency opioid (e.g. codeine, Ch. 41)

– to reduce the requirement for narcotic analgesics (e.g. ketorolac postoperatively).

• *Antiinflammatory*: *e.g.* **ibuprofen**, **naproxen** for symptomatic relief in rheumatoid arthritis, gout, soft tissue disorders.

• *Antipyretic*: **paracetamol**.

Aspirin

Aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid) was among the earliest drugs synthesised, and is still one of the most commonly consumed drugs worldwide. It is a common ingredient in many over-the-counter proprietary medicines. The drug itself is relatively insoluble, but its sodium and calcium salts are readily soluble.

While aspirin was previously thought of as an old antiinflammatory workhorse, it is seldom used for this purpose now, having been supplanted by other, better tolerated NSAIDs. Today, in addition to its

widespread use as an over-the-counter remedy, it is used clinically mainly as a cardiovascular drug because of its ability to provide a prolonged inhibition of platelet COX-1 and hence reduce aggregation.

▼ While inhibition of platelet function is a feature of most NSAIDs, the effect of aspirin is longer lasting. This is because it irreversibly acetylates COX enzymes, and while these proteins can be replaced in most cells, the platelet is not able to accomplish de novo protein synthesis. This means that a small dose of the drug can permanently inactivate platelets for their lifetime (approximately 10 days). Since a proportion of platelets is replaced each day from the bone marrow, this inhibition gradually abates but a small daily dose (e.g. 75 mg) is all that is required to suppress platelet function to levels which benefit patients at risk for myocardial infarction and other cardiovascular problems (Ch. 24). The view that even patients not at risk would benefit from taking the drug prophylactically (primary prevention) was challenged by a recent meta-analysis (Baigent et al., 2009) suggesting that in the normal population, the risk from gastrointestinal bleeding outweighs the protective action. Whether or not this is the case, the use of aspirin to prevent recurrence (secondary prevention) seems unassailable.

Aspirin has also been canvassed for other conditions. These include:

• *colonic and rectal cancer*: aspirin (and COX-2 inhibitors) may reduce some types of colorectal cancer

• *Alzheimer's disease*: this was suggested on the basis of epidemiological evidence, but so far, clinical trial results have been disappointing (Ch. 39)

• *radiation-induced diarrhoea.*

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Aspirin, being a weak acid, is protonated in the acid environment of the stomach, thus facilitating its passage across the mucosa. Most absorption, however, occurs in the ileum, because of the extensive surface area of the microvilli.

▼ Aspirin is rapidly (probably within 30 min) hydrolysed by esterases in plasma and tissues, particularly the liver, yielding **salicylate**. This compound itself has antiinflammatory actions (indeed, it was the original antiinflammatory from which aspirin was derived); the mechanism is not clearly understood, although it probably involves the COX system. Oral salicylate is no longer used for treating inflammation, although it is a component of some topical preparations. Approximately 25% of the salicylate is oxidised; some is conjugated to give the glucuronide or sulfate before excretion, and about 25% is excreted unchanged, the rate of excretion being higher in alkaline urine (see Ch. 8).

The plasma half-life of aspirin will depend on the dose, but the duration of action is not directly related to the plasma half-life because of the irreversible nature of the action of the acetylation reaction by which it inhibits COX activity.

Aspirin

Aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid) is the oldest nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drug. It acts by irreversibly inactivating both cyclooxygenase (COX)-1 and COX-2.

• In addition to its antiinflammatory actions, aspirin inhibits platelet aggregation, and its main clinical importance now is in the therapy of cardiovascular disease.

• It is given orally and is rapidly absorbed; 75% is metabolised in the liver.

• Elimination of its metabolite salicylate follows first-order kinetics with low doses (half-life

4 h), and saturation kinetics with high doses (half-life over 15 h).

• Unwanted effects:

– with therapeutic doses: some gastric bleeding (usually slight and asymptomatic) is common

– with large doses: dizziness, deafness and tinnitus ('salicylism'); compensated respiratory alkalosis may occur

– with toxic doses (e.g. from self-poisoning): uncompensated metabolic acidosis may occur, particularly in children

– aspirin has been linked with a rare but serious postviral encephalitis (Reye's syndrome) in children.

• If given concomitantly with warfarin, aspirin can cause a potentially hazardous increase in the risk of bleeding.

Unwanted effects

Salicylates (of which the main examples are aspirin, diflunisal and sulfasazine) may produce both local and systemic toxic effects. Aspirin shares many of the general unwanted effects of NSAIDs outlined above. In addition, there are certain specific unwanted effects that occur with aspirin and other salicylates.

• *Salicylism*, characterised by tinnitus, vertigo, decreased hearing and sometimes also nausea and vomiting, occurs with chronic overdosage of any salicylate.

• *Reye's syndrome*, a rare disorder of children that is characterised by hepatic encephalopathy following an acute viral illness and 20–40% mortality. Since the withdrawal of aspirin for paediatric use in the UK, the incidence of Reye's syndrome has fallen dramatically.

▼ Acute salicylate poisoning (a medical emergency, which occurs mainly in children and suicide attempts) causes major disturbance of

acid–base and electrolyte balance. These drugs can uncouple oxidative phosphorylation (mainly in skeletal muscle), leading to increased oxygen consumption and thus increased production of carbon dioxide. This stimulates respiration, which is also stimulated by a direct action of the drugs on the respiratory centre. The resulting hyperventilation causes a respiratory alkalosis that is normally compensated by renal mechanisms involving increased bicarbonate excretion. Larger doses can cause a depression of the respiratory centre, which leads eventually to retention of carbon dioxide and thus an increase in plasma carbon dioxide. Because this is superimposed on a reduction in plasma bicarbonate, an uncompensated respiratory acidosis will occur. This may be complicated by a metabolic acidosis, which results from the accumulation of metabolites of pyruvic, lactic and acetoacetic acids (an indirect consequence of interference with carbohydrate metabolism). Hyperpyrexia secondary to the increased metabolic rate is also likely to be present, and dehydration may follow repeated vomiting. In the CNS, initial stimulation with excitement is followed eventually by coma and respiratory depression. Bleeding can also occur, mainly as a result of depressed platelet aggregation.

Drug interactions

Aspirin may cause a potentially hazardous increase in the effect of **warfarin**, partly by displacing it from plasma proteins (Ch. 56) and partly because its effect on platelets interferes with haemostatic mechanisms (see Ch. 24). Aspirin also interferes with the effect of some antihypertensives and with uricosuric agents such as **probenecid** and **sulfinpyrazone**. Because low doses of aspirin may, on their own, reduce urate excretion (Ch. 28), it should not be used in gout.

Paracetamol

Paracetamol (called *acetaminophen* in the USA) is one of the most commonly used non-narcotic analgesic–antipyretic agents and is a component of many over-the-counter proprietary preparations. In some ways, the drug constitutes an anomaly: while it has excellent analgesic and antipyretic activity, which can be traced to inhibition of CNS prostaglandin synthesis, it has weak antiinflammatory activity (except in some specific instances) and does not share the gastric or platelet side effects of the other NSAIDs. For this reason, paracetamol is sometimes not classified as an NSAID at all. In man however, it is a selective though weak COX-2 inhibitor (Hinz et al 2008).

▼ A potential solution to this puzzle was supplied by the observation that a further COX isoform, COX-3 (an alternate splice product of COX-1) existed predominantly in the CNS of some species, and that paracetamol, as well as some other drugs with similar properties (e.g. **antipyrine** and **dipyrone**), were selective inhibitors of this enzyme (Chandrasekharan et al., 2002). This elegant idea is still under investigation. Alternative explanations for the ability of paracetamol selectively to inhibit COX in the CNS alone have been provided by Ouellet & Percival (2001) and Boutaud et al. (2002).

Paracetamol

Paracetamol is a commonly used drug available over-the-counter. It has potent analgesic and antipyretic actions but rather weaker antiinflammatory effects than other NSAIDs. It may act through inhibition of a central nervous system-specific cyclooxygenase (COX) isoform, although this is not yet conclusive.

• It is given orally and metabolised in the liver (half-life 2–4 h).

• Toxic doses cause nausea and vomiting, then, after 24–48 h, potentially fatal liver damage by saturating normal conjugating enzymes, causing the drug to be converted by mixed

function oxidases to *N*-acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine. If not inactivated by conjugation with glutathione, this compound reacts with cell proteins and kills the cell.

• Agents that increase glutathione (intravenous **acetylcysteine** or oral **methionine**) can prevent liver damage if given early.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Paracetamol is given orally and is well absorbed, with peak plasma concentrations reached in 30–60 min. The plasma half-life of therapeutic doses is 2–4 h, but with toxic doses it may be extended to 4–8 h. Paracetamol is inactivated in the liver, being conjugated to give the glucuronide or sulfate.

Unwanted effects

With therapeutic doses, side effects are few and uncommon, although allergic skin reactions sometimes occur. It is possible that regular intake of large doses over a long period may cause kidney damage.

Toxic doses (10–15 g) cause potentially fatal *hepatotoxicity*. This occurs when the liver enzymes catalysing the normal conjugation reactions are saturated, causing the drug to be metabolised instead by mixed function oxidases. The resulting toxic metabolite, N-*acetyl*-p-*benzoquinone imine*, is inactivated by conjugation with glutathione, but when glutathione is depleted the toxic intermediate accumulates and causes necrosis in the liver and also in the kidney tubules.

▼ The initial symptoms of acute paracetamol poisoning are nausea and vomiting, the hepatotoxicity being a delayed manifestation that occurs 24–48 h later. Further details of the toxic effects of paracetamol are given in Chapter 57. If the patient is seen sufficiently soon after ingestion, the liver damage can be prevented by giving agents that increase glutathione formation in the liver (**acetylcysteine**

intravenously, or **methionine** orally). If more than 12 h have passed since the ingestion of a large dose, the antidotes, which themselves can cause adverse effects (nausea, allergic reactions), are less likely to be useful. Regrettably, ingestion of large amounts of paracetamol is a common method of suicide.

Coxibs

Three coxibs are currently available for clinical use in the UK; others may be available elsewhere. Several have been withdrawn, and the overall licensing situation is somewhat volatile. Current advice restricts the use of coxibs to patients for whom treatment with conventional NSAIDs would pose a high probability of serious gastrointestinal side effects, and they are prescribed only after an assessment of cardiovascular risk. Gastrointestinal disturbances may still occur with these agents, perhaps because COX-2 has been implicated in the healing of pre-existing ulcers, so inhibition could delay recovery from earlier lesions.

Celecoxib and etoricoxib

Celecoxib and etoricoxib are licensed in the UK for symptomatic relief in the treatment of osteoarthritis and rheumatoid arthritis and some other conditions. Both are administered orally and have similar pharmacokinetic profiles, being well absorbed with peak plasma concentrations being achieved within 1–3 h. They are extensively (> 99%) metabolised in the liver, and plasma protein binding is high (> 90%).

Common unwanted effects may include headache, dizziness, skin rashes and peripheral oedema caused by fluid retention. Consideration should be given to the possibility of adverse cardiovascular events prior to administration. Because of the potential role of COX-2 in the healing

of ulcers, patients with pre-existing disease should avoid the drugs, if possible.

Parecoxib

Parecoxib is a prodrug of **valdecoxib**. The latter drug has now been withdrawn, but parecoxib is licensed for the short-term treatment of postoperative pain. It is given by intravenous or intramuscular injection, and is rapidly and virtually completely (> 95%) converted into the active valdecoxib by enzymatic hydrolysis in the liver. Maximum blood levels are achieved within approximately 30–60 min, depending on the route of administration. Plasma protein binding is high. The active metabolite, valdecoxib, is converted in the liver to various inactive metabolites, and has a plasma half-life of about 8 h.

Skin reactions, some of them serious, have been reported with the active metabolite valdecoxib, and patients should be monitored carefully. The drug should also be given with caution to patients with impaired renal function, and renal failure has been reported in connection with this drug. Postoperative anaemia may also occur.

Antirheumatoid Drugs

Arthritic disease is one of the commonest chronic inflammatory conditions in developed countries, and rheumatoid arthritis is a common cause of disability. One in three patients with rheumatoid arthritis is likely to become severely disabled. The joint changes, which are probably driven by an autoimmune reaction, involve inflammation, proliferation of the synovium and erosion of cartilage and bone. The primary inflammatory cytokines, IL-1 and TNF-α, have a major role in pathogenesis (Ch. 17). The pathogenesis of rheumatoid arthritis, and the action of therapeutic drugs, are summarised in Figure 26.4.

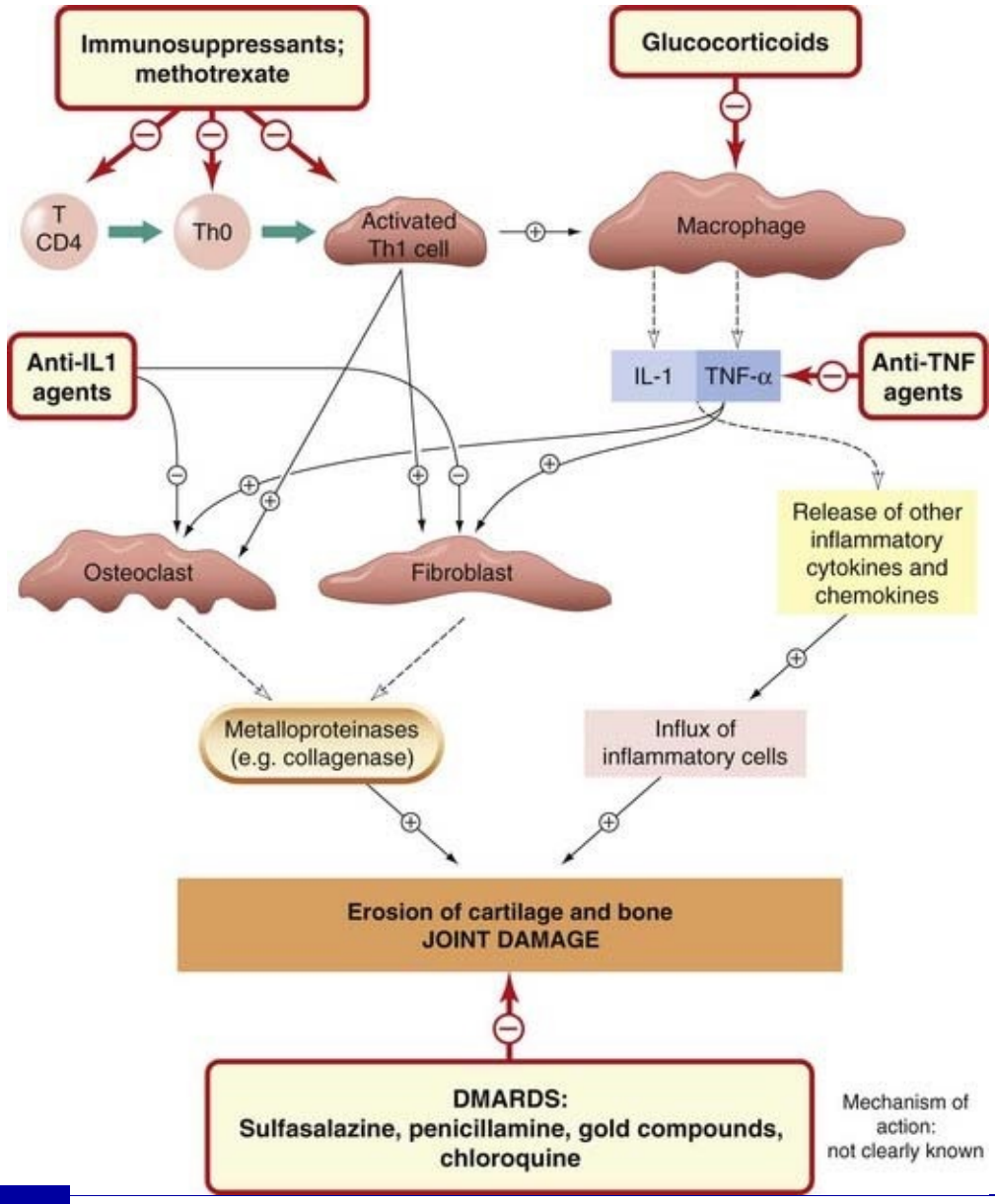


Fig. 26.4 A schematic diagram of the cells and mediators involved in the pathogenesis of rheumatoid joint damage, indicating the sites of action of antirheumatoid drugs.

DMARD, disease-modifying antirheumatic drug. For details of the anti-TNF, IL-1 and IL-2 receptor agents, see Table 26.3

The drugs most frequently used in initial therapy are the 'disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs' (DMARDs) and the NSAIDs. Unlike the NSAIDs, which reduce the symptoms but not the progress of the disease, the former group may halt or reverse the underlying disease itself.

Although such claims may be optimistic, these drugs are nevertheless useful in the treatment of discrete groups of patients, and Rau (2005) has argued for their continuing use even when the newer anticytokine agents are available. Some immunosuppressants (e.g. **azathioprine**, **ciclosporin**) are also used, as are the glucocorticoids (covered in Chs 3 and 32).

Disease-Modifying Antirheumatic Drugs

The term 'DMARD' is a latex concept that can be stretched to cover a heterologous group of agents with unrelated chemical structures and different mechanisms of action. Included in this category are **methotrexate**, **sulfasalazine**, **gold** compounds, **penicillamine** and **chloroquine** and other antimalarials (see Table 26.2) and various immunosuppressant drugs.

Table 26.2 Comparison of some common 'disease-modifying' and immunosuppressive drugs used in the treatment of the arthritides

Type	Drug	Indication	Severity	Comments
Gold complexes	Sodium aurothiomalate	RA, JRA		
	Auranofin	RA		
Antimalarials	Chloroquine	RA, SLE	Moderate	Used when other therapies fail
	Hydroxychloroquine sulfate	RA, SLE	Moderate	Also useful for some skin disorders
Immunomodulators	Methotrexate	RA, PS	Moderate to severe	A 'first-choice' drug Also used in Crohn's disease, psoriasis and cancer treatment
	Azathioprine	RA		Used when other therapies fail Also used in transplant rejection
	Ciclosporin	RA, AD, PS	Severe	Used when other therapies fail Also used in some skin diseases and transplant rejection
	Cyclophosphamide	RA	Severe	Used when other therapies fail
	Leflunamide	RA, PA	Moderate to severe	Also used in psoriatic arthritis
NSAID	Sulfasalazine	RA, PA		A 'first-choice' drug Also used in ulcerative colitis
Penicillin metabolite	Penicillamine	RA	Severe	

AD, atopic dermatitis; JRA, juvenile rheumatoid arthritis; NSAID, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug; PS, psoriasis; RA, rheumatoid arthritis; SLE, systemic lupus erythematosus.
(Data from various sources including the British National Formulary.)

▼ The antirheumatoid action of most of these agents was usually discovered through a mixture of serendipity and clinical intuition. When the drugs were introduced, nothing was known about their mechanism of action and decades of in vitro experiments have generally resulted in further bewilderment rather than understanding. DMARDs generally improve symptoms and can reduce disease activity in rheumatoid arthritis, as measured by reduction in the number of swollen and tender joints, pain score, disability score, X-ray appearance and serum concentration of acute-phase proteins and of rheumatoid factor (an immunoglobulin [Ig] M antibody against host IgG).

The DMARDs were often referred to as *second-line drugs*, with the implication that they are only resorted to when other therapies (e.g. NSAIDs) failed. Today, however, DMARD therapy may be initiated as soon as a definite diagnosis has been reached. Their clinical effects are usually slow (months) in onset, and it is usual to provide NSAID 'cover' during this induction phase. If therapy is successful (and the success rate is not invariably high), concomitant NSAID (or glucocorticoid) therapy can generally be dramatically reduced. Some DMARDs have a place in the treatment of other chronic inflammatory diseases, whereas others (e.g. penicillamine) are not thought to have a general antiinflammatory action. Putative mechanisms of action of DMARDs have been reviewed by Bondeson (1997) and Cutolo (2002).

Methotrexate

Methotrexate is a folic acid antagonist with cytotoxic and immunosuppressant activity (see below and Chs 49 and 55) and potent antirheumatoid action. It is a common first-choice drug. It has a more rapid onset of action than other DMARDs, but treatment must be closely monitored because of potential blood dyscrasias (some fatal) and liver

cirrhosis. It is, however, superior to most other DMARDs in terms of efficacy and unwanted effects, and is often given in conjunction with the anticytokine drugs.

Sulfasalazine

Sulfasalazine, a common first-choice DMARD in the UK, produces remission in active rheumatoid arthritis and is also used for chronic inflammatory bowel disease (see Ch. 29). It may act by scavenging the toxic oxygen metabolites produced by neutrophils. The drug is a complex of a sulfonamide (**sulfapyridine**) and salicylate. It is split into its component parts by bacteria in the colon, the **5-aminosalicylic** acid being the putative radical scavenger. It is poorly absorbed after oral administration. The common side effects include gastrointestinal disturbances, malaise and headache. Skin reactions and leucopenia can occur but are reversible on stopping the drug. The absorption of folic acid is sometimes impaired; this can be countered by giving folic acid supplements. A reversible decrease in sperm count has also been reported. As with other sulfonamides, bone marrow depression and anaphylactic-type reactions may occur in a few patients. Hematological monitoring may be necessary.

Penicillamine

Penicillamine is dimethylcysteine; it is produced by hydrolysis of **penicillin** and appears in the urine after treatment with that drug. The D-isomer is used in the therapy of rheumatoid disease. About 75% of patients with rheumatoid arthritis respond to penicillamine. In responders, therapeutic effects are seen within weeks but do not reach a plateau for several months. Penicillamine is thought to modify rheumatoid disease partly by decreasing the immune response, IL-1 generation and/or partly by an effect on collagen synthesis, preventing

the maturation of newly synthesised collagen. However, the precise mechanism of action is still a matter of conjecture. The drug has a highly reactive thiol group and also has metal-chelating properties, which are put to good use in the treatment of *Wilson's disease* (pathological copper deposition causing neurodegeneration) or heavy metal poisoning.

Penicillamine is given orally, and only half the dose administered is absorbed. It reaches peak plasma concentrations in 1–2 h and is excreted in the urine. Dosage is started low and increased only gradually to minimise unwanted effects.

Unwanted effects occur in about 40% of patients treated and may necessitate cessation of therapy. Rashes and stomatitis are the most common unwanted effects but may resolve if the dosage is lowered. Anorexia, fever, nausea and vomiting, and disturbances of taste (the last related to the chelation of zinc) are seen, but often disappear with continued treatment. Proteinuria occurs in 20% of patients and should be monitored. Hematological monitoring is also required when treatment is initiated. Thrombocytopenia may require lowering the dose. Leucopenia or aplastic anaemia are absolute contraindications, as are the various autoimmune conditions (e.g. thyroiditis, myasthenia gravis) that sometimes supervene. Because penicillamine is a metal chelator, it should not be given with gold compounds.

Gold Compounds

Gold is administered in the form of organic complexes; **sodium aurothiomalate** and **auranofin** are the two most common preparations. The effect of gold compounds develops slowly over 3–4 months. Pain and joint swelling subside, and the progression of bone and joint damage diminishes. The mechanism of action is not clear, but auranofin, although not aurothiomalate, inhibits the induction of IL-1 and TNF-α.

Sodium aurothiomalate is given by deep intramuscular injection; auranofin is given orally. The compounds gradually become concentrated in the tissues, not only in synovial cells in joints but also in liver cells, kidney tubules, the adrenal cortex and macrophages throughout the body. The gold complexes remain in the tissues for some time after treatment is stopped. Excretion is mostly renal, but some is eliminated in the gastrointestinal tract. The half-life is 7 days initially but increases with treatment, so the drug is usually given first at weekly, then at monthly intervals.

Unwanted effects with aurothiomalate are seen in about one-third of patients treated, and serious toxic effects in about 1 patient in 10. Unwanted effects with auranofin are less frequent and less severe. Important unwanted effects include skin rashes (which can be severe), mouth ulcers, non-specific flu-like symptoms, proteinuria, thrombocytopenia and blood dyscrasias. Encephalopathy, peripheral neuropathy and hepatitis can occur. If therapy is stopped when the early symptoms appear, the incidence of serious toxic effects is relatively low.

Antimalarial Drugs

Hydroxychloroquine and **chloroquine** are 4-amino-quinoline drugs used mainly in the prevention and treatment of malaria (Ch. 53), but they are also used as DMARDs. Chloroquine is usually reserved for cases where other treatments have failed. They are also used to treat another autoimmune disease, *lupus erythematosus*, but are contraindicated in patients with *psoriatic arthropathy* because they make the skin lesions worse. The related compound, **mepacrine**, is also sometimes used for discoid lupus. The antirheumatic effects do not appear until a month or more after the drug is started, and only about half the patients treated respond. The pharmacokinetic aspects and unwanted effects of

chloroquine are dealt with in Ch. 53; screening for ocular toxicity is particularly important.

Immunosuppressant Drugs

▼ Immunosuppressants are used in the therapy of autoimmune disease and also to prevent and/or treat transplant rejection. Because they impair immune responses, they carry the hazard of a decreased response to infections and may facilitate the emergence of malignant cell lines. However, the relationship between these adverse effects and potency in preventing graft rejection varies with different drugs. The clinical use of immunosuppresants is summarised in the clinical box.

Clinical uses of immunosuppressant drugs 

Immunosuppressant drugs are used by specialists, often in combination with glucorticoid and/or cytotoxic drugs:

• To slow the progress of rheumatoid and other arthritic diseases including psoriatic arthritis, ankylosis spondylitis, juvenile arthritis: disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs), *e.g.* **methotrexate**, **leflunomide**, **ciclosporin**; *cytokine modulators* (e.g. **adalimumab**, **etanercept**, **infliximab**) are used when the response to methotrexate or other DMARDs has been inadequate.

• To suppress rejection of transplanted organs, *e.g.* **ciclosporin**, **tacrolimus**, **sirolimus**.

• To suppress graft-versus-host disease following bone marrow transplantation, *e.g.* **ciclosporin**.

• In autoimmune disorders including idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura, some forms of haemolytic anaemias and of glomerulonephritis and myasthenia gravis.

• In severe inflammatory bowel disease (e.g. **ciclosporin** in ulcerative colitis, **infliximab** in Crohn's disease).

• In severe skin disease (e.g. **pimecrolimus**, **tacrolimus** for atopic eczema uncontrolled by maximal topical glucocorticoids; **etanercept**, **infliximab** for very severe plaque psoriasis which has failed to respond to methotrexate or ciclosporin).

Immunosuppressants

• Clonal proliferation of T-helper cells can be decreased through inhibition of transcription of interleukin (IL)-2: **ciclosporin**, **tacrolimus** and glucocorticoids act in this way.

• Ciclosporin and tacrolimus bind to cytosolic proteins (immunophilins) and produce their effects on gene transcription by inhibiting calcineurin or activating protein kinases.

• Ciclosporin and tacrolimus are given orally or intravenously; a common adverse effect is nephrotoxicity.

• For glucocorticoids, see separate box.

• DNA synthesis is inhibited by:

– **azathioprine**, through its active metabolite mercaptopurine

– **mycophenolate mofetil**, through inhibition of de novo purine synthesis.

• T cell signal transduction events are blocked by **basiliximab** and **daclizumab**, which are monoclonal antibodies against the α chain of the IL-2 receptor.

Most of these drugs act during the induction phase of the immunological response (see Ch. 6), reducing lymphocyte proliferation, although others also inhibit aspects of the effector phase. They can be roughly characterised as:

• drugs that inhibit IL-2 production or action (e.g. **ciclosporin**, **tacrolimus**)

• drugs that inhibit cytokine gene expression (e.g. the corticosteroids)

• drugs that inhibit purine or pyrimidine synthesis (e.g. **azathioprine**, **mycophenolate mofetil**).

Ciclosporin

Ciclosporin is a naturally occurring compound first found in fungus. It is a cyclic peptide of 11 amino acid residues (including some not found in animals) with potent immunosuppressive activity but no effect on the acute inflammatory reaction per se. Its unusual activity, which (unlike most earlier immunosuppressants) does not involve cytotoxicity, was discovered in 1972 and was crucial for the development of transplant surgery (for a detailed review, see Borel et al., 1996). The drug has numerous actions on several cell types; in general, the actions of relevance to immunosuppression are:

• *decreased clonal proliferation* of T cells, primarily by inhibiting IL-2 synthesis and possibly also by decreasing expression of IL-2 receptors

• *reduced induction*, and clonal proliferation, of cytotoxic T cells from $CD8^+$ precursor T cells

• *reduced function* of the effector T cells that are responsible for cell-mediated responses (e.g. decreased delayed-type hypersensitivity)

• *some reduction* of T cell-dependent B cell responses.

The main action is a relatively selective inhibitory effect on IL-2 gene transcription, although a similar effect on interferon (IFN)-γ and IL-3 has also been reported. Normally, interaction of antigen with a T-helper (Th) cell receptor results in increased intracellular Ca^{2+} (Chs 2 and 6), which in turn stimulates a phosphatase, *calcineurin*. This activates various transcription factors that initiate IL-2 transcription. Ciclosporin binds to *cyclophilin*, a cytosolic protein member of the immunophilins (a group of proteins that act as intracellular receptors for such drugs). The drug–

immunophilin complex binds to and inhibits *calcineurin* (a protein phosphatase that acts in opposition to the many protein kinases involved in signal transduction, see Ch. 3), thereby preventing activation of Th cells and production of IL-2 (Ch. 6).

Ciclosporin itself is poorly absorbed by mouth but can be given orally in a more readily absorbed formulation, or given by intravenous infusion. After oral administration, peak plasma concentrations are usually attained in about 3–4 h. The plasma half-life is approximately 24 h. Metabolism occurs in the liver, and most of the metabolites are excreted in the bile. Ciclosporin accumulates in most tissues at concentrations three to four times that seen in the plasma. Some of the drug remains in lymphomyeloid tissue and remains in fat depots for some time after administration has stopped.

The commonest and most serious unwanted effect of ciclosporin is nephrotoxicity, which is thought to be unconnected with calcineurin inhibition. It may be a limiting factor in the use of the drug in some patients (see also Ch. 57). Hepatotoxicity and hypertension can also occur. Less important unwanted effects include anorexia, lethargy, hirsutism, tremor, paraesthesia (tingling sensation), gum hypertrophy (especially when co-prescribed with calcium antagonists for hypertension; Ch. 22) and gastrointestinal disturbances. Ciclosporin has no depressant effects on the bone marrow.

Tacrolimus

Tacrolimus is a macrolide antibiotic of fungal origin with a very similar mechanism of action to ciclosporin, but higher potency. The main difference is that the internal receptor for this drug is not cyclophilin but a different immunophilin termed *FKBP* (FK-binding protein, so-called because tacrolimus was initially termed FK506). The tacrolimus–FKBP

complex inhibits calcineurin with the effects described above. It is mainly used in organ transplantation and severe atopic eczema. **Pimecrolimus** (used topically for atopic eczema) acts in a similar way. **Sirolimus** (used to prevent organ rejection after transplantation, and also in coating on stents to prevent restenosis; Ch. 22) also combines with an immunophilin, but activates a protein kinase to produce its immunosuppressant effect.

Tacrolimus can be given orally, by intravenous injection or as an ointment for topical use in inflammatory disease of the skin. It is 99% metabolised by the liver and has a half-life of approximately 7 h.

The unwanted effects of tacrolimus are similar to those of ciclosporin but are more severe. The incidence of nephrotoxicity and neurotoxicity is higher, but that of hirsutism is lower. Gastrointestinal disturbances and metabolic disturbances (hyperglycaemia) can occur. Thrombocytopenia and hyperlipidaemia have been reported but decrease when the dosage is reduced.

Azathioprine

Azathioprine interferes with purine synthesis and is cytotoxic. It is widely used for immunosuppression, particularly for control of autoimmune diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and to prevent tissue rejection in transplant surgery. This drug is metabolised to give mercaptopurine, a purine analogue that inhibits DNA synthesis (see Ch. 55). Both cell-mediated and antibody-mediated immune reactions are depressed by this drug, because it inhibits clonal proliferation during the induction phase of the immune response (see Ch. 6) through a cytotoxic action on dividing cells. As is the case with mercaptopurine itself, the main unwanted effect is depression of the bone marrow. Other toxic effects are nausea and vomiting, skin eruptions and a mild

hepatotoxicity.

Mycophenolate Mofetil

Mycophenolate mofetil is a semisynthetic derivative of a fungal antibiotic used for preventing organ rejection. In the body, it is converted to *mycophenolic acid*, which restrains proliferation of both T and B lymphocytes and reduces the production of cytotoxic T cells by inhibiting *inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase*, an enzyme crucial for de novo purine biosynthesis in both T and B cells (other cells can generate purines through another pathway), so the drug has a fairly selective action. It is mainly used to curtail transplant rejection.

Mycophenolate mofetil is given orally and is well absorbed. Magnesium and aluminium hydroxides impair absorption, and **colestyramine** reduces plasma concentrations. The metabolite mycophenolic acid undergoes enterohepatic cycling and is eliminated by the kidney as the inactive glucuronide. Unwanted gastrointestinal effects are common.

Leflunomide

Leflunomide has a relatively specific inhibitory effect on activated T cells. It is transformed to a metabolite that inhibits de novo synthesis of pyrimidines by inhibiting *dihydro-orotate dehydrogenase*. It is orally active and well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. It has a long plasma half-life, and the active metabolite undergoes enterohepatic circulation. Unwanted effects include diarrhoea, alopecia, raised liver enzymes and indeed a risk of hepatic failure. The long half-life increases the risk of cumulative toxicity.

Glucocorticoids

Immunosuppression by glucocorticoids involves both their effects on the

immune response and their antiinflammatory actions. These are described in Chapter 32, and the sites of action of the agents on cell-mediated immune reactions are indicated in Figure 26.4. Glucocorticoids are immunosuppressant chiefly because, like ciclosporin, they restrain the clonal proliferation of Th cells, through decreasing transcription of the gene for IL-2. However, they also decrease the transcription of many other cytokine genes (including those for TNF-α, IFN-γ, IL-1 and many other interleukins) in both the induction and effector phases of the immune response. The synthesis and release of antiinflammatory proteins (e.g. annexin 1, protease inhibitors, etc.) is also increased. These effects on transcription are mediated through inhibition of the action of transcription factors, such as *activator protein-1* and *NFκB*.

Anticytokine Drugs and Other Biopharmaceuticals

The drugs in this section probably represent the greatest technological and conceptual breakthrough in the treatment of severe chronic inflammation for decades (see Maini, 2005). By their use, treatment can, for the first time, be targeted at specific aspects of the disease processes in rheumatoid arthritis and other inflammatory diseases. The drugs are *biopharmaceuticals*, that is to say, they are engineered recombinant antibodies and other proteins (see Ch. 59). As such, they are difficult and expensive to produce, and this limits their use. In the UK, their use (in the National Health Service) is generally restricted to patients who do not respond adequately to other DMARD therapy and they are usually provided under specialist supervision only. Some of these drugs are administered in combination with methotrexate.

The drugs currently available, and some of their characteristics and indications, are shown in Table 26.3. **Adalimumab**, **etanercept** and **infliximab** target TNF-α; **anakinra** targets IL-1. **Rituximab**, **abatacept**,

natalizumab and **efalizumab** target receptors on leukocytes, disrupting immune signalling or cell trafficking or other functions. While they are not used for treating arthritis, **basiliximab** and **daclizumab** are included in the table as they act to prevent the rejection of transplanted organs in a similar way—by blocking the IL-2 receptor and suppressing T cell proliferation.

Table 26.3 Biologics used in the treatment of inflammatory disease

Drug	Type	Target	Indication
Adalimumab	Humanised monoclonal ab	TNF (neutralises)	RA (moderate–severe), PA, AS, PP, CD
Etanercept	Fusion protein (soluble TNF receptor/Ig)	TNF (decoy receptor)	RA (moderate–severe), PA, AS, PP
Infliximab	Chimeric ab	TNF (neutralises)	RA[a] (moderate–severe), PA, AS, PP
Rituximab	Chimeric monoclonal ab	CD20 (B cells: receptor antagonist)	RA[a] (moderate–severe), some malignancies
Anakinra	Recombinant protein	IL-1 (receptor antagonist)	RA[a] (moderate–severe)
Abatacept	Fusion protein	B7 (antigen presenting cells)	RA[a] (moderate–severe)
Efalizumab	Humanised monoclonal ab	CD11a (leukocytes: neutralises)	PP (moderate–severe)
Basiliximab	Chimeric monoclonal ab	IL-2 receptor antagonist (lymphocytes)	Transplantation surgery
Daclizumab	Humanised monoclonal ab	IL-2 receptor antagonist (lymphocytes)	Transplantation surgery
Natalizumab	Humanised monoclonal ab	VLA-4 on lymphocytes (neutralises)	Severe multiple sclerosis

[a] Used in conjunction with methotrexate.
ab, antibody; AS, ankylosing spondylitis; CD, Crohn's disease; PA, psoriatic arthritis; PP, plaque psoriasis (e.g. skin); RA, rheumatoid arthritis.

There is debate over the precise target of the anti-TNF agents. Some target both soluble and membrane-bound forms of TNF whereas others are more selective. Antibodies that target membrane-bound TNF (infliximab and adalimumab) may kill the host cell by complement-induced lysis. This produces a different quality of effect than simple immunoneutralisation of the soluble mediator (by, for example, etanercept). This fact is probably the reason why some of these drugs exhibit a slightly different pharmacological profile despite apparently acting through the same mechanism (see Arora et al., 2009, for further details).

As proteins, none of these drugs can be given orally. Administration is usually by subcutaneous injection or intravenous infusion and their pharmacokinetic profiles vary enormously. Dosing regimes differ but anakinra is usually given daily, efalizumab and etanercept once or twice per week, adalimumab, infliximab and rituximab every 2 weeks, and abatacept and natalizumab every month. Sometimes a loading dose of these drugs is given as a preliminary to regular administration. Some patients to not respond for reasons that are not entirely clear and therapy is generally discontinued if no therapeutic benefit is evident within a defined time span (usually 2–4 weeks).

Cytokines are crucial to the regulation of host defence systems (see Ch. 17), and leukocytes are key players in its functioning and execution. One might predict, therefore, that anticytokine or antileukocyte therapy—like any treatment that interferes with immune function—may precipitate latent disease (e.g. tuberculosis and hepatitis B) or encourage opportunistic infections. Reports suggest that this may be a problem with adalimumab, etanercept, infliximab, natalizumab and rituximab. The area has been reviewed by Bongartz et al. (2006). Another unexpected, but fortunately rare, effect seen with these drugs is the onset of psoriasis-like syndrome (Fiorino et al., 2009). Hypersensitivity, injection site reactions or mild gastrointestinal symptoms may be seen with any of these drugs.

Drugs Used in Gout

Gout is a metabolic disease in which plasma urate concentration is raised. Sometimes this is linked to overindulgence in alcoholic beverages, especially beer, or purine-rich foods such as offal. Increased cell turnover in haematological malignancies, particularly after treatment with cytotoxic drugs (see Ch. 55), or impaired excretion of

uric acid are other causes. It is characterised by very painful intermittent attacks of acute arthritis produced by the deposition of crystals of sodium urate (a product of purine metabolism) in the synovial tissue of joints and elsewhere. An inflammatory response is evoked, involving activation of the kinin, complement and plasmin systems (see Ch. 17 and Fig. 6.1), generation of lipoxygenase products such as leukotriene B_4 (Fig. 17.1), and local accumulation of neutrophil granulocytes. These engulf the crystals by phagocytosis, releasing tissue-damaging toxic oxygen metabolites and subsequently causing lysis of the cells with release of proteolytic enzymes. Urate crystals also induce the production of IL-1 and possibly other cytokines.

Drugs used to treat gout act in the following ways:

• By inhibiting uric acid synthesis (**allopurinol**, the main prophylactic drug).

• By increasing uric acid excretion (uricosuric agents: **probenecid**, **sulfinpyrazone**).

• By inhibiting leukocyte migration into the joint (**colchicine**).

• By a general antiinflammatory and analgesic effect (NSAIDs and occasionally glucocorticoids).

Their clinical uses are summarised in the clinical box, below.

Drugs used in gout and hyperuricaemia

• To treat acute gout:

– an NSAID, *e.g.* **ibuprofen**, **naproxen**

– **colchicine** is useful if NSAIDs are contraindicated

– a glucocorticoid, *e.g.* **hydrocortisone** (oral, intramuscular or intra-articular) is another alternative to an NSAID.

• For prophylaxis (must not generally be started until the patient is asymptomatic):

– **allopurinol**

– a uricosuric drug (e.g. **probenecid**, **sulphinpyrazone**), for patients allergic to allopurinol

– **rasburicase** by intravenous infusion for prevention and treatment of acute hyperuricaemia in patients with haematological malignancy at risk of rapid lysis.

Allopurinol

Allopurinol is an analogue of hypoxanthine that reduces the synthesis of uric acid by competitive inhibition of *xanthine oxidase* (Fig. 26.5). It is first converted to alloxanthine by xanthine oxidase, and this metabolite, which remains in the tissue for a considerable time, is an effective non-competitive inhibitor of the enzyme. Some inhibition of de novo purine synthesis also occurs.

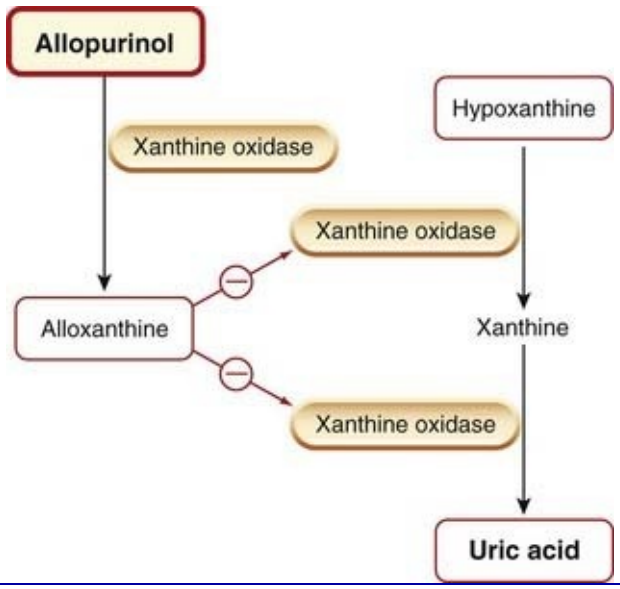


Fig. 26.5 Inhibition of uric acid synthesis by allopurinol (see text for details).

Allopurinol reduces the concentration of the relatively insoluble urates and uric acid in tissues, plasma and urine, while increasing the concentration of their more soluble precursors, the xanthines and

hypoxanthines. The deposition of urate crystals in tissues (*tophi*) is reversed, and the formation of renal stones is inhibited. Allopurinol is the drug of choice in the long-term treatment of gout, but it is ineffective in the treatment of an acute attack and may even exacerbate the inflammation.

Allopurinol is given orally and is well absorbed. Its half-life is 2–3 h: its active metabolite alloxanthine (Fig. 26.5) has a half-life of 18–30 h. Renal excretion is a balance between glomerular filtration and probenecid-sensitive tubular reabsorption.

Unwanted effects are few. Gastrointestinal disturbances, allergic reactions (mainly rashes) and some blood problems can occur but usually disappear if the drug is stopped. Potentially fatal skin diseases such as Stevens–Johnson syndrome are rare—but devastating. Re-challenge under these circumstances is never justified. Acute attacks of gout occur commonly during the early stages of therapy (possibly as a result of physicochemical changes in the surfaces of urate crystals as these start to re-dissolve), so treatment with allopurinol is never initiated during an acute attack and is usually combined with an NSAID initially.

Allopurinol increases the effect of **mercaptopurine**, an antimetabolite used in cancer chemotherapy (Ch. 55), and also that of **azathioprine** (an immunosuppressant used to prevent transplant rejection; see below), which is metabolised to mercaptopurine. Allopurinol also enhances the effect of another anticancer drug, **cyclophosphamide** (Ch. 55). The effect of **warfarin** is increased because its metabolism is inhibited.

Uricosuric Agents

Uricosuric drugs increase uric acid excretion by a direct action on the renal tubule (see Ch. 28). Common drugs used are **probenecid** and **sulfinpyrazone**. **Benzbromarone** is also available on a named patient

basis for treatment of patients with renal impairment. They remain useful as prophylaxis for patients with severe recurrent gout who have severe adverse reactions to allopurinol. Sulfinpyrazone also has NSAID activity. Treatment with uricosuric drugs is initiated with an NSAID, as for allopurinol. Aspirin and salicylates antagonise the action of uricosuric drugs and should not be used concurrently.

Although not strictly speaking in this group, **rasburicase**, a preparation containing the enzyme *uric acid oxidase*, is sometimes used for aggressive treatment. It oxidises uric acid in the blood to allantoin, which is more soluble and thus more readily excreted.

Colchicine

Colchicine is an alkaloid extracted from the autumn crocus. It has a specific effect in gouty arthritis and can be used both to prevent and to relieve acute attacks. It prevents migration of neutrophils into the joint by binding to *tubulin*, resulting in the depolymerisation of the microtubules and reduced cell motility. Colchicine-treated neutrophils develop a 'drunken walk'. Colchicine may also prevent the production of a putative inflammatory glycoprotein by neutrophils that have phagocytosed urate crystals, and other mechanisms may also be important in bringing about its effects.

Colchicine is given orally, and is excreted partly in the gastrointestinal tract and partly in the urine.

The acute unwanted effects of colchicine are largely gastrointestinal and include nausea, vomiting and abdominal pain. Severe diarrhoea[6] may be a problem, and with large doses may be associated with gastrointestinal haemorrhage and kidney damage. Prolonged treatment can, rarely, cause blood dyscrasias, rashes or peripheral neuropathy.

[6]Because the therapeutic margin is so small, it used to be said by

rheumatologists that ‘patients must run before they can walk’.

Antagonists of Histamine

There are three groups: H_1, H_2 and H_3 receptor antagonists. The first group was introduced by Bovet and his colleagues in the 1930s, at a time when histamine receptors had not been classified (indeed, this was possible only *because* these agents were available). For historical reasons, then, the generic term *antihistamine* conventionally refers only to the H_1 receptor antagonists that are used for treating various inflammatory and allergic conditions, and it is these drugs that are discussed in this section. The main clinical effect of H_2 receptor antagonists is inhibition of gastric secretion (see Ch. 29). Several H_3 receptor agonists and antagonists are now available, and the potential for their clinical use (mainly in CNS conditions) is being explored.

H_1 Receptor Antagonists (Antihistamines)

Details of some typical systemic H_1 receptor antagonists are shown in Table 26.4. In addition to these there are several others that are primarily used topically (e.g. in nasal sprays or eye drops) in the treatment of hay fever and other allergic symptoms. These include **antazoline**, **azelastine**, **epinastine**, **ketotifen**, **olapatadine** and **emadastine**. In addition to H_1 antagonist activities, some of these drugs (e.g. ketotifen) may also have ‘mast cell stabilising’ and other antiinflammatory properties unrelated to histamine antagonism (see Assanasen & Naclerio, 2002).

Table 26.4 Comparison of some commonly used systemic H_1 receptor antagonists

Drug	Type	Common use	Comments
Cetirizine	Non-sedating	H, U	
Desloratadine	Non-sedating	H, U	'Cardio-safe' metabolite of loratadine
Fexofenadine	Non-sedating	H, U	'Cardio-safe' metabolite of terfenidine
Levocetrizine	Non-sedating	H, U	Isomer of cetirizine
Loratadine	Non-sedating	H, U	
Mizolastine	Sedating	H, U	May cause QT interval prolongation
Alimemazine	Sedating	U	Used for anaesthetic premedication
Clorphenamine	Sedating	H, U, AE	
Clemastine	Sedating	H, U	
Cyproheptadine	Sedating	H, U	Also used for migraine
Hydroxyzine	Sedating	U,	Also used to treat anxiety
Promethazine	Sedating	H, U, AE, S	Also used to treat motion sickness
Cinnarizine	Sedating	–	Used to treat nausea, vomiting, motion sickness
Cyclizine	Sedating	–	Used to treat nausea, vomiting, motion sickness

AE, allergic emergency (e.g. anaphylactic shock); H, hay fever; S, sedation; U, urticaria and/or pruritus.
(From *British National Formulary*.)

Pharmacological actions

Conventionally, the antihistamines are divided into 'first-generation' drugs, that cross the blood–brain barrier and have sedating actions, and 'second-generation' drugs, which do not. Some second-generation agents (e.g. **terfenadine**) exhibited some cardiac toxicity (torsade de pointes, see Ch. 21). While the risk was extremely low, it was increased when the drug was taken with grapefruit juice or with agents that inhibit cytochrome P450 in the liver (see Chs 9 and 56). These drugs were withdrawn and replaced by 'third-generation' 'cardio-safe' drugs (often active metabolites of the original drugs, *e.g.* **fexofenadine**).

▼ Pharmacologically, many of the actions of the H_1 receptor antagonists follow from the actions of histamine outlined in Ch. 17. In vitro, for example, they decrease histamine-mediated contraction of the smooth muscle of the bronchi, the intestine and the uterus. They inhibit histamine-induced increases in vascular permeability and bronchospasm in the guinea pig in vivo, but are unfortunately of little value in allergic

bronchospasm in humans. The clinical uses of H_1 receptor antagonists are summarised in the clinical box, opposite.

Clinical uses of histamine H_1 receptor antagonists

- Allergic reactions (see Ch. 16):
  - – non-sedating drugs (e.g. **fexofenadine**, **cetirizine**) are used for allergic rhinitis (hay fever) and urticaria
  - – topical preparations may be used for insect bites
  - – injectable formulations are useful as an adjunct to adrenaline (epinephrine) for severe drug hypersensitivity reactions and emergency treatment of anaphylaxis.
- As antiemetics (see Ch. 29):
  - – prevention of motion sickness (e.g. **cyclizine**, **cinnarizine**)
  - – other causes of nausea, especially labyrinthine disorders.
- For sedation (see Ch. 43, *e.g.* **promethazine**).

The CNS 'side effects' of some older H_1 receptor antagonists are sometimes more clinically useful than the peripheral H_1 antagonist effects. Some are fairly strong sedatives and may be used for this action (e.g. **clorphenamine**; see Table 26.4). Several are antiemetic and are used to prevent motion sickness (e.g. **promethazine**; see Ch. 29).

Several H_1 receptor antagonists show weak blockade of α_1-adrenoceptors (an example is the phenothiazine promethazine). **Cyproheptadine** is a 5-hydroxytryptamine antagonist as well as an H_1 receptor antagonist.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Most H_1 receptor antagonists are well absorbed when given orally, and remain effective for 3–6 h, although there are exceptions. Most appear to

be widely distributed throughout the body, but some do not penetrate the blood–brain barrier, for example the non-sedative drugs mentioned above (see Table 26.4). They are mainly metabolised in the liver and excreted in the urine.

When antihistamines are used to treat allergies, the sedative CNS effects are generally unwanted, but there are other occasions (e.g. in small children approaching bedtime) when such effects are more desirable. Even under these circumstances, other CNS effects, such as dizziness and fatigue, are unwelcome.

Many antihistamines have peripheral antimuscarinic side effects. The commonest of these is dryness of the mouth, but blurred vision, constipation and retention of urine can also occur. Unwanted effects that are not mechanism based are also seen; gastrointestinal disturbances are fairly common, while allergic dermatitis can follow topical application.

Possible Future Developments

Undoubtedly the most exciting area of current development is in 'biologicals' (see Ch. 59). The success of the anti-TNF agents has been very gratifying and the skilful use of recombinant and protein engineering to produce antibodies that neutralise inflammogens or block key leukocyte receptors or adhesion molecules is likely to continue. Particularly encouraging has been the news that early clinical results using rituximab and methotrexate in combination may actually abort the development of rheumatoid arthritis if given early enough. Several other biologics are in advanced state of clinical testing including **toclizumab** (anti-IL6), **certilizumab-pegol** (anti-TNF), **golimumab** (anti-TNF), **ofatumumab** (anti-CD 20) and **ocrelizumab** (anti-CD 20). The main problem with this sector is not the efficacy of the drugs but their cost and lack of oral availability, which places a severe strain on budgets and

prevents them from being used as a first-line therapy. Hopefully, ways will be found to reduce the cost of production and development in this important technology.

Clearly a low-cost alternative to a neutralising anti-TNF antibody would be a welcome development. *TNF converting enzyme (TACE)* cleaves membrane-bound TNF thus releasing the soluble active form and so might be an attractive target. A number of putative small-molecule inhibitors of this enzyme are in phase II clinical trials and the results are awaited (see Moss et al., 2008, for a review).

A major blow to the NSAID area (and indeed to the pharmaceutical industry in general) has been the recent controversy surrounding the increased incidence of coronary thrombosis in patients taking COX-2 inhibitors and the withdrawal of some prominent members of this class for this and other reasons. The emerging evidence that 'traditional' NSAIDs may also have similar cardiovascular side effects has cast a pall over our existing therapies.[7] At the time of writing, it is too early to say exactly how this awkward situation will be resolved (see Ray et al., 2009).

[7]This does not, of course, apply to low-dose aspirin.

One of the few innovations in the beleaguered NSAID area has been the design and synthesis of nitric oxide (NO)-NSAIDs—conventional NSAIDs that have NO-donating groups attached to them by ester linkages. The ability of these drugs to release NO following hydrolysis in plasma and tissue fluid is aimed at reducing the risk of ulcerogenic events and increasing the antiinflammatory activity, presumably due to the beneficial effects of low concentrations of NO (see Ch. 20). Some of these drugs (e.g. **naproxcinod**, a derivative of naproxen) are currently in clinical trial (see Stefano & Distrutti, 2007). Yedgar et al. (2007)

discuss some alternative approaches to manipulating the production or action of eicosanoid mediators of inflammation.

References and Further Reading

NSAIDs and coxibs

aigent C.L., Blackwell L., Collins R., *et al.* Aspirin in the primary and secondary prevention of vascular disease: collaborative meta-analysis of individual participant data from randomised trials. *Lancet*. 2009;373:1849-1860. *(An important study of the use of aspirin in the prevention of cardiovascular disease. Likely to be widely influential)*

azan N.G. COX-2 as a multifunctional neuronal modulator. *Nat. Med.*. 2001;7:414-415. *(Succinct treatment of possible role of COX-2 in the CNS; useful diagrams)*

oers M. NSAIDs and selective COX-2 inhibitors: competition between gastroprotection and cardioprotection. *Lancet*. 2001;357:1222-1223. *(Editorial analysing crisply the results of two major randomised double-blind studies of gastrointestinal toxicity of selective COX-2 inhibitors as compared with non-selective NSAIDs)*

outaud O., Aronoff D.M., Richardson J.H., *et al.* Determinants of the cellular specificity of acetaminophen as an inhibitor of prostaglandin H_2 synthases. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 2002;99:7130-7135. *(Proposes a solution to the paracetamol mystery: read together with Ouellet et al., 2001, below)*

handrasekharan N.V., Dai H., Roos K.L., *et al.* COX-3, a cyclooxygenase-1 variant inhibited by acetaminophen and other analgesic/antipyretic drugs: cloning, structure, and expression. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*. 2002;99:13926-13931. *(A new COX isozyme is described: COX-3. In humans, the COX-3 mRNA is expressed most abundantly in cerebral cortex and heart. It is selectively inhibited by analgesic/antipyretic drugs such as paracetamol and is inhibited by some other NSAIDs)*

itzGerald G.A., Patrono C. The coxibs, selective inhibitors of cyclooxygenase-2. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;345:433-442. *(Excellent coverage of the selective COX-2 inhibitors)*

lower R.J. The development of COX-2 inhibitors. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2003;2:179-191. *(Reviews*

the work that led up to the development of the COX-2 inhibitors; several useful diagrams)

ries J.F. Measuring the quality of life in relation to arthritis therapy. *Postgrad. Med.*. 1983;May:49-56.

ries J.F. Quality-of-life considerations with respect to arthritis and nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs. *Am. J. Med.*. 1998;104:14S-20S. discussion 21S–22S

arris R.E., Beebe-Donk J., Doss H., Burr Doss D. Aspirin, ibuprofen, and other nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs in cancer prevention: a critical review of non-selective COX-2 blockade. *Oncol. Rep.*. 2005;13:559-583. *(This is an interesting paper that deals with the use of NSAIDs in the treatment of cancer; this is fast emerging as an alternative arena for NSAID therapy)*

awkey C.J. Gastrointestinal toxicity of nonsteroid antiinflammatory drugs. In: Vane J.R., Botting R.M., editors. *Therapeutic roles of selective COX-2 inhibitors*. London: William Harvey Press; 2001:355-394. *(Clear, detailed account of the adverse effects of NSAIDs)*

enry D., Lim L.L., Garcia Rodriguez L.A., *et al.* Variability in risk of gastrointestinal complications with individual nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs: results of a collaborative meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 1996;312:1563-1566. *(Substantial analysis of the gastrointestinal effects of non-selective NSAIDs)*

inz B., Cheremina O., Brune K. Acetaminophen (paracetamol) is a selective cyclooxgenase-2 inhibitor in man. *FASEB J.*. 2008;22:383-390.

uong C., Miller A., Barnett J., *et al.* Flexibility of the NSAID binding site in the structure of human cyclooxygenase-2. *Nat. Struct. Biol.*. 1996;3:927-933. *(An important research paper detailing the crystal structure of COX-2 and the relevance of this to NSAID and coxib action. Essential reading if you are seriously interested in this topic)*

uellet M., Percival M.D. Mechanism of acetaminophen inhibition of cyclooxygenase isoforms. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.*. 2001;387:273-280. *(Proposes a solution to the paracetamol mystery: read together with Boutaud et al., 2002, above)*

ay W.A., Varas-Lorenzo C., Chung C.P., *et al.* Cardiovascular risks of nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs in patients after hospitalization for serious coronary heart disease. *Circ. Cardiovasc. Qual. Outcomes*. 2009;2:155-163. *(This paper, together with an editorial on*

pages 146–147 of the same issue, present and comment on the findings from observational studies on the cardiovascular risk of a range of coxibs and NSAIDs. Likley to be an influential study)

Kjelbred P., Løkken P., Skoglund L.A. Postoperative administration of acetaminophen to reduce swelling and other inflammatory events. *Curr. Ther. Res.*. 1984;35:377-385. *(A study showing that paracetamol can have antiinflammatory properties under some circumstances)*

Vane J.R. Inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis as a mechanism of action for aspirin-like drugs. *Nat. New Biol.*. 1971;231:232-239. *(The definitive, seminal article that proposed cyclooxygenase inhibition as a mechanism of action for the aspirin-like drugs)*

Vane J.R., Botting R.M., editors, Therapeutic roles of selective COX-2 inhibitors. 2001 William Harvey Press London. 584 *(Outstanding multiauthor book covering all aspects of the mechanisms of action, actions, adverse effects and clinical role of COX-2 inhibitors in a range of tissues; excellent coverage)*

Wallace J.L. How do NSAIDs cause ulcer disease? *Baillière's Best Pract. Res. Clin. Gastroenterol.*. 2000;14:147-159. *(Proposes an interesting idea concerning the role of the two COX isoforms in gastric homeostasis)*

Warner T.D., Mitchell J.A. Cyclooxygenases: new forms, new inhibitors, and lessons from the clinic. *FASEB J.*. 2004;18:790-804. *(Excellent review of COX-1/-2 inhibitors and the relative merits of coxibs and the physiological role of COX-2)*

Whittle B.J.R. Basis of gastrointestinal toxicity of nonsteroid antiinflammatory drugs. In: Vane J.R., Botting R.M., editors. *Therapeutic roles of selective COX-2 inhibitors*. London: William Harvey Press; 2001:329-354. *(Excellent coverage; very good diagrams)*

Wolfe M.M., Lichtenstein D.R., Singh G. Gastrointestinal toxicity of nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1999;340:1888-1899. *(Reviews epidemiology of the gastrointestinal complications of NSAIDs, covering the risk factors, the pathogenesis of gastrointestinal tract damage, and treatment; brief discussion of COX-2-selective drugs and NO-NSAIDs)*

Wedgwood S., Krimsky M., Cohen Y., Flower R.J. Treatment of inflammatory diseases by selective eicosanoid inhibition: a double-edged sword? *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2007;28:459-464. *(A very accessible article that deals with the drawbacks of current NSAID therapy and reviews some potential solutions to the problems)*

Antirheumatoid drugs

lldred A., Emery P. Leflunomide: a novel DMARD for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis. *Expert Opin. Pharmacother.*. 2001;2:125-137. *(Useful review and update of this relatively new DMARD)*

ondeson J. The mechanisms of action of disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs: a review with emphasis on macrophage signal transduction and the induction of proinflammatory cytokines. *Gen. Pharmacol.*. 1997;29:127-150. *(Good detailed review examining possible modes of action of these drugs)*

orel J.F., Baumann G., Chapman I., *et al.* In vivo pharmacological effects of ciclosporin and some analogues. *Adv. Pharmacol.*. 1996;35:115-246. *(Borel was instrumental in the development of ciclosporin)*

utolo M. Effects of DMARDs on IL-1Ra levels in rheumatoid arthritis: is there any evidence? *Clin. Exp. Rheumatol.*. 2002;20(5 Suppl 27):S26-S31. *(Reviews the actions of DMARDs on the generation and release of the endogenous IL-1 antagonist. An interesting slant on the mechanism of action of these drugs)*

ummert J.F., Ikonen T., Morris R.E. Newer immunosuppressive drugs: a review. *J. Am. Soc. Nephrol.*. 1999;10:1366-1380. *(Comprehensive review covering leflunomide, mycophenolate mofetil, sirolimus, tacrolimus and IL-2 receptor antibodies)*

ochberg M.C. Early aggressive DMARD therapy: the key to slowing disease progression in rheumatoid arthritis. *Scand. J. Rheumatol. Suppl.*. 1999;112:3-7. *(Good general review of DMARD therapy and the use of these drugs in treating rheumatoid disease. Written before the recent explosion in anticytokine and other biologicals)*

lorris R.E. Mechanisms of action of new immunosuppressive drugs. *Ther. Drug Monit.*. 1995;17:564-569. *(Succinct, edifying review)*

au R. Have traditional DMARDs had their day? Effectiveness of parenteral gold compared to biologic agents. *Clin. Rheumatol.*. 2005;24:189-202. *(Argues for a continuing place of DMARDs in the clinic despite the introduction of the new biologicals)*

molen J.S., Kalden J.R., Scott D.L., *et al.* Efficacy and safety of leflunomide compared with placebo and sulphasalazine in active rheumatoid arthritis: a double-blind, randomised, multicentre trial. *Lancet*. 1999;353:259-260. *(Gives details of the results of a clinical trial showing the efficacy of leflunomide)*

nyder S.H., Sabatini D.M. Immunophilins and the nervous system. *Nat. Med.*. 1995;1:32-37. *(Good coverage of mechanism of action of ciclosporin and related drugs)*

Anticytokine drugs and other biologicals

rora T., Padaki R., Liu L., *et al.* Differences in binding and effector functions between classes of TNF antagonists. *Cytokine*. 2009;45:124-131. *(A research paper detailing the significance of the membrane-bound versus soluble TNF neutralising actions of the drugs)*

ongartz T., Sutton A.J., Sweeting M.J., *et al.* Anti-TNF antibody therapy in rheumatoid arthritis and the risk of serious infections and malignancies: systematic review and meta-analysis of rare harmful effects in randomized controlled trials. *JAMA*. 2006;295:2275-2285. *(The title is self-explanatory)*

reedeveld F.C. Therapeutic monoclonal antibodies. *Lancet*. 2000;355:735-740. *(Good review on the clinical potential of monoclonal antibodies)*

arterton N.L. Cytokines in rheumatoid arthritis: trials and tribulations. *Mol. Med. Today*. 2000;6:315-323. *(Good review of agents modulating the action of TNF-α and IL-1; simple, clear diagram of cellular action of these cytokines, and summaries of the clinical trials of the agents in tabular form)*

hoy E.H.S., Panayi G.S. Cytokine pathways and joint inflammation in rheumatoid arthritis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;344:907-916. *(Clear description of the pathogenesis of rheumatoid arthritis, emphasising the cells and mediators involved in joint damage; excellent diagrams of the interaction of inflammatory cells and of the mechanism of action of anticytokine agents)*

eldmann M. Development of anti-TNF therapy for rheumatoid arthritis. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.*. 2002;2:364-371. *(Excellent review covering the role of cytokines in rheumatoid arthritis and the effects of anti-TNF therapy)*

iorino G., Allez M., Malesci A., Danese E. Review article: anti TNF-alpha induced psoriasis in

patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2009;29:921-927. *(Deals with this rare and unexpected side effect of anti-TNF therapy)*

Iaini R.N. The 2005 International Symposium on Advances in Targeted Therapies: what have we learned in the 2000s and where are we going? *Ann. Rheum. Dis.*. 2005;64(suppl 4):106-108. *(An updated review dealing with the role of cytokines in the pathogenesis of rheumatoid arthritis and the results of clinical trials with anti-TNF and anti-IL-1 therapy)*

'Dell J.R. Anticytokine therapy—a new era in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1999;340:310-312. *(Editorial with excellent coverage of the role of TNF-α in rheumatoid arthritis; summarises the differences between infliximab and etanercept)*

Antihistamines

ssanasen P., Naclerio R.M. Antiallergic antiinflammatory effects of H1-antihistamines in humans. *Clin. Allergy Immunol.*. 2002;17:101-139. *(An interesting paper that reviews several alternative mechanisms whereby antihistamines may regulate inflammation)*

eurs R., Blandina P., Tedford C., Timmerm N.H. Therapeutic potential of histamine H3 receptor agonists and antagonists Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 19:1998:177-183 *(Describes the available H3 receptor agonists and antagonists, and their effects in a variety of pharmacological models, with discussion of possible therapeutic applications)*

imons F.E.R., Simons K.J. Drug therapy: the pharmacology and use of H1-receptor-antagonist drugs. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1994;23:1663-1670. *(A bit dated now but contains effective coverage of the topic from the clinical viewpoint)*

New directions

Ioss M.L., Sklair-Tavron L., Nudelman R. Drug insight: tumor necrosis factor-converting enzyme as a pharmaceutical target for rheumatoid arthritis. *Nat. Clin. Pract. Rheumatol.*. 2008;4:300-309. *(Accessible review dealing with this potentially important new concept. Some good diagrams)*

tefano F., Distrutti E. Cyclooxygenase (COX) inhibiting nitric oxide donating (CINODs) drugs: a review of their current status. *Curr. Top. Med. Chem.*. 2007;7:277-282. *(The title is self-explanantory)*

27

Respiratory system

Overview

Basic aspects of respiratory physiology (regulation of airway smooth muscle, pulmonary vasculature and glands) are considered as a basis for a discussion of pulmonary disease and its treatment. We devote most of the chapter to *asthma*, dealing first with pathogenesis and then the main drugs used in its treatment and prevention—inhaled bronchodilators and anti-inflammatory agents. We also discuss *chronic obstructive pulmonary disease* (COPD). There are short sections on allergic emergencies, surfactants and the treatment of cough. Other important pulmonary diseases, such as bacterial infections (e.g. tuberculosis and acute pneumonias) and malignancies, are addressed in Chapters 50 and 55, respectively, or are not yet amenable to drug treatment (e.g. occupational and interstitial lung diseases). Antihistamines, important in treatment of hay fever, are covered in Chapter 26. Pulmonary hypertension is covered in Chapter 22.

The Physiology of Respiration

Control of Breathing

Respiration is controlled by spontaneous rhythmic discharges from the respiratory centre in the medulla, modulated by input from pontine and higher central nervous system (CNS) centres and vagal afferents from the lungs. Various chemical factors affect the respiratory centre, including

the partial pressure of carbon dioxide in arterial blood (P_{ACO_2}) by an action on medullary chemoreceptors, and of oxygen (P_{AO_2}) by an action on the chemoreceptors in the carotid bodies.

Some voluntary control can be superimposed on the automatic regulation of breathing, implying connections between the cortex and the motor neurons innervating the muscles of respiration. Bulbar poliomyelitis and certain lesions in the brain stem result in loss of the automatic regulation of respiration without loss of voluntary regulation.[1]

[1]Referred to as Ondine's curse. Ondine was a water nymph who fell in love with a mortal. When he was unfaithful to her, the king of the water nymphs put a curse on him—that he must stay awake in order to breathe. When exhaustion finally supervened and he fell asleep, he died.

Regulation of Musculature, Blood Vessels and Glands of the Airways

Irritant receptors and C fibres respond to chemical irritants and cold air, and also to inflammatory mediators (see below). Efferent pathways controlling the airways include cholinergic parasympathetic nerves and non-noradrenergic non-cholinergic (NANC) inhibitory nerves (see Ch. 12). Inflammatory mediators (see Ch. 17) and NANC bronchoconstrictor mediators also have a role in diseased airways.

The tone of bronchial muscle influences airway resistance, which is also affected by the state of the mucosa and activity of the glands in patients with asthma and bronchitis. Airway resistance can be measured indirectly by instruments that record the volume or flow of forced expiration. FEV_1 is the forced expiratory volume in 1 second. The peak expiratory flow rate (PEFR) is the maximal flow (expressed as l/min) after a full inhalation; this is simpler to measure at the bedside than FEV_1, which it follows closely.

Efferent Pathways

Autonomic innervation

The autonomic innervation of human airways is reviewed by van der Velden & Hulsmann (1999).

Parasympathetic innervation

Parasympathetic innervation of bronchial smooth muscle predominates. Parasympathetic ganglia are embedded in the walls of the bronchi and bronchioles, and the postganglionic fibres innervate airway smooth muscle, vascular smooth muscle and glands. Three types of muscarinic (M) receptors are present (see Ch. 13, Table 13.2). M_3 receptors are pharmacologically the most important. They are found on bronchial smooth muscle and glands, and mediate bronchoconstriction and mucus secretion. M_1 receptors are localised in ganglia and on postsynaptic cells, and facilitate nicotinic neurotransmission, whereas M_2 receptors are inhibitory autoreceptors mediating negative feedback on acetylcholine release by postganglionic cholinergic nerves. Stimulation of the vagus causes bronchoconstriction—mainly in the larger airways. The possible clinical relevance of the heterogeneity of muscarinic receptors in the airways is discussed below.

A distinct population of NANC nerves (see Ch. 12) also regulates the airways. Bronchodilators released by these nerves include *vasoactive intestinal polypeptide* (Table 12.2) and *nitric oxide* (NO; Ch. 20).

Sympathetic innervation

Sympathetic nerves innervate tracheobronchial blood vessels and glands, but not human airway smooth muscle. β-Adrenoceptors are, however, abundantly expressed on human airway smooth muscle (as well as mast cells, epithelium, glands and alveoli) and β agonists relax bronchial

smooth muscle, inhibit mediator release from mast cells and increase mucociliary clearance (see below). In humans, β-adrenoceptors in the airways are of the β_2 variety.

In addition to the autonomic innervation, non-myelinated sensory fibres linked to irritant receptors in the lungs release tachykinins such as *substance P*, *neurokinin A* and *neurokinin B* (see Chs 19 and 41), which act on smooth muscle, secretory and inflammatory cells, producing *neurogenic inflammation.*

Sensory Receptors and Afferent Pathways

Slowly adapting *stretch receptors* control respiration via the respiratory centre. Unmyelinated sensory *C fibres* and rapidly adapting *irritant receptors* associated with myelinated vagal fibres are also important.

Physical or chemical stimuli, acting on irritant receptors on myelinated fibres in the upper airways and/or C-fibre receptors in the lower airways, cause coughing, bronchoconstriction and mucus secretion. Such stimuli include cold air and irritants such as ammonia, sulfur dioxide, cigarette smoke and the experimental tool *capsaicin* (Ch. 41), as well as endogenous inflammatory mediators.

Regulation of airway muscle, blood vessels and glands

Afferent pathways

• Irritant receptors and C fibres respond to exogenous chemicals, inflammatory mediators and physical stimuli (e.g. cold air).

Efferent pathways

• Parasympathetic nerves cause bronchoconstriction and mucus secretion through M3 receptors.

• Sympathetic nerves innervate blood vessels and glands, but not airway smooth muscle.

• β2-Adrenoceptor agonists relax airway smooth muscle. This is pharmacologically important.

• Inhibitory non-noradrenergic non-cholinergic (NANC) nerves relax airway smooth muscle by releasing nitric oxide and vasoactive intestinal peptide.

• Excitation of sensory nerves causes neuroinflammation by releasing tachykinins: substance P and neurokinin A.

Pulmonary Disease and its Treatment

Common symptoms of pulmonary disease include shortness of breath, wheeze, chest pain and cough with or without sputum production or haemoptysis—blood in the sputum. Ideally, treatment is of the underlying disease, but sometimes symptomatic treatment, for example of cough, is all that is possible. The lung is an important target organ of many diseases addressed elsewhere in this book, including infections (Chs 50–54), malignancy (Ch. 55) and occupational and rheumatological diseases; drugs (e.g. **amiodarone methotrexate**) can damage lung tissue and cause pulmonary fibrosis. Heart failure leads to pulmonary oedema (Ch. 22). Thromboembolic disease (Ch. 24) and pulmonary hypertension (Ch. 22) affect the pulmonary circulation. In this present chapter, we concentrate on two important diseases of the airways: asthma and COPD.

Bronchial Asthma

Asthma is the commonest chronic disease in children in economically developed countries, and is also common in adults. It is increasing in prevalence and severity. It is an inflammatory condition in which there is recurrent reversible airways obstruction in response to irritant stimuli that are too weak to affect non-asthmatic subjects. The obstruction

usually causes wheeze and merits drug treatment, although the natural history of asthma includes spontaneous remissions.[2] Reversibility of airways obstruction in asthma contrasts with COPD, where the obstruction is either not reversible or at best incompletely reversible by bronchodilators.

[2]William Osler, 19th-century doyen of American and British clinicians, wrote that 'the asthmatic pants into old age'—this at a time when the most effective drug that he could offer was to smoke stramonium cigarettes, a herbal remedy the antimuscarinic effects of which were offset by direct irritation from the smoke. Its use persisted in English private schools into the 1950s as one author can attest—much to the envy of his fellows!

Characteristics of Asthma

Asthmatic patients experience intermittent attacks of wheezing, shortness of breath—with difficulty especially in breathing out—and sometimes cough. As explained above, acute attacks are reversible, but the underlying pathological disorder can progress in older patients to a chronic state superficially resembling COPD.

Acute severe asthma (also known as *status asthmaticus*) is not easily reversed and causes hypoxaemia. Hospitalisation is necessary, as the condition, which can be fatal, requires prompt and energetic treatment.

Asthma is characterised by:

- inflammation of the airways
- bronchial hyper-reactivity
- reversible airways obstruction.

The term *bronchial hyper-reactivity* (or hyper-responsiveness) refers to

abnormal sensitivity to a wide range of stimuli, such as irritant chemicals, cold air and stimulant drugs, all of which can result in bronchoconstriction. In allergic asthma, these features may be initiated by sensitisation to allergen(s), but, once established, asthma attacks can be triggered by various stimuli such as viral infection, exercise (in which the stimulus may be cold air and/or drying of the airways) and atmospheric pollutants such as sulfur dioxide. Immunological desensitisation to allergens such as pollen or dust mites is popular in some countries but is not superior to conventional inhaled drug treatment.

Pathogenesis of Asthma

The pathogenesis of asthma involves both genetic and environmental factors, and the asthmatic attack itself consists, in many subjects, of two main phases: an immediate and a late (or delayed) phase (see Fig. 27.1).

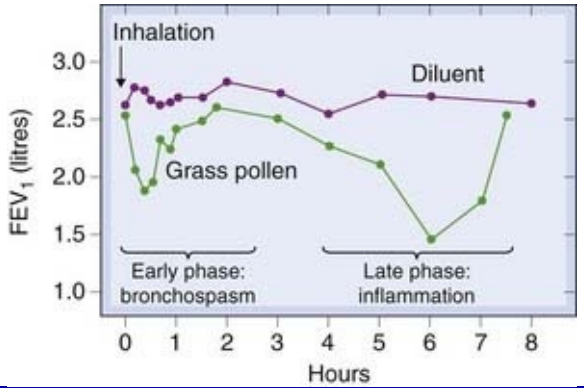


Fig. 27.1 Two phases of asthma demonstrated by the changes in forced expiratory volume in 1 second (FEV_1) after inhalation of grass pollen in an allergic subject.

(From Cockcroft D W 1983 Lancet ii: 253.)

Numerous cells and mediators play a part, and the full details of the complex events involved are still a matter of debate (Walter & Holtzman, 2005). The following simplified account is intended to provide a basis

for understanding the rational use of drugs in the treatment of asthma.

Asthmatics have activated T cells, with a T-helper (Th)2 profile of cytokine production (see Ch. 17 and Table 6.2) in their bronchial mucosa. How these cells are activated is not fully understood, but allergens (Fig. 27.2) are one mechanism. The Th2 cytokines that are released do the following:

• Attract other inflammatory granulocytes, especially eosinophils, to the mucosal surface. Interleukin (IL)-5 and granulocyte–macrophage colony-stimulating factor prime eosinophils to produce cysteinyl leukotrienes, and to release granule proteins that damage the epithelium. This damage is one cause of bronchial hyper-responsiveness.

• Promote immunoglobulin (Ig)E synthesis and responsiveness in some asthmatics (IL-4 and IL-13 'switch' B cells to IgE synthesis and cause expression of IgE receptors on mast cells and eosinophils; they also enhance adhesion of eosinophils to endothelium).

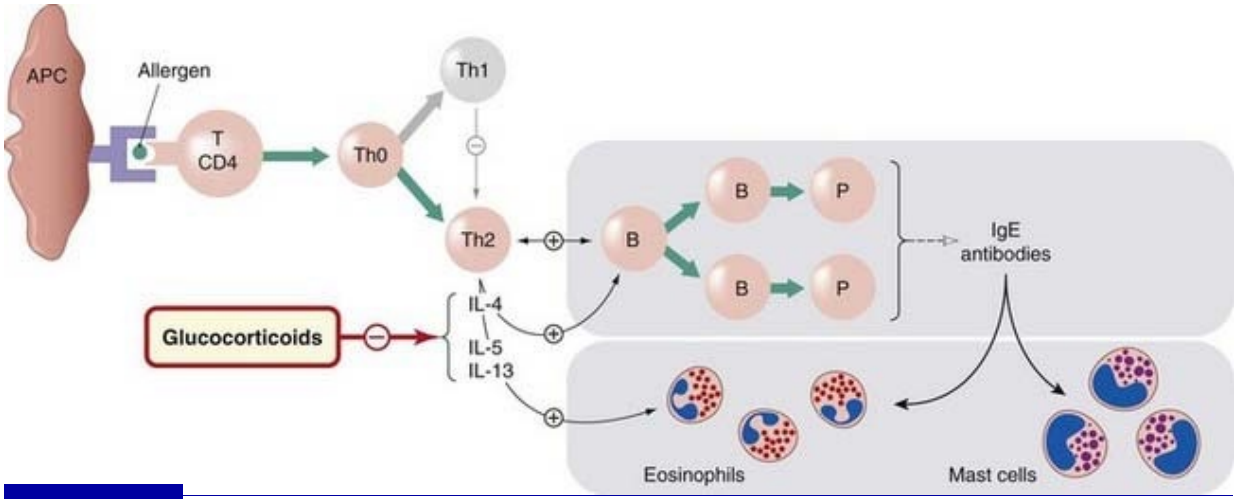


Fig. 27.2 The part played by T lymphocytes in allergic asthma.

In genetically susceptible individuals, allergen (green circle) interacts with dendritic cells and $CD4^+$ T cells, leading to the development of Th0 lymphocytes, which give rise to a clone of Th2 lymphocytes. These then (1) generate a cytokine environment that switches B cells/plasma cells to the production and release of immunoglobulin (Ig)E; (2) generate cytokines, such as

interleukin (IL)-5, which promote differentiation and activation of eosinophils; and (3) cytokines (e.g. IL-4 and IL-13) that induce expression of IgE receptors. Glucocorticoids inhibit the action of the cytokines specified. APC, antigen-presenting dendritic cell; B, B cell; P, plasma cell; Th, T-helper cell.

Some asthmatics, in addition to these mechanisms, are also *atopic*—i.e. they make allergen-specific IgE that binds to mast cells in the airways. Inhaled allergen cross-links IgE molecules on mast cells, triggering degranulation with release of histamine and leukotriene B_4, both of which are powerful bronchoconstrictors to which asthmatics are especially sensitive because of their airway hyper-responsiveness. This provides a mechanism for acute exacerbation of asthma in atopic individuals exposed to allergen. The effectiveness of **omalizumab** (an anti-IgE antibody; see below) serves to emphasise the importance of IgE in the pathogenesis of asthma as well as in other allergic diseases. Noxious gases (e.g. sulfur dioxide, ozone) and airway dehydration can also cause mast cell degranulation.

Clinicians often refer to atopic or 'extrinsic' asthma and non-atopic or 'intrinsic' asthma; we prefer the terms allergic and non-allergic.

Asthma

• Asthma is defined as recurrent reversible airway obstruction, with attacks of wheeze, shortness of breath and often nocturnal cough. Severe attacks cause hypoxaemia and are life-threatening.

• Essential features include:

– airways inflammation, which causes

– bronchial hyper-responsiveness, which in turn results in

– recurrent reversible airway obstruction.

• Pathogenesis involves exposure of genetically disposed individuals to allergens; activation of

Th2 lymphocytes and cytokine generation promote:

– differentiation and activation of eosinophils

– IgE production and release

– expression of IgE receptors on mast cells and eosinophils.

• Important mediators include leukotriene B4 and cysteinyl leukotrienes (C4 and D4); interleukins IL-4, IL-5, IL-13; and tissue-damaging eosinophil proteins.

• Antiasthmatic drugs include:

– bronchodilators

– anti-inflammatory agents.

• Treatment is monitored by measuring forced expiratory volume in 1 second (FEV_1) or peak expiratory flow rate and, in acute severe disease, oxygen saturation and arterial blood gases.

The immediate phase of the asthmatic attack

In allergic asthma, the immediate phase (i.e. the initial response to allergen provocation) occurs abruptly and is mainly caused by spasm of the bronchial smooth muscle. Allergen interaction with mast cell-fixed IgE causes release of histamine, leukotriene B_4 and prostaglandin (PG)D_2 (Ch. 17).

Other mediators released include IL-4, IL-5, IL-13, macrophage inflammatory protein-1α and tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α.

Various chemotaxins and chemokines (see Ch. 17) attract leukocytes—particularly eosinophils and mononuclear cells—into the area, setting the stage for the delayed phase (Fig. 27.3).

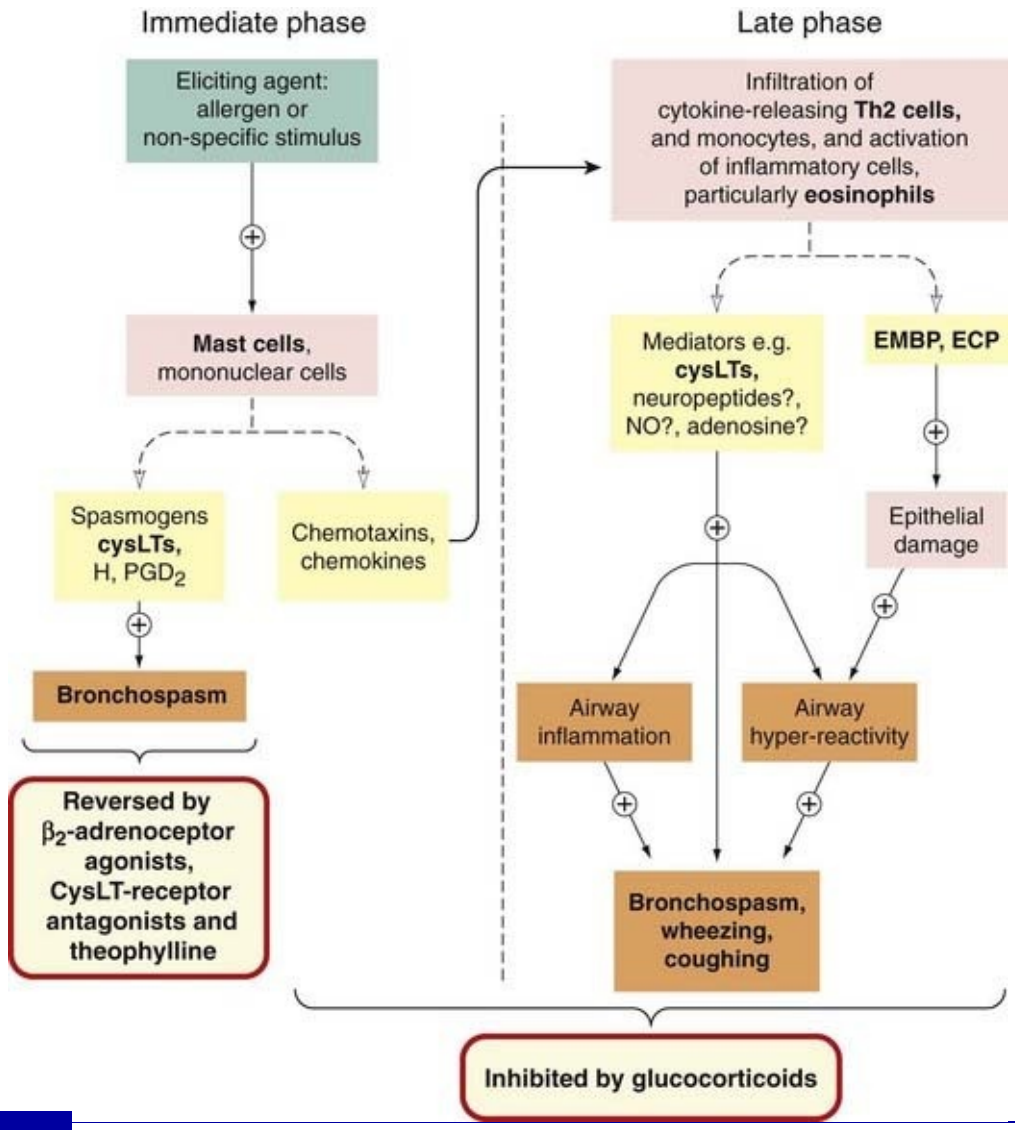


Fig. 27.3 Immediate and late phases of asthma, with the actions of the main drugs.

CysLTs, cysteinyl leukotrienes (leukotrienes C4 and D4); ECP, eosinophil cationic protein; EMBP, eosinophil major basic protein; H, histamine; iNO, induced nitric oxide.

(For more detail of the Th2-derived cytokines and chemokines, see Ch. 17 and Fig. 6.4.)

The late phase

The late phase or delayed response (see Figs 27.1 and 27.3) may be nocturnal. It is, in essence, a progressing inflammatory reaction, initiation of which occurred during the first phase, the influx of Th2 lymphocytes being of particular importance. The inflammatory cells

include activated eosinophils. These release *cysteinyl leukotrienes*, *interleukins IL-3, IL-5* and *IL-8*, and the toxic proteins, *eosinophil cationic protein*, *major basic protein* and *eosinophil-derived neurotoxin*. These play an important part in the events of the late phase, the toxic proteins causing damage and loss of epithelium (see, for example, Larche et al., 2003; Kay, 2005). Other putative mediators of the inflammatory process in the delayed phase are adenosine (acting on the A_1 receptor; see Ch. 16), induced NO (see Ch. 20) and neuropeptides (see Ch. 19).

Growth factors released from inflammatory cells act on smooth muscle cells, causing hypertrophy and hyperplasia, and the smooth muscle can itself release proinflammatory mediators and autocrine growth factors (Chs 5 and 17). Figure 27.4 shows schematically the changes that take place in the bronchioles. Epithelial cell loss means that irritant receptors and C fibres are more accessible to irritant stimuli—an important mechanism of bronchial hyper-reactivity.

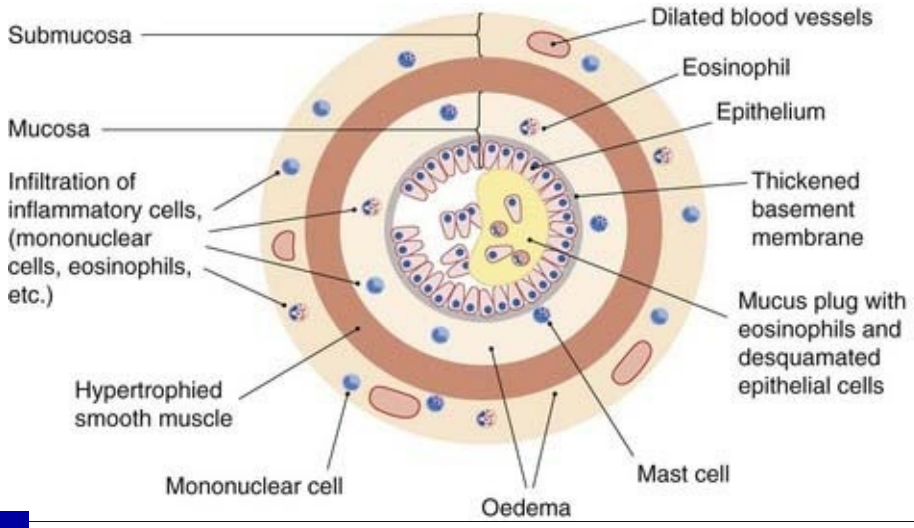


Fig. 27.4 Schematic diagram of a cross-section of a bronchiole, showing changes that occur with severe chronic asthma.

The individual elements depicted are not, of course, drawn to scale.

'Aspirin-sensitive' asthma

▼ Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), especially **aspirin**, can precipitate asthma in sensitive individuals. Such aspirin-sensitive asthma is relatively uncommon (< 10% of asthmatic subjects), and is often associated with nasal polyps. Individuals sensitive to one NSAID are usually also sensitive to other chemically unrelated cyclo-oxygenase (COX) inhibitors, including sometimes **paracetamol** (Ch. 26). Abnormal leukotriene production and sensitivity are implicated. Patients with aspirin-sensitive asthma produce more cysteinyl leukotriene and have greater airway hyper-responsiveness to inhaled cysteinyl leukotrienes than aspirin-tolerant asthmatics. Such airway hyper-responsiveness reflects elevated expression of cysteinyl leukotriene receptors on inflammatory cells, and this is downregulated by aspirin desensitisation (Sousa et al., 2002). In addition, aspirin and similar drugs directly activate eosinophils and mast cells in these patients through IgE-independent mechanisms.

Drugs Used to Treat and Prevent Asthma

There are two categories of antiasthma drugs: *bronchodilators* and *anti-inflammatory agents*. Bronchodilators reverse the bronchospasm of the immediate phase; anti-inflammatory agents inhibit or prevent the inflammatory components of both phases (Fig. 27.3). These two categories are not mutually exclusive: some drugs classified as bronchodilators also have some anti-inflammatory effect.

How best to use these drugs to treat asthma is complex. A guideline (see www.brit-thoracic.org.uk, updated in 2009) specifies five therapeutic steps for adults and children with chronic asthma. Very mild disease may be controlled with short-acting bronchodilator alone (step 1), but if patients need this more than once a day, a regular inhaled corticosteroid should be added (step 2). If the asthma remains

uncontrolled, the next step is to add a long-acting bronchodilator (**salmeterol** or **formoterol**); this minimises the need for increased doses of inhaled corticosteroid (step 3). **Theophylline** and leukotriene antagonists, such as **montelukast**, also exert a corticosteroid-sparing effect, but this is less reliable. One or other is added in for patients with more severe asthma who remain symptomatic and/or the dose of inhaled corticosteroid increased to the maximum recommended (step 4). If the patient's condition is still poorly controlled, it may be necessary to add a regular oral corticosteroid (e.g. **prednisolone**)—step 5. Corticosteroids are the mainstay of therapy because they are the only asthma drugs that potently inhibit T-cell activation, and thus the inflammatory response, in the asthmatic airways. **Cromoglicate** (see below) has only a weak effect and is now seldom used.

Bronchodilators

The main drugs used as bronchodilators are β_2-adrenoceptor agonists; others include **theophylline**, cysteinyl leukotriene receptor antagonists and muscarinic receptor antagonists.

β-Adrenoceptor agonists

The β_2-adrenoceptor agonists are dealt with in Chapter 14. Their primary effect in asthma is to dilate the bronchi by a direct action on the β_2 adrenoceptors of smooth muscle. Being physiological antagonists of bronchoconstrictors (see Ch. 2), they relax bronchial muscle whatever the spasmogens involved. They also inhibit mediator release from mast cells and TNF-α release from monocytes, and increase mucus clearance by an action on cilia.

The β_2-adrenoceptor agonists are usually given by inhalation of aerosol, powder or nebulised solution (i.e. solution that has been converted into a cloud or mist of fine droplets), but some may be given

orally or by injection. A metered-dose inhaler is used for aerosol preparations.

Two categories of β_2-adrenoceptor agonists are used in asthma.

• Short-acting agents: **salbutamol** and **terbutaline**. These are given by inhalation; the maximum effect occurs within 30 min and the duration of action is 3–5 h; they are usually used on an 'as needed' basis to control symptoms.

• Longer-acting agents: *e.g.* **salmeterol** and **formoterol**. These are given by inhalation, and the duration of action is 8–12 h. They are not used 'as needed' but are given regularly, twice daily, as adjunctive therapy in patients whose asthma is inadequately controlled by glucocorticoids.

Antiasthma drugs Bronchodilators 

• β_2-Adrenoceptor agonists (e.g. **salbutamol**) are first-line drugs (for details, see Ch. 14):
  – they act as physiological antagonists of the spasmogenic mediators but have little or no effect on the bronchial hyper-reactivity
  – salbutamol is given by inhalation; its effects start immediately and last 3–5 h, and it can also be given by intravenous infusion in status asthmaticus
  – **salmeterol** or **formoterol** are given regularly by inhalation; their duration of action is 8–12 h.

• **Theophylline** (often formulated as **aminophylline**):
  – is a methylxanthine
  – inhibits phosphodiesterase and blocks adenosine receptors
  – has a narrow therapeutic window: unwanted effects include cardiac dysrhythmia, seizures and gastrointestinal disturbances

– is given intravenously (by slow infusion) for status asthmaticus, or orally (as a sustained-release preparation) as add-on therapy to inhaled corticosteroids and long-acting β_2 agonists (step 4)

– is metabolised in the liver by P450; liver dysfunction and viral infections increase its plasma concentration and half-life (normally approximately 12 h)

– interacts importantly with other drugs; some (e.g. some antibiotics) increase the half-life of theophylline, others (e.g. anticonvulsants) decrease it.

• Cysteinyl leukotriene receptor antagonists (e.g. **montelukast**) are third-line drugs for asthma. They:

– compete with cysteinyl leukotrienes at $CysLT_1$ receptors

– are used mainly as add-on therapy to inhaled corticosteroids and long-acting β_2 agonists (step 4).

Unwanted effects

The unwanted effects of β_2-adrenoceptor agonists result from systemic absorption and are given in Chapter 14. In the context of their use in asthma, the commonest adverse effect is *tremor*; other unwanted effects include *tachycardia* and *cardiac dysrhythmia*.

Clinical use of β_2-adrenoceptor agonists as bronchodilators

• Short-acting drugs (**salbutamol** or **terbutaline**, usually by inhalation) to prevent or treat wheeze in patients with reversible obstructive airways disease.

• Long-acting drugs (**salmeterol**, **formoterol**) to prevent bronchospasm (e.g. at night or with exercise) in patients requiring long-term bronchodilator therapy.

Xanthine drugs (see Chs 15 and 45)

Theophylline (1,3-dimethylxanthine), which is also used as theophylline ethylenediamine (known as **aminophylline**), is the main therapeutic drug of this class, and has long been used as a bronchodilator.[3] Here we consider it in the context of respiratory disease, its only current therapeutic use.

[3]Over 200 years ago, William Withering recommended 'coffee made very strong' as a remedy for asthma. Coffee contains caffeine, a related methylxanthine.

Mechanism of action

The mechanism of theophylline is still unclear. The relaxant effect on smooth muscle has been attributed to inhibition of phosphodiesterase (PDE) isoenzymes, with resultant increase in cAMP and/or cGMP (see Fig. 4.10). However, the concentrations necessary to inhibit the isolated enzymes exceed the therapeutic range of plasma concentrations.

Competitive antagonism of adenosine at adenosine A_1 and A_2 receptors (Ch. 16) may contribute, but the PDE inhibitor **enprofylline**, which is a potent bronchodilator, is not an adenosine antagonist.

Type IV PDE is implicated in inflammatory cells (see below), and methylxanthines may have some anti-inflammatory effect. (**Roflumilast**, a type IV PDE inhibitor, is mentioned below in the context of COPD.)

Theophylline activates *histone deacetylase* (HDAC) and may thereby reverse resistance to the anti-inflammatory effects of corticosteroids (Barnes, 2006).

Methylxanthines stimulate the CNS (Ch. 47) and respiratory stimulation may be beneficial in patients with COPD and reduced respiration evidenced by a tendency to retain CO_2 (see below).

Unwanted effects

When theophylline is used in asthma, its other actions (CNS, cardiovascular, gastrointestinal and diuretic) result in unwanted side effects (e.g. insomnia, nervousness). The therapeutic plasma concentration range is 30–100 μmol/l, and adverse effects are common with concentrations greater than 110 μmol/l; thus, there is a relatively narrow therapeutic window. Serious cardiovascular and CNS effects can occur when the plasma concentration exceeds 200 μmol/l. The most serious cardiovascular effect is *dysrhythmia* (especially during intravenous administration of aminophylline), which can be fatal. *Seizures* can occur with theophylline concentrations at or slightly above the upper limit of the therapeutic range, and can be fatal in patients with impaired respiration due to severe asthma. Monitoring the concentration of theophylline in plasma is useful for optimising the dose.

Clinical use of theophylline

- In addition to steroids, in patients whose asthma does not respond adequately to β2-adrenoceptor agonists.
- In addition to steroids in COPD.
- Intravenously (as aminophylline, a combination of theophylline with ethylenediamine to increase its solubility in water) in acute severe asthma.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Theophylline is given orally as a sustained-release preparation. Aminophylline can be given by slow intravenous injection of a loading dose followed by intravenous infusion.

Theophylline is well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. It is metabolised by P450 enzymes in the liver; the mean elimination half-life is approximately 8 h in adults but there is wide inter-individual

variation. The half-life is increased in liver disease, cardiac failure and viral infections, and is decreased in heavy cigarette smokers (as a result of enzyme induction). Unwanted drug interactions are clinically important: its plasma concentration is decreased by drugs that induce P450 enzymes (including **rifampicin**, **phenytoin** and **carbamazepine**). The concentration is increased by drugs that inhibit P450 enzymes, such as **erythromycin**, **clarithromycin**, **ciprofloxacin**, **diltiazem** and **fluconazole**. This is important in view of the narrow therapeutic window; antibiotics such as clarithromycin are often started when asthmatics are hospitalised because of a severe attack precipitated by a chest infection, and if the dose of theophylline is unaltered, severe toxicity can result.

Muscarinic receptor antagonists

Muscarinic receptor antagonists are dealt with in Chapter 13. The main compound used as a bronchodilator is **ipratropium**. **Tiotropium** is also available; it is a longer-acting drug used in maintenance treatment of COPD (see below). Ipratropium is seldom used on a regular basis in asthma but can be useful for cough caused by irritant stimuli in such patients.

Ipratropium is a quaternary derivative of *N*-isopropylatropine. It does not discriminate between muscarinic receptor subtypes (see Ch. 13), and it is possible that its blockade of M_2 autoreceptors on the cholinergic nerves increases acetylcholine release and reduces the effectiveness of its antagonism at the M_3 receptors on smooth muscle. It is not particularly effective against allergen challenge, but it inhibits the augmentation of mucus secretion that occurs in asthma and may increase the mucociliary clearance of bronchial secretions. It has no effect on the late inflammatory phase of asthma.

Ipratropium is given by aerosol inhalation. As a quaternary nitrogen compound, it is highly polar and is not well absorbed into the circulation (Ch. 8), limiting systemic effects. The maximum effect occurs approximately 30 min after inhalation and persists for 3–5 h. It has few unwanted effects and is, in general, safe and well tolerated. It can be used with β_2-adrenoceptor agonists. See the clinical box, above, for clinical uses.

Clinical use of inhaled muscarinic receptor antagonists (e.g. ipratropium)

- For asthma, as an adjunct to β_2-adrenoceptor antagonists and steroids.
- For some patients with COPD, especially long-acting drugs (e.g. **tiotropium**).
- For bronchospasm precipitated by β_2-adrenoceptor antagonists.
- For clinical uses of muscarinic receptor antagonists in other organ systems, see clinical box in Chapter 13, p. 162.

Cysteinyl leukotriene receptor antagonists

Two receptors for cysteinyl leukotrienes (LTC_4, LTD_4 and LTE_4) have been cloned, *CysLT*$_1$ and *CysLT*$_2$ (see Ch. 17), and both are expressed in respiratory mucosa and infiltrating inflammatory cells, but the functional significance of each is unclear. The 'lukast' drugs (**montelukast** and **zafirlukast**) antagonise only $CysLT_1$.

Lukasts reduce acute reactions to aspirin in sensitive patients, but have not been shown to be particularly effective for aspirin-sensitive asthma (see above) in the clinic. They inhibit exercise-induced asthma and decrease both early and late responses to inhaled allergen. They relax the airways in mild asthma but are less effective than salbutamol, with

which their action is additive. They reduce sputum eosinophilia, but there is no clear evidence that they modify the underlying inflammatory process in chronic asthma.

The lukasts are taken by mouth, in combination with an inhaled corticosteroid. They are generally well tolerated, adverse effects consisting mainly of headache and gastrointestinal disturbances.

Histamine H1-receptor antagonists

Although mast cell mediators play a part in the immediate phase of allergic asthma (Fig. 27.3) and in some types of exercise-induced asthma, histamine H_1-receptor antagonists have no routine place in therapy, although they may be modestly effective in mild atopic asthma, especially when this is precipitated by acute histamine release in patients with concomitant allergy such as severe hay fever.

Anti-Inflammatory Agents

Glucocorticoids

Glucocorticoids (see Ch. 30) are the main drugs used for their anti-inflammatory action in asthma. They are not bronchodilators, but prevent the progression of chronic asthma and are effective in acute severe asthma (see below).[4]

[4]In 1900, Solis-Cohen reported that dried bovine adrenals had antiasthma activity. He noted that the extract did not serve acutely 'to cut short the paroxysm' but was 'useful in averting recurrence of paroxysms'. Mistaken for the first report on the effect of adrenaline, his astute observation was probably the first on the efficacy of steroids in asthma.

Actions and mechanism

The basis of the anti-inflammatory action of glucocorticoids is discussed in Chapter 32. An important action, of relevance for asthma, is that they decrease formation of cytokines, in particular the Th2 cytokines that recruit and activate eosinophils and are responsible for promoting the production of IgE and the expression of IgE receptors. Glucocorticoids also inhibit the generation of the vasodilators PGE_2 and PGI_2, by inhibiting induction of COX-2 (Fig. 17.1). By inducing *annexin-1*,[5] they could inhibit production of leukotrienes and platelet-activating factor, although there is currently no direct evidence that annexin-1 is involved in the therapeutic action of glucocorticoids in human asthma.

[5]Previously known as lipocortin-1—the nomenclature was changed in order to comply with the latest genomics data, which indicate there are approximately 30 members of this family!

Corticosteroids inhibit the allergen-induced influx of eosinophils into the lung. Glucocorticoids upregulate β_2-adrenoceptors, decrease microvascular permeability and indirectly reduce mediator release from eosinophils by inhibiting the production of cytokines (e.g. IL-5 and granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor) that activate eosinophils. Reduced synthesis of IL-3 (the cytokine that regulates mast cell production) may explain why long-term steroid treatment eventually reduces the number of mast cells in the respiratory mucosa, and hence suppresses the early-phase response to allergens and exercise.

Glucocorticoids are sometimes ineffective, even in high doses, for reasons that are incompletely understood (reviewed by Adcock & Ito, 2004). Many individual mechanisms could contribute to glucocorticoid resistance. The phenomenon has been linked to the number of glucocorticoid receptors, but in some situations other mechanisms are clearly in play—for example, reduced activity of *histone deacetylase* (HDAC) may be important in cigarette smokers (see below).

The main compounds used are **beclometasone**, **budesonide**, **fluticasone**, **mometasone** and **ciclesonide**. These are given by inhalation with a metered-dose or dry powder inhaler, the full effect on bronchial hyper-responsiveness being attained only after weeks or months of therapy.

Unwanted effects

Serious unwanted effects are uncommon with inhaled steroids. Oropharyngeal candidiasis (thrush; Ch. 52) can occur (T lymphocytes are important in protection against fungal infection), as can sore throat and croaky voice, but use of 'spacing' devices, which decrease oropharyngeal deposition of the drug and increase airway deposition, reduces these problems. Regular high doses can produce some adrenal suppression, particularly in children, and necessitate carrying a 'steroid card' (Ch. 32). This is less likely with fluticasone, mometasone and ciclesonide, as these drugs are poorly absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and undergo almost complete presystemic metabolism. The unwanted effects of oral glucocorticoids are given in Chapter 32 and Figure 32.7.

Clinical use of glucocorticoids in asthma

• Patients who require regular bronchodilators should be considered for glucocorticoid treatment (e.g. with inhaled **beclometasone**).

• More severely affected patients are treated with high-potency inhaled drugs (e.g. **budesonide**).

• Patients with acute exacerbations of asthma may require intravenous **hydrocortisone** and oral **prednisolone**.

• A 'rescue course' of oral prednisolone may be needed at any stage of severity if the clinical

condition is deteriorating rapidly.

• Prolonged treatment with oral prednisolone, in addition to inhaled bronchodilators and steroids, is needed by a few severely asthmatic patients.

Cromoglicate and nedocromil

These two drugs, of similar chemical structure and properties, are now hardly used for the treatment of asthma. Although very safe, they have only weak anti-inflammatory effects and short duration of action. They are given by inhalation as aerosols or dry powders, and can be also be used topically for allergic conjunctivitis or rhinitis. They are not bronchodilators, having no direct effects on smooth muscle, nor do they inhibit the actions of any of the known smooth muscle stimulants. Given prophylactically, they reduce both the immediate-and late-phase asthmatic responses and reduce bronchial hyper-reactivity.

Their mechanism of action is not fully understood. Cromoglicate is a 'mast cell stabiliser', preventing histamine release from mast cells. However, this is not the basis of its action in asthma, because compounds that are more potent than cromoglicate at inhibiting mast cell histamine release are ineffective against asthma.

Cromoglicate depresses the exaggerated neuronal reflexes that are triggered by stimulation of the 'irritant receptors'; it suppresses the response of sensory C fibres to capsaicin and may inhibit the release of T-cell cytokines. Various other effects, of uncertain importance, on the inflammatory cells and mediators involved in asthma have been described.

Anti-IgE treatment

Omalizumab is a humanised monoclonal anti-IgE antibody. It is effective in patients with allergic asthma as well as in allergic rhinitis. It

is of considerable theoretical interest (see review by Holgate et al., 2005), but it is expensive and its place in therapeutics is unclear.

Antiasthma drugs Anti-inflammatory agents

Glucocorticoids (for details, see Ch. 32)

• These reduce the inflammatory component in chronic asthma and are life-saving in status asthmaticus (acute severe asthma).

• They do not prevent the immediate response to allergen or other challenges.

• The mechanism of action involves decreased formation of cytokines, particularly those generated by Th2 lymphocytes (see key points box), decreased activation of eosinophils and other inflammatory cells.

• They are given by inhalation (e.g. **beclometasone**); systemic unwanted effects are uncommon at moderate doses, but oral thrush and voice problems can occur. Systemic effects can occur with high doses but are less likely with **mometasone** because of its presystemic metabolism. In deteriorating asthma, an oral glucocorticoid (e.g. **prednisolone**) or intravenous **hydrocortisone** is also given.

Severe Acute Asthma (Status Asthmaticus)

Severe acute asthma is a medical emergency requiring hospitalisation. Treatment includes **oxygen** (in high concentration, usually ≥ 60%), inhalation of nebulised **salbutamol**, and intravenous **hydrocortisone** followed by a course of oral **prednisolone**. Additional measures occasionally used include nebulised **ipratropium**, intravenous salbutamol or **aminophylline**, and antibiotics (if bacterial infection is

present). Monitoring is by PEFR or FEV_1, and by measurement of arterial blood gases and oxygen saturation.

Allergic Emergencies

Anaphylaxis (Ch. 6) and *angio-oedema* are emergencies involving acute airways obstruction; **adrenaline** (epinephrine) is potentially life-saving. It is administered intramuscularly (or occasionally intravenously, as in anaphylaxis occurring in association with general anaesthesia). Patients at risk of acute anaphylaxis, for example from food or insect sting allergy, may self-administer intramuscular adrenaline using a spring-loaded syringe. Oxygen, an antihistamine such as **chlorphenamine**, and **hydrocortisone** are also indicated.

Angio-oedema is the intermittent occurrence of focal swelling of the skin or intra-abdominal organs caused by plasma leakage from capillaries. Most often, it is mild and 'idiopathic', but it can occur as part of acute allergic reactions, when it is generally accompanied by urticaria —'hives'—caused by histamine release from mast cells. If the larynx is involved, it is life-threatening; swelling in the peritoneal cavity can be very painful and mimic a surgical emergency. It can be caused by drugs, especially *angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors*—perhaps because they block the inactivation of peptides such as bradykinin (Ch. 19)—and by **aspirin** and related drugs in patients who are aspirin sensitive (see above and Ch. 26). The hereditary form is associated with lack of C1 esterase inhibitor—C1 esterase is an enzyme that degrades the complement component C1 (see Ch. 6). **Tranexamic acid** (Ch. 24) or **danazol** (Ch. 34) may be used to prevent attacks in patients with hereditary angioneurotic oedema, and administration of partially

purified C1 esterase inhibitor or fresh plasma, with antihistamines and glucocorticoids, can terminate acute attacks. **Icatibant**, a peptide bradykinin B_2 receptor antagonist (Ch. 16) is effective for acute attacks of hereditary angio-oedema. It is administered subcutaneously and can cause nausea, abdominal pain and nasal stuffiness.

Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease is a major global health problem. Cigarette smoking is the main cause, and is increasing in the developing world. Air pollution, also aetiologically important, is also increasing, and there is a huge unmet need for effective drugs. Despite this, COPD has received much less attention than asthma. A recent resurgence of interest in new therapeutic approaches (see Barnes, 2008) has yet to bear fruit.

Clinical features

The clinical picture starts with attacks of morning cough during the winter, and progresses to chronic cough with intermittent exacerbations, often initiated by an upper respiratory infection, when the sputum becomes purulent ('bronchitis'). There is progressive breathlessness. Some patients have a reversible component of airflow obstruction identifiable by an improved FEV_1 following a dose of bronchodilator. Pulmonary hypertension (Ch. 22) is a late complication, causing symptoms of heart failure (*cor pulmonale*). Exacerbations may be complicated by respiratory failure (i.e. reduced P_{AO_2}) requiring hospitalisation and intensive care. Tracheostomy and artificial ventilation, while prolonging survival, may serve only to return the patient to a miserable life.

Pathogenesis

There is small airways fibrosis, resulting in obstruction, and/or destruction of alveoli and of elastin fibres in the lung parenchyma. The latter features are hallmarks of emphysema,[6] thought to be caused by proteases, including elastase, released during the inflammatory response. It is emphysema that causes respiratory failure, because it destroys the alveoli, impairing gas transfer. There is chronic inflammation, predominantly in small airways and lung parenchyma, characterised by increased numbers of macrophages, neutrophils and T lymphocytes. The inflammatory mediators have not been as clearly defined as in asthma. Lipid mediators, inflammatory peptides, reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, chemokines, cytokines and growth factors are all implicated (Barnes, 2004).

[6]Emphysema is a pathological condition sometimes associated with COPD, in which lung parenchyma is destroyed and replaced by air spaces that coalesce to form bullae—blister-like air-filled spaces in the lung tissue.

Principles of treatment

Stopping smoking (Ch. 46) slows the progress of COPD. Patients should be immunised against influenza and *Pneumococcus*, because superimposed infections with these organisms are potentially lethal. Glucocorticoids are generally ineffective, in contrast to asthma, but a trial of glucocorticoid treatment is worthwhile because asthma may coexist with COPD and have been overlooked. This contrast with asthma is puzzling, because in both diseases multiple inflammatory genes are activated, which might be expected to be turned off by glucocorticoids.

Inflammatory gene activation results from acetylation of nuclear histones around which DNA is wound. Acetylation opens up the chromatin structure, allowing gene transcription and synthesis of inflammatory proteins to proceed. HDAC is a key molecule in suppressing production of proinflammatory cytokines. Corticosteroids recruit HDAC to activated genes, reversing acetylation and switching off inflammatory gene transcription (Barnes et al., 2004). There is a link between the severity of COPD (but not of asthma) and reduced HDAC activity in lung tissue (Ito et al., 2005); furthermore, HDAC activity is inhibited by smoking-related oxidative stress, which may explain the lack of effectiveness of glucocorticoids in COPD.

Long-acting bronchodilators give modest benefit, but do not deal with the underlying inflammation. No currently licensed treatments reduce the progression of COPD or suppress the inflammation in small airways and lung parenchyma. Several new treatments that target the inflammatory process are in clinical development (Barnes & Stockley, 2005). Some, such as chemokine antagonists, are directed against the influx of inflammatory cells into the airways and lung parenchyma, whereas others target inflammatory cytokines such as TNF-α. PDE IV inhibitors (e.g. **roflumilast**; Rabe et al., 2005) show some promise. Other drugs that inhibit cell signalling (see Chs 3 and 5) include inhibitors of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase, nuclear factor κβ and phosphoinositide-3 kinase-γ. More specific approaches are to give antioxidants, inhibitors of inducible NO synthase and leukotriene B_4 antagonists. Other treatments have the potential to combat mucus hypersecretion, and there is a search for serine protease and matrix metalloprotease inhibitors to prevent lung destruction and the

development of emphysema.

Specific aspects of treatment

Short-and long-acting inhaled bronchodilators can provide useful palliation in patients with a reversible component. The main short-acting drugs are ipratropium and salbutamol; long-acting drugs include **tiotropium** and **salmeterol** or **formoterol** (Chs 13 and 14). Theophylline (Ch. 16)) can be given by mouth but is of uncertain benefit. Its respiratory stimulant effect may be useful for patients who tend to retain CO_2. Other respiratory stimulants (e.g. **doxapram**; see Ch. 47) are sometimes used briefly in acute respiratory failure (e.g. postoperatively) but have largely been replaced by ventilatory support (intermittent positive-pressure ventilation).

Long-term oxygen therapy administered at home prolongs life in patients with severe disease and hypoxaemia (at least if they refrain from smoking—an oxygen fire is not a pleasant way to go, especially for one's neighbours!).

Acute exacerbations

Acute exacerbations of COPD are treated with inhaled O_2 in a concentration (initially, at least) of only 24% O_2, *i.e.* only just above atmospheric O_2 concentration (approximately 20%). The need for caution is because of the risk of precipitating CO_2 retention as a consequence of terminating the hypoxic drive to respiration. Blood gases and tissue oxygen saturation are monitored, and inspired O_2 subsequently adjusted accordingly. Broad-spectrum antibiotics (e.g. **cefuroxime**; Ch. 50), including activity against *Haemophilus influenzae*, are used if there is evidence of infection. Inhaled bronchodilators may

provide some symptomatic improvement.

A systemically active glucocorticoid (intravenous **hydrocortisone** or oral **prednisolone**) is also administered routinely, although efficacy is modest. Inhaled steroids do not influence the progressive decline in lung function in patients with COPD, but do improve the quality of life, probably as a result of a modest reduction in hospital admissions.

Surfactants

Pulmonary surfactants are not true drugs in Ehrlich's sense (Ch. 2), acting as a result of their physicochemical properties within the airways rather than by binding to specific receptors. They are effective in the prophylaxis and management of *respiratory distress syndrome* in newborn babies, especially if premature. Examples include **beractant** and **poractant alpha**, which are derivatives of the physiological pulmonary surfactant protein. They are administered directly into the tracheobronchial tree via an endotracheal tube. (The mothers of premature infants are sometimes treated with glucocorticoids before birth in an attempt to accelerate maturation of the fetal lung and minimise incidence of this disorder.)

Cough

Cough is a protective reflex that removes foreign material and secretions from the bronchi and bronchioles. It is a very common adverse effect of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, in which case the treatment is usually to substitute an alternative drug, notably an angiotensin receptor antagonist, less likely to cause this adverse effect (Ch. 22). It can be triggered by inflammation in the respiratory tract, for example by

undiagnosed asthma or chronic reflux with aspiration, or by neoplasia. In these cases, cough suppressant (antitussive) drugs are sometimes useful, for example for the dry painful cough associated with bronchial carcinoma, but are to be avoided in cases of chronic pulmonary infection, as they can cause undesirable thickening and retention of sputum, and in asthma because of the risk of respiratory depression.

Drugs Used for Cough

Antitussive drugs in clinical use are all opioid analgesics (Ch. 41), which act by an ill-defined effect in the brain stem, depressing an even more poorly defined 'cough centre'. They suppress cough in doses below those required for pain relief. Those used as cough suppressants have minimal analgesic actions and addictive properties. New opioid analogues that suppress cough by inhibiting release of excitatory neuropeptides through an action on μ receptors (see Table 41.1) on sensory nerves in the bronchi are being assessed.

Codeine (methylmorphine) is a weak opioid (see Ch. 41) with considerably less addiction liability than the main opioids, and is a mild cough suppressant. It decreases secretions in the bronchioles, which thickens sputum, and inhibits ciliary activity. Constipation is common. **Dextromethorphan** and **pholcodine** have similar but possibly less intense adverse effects. Respiratory depression is a risk with all drugs of this type. **Morphine** is used for palliative care in cases of lung cancer associated with distressing cough.

References and Further Reading

Background material

irstein S.L., Insel P.A. Autonomic nervous system pharmacogenomics: a progress report. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2004;56:31-52. (*Reviews recent ideas regarding pharmacogenomics of components of the autonomic nervous system*)

mall K.M., McGraw D.W., Liggett S.B. Pharmacology and physiology of human adrenergic receptor polymorphisms. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2003;43:381-411. (*Reviews the consequences of adrenergic receptor polymorphisms in terms of signalling, human physiology and disease, and response to therapy*)

an der Velden V.H.J., Hulsmann A.R. Autonomic innervation of human airways: structure, function, and pathophysiology in asthma. *Neuroimmunomodulation*. 1999;6:145-159. (*Review*)

Asthma

dcock I.M., Ito K. Steroid resistance in asthma: a major problem requiring novel solutions or a non-issue? *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2004;4:257-262. (*'Once issues of diagnosis, compliance and psychological disorder have been resolved, true steroid resistance is unlikely to be an issue for most clinicians, who will rarely, if ever, see these patients. However, management of these few patients with true steroid resistance will require novel therapies.'*)

erry M., Hargadon B., Morgan A., *et al.* Alveolar nitric oxide in adults with asthma: evidence of distal lung inflammation in refractory asthma. *Eur. Respir. J.*. 2005;25:986-991. (*Alveolar NO as a measure of distal airway inflammation*)

ritish Thoracic Society. (updated June, 2009). British guideline on management of asthma. http://brit-thoracic.org.uk/ClinicalInformation/Asthma/AsthmaGuidelines/tabid/83/Default.aspx, 2008.

hatila T.A. Interleukin-4 receptor signaling pathways in asthma pathogenesis. *Trends Mol. Med.*. 2004;10:493-499.

ormican L.J., Farooque S., Altmann D.R., *et al.* Improvements in an oral aspirin challenge protocol for the diagnosis of aspirin hypersensitivity. *Clin. Exp. Allergy*. 2005;35:717-722.

ay A.B. The role of eosinophils in the pathogenesis of asthma. *Trends Mol. Med.*. 2005;11:148-152. (*The eosinophil is firmly back on the asthma stage, strengthening the case for developing effective eosinophil-depleting agents*)

leeberger S.R., Peden D. Gene–environment interactions in asthma and other respiratory diseases. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 2005;56:383-400.

arche M., Robinson D.S., Kay A.B. The role of T lymphocytes in the pathogenesis of asthma. *J. Allergy Clin. Immunol.*. 2003;111:450-463. (*Several Th2 cytokines have the potential to modulate airway inflammation, particularly IL-13, which induces airway hyper-responsiveness independently*

of IgE and eosinophilia in animal models)

ucaks N.W. Role of chemokines in the pathogenesis of asthma. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.*. 2001;1:108-116. (*Excellent coverage of the chemokines involved in asthma, with detailed table of chemokines and good diagrams*)

uster A.D., Tager A.M. T-cell trafficking in asthma: lipid mediators grease the way. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.*. 2004;4:711-724.

elaia G., Cuda G., Vatrella A., *et al.* Mitogen-activated protein kinases and asthma. *J. Cell. Physiol.*. 2005;202:642-653. (*Reviews involvement of mitogen-activated protein kinases in asthma pathogenesis, and discusses their possible role as molecular targets for antiasthma drugs*)

/alter M.J., Holtzman M.J. A centennial history of research on asthma pathogenesis. *Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol.*. 2005;32:483-489.

/ills-Karp M. Interleukin-13 in asthma pathogenesis. *Immunol. Rev.*. 2004;202:175-190.

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

arnes P.J. Mediators of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2004;56:515-548. (*'The identification of inflammatory mediators and understanding their interactions is important for the development of anti-inflammatory treatments for this important disease.'*)

arnes P.J. Frontrunners in novel pharmacotherapy of COPD. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2008;8:300-307. (*Discusses candidates that may inhibit inflammation and reduce progression of COPD; most promising are theophylline-like drugs(!), new antioxidants and non-antibiotic macrolides*)

arnes P.J., Stockley R.A. COPD: current therapeutic interventions and future approaches. *Eur. Respir. J.*. 2005;25:1084-1106. (*Long-acting bronchodilators have been an important advance for COPD but do not deal with the underlying inflammatory process. No currently available treatments reduce the progression of COPD. New approaches, for example chemokine antagonists, PDE IV inhibitors, inhibitors of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase, nuclear factor-κβ and phosphoinositide-3 kinase-γ, are reviewed*)

arnes P.J., Ito K., Adcock I.M. Corticosteroid resistance in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: inactivation of histone deacetylase. *Lancet.* 2004;363:731-733. (*Hypothesis that in patients with COPD, HDAC is impaired by cigarette smoking and oxidative stress, leading to reduced responsiveness to corticosteroids; see also Ito et al., 2005, below*)

o K., Ito M., Elliott W.M., *et al.* Decreased histone deacetylase activity in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;352:1967-1976. (*There is a link between the severity of COPD and the reduction in HDAC activity in the peripheral lung tissue; HDAC is a key molecule in the repression of production of proinflammatory cytokines in alveolar macrophages*)

Cough

Iorice A.H., Kastelik J.A., Thompson R. Cough challenge in the assessment of cough reflex. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2001;52:365-375.

eynolds S.M., Mackenzie A.J., Spina D., Page C.P. The pharmacology of cough. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2004;25:569-576. *(Discusses the pathophysiological mechanisms of cough and implications for developing new antitussive drugs)*

Drugs and therapeutic aspects

arnes P.J. How corticosteroids control inflammation. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2006;148:245-254.

en-Noun L. Drug-induced respiratory disorders: incidence, prevention and management. *Drug Saf.*. 2000;23:143-164. (*Diverse pulmonary adverse drug effects*)

hrystyn H. Methods to identify drug deposition in the lungs following inhalation. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2001;51:289-299.

onti M., Beavo J. Biochemistry and physiology of cyclic nucleotide phosphodiesterases: essential components in cyclic nucleotide signaling. *Ann. Rev. Biochem.*. 2007;76:481-511.

iri S.N. Novel pharmacological approaches to manage interstitial lung fibrosis in the twenty first century Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol. 43:2003:73-95 (*Reviews approaches including maintaining intracellular nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide [NAD^+] and ATP, blocking transforming growth factor-β and integrins, platelet-activating factor receptor antagonists and NO synthase inhibitors*)

olgate S.T., Djukanovic R., Casale T., Bousquet J. Anti-immunoglobulin E treatment with omalizumab in allergic diseases: an update on anti-inflammatory activity and clinical efficacy. *Clin. Exp. Allergy*. 2005;35:408-416. (*Reviews mechanism and clinical studies*)

eff A.R. Regulation of leukotrienes in the management of asthma: biology and clinical therapy. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 2001;52:1-14. (*Discusses the role of leukotrienes in the pathogenesis of bronchoconstriction and the pharmacology of antagonists at the cysteinyl leukotriene receptor*)

ewis J.F., Veldhuizen R. The role of exogenous surfactant in the treatment of acute lung injury. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*. 2003;65:613-642.

abe K.F., Bateman E.D., O'Donnell D., *et al.* Roflumilast—an oral anti-inflammatory treatment for chronic obstructive pulmonary disease: a randomized controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2005;366:563-571. (*This type IV PDE inhibitor improved lung function and reduced exacerbations compared with placebo; the improvement was modest, and it remains to be proved that it relates to an anti-*

inflammatory rather than a bronchodilator action)

ɛars M.R., Lotvall J. Past, present and future—β2-adrenoceptor agonists in asthma management Respir. Med. 99:2005:152-170 (*'Tolerance to the bronchoprotective effects of long-acting β2 agonists and cross-tolerance to the bronchodilator effects of short-acting β2 agonists is apparent despite use of inhaled corticosteroids. The role of β2 receptor polymorphisms in the development of tolerance has yet to be fully determined. Formoterol is unique in having both a long-lasting bronchodilator effect and a fast onset of action.'*)

ɔusa A.R., Parikh A., Scadding G., et al Leukotriene-receptor expression on nasal mucosal inflammatory cells in aspirin-sensitive rhinosinusitis N. Engl. J. Med. 347:2002:1493-1499 (*Demonstrated elevated numbers of nasal inflammatory leukocytes expressing the CysLT1 receptor in biopsy specimens from aspirin-sensitive patients with chronic rhinosinusitis as compared with non-aspirin-sensitive control subjects, and downregulation of receptor expression after desensitisation to aspirin*)

28

The kidney

Overview

We set the scene with a brief outline of renal physiology based on the functional unit of the kidney—the nephron—before describing drugs that affect renal function. Subsequent emphasis is on diuretics—drugs that increase the excretion of Na^+ ions and water. We also consider briefly other drugs that are used in treatment of patients with renal failure and urinary tract disorders.

Introduction

The main drugs that work by altering renal function—the diuretics—are crucial for the management of cardiovascular disease (Chs 21 and 22) as well as patients with renal disease. The kidneys are the main organ by which drugs and their metabolites are eliminated from the body (Ch. 9), and so in renal impairment dosing regimens of many drugs must be adapted. Furthermore, the kidneys are a target for various kinds of drug toxicity (Ch. 57). Antihypertensive drugs (commonly indicated in kidney disease) are covered in Chapter 22, immunosuppressant drugs (effective in several of the diseases that can cause renal failure, and crucial for maintaining the health of patients who have received a kidney transplant) in Chapter 26 and antibacterial drugs (used to treat renal and urinary tract infections) in Chapter 50. Patients with anaemia due to chronic renal failure benefit greatly from **epoetin** (Ch. 25). In the present chapter we focus on the main drugs that act on the renal tubules,

namely diuretics—drugs that increase the excretion of Na^+ ions and water. We also consider briefly other drugs that are used in treating renal failure (concentrating on acid–base and electrolyte aspects) and urinary tract disorders.

Outline of Renal Function

The main function of the kidney is to maintain the constancy of the 'interior environment' by eliminating waste products and by regulating the volume, electrolyte content and pH of the extracellular fluid in the face of varying dietary intake and other environmental (e.g. climatic) demands.

The kidneys receive about a quarter of the cardiac output. From the several hundred litres of plasma that flow through them each day, they filter (in a 70 kg human) approximately 120 litres per day, 11 times the total extracellular fluid volume. This filtrate is similar to plasma apart from the absence of protein. As it passes through the renal tubule, about 99% of the filtered water, and much of the filtered Na^+, is reabsorbed, and some substances are secreted into it from the blood. Eventually, approximately 1.5 litres is voided as urine per 24 h under usual conditions (Table 28.1).

Table 28.1 Reabsorption of fluid and solute in the kidney[a]

	Filtered/day	Excreted/day[b]	Percentage reabsorbed
Na^+ (mmol)	25000	150	99+
K^+ (mmol)	600	90	93+
Cl^- (mmol)	18000	150	99+
HCO_3^- (mmol)	4900	0	100
Total solute (mosmol)	54000	700	87
H_2O (litres)	180	~1.5	99+

[a] Typical values for a healthy young adult: renal blood flow, 1200 ml/min (20–25% of cardiac output); renal plasma flow, 660 ml/min; glomerular filtration rate, 125 ml/min.
[b] These are typical figures for an individual eating a Western diet. The kidney excretes more or less of each of these substances to maintain the constancy of the internal milieu, so on a low-sodium diet (for instance in the Yanomami Indians of the upper Amazon basin), NaCl excretion may be reduced to below 10 mmol/day! At the other extreme, individuals living in some fishing communities in Japan eat (and therefore excrete) several hundred mmol/day.

Each kidney consists of an outer cortex, an inner medulla and a hollow pelvis, which empties into the ureter. The functional unit is the nephron, of which there are approximately 1.4×10^6 in each kidney (approximately half this number in people with hypertension), with considerable variation between individuals and an age-related decline.

The Structure and Function of the Nephron

Each nephron consists of a *glomerulus*, *proximal tubule*, *loop of Henle*, *distal convoluted tubule* and *collecting duct*—Figure 28.1. The glomerulus comprises a tuft of capillaries projecting into a dilated end of the renal tubule. Most nephrons lie largely or entirely in the cortex. The remaining 12%, called the *juxtamedullary nephrons*, have their glomeruli and convoluted tubules next to the junction of the medulla and cortex, and their loops of Henle pass deep into the medulla.

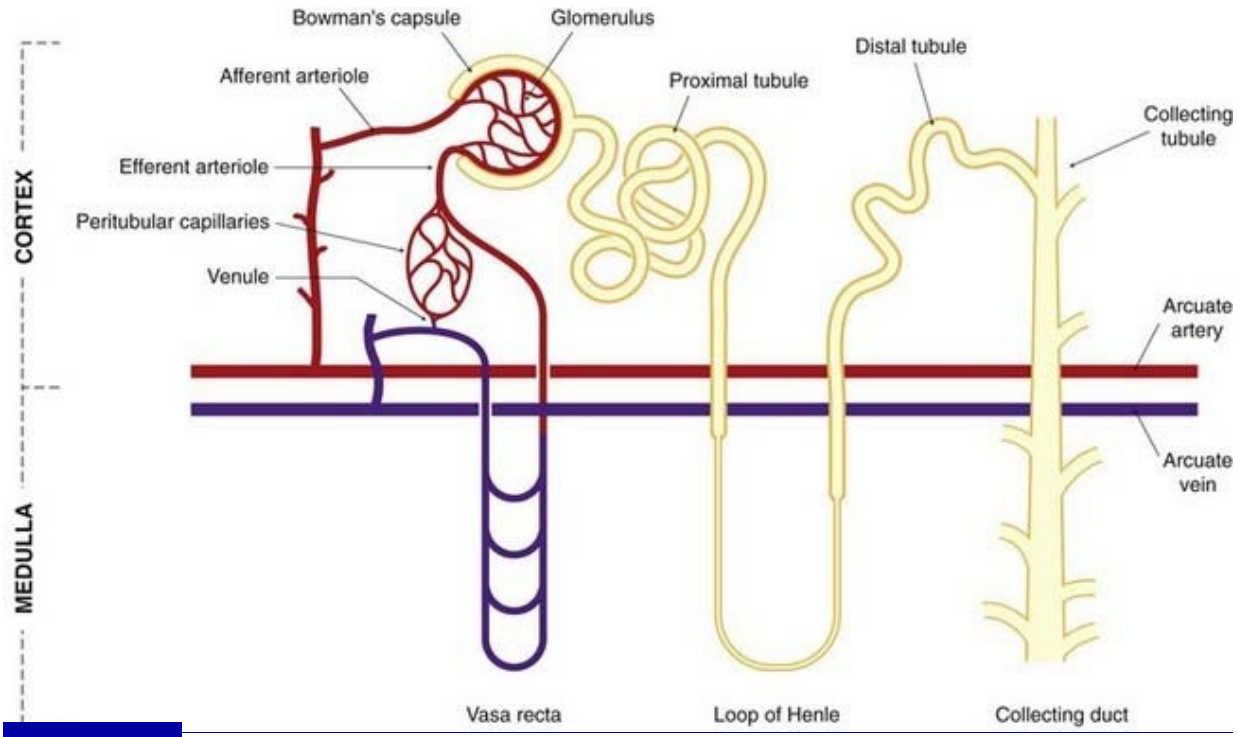


Fig. 28.1 Simplified diagram of a juxtamedullary nephron and its blood supply.

The tubules and the blood vessels are shown separately for clarity. In the kidney, the peritubular capillary network surrounds the convoluted tubules, and the distal convoluted tubule passes close to the glomerulus, between the afferent and efferent arterioles. (This last is shown in more detail in Fig. 28.2.)

The Blood Supply to the Nephron

Nephrons possess the special characteristic of having two capillary beds in series with each other (see Fig. 28.1). The afferent arteriole of each cortical nephron branches to form the glomerulus; glomerular capillaries coalesce into the efferent arteriole which, in turn, branches to form a second capillary network in the cortex, around the convoluted tubules and loops of Henle, before converging on venules and thence on renal veins. By contrast, efferent arterioles of juxtamedullary nephrons lead to vessel loops (*vasa recta*) that pass deep into the medulla with the thin loops of Henle, and play a key role in counter-current exchange (see below).

The Juxtaglomerular Apparatus

A conjunction of afferent arteriole, efferent arteriole and distal convoluted tubule near the glomerulus forms the juxtaglomerular apparatus (Fig. 28.2). At this site, there are specialised cells in both the afferent arteriole and in the tubule. The latter, termed *macula densa* cells, respond to changes in the rate of flow and the composition of tubule fluid, and they control *renin* release from specialised granular renin-containing cells in the afferent arteriole (Ch. 22). Other mediators also influence renin secretion, including β_2 agonists, vasodilator prostaglandins and feedback inhibition from angiotensin II acting on AT_1 receptors (see Fig. 22.4). The role of the juxtaglomerular apparatus in the control of Na^+ balance is dealt with below.

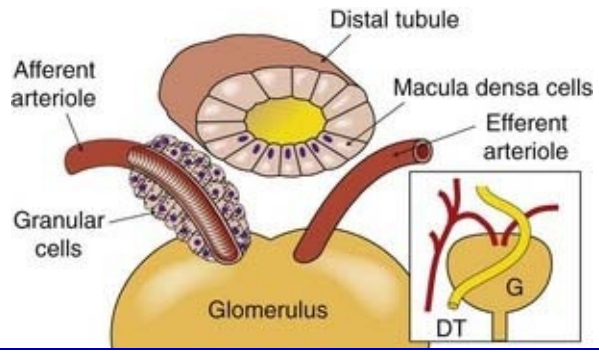


Fig. 28.2 The juxtaglomerular apparatus.

The cutaway sections show the granular renin-containing cells round the afferent arteriole, and the macula densa cells in the distal convoluted tubule. The inset shows the general relationships between the structures. DT, distal tubule; G, glomerulus.

(Modified from Sullivan & Grantham, 1982.)

Glomerular Filtration

Fluid is driven from the capillaries into the tubular capsule (Bowman's capsule) by hydrodynamic force opposed by the oncotic pressure of the plasma proteins, to which the glomerular capillaries are impermeable. All the low-molecular-weight constituents of plasma appear in the

filtrate, while albumin and larger proteins are retained in the blood.

Tubular Function

The apex (lumenal surface) of each tubular cell is surrounded by a tight junction, as in all epithelia. This is a specialised region of membrane that separates the intercellular space from the lumen. The movement of ions and water across the epithelium can occur *through* cells (the transcellular pathway) and *between* cells through the tight junctions (the paracellular pathway). A common theme is that energy is expended to pump Na^+ out of the cell by Na^+-K^+-ATPase situated in the basolateral cell membrane and the resulting gradient of Na^+ concentration drives the entry of Na^+ from the lumen via various transporters that facilitate Na^+ entry coupled with movement of other ions. These transporters vary in different parts of the nephron as described below.

The Proximal Convoluted Tubule

The epithelium of the proximal convoluted tubule is 'leaky', *i.e.* the tight junctions in the proximal tubule are not so 'tight' after all, being permeable to ions and water, and permitting passive flow in either direction. This prevents the build-up of large concentration gradients; thus, although approximately 60–70% of Na^+ reabsorption occurs in the proximal tubule, this transfer is accompanied by passive absorption of water so that fluid leaving the proximal tubule remains approximately isotonic to the filtrate entering Bowman's capsule.

Some of the transport processes in the proximal tubule are shown in Figures 28.3-28.5. The most important mechanism for Na^+ entry into proximal tubular cells from the filtrate occurs by Na^+/H^+ exchange (Fig. 28.5). Intracellular carbonic anhydrase is essential for production of H^+ for secretion into the lumen. Na^+ is reabsorbed in exchange for H^+, and transported out of the cells into the interstitium and thence into

the blood by a Na^+-K^+-ATPase (sodium pump) in the basolateral membrane. This is the main active transport mechanism of the nephron in terms of energy consumption.

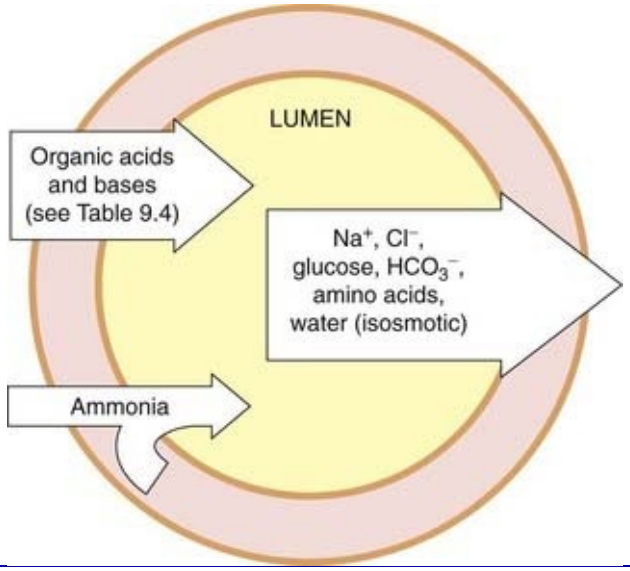


Fig. 28.3 Transport processes in the proximal convoluted tubule.

The main driving force for the absorption of solutes and water from the lumen is the Na^+-K^+-ATPase in the basolateral membrane of the tubule cells. Many drugs are secreted into the proximal tubule (see Ch. 9).

(Redrawn from Burg, 1985.)

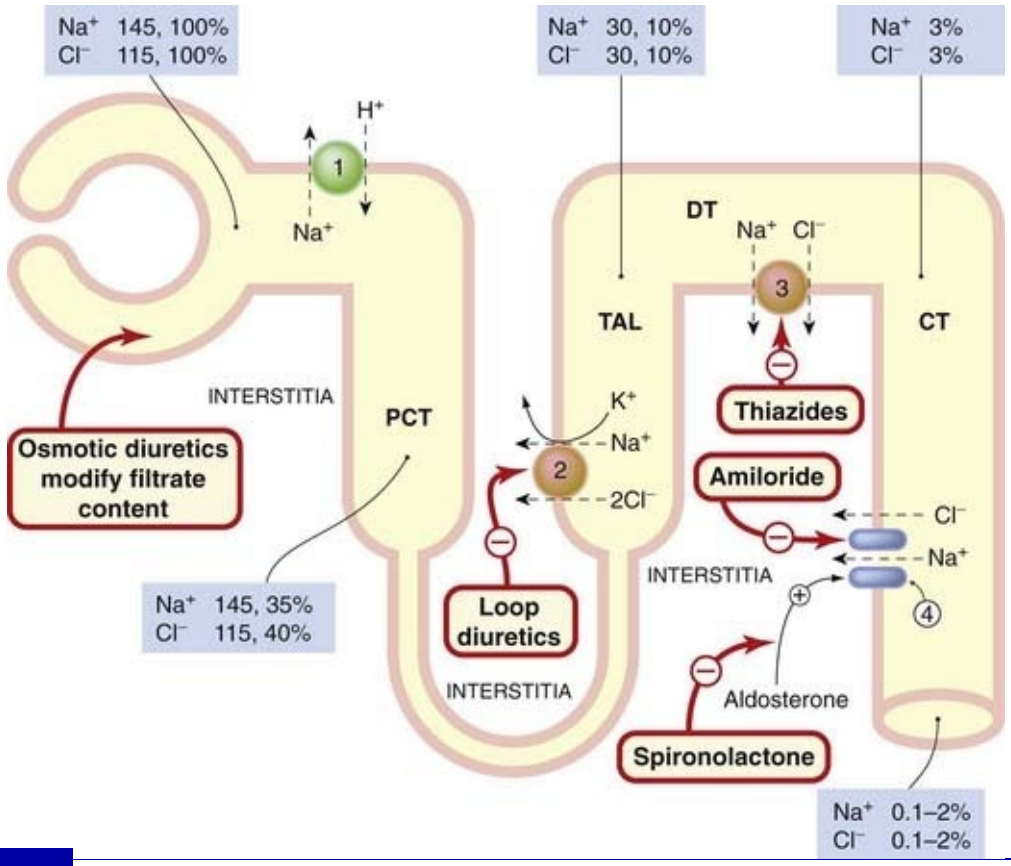


Fig. 28.4 Schematic showing the absorption of sodium and chloride in the nephron and the main sites of action of drugs.

Cells are depicted as an orange border round the yellow tubular lumen. Mechanisms of ion absorption at the apical margin of the tubule cell: (1) Na^+/H^+ exchange; (2) $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ cotransport; (3) Na^+/Cl^- cotransport; (4) Na^+ entry through sodium channels. Sodium is pumped out of the cells into the interstitium by the Na^+-K^+-ATPase in the basolateral margin of the tubular cells (not shown). The numbers in the boxes give the concentration of ions as millimoles per litre of filtrate, and the percentage of filtered ions still remaining in the tubular fluid at the sites specified. CT, collecting tubule; DT, distal tubule; PCT, proximal convoluted tubule; TAL, thick ascending loop.

(Data from Greger, 2000.)

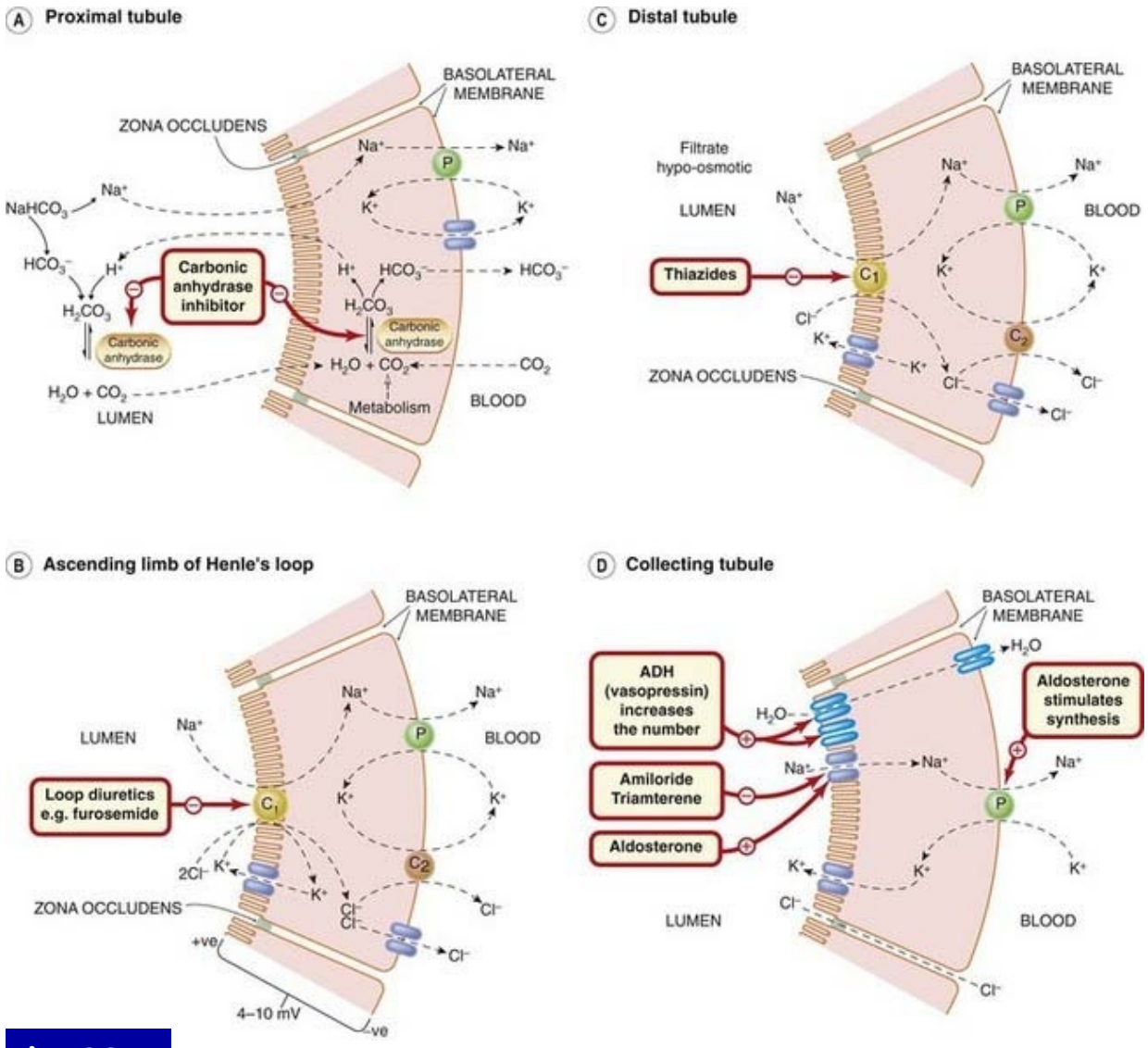


Fig. 28.5 Drug effects on renal tubular ion transport.

The primary active transport mechanism is the Na^+ pump (P) in the basolateral membrane. The diagram is simplified: the Na^+ pump (in each panel) exchanges $3Na^+$ for $2K^+$. [**A**] Bicarbonate ion reabsorption in the proximal convoluted tubule, showing the action of carbonic anhydrase inhibitors. Sodium ions are absorbed and H^+ secreted at the lumenal surface by an antiport mechanism (Na^+/H^+ exchanger). [**B**] Ion transport in the thick ascending limb of Henle's loop, showing the site of action of loop diuretics. Na^+, K^+ and Cl^- enter by a cotransport system (C_1). Chloride leaves the cell both through basolateral chloride channels and by an electroneutral K^+/Cl^- cotransport system (C_2). Some K^+ returns to the lumen via potassium channels in the apical membrane, and some Na^+ is absorbed paracellularly through the zonula occludens. [**C**] Salt transport in the distal convoluted tubule, showing the site of

action of thiazide diuretics. Sodium and chloride ions enter by an electroneutral cotransport carrier (C_1). Some Cl^- is transported out of the cell by a K^+/Cl^- cotransport carrier (C_2); some leaves the cell through chloride channels. Some K^+ is transported out of the cell by the cotransport carrier (C_2), and some passes back into the tubule lumen through potassium channels. [**D**] Actions of hormones and drugs on the collecting tubule. The cells are impermeable to water in the absence of antidiuretic hormone (ADH), and to Na^+ in the absence of aldosterone. Aldosterone acts on a nuclear receptor within the tubule cell and on membrane receptors. Chloride ions exit the tubule through the paracellular pathway. Potassium ions are added to the filtrate, as is H^+ (not shown).

(Adapted from Greger, 2000.)

▼ Bicarbonate is normally completely reabsorbed in the proximal tubule. This is achieved by combination with protons, yielding carbonic acid, which dissociates to form carbon dioxide and water—a reaction catalysed by carbonic anhydrase present in the lumenal brush border of the proximal tubule cells (Fig. 28.5A)—followed by passive reabsorption of the dissolved carbon dioxide.[1] The selective removal of sodium bicarbonate, with accompanying water, in the early proximal tubule causes a secondary rise in the concentration of chloride ions. Diffusion of chloride down its concentration gradient via the paracellular shunt leads, in turn, to a lumen-positive potential difference that favours reabsorption of sodium. The other mechanism involved in movement via the paracellular route is that sodium ions are secreted by Na^+-K^+-ATPase into the lateral intercellular space, slightly raising its osmolality because of its 3 : 2 stoichiometry. This leads to osmotic movement of water across the tight junction, in turn causing sodium reabsorption by convection (solvent drag).

[1]The reaction is reversible, and the enzyme (as any catalyst) does not alter the equilibrium, just speeds up the rate with which it is attained. The concentrations inside the cell are such that carbon dioxide combines

with water to produce carbonic acid: the same enzyme (carbonic anhydrase) catalyses this as well (Fig. 28.5A).

Many organic acids and bases are actively secreted into the tubule from the blood by specific transporters (see below, Fig. 28.3 and Ch. 9).

After passage through the proximal tubule, tubular fluid (now 30–40% of the original volume of the filtrate) passes on to the loop of Henle.

The Loop of Henle, Medullary Counter-Current Multiplier and Exchanger

The loop of Henle consists of a descending and an ascending portion (Figs 28.1 and 28.4), the ascending portion having both thick and thin segments. This part of the nephron enables the kidney to excrete urine that is either more or less concentrated than plasma, and hence to regulate the osmotic balance of the body as a whole. The loops of Henle of the juxtamedullary nephrons function as counter-current multipliers, and the vasa recta as counter-current exchangers. NaCl is actively reabsorbed in the thick ascending limb, causing hypertonicity of the interstitium. In the descending limb, water moves out and the tubular fluid becomes progressively more concentrated as it approaches the bend.

▼ The *descending limb* is permeable to water, which exits passively because the interstitial fluid of the medulla is kept hypertonic by the counter-current concentrating system. In juxtamedullary nephrons with long loops, there is extensive movement of water out of the tubule so that the fluid eventually reaching the tip of the loop has a high osmolality—normally approximately 1200 mosmol/kg, but up to 1500 mosmol/kg under conditions of dehydration—compared with plasma and extracellular fluid, which is approximately 300 mosmol/kg.[2] The hypertonic milieu of medulla, through which the collecting ducts of

all nephrons pass on the way to the renal pelvis, is important in providing a mechanism by which the osmolarity of the urine is controlled.

The *ascending limb* has very low permeability to water, *i.e.* the tight junctions really are 'tight', enabling the build-up of a substantial concentration gradient across the wall of the tubule. It is here, in the thick ascending limb of the loop of Henle, that 20–30% of filtered Na^+ is reabsorbed. There is active reabsorption of NaCl, unaccompanied by water, reducing the osmolarity of the tubular fluid and making the interstitial fluid of the medulla hypertonic. The osmotic gradient in the medullary interstitium is the key consequence of the counter-current multiplier system, the main principle being that small horizontal osmotic gradients 'stack up' to produce a large vertical gradient. Urea contributes to the gradient because it is more slowly reabsorbed than water and may be added to fluid in the descending limb, so its concentration rises along the nephron until it reaches the collecting tubules, where it diffuses out into the interstitium. It is thus 'trapped' in the inner medulla.

[2]These figures are for humans; some other species, notably the desert rat, can do much better, with urine osmolalities up to 5000 mosmol/kg.

Ions move into cells of the thick ascending limb of the loop of Henle across the apical membrane by a $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ cotransporter, driven by the Na^+ gradient produced by Na^+-K^+-ATPase in the basolateral membrane (Fig. 28.5B). Most of the K^+ taken into the cell by the $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ cotransporter returns to the lumen through apical potassium channels, but some K^+ is reabsorbed, along with Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+}.

Reabsorption of salt from the thick ascending limb is not balanced by reabsorption of water, so tubular fluid is hypotonic with respect to

plasma as it enters the distal convoluted tubule (Fig. 28.4). The thick ascending limb is therefore sometimes referred to as the 'diluting segment'.

The Distal Tubule

In the early distal tubule, NaCl reabsorption, coupled with impermeability of the *zonula occludens* to water, further dilutes the tubular fluid. Transport is driven by Na^+-K^+-ATPase in the basolateral membrane. This lowers cytoplasmic Na^+ concentration, and consequently Na^+ enters the cell from the lumen down its concentration gradient, accompanied by Cl^-, by means of a Na^+/Cl^- cotransporter (Fig. 28.5C).

The excretion of Ca^{2+} is regulated in this part of the nephron, *parathormone* and *calcitriol* both increasing Ca^{2+} reabsorption (see Ch. 35).

The Collecting Tubule and Collecting Duct

Distal convoluted tubules empty into collecting tubules, which coalesce to form collecting ducts (Fig. 28.1). Collecting tubules include principal cells, which reabsorb Na^+ and secrete K^+ (Fig. 28.5D), and two populations of intercalated cells, α and β, which secrete acid and base, respectively.

The tight junctions in this portion of the nephron are impermeable to water and ions. The movement of ions and water in this segment is under independent hormonal control: absorption of NaCl by *aldosterone* (Ch. 22), and absorption of water by *antidiuretic hormone* (ADH), also termed *vasopressin* (Ch. 32).

Aldosterone enhances Na^+ reabsorption and promotes K^+ excretion. It promotes Na^+ reabsorption by:

• a rapid effect, stimulating Na^+/H^+ exchange by an action on membrane aldosterone receptors[3]

• a delayed effect, via nuclear receptors (see Ch. 3), directing the synthesis of a specific protein mediator that activates sodium channels in the apical membrane (Fig. 28.5D)

• long-term effects, by increasing the number of basolateral Na^+ pumps (Fig. 28.5D).

[3]A mechanism distinct from regulation of gene transcription, which is the normal transduction mechanism for steroid hormones (Ch. 3).

ADH and nephrogenic diabetes insipidus

ADH is secreted by the posterior pituitary (Ch. 32) and binds V_2 receptors in the basolateral membranes of cells in the collecting tubules and ducts, increasing expression of *aquaporin* (water channels; see Ch. 8) in the apical membranes (Fig. 28.5D). This renders this part of the nephron permeable to water, allowing passive reabsorption of water as the collecting duct traverses the hyperosmotic region of the medulla, and hence the excretion of concentrated urine. Conversely, in the absence of ADH, collecting duct epithelium is impermeable to water, so hypotonic fluid that leaves the distal tubule remains hypotonic as it passes down the collecting ducts, leading to the excretion of dilute urine. Defective ADH secretion (Ch. 32) or action on the kidney results in *diabetes insipidus*, a disorder in which patients excrete large volumes of dilute urine.

Ethanol (Ch. 48) inhibits the secretion of ADH, causing a water diuresis (possibly familiar to some of our readers) as a kind of transient diabetes insipidus. **Nicotine** enhances ADH secretion (perhaps contributing to the appeal of an after-dinner cigar?).

Several drugs inhibit the action of ADH: **lithium** (used in psychiatric disorders; see Ch. 45), **demeclocycline** (a tetracycline used not as an antibiotic, but rather to treat inappropriate secretion of ADH from tumours or in other conditions), **colchicine** (Ch. 26) and *vinca alkaloids* (Ch. 55). Recently, more specific antagonists of ADH (e.g. **conivaptan**, **tolvaptan**) have been introduced for treatment of hyponatraemia (see Ch. 22). All these drugs can cause acquired forms of *nephrogenic* diabetes insipidus, caused by a failure of the renal collecting ducts to respond to ADH. Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus can also be caused by two genetic disorders affecting the V_1 receptor or aquaporin.

Renal tubular function

• Protein-free glomerular filtrate enters via Bowman's capsule.

• Na^+-K^+-ATPase in the basolateral membrane is the main active transporter. It provides the gradients for passive transporters in the apical membranes.

• 60–70% of the filtered Na^+ and > 90% of HCO_3^- is absorbed in the proximal tubule.

• Carbonic anhydrase is key for $NaHCO_3$ reabsorption and distal tubular urine acidification.

• The thick ascending limb of Henle's loop is impermeable to water; 20–30% of the filtered NaCl is actively reabsorbed in this segment.

• Ions are reabsorbed from tubular fluid by a $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ cotransporter in the apical membranes of the thick ascending limb.

• $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ cotransport is inhibited by loop diuretics.

• Filtrate is diluted as it traverses the thick ascending limb as ions are reabsorbed, so that it is hypotonic when it leaves.

• The tubular counter-current multiplier actively generates a concentration gradient—small

horizontal differences in solute concentration between tubular fluid and interstitium are multiplied vertically. The deeper in the medulla, the more concentrated is the interstitial fluid.

• Medullary hypertonicity is preserved passively by counter-current exchange in the vasa recta.

• Na^+/Cl^- cotransport (inhibited by thiazide diuretics) reabsorbs 5–10% of filtered Na^+ in the distal tubule.

• K^+ is secreted into tubular fluid in the distal tubule and the collecting tubules and collecting ducts.

• In the absence of antidiuretic hormone (ADH), the collecting tubule and collecting duct have low permeability to salt and water. ADH increases water permeability.

• Na^+ is reabsorbed from the collecting duct through epithelial sodium channels.

• These are stimulated by aldosterone and inhibited by **amiloride**. K^+ or H^+ is secreted into the tubule in exchange for Na^+ in this distal region.

Acid–Base Balance

The kidneys (together with the lungs; Ch. 27) regulate the H^+ concentration of body fluids. Acid or alkaline urine can be excreted according to need, the usual requirement being to form acid urine to eliminate phosphoric and sulfuric acids generated during the metabolism of nucleic acids, and sulfur-containing amino acids consumed in the diet. Consequently, metabolic acidosis is a common accompaniment of renal failure. Altering urine pH to alter drug exretion is mentioned below.

Potassium Balance

Extracellular K^+ concentration—critically important for excitable tissue

function (see Ch. 4)—is tightly controlled through regulation of K^+ excretion by the kidney. Urinary K^+ excretion matches dietary intake, usually approximately 50–100 mmol in 24 h in Western countries. Most diuretics cause K^+ loss (see below). This can cause problems if they are co-administered with cardiac glycosides or class III antidysrhythmic drugs whose toxicity is increased by low plasma K^+ (Ch. 22)—clinically important drug interactions (see Ch. 56).

Potassium ions are transported into collecting duct and collecting tubule cells from blood and interstitial fluid by Na^+-K^+-ATPase in the basolateral membrane, and leak into the lumen through a K^+-selective ion channel. Na^+ passes from tubular fluid through sodium channels in the apical membrane down the electrochemical gradient created by the Na^+-K^+-ATPase; a lumen-negative potential difference across the cell results, increasing the driving force for K^+ secretion into the lumen. Thus K^+ secretion is coupled to Na^+ reabsorption.

Consequently, K^+ is lost when:

- more Na^+ reaches the collecting duct, as occurs with any diuretic acting proximal to the collecting duct

- Na^+ reabsorption in the collecting duct is increased directly (e.g. in hyperaldosteronism).

K^+ is retained when:

- Na^+ reabsorption in the collecting duct is decreased, for example by **amiloride** or **triamterene**, which block the sodium channel in this part of the nephron, or **spironolactone** or **eplerenone**, which antagonise aldosterone (see below).

Excretion of Organic Molecules

There are distinct mechanisms (see Ch. 9, Table 9.4) for secreting

organic anions and cations into the proximal tubular lumen. Secreted anions include several important drugs, for example *thiazides*, **furosemide**, **salicylate** (Ch. 26), and most *penicillins* and *cephalosporins* (Ch. 50). Similarly, several secreted organic cations are important drugs, for example **triamterene**, **amiloride**, **atropine** (Ch. 13), **morphine** (Ch. 41) and **quinine** (Ch. 53). Both anion and cation transport mechanisms are, like other renal ion transport processes, indirectly powered by active transport of Na^+ and K^+, the energy being derived from Na^+-K^+-ATPase in the basolateral membrane.

Organic anions are exchanged with α-ketoglutarate by an antiport in the basolateral membrane, and diffuse passively into the tubular lumen (Fig. 28.3).

Organic cations diffuse into the cell from the interstitium and are then actively transported into the tubular lumen in exchange for H^+.

Natriuretic Peptides

Endogenous A, B and C natriuretic peptides (ANP, BNP and CNP; see Chs 21 and 22) are involved in the regulation of Na^+ excretion. They are released from the heart in response to stretch (A and B), from endothelium (C) and from brain (B). They activate guanylyl cyclase (Ch. 3), and cause natriuresis both by renal haemodynamic effects (increasing glomerular capillary pressure by dilating afferent and constricting efferent arterioles) and by direct tubular actions. The tubular actions include the inhibition of angiotensin II-stimulated Na^+ and water reabsorption in the proximal convoluted tubule, and of the action of ADH in promoting water reabsorption in the collecting tubule.

Within the kidney, the post-translational processing of ANP prohormone differs from that in other tissues, resulting in an additional four amino acids being added to the amino terminus of ANP to yield a

related peptide, *urodilatin*, that promotes Na^+ excretion by acting on receptors on the lumenal side of the collecting duct cells.

Prostaglandins and Renal Function

Prostaglandins (PGs; see Ch. 17) generated in the kidney modulate its haemodynamic and excretory functions. The main renal prostaglandins in humans are vasodilator and natriuretic, namely PGE_2 in the medulla and PGI_2 (prostacyclin) in glomeruli. Factors that stimulate their synthesis include ischaemia, angiotensin II, ADH and bradykinin.

Prostaglandin biosynthesis is low under basal conditions. However, when vasoconstrictors (e.g. angiotensin II, noradrenaline) are released, PGE_2 and PGI_2 modulate their effects on the kidney by causing compensatory vasodilatation.

The influence of renal prostaglandins on salt balance and haemodynamics can be inferred from the effects of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs, which inhibit prostaglandin production; see Ch. 26). NSAIDs have little or no effect on renal function in healthy people, but predictably cause acute renal failure in clinical conditions in which renal blood flow depends on vasodilator prostaglandin biosynthesis. These include cirrhosis of the liver, heart failure, nephrotic syndrome, glomerulonephritis and extracellular volume contraction (see Ch. 57, Table 57.1). NSAIDs increase blood pressure in patients treated for hypertension by impairing PG-mediated vasodilatation and salt excretion. They exacerbate salt and water retention in patients with heart failure (see Ch. 22), partly by this same direct mechanism.[4]

[4]Additionally, NSAIDs make many of the diuretics used to treat heart failure less effective by competing with them for the organic anion transport (OAT) mechanism mentioned above; loop diuretics and thiazides act from within the lumen by inhibiting exchange mechanisms

—see later in this chapter—so blocking their secretion into the lumen reduces their effectiveness by reducing their concentrations at their sites of action.

Drugs Acting on the Kidney

Diuretics

Diuretics increase the excretion of Na^+ and water. They decrease the reabsorption of Na^+ and (usually) Cl^- from the filtrate, increased water loss being secondary to the increased excretion of NaCl (natriuresis). This can be achieved:

- by a direct action on the cells of the nephron
- indirectly, by modifying the content of the filtrate.

Because a very large proportion of salt (NaCl) and water that passes into the tubule via the glomerulus is reabsorbed (Table 28.1), a small decrease in reabsorption can cause a marked increase in Na^+ excretion. A summary diagram of the mechanisms and sites of action of various diuretics is given in Figure 28.4 and more detailed information on different classes of drugs in Figure 28.5.

Most diuretics with a direct action on the nephron act from within the tubular lumen and reach their sites of action by being secreted into the proximal tubule (**spironolactone** is an exception).

Diuretics Acting Directly on Cells of the Nephron

The main therapeutically useful diuretics act on the:

- thick ascending loop of Henle
- early distal tubule

• collecting tubules and ducts.

For a more detailed review of the actions and clinical uses of the diuretics, see Greger et al. (2005).

Loop diuretics

Loop diuretics (Fig. 28.5B) are the most powerful diuretics (see Fig. 28.6 for a comparison with thiazides), capable of causing the excretion of 15–25% of filtered Na^+. Their action is often described—in a phrase that conjures up a rather uncomfortable picture—as causing 'torrential urine flow'. The main example is **furosemide**; **bumetanide** is an alternative agent. These drugs act on the thick ascending limb, inhibiting the $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ carrier in the lumenal membrane by combining with its Cl^- binding site.

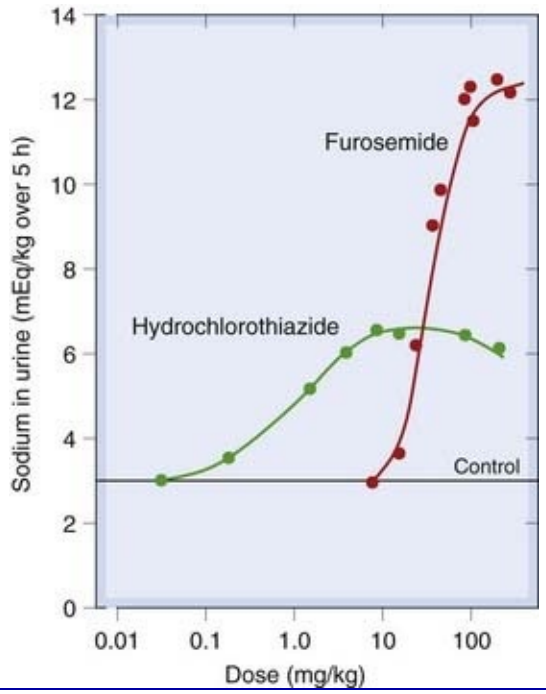


Fig. 28.6 Dose–response curves for furosemide (frusemide) and hydrochlorothiazide, showing differences in potency and maximum effect 'ceiling'.

Note that these doses are not used clinically.

(Adapted from Timmerman R J et al. 1964 Curr Ther Res 6: 88.)

Loop diuretics also have incompletely understood vascular actions. Intravenous administration of furosemide to patients with pulmonary oedema caused by acute heart failure (see Ch. 22) causes a therapeutically useful vasodilator effect before the onset of diuresis. Possible mechanisms that have been invoked include decreased vascular responsiveness to vasoconstrictors such as angiotensin II and noradrenaline; increased formation of vasodilating prostaglandins (see above); decreased production of the endogenous ouabain-like natriuretic hormone (Na^+-K^+-ATPase inhibitor; see Ch. 21), which has vasoconstrictor properties; and potassium channel-opening effects in resistance arteries (see Greger et al., 2005).

Loop diuretics increase the delivery of Na^+ to the distal nephron, causing loss of H^+ and K^+. Because Cl^- but not HCO_3^- is lost in the urine, the plasma concentration of HCO_3^- increases as plasma volume is reduced—a form of metabolic alkalosis therefore referred to as 'contraction alkalosis'.

Loop diuretics increase excretion of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} and decrease excretion of uric acid.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Loop diuretics are absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, and are usually given by mouth. They may also be given intravenously in urgent situations (e.g. acute pulmonary oedema) or when intestinal absorption is impaired, for example as a result of reduced intestinal perfusion in patients with chronic congestive heart failure, who can become resistant to the action of orally administered diuretics. Given orally, they act within 1 h; given intravenously, they produce a peak effect within 30 min. Loop diuretics are strongly bound to plasma protein, and so do not pass directly into the glomerular filtrate. They reach their site of

action—the lumenal membrane of the cells of the thick ascending limb—by being secreted in the proximal convoluted tubule by the organic acid transport mechanism; the fraction thus secreted is excreted in the urine.

In nephrotic syndrome,[5] loop diuretics become bound to albumin in the tubular fluid, and consequently are not available to act on the $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ carrier—another cause of diuretic resistance. Molecular variation in the $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ carrier may also be important in some cases of diuretic resistance (Shankar & Brater, 2003).

[5]Several diseases that damage renal glomeruli impair their ability to retain plasma albumin, causing massive loss of albumin in the urine and a reduced concentration of albumin in the plasma, which can in turn cause peripheral oedema. This is referred to as nephrotic syndrome.

The fraction not excreted in the urine is metabolised, mainly in liver—**bumetanide** by cytochrome P450 pathways and **furosemide** being glucuronidated. The plasma half-lives of both these drugs are approximately 90 min (longer in renal failure), and the durations of action 3–6 h. The clinical use of loop diuretics is given in the box.

Clinical uses of loop diuretics (e.g. furosemide)

• Loop diuretics are used (cautiously!), in conjunction with dietary salt restriction and often with other classes of diuretic, in the treatment of salt and water overload associated with:

– *acute pulmonary oedema*

– *chronic heart failure*

– *cirrhosis* of the liver complicated by *ascites*

– *nephrotic syndrome*

– *renal failure*.

• Treatment of *hypertension* complicated by renal impairment (thiazides are preferred if renal function is preserved).

• Treatment of *hypercalcaemia* after replacement of plasma volume with intravenous NaCl solution.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects directly related to the renal action of loop diuretics are common.[6] Excessive Na^+ and water loss are common, especially in elderly patients, and can cause hypovolaemia and hypotension. Potassium loss, resulting in low plasma K^+ (hypokalaemia), and metabolic alkalosis are common. Hypokalaemia increases the effects and toxicity of several drugs (e.g. **digoxin** and type III antidysrhythmic drugs, Ch. 21), so this is potentially a clinically important source of drug interaction (Ch. 56). If necessary, hypokalaemia can be averted or treated by concomitant use of K^+-sparing diuretics (see below), sometimes with supplementary potassium replacement. Hypomagnesaemia is less often recognised but can also be clinically important. Hyperuricaemia is common and can precipitate acute gout (see Ch. 26). Excessive diuresis leads to reduced renal perfusion and pre-renal renal impairment (an early warning of this is a rise in serum urea concentration).

[6]Such unwanted effects are re-enacted in extreme form in Bartter syndrome type 1, a rare autosomal recessive single gene disorder of the $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ transporter, whose features include polyhydramnios—caused by fetal polyuria—and, postnatally, renal salt loss, low blood pressure, hypokalaemic metabolic alkalosis and hypercalciuria.

Unwanted effects *unrelated to the renal actions* of the drugs are infrequent. Dose-related hearing loss (compounded by concomitant use of other ototoxic drugs such as aminoglycoside antibiotics) can result from impaired ion transport by the basolateral membrane of the stria vascularis in the inner ear. It occurs only at much higher doses than

usually needed to produce diuresis. Idiosyncratic allergic reactions (e.g. rashes, bone marrow depression) are uncommon.

Diuretics acting on the distal tubule

Diuretics acting on the distal tubule include thiazides (e.g. **bendroflumethiazide**, **hydrochlorothiazide**) and related drugs (e.g. **chlortalidone**, **indapamide** and **metolazone**; see Fig. 28.5C).

Thiazides are less powerful than loop diuretics but are preferred in treating uncomplicated hypertension (Ch. 22). They are better tolerated than loop diuretics, and in clinical trials have been shown to reduce risks of stroke and heart attack associated with hypertension. In the largest trial (ALLHAT 2002), chlortalidone performed as well as newer antihypertensive drugs (an angiotensin-converting enzyme [ACE] inhibitor and a calcium antagonist). They bind to the Cl^- site of the distal tubular Na^+/Cl^- cotransport system, inhibiting its action and causing natriuresis with loss of sodium and chloride ions in the urine. The resulting contraction in blood volume stimulates renin secretion, leading to angiotensin formation and aldosterone secretion (Ch. 22, see Figs 22.4 and 22.9). This homeostatic mechanism limits the effect of the diuretic on the blood pressure, resulting in an in vivo dose–hypotensive response relationship with only a gentle gradient during chronic dosing.

Effects of thiazides on Na^+, K^+, H^+ and Mg^{2+} balance are qualitatively similar to those of loop diuretics, but smaller in magnitude. In contrast to loop diuretics, however, thiazides reduce Ca^{2+} excretion, which may be advantageous in older patients at risk of osteoporosis. This could favour thiazides over loop diuretics in terms of bone metabolism during long-term use in older patients (Schoofs et al., 2003).

Although thiazides are milder than loop diuretics when used alone, co-administration with loop diuretics has a synergistic effect, because the

loop diuretic delivers a greater fraction of the filtered load of Na^+ to the site of action of the thiazide in the distal tubule.

Thiazide diuretics have a vasodilator action (see Chs 4 and 22). When used in the treatment of hypertension (Ch. 22), the initial fall in blood pressure results from the decreased blood volume caused by diuresis, but vasodilatation contributes to the later phase.

Thiazide diuretics have a paradoxical effect in diabetes insipidus, where they *reduce* the volume of urine by interfering with the production of hypotonic fluid in the distal tubule, and hence reduce the ability of the kidney to excrete hypotonic urine (i.e. they reduce free water clearance).

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Thiazides and related drugs are effective orally. All are excreted in the urine, mainly by tubular secretion, and they compete with uric acid for the organic anion transporter (OAT; see Ch. 9). **Bendroflumethiazide** has its maximum effect at about 4–6 h and duration is 8–12 h. **Chlortalidone** has a longer duration of action.

The clinical use of thiazide diuretics is given in the clinical box.

Clinical uses of thiazide diuretics (e.g. bendroflumethiazide) 

- *Hypertension.*
- Mild *heart failure* (loop diuretics are usually preferred).
- Severe resistant *oedema* (**metolazone**, especially, is used, together with loop diuretics).
- To prevent recurrent stone formation in *idiopathic hypercalciuria.*
- *Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus.*

Unwanted effects

Apart from an increase in *urinary frequency*, the commonest unwanted effect (not obviously related to the main renal actions of the thiazides) is *erectile dysfunction*. This emerged in an analysis of reasons given by patients for withdrawing from blinded treatment in the Medical Research Council mild hypertension trial, where (to the surprise of the investigators) erectile dysfunction was substantially more common than in men allocated to a β-adrenoceptor antagonist or to placebo. Thiazide-associated erectile dysfunction is reversible; it is less common with the low doses used in current practice but remains a problem. *Potassium loss* can be important, as can loss of Mg^{2+}. Excretion of uric acid is decreased, and hypochloraemic alkalosis can occur.

Impaired glucose tolerance (see Ch. 30), due to inhibition of insulin secretion, is thought to result from activation of K_{ATP} channels in pancreatic islet cells.[7] **Diazoxide**, a non-diuretic thiazide, also activates K_{ATP} channels, causing vasodilatation and impaired insulin secretion. **Indapamide** is said to lower blood pressure with less metabolic disturbance than related drugs, possibly because it is marketed at a lower equivalent dose.

[7]The chemically related sulfonylurea group of drugs used to treat diabetes mellitus (Ch. 30) act in the opposite way, by closing K_{ATP} channels and enhancing insulin secretion.

Hyponatraemia is potentially serious, especially in the elderly. Hypokalaemia can be a cause of adverse drug interaction (see above under Loop diuretics) and can precipitate encephalopathy in patients with severe liver disease.

Idiosyncratic reactions (e.g. rashes, blood dyscrasias) are rare but can be serious.

Aldosterone antagonists

Spironolactone and **eplerenone** (Weinberger, 2004) have very limited diuretic action when used singly, because distal Na^+/K^+ exchange—the site on which they act (Fig. 28.5D)—accounts for reabsorption of only 2% of filtered Na^+. They do, however, have marked antihypertensive effects (Ch. 22), prolong survival in selected patients with heart failure (Ch. 22) and can prevent hypokalaemia when combined with loop diuretics or with thiazides. They compete with aldosterone for its intracellular receptor (see Ch. 32), thereby inhibiting distal Na^+ retention and K^+ secretion (see Fig. 28.5D).

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Spironolactone is well absorbed from the gut. Its plasma half-life is only 10 min, but its active metabolite, **canrenone**, has a plasma half-life of 16 h. The action of spironolactone is largely attributable to canrenone. Consistent with this, its onset of action is slow, taking several days to develop. Eplerenone has a shorter elimination half-life than canrenone and has no active metabolites. It is administered by mouth once daily.

Unwanted effects

Aldosterone antagonists predispose to hyperkalaemia, which is potentially fatal. Potassium supplements should not be co-prescribed, and close monitoring of plasma creatinine and electrolytes is needed if these drugs are used for patients with impaired renal function, especially if other drugs that can increase plasma potassium, such as *ACE inhibitors*, *angiotensin receptor antagonists* (sartans) (Ch. 22) or *β-adrenoceptor antagonists* (Ch. 14) are also prescribed—as they often are for patients with heart failure. Gastrointestinal upset is quite common. Actions of spironolactone/canrenone on progesterone and androgen receptors in tissues other than the kidney can result in gynaecomastia, menstrual

disorders and testicular atrophy. Eplerenone has lower affinity for these receptors, and such oestrogen-like side effects are less common with licensed doses of this drug.

The clinical use of potassium-sparing diuretics is given in the clinical box.

Clinical uses of potassium-sparing diuretics (e.g. amiloride, spironolactone) 

- With K^+-losing (i.e. loop or thiazide) diuretics to prevent K^+ loss, where hypokalaemia is especially hazardous (e.g. patients requiring **digoxin** or **amiodarone**; see Ch. 21).

- **Spironolactone** or **eplerenone** is used in:
  - *heart failure*, to improve survival (see Ch. 21)
  - *primary hyperaldosteronism* (Conn's syndrome)
  - *resistant essential hypertension* (especially low-renin hypertension)
  - *secondary hyperaldosteronism* caused by hepatic cirrhosis complicated by ascites.

Triamterene and amiloride

Like aldosterone antagonists, **triamterene** and **amiloride** have only limited diuretic efficacy, because they also act in the distal nephron, where only a small fraction of Na^+ reabsorption occurs. They act on the collecting tubules and collecting ducts, inhibiting Na^+ reabsorption by blocking lumenal sodium channels (see Ch. 4) and decreasing K^+ excretion (see Fig. 28.5D).

They can be given with loop diuretics or thiazides in order to maintain potassium balance.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Triamterene is well absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract. Its onset of

action is within 2 h, and its duration of action 12–16 h. It is partly metabolised in the liver and partly excreted unchanged in the urine. Amiloride is less well absorbed and has a slower onset, with a peak action at 6 h and duration of about 24 h. Most of the drug is excreted unchanged in the urine.

Unwanted effects

The main unwanted effect, hyperkalaemia, is related to the pharmacological action of these drugs and can be dangerous, especially in patients with renal impairment or receiving other drugs that can increase plasma K^+ (see above). Gastrointestinal disturbances have been reported but are infrequent. Triamterene has been identified in kidney stones, but its aetiological role is uncertain. Idiosyncratic reactions, for example rashes, are uncommon.

Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors

Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors (Fig. 28.5A)—for example **acetazolamide**—increase excretion of bicarbonate with accompanying Na^+, K^+ and water, resulting in an increased flow of an alkaline urine and metabolic acidosis. These agents, although not now used as diuretics, are still used in the treatment of glaucoma to reduce the formation of aqueous humour (Ch. 13), and also in some types of infantile epilepsy (Ch. 44).

Urinary loss of bicarbonate depletes extracellular bicarbonate, and the diuretic effect of carbonic anhydrase inhibitors is consequently self-limiting.

Diuretics That Act Indirectly by Modifying the Content of the Filtrate

Osmotic diuretics

Osmotic diuretics are pharmacologically inert substances (e.g. **mannitol**) that are filtered in the glomerulus but not reabsorbed by the nephron (see Fig. 28.4).[8] To cause a diuresis, they must constitute an appreciable fraction of the osmolarity of tubular fluid. Within the nephron, their main effect is exerted on those parts of the nephron that are freely permeable to water: the proximal tubule, descending limb of the loop and (in the presence of ADH; see above) the collecting tubules. Passive water reabsorption is reduced by the presence of non-reabsorbable solute within the tubule; consequently a larger volume of fluid remains within the proximal tubule. This has the secondary effect of reducing Na^+ reabsorption.

[8]In hyperglycaemia, glucose acts as an osmotic diuretic once plasma glucose exceeds the renal reabsorptive threshold (usually approximately 12 mmol/l), accounting for the cardinal symptom of polyuria in diabetes mellitus; see Chapter 30.

Therefore the main effect of osmotic diuretics is to increase the amount of water excreted, with a smaller increase in Na^+ excretion. They are sometimes used in acute renal failure, which can occur as a result of haemorrhage, injury or systemic infections. Glomerular filtration rate is reduced, and absorption of NaCl and water in the proximal tubule becomes almost complete, so that more distal parts of the nephron virtually 'dry up', and urine flow ceases. Protein is deposited in the tubules and may impede the flow of fluid. Osmotic diuretics (e.g. **mannitol** given intravenously in a dose of 12–15 g) can limit these effects, at least if given in the earliest stages, albeit while increasing intravascular volume and risking left ventricular failure.

They are also used for the emergency treatment of acutely raised intracranial or intraocular pressure. Such treatment has nothing to do with the kidney, but relies on the increase in plasma osmolarity by

solutes that do not enter the brain or eye, which results in efflux of water from these compartments.

Unwanted effects include transient expansion of the extracellular fluid volume (with a risk of causing left ventricular failure) and hyponatraemia. Headache, nausea and vomiting can occur.

Diuretics

• Normally $<$ 1% of filtered Na^+ is excreted.

• Diuretics increase the excretion of salt (NaCl or $NaHCO_3$) and water.

• Loop diuretics, thiazides and K^+-sparing diuretics are the main therapeutic drugs.

• Loop diuretics (e.g. **furosemide**) cause copious urine production. They inhibit the $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ cotransporter in the thick ascending loop of Henle. They are used to treat heart failure and other diseases complicated by salt and water retention. Hypovolaemia and hypokalaemia are important unwanted effects.

• Thiazides (e.g. **bendroflumethiazide**) are less potent than loop diuretics. They inhibit the Na^+/Cl^- cotransporter in the distal convoluted tubule. They are used to treat hypertension. Erectile dysfunction is an important adverse effect. Hypokalaemia and other metabolic effects can occur.

• Potassium-sparing diuretics:

– act in the distal nephron and collecting tubules; they are very weak diuretics but effective in some forms of hypertension and heart failure, and they can prevent hypokalaemia caused by loop diuretics or thiazides

– **spironolactone** and **eplerenone** compete with aldosterone for its receptor

– **amiloride** and **triamterene** act by blocking the sodium channels controlled by aldosterone's protein mediator.

Drugs That Alter the pH of the Urine

It is possible, by the use of pharmacological agents, to produce urinary pH values ranging from approximately 5 to 8.5.

Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors increase urinary pH by blocking bicarbonate reabsorption (see above). **Citrate** (given by mouth as a mixture of sodium and potassium salts) is metabolised via the Krebs cycle with generation of bicarbonate, which is excreted, alkalinising the urine. This may have some antibacterial effects, as well as improving dysuria (a common symptom of bladder infection, consisting of a burning sensation while passing urine). Additionally, some citrate is excreted in the urine as such and inhibits urinary stone formation. Alkalinisation is important in preventing certain weak acid drugs with limited aqueous solubility, such as *sulfonamides* (see Ch. 50), from crystallising in the urine; it also decreases the formation of uric acid and cystine stones by favouring the charged anionic form that is more water soluble (Ch. 8).

Alkalinising the urine increases the excretion of drugs that are weak acids (e.g. salicylates and some barbiturates). Sodium bicarbonate is sometimes used to treat salicylate overdose (Ch. 9).

Urinary pH can be decreased with **ammonium chloride**, but this is now rarely, if ever, used clinically except in a specialised test to discriminate between different kinds of renal tubular acidosis.

Drugs That Alter the Excretion of Organic Molecules

Uric acid metabolism and excretion are relevant in the treatment and prevention of gout (Ch. 26), and a few points about its excretion are made here.

Uric acid is derived from the catabolism of purines, and is present in

plasma mainly as ionised urate. In humans, it passes freely into the glomerular filtrate, and most is then reabsorbed in the proximal tubule while a small amount is secreted into the tubule by the anion-secreting mechanism. The net result is excretion of approximately 8–12% of filtered urate. The secretory mechanism is generally inhibited by low doses of drugs that affect uric acid transport (see below), whereas higher doses are needed to block reabsorption. Such drugs therefore tend to cause retention of uric acid at low doses, while promoting its excretion at higher doses. Normal plasma urate concentration is approximately 0.24 mmol/l. In some individuals, the plasma concentration is high, predisposing to gout. In this disorder, urate crystals are deposited in joints and soft tissues,[9] resulting in acute arthritis and, if untreated, chronic chalky deposits—'tophi'—characteristic of this condition. Drugs that increase the elimination of urate (*uricosuric agents, e.g.* **probenecid** and **sulfinpyrazone**) may be useful in such patients, although these have largely been supplanted by **allopurinol**, which inhibits urate synthesis (Ch. 26).

[9]The distribution is determined by body temperature: crystals come out of solution in cool extremities such as the joints of the big toe—the classic site for acute gout—and the pinna of the ear, a common site for gouty tophi.

Probenecid inhibits the reabsorption of urate in the proximal tubule, increasing its excretion. It has the opposite effect on penicillin, inhibiting its secretion into the tubules and raising its plasma concentration. Given orally, probenecid is well absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract, maximal concentrations in the plasma occurring in about 3 h. Approximately 90% is bound to plasma albumin. Free drug passes into the glomerular filtrate but more is actively secreted into the proximal tubule, whence it may diffuse back because of its high lipid solubility (see also Ch. 9).

Sulfinpyrazone acts similarly.

The main effect of uricosuric drugs is to block urate reabsorption and lower plasma urate concentration. Both probenecid and sulfinpyrazone inhibit the secretion as well as the reabsorption of urate and, if given in subtherapeutic doses, can actually increase plasma urate concentrations.

Aspirin (and other salicylates such as **sulfasalazine**), also inhibits urate secretion in normal analgesic doses, increasing blood urate concentration, which may exacerbate gouty arthritis (see Ch. 26). (But salicylates become uricosuric themselves at the very high doses used in the past to treat rheumatoid arthritis.)

Probenicid, as specified above, inhibits penicillin excretion, and at one time was used to enhance the action of penicillin (e.g. in single-dose treatment of gonorrhoea). It is licensed in the UK to prevent nephrotoxicity caused by **cidofovir** (Ch. 51), an antiviral drug used to treat cytomegalovirus retinitis in AIDS patients for whom other antiviral drugs are inappropriate. It is given with probenecid, and intravenous hydration, to prevent its concentration within the tubular lumen, without which it causes tubular toxicity.

Drugs Used in Renal Failure

Many congenital and acquired diseases damage the kidneys, leading to common end points of acute or chronic renal failure, which are treated by various forms of artificial dialysis or filtration, or renal transplantation. Where possible, treatment of the underlying cause is indicated. Hypertension is both a cause and a consequence of renal impairment, so its treatment with antihypertensive drugs (Ch. 22) is extremely important in the context of renal disease. *ACE inhibitors* and *angiotensin II antagonists* have a renoprotective effect—over and above their antihypertensive effect—in some situations. Aggressive

management of dyslipidaemia (Ch. 23) is also of great importance. **Epoetin** (Ch. 24) is used to treat the anaemia of chronic renal failure. Vitamin D preparations (**calcitriol** or **alphacalcidol**), used to treat the osteodystrophy of chronic renal failure, are covered in Chapter 35. Antibacterial drugs are crucial in treating renal and urinary tract infections, and are dealt with in Chapter 50.

Renal failure often results in *hyperphosphataemia* and *hyperkalaemia*, which may require drug treatment.

Hyperphosphataemia

Phosphate metabolism is closely linked with that of calcium and is discussed in Chapter 35. Phosphate, at concentrations commonly occurring in chronic renal insufficiency, causes vascular smooth muscle cell differentiation into osteoblast-like cells able to sustain mineralisation.

Hyperphosphataemia (plasma phosphate concentration > 1.45 mmol/l) is common in renal failure and may lead calcium phosphate to precipitate in tissues. Large calcium phosphate deposits around joints limit mobility but otherwise cause surprisingly few symptoms. Conjunctival calcification can cause conjunctivitis ('uraemic red eye'). Calcification of the aortic valve can cause stenosis. Abrupt metastatic calcification in subcutaneous tissues and small vessels can result in extensive soft tissue necrosis (*acute calciphylaxis*). Hyperphosphataemia is the major trigger for the onset of hyperparathyroidism in early chronic renal failure, and leads to renal osteodystrophy.

These effects of hyperphosphataemia have led to the widespread use of phosphate-binding preparations in renal failure. The antacid **aluminium hydroxide** (Ch. 29) binds phosphate in the gastrointestinal tract,

reducing its absorption, but may increase plasma aluminium in dialysis patients.[10] Calcium-based phosphate-binding agents (e.g. calcium carbonate) are widely used. They are contraindicated in hypercalcaemia or hypercalciuria but until recently have been believed to be otherwise safe. However, calcium salts may predispose to tissue calcification (including of artery walls), and calcium-containing phosphate binders may actually contribute to the very high death rates from cardiovascular disease in dialysis patients (Goldsmith et al., 2004).

[10]Before Kerr identified the cause in Newcastle, the use of alum to purify municipal water supplies led to a horrible and untreatable neurodegenerative condition known as 'dialysis dementia', and also to a particularly painful and refractory form of bone disease.

An anion exchange resin, **sevelamer**, lowers plasma phosphate, and is less likely than calcium carbonate to cause arterial calcification (Asmus et al., 2005). Sevelamer is not absorbed and has an additional effect in lowering low-density-lipoprotein cholesterol. It is given in gram doses by mouth three times a day with meals. Its adverse effects are gastrointestinal disturbance, and it is contraindicated in bowel obstruction.

Hyperkalaemia

Severe hyperkalaemia is life-threatening. It is commonly caused by renal failure, especially if there is concomitant hypoaldosteronism (e.g. in Addison's disease; Ch. 32) and by potassium-sparing diuretics (see above) or drugs that interfere with renin secretion (e.g. β-adrenoceptor antagonists; Ch. 14), or with angiotensin II formation or action (i.e. ACE inhibitors and angiotensin receptor antagonists; Ch. 22).

Prompt treatment is indicated if the plasma K^+ concentration exceeds 6.5 mmol/l. Cardiac toxicity is counteracted directly by administering

calcium gluconate intravenously (Table 21.1), and by measures that shift K^+ into the intracellular compartment, for example glucose plus insulin (Ch. 30, clinical box). **Salbutamol** (**albuterol**), administered intravenously or by inhalation, also causes cellular K^+ uptake and is used for this indication (e.g. Murdoch et al., 1991); it acts synergistically with insulin. Intravenous sodium bicarbonate is also often recommended, and moves potassium into cells. Removal of excessive potassium from the body can be achieved by cation exchange resins such as **sodium** or **calcium polystyrene sulfonate** administered by mouth (in combination with **sorbitol** to prevent constipation) or as an enema. Dialysis is often needed.

Drugs Used in Urinary Tract Disorders

Bed wetting (enuresis) is normal in very young children and persists in around 5% of children aged 10. Disordered micturition is also extremely common in adults of either sex, and becomes more so with advancing age. Associated structural problems (e.g. prostatic hypertrophy, uterine prolapse) may warrant surgical intervention, and urinary infection—curable with antibiotics—may have been overlooked. However, many cases of incontinence (socially devastating) are functional, and should in principle be amenable to drugs acting on urinary tract smooth muscle or on the nerves controlling this. Currently available treatment is, however, disappointing, perhaps because it is not easy to prevent incontinence without causing urinary retention.

Nocturnal enuresis in children aged 10 or more may warrant **desmopressin** (an analogue of antidiuretic hormone, given by mouth or by nasal spray; Ch. 32) combined with restricting fluid intake, in addition to practical measures such as an enuresis alarm. Tricyclic antidepressants such as **amitriptyline** (Ch. 46) are sometimes used for

up to 3 months, but adverse effects including behaviour disturbance can occur, and relapse is common after stopping treatment.

Symptoms from benign prostatic hypertrophy may be improved by α_1-adrenoceptor antagonists, for example **doxazosin** or **tamsulosin** (Ch. 14), or by an inhibitor of androgen synthesis such as **finasteride** (Ch. 34).

Incontinence in adults caused by neurogenic detrusor muscle instability is managed by pelvic floor exercises combined with muscarinic receptor antagonists (Ch. 13) such as **oxybutinin**, **tolterodine**, **propiverine** or **trospium**, but the dose is limited by their adverse effects.

References and Further Reading

Physiological aspects

gre P. Aquaporin water channels (Nobel lecture). *Angewandte Chemie—International Edition*. 2004;43:4278-4290.

amba G. Molecular physiology and pathophysiology of electroneutral cation–chloride cotransporters. *Physiol. Rev.*. 2005;85:423-493. (*Comprehensive review of the molecular biology, structure–function relationships, and physiological and pathophysiological roles of each cotransporter*)

reger R. Physiology of sodium transport Am. J. Med. Sci. 319:2000:51-62 (*Outstanding article. Covers not only* Na^+ *transport but also, briefly, that of* K^+, H^+, Cl^-, HCO_3^-, Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+} *and some organic substances in each of the main parts of the nephron. Discusses regulatory factors, pathophysiological aspects and pharmacological principles*)

ee W., Kim R.B. Transporters and renal drug elimination. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2003;44:137-166. (*Review*)

ullivan L.P., Grantham J.J. *The physiology of the kidney*, second ed. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger; 1982.

Drugs and therapeutic aspects

Diuretics

reger R., Lang F., Sebekova K., Heidland A. Action and clinical use of diuretics. In: Davison A.M., Cameron J.S., Grunfeld J.P., et al, editors. *Oxford textbook of clinical nephrology*. third ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2005:2619-2648. (*Succinct authoritative account of cellular mechanisms; strong on clinical uses*)

choofs M.W., van der Klift M., Hofman A., *et al.* Thiazide diuretics and the risk for hip fracture. *Ann. Intern. Med.*. 2003;139:476-482. (*Rotterdam study: thiazide diuretics protected against hip fracture, but protection disappears after use is discontinued*)

hankar S.S., Brater D.C. Loop diuretics: from the Na–K–2Cl transporter to clinical use Am. J. Physiol. Renal. Physiol. 284:2003:F11-F21 (*Reviews pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of loop diuretics in health and in oedematous disorders; the authors hypothesise that altered expression or activity of the* $Na^+/K^+/2Cl^-$ *transporter possibly accounts for reduced diuretic responsiveness*)

Weinberger M.H. Eplerenone—a new selective aldosterone receptor antagonist. *Drugs Today*. 2004;40:481-485. (*Review*)

Ca^{2+}/PO_4^- (see also Diuretics section, above)

smus H.G., Braun J., Krause R., *et al.* Two year comparison of sevelamer and calcium carbonate effects on cardiovascular calcification and bone density. *Nephrol. Dial. Transplant.*. 2005;20:1653-1661. (*Less progression of vascular calcification with sevelamer*)

ozzolino M., Brancaccio D., Gallieni M., Slatopolsky E. Pathogenesis of vascular calcification in chronic kidney disease. *Kidney Int.*. 2005;68:429-436. (*Reviews hyperphosphataemia and hypercalcaemia as independent risk factors for higher incidence of cardiovascular events in patients with chronic kidney disease: '… hyperphosphatemia accelerates the progression of secondary hyperparathyroidism with the concomitant bone loss, possibly linked to vascular calcium-phosphate precipitation'*)

oldsmith D., Ritz E., Covic A. Vascular calcification: a stiff challenge for the nephrologist—does preventing bone disease cause arterial disease? *Kidney Int.*. 2004;66:1315-1333. (*Potential*

danger of using calcium salts as phosphate binders in patients with chronic renal failure)

Antihypertensives and renal protection

LLHAT Officers and Coordinators for the ALLHAT Collaborative Research Group Major outcomes in high-risk hypertensive patients randomized to angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor or calcium channel blocker vs diuretic: the Antihypertensive and Lipid-Lowering Treatment to Prevent Heart Attack Trial (ALLHAT). The Antihypertensive and Lipid-Lowering Treatment to Prevent Heart Attack Trial. JAMA 288:2002:2981-2997 (*Massive trial; see also Appel, L.J. for editorial comment: 'The verdict from ALLHAT—thiazide diuretics are the preferred initial therapy for hypertension' JAMA 288, 3039–3042*)

ijenhuis T., Vallon V., van der Kemp A.W., et al Enhanced passive Ca^{2+} reabsorption and reduced Mg^{2+} channel abundance explains thiazide-induced hypocalciuria and hypomagnesemia J. Clin. Invest. 115:2005:1651-1658 (*Micropuncture studies in mouse knockouts showing that enhanced passive Ca^{2+} transport in the proximal tubule rather than active Ca^{2+} transport in distal convolution explains thiazide-induced hypocalciuria*)

Sodium and potassium ion disorders

oca S.G., Perazella M.A., Buller G.K. The cardiovascular implications of hypokalemia. *Am. J. Kidney Dis.*. 2005;45:233-247. (*The recent discovery that aldosterone antagonists decrease pathological injury of myocardium and endothelium has focused interest on their mechanism; this review addresses the relative benefits of modulating potassium balance versus non-renal effects of aldosterone blockade*)

Iurdoch I.A., Dos Anjos R., Haycock G.B. Treatment of hyperkalaemia with intravenous salbutamol. *Arch. Dis. Child*. 1991;66:527-528. (*First description of this approach in children*)

Drug utilisation in kidney disease

armichael D.J.S. Handling of drugs in kidney disease. In: Davison A.M., Cameron J.S., Grunfeld J.P., et al, editors. *Oxford textbook of clinical nephrology*. third ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2005:2599-2618. (Principles and practice of dose adjustment in patients with renal

failure)

29

The gastrointestinal tract

Overview

In addition to its main function of digestion and absorption of food, the gastrointestinal tract is one of the major endocrine systems in the body and has its own integrative neuronal network, the enteric nervous system (see Ch. 12), which contains almost the same number of neurons as the spinal cord. It is also the site of many common pathologies, ranging from simple dyspepsia to complex autoimmune conditions such as Crohn's disease. Medicines for treating these gastrointestinal disorders comprise some 8% of all prescriptions. In this chapter, we briefly review the physiological control of gastrointestinal function and then discuss the pharmacological characteristics of drugs affecting gastric secretion and motility, and those used to treat intestinal inflammation.

The Innervation and Hormones of the Gastrointestinal Tract

The blood vessels and the glands (exocrine, endocrine and paracrine) that comprise the gastrointestinal tract are under both neuronal and hormonal control.

Neuronal Control

There are two principal intramural plexuses in the tract: the *myenteric plexus* (*Auerbach's plexus*) between the outer, longitudinal and the

middle, circular muscle layers, and the *submucous plexus* (*Meissner's plexus*) on the lumenal side of the circular muscle layer. These plexuses are interconnected, and their ganglion cells receive preganglionic parasympathetic fibres from the vagus, which are mostly cholinergic and excitatory, although a few are inhibitory. Incoming sympathetic fibres are largely postganglionic. In addition to innervating blood vessels, smooth muscle and some glandular cells directly, some sympathetic fibres may terminate in these plexuses, where they inhibit acetylcholine secretion (see Ch. 12).

The neurons within the plexuses constitute the *enteric nervous system* and secrete not only acetylcholine and noradrenaline (norepinephrine), but also 5-hydroxytryptamine, purines, nitric oxide and a variety of pharmacologically active peptides (see Chs 12–14, 16, 19 and 20). The enteric plexus also contains sensory neurons, which respond to mechanical and chemical stimuli.

Hormonal Control

The hormones of the gastrointestinal tract include both endocrine and paracrine secretions. The endocrine secretions (i.e. substances released into the bloodstream) are mainly peptides synthesised by endocrine cells in the mucosa. Important examples include *gastrin* and *cholecystokinin*. The paracrine secretions include many regulatory peptides released from special cells found throughout the wall of the tract. These hormones act on nearby cells, and in the stomach the most important of these is *histamine*. Some of these paracrine factors also function as neurotransmitters.

Orally administered drugs are, of course, absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract (Ch. 8). Other functions of the gastrointestinal tract that are important from the viewpoint of pharmacological intervention

are:

- gastric secretion
- vomiting (emesis) and nausea
- gut motility and defaecation
- the formation and excretion of bile.

Gastric Secretion

The stomach secretes about 2.5 litres of gastric juice daily. The principal exocrine components are proenzymes such as *prorennin* and *pepsinogen* elaborated by the *chief* or *peptic* cells, and hydrochloric acid (HCl) and *intrinsic factor* (see Ch. 25) secreted by the *parietal* or *oxyntic* cells. The production of acid is important for promoting proteolytic digestion of foodstuffs, iron absorption and killing pathogens. Mucus-secreting cells also abound among the surface cells of the gastric mucosa. Bicarbonate ions are secreted and trapped in the mucus, creating a gel-like protective barrier that maintains the mucosal surface at a pH of 6–7 in the face of a much more acidic environment (pH 1–2) in the lumen. Alcohol and bile can disrupt this layer. Locally produced 'cytoprotective' prostaglandins stimulate the secretion of both mucus and bicarbonate.

Disturbances in these secretory and protective mechanisms are thought to be involved in the pathogenesis of *peptic ulcer*, and indeed in other types of gastric damage such as *gastro-oesophageal reflux disease* (GORD)[1] and injury caused by nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs).

[1]Or GERD in the USA, to reflect the different spelling of *esophageal*.

The Regulation of Acid Secretion by Parietal Cells

The regulation of acid secretion is important in the pathogenesis of

peptic ulcer, and constitutes a particular target for drug action. The secretion of the parietal cells is an isotonic solution of HCl (150 mmol/l) with a pH less than 1, the concentration of hydrogen ions being more than a million times higher than that of the plasma. The Cl^- is actively transported into canaliculi in the cells that communicate with the lumen of the gastric glands and thus with the stomach itself. This Cl^- secretion is accompanied by K^+, which is then exchanged for H^+ from within the cell by a K^+-H^+-ATPase (the 'proton pump', Fig. 29.1). Carbonic anhydrase catalyses the combination of carbon dioxide and water to give carbonic acid, which dissociates into H^+ and bicarbonate ions. The latter exchanges across the basal membrane of the parietal cell for Cl^-. The principal mediators that directly—or indirectly—control parietal cell acid output are:

- histamine (a stimulatory local hormone)
- gastrin (a stimulatory peptide hormone)
- acetylcholine (a stimulatory neurotransmitter)
- prostaglandins E_2 and I_2 (local hormones that inhibit acid secretion)
- somatostatin (an inhibitory peptide hormone).

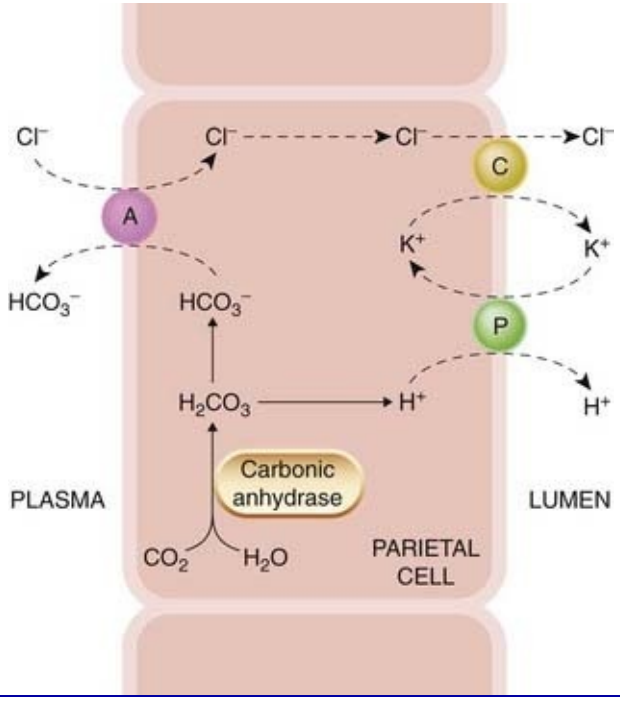


Fig. 29.1 A schematic illustration of the secretion of hydrochloric acid by the gastric parietal cell.

Secretion involves a proton pump (P), which is an H^+-K^+-ATPase, a symport carrier (C) for K^+ and Cl^-, and an antiport (A), which exchanges Cl^- and $HCO3^-$. An additional Na^+/H^+ antiport situated at the interface with the plasma may also have a role (not shown).

Histamine

Histamine is discussed in Chapter 26, and only those aspects of its pharmacology relevant to gastric secretion will be dealt with here. Neuroendocrine cells abound in the stomach and the dominant type are the *ECL cells* (**e**ntero**c**hromaffin-**l**ike cells; histamine-containing cells similar to mast cells) which lie close to the parietal cells. They sustain a steady basal release of histamine, which is further increased by gastrin and acetylcholine. Histamine acts in a paracrine fashion on parietal cell H_1 receptors, increasing intracellular cAMP. These cells are responsive to histamine concentrations that are below the threshold required for vascular H_2 receptor activation.

Gastrin

Gastrin is synthesised by *G cells* in the gastric antrum and secreted into the portal blood (i.e. it acts in an endocrine fashion). Its main action is stimulation of acid secretion by ECL cells through its action at gastrin/cholecystokinin $(CCK)_2$ receptors, which elevate intracellular Ca^{2+}. Gastrin receptors also occur on the parietal cells but their significance in the control of physiological secretion is controversial. CCK_2 receptors are blocked by the experimental drug **proglumide** (Fig. 29.2), which weakly inhibits gastrin action.

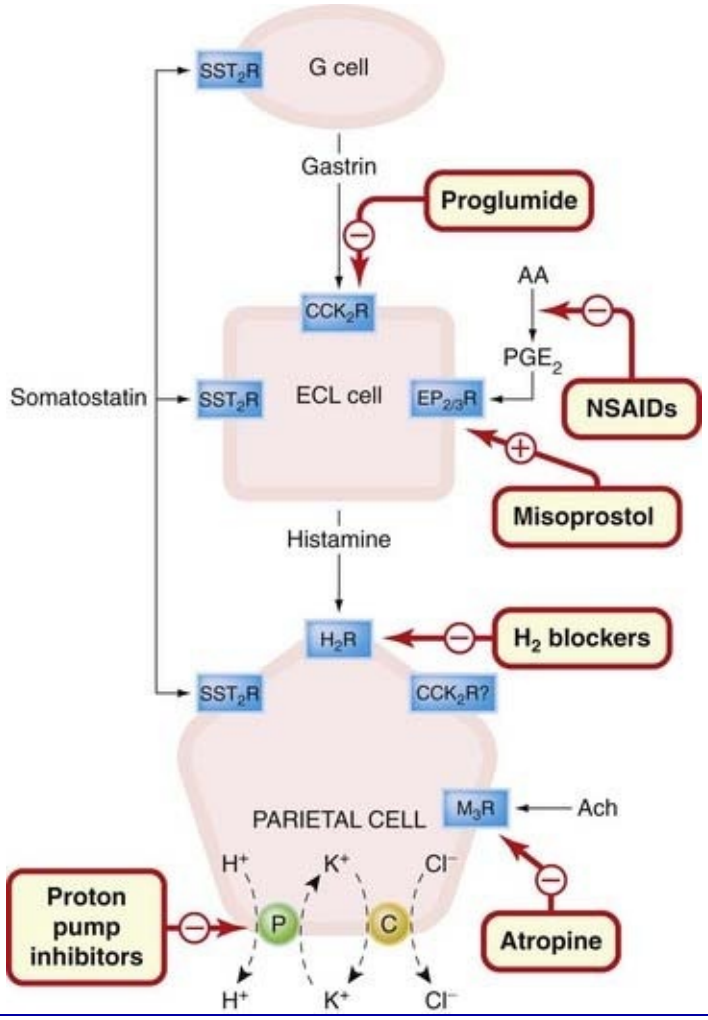


Fig. 29.2 Schematic diagram showing the regulation of the acid-secreting gastric parietal cell, illustrating the site of action of drugs influencing acid secretion.

The initial step in controlling physiological secretion is the release of gastrin from G cells. This acts through its CCK_2 receptor on ECL cells to release histamine and may also have a secondary direct effect on parietal cells themselves, although this is not entirely clear. Histamine acts on parietal cell H_2 receptors to elevate cAMP that activates the secretion of acid by the proton pump. Direct vagal stimulation also provokes acid secretion and released acetylcholine directly stimulates M_3 receptors on parietal cells. Somatostatin probably exerts a tonic inhibitory influence on G cells, ECL cells and parietal cells, while local (or therapeutically administered) prostaglandins exert inhibitory effects predominately on ECL cell function. AA, arachidonic acid; ACh, acetylcholine; C, symport carrier for K^+ and Cl^-; CCK_2, gastrin/cholecystokinin receptor; ECL, mast cell-like histamine-secreting enterochromaffin cell; NSAIDs, nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs; P, proton pump (H^+-K^+-ATPase); PGE_2, prostaglandin E_2.

Gastrin also stimulates histamine synthesis by ECL cells and indirectly increases pepsinogen secretion, stimulates blood flow and increases gastric motility. Release of this hormone is controlled by both neuronal transmitters and blood-borne mediators, as well as by the chemistry of the stomach contents. Amino acids and small peptides directly stimulate the gastrin-secreting cells, as do milk and solutions of calcium salts, explaining why it is inappropriate to use calcium-containing salts as antacids.

Acetylcholine

Acetylcholine (together with a battery of other neurotransmitters and peptides), released from postganglionic cholinergic neurons, stimulates specific muscarinic M_3 receptors on the surface of the parietal cells (see Ch. 13), thereby elevating intracellular Ca^{2+} and stimulating the release of protons. It also has complex effects on other cell types; by inhibiting somatostatin release from D cells, it potentiates its action on parietal cell acid secretion.

Prostaglandins

Most cells of the gastrointestinal tract produce prostaglandins (PGs; see

Ch. 6), the most important being PGE_2 and I_2. Prostaglandins exert 'cytoprotective' effects on many aspects of gastric function including increasing bicarbonate secretion ($EP_{1/2}$ receptors), increasing the release of protective mucin (EP_4 receptor), reducing gastric acid output probably by acting on $EP_{2/3}$ receptors on ECL cells and preventing the vasoconstriction (and thus damage to the mucosa) that follows injury or insult. This is probably an action mediated through $EP_{2/4}$ receptors. **Misoprostol** (see below) is a synthetic prostaglandin that probably exploits many of these effects to bring about its therapeutic action.

Somatostatin

This hormone is released from *D cells* at several locations within the stomach. By acting at its somatostatin $(SST)_2$ receptor, it exerts paracrine inhibitory actions on gastrin release from G cells, histamine release from ECL cells, as well as directly on parietal cell acid output.

The Coordination of Factors Regulating Acid Secretion

The regulation of the parietal cell is complex and many local hormones probably play a role in the fine-tuning of the secretory response. The generally accepted model today is that the *gastrin–ECL–parietal cell axis* is the dominant mechanism for controlling acid secretion. According to this idea (see Fig. 29.2), which is supported by the majority of transgenic 'knockout' mouse studies, the initial step in controlling physiological secretion is the release of gastrin from G cells. This acts through its CCK_2 receptor on ECL cells to release histamine and may also have a secondary direct effect on parietal cells themselves, although this has been disputed. Histamine acts on H_2 receptors on parietal cells to elevate cAMP and to activate the secretion of protons as described.

Direct vagal stimulation can also provoke acid secretion (the basis for

'stress ulcers') through a release of acetylcholine, which directly stimulates M_3 receptors on parietal cells. Somatostatin probably exerts a tonic inhibitory influence on G cells, ECL and parietal cells, and local (or therapeutically administered) prostaglandins, acting through $EP_{2/3}$ receptors, exert inhibitory effects predominantly on ECL cell function.

This control system is clearly complex but prolonged exposure of tissues to excess acid secretion is dangerous and must be tightly regulated (see Schubert & Peura, 2008).

Secretion of gastric acid, mucus and bicarbonate

- The control of the gastrointestinal tract is through nervous and humoral mechanisms:
  - acid is secreted from gastric parietal cells by a proton pump (K^+-H^+-ATPase)
  - the three endogenous secretagogues for acid are histamine, acetylcholine and gastrin
  - prostaglandins E_2 and I_2 inhibit acid, stimulate mucus and bicarbonate secretion, and dilate mucosal blood vessels
  - somatostatin inhibits all phases of parietal cell activation.
- The genesis of peptic ulcers involves:
  - infection of the gastric mucosa with *Helicobacter pylori*
  - an imbalance between the mucosal-damaging (acid, pepsin) and the mucosal-protecting agents (mucus, bicarbonate, prostaglandins E_2 and I_2, and nitric oxide).

Drugs Used to Inhibit or Neutralise Gastric Acid Secretion

The principal clinical indications for reducing acid secretion are *peptic ulceration* (both duodenal and gastric), *GORD* (in which gastric juice causes damage to the oesophagus) and the *Zollinger–Ellison syndrome* (a rare condition that is caused by a gastrin-producing tumour).

The reasons why peptic ulcers develop are not fully understood, although infection of the stomach mucosa with *Helicobacter pylori*[2]—a

Gram-negative bacillus that causes chronic gastritis—is now generally considered to be a major cause (especially of duodenal ulcer) and, while there are some problems with this notion (see Axon, 2007), forms the usual basis for therapy. Treatment of *H. pylori* infection is discussed below.

[2]*Helicobactor pylori* infection in the stomach has been classified as a class 1 (definite) carcinogen for gastric cancer.

Many non-specific NSAIDs (see Ch. 26) cause gastric bleeding and erosions by inhibiting cyclo-oxygenase-1, the enzyme responsible for synthesis of protective prostaglandins (see above). More selective cyclo-oxygenase-2 inhibitors such as **celecoxib** appear to cause less stomach damage (but see Ch. 26 for a discussion of this issue).

Therapy of peptic ulcer and reflux oesophagitis aims to decrease the secretion of gastric acid with H_2 receptor antagonists or proton pump inhibitors, and/or to neutralise secreted acid with antacids (see Huang & Hunt, 2001). These treatments are often coupled with measures to eradicate *H. pylori* (see Horn, 2000).

Histamine H_2 Receptor Antagonists

The discovery and development of histamine H_2-blocking drugs by Black and his colleagues was a major breakthrough in the treatment of gastric ulcers—a condition that could hitherto only be treated by (sometimes rather heroic) surgery.[3] The ability to distinguish between histamine receptor subtypes using pharmacological agents was, in itself, a major intellectual advance (see Table 29.1). H_2 receptor antagonists competitively inhibit histamine actions at all H_2 receptors, but their main clinical use is as inhibitors of gastric acid secretion. They can inhibit histamine-and gastrin-stimulated acid secretion; pepsin secretion also falls with the reduction in volume of gastric juice. These agents not

only decrease both basal and food-stimulated acid secretion by 90% or more, but numerous clinical trials indicate that they also promote healing of gastric and duodenal ulcers. However, relapses are likely to follow after cessation of treatment.

Table 29.1 Details of some antagonist drugs used to define the three types of histamine receptor

Drug	Binding constant (K_B; mol/l)		
	H_1	H_2	H_3
Mepyramine	0.4×10^9	–	$> 3 \times 10^6$
Cimetidine	4.5×10^4	0.8×10^6	3.3×10^5
Thioperamide	$> 10^4$	$> 10^5$	4.3×10^9

Data derived from Black J W et al. 1972 Nature 236: 385–390; Ganellin C R 1982 In: Ganellin C R, Parson M E (eds) Pharmacology of histamine receptors. Wright, Bristol, pp 11–102; Arrang J M et al. 1987 Nature 327: 117–123; van der Werf J F, Timmerman H 1989 Trends Pharmacol Sci 10: 159–162.

[3]This era has been referred to as the 'BC'—before cimetidine—era of gastroenterology (Schubert & Peura 2008)! It is an indication of the clinical importance of the development of this drug.

The drugs used are **cimetidine**, **ranitidine** (sometimes in combination with bismuth; see below), **nizatidine** and **famotidine**. There is little difference between them. The effect of cimetidine on gastric secretion in human subjects is shown in Figure 29.3. The clinical use of H_2 receptor antagonists is given in the clinical box.

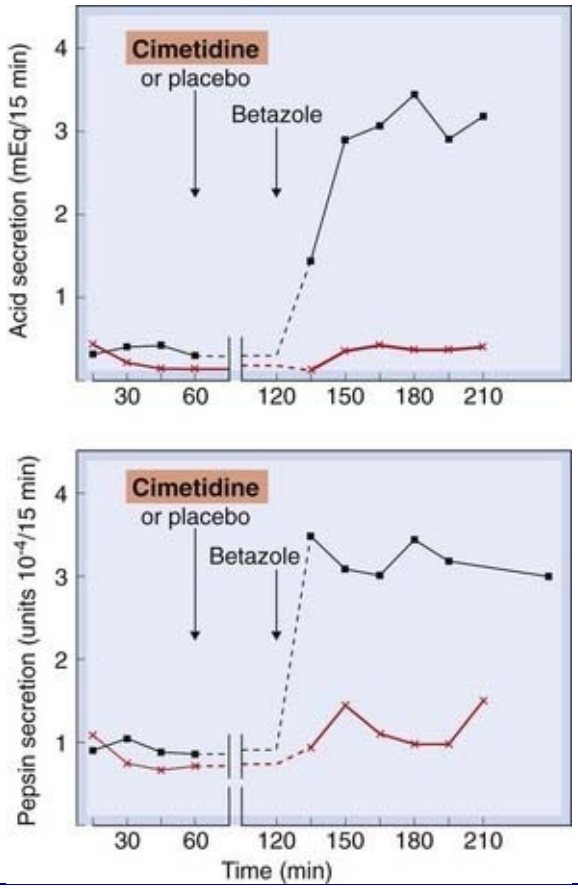


Fig. 29.3 The effect of cimetidine on betazole-stimulated gastric acid and pepsin secretion in humans.

Either cimetidine or a placebo was given orally 60 min prior to a subcutaneous injection (1.5 mg/kg) of betazole, a relatively specific histamine H_2-receptor agonist that stimulates gastric acid secretion.

(Modified from Binder H J, Donaldson R M 1978 Gastroenterology 74: 371–375.)

Pharmacokinetic aspects and unwanted effects

The drugs are generally given orally and are well absorbed, although preparations for intramuscular and intravenous use are also available (except famotidine). Dosage regimens vary depending on the condition under treatment. Low-dosage over-the-counter formulations of cimetidine, ranitidine and famotidine are available for short-term uses, without prescription, from pharmacies.

Unwanted effects are rare. Diarrhoea, dizziness, muscle pains, alopecia,

transient rashes, confusion in the elderly and hypergastrinaemia have been reported. Cimetidine sometimes causes *gynaecomastia* in men and, rarely, a decrease in sexual function. This is probably caused by a modest affinity for androgen receptors. Cimetidine (but not other H_2 receptor antagonists) also inhibits cytochrome P450, and can retard the metabolism (and thus potentiate the action) of a range of drugs including oral anticoagulants and tricyclic antidepressants.

Proton Pump Inhibitors

The first proton pump inhibitor was **omeprazole**, which irreversibly inhibits the H^+-K^+-ATPase (the proton pump), the terminal step in the acid secretory pathway (see Figs 29.1 and 29.2). Both basal and stimulated gastric acid secretion (Fig. 29.4) are reduced. The drug is a weak base, and accumulates in the acid environment of the canaliculi of the stimulated parietal cell where it is activated. This preferential accumulation means that it has a specific effect on these cells. Other proton pump inhibitors (all of which are very similar) include **esomeprazole** (the [*S*] isomer of omeprazole), **lansoprazole**, **pantoprazole** and **rabeprazole**. The clinical use of these inhibitors is given in the clinical box.

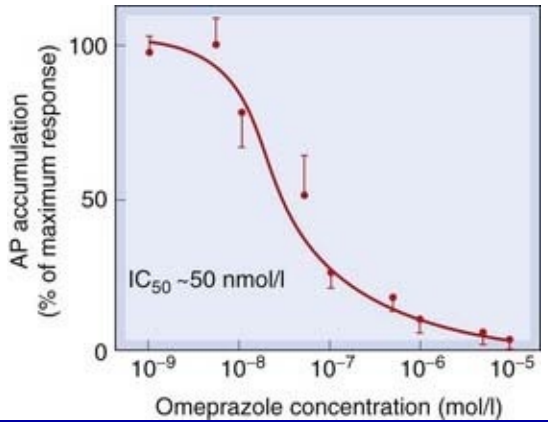


Fig. 29.4 The inhibitory action of omeprazole on acid secretion from isolated human gastric glands stimulated by 50 μmol/l histamine.

Acid secretion was measured by the accumulation of a radiolabelled weak base, aminopyrine (AP), in the secretory channels. The data represent the mean and standard error of measurements from eight patients.

(Adapted from Lindberg P et al. 1987 Trends Pharmacol Sci 8: 399–402.)

Pharmacokinetic aspects and unwanted effects

Oral administration is the most common route of administration, although some injectable preparations are available. Omeprazole is given orally, but as it degrades rapidly at low pH, it is administered as capsules containing enteric-coated granules. It is absorbed and, from the blood, passes into the parietal cells and then into the canaliculi. Increased doses give disproportionately higher increases in plasma concentration (possibly because its inhibitory effect on acid secretion improves its own bioavailability). Although its half-life is about 1 h, a single daily dose affects acid secretion for 2–3 days, because it accumulates in the canaliculi and inhibits H^+-K^+-ATPase irreversibly. With daily dosage, there is an increasing antisecretory effect for up to 5 days, after which a plateau is reached.

Unwanted effects of this class of drugs are uncommon. They may include headache, diarrhoea (both sometimes severe) and rashes. Dizziness, somnolence, mental confusion, impotence, gynaecomastia, and pain in muscles and joints have been reported. Proton pump inhibitors should be used with caution in patients with liver disease, or in women who are pregnant or breastfeeding. The use of these drugs may ‘mask’ the symptoms of gastric cancer.

Antacids

Antacids are the simplest way to treat the symptoms of excessive gastric acid secretion. They directly neutralise acid, which also has the effect of inhibiting the activity of peptic enzymes, which practically ceases at pH

5. Given in sufficient quantity for long enough, they can produce healing of duodenal ulcers but are less effective for gastric ulcers.

Most antacids in common use are salts of magnesium and aluminium. Magnesium salts cause diarrhoea and aluminium salts constipation, so mixtures of these two can, happily, be used to preserve normal bowel function. Some preparations of these substances (e.g. magnesium trisilicate mixtures and some proprietary aluminium preparations) contain high concentrations of sodium and should not be given to patients on a sodium-restricted diet. Numerous antacid preparations are available; a few of the more significant are given below.

Magnesium hydroxide is an insoluble powder that forms magnesium chloride in the stomach. It does not produce systemic alkalosis, because Mg^{2+} is poorly absorbed from the gut. Another salt, **magnesium trisilicate**, is an insoluble powder that reacts slowly with the gastric juice, forming magnesium chloride and colloidal silica. This agent has a prolonged antacid effect, and it also adsorbs pepsin.

Aluminium hydroxide gel forms aluminium chloride in the stomach; when this reaches the intestine, the chloride is released and is reabsorbed. Aluminium hydroxide raises the pH of the gastric juice to about 4, and also adsorbs pepsin. Its action is gradual, and its effect continues for several hours.[4] Colloidal aluminium hydroxide combines with phosphates in the gastrointestinal tract, and the increased excretion of phosphate in the faeces that occurs results in decreased excretion of phosphate via the kidney. This effect has been used in treating patients with chronic renal failure (see Ch. 28).

[4]There was a suggestion—no longer widely believed—that aluminium could trigger Alzheimer's disease. In fact, aluminium is not absorbed to any significant extent following oral administration of aluminium

hydroxide, although when introduced by other routes (e.g. during renal dialysis with aluminium-contaminated solutions) it is extremely toxic.

Alginates or **simeticone** are sometimes combined with antacids. Alginates are believed to increase the viscosity and adherence of mucus to the oesophageal mucosa, forming a protective barrier (see also below), whereas simeticone is an anti-foaming agent, intended to relieve bloating and flatulence.

The clinical use of antacids is given in the clinical box.

Clinical use of agents affecting gastric acidity

- Histamine H_2 receptor antagonists (e.g. **ranitidine**):
  - *peptic ulcer*
  - *reflux oesophagitis.*
- Proton pump inhibitors (e.g. **omeprazole**, **lansoprasole**):
  - *peptic ulcer*
  - *reflux oesophagitis*
  - as one component of therapy for *Helicobacter pylori* infection
  - *Zollinger–Ellison syndrome* (a rare condition caused by gastrin-secreting tumours).
- Antacids (e.g. **magnesium trisilicate**, **aluminium hydroxide**, **alginates**):
  - *dyspepsia*
  - symptomatic relief in *peptic ulcer* or (alginate) *oesophageal reflux*.
- **Bismuth chelate**:
  - as one component of therapy for *H. pylori* infection.

Treatment of *Helicobactor Pylori* Infection

H. pylori infection has been implicated as a causative factor in the production of gastric and, more particularly, duodenal ulcers, as well as

a risk factor for gastric cancer. Indeed, some would argue that infectious gastroduodenitis is actually the chief clinical entity associated with ulcers, and gastric cancer its prominent sequela. Certainly, eradication of *H. pylori* infection promotes rapid and long-term healing of ulcers, and it is routine practice to test for the organism in patients presenting with suggestive symptoms. If the test is positive, then the organism can generally be eradicated with a 1-or 2-week regimen of 'triple therapy', comprising a proton pump inhibitor in combination with the antibacterials **amoxicillin** and **metronidazole** or **clarithromycin** (see Ch. 50); other combinations are also used. Bismuth-containing preparations (see below) are sometimes added. While elimination of the bacillus can produce long-term remission of ulcers, reinfection with the organism can occur.

Drugs That Protect the Mucosa

Some agents, termed *cytoprotective*, are said to enhance endogenous mucosal protection mechanisms (see above) and/or to provide a physical barrier over the surface of the ulcer.

Bismuth chelate

Bismuth chelate (colloidal bismuth subcitrate, tripotassium dicitratobismuthate) is used in combination regimens to treat *H. pylori*. It has toxic effects on the bacillus, and may also prevent its adherence to the mucosa or inhibit its bacterial proteolytic enzymes. It is also believed to have other mucosa-protecting actions, by mechanisms that are unclear, and is widely used as an over-the-counter remedy for mild gastrointestinal symptoms.Very little is absorbed, but if renal excretion is impaired, the raised plasma concentrations of bismuth can result in encephalopathy.

Unwanted effects include nausea and vomiting, and blackening of the

tongue and faeces.

Sucralfate

Sucralfate is a complex of aluminium hydroxide and sulfated sucrose, which releases aluminium in the presence of acid. The residual complex carries a strong negative charge and binds to cationic groups in proteins, glycoproteins, *etc.* It can form complex gels with mucus, an action that is thought to decrease the degradation of mucus by pepsin and to limit the diffusion of H^+. Sucralfate can also inhibit the action of pepsin and stimulate secretion of mucus, bicarbonate and prostaglandins from the gastric mucosa. All these actions contribute to its mucosa-protecting action.

Sucralfate is given orally, and in the acid environment of the stomach the polymerised product forms a tenacious paste, which can produce an obstructive lump (known as a *bezoar*[5]) that gets stuck in the stomach; about 30% is still present in the stomach 3 h after administration. It reduces the absorption of a number of other drugs, including fluoroquinolone antibiotics, **theophylline**, **tetracycline**, **digoxin** and **amitriptyline**. Because it requires an acid environment for activation, antacids given concurrently or prior to its administration will reduce its efficacy.

[5]From the Persian word meaning ‘a cure for poisoning’. It refers to the belief that a concoction made from lumps of impacted rubbish retrieved from the stomach of goats would protect against poisoning by one’s enemies.

Unwanted effects are few, the most common being constipation. Less common effects include dry mouth, nausea, vomiting, headache, bezoar formation and rashes.

Misoprostol

Prostaglandins of the E and I series have a generally protective action in the gastrointestinal tract, and a deficiency in endogenous production (after ingestion of a NSAID, for example) may contribute to ulcer formation. Misoprostol is a stable analogue of prostaglandin E_1. It is given orally and is used to promote the healing of ulcers or to prevent the gastric damage that can occur with chronic use of NSAIDs. It exerts a direct action on the ECL cell (and possibly parietal cell also; Fig. 29.2), inhibiting the basal secretion of gastric acid as well as the stimulation of production seen in response to food, pentagastrin and caffeine. It also increases mucosal blood flow and augments the secretion of mucus and bicarbonate.

Unwanted effects include diarrhoea and abdominal cramps; uterine contractions can also occur, so the drug should not be given during pregnancy (unless deliberately to induce a therapeutic abortion; see Ch. 34). Prostaglandins and NSAIDs are discussed more fully in Chs 6 and 26.

Vomiting

Nausea and vomiting are unwanted side effects of many clinically used drugs, notably those used for cancer chemotherapy as well as opioids, general anaesthetics and **digoxin**. They also occur in motion sickness,[6] during early pregnancy and in numerous disease states (e.g. migraine) as well as bacterial and viral infections.

[6]In fact, the word *nausea* is derived from the Greek word meaning ‘boat’, with the obvious implication of associated motion sickness. *Vomiting* is derived from the Latin and a *vomitorium* was the ‘fast exit’ passageway in ancient theatres. It has a certain resonance, as we think you will agree!

The Reflex Mechanism of Vomiting

Vomiting is regulated centrally by the *vomiting centre* and the *chemoreceptor trigger zone* (CTZ), both of which lie in the medulla. The CTZ is sensitive to chemical stimuli and is the main site of action of many emetic and antiemetic drugs. The blood–brain barrier in the neighbourhood of the CTZ is relatively permeable, allowing circulating mediators to act directly on this centre. The CTZ also regulates motion sickness. Impulses from the CTZ pass to those areas of the brain stem—known collectively as the vomiting centre—that control and integrate the visceral and somatic functions involved in vomiting.

An outline of the pathways involved in the control of vomiting is given in Figure 29.5 and reviewed in detail by Hornby (2001). The main neurotransmitters are acetylcholine, histamine, 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT), dopamine and substance P, and receptors for these transmitters have been demonstrated in the relevant areas (see Chs 12–14 and 38). It has been hypothesised that enkephalins (see Chs 19 and 41) are also implicated in the mediation of vomiting, acting possibly at δ (CTZ) or μ (vomiting centre) opioid receptors. Substance P (see Ch. 19) acting at neurokinin-1 receptors in the CTZ, and endocannabinoids (Ch. 18), may also be involved.

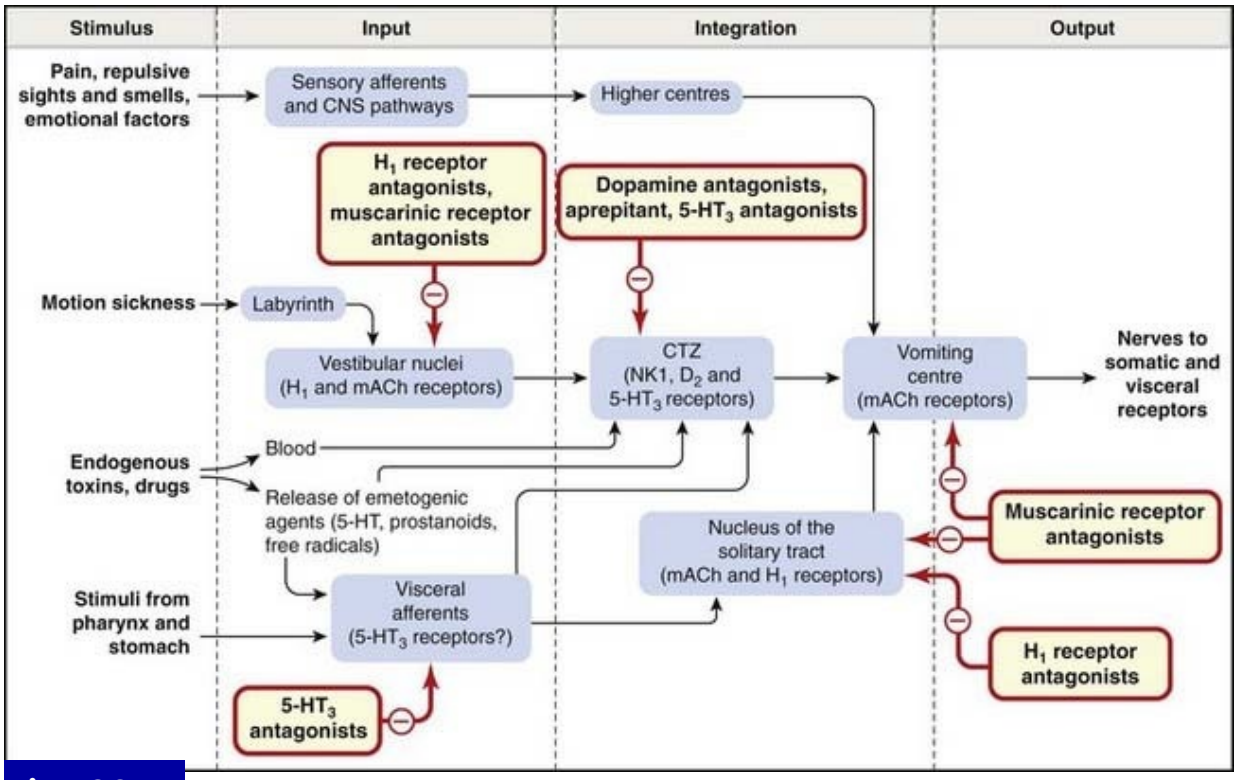


Fig. 29.5 Schematic diagram of the factors involved in the control of vomiting, with the probable sites of action of antiemetic drugs.

The cerebellum may function as a second relay or gating mechanism in the link between the labyrinth and chemoreceptor trigger zone (CTZ; not shown). 5-HT3, 5-hydroxytryptamine type 3; D2, dopamine D2; H1, histamine H1; mACh, muscarinic acetylcholine; NK1, neurokinin 1.

(Based partly on a diagram from Borison H L et al. 1981 J Clin Pharmacol 21: 235–295.)

The neurobiology of nausea is much less well understood. Nausea and vomiting may occur together or separately and may subserve different physiological functions (see Andrews & Horn, 2006). From the pharmacologist's viewpoint, it is easier to control vomiting than nausea, and many effective antiemetics (e.g. 5-HT3 antagonists) are much less successful in this regard.

The reflex mechanism of vomiting

• Emetic stimuli include:

– chemicals or drugs in the blood or intestine

– neuronal input from the gastrointestinal tract, labyrinth and central nervous system (CNS).

• Pathways and mediators include:

– impulses from the chemoreceptor trigger zone and various other CNS centres relayed to the vomiting centre

– chemical transmitters such as histamine, acetylcholine, dopamine, 5-hydroxytryptamine and substance P, acting on H_1, muscarinic, D_2, 5-HT_3 and NK_1 receptors, respectively.

• Antiemetic drugs include:

– H_1 receptor antagonists (e.g. **cinnarizine**)

– muscarinic antagonists (e.g. **hyoscine**)

– 5-HT_3 receptor antagonists (e.g. **ondansetron**)

– D_2 receptor antagonists (e.g. **metoclopramide**)

– cannabinoids (e.g. **nabilone**)

– neurokinin-1 antagonists (e.g. **aprepitant, fosaprepitant**).

• Main side effects of principal antiemetics include:

– drowsiness and antiparasympathetic effects (hyoscine, nabilone > cinnarizine)

– dystonic reactions (metoclopramide)

– general CNS disturbances (nabilone)

– headache, gastrointestinal tract upsets (ondansetron).

Antiemetic Drugs

Several antiemetic agents are available, and these are generally used for specific conditions, although there may be some overlap. Such drugs are of particular importance as an adjunct to cancer chemotherapy, where the nausea and vomiting produced by many cytotoxic drug (see Ch. 55) can be almost unendurable.[7] In using drugs to treat the morning sickness of pregnancy, the problem of potential damage to the fetus has always to

be borne in mind. In general, all drugs should be avoided during the first 3 months of pregnancy, if possible. Details of the main categories of antiemetics are given below, and their main clinical uses are summarised in the box.

[7]It was reported that a young, medically qualified patient being treated by combination chemotherapy for sarcoma stated that 'the severity of vomiting at times made the thought of death seem like a welcome relief'.

Receptor Antagonists

Many H_1 (see Ch. 26), muscarinic (see Ch. 13), 5-HT_3 (see Ch. 15) and dopamine (Ch. 45) receptor antagonists exhibit clinically useful antiemetic activity.

H1 receptor antagonists

Cinnarizine, **cyclizine** and **promethazine** are the most commonly employed; they are effective against nausea and vomiting arising from many causes, including motion sickness and the presence of irritants in the stomach. None is very effective against substances that act directly on the CTZ. Promethazine is used for morning sickness of pregnancy (on the rare occasions when this is so severe that drug treatment is justified), and has been used by NASA to treat space motion sickness. Drowsiness and sedation, while possibly contributing to their clinical efficacy, are the chief unwanted effects.

Muscarinic receptor antagonists

Hyoscine (**scopolamine**) is employed principally for prophylaxis and treatment of motion sickness, and may be administered orally or as a transdermal patch. Dry mouth and blurred vision are the most common unwanted effects. Drowsiness also occurs, but the drug has less sedative action than the antihistamines because of poor central nervous system

penetration.

5-HT3 receptor antagonists

Dolasetron, **granisetron**, **ondansetron**, **palonosteron** and **tropisetron** (see Ch. 15), are of particular value in preventing and treating the vomiting and, to a lesser extent the nausea, commonly encountered postoperatively or that caused by radiation therapy or administration of cytotoxic drugs such as **cisplatin**. The primary site of action of these drugs is the CTZ. They may be given orally or by injection (sometimes helpful if nausea is already present). Unwanted effects such as headache and gastrointestinal upsets are relatively uncommon.

Dopamine antagonists

Antipsychotic phenothiazines (see Ch. 45), such as **chlorpromazine**, **perphenazine**, **prochlorperazine** and **trifluoperazine**, are effective antiemetics commonly used for treating the more severe nausea and vomiting associated with cancer, radiation therapy, cytotoxic drugs, opioids, anaesthetics and other drugs. They can be administered orally, intravenously or by suppository. They act mainly as antagonists of the dopamine D_2 receptors in the CTZ (see Fig. 29.5) but they also block histamine and muscarinic receptors.

Unwanted effects are common and include sedation (especially chlorpromazine), hypotension and extrapyramidal symptoms including dystonias and tardive dyskinesia (Ch. 45).

Other antipsychotics, such as **haloperidol** and **levomepromazine** (Ch. 45), also act as D_2 antagonists in the CTZ and can be used for acute chemotherapy-induced emesis.

Metoclopramide and domperidone

Metoclopramide is a D_2 receptor antagonist (Fig. 29.5), closely related to the phenothiazine group, that acts centrally on the CTZ and also has a peripheral action on the gastrointestinal tract itself, increasing the motility of the oesophagus, stomach and intestine. This not only adds to the antiemetic effect, but explains its use in the treatment of gastro-oesophageal reflux (see below) and hepatic and biliary disorders. As metoclopramide also blocks dopamine receptors (see Ch. 43) elsewhere in the central nervous system, it produces a number of unwanted effects including disorders of movement (more common in children and young adults), fatigue, motor restlessness, spasmodic torticollis (involuntary twisting of the neck) and occulogyric crises (involuntary upward eye movements). It stimulates prolactin release (see Ch. 32), causing galactorrhoea and disorders of menstruation.

Domperidone is a similar drug often used to treat vomiting due to cytotoxic therapy as well as gastrointestinal symptoms. Unlike metoclopramide, it does not readily penetrate the blood–brain barrier and is consequently less prone to producing central side effects. Both drugs are given orally, have plasma half-lives of 4–5 h and are excreted in the urine.

NK1 receptor antagonists

Aprepitant blocks substance P (NK_1) receptors (see Ch. 19) in the CTZ and vomiting centre. Substance P causes vomiting when injected intravenously and is released by gastrointestinal vagal afferent nerves as well as in the vomiting centre itself. Aprepitant is given orally, and is effective in controlling the late phase of emesis caused by cytotoxic drugs, with few significant unwanted effects. **Fosaprepitant** is a prodrug of aprepitant, given intravenously.

Other Antiemetic Drugs

Anecdotal evidence originally suggested the possibility of using cannabinoids (see Ch. 18) as antiemetics (see Pertwee, 2001). The synthetic cannabinol **nabilone** has been found to decrease vomiting caused by agents that stimulate the CTZ, and is sometimes effective where other drugs have failed (see Ch. 18). The antiemetic effect is antagonised by **naloxone**, which implies that opioid receptors may be important in the mechanism of action. Nabilone is given orally; it is well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and is metabolised in many tissues. Its plasma half-life is approximately 120 min, and its metabolites are excreted in the urine and faeces.

Unwanted effects are common, especially drowsiness, dizziness and dry mouth. Mood changes and postural hypotension are also fairly frequent. Some patients experience hallucinations and psychotic reactions, resembling the effect of other cannabinoids (see Ch. 18).

High-dose glucocorticoids (particularly **dexamethasone**; see Chs 26 and 32) can also control emesis, especially when this is caused by cytotoxic drugs. The mechanism of action is not clear. Dexamethasone can be used alone but is frequently deployed in combination with a phenothiazine, ondansetron or aprepitant.

Clinical use of antiemetic drugs

- Histamine H_1 receptor antagonists (see also clinical box in Ch. 26):
  - **cyclizine**: motion sickness
  - **cinnarizine**: motion sickness, vestibular disorders (e.g. Ménière's disease)
  - **promethazine**: severe morning sickness of pregnancy.
- Muscarinic receptor antagonists:
  - **hyoscine**: motion sickness.

• Dopamine D_2 receptor antagonists:

– phenothiazines (e.g. **prochlorperazine**): vomiting caused by uraemia, radiation, viral gastroenteritis, severe morning sickness of pregnancy

– **metoclopramide**: vomiting caused by uraemia, radiation, gastrointestinal disorders, cytotoxic drugs.

– **Domperidone** is less liable to cause CNS side effects as it penetrates the blood-brain barrier poorly.

• 5-Hydroxytryptamine 5-HT_3 receptor antagonists (e.g. **ondansetron**): cytotoxic drugs or radiation, postoperative vomiting.

• Cannabinoids (e.g. **nabilone**): cytotoxic drugs (see Ch. 18).

The Motility of the Gastrointestinal Tract

Drugs that alter the motility of the gastrointestinal tract include:

• purgatives, which accelerate the passage of food through the intestine

• agents that increase the motility of the gastrointestinal smooth muscle without causing purgation

• antidiarrhoeal drugs, which decrease motility

• antispasmodic drugs, which decrease smooth muscle tone.

Purgatives

The transit of food through the intestine may be hastened by several different types of drugs, including laxatives, faecal softeners and stimulant purgatives. The latter agents may be used to relieve constipation or to clear the bowel prior to surgery or examination.

Bulk and Osmotic Laxatives

The *bulk laxatives* include **methylcellulose** and certain plant extracts

such as **sterculia**, **agar**, **bran** and **ispaghula husk**. These agents are polysaccharide polymers that are not digested in the upper part of the gastrointestinal tract. They form a bulky hydrated mass in the gut lumen promoting peristalsis and improving faecal consistency. They may take several days to work but have no serious unwanted effects.

The *osmotic laxatives* consist of poorly absorbed solutes—the saline purgatives—and **lactulose**. The main salts in use are magnesium sulfate and magnesium hydroxide. By producing an osmotic load, these agents trap increased volumes of fluid in the lumen of the bowel, accelerating the transfer of the gut contents through the small intestine. This results in an abnormally large volume entering the colon, causing distension and purgation within about an hour. Abdominal cramps can occur. The amount of magnesium absorbed after an oral dose is usually too small to have adverse systemic effects, but these salts should be avoided in small children and in patients with poor renal function, in whom they can cause heart block, neuromuscular block or central nervous system depression. While isotonic or hypotonic solutions of saline purgatives cause purgation, hypertonic solutions can cause vomiting. Sometimes, other sodium salts of **phosphate** and **citrate** are given rectally, by suppository, to relieve constipation.

Lactulose is a semisynthetic disaccharide of fructose and galactose. It is poorly absorbed and produces an effect similar to that of the other osmotic laxatives. It takes 2–3 days to act. Unwanted effects, seen with high doses, include flatulence, cramps, diarrhoea and electrolyte disturbance. Tolerance can develop. Another agent, **macrogols**, which consists of inert ethylene glycol polymers, acts in the same way.

Faecal Softeners

Docusate sodium is a surface-active compound that acts in the

gastrointestinal tract in a manner similar to a detergent and produces softer faeces. It is also a weak stimulant laxative. Other agents that achieve the same effect include **arachis oil**, which is given as an enema, and **liquid paraffin**, although this is now seldom used.

Stimulant Laxatives

The stimulant laxative drugs act mainly by increasing electrolyte and hence water secretion by the mucosa, and also by increasing peristalsis—possibly by stimulating enteric nerves. Abdominal cramping may be experienced as a side effect with almost any of these drugs.

Bisacodyl may be given by mouth but is often given by suppository. In the latter case, it stimulates the rectal mucosa, inducing defaecation in 15–30 min. **Glycerol** suppositories act in the same manner. **Sodium picosulfate** and docusate sodium have similar actions. The former is given orally and is often used in preparation for intestinal surgery or colonoscopy.

Senna and **dantron** are *anthroquinone* laxatives. The active principle (after hydrolysis of glycosidic linkages in the case of the plant extract, senna) directly stimulates the myenteric plexus, resulting in increased peristalsis and thus defaecation. Dantron is similar. As this drug is a skin irritant and may be carcinogenic, it is generally used only in the terminally ill.

Laxatives of any type should not be used when there is obstruction of the bowel. Overuse can lead to an atonic colon where the natural propulsive activity is diminished. In these circumstances, the only way to achieve defaecation is to take further amounts of laxatives, so a sort of dependency arises.

Drugs That Increase Gastrointestinal Motility

Domperidone is primarily used as an antiemetic (as described above), but it also increases gastrointestinal motility (although the mechanism is unknown). Clinically, it increases lower oesophageal sphincter pressure (thus inhibiting gastro-oesophageal reflux), increases gastric emptying and enhances duodenal peristalsis. It is useful in disorders of gastric emptying and in chronic gastric reflux.

Metoclopramide (also an antiemetic; see above) stimulates gastric motility, causing a marked acceleration of gastric emptying. It is useful in gastro-oesophageal reflux and in disorders of gastric emptying, but is ineffective in paralytic ileus.

Now withdrawn (because it precipitated fatal cardiac arrhythmias), **cisapride** stimulates acetylcholine release in the myenteric plexus in the upper gastrointestinal tract through a 5-HT_4 receptor-mediated effect. **Tegaserod** (also recently withdrawn on account of suspected increase in heart attacks and strokes) acts similarly. These drugs raise oesophageal sphincter pressure and increase gut motility. They were used for treating reflux oesophagitis and in disorders of gastric emptying.

Antidiarrhoeal Agents

There are numerous causes of diarrhoea, including underlying disease, infection, toxins and even anxiety. It may also arise as a side effect of drug or radiation therapy. Repercussions range from mild discomfort and inconvenience to a medical emergency requiring hospitalisation and parenteral fluid and electrolyte replacement therapy. Globally, acute diarrhoeal disease is one of the principal causes of death in malnourished infants, especially in developing countries where medical care is less accessible and 1–2 million children die each year for want of simple counter-measures.

During an episode of diarrhoea, there is an increase in the motility of

the gastrointestinal tract, accompanied by an increased secretion coupled with a decreased absorption of fluid, which leads to a loss of electrolytes (particularly Na^+) and water. Cholera toxins and some other bacterial toxins produce a profound increase in electrolyte and fluid secretion by irreversibly activating the G-proteins that couple the surface receptors of the mucosal cells to adenylyl cyclase (see Ch. 3).

There are three approaches to the treatment of severe acute diarrhoea:

1 Maintenance of fluid and electrolyte balance.

2 Use of anti-infective agents.

3 Use of spasmolytic or other antidiarrhoeal agents.

The maintenance of fluid and electrolyte balance by means of oral rehydration is the first priority, and wider application of this cheap and simple remedy could save the lives of many infants in the developing world. Many patients require no other treatment. In the ileum, as in parts of the nephron, there is co-transport of Na^+ and glucose across the epithelial cell. The presence of glucose (and some amino acids) therefore enhances Na^+ absorption and thus water uptake. Preparations of sodium chloride and glucose for oral rehydration are available in powder form, ready to be dissolved in water before use.

Many gastrointestinal infections are viral in origin, and because those that are bacterial generally resolve fairly rapidly, the use of anti-infective agents is usually neither necessary nor useful. Other cases may require more aggressive therapy, however. *Campylobacter* sp. is the commonest cause of bacterial gastroenteritis in the UK, and severe infections may require **ciprofloxacin** (Ch. 50). The most common bacterial organisms encountered by travellers include *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella* and *Shigella*, as well as protozoa such as *Giardia* and

Cryptosporidium spp. Drug treatment (Chs 50 and 53) may be necessary in these and other more serious infections.

Traveller's Diarrhoea

More than 3 million people cross international borders each year. Many travel hopefully, but some 20–50% come back ill, having encountered enterotoxin-producing *E. coli* (the most common cause) or other organisms. Most infections are mild and self-limiting, requiring only oral replacement of fluid and salt, as detailed above. General principles for the drug treatment of traveller's diarrhoea are detailed by Gorbach (1987).[8] Up-to-date information on the condition, including the prevalence of infectious organisms around the globe as well as recommended treatment guidelines, is issued in the UK by the National Travel Health Network and Centre (see Web links in the reference list).

[8]Who flippantly (although accurately) observed that 'travel broadens the mind and loosens the bowels'.

Antimotility and Spasmolytic Agents

The main pharmacological agents that decrease motility are opiates (Ch. 41) and muscarinic receptor antagonists (Ch. 13). Agents in this latter group are seldom employed as primary therapy for diarrhoea because of their actions on other systems, but small doses of **atropine** are sometimes used, combined with **diphenoxylate** (see below). The action of **morphine**, the archetypal opiate, on the alimentary tract is complex; it increases the tone and rhythmic contractions of the intestine but diminishes propulsive activity. The pyloric, ileocolic and anal sphincters are contracted, and the tone of the large intestine is markedly increased. Its overall effect is constipating.

The main opiates used for the symptomatic relief of diarrhoea are

codeine (a morphine congener), diphenoxylate and **loperamide** (both **pethidine** congeners that do not readily penetrate the blood–brain barrier and are used only for their actions in the gut). All may have unwanted effects including constipation, abdominal cramps, drowsiness and dizziness. Paralytic ileus can also occur. They should not be used in young (< 4 years of age) children.

Loperamide is the drug of first choice for traveller's diarrhoea and is a component of several proprietary antidiarrhoeal medicines. It has a relatively selective action on the gastrointestinal tract and undergoes significant enterohepatic cycling. It reduces the frequency of abdominal cramps, decreases the passage of faeces and shortens the duration of the illness.

Diphenoxylate also lacks morphine-like activity in the central nervous system, although large doses (25-fold higher) produce typical opioid effects. Preparations of diphenoxylate usually contain atropine as well. Codeine and loperamide have antisecretory actions in addition to their effects on intestinal motility. Cannabinoid receptor agonists also reduce gut motility in animals, most probably by decreasing acetylcholine release from enteric nerves. There have been anecdotal reports of a beneficial effect of cannabis against dysentery and cholera.

Drugs that reduce spasm in the gut are also of value in irritable bowel syndrome and diverticular disease. Muscarinic receptor antagonists (Ch. 13) used for this purpose include atropine, hyoscine, **propantheline** and **dicycloverine**. The last named is thought to have some additional direct relaxant action on smooth muscle. All produce antimuscarinic side effects such as dry mouth, blurred vision and urinary retention. **Mebeverine**, a derivative of **reserpine**, has a direct relaxant action on gastrointestinal smooth muscle. Unwanted effects are few.

Adsorbents

Adsorbent agents are used extensively in the symptomatic treatment of diarrhoea, although properly controlled trials proving efficacy have not been carried out. The main preparations used contain kaolin, pectin, chalk, charcoal, methylcellulose and activated attapulgite (magnesium aluminium silicate). It has been suggested that these agents may act by adsorbing microorganisms or toxins, by altering the intestinal flora or by coating and protecting the intestinal mucosa, but there is no hard evidence for this. They are often given as mixtures with other drugs (e.g. **kaolin** and **morphine** mixture BP).

Drugs and gastrointestinal tract motility 

- Purgatives include:
  - bulk laxatives (e.g. **ispaghula** husk, first choice for slow action)
  - osmotic laxatives (e.g. **lactulose**)
  - faecal softeners (e.g. **docusate**)
  - stimulant purgatives (e.g. **senna**).
- Drugs that can increase motility without purgation:
  - **domperidone**, used in disorders of gastric emptying.
- Drugs used to treat diarrhea:
  - oral rehydration with isotonic solutions of NaCl plus glucose and starch-based cereal (important in infants)
  - antimotility agents, for example **loperamide** (unwanted effects: drowsiness and nausea).

Drugs for Chronic Bowel Disease

This category comprises *irritable bowel syndrome* (IBS) and *inflammatory bowel disease* (IBD). IBS is characterised by bouts of diarrhoea,

constipation or abdominal pain. The aetiology of the disease is uncertain, but psychological factors may play a part. Treatment is symptomatic, with a high-residue diet plus loperamide or a laxative if needed.

Ulcerative colitis and *Crohn's disease* are forms of IBD, affecting the colon or ileum. They are autoimmune inflammatory disorders, which can be severe and progressive, requiring long-term drug treatment with antiinflammatory and immunosuppressant drugs (see Ch. 26), and occasionally surgical resection. The following agents are used.

Glucocorticoids

Glucocorticoids are potent antiinflammatory agents and are dealt with fully in Chapters 26 and 32. The drugs of choice are generally **prednisolone** or **budesonide** (although others can be used), given orally or locally into the bowel by suppository or enema.

Aminosalicylates

While glucocorticoids are useful for the acute attacks of inflammatory bowel diseases, they are not the ideal for the long-term treatment (because of their side effects). Maintenance of remission in both ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease is generally achieved with aminosalicylates, although they are less useful in the latter condition.

Sulfasalazine consists of the sulfonamide **sulfapyridine** linked to **5-aminosalicylic acid** (5-ASA). The latter forms the active moiety when it is released in the colon. Its mechanism of action is obscure. It may reduce inflammation by scavenging free radicals, by inhibiting prostaglandin and leukotriene production, and/or by decreasing neutrophil chemotaxis and superoxide generation. Its unwanted effects are diarrhoea, salicylate sensitivity and interstitial nephritis. 5-ASA is

not absorbed, but the sulfapyridine moiety, which seems to be therapeutically inert in this instance, is absorbed, and its unwanted effects are those associated with the sulfonamides (see Ch. 50).

Newer compounds in this class, which presumably share a similar mechanism of action, include **mesalazine** (5-ASA itself), **olsalazine** (a 5-ASA dimer linked by a bond that is hydrolysed by colonic bacteria) and **balsalazide** (a prodrug from which 5-ASA is also released following hydrolysis of a diazo linkage).

Other Drugs

The immunosuppressants **azathioprine** and **6-mercapto-purine** (see Ch. 26) are also sometimes used in patients with severe disease. Recently, **infliximab** and **adalimumab**, monoclonal antibodies directed against tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α, (see Ch. 26) have been used with success for the treatment of inflammatory bowel diseases. These drugs are expensive, and in the UK their use is restricted to moderate/severe Crohn's disease that is unresponsive to glucocorticoids or immunomodulators. The antiallergy drug **sodium cromoglicate** (see Ch. 27) is sometimes used for treating gastrointestinal symptoms associated with food allergies.

Drugs Affecting the Biliary System

The commonest pathological condition of the biliary tract is cholesterol *cholelithiasis*, *i.e.* the formation of gallstones with high cholesterol content. Surgery is generally the preferred option, but there are orally active drugs that dissolve non-calcified 'radiolucent' cholesterol gallstones. The principal agent is **ursodeoxycholic acid**, a minor constituent of human bile (but the main bile acid in the bear, hence *urso-*). Diarrhoea is the main unwanted effect.

Biliary colic, the pain produced by the passage of gallstones through the bile duct, can be very intense, and immediate relief may be required. **Morphine** relieves the pain effectively, but it may have an undesirable local effect because it constricts the sphincter of Oddi and raises the pressure in the bile duct. **Buprenorphine** may be preferable. **Pethidine** has similar actions, although it relaxes other smooth muscle, for example that of the ureter. Atropine is commonly employed to relieve biliary spasm because it has antispasmodic action and may be used in conjunction with morphine. **Glyceryl trinitrate** (see Ch. 21) can produce a marked fall of intrabiliary pressure and may be used to relieve biliary spasm.

Future Directions

It might be thought that the widespread availability of several different types of safe antisecretory drug would have satisfied the medical need for antiulcer therapies, but this is not so. Although the incidence of ulcers has dropped, thanks to these drugs, other diseases associated with excess acid production (GORD, NSAID-induced damage) are on the increase, at least in the 'developed' countries. The prospects for new types of histamine antagonist (e.g. H_3 antagonists) are being explored as are antagonists at gastrin receptors. The most interesting new candidates though are the *potassium competitive acid blocker*, several of which are in various stages of clinical development. Potassium ions are exchanged for protons by the proton pump (see Fig. 29.1) and so potassium antagonists would represent an alternative modality for inhibiting the secretion of acid. This novel field, as well as other projects, are discussed by Mossner & Caca (2005).

References and Further Reading

Seminal and classic papers

lack J.W., Duncan W.A.M., Durant C.J., *et al.* Definition and antagonism of histamine H_2-receptors. *Nature*. 1972;236:385-390. (*Seminal paper outlining the pharmacological approach to inhibition of acid secretion through antagonism at an alternative histamine receptor*)

Innervation and hormones of the gastrointestinal tract

ansen M.B. The enteric nervous system II: gastrointestinal functions. *Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2003;92:249-257. (*Small review on the role of the enteric nervous system in the control of gastrointestinal motility, secretory activity, blood flow and immune status; easy to read*)

anger G.J. Neurokinin NK_1 and NK_3 receptors as targets for drugs to treat gastrointestinal motility disorders and pain. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2004;141:1303-1312. (*Useful review that deals with the present and potential future uses of neurokinin antagonists in gastrointestinal physiology and pathology*)

piller R. Serotonergic modulating drugs for functional gastrointestinal diseases. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2002;54:11-20. (*An excellent and 'easily digestible' article describing the latest thinking on the use of 5-hydroxytryptamine agonists and antagonists in gastrointestinal function; useful diagrams*)

Gastric secretion

hen D., Friis-Hansen L., Håkanson R., Zhao C.-M. Genetic dissection of the signaling pathways that control gastric acid secretion. *Inflammopharmacology*. 2005;13:201-207. (*Describes experiments using receptor 'knock outs' to analyse the mechanisms that control gastric acid production*)

ui G., Waldum H.L. Physiological and clinical significance of enterochromaffin-like cell activation in the regulation of gastric acid secretion. *World J. Gastroenterol.*. 2007;13:493-496. (*Short review on the central role of ECL cells in the regulation of gastric acid secretion. Easy to read*)

chubert M.L., Peura D.A. Control of gastric acid secretion in health and disease. *Gastroenterology*. 2008;134:1842-1860. (*Excellent review of the physiology and pharmacology of gastric acid*

secretion. Authoritative and well illustrated)

Drugs in gastric disorders

xon A.T. Relationship between *Helicobacter pylori* gastritis, gastric cancer and gastric acid secretion Adv. Med. Sci. 52:2007:55-60 (*Takes a critical look at the epidemiological evidence for the relationship between* H. pylori *infection and gastric cancer*)

ateman D.N. Proton-pump inhibitors: three of a kind? *Lancet*. 1997;349:1637-1638. (*Editorial commentary*)

laser M.J. The bacteria behind ulcers. *Sci. Am.*. 1996;274:104-107. (*Simple coverage, very good diagrams*)

laser M.J. *Helicobacter pylori* and gastric disease. *Br. Med. J.*. 1998;316:1507-1510. (*Succinct review; emphasis on future developments*)

orn J.H. The proton-pump inhibitors: similarities and differences. *Clin. Ther.*. 2000;22:266-280. (*Excellent overview*)

uang J.Q., Hunt R.H. Pharmacological and pharmacodynamic essentials of H_2-receptor antagonists and proton pump inhibitors for the practising physician. *Baillière's Best Pract. Res. Clin. Gastroenterol.*. 2001;15:355-370.

lotz U. The role of aminosalicylates at the beginning of the new millennium in the treatment of chronic inflammatory bowel disease. *Eur. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2000;56:353-362.

lossner J., Caca K. Developments in the inhibition of gastric acid secretion. *Eur. J. Clin. Invest.*. 2005;35:469-475. (*Useful overview of several new directions in gastrointestinal drug development*)

ertwee R.G. Cannabinoids and the gastrointestinal tract. *Gut*. 2001;48:859-867.

eomans N.D., Tulassy Z., Juhász L., *et al.* A comparison of omeprazole with ranitidine for ulcers associated with nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1998;338:719-726.

Vomiting

ndrews P.L., Horn C.C. Signals for nausea and emesis: implications for models of upper gastrointestinal diseases. *Auton. Neurosci.*. 2006;125:100-115.

esketh P.J. Potential role of the NK1 receptor antagonists in chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting. *Support. Care Cancer*. 2001;9:350-354.

ornby P.J. Central neurocircuitry associated with emesis. *Am. J. Med.*. 2001;111:106S-112S. (*Comprehensive review of central control of vomiting*)

ramèr M.R., Moore R., Reynolds D.J., McQuay H.J. A quantitative systematic review of ondansetron in treatment of established postoperative nausea and vomiting. *Br. Med. J.*. 1997;314:1088-1092.

ates B.J., Miller A.D., Lucot J.B. Physiological basis and pharmacology of motion sickness: an update. *Brain Res. Bull.*. 1998;5:395-406. (*Good account of the mechanisms underlying motion sickness and its treatment*)

Motility of the gastrointestinal tract

e Las Casas C., Adachi J., Dupont H. Travellers' diarrhoea. *Aliment. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 1999;13:1373-1378. (*Review article*)

orbach S.L. Bacterial diarrhoea and its treatment. *Lancet*. 1987;II:1378-1382.

The biliary system

ateson M.C. Bile acid research and applications. *Lancet*. 1997;349:5-6.

Useful Web resources

ttp://www.nathnac.org http://www.nathnac.org (*This is the site for the UK Health Protection Agency's National Travel Health Network and Centre. There are two components to the site, one for lay people and one for health professionals. Click on the latter and enter 'Travellers' diarrhoea' as a search term to retrieve current information and advice*)

30

The control of blood glucose and drug treatment of diabetes mellitus

Overview

In this chapter, we describe the endocrine control of blood glucose by pancreatic hormones, especially *insulin* but also *glucagon*, *somatostatin* and *amylin*, and gut hormones (*incretins*), especially *glucagon-like peptide-1* (GLP-1) and *gastric inhibitory peptide* (GIP, which is also known as glucose-dependent insulinotropic peptide). The second part of the chapter is devoted to diabetes mellitus and its treatment with insulin preparations (including insulin analogues), and other hypoglycaemic agents—*metformin*, *sulfonylureas*, *α-glucosidase inhibitors*, *glitazones*, long-acting incretin mimetics such as *exenatide*, and *gliptins* which potentiate incretins by blocking their degradation.

Introduction

Insulin is the main hormone controlling intermediary metabolism. Its most striking acute effect is to lower blood glucose. Reduced (or absent) secretion of insulin often coupled with reduced sensitivity to its action, 'insulin resistance' which is closely related to obesity, causes *diabetes mellitus*. This disease, recognised since ancient times, is named for the production of copious volumes of sugary urine. Diabetes is rapidly increasing to epidemic proportions (in step with obesity, Ch. 31), and its consequences are dire—especially atherosclerosis (myocardial and

cerebral infarction, amputation), kidney failure, neuropathy and blindness.

In this chapter, we first describe the control of blood sugar. The second part of the chapter is devoted to diabetes mellitus and its treatment with drugs.

Control of Blood Glucose

Glucose is the obligatory source of energy for the adult brain, and physiological control of blood glucose reflects the need to maintain adequate fuel supplies in the face of intermittent food intake and variable metabolic demands. More fuel is made available by feeding than is required immediately, and excess calories are stored as glycogen or fat. During fasting, these energy stores need to be mobilised in a regulated manner. The most important regulatory hormone is *insulin*, the actions of which are described below. Increased blood glucose stimulates insulin secretion (Fig. 30.1), whereas reduced blood glucose reduces insulin secretion. The effect of glucose on insulin secretion depends on whether the glucose load is administered intravenously or by mouth. Glucose administered by mouth is more effective in stimulating insulin secretion because it stimulates the release of incretin hormones from the gut, which promote insulin secretion (Fig. 30.1). The effect of glucose on insulin secretion is abnormal in patients with diabetes (Fig. 30.2). *Hypoglycaemia*, caused by excessive insulin, not only reduces insulin secretion but also elicits secretion of an array of 'counter-regulatory' hormones, including *glucagon*, *adrenaline* (Ch. 14), *glucocorticoids* (Ch. 32) and *growth hormone* (Ch. 32), all of which increase blood glucose. Their main effects on glucose uptake and carbohydrate metabolism are summarised and contrasted with those of insulin in Table 30.1.

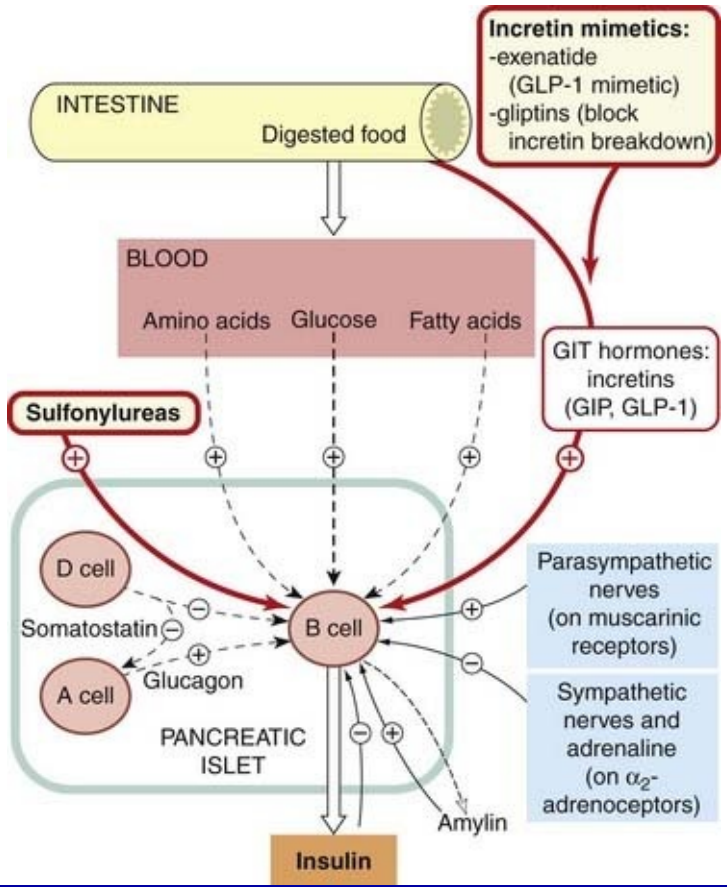


Fig. 30.1 Factors regulating insulin secretion.

Blood glucose is the most important factor. Drugs used to stimulate insulin secretion are shown in red-bordered boxes. Glucagon potentiates insulin release but opposes some of its peripheral actions and increases blood glucose. GIP, gastric inhibitory peptide; GIT, gastrointestinal tract; GLP-1, glucagon-like peptide-1.

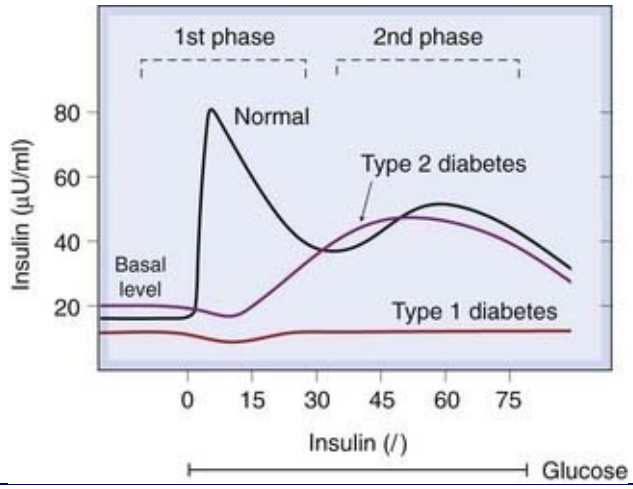


Fig. 30.2 Schematic diagram of the two-phase release of insulin in response to a constant

glucose infusion.

The first phase is missing in type 2 (non-insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus, and both are missing in type 1 (insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus. The first phase is also produced by amino acids, sulfonylureas, glucagon and gastrointestinal tract hormones.

(Data from Pfeifer et al. 1981 Am J Med 70: 579–588.)

Table 30.1 The effect of hormones on blood glucose

Hormone	Main actions	Main stimuli for secretion	Main effect
Main regulatory hormone			
Insulin	↑ Glucose uptake ↑ Glycogen synthesis ↓ Glycogenolysis ↓ Gluconeogenesis	Acute rise in blood glucose Incretins (GIP and GLP-1)	↓ Blood glucose
Main counter-regulatory hormones			
Glucagon	↑ Glycogenolysis ↑ Glyconeogenesis	Hypoglycaemia (i.e. blood glucose <3 mmol/l), (e.g. with exercise, stress, high protein meals), etc.	↑ Blood glucose
Adrenaline (epinephrine)	↑ Glycogenolysis		
Glucocorticoids	↓ Glucose uptake ↑ Gluconeogenesis ↓ Glucose uptake and utilisation		
Growth hormone	↓ Glucose uptake		

Pancreatic Islet Hormones

The islets of Langerhans, the endocrine part of the pancreas, contain four main types of peptide-secreting cells: B (or β) cells secrete *insulin*, A cells secrete *glucagon*, D cells secrete *somatostatin* and PP cells secrete *pancreatic polypeptide* (the function of which is unknown). The core of each islet contains mainly the predominant B cells surrounded by a mantle of A cells interspersed with D cells or PP cells (see Fig. 30.1). In addition to insulin, B cells secrete a peptide known as *islet amyloid polypeptide* or *amylin*, which delays gastric emptying and opposes insulin by stimulating glycogen breakdown in striated muscle, and C-peptide

(see below). Glucagon opposes insulin, increasing blood glucose and stimulating protein breakdown in muscle. Somatostatin inhibits secretion of insulin and of glucagon. It is widely distributed outside the pancreas and is also released from the hypothalamus, inhibiting the release of growth hormone from the pituitary gland (Ch. 32).

Insulin

Insulin was the first protein for which the amino acid sequence was determined (by Sanger's group in Cambridge in 1955). It consists of two peptide chains (of 21 and 30 amino acid residues) linked by disulfide bonds.

Synthesis and Secretion

Like other peptide hormones (see Ch. 19), insulin is synthesised as a precursor (preproinsulin) in the rough endoplasmic reticulum. Preproinsulin is transported to the Golgi apparatus, where it undergoes proteolytic cleavage to proinsulin and then to insulin plus a fragment of uncertain function called C-peptide.[1] Insulin and C-peptide are stored in granules in B cells, and are normally co-secreted by exocytosis in equimolar amounts together with smaller and variable amounts of proinsulin.

[1]Not to be confused with C-reactive peptide, which is an acute-phase reactant used clinically as a marker of inflammation (Ch. 6).

The main factor controlling the synthesis and secretion of insulin is the blood glucose concentration (Fig. 30.1). B cells respond both to the absolute glucose concentration and to the rate of change of blood glucose. Other physiological stimuli to insulin release include amino acids (particularly arginine and leucine), fatty acids, the parasympathetic nervous system and *incretins* (see below). The main

incretins are *GLP-1* and *GIP*. Pharmacologically, sulfonylurea drugs (see below) act by releasing insulin.

There is a steady basal release of insulin and also a response to an increase in blood glucose. This response has two phases: an initial rapid phase reflecting release of stored hormone, and a slower, delayed phase reflecting continued release of stored hormone and new synthesis (Fig. 30.2). The response is abnormal in diabetes mellitus, as discussed later.

ATP-sensitive potassium channels (K_{ATP}; Ch. 4) determine the resting membrane potential in B cells. Glucose enters B cells via a membrane transporter called Glut-2, and its subsequent metabolism via glucokinase (the rate-limiting enzyme that acts as the 'glucose sensor' linking insulin secretion to extracellular glucose) and glycolysis increases intracellular ATP. This blocks K_{ATP} channels, causing membrane depolarisation and opening of voltage-dependent calcium channels, leading to Ca^{2+} influx. The resulting increase in cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} triggers insulin secretion, but only in the presence of amplifying messengers including diacylglycerol, non-esterified arachidonic acid (which facilitates further Ca^{2+} entry), and 12-lipoxygenase products of arachidonic acid (mainly *12-S-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid* or 12-*S*-HETE; see Ch. 17). Phospholipases are commonly activated by Ca^{2+}, but free arachidonic acid is liberated in B cells by an ATP-sensitive Ca^{2+}-insensitive (ASCI) phospholipase A_2. Consequently, in B cells, Ca^{2+} entry and arachidonic acid production are both driven by ATP, linking cellular energy status to insulin secretion.

Insulin release is inhibited by the sympathetic nervous system (Fig. 30.1). Adrenaline (epinephrine) increases blood glucose by inhibiting insulin release (via α_2 adrenoceptors) and by promoting glycogenolysis via β_2-adrenoceptors in striated muscle and liver. Several peptides, including somatostatin, galanin (an endogenous K_{ATP} activator) and

amylin, also inhibit insulin release.

About one-fifth of the insulin stored in the pancreas of the human adult is secreted daily. Circulating insulin is measured by immunoassay, but this may give an overestimate because many insulin antibodies cross-react with proinsulin and its less active degradation products. The plasma insulin concentration after an overnight fast is 20–50 pmol/l. Plasma insulin concentration is reduced in patients with type 1 (insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus (see below), and markedly increased in patients with *insulinomas* (uncommon functioning tumours of B cells), as is C-peptide, with which it is co-released.[2] It is also raised in obesity and other normoglycaemic insulin-resistant states.

[2]Insulin for injection does not contain C-peptide, which therefore provides a means of distinguishing endogenous from exogenous insulin. This is used to differentiate insulinoma (an insulin-secreting tumour causing high circulating insulin with high C-peptide) from surreptitious injection of insulin (high insulin, normal or low C-peptide). Deliberate induction of hypoglycaemia by self-injection with insulin is a well-recognised, if unusual, manifestation of psychiatric disorder, especially in health professionals—it has also been used in murder.

Actions

Insulin is the main hormone controlling intermediary metabolism, having actions on liver, fat and muscle (Table 30.2). It is an *anabolic hormone*: its overall effect is to conserve fuel by facilitating the uptake and storage of glucose, amino acids and fats after a meal. Acutely, it reduces blood glucose. Consequently, a fall in plasma insulin increases blood glucose. The biochemical pathways through which insulin exerts its effects are summarised in Figure 30.3, and molecular aspects of its mechanism are discussed below.

Table 30.2 Effects of insulin on carbohydrate, fat and protein metabolism

Type of metabolism	Liver cells	Fat cells	Muscle
Carbohydrate metabolism	↓ Gluconeogenesis ↓ Glycogenolysis ↑ Glycolysis ↑ Glycogenesis	↑ Glucose uptake ↑ Glycerol synthesis	↑ Glucose uptake ↑ Glycolysis ↑ Glycogenesis
Fat metabolism	↑ Lipogenesis ↓ Lipolysis	↑ Synthesis of triglycerides ↑ Fatty acid synthesis ↓ Lipolysis	–
Protein metabolism	↓ Protein breakdown	–	↑ Amino acid uptake ↑ Protein synthesis

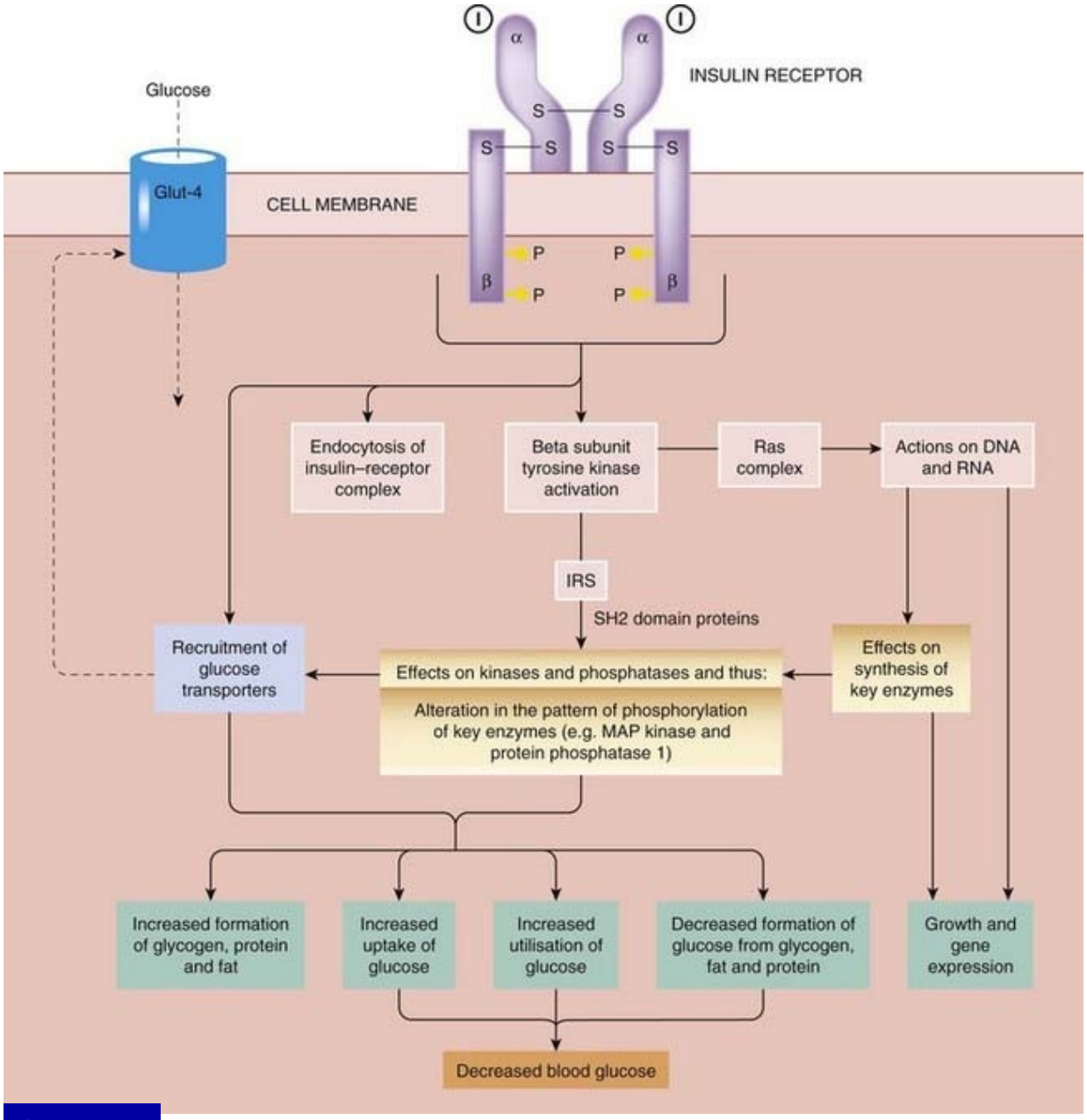


Fig. 30.3 Insulin signalling pathways.

I, insulin; Glut-4, an insulin-sensitive glucose transporter present in muscle and fat cells; IRS, insulin receptor substrate (several forms: 1–4).

Insulin influences glucose metabolism in most tissues, especially the liver, where it inhibits glycogenolysis (glycogen breakdown) and gluconeogenesis (synthesis of glucose from non-carbohydrate sources) while stimulating glycogen synthesis. It also increases glucose utilisation

(glycolysis), but the overall effect is to increase hepatic glycogen stores.

In muscle, unlike liver, uptake of glucose is slow and is the rate-limiting step in carbohydrate metabolism. The main effects of insulin are to increase facilitated transport of glucose via a transporter called Glut-4, and to stimulate glycogen synthesis and glycolysis.

Insulin increases glucose uptake by Glut-4 in adipose tissue as well as in muscle, enhancing glucose metabolism. One of the main end products of glucose metabolism in adipose tissue is glycerol, which is esterified with fatty acids to form triglycerides, thereby affecting fat metabolism (see below and Table 30.2).

Insulin increases synthesis of fatty acid and triglyceride in adipose tissue and in liver. It inhibits lipolysis, partly via dephosphorylation—and hence inactivation—of lipases (Table 30.2). It also inhibits the lipolytic actions of adrenaline, growth hormone and glucagon by opposing their actions on adenylyl cyclase.

Insulin stimulates uptake of amino acids into muscle and increases protein synthesis. It also decreases protein catabolism and inhibits oxidation of amino acids in the liver.

Other metabolic effects of insulin include transport into cells of K^+, Ca^{2+}, nucleosides and inorganic phosphate.[3]

[3]The action on K^+ is exploited in the emergency treatment of hyperkalaemia by intravenous glucose with insulin (see Ch. 28).

Long-term effects of insulin

In addition to its rapid effects on metabolism, exerted via altered activity of enzymes and transport proteins, insulin has long-term actions via altered enzyme synthesis. It is an important anabolic hormone during fetal development. It stimulates cell proliferation and is implicated in

somatic and visceral growth and development.

Mitogenic actions of insulin are of great concern in the development of insulin analogues, because these are intended for long-term use; **insulin glargine** (one widely used analogue; see below) is 6–8-fold more mitogenic than human insulin, and cultured breast cancer cells proliferate in response to near-therapeutic concentrations of this analogue in vitro, but it is not known if there is any clinically significant parallel in vivo. Mammary tumours developed in rats given one long-acting insulin analogue.

Mechanism of Action

Insulin binds to a specific receptor on the surface of its target cells. The receptor is a large transmembrane glycoprotein complex belonging to the tyrosine kinase-linked type 3 receptor superfamily (Ch. 3) and consisting of two α and two β subunits (Fig. 30.3). Occupied receptors aggregate into clusters, which are subsequently internalised in vesicles, resulting in downregulation. Internalised insulin is degraded in lysosomes, but the receptors are recycled to the plasma membrane.

▼ The signal transduction mechanisms that link receptor binding to the biological effects of insulin are complex. Receptor autophosphorylation —the first step in signal transduction—is a consequence of dimerisation, allowing each receptor to phosphorylate the other, as explained in Chapter 3.

Insulin receptor substrate (IRS) proteins undergo rapid tyrosine phosphorylation specifically in response to insulin and insulin-like growth factor-1 but not to other growth factors. The best-characterised substrate is IRS-1, which contains 22 tyrosine residues that are potential phosphorylation sites. It interacts with proteins that contain a so-called SH2 domain (see Ch. 3, Fig. 3.15), thereby passing on the insulin signal.

Knockout mice lacking IRS-1 are hyporesponsive to insulin (insulin resistant) but do not become diabetic, because of robust B-cell compensation with increased insulin secretion. By contrast, mice lacking IRS-2 fail to compensate and develop overt diabetes, implicating the IRS-2 gene as a candidate for human type 2 diabetes (IRS proteins are reviewed by Lee & White, 2004). Activation of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase by interaction of its SH2 domain with phosphorylated IRS has several important effects, including recruitment of insulin-sensitive glucose transporters (Glut-4) from the Golgi apparatus to the plasma membrane in muscle and fat cells.

The longer-term actions of insulin entail effects on DNA and RNA, mediated partly at least by the Ras signalling complex. Ras is a protein that regulates cell growth and cycles between an active GTP-bound form and an inactive GDP-bound form (see Chs 3 and 55). Insulin shifts the equilibrium in favour of the active form, and initiates a phosphorylation cascade that results in activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAP-kinase), which in turn activates several nuclear transcription factors, leading to the expression of genes that are involved both with cell growth and with intermediary metabolism. Regulation of the rate of mRNA transcription by insulin provides an important means of modulating enzyme activity.

Insulin for treatment of diabetes mellitus is considered below.

Glucagon

Synthesis and Secretion

Glucagon is a single-chain polypeptide of 21 amino acid residues synthesised mainly in the A cell of the islets, but also in the upper gastrointestinal tract. It has considerable structural homology with other gastrointestinal tract hormones, including secretin, vasoactive intestinal

peptide and GIP (see Ch. 29).

One of the main physiological stimuli to glucagon secretion is the concentration of amino acids, in particular L-arginine, in plasma. Therefore an increase in secretion follows ingestion of a high-protein meal, but compared with insulin there is relatively little change in plasma glucagon concentrations throughout the day. Glucagon secretion is stimulated by low and inhibited by high concentrations of glucose and fatty acids in the plasma. Sympathetic nerve activity and circulating adrenaline stimulate glucagon release via β-adrenoceptors. Parasympathetic nerve activity also increases secretion, whereas somatostatin, released from D cells adjacent to the glucagon-secreting A cells in the periphery of the islets, inhibits glucagon release.

Endocrine pancreas and blood glucose

• Islets of Langerhans secrete insulin from B (or β) cells, glucagon from A cells and somatostatin from D cells.

• Many factors stimulate insulin secretion, but the main one is blood glucose. Incretins, especially GIP and GLP-1 secreted, respectively, by K and L cells in the gut are also important.

• Insulin has essential metabolic actions as a fuel storage hormone and also affects cell growth and differentiation. It decreases blood glucose by:

– increasing glucose uptake into muscle and fat via Glut-4

– increasing glycogen synthesis

– decreasing gluconeogenesis

– decreasing glycogen breakdown.

• Glucagon is a fuel-mobilising hormone, stimulating gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis, also lipolysis and proteolysis. It increases blood sugar and also increases the force of contraction of the heart.

• Diabetes mellitus is a chronic metabolic disorder in which there is hyperglycaemia. There are two main types:

– type 1 (insulin-dependent) diabetes, with an absolute deficiency of insulin

– type 2 (non-insulin-dependent) diabetes, with a relative deficiency of insulin associated with reduced sensitivity to its action (insulin resistance).

Actions

Glucagon increases blood glucose and causes breakdown of fat and protein. It acts on specific G-protein-coupled receptors to stimulate adenylyl cyclase, and consequently its actions are somewhat similar to β-adrenoceptor-mediated actions of adrenaline. Unlike adrenaline, however, its metabolic effects are more pronounced than its cardiovascular actions. Glucagon is proportionately more active on liver, while the metabolic actions of adrenaline are more pronounced on muscle and fat. Glucagon stimulates glycogen breakdown and gluconeogenesis, and inhibits glycogen synthesis and glucose oxidation. Its metabolic actions on target tissues are thus the opposite of those of insulin. Glucagon increases the rate and force of contraction of the heart, although less markedly than adrenaline.

Clinical uses of glucagon are summarised in the clinical box.

Clinical uses of glucagon 

• **Glucagon** can be given intramuscularly or subcutaneously as well as intravenously.

• Treatment of *hypoglycaemia* in unconscious patients (who cannot drink); unlike intravenous glucose, it can be administered by non-medical personnel (e.g. spouses or ambulance crew). It is useful if obtaining intravenous access is difficult.

• Treatment of *acute cardiac failure* precipitated by β-adrenoceptor antagonists.

Somatostatin

Somatostatin is secreted by the D cells of the islets. It is also generated in the hypothalamus, where it acts to inhibit the release of growth hormone (see Ch. 32). In the islet, it inhibits release of insulin and of glucagon. **Octreotide** is a long-acting analogue of somatostatin. It inhibits release of a number of hormones, and is used clinically to relieve symptoms from several uncommon gastroenteropancreatic endocrine tumours, and for treatment of acromegaly[4] (the endocrine disorder caused by a functioning tumour of cells that secrete growth hormone from the anterior pituitary; see Ch. 32).

[4]Octreotide is used either short term before surgery on the pituitary tumour, or while waiting for radiotherapy of the tumour to take effect, or if other treatments have been ineffective.

Amylin (Islet Amyloid Polypeptide)

▼ The term *amyloid* refers to amorphous protein deposits in different tissues that occur in a variety of diseases, including several neurodegenerative conditions (see Ch. 39). Amyloid deposits occur in the pancreas of patients with diabetes mellitus, although it is not known if this is functionally important. The major component of pancreatic amyloid is a 37-amino acid residue peptide known as islet amyloid polypeptide or amylin. This is stored with insulin in secretory granules in B cells and is co-secreted with insulin. Amylin delays gastric emptying. Supraphysiological concentrations stimulate the breakdown of glycogen to lactate in striated muscle. Amylin also inhibits insulin secretion (Fig. 30.1). It is structurally related to calcitonin (see Ch. 35) and has weak calcitonin-like actions on calcium metabolism and osteoclast activity. It is also about 50% identical with calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP; see Ch. 19), and large intravenous doses cause

vasodilatation, presumably by an action on CGRP receptors. Whether amylin has a role in the physiological control of glucose metabolism is controversial, but there is interest in the therapeutic potential of amylin agonists (such as **pramlintide**, an analogue with three proline substitutions that reduce its tendency to aggregate into insoluble fibrils)—see Schmitz et al. (2004) for a review.

Incretins

La Barre suggested in the 1930s that crude secretin contained two active principles: 'excretin', which stimulates the exocrine pancreas and 'incretin', which stimulates insulin release. He proposed that incretin presented possibilities for the treatment of diabetes. 'Excretin' did not catch on (perhaps not helped by an unfortunate association with other bodily functions—at least to an Anglo-Saxon ear), but 'incretin' has gone from strength to strength, and some 80 years later several incretin-based drugs are now licensed for clinical use (see below). Incretin action proved to be due to peptide hormones released from the gut, mainly *glucagon-like insulinotropic peptide* (GIP) and *glucagon-like peptide-1* (GLP-1). These are both members of the glucagon peptide superfamily (Ch. 19). GIP is a 42-amino acid peptide stored in and secreted by enteroendocrine K cells in the duodenum and proximal jejunum. GLP-1 is secreted by L cells which are more widely distributed in the gut, including in the ileum and colon as well as more proximally. Two forms of GLP-1 are secreted after a meal: GLP-1(7-37) and GLP-1(7-36) amide; these are similarly potent. Most of the circulating activity is due to GLP-1(7-36) amide. Release of GIP and GLP-1 by ingested food provides an early stimulus to insulin secretion before absorbed glucose or other products of digestion reach the islet cells in the portal blood (Fig. 30.1). As well as stimulating insulin secretion, both these hormones inhibit pancreatic glucagon secretion and slow the rate of absorption of digested

food by reducing gastric emptying. They are also implicated in control of food intake via appetite and satiety (see Ch. 31). The actions of GIP and GLP-1 are terminated rapidly by dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4). This enzyme is a membrane glycoprotein with rather wide substrate specificity—it has been implicated in suppression of malignancy (e.g. Wesley et al., 2005).

Diabetes Mellitus

Diabetes mellitus is a chronic metabolic disorder characterised by a high blood glucose concentration—hyperglycaemia (fasting plasma glucose > 7.0 mmol/l, or plasma glucose > 11.1 mmol/l, 2 h after a meal)—caused by insulin deficiency, often combined with insulin resistance. Hyperglycaemia occurs because of uncontrolled hepatic glucose output and reduced uptake of glucose by skeletal muscle with reduced glycogen synthesis. When the renal threshold for glucose reabsorption is exceeded, glucose spills over into the urine (glycosuria) and causes an osmotic diuresis (polyuria) which, in turn, results in dehydration, thirst and increased drinking (polydipsia). Insulin deficiency causes wasting through increased breakdown and reduced synthesis of proteins. Diabetic ketoacidosis is an acute emergency. It develops in the absence of insulin because of accelerated breakdown of fat to acetyl-CoA, which, in the absence of aerobic carbohydrate metabolism, is converted to acetoacetate and β-hydroxybutyrate (which cause acidosis) and acetone (a ketone).

Various complications develop as a consequence of the metabolic derangements in diabetes, often over many years. Many of these are the result of disease of blood vessels, either large (macrovascular disease) or small (microangiopathy). Dysfunction of vascular endothelium (see Ch. 22) is an early and critical event in the development of vascular

complications. Oxygen-derived free radicals, protein kinase C and non-enzymic products of glucose and albumin called *advanced glycation end products* (AGE) have been implicated. Macrovascular disease consists of accelerated atheroma (Ch. 23) and its thrombotic complications (Ch. 24), which are commoner and more severe in diabetic patients. Microangiopathy is a distinctive feature of diabetes mellitus and particularly affects the retina, kidney and peripheral nerves. Diabetes mellitus is the commonest cause of chronic renal failure, which itself represents a huge and rapidly increasing problem, the costs of which to society as well as to individual patients are staggering. Coexistent hypertension promotes progressive renal damage, and treatment of hypertension slows the progression of diabetic nephropathy and reduces the risk of myocardial infarction. Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors or angiotensin receptor antagonists (Ch. 22) are more effective in preventing diabetic nephropathy than other antihypertensive drugs, perhaps because they prevent fibroproliferative actions of angiotensin II and aldosterone.

Diabetic neuropathy[5] is associated with accumulation of osmotically active metabolites of glucose, produced by the action of aldose reductase, but *aldose reductase inhibitors* have been disappointing as therapeutic drugs (see Chung & Chung, 2005, for a review).

[5]Neuropathy ('disease of the nerves') causes dysfunction of peripheral nerve fibres, which can be motor, sensory or autonomic. Diabetic neuropathy often causes numbness in a 'stocking' distribution caused by damage to sensory fibres, and postural hypotension and erectile dysfunction due to autonomic neuropathy.

There are two main types of diabetes mellitus:

1 **Type 1 diabetes** (previously known as insulin-dependent diabetes

mellitus—IDDM—or juvenile-onset diabetes).

2 **Type 2 diabetes** (previously known as non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus—NIDDM—or maturity-onset diabetes).

In type 1 diabetes, there is an absolute deficiency of insulin resulting from autoimmune destruction of pancreatic B cells. Without insulin treatment, such patients will ultimately die with diabetic ketoacidosis.

▼ Type 1 diabetic patients are usually young (children or adolescents) and not obese when they first develop symptoms. There is an inherited predisposition, with a 10-fold increased incidence in first-degree relatives of an index case, and strong associations with particular histocompatibility antigens (HLA types). Studies of identical twins have shown that genetically predisposed individuals must additionally be exposed to an environmental factor such as viral infection (e.g. with coxsackievirus or echovirus). Viral infection may damage pancreatic B cells and expose antigens that initiate a self-perpetuating autoimmune process. The patient becomes overtly diabetic only when more than 90% of the B cells have been destroyed. This natural history provides a tantalising prospect of intervening in the prediabetic stage, and a variety of strategies have been mooted, including immunosuppression, early insulin therapy, antioxidants, nicotinamide and many others; so far these have disappointed, but this remains a very active field.

Type 2 diabetes is accompanied both by insulin resistance (which precedes overt disease) and by impaired insulin secretion, each of which are important in its pathogenesis. Such patients are often obese and usually present in adult life, the incidence rising progressively with age as B-cell function declines. Treatment is initially dietary, although oral hypoglycaemic drugs usually become necessary, and about one-third of patients ultimately require insulin. Prospective studies have

demonstrated a relentless deterioration in diabetic control[6] over the years.

[6]Diabetic control is not easily estimated by determination of blood glucose, because this is so variable. Instead, glycated haemoglobin (haemoglobin A_{1C}) is measured. This provides an integrated measure of control over the lifespan of the red cell: approximately 120 days.

Insulin secretion in the two main forms of diabetes is shown schematically in Figure 30.2, contrasted with the normal response.

There are many other less common forms of diabetes mellitus in addition to the two main ones described above, and hyperglycaemia can also be a clinically important adverse effect of several drugs, including glucocorticoids (Ch. 32), high doses of thiazide diuretics (Ch. 28) and several of the protease inhibitors used to treat HIV infection (Ch. 51).

Treatment of Diabetes Mellitus

Insulin is essential for the treatment of type 1 diabetes, and a valuable component of the treatment of many patients with type 2 disease.

▼ For many years, it was assumed, as an act of faith, that normalising plasma glucose would prevent diabetic complications. The Diabetes Control and Complications Trial (American Diabetes Association, 1993) showed that this faith was well placed: type 1 diabetic patients were randomly allocated to intensive or conventional management. Mean fasting blood glucose concentration was 2.8 mmol/l lower in the intensively treated group, who had a substantial reduction in the occurrence and progression of retinopathy, nephropathy and neuropathy over a period of 4–9 years. These benefits outweighed a three-fold increase in severe hypoglycaemic attacks and modest excess weight gain.

The UK Prospective Diabetes Study showed that *lowering blood pressure*

markedly improves outcome in type 2 diabetes. Normalisation of blood glucose was not achieved even in intensively treated patients. Better metabolic control did improve outcome, but (in contrast to lowering blood pressure) the magnitude of the benefit was disappointing and statistically significant only for microvascular complications. In long-term follow-up, patients from this study who had been allocated to intensive treatment continued to have better outcomes than patients treated with diet alone (despite diabetic control becoming similar in the two groups after the blinded treatment period had finished), suggesting that early diabetic control (within the first 12 years from diagnosis) is important (Holman et al., 2008). By contrast, studies of intensive control later in the course of the disease have been disappointing with harm from hypoglycaemia outweighing any benefit of intensive treatment.

Realistic goals in type 2 diabetic patients are usually less ambitious than in younger type 1 patients. Diet is the cornerstone (albeit one with a tendency to crumble), combined with increased exercise. Oral agents are used to control symptoms from hyperglycaemia, as well as to limit microvascular complications, and are introduced early. Dietary measures and statins to prevent atheromatous disease (Ch. 24) are crucial. Details of dietary management and treatment for specific diabetic complications are beyond the scope of this book. Newer drugs (glitazones and drugs that mimic or potentiate incretins) have been shown to reduce glycated haemoglobin (typically by 0.5–1 percentage points) but their effects (if any) on clinical outcomes such as diabetic complications are unproven.

Insulin Treatment

The effects of insulin and its mechanism of action are described above. Here we describe pharmacokinetic aspects and adverse effects, both of which are central to its therapeutic use. Insulin for clinical use was once

either porcine or bovine but is now almost entirely human (made by recombinant DNA technology). Animal insulins are liable to elicit an immune response, a problem that is avoided by the use of recombinant human insulin. Although recombinant insulin is more consistent in quality than insulins extracted from pancreases of freshly slaughtered animals, doses are still quantified in terms of units of activity, with which doctors and patients are familiar, rather than of mass.

Pharmacokinetic aspects and insulin preparations

Insulin is destroyed in the gastrointestinal tract, and must be given parenterally—usually subcutaneously, but intravenously or occasionally intramuscularly in emergencies. Intraperitoneal insulin is used in diabetic patients with end-stage renal failure treated by ambulatory peritoneal dialysis. Pulmonary absorption of insulin occurs, but an aerosol formulation was withdrawn from therapeutic use. Other potential approaches include incorporation of insulin into biodegradable polymer microspheres as a slow-release formulation, and its encapsulation with a lectin in a glucose-permeable membrane.[7] Once absorbed, insulin has an elimination half-life of approximately 10 min. It is inactivated enzymically in the liver and kidney, and 10% is excreted in the urine. Renal impairment reduces insulin requirement.

[7]This could, in theory, provide variable release of insulin controlled by the prevailing glucose concentration, because glucose and glycated insulin compete for binding sites on the lectin.

One of the main problems in using insulin is to avoid wide fluctuations in plasma concentration and thus in blood glucose. Different formulations vary in the timing of their peak effect and duration of action. *Soluble insulin* produces a rapid and short-lived effect. Longer-acting preparations are made by precipitating insulin with protamine or

zinc, thus forming finely divided amorphous solid or relatively insoluble crystals, which are injected as a suspension from which insulin is slowly absorbed. These preparations include *isophane insulin* and amorphous or crystalline *insulin zinc suspensions*. Mixtures of different forms in fixed proportions are available. **Insulin lispro** is an insulin analogue in which a lysine and a proline residue are 'switched'. It acts more rapidly but for a shorter time than natural insulin, enabling patients to inject themselves immediately before the start of a meal. **Insulin glargine** is another modified insulin analogue, designed with the opposite intention, namely to provide a constant basal insulin supply and mimic physiological postabsorptive basal insulin secretion. Insulin glargine, which is a clear solution, forms a microprecipitate at the physiological pH of subcutaneous tissue, and absorption from the subcutaneous site of injection is prolonged. Used in conjunction with short-acting insulin, it lowers postabsorptive plasma glucose.

Various dosage regimens are used. Some type 1 patients inject a combination of short-and intermediate-acting insulins twice daily, before breakfast and before the evening meal. Improved control of blood glucose can be achieved with multiple daily injections of short-acting insulins with meals, and a longer-acting insulin at night. Insulin pumps are used in hospital and sometimes, by specialists, in outpatients. The most sophisticated forms of pump regulate the dose by means of a sensor that continuously measures blood glucose, but these are not routinely available.

Unwanted effects

The main undesirable effect of insulin is hypoglycaemia. This is common and, if very severe, can cause brain damage. In one large clinical trial, intensive insulin therapy resulted in a three-fold increase in severe

hypoglycaemia compared with usual care. The treatment of hypoglycaemia is to take a sweet drink or snack or, if the patient is unconscious, to give intravenous glucose or intramuscular glucagon (see above). Rebound hyperglycaemia ('Somogyi effect') can follow insulin-induced hypoglycaemia, because of the release of counter-regulatory hormones (see above). This can cause hyperglycaemia before breakfast following an unrecognised hypoglycaemic attack during sleep in the early hours of the morning. It is essential to appreciate this possibility to avoid the mistake of increasing (rather than reducing) the evening dose of insulin in this situation.

Allergy to human insulin is unusual but can occur. It may take the form of local or systemic reactions. Insulin resistance as a consequence of antibody formation is rare. Theoretical concerns regarding mitogenic effects of insulin analogues are mentioned above.

Clinical uses of insulin and other hypoglycaemic drugs for injection 

• Patients with *type 1 diabetes* require long-term **insulin**:

– an intermediate-acting preparation (e.g. **isophane insulin**) or a long-acting analogue (e.g. **glargine**) is often combined with soluble insulin or a short-acting analogue (e.g. **lispro**) taken before meals.

• **Soluble insulin** is used (intravenously) in emergency treatment of hyperglycaemic emergencies (e.g. *diabetic ketoacidosis*).

• Approximately one-third of patients with *type 2 diabetes* ultimately benefit from insulin.

• Short-term treatment of patients with type 2 diabetes or impaired glucose tolerance during intercurrent events (e.g. *operations*, *infections*, *myocardial infarction*).

• During pregnancy, for *gestational diabetes* not controlled by diet alone.

• Emergency treatment of *hyperkalaemia*: insulin is given with glucose to lower extracellular K^+ via redistribution into cells.

• **Exenatide** for type 2 diabetes in addition to oral agents to improve control and lose weight.

Other Hypoglycaemic Agents

Biguanides

Metformin is the only drug of the biguanide class (originally found in French lilac, *Galega officinalis*) that is used clinically.

Actions and mechanism

Biguanides have several biochemical actions. They:

• reduce hepatic glucose production (gluconeogenesis), which is markedly increased in type 2 diabetes

• increase glucose uptake and utilisation in skeletal muscle (i.e. they reduce insulin resistance)

• reduce carbohydrate absorption

• increase fatty acid oxidation

• reduce circulating low-density and very-low-density lipoprotein (LDL and VLDL, respectively, see Ch. 23).

Reduced hepatic gluconeogenesis is especially important. The mechanism involves activation in hepatocytes of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), an important enzyme in metabolic control (Towler & Hardie, 2007). Activation of AMPK increases expression of a nuclear receptor that inhibits expression of genes that are important for gluconeogenesis in the liver (see Kim et al., 2008 for details).

Metformin has a half-life of about 3 h and is excreted unchanged in the

urine.

Unwanted effects

Metformin, while preventing hyperglycaemia, does *not* cause hypoglycaemia, and the commonest unwanted effects are dose-related gastrointestinal disturbances (e.g. anorexia, diarrhoea, nausea), which are usually but not always transient. Lactic acidosis is a rare but potentially fatal toxic effect, and metformin should not be given routinely to patients with renal or hepatic disease, hypoxic pulmonary disease or shock. Such patients are predisposed to lactic acidosis because of reduced drug elimination or reduced tissue oxygenation. Compensated heart failure is not a contraindication, and indeed metformin is associated with improved outcome in patients with diabetes and heart failure (Eurich et al., 2007). It should be avoided in other situations that predispose to lactic acidosis including some forms of mitochondrial myopathy that are associated with diabetes. Long-term use may interfere with absorption of vitamin B_{12}.

Clinical use

Metformin is used to treat patients with type 2 diabetes. It does not stimulate appetite (rather the reverse; see above!) and is consequently the drug of first choice in the majority of type 2 patients who are obese, provided they have unimpaired renal and hepatic function. It can be combined with sulfonylureas, glitazones or insulin. Potential uses outside diabetes include other syndromes with accompanying insulin resistance including polycystic ovary syndrome, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and some forms of premature puberty, but these indications remain experimental.

Sulfonylureas

The sulfonylureas were developed following the chance observation that a sulfonamide derivative (used to treat typhoid) caused hypoglycaemia. Numerous sulfonylureas are available. The first used therapeutically were **tolbutamide** and **chlorpropamide**. Chlorpropamide has a long duration of action and a substantial fraction is excreted in the urine. Consequently, it can cause severe hypoglycaemia, especially in elderly patients in whom renal function declines inevitably but insidiously (Ch. 28). It causes flushing after alcohol because of a disulfiram-like effect (Ch. 48), and has an action like that of antidiuretic hormone on the distal nephron, giving rise to hyponatraemia and water intoxication. Williams (1994) comments that 'time honoured but idiosyncratic chlorpropamide should now be laid to rest'—a sentiment with which we concur. Tolbutamide, however, remains useful. So-called second-generation sulfonylureas (e.g. **glibenclamide**, **glipizide**; see Table 30.3) are more potent (on a milligram basis), but their maximum hypoglycaemic effect is no greater and control of blood glucose no better than with tolbutamide. These drugs all contain the sulfonylurea moiety and act in the same way, but different substitutions result in differences in pharmacokinetics and hence in duration of action (see Table 30.3).

Table 30.3 Oral hypoglycaemic sulfonylurea drugs

Drug	Relative potency[a]	Duration of action and (half-life) (hours)	Pharmacokinetic aspects[b]	General comments
Tolbutamide	1	6–12 (4)	Some converted in liver to weakly active hydroxytolbutamide; some carboxylated to inactive compound Renal excretion	A safe drug; least likely to cause hypoglycaemia May decrease iodide uptake by thyroid Contraindicated in liver failure
Glibenclamide[c]	150	18–24 (10)	Some is oxidised in the liver to moderately active products and is excreted in urine; 50% is excreted unchanged in the faeces	May cause hypoglycaemia The active metabolite accumulates in renal failure
Glipizide	100	16–24 (7)	Peak plasma levels in 1 h Most is metabolised in the liver to inactive products, which are excreted in urine; 12% is excreted in faeces	May cause hypoglycaemia Has diuretic action Only inactive products accumulate in renal failure

[a]Relative to tolbutamide.
[b]All are highly protein bound (90–95%).
[c]Termed gliburide in USA.

Mechanism of action

The principal action of sulfonylureas is on B cells (Fig. 30.1), stimulating insulin secretion and thus reducing plasma glucose. High-affinity receptors for sulfonylureas are present on the K_{ATP} channels (Ch. 4) in B-cell plasma membranes, and the binding of various sulfonylureas parallels their potency in stimulating insulin release. Block by sulfonylurea drugs of K_{ATP} channel activation causes depolarisation, Ca^{2+} entry and insulin secretion. (Compare this with the physiological control of insulin secretion, see above.)

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Sulfonylureas are well absorbed after oral administration, and most reach peak plasma concentrations within 2–4 h. The duration of action varies (Table 30.3). All bind strongly to plasma albumin and are implicated in interactions with other drugs (e.g. salicylates and sulfonamides) that compete for these binding sites (see below and Ch. 56). Most sulfonylureas (or their active metabolites) are excreted in the urine, so their action is increased in the elderly and in patients with renal disease.

Most sulfonylureas cross the placenta and enter breast milk and their use is contraindicated in pregnancy and in breastfeeding.

Unwanted effects

The sulfonylureas are usually well tolerated. Unwanted effects are specified in Table 30.3. The commonest adverse effect is hypoglycaemia, which can be severe and prolonged. Its incidence is related to the potency and duration of action of the agent, the highest incidence occurring with long-acting chlorpropamide and glibenclamide and the lowest with tolbutamide. Long-acting sulfonylureas are best avoided in the elderly and in patients with even mild renal impairment because of the risk of hypoglycaemia. Sulfonylureas stimulate appetite and often cause weight gain. This is a major concern in obese diabetic patients. About 3% of patients experience gastrointestinal upsets. Allergic skin rashes can occur, and bone marrow toxicity (Ch. 57), although rare, can be severe.

During and for a few days after acute myocardial infarction, insulin must be substituted for sulfonylurea treatment. This is associated with a substantial reduction in short-term mortality, although it remains unclear if this is due to a beneficial effect specific to insulin or to a detrimental effect of sulfonylurea drugs in this setting, or both. Another vexing question is whether prolonged therapy with oral hypoglycaemic drugs has adverse effects on the cardiovascular system. A study in the USA in the 1970s found that after 4–5 years of treatment, there was an increase in cardiovascular deaths in the group treated with oral drugs compared with the groups treated with insulin or placebo. Blockade of K_{ATP} in heart and vascular tissue could theoretically have adverse effects, but evidence for an adverse cardiovascular effect is inconclusive.

Drug interactions

Several drugs augment the hypoglycaemic effect of sulfonylureas. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, coumarins, some uricosuric drugs (e.g. **sulfinpyrazone**), alcohol, monoamine oxidase inhibitors, some antibacterial drugs (including *sulfonamides*, **trimethoprim** and **chloramphenicol**) and some imidazole antifungal drugs have all been reported to produce severe hypoglycaemia when given with a sulfonylurea. The probable basis of most of these interactions is competition for metabolising enzymes, but interference with plasma protein binding or with transport mechanisms facilitating excretion may play some part.

Agents that decrease the action of sulfonylureas on blood glucose include high doses of thiazide diuretics and corticosteroids.

Clinical use

Sulfonylureas are used to treat type 2 diabetes in its early stages, but because they require functional B cells, they are not useful in type 1 or late-stage type 2 diabetes. They can be combined with metformin or with thiazolidinediones.

Other Drugs That Stimulate Insulin Secretion

Several drugs that act, like the sulfonylureas, by blocking the sulfonylurea receptor on K_{ATP} channels in pancreatic B cells but lack the sulfonylurea moiety have recently been developed. These include **repaglinide** and **nateglinide** which, though much less potent than most sulfonylureas, have rapid onset and offset kinetics leading to short duration of action and a low risk of hypoglycaemia.[8] These drugs are administered shortly before a meal to reduce the postprandial rise in blood glucose in type 2 diabetic patients inadequately controlled with diet and exercise. They may cause less weight gain than conventional sulfonylureas. Later in the course of the disease, they can be combined

with metformin or thiazolidinediones. Unlike glibenclamide, these drugs are relatively selective for K_{ATP} channels on B cells versus K_{ATP} channels in vascular smooth muscle.

[8]It is ironic that these aggressively marketed drugs share many of the properties of tolbutamide, the oldest, least expensive and least fashionable of the sulfonylureas. Perhaps diabetologists should turn some of their investigative effort to studying how best to use this Cinderella drug!

Thiazolidinediones (glitazones)

The thiazolidinediones (or *glitazones*) were developed following the chance observation that a **clofibrate** analogue, **ciglitazone**, which was being screened for effects on lipids, unexpectedly lowered blood glucose. Ciglitazone caused liver toxicity, as did **troglitazone**, but there are only rare reports of hepatotoxicity with (**rosiglitazone** and **pioglitazone** which is the only drug of this class in clinical use.)

Effects

The effect of thiazolidinediones on blood glucose is slow in onset, the maximum effect being achieved only after 1–2 months of treatment. Thiazolidinediones:

- reduce hepatic glucose output
- increase glucose uptake into muscle, by enhancing the effectiveness of endogenous insulin.

They reduce the amount of exogenous insulin needed to maintain a given level of blood glucose by approximately 30%. Reduced blood glucose concentration is accompanied by reduced insulin and free fatty acid concentrations. Triglycerides decline, while LDL and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) are unchanged or slightly increased. The proportion of

small dense LDL particles (believed to be the most atherogenic; Ch. 23) is reduced. Weight gain of 1–4 kg is common, usually stabilising in 6–12 months. Some of this is attributable to fluid retention: there is an increase in plasma volume of up to 500 ml, with a concomitant reduction in haemoglobin concentration caused by haemodilution; there is also an increase in extravascular fluid, and increased deposition of subcutaneous (as opposed to visceral) fat.

Mechanism of action

Thiazolidinediones bind to a nuclear receptor called the *peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor*-γ (PPARγ), which is complexed with retinoid X receptor (RXR; see Ch. 3).[9] PPARγ occurs mainly in adipose tissue, but also in muscle and liver. It causes differentiation of adipocytes (this contributes to the unwanted effect of weight gain), increases lipogenesis and enhances uptake of fatty acids and glucose. It also promotes amiloride-sensitive sodium ion reabsorption in renal collecting ducts, explaining the adverse effect of fluid retention (Guan et al., 2005). Endogenous agonists of PPARγ include unsaturated fatty acids and various derivatives of these, including prostaglandin J_2. Thiazolidinediones are exogenous agonists, which cause the PPARγ–RXR complex to bind to DNA, promoting transcription of several genes with products that are important in insulin signalling. These include lipoprotein lipase, fatty acid transporter protein, adipocyte fatty acid-binding protein, Glut-4, phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase, malic enzyme and others. It remains something of a mystery that glucose homeostasis should be so responsive to drugs that bind to receptors found mainly in fat cells; it has been suggested that the explanation may lie in resetting of the glucose–fatty acid (Randle) cycle by the reduction in circulating free fatty acids.

[9]Compare with fibrates (to which thiazolidinediones are structurally related), which bind to PPARα (see Ch. 23).

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Pioglitazone is rapidly and nearly completely absorbed, with time to peak plasma concentration of less than 2 h. It is highly (> 99%) bound to plasma proteins, and is subject to hepatic metabolism and has a short (< 7 h) elimination half-life for the parent drug, but substantially longer (up to 24 h) for the metabolite. Pioglitazone is metabolised mainly by a CYP2C isozyme and CYP3A4 to active metabolites, which are eliminated mainly in bile.

Unwanted effects

The serious hepatotoxicity of ciglitazone and troglitazone was not encountered during clinical trials of pioglitazone, and reports of liver dysfunction since general release have been rare. Regular blood tests of liver function are currently recommended. One (unproven) hypothesis is that the hepatotoxicity of troglitazone is caused by quinone metabolites of its α-tocopherol side chain. The commonest unwanted effects of pioglitazone are weight gain and fluid retention (see above). Fluid retention is a substantial concern, because it can precipitate or worsen heart failure, which contraindicates their use. In addition to increased cardiovascular risk, both observational studies and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials (Loke et al., 2009) indicate an increased risk (approximately a doubling of risk) of fractures with chronic use. Symptoms of uncertain cause, including headache, fatigue and gastrointestinal disturbances, have also been reported. Thiazolidinediones are contraindicated in pregnant or breastfeeding women and in children. It is theoretically possible that these drugs could cause ovulation to resume in women who are anovulatory because of

insulin resistance (e.g. with polycystic ovary syndrome). Another glitazone (rosiglitazone) was withdrawn from clinical use recently because of concerns over excess cardiovascular risks.

Clinical use

Because insulin resistance is one important component of the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes, and has been implicated in the excess cardiovascular mortality that accompanies the common 'metabolic syndrome' (visceral obesity, hypertension, dyslipidaemia, insulin resistance, etc.), there is a good rationale for pioglitazone in type 2 diabetes. There is, however, as yet no evidence that this optimism is justified in terms of improved clinical outcomes (see, for example, Gale, 2001)—cardiovascular clinical end-point trials to rebut this view are still awaited. Pioglitazone is additive with other oral hypoglycaemic drugs in terms of effect on blood glucose, and short-term studies support their use in combination with metformin or with a sulfonylurea in patients whose blood glucose is inadequately controlled on one of these drugs and are unsuited to addition of the other.

α-Glucosidase inhibitors

Acarbose, an inhibitor of intestinal α-glucosidase, is used in type 2 patients whose diabetes is inadequately controlled by diet with or without other agents. It delays carbohydrate absorption, reducing the postprandial increase in blood glucose. The commonest adverse effects are related to its main action and consist of flatulence, loose stools or diarrhoea, and abdominal pain and bloating. Like metformin, it may be particularly helpful in obese type 2 patients, and it can be co-administered with metformin.

Incretin mimetics and related drugs

Exenatide is a synthetic version of *exendin-4*, a peptide found in the saliva of the Gila monster (a lizard, which presumably evolved this as means to disable its prey by rendering them hypoglycaemic).

Exenatide mimics the effects of GLP-1 (see above), but is longer acting. It lowers blood glucose after a meal by increasing insulin secretion, suppressing glucagon secretion and slowing gastric emptying (see above). It reduces food intake (by an effect on satiety) and is associated with modest weight loss. It reduces hepatic fat accumulation.

Exenatide is not absorbed by the gut and is administered subcutaneously. It is much more stable than GLP-1, and is administered twice daily before the first and last meal of the day. A long-acting preparation (for once-weekly administration) is under investigation (Drucker et al., 2008). It can cause hypoglycaemia and a range of gastrointestinal effects. Pancreatitis is a rare but sometimes severe problem.

Exenatide is used in patients with type 2 diabetes in combination with metformin with or without a sulfonylurea when these have been inadequate.

Gliptins

Gliptins (e.g. **sitagliptin**, **vildagliptin**) are synthetic drugs that competitively inhibit dipeptidylpeptidase-4 (DPP-4), thereby lowering blood glucose by potentiating endogenous incretins (GLP-1 and GIP, see above). Sitagliptin does not cause weight loss or weight gain.

Sitagliptin is well absorbed from the gut and is administered once daily by mouth. It is mainly eliminated by renal excretion and is also metabolised by hepatic CYP enzymes. It is well tolerated with an adverse effect profile in clinical trials similar to placebo, and similar occurrence of hypoglycaemia between placebo and sitagliptin. Vildagliptin is not

available in the USA, where the Food and Drug Administration has required further investigation to exclude skin and renal toxicity.

Sitagliptin is used for type 2 diabetes, usually in addition to other oral hypoglycaemic drugs (see clinical box on uses of oral hypoglycaemic drugs).

Clinical uses of oral hypoglycaemic drugs 

• *Type 2 diabetes mellitus*, to reduce symptoms from hyperglycaemia (e.g. thirst, excessive urination). ('Tight' control of blood glucose has only a small effect on vascular complications in this setting.)

• **Metformin** is preferred for obese patients unless contraindicated by factors that predispose to lactic acidosis (renal or liver failure, heart failure, hypoxaemia).

• **Acarbose** (α-glucosidase inhibitor) reduces carbohydrate absorption; it causes flatulence and diarrhoea.

• Drugs that act on the sulfonylurea receptor (e.g. **tolbutamide**, **glibenclamide**) are well tolerated but often promote weight gain.

• Glitazones (e.g. **pioglitazone**) improve control (reduce haemoglobin A_{1C}) but increase weight, cause fluid retention and increase risk of fractures.

• Gliptins (e.g. **sitagliptin**) improve control, are well tolerated and weight neutral, but long-term experience is lacking.

Potential New Antidiabetic Drugs

Several agents are currently being studied, including α_2 adrenoceptor antagonists, inhibitors of fatty acid oxidation and activators of glucokinase. Lipolysis in fat cells is controlled by adrenoceptors of the β_3 subtype (see Ch. 14). The possibility of using selective β_3 agonists,

currently in development, in the treatment of obese patients with type 2 diabetes is being investigated (see Ch. 31). There is interest in inhibitors of protein kinase C, for example **ruboxistaurin**, an inhibitor specific for the β isoform of protein kinase C, because of evidence implicating activation of this pathway in the development of vascular diabetic complications (Aiello, 2005)—a clinical trial is ongoing.

Drugs used in diabetes mellitus

Insulin and other injectable drugs

• Human **insulin** is made by recombinant DNA technology. For routine use, it is given subcutaneously (by intravenous infusion in emergencies).

• Different formulations of insulin differ in their duration of action:

  – fast-and short-acting soluble insulin: peak action after subcutaneous dose 2–4 h and duration 6–8 h; it is the only formulation that can be given intravenously

  – intermediate-acting insulin (e.g. isophane insulin)

  – long-acting forms (e.g. insulin zinc suspension).

• The main unwanted effect is hypoglycaemia.

• Altering the amino acid sequence (‘designer’ insulins, *e.g.* **lispro** and **glargine**) can usefully alter insulin kinetics.

• Insulins are used for all type 1 diabetic patients and approximately one-third of patients with type 2 diabetes.

• **Exenatide** is an incretin mimetic which is injected twice daily in some type 2 diabetic patients inadequately controlled by oral drugs. Unlike insulin it causes weight loss.

Oral hypoglycaemic drugs

• These are used in type 2 diabetes.

• Biguanides (e.g. **metformin**):

– have complex peripheral actions in the presence of residual insulin, increasing glucose uptake in striated muscle and inhibiting hepatic glucose output and intestinal glucose absorption

– cause anorexia and encourage weight loss

– can be combined with sulfonylureas.

• Sulfonylureas and other drugs that stimulate insulin secretion (e.g. **tolbutamide**, **glibenclamide**, **nateglinide**):

– can cause hypoglycaemia (which stimulates appetite and leads to weight gain)

– are effective only if B cells are functional

– block ATP-sensitive potassium channels in B cells

– are well tolerated but promote weight gain.

• Thiazolidinediones (e.g. **pioglitazone**):

– increase insulin sensitivity and lower blood glucose in type 2 diabetes

– can cause weight gain and oedema

– increase osteoporotic fractures

– are peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ (a nuclear receptor) agonists.

• Gliptins (e.g. **sitagliptin**):

– potentiate endogenous incretins by blocking DPP-4

– are added to other orally active drugs to improve control in patients with type 2 diabetes

– are well tolerated and weight neutral.

• α-Glucosidase inhibitor, **acarbose**:

– reduces carbohydrate absorption

– causes flatulence and diarrhoea.

References and Further Reading

References

rucker D.J., Buse J.B., Taylor K., *et al.* Exenatide once weekly versus twice daily for the treatment of type 2 diabetes. A randomised, open-label, non-inferiority study. *Lancet*. 2008;372:1240-1250.

olman R.R., Sanjoy K.P., Bethel M.A., *et al.* 10-Year follow-up of intensive glucose control in type 2 diabetes. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2008;359:1577-1589.

im Y.D., Park K.G., Lee Y.S., *et al.* Metformin inhibits hepatic gluconeogenesis through AMP-activated protein kinase-dependent regulation of the orphan nuclear receptor SHP. *Diabetes*. 2008;57:306-314.

oke Y.K., Singh S., Furberg C.D., *et al.* Long-term use of thiazolidinediones and fractures in type 2 diabetes: a meta-analysis. *CMAJ*. 2009;180:32-39. (*Long-term thiazolidinedione use doubles the risk of fractures among women with type 2 diabetes, without a significant increase in risk of fractures among men with type 2 diabetes*)

owler M.C., Hardie D.G. AMP-activated protein kinase in metabolic control and insulin signaling. *Circ. Res.*. 2007;100:328-341.

/esley U.V., McGroarty M., Homoyouni A. Dipeptidyl peptidase inhibits malignant phenotype of prostate cancer cells by blocking basic fibroblast growth factor signaling pathway. *Cancer Res.*. 2005;65:1325-1334.

Further reading

Physiological and pathophysiological aspects

ee Y.H., White M.F. Insulin receptor substrate proteins and diabetes. *Arch. Pharm. Res.*. 2004;27:361-370. (*Reviews the discovery of IRS proteins and their role linking cell surface receptors to intracellular signalling cascades. 'Understanding the regulation and signaling by IRS1 and IRS2 in cell growth, metabolism and survival will reveal new strategies to prevent or cure diabetes and other metabolic diseases.'*)

/ithers D.J., Gutierrez J.S., Towery H., *et al.* Disruption of IRS-2 causes type 2 diabetes in mice. *Nature*. 1998;391:900-904. (*Dysfunction of IRS-2 may 'contribute to the pathophysiology of human type 2 diabetes'; see also accompanying commentary by Avruch, J., A signal for β-cell failure, pp.*

846–847)

immet P., Alberti K.G.M.M., Shaw J. Global and societal implications of the diabetes epidemic. *Nature*. 2001;414:782-787. (*Changes in human behaviour have resulted in a dramatic increase in type 2 diabetes worldwide*)

Insulins

wens D.R., Zinman B., Bolli G.B. Insulins today and beyond. *Lancet*. 2001;358:739-746. (*Reviews the physiology of glucose homeostasis, genetically engineered 'designer' insulins and developments in insulin delivery and glucose sensing*)

Oral hypoglycaemic drugs

urich D.T., McAlister F.A., Blackburn D.F., *et al.* Benefits and harms of antidiabetic agents in patients with diabetes and heart failure: systematic review. *BMJ*. 2007;335:497-507. (*Metformin was the only agent not associated with harm in patients with diabetes and heart failure*)

ale E.A.M. Lessons from the glitazones: a story of drug development. *Lancet*. 2001;357:1870-1875. (*Fighting stuff: 'Troglitazone was voluntarily withdrawn in Europe, but went on to generate sales of over $2 billion in the USA and caused 90 cases of liver failure before being withdrawn. Rosiglitazone and pioglitazone reached the USA for use alone or in combination with other drugs whereas in Europe the same dossiers were used to apply for a limited licence as second-line agents. How should we use them? How did they achieve blockbuster status without any clear evidence of advantage over existing therapy?'*)

uan Y., Hao C., Cha D.R., *et al.* Thiazolidinediones expand body fluid volume through PPARγ stimulation of ENaC-mediated renal salt absorption. *Nat. Med.*. 2005;11:861-865. (*Mechanism of fluid retention caused by thiazolidinediones and suggestion that amiloride may provide a specific therapy for this. Human studies will no doubt follow … See also News and Views article in the same issue: TZDs and diabetes: testing the waters, by A.F. Semenkovich, pp. 822–824*)

Other drugs for diabetes, and therapeutic aspects

renner B.M., Cooper M.E., de Zeeuw D., et al Effects of losartan on renal and cardiovascular

outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes and nephropathy N. Engl. J. Med. 345:2001:861-869 (*Significant renal benefits from the AT1 antagonist; see also two adjacent articles: Lewis, E.J., et al., pp. 851–860, and Parving, H.-H., et al., pp. 870–878, and an editorial on prevention of renal disease caused by type 2 diabetes by Hostetter, T.H., pp. 910–911*)

hung S.S.M., Chung S.K. Aldose reductase in diabetic microvascular complications. *Curr. Drug Targets*. 2005;6:475-486. (*Reviews pathogenic mechanisms of the polyol pathway, and discusses possible reasons for the unimpressive effects to date of aldose reductase inhibitors; argues that renewed efforts could be warranted*)

chmitz O., Brock B., Rungby G. Amylin agonists: a novel approach in the treatment of diabetes. *Diabetes*. 2004;53(Suppl.):S233-S238. (*Reviews actions of amylin in animal and human models, and the results from clinical trials with the amylin analogue pramlintide*)

31

Obesity

Overview

Obesity is a growing health issue around the world and is reaching epidemic proportions in some nations. The problem is not restricted to the inhabitants of the affluent countries, to the adult population or to any one socioeconomic class. Body fat represents stored energy, and obesity occurs when the homeostatic mechanisms controlling energy balance become disordered or overwhelmed. In this chapter, we explore first the endogenous regulation of appetite and body mass, and then consider the main health implications of obesity and its pathophysiology. We conclude with a discussion of the two drugs currently licensed for the treatment of obesity, and glance at the future of pharmacological treatment of this condition.

Introduction

Survival requires a continuous provision of energy to maintain homeostasis even when the supply of food is intermittent. Evolution has furnished a mechanism for storing any excess energy latent in foodstuffs in adipose tissue as energy-dense triglycerides, such that these can be easily mobilised when food is scarce. This mechanism, controlled by the so-called *thrifty genes*, was an obvious asset to our hunter-gatherer ancestors. However, in many societies a combination of sedentary lifestyle, genetic susceptibility, cultural influences and unrestricted

access to an ample supply of calorie-dense foods is leading to a global epidemic of obesity, or 'globesity' as it sometimes called.

Definition of Obesity

If the 'ideal weight' of an individual is that which maximises life expectancy, 'obesity' may be defined as an illness where the health (and hence life expectancy) is adversely affected by excess body fat.[1] But at what point does an individual become 'obese'? The generally accepted benchmark is the *body mass index* (BMI). The BMI is expressed as W/h^2, where W = body weight (in kg), h = height (in metres). Although it is not a perfect index (e.g. it does not distinguish between fat and lean mass), the BMI is generally well correlated with other measurements of body fat, and it is widely employed in obesity studies. While there are problems in defining a 'healthy' weight for a particular population, the World Health Organization (WHO) classifies people with a BMI of < 18.5 kg/m^2 as 'underweight', and those with a BMI of 18.5–24.9 kg/m^2 as of 'acceptable' or 'normal' weight. A BMI in the range of 25.0–29.9 kg/m^2 signifies 'grade 1 overweight'. If it is between 30.0 and 39.9 kg/m^2, the patient is deemed to be obese or 'grade 2 overweight', while those with a BMI of > 40 kg/m^2 are said to be 'grade 3 overweight' or *morbidly obese*. Childhood obesity is more difficult to assess.

[1]'Persons who are naturally very fat are apt to die earlier than those who are slender' observed Hippocrates.

As the BMI obviously depends on the overall energy balance, another operational definition of obesity would be that it is a multifactorial disorder of energy balance in which calorie intake over the long term exceeds energy output.

The Homeostatic Mechanisms Controlling Energy Balance

A common view, and one that is implicitly encouraged by authors of numerous dieting books as well as the enormously lucrative dieting industry in general, is that obesity is simply the result of bad diet or wilful overeating (*hyperphagia*). In truth, however, the situation is more complex and, on its own, dieting does not usually provide a lasting solution. The failure rate of such diets is high (probably 90%), with most dieters eventually returning to their original starting weight. This suggests the operation of some intrinsic homeostatic system that strives to maintain a particular set weight. This mechanism is normally exceptionally precise, and it has been calculated that it is capable of regulating energy balance to 0.17% per decade (Weigle, 1994). An astonishing feat considering the day-to-day variations in food intake.

When exposed to the same dietary choices some individuals will become obese whereas others will not. Studies of obesity in monozygotic and dizygotic twins have established a strong genetic influence on the susceptibility to the disease, and studies of rare mutations in mice (and more recently in humans) have led to the discovery and elucidation of the neuroendocrine pathways that match food intake with energy expenditure, and to the concept that it is, in fact, disorders of this system that are largely responsible for the onset and maintenance of the disease of obesity.

The Role of Gut and Other Hormones in Body Weight Regulation

At the beginning of the 20th century, it was observed that patients with damage to the hypothalamus tended to gain weight. In the 1940s, it was also shown that discrete lesions in the hypothalamus of rodents caused them to become obese or exhibit unusual feeding behaviour. As early as

1953, Kennedy proposed, on the basis of experiments on rats, that a hormone released from adipose tissue acted on the hypothalamus to regulate body fat and food intake. These seminal findings set the stage for future discoveries in this area.

It also was observed that mice could become obese as a result of mutations in certain genes. At least five of these have now been characterised, including the *ob* (obesity), *tub* (tubby), *fat* and *db* (diabetes) genes. Mice that are homozygous for mutant forms of these genes—*ob/ob* mice and *db/db* mice—eat excessively, have low energy expenditure, become grossly fat and have numerous metabolic and other abnormalities. Weight gain in an *ob/ob* mouse is suppressed if its circulation is linked to that of a normal mouse, implying that the obesity is caused by lack of a blood-borne factor.

An important conceptual breakthrough came in 1994, when Friedman and his colleagues (see Zhang et al., 1994) cloned the *ob* gene and identified its protein product as *leptin*.[2] When recombinant leptin was administered to *ob/ob* mice, it strikingly reduced food intake and body weight. It had a similar effect when injected directly into the lateral or the third ventricle, implying that it acted on the regions of the brain that control food intake and energy balance. Recombinant leptin has similar effects in humans (see Fig. 31.1).

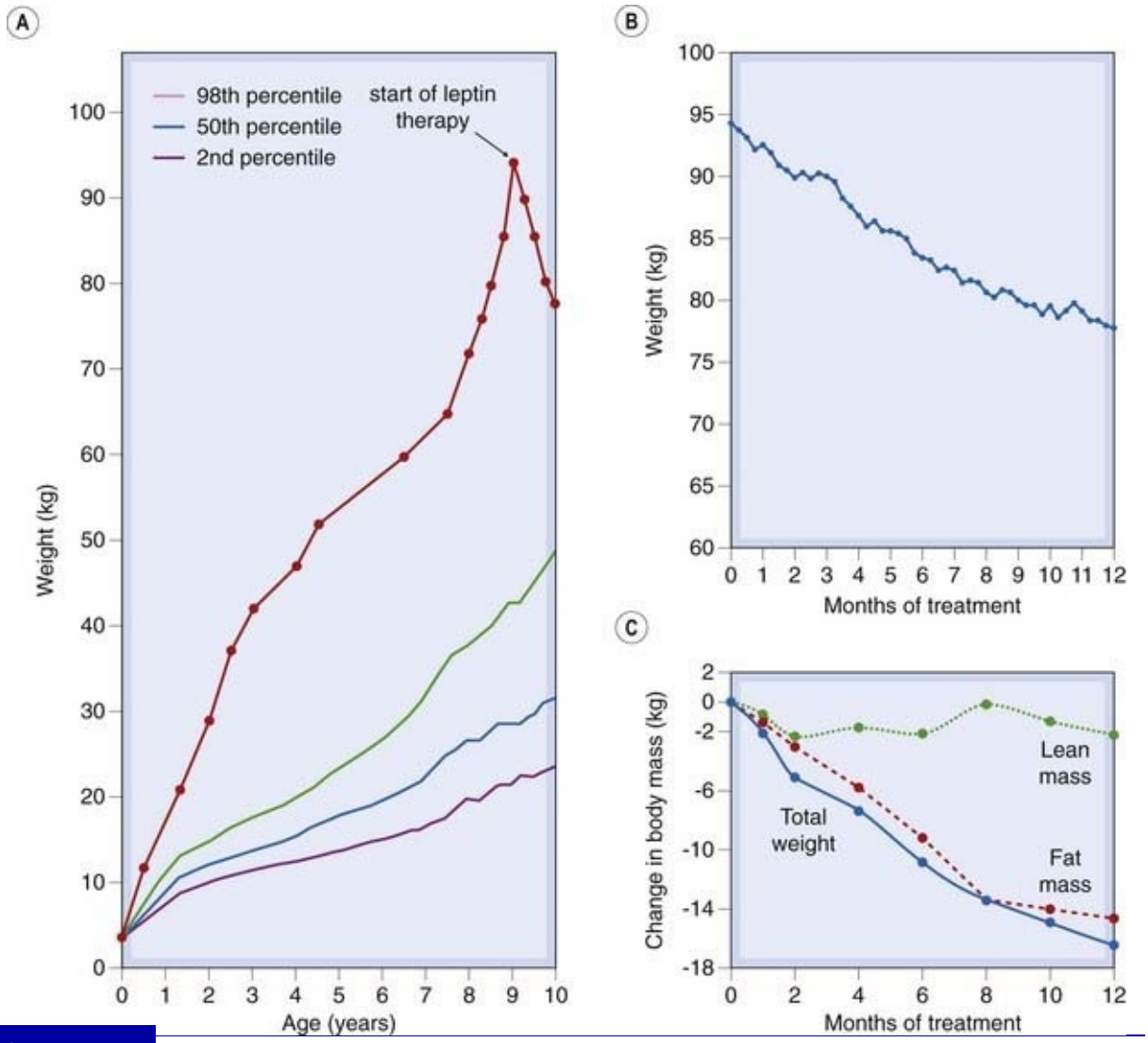


Fig. 31.1 The effect of recombinant leptin on body weight in a 9-year-old severely obese child deficient in endogenous leptin because of a frame shift mutation in the leptin gene.

Although of normal birth weight, the child began gaining weight at 4 months and was constantly demanding food. When treatment was initiated, the child weighed 94.4 kg. Weight loss began after 2 weeks' treatment, and her eating pattern returned to normal. She had lost 15.6 kg of body fat after 1 year of treatment.

(Data and figure adapted from Farooqi et al. 1999).

[2]The word is derived from the Greek *leptos*, meaning thin.

Leptin mRNA is expressed in adipocytes; its synthesis is increased by glucocorticoids, insulin and the oestrogens, and it is reduced by β-

adrenoceptor agonists. In humans, the release of leptin is pulsatile and varies according to the fat stores and BMI in normal subjects. Insulin (see Ch. 30) also functions in a similar manner although it is probably less important than leptin.

Today, it is recognised that in addition to leptin and insulin, several other peripheral hormones originating mainly from the gastrointestinal (GI) tract, play a crucial role in determining food intake, meal size and the feeling of satisfaction produced.[3] Peptide hormones secreted by cells in the wall of the small intestine in response to the arrival of food (see Ch. 30) are important in this connection. Table 31.1 and Figure 31.2 summarise the main characteristics of these hormones.

Table 31.1 Some peripheral hormones that regulate eating behaviour

Hormone	Source	Stimulus to release	Target	Effect
CCK	GI tract	During feeding or just before	Vagus	Limits size of meal
Amylin	Pancreas	During feeding or just before	Vagus	
Insulin				
Glucagon				
PYY_{3-36}	Ileum, colon	After feeding	Brain stem, hypothalamus	Postpones next meal
GLP-1	Stomach			
Oxycyntomodulin	Stomach			
Leptin	Adipose tissue	Adiposity 'status'	Brain stem, arcuate nucleus	Longer-term regulation of food intake
Ghrelin	Stomach	Hunger, feeding	Vagus, hypothalamus	Increases food intake by increasing size and number of meals

CCK, cholecystokinin; GI, gastrointestinal; GLP-1, glucagon-like peptide-1; PYY_{3-36}, peptide YY.

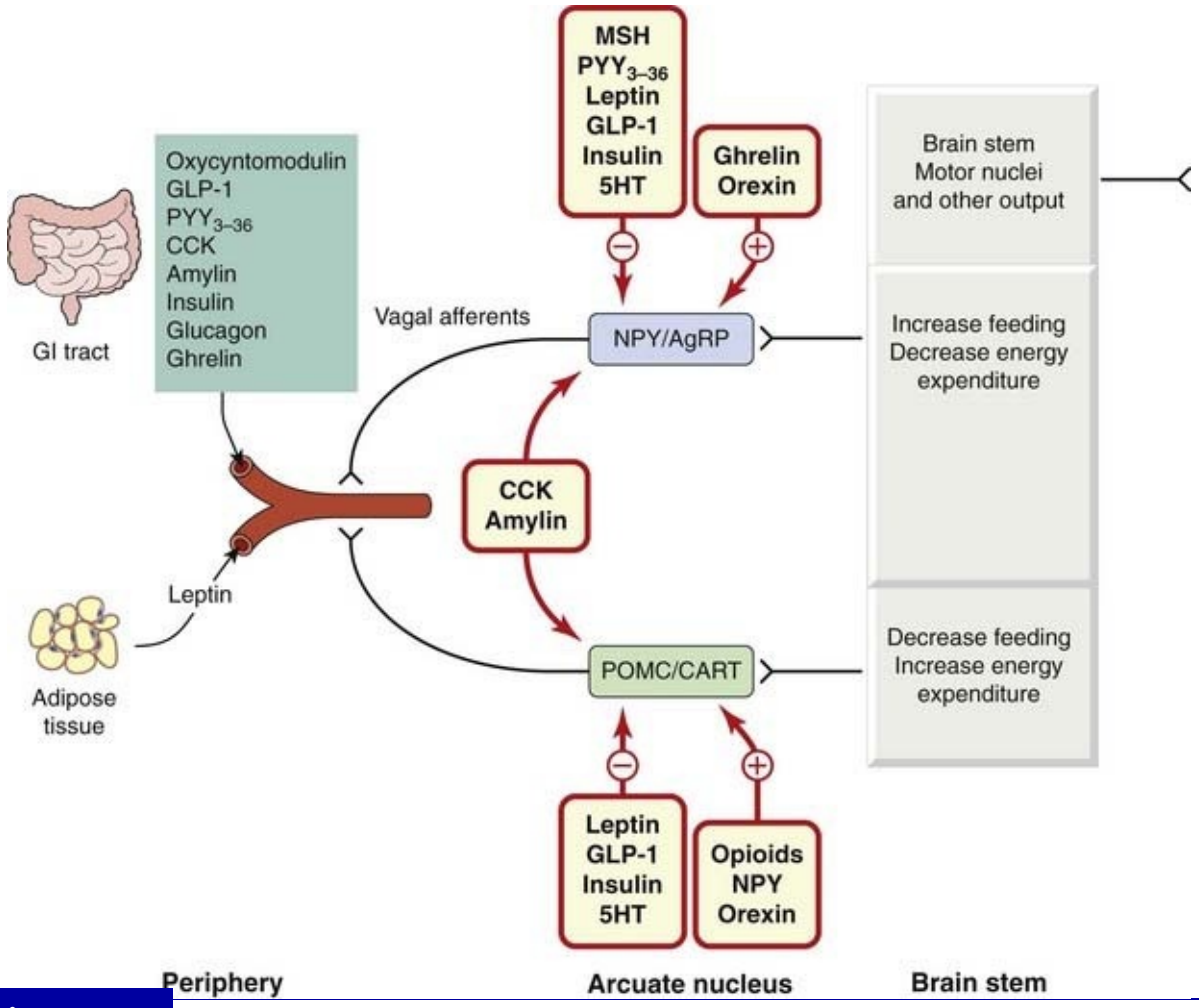


Fig. 31.2 A simplified representation of the role of peripheral hormones and other mediators in the regulation of energy balance and fat stores.

The primary level of hypothalamic control is vested in two groups of neurons, with opposing actions, in the arcuate nucleus (ARC). In one group, the peptides neuropeptide Y (NPY) and agouti-related protein (AgRP) are co-localised; the other contains the polypeptides prepro-opiomelanocortin (POMC) and cocaine-and amphetamine-related transcript (CART), which release α-melanocyte-stimulating hormone (MSH). Blood-borne hormones arising from the gastrointestinal (GI) tract or adipose tissue are sensed by receptors on vagal and other afferents and are relayed through the nucleus tractus solitarius to modify the activity of these neuronal circuits. The influence of hormones on each neuronal group is indicated. Hormones marked in blue (e.g. leptin) arise from the peripheral blood and influence the ARC neurons directly or indirectly through neuronal signals; mediators in green (e.g. 5HT, orexin) originate within the central nervous system itself. Activation of the NPY/AgRP group by, for example, a fall in leptin or an increase in ghrelin levels results in increased food intake and decreased energy expenditure. In the POMC/CART group of neurons, increased leptin or other hormone levels triggered by overfeeding produces a predominately inhibitory effect on feeding behaviour. A

number of other hormones such as cholecystokinin (CCK) and amylin also alter the properties of the ARC neurons although the mechanism is not clear. GLP-1, glucagon-like peptide-1.

(Modified from Adan et al. 2008.)

[3]The language can be confusing. 'Hunger' obviously refers to the desire to eat; 'satiation' is the feeling that you have eaten enough. 'Satiety' refers to the feeling that one will postpone the next meal.

The majority of these factors are released either during, or in anticipation of, eating and most are inhibitory in nature producing either satiety or satiation. Two exceptions are the gastric hormone, *ghrelin*, which promotes hunger, and leptin itself, which is controlled by the amount of adipose tissue and is thus more involved with the longer-term energy status of the individual. The main targets for these hormones are receptors on vagal afferent fibres or within the hypothalamus (or elsewhere in the central nervous system [CNS]). Here, they modulate the release of other neurotransmitters that exert a fine regulation over eating behaviour, energy expenditure and body weight. Other actions of these peptide hormones include the release of insulin by the *incretins*, namely *glucagon-like peptide-1* (GLP-1) and *gastric inhibitory peptide* (GIP).

Neurological Circuits That Control Body Weight and Eating Behaviour

Control of Food Intake

The manner in which all these hormonal signals are processed and integrated with other viscerosensory, gustatory or olfactory information within the CNS is complex. Many sites within the CNS are involved in different aspects of the process and some 50 hormones and neurotransmitters are implicated. The account we present here is therefore necessarily an oversimplification: the Further Reading list

should be consulted for a more complete picture.

As early lesioning studies predicted, the hypothalamus is the main brain centre that regulates appetite, feeding behaviour and energy status, although other sites in the brain such as the *nucleus accumbens* (NAc), the *amygdala* and especially the *nucleus tractus solitarius* (NTS) in the medulla, are also crucial. Within the hypothalamus, the *arcuate nucleus* (ARC), situated in the floor of the third ventricle, is a key site. It receives afferent inputs originating from the GI tract and contains receptors for leptin and other significant hormones. It also has extensive reciprocal connections with other parts of the hypothalamus involved in monitoring energy status, in particular the *paraventricular nucleus* and the *ventromedial hypothalamus*. Figure 31.2 summarises some of the complex interactions that occur in the ARC but it must be realised that this is only part of the overall control system and is presented in a simplified fashion.

Within the ARC are two groups of functionally distinct neurons that exert opposite effects on appetite. One group, termed *anorexigenic* (appetite suppressing), secrete *pro-opiomelanocortin* (POMC)-derived peptides (such as *α-melanocyte-stimulating hormone*; *α-MSH*) or *cocaine- and amphetamine-regulated transcript* (*CART*)[4]-derived peptides. The other group, termed *orexigenic* (appetite promoting) neurons, secrete *neuropeptide Y* (NPY) or *agouti-related peptide* (AgRP). As these groups of neurons have opposing actions, energy homeostasis depends, in the first instance, on the balance between these actions whose final effects are realised by the brain stem motor system as changes in feeding behaviour.

[4]So called because the administration of cocaine or amphetamine stimulates the transcription of this gene. Its expression in the hypothalamus is related to nutritional status implicating it in the control

of appetite. Its receptor is unknown but it probably modulates the action of NPY and leptin.

Monoamines such as noradrenaline, 5-hydroxy-tryptamine (5-HT) and dopamine also play a role in the modulation of satiety signals. Noradrenaline is co-localised with NPY in some neurons and greatly potentiates its hyperphagic action. Deficit of dopamine impairs feeding behaviour, as do agonists at the 5-HT_{2C} receptor; antagonists at this receptor have the reverse effect.

Many neural signals arising from the GI tract are integrated, and relayed on to the hypothalamus, by the NTS in the medulla. Some of these signals, including those of gustatory, olfactory, mechanical and viscerosensory signals, arise from vagal and other spinal afferents originating in the GI tract or liver. Endocrine signals have more complex signalling pathways. For example, *cholecystokinin* (CCK) is secreted by the duodenum in response to the process of eating and digestion of (especially fatty) foodstuffs. CCK acts locally on CCK_A receptors in the GI tract to stimulate vagal afferents and may also act on CCK_B receptors in the brain in order to function as a satiety factor. Ghrelin also has complex actions. It stimulates growth hormone release (Ch. 32) and also has a direct action on neurons in the ARC to modify feeding behaviour. Blood ghrelin levels normally fall after eating but not in obese individuals (English et al., 2002). Interestingly, polymorphisms in the ghrelin gene may be important in the pathogenesis of the *Prader–Willi syndrome*, which predisposes to morbid obesity.

Leptin also targets these neurons in the ARC. Falling leptin levels activate the orexigenic neurons, resulting in increased food intake, and synthesis and storage of fat (anabolism), as well as decreased energy expenditure. Conversely, rising leptin levels activate the second group of neurons, producing the opposite anorexigenic and catabolic effect.

Inputs from other parts of the CNS also influence feeding behaviour. Of importance to us is the input from the NAc. This centre seems to regulate those aspects of eating that are driven by pleasure or reward—the so-called 'hedonic' aspects of eating (see also Ch. 48). The endocannabinoid system is important in this response. The hypothalamus contains large amounts of 2-arachidonyl glycerol and anandamide as well as the CB_1 receptor (Ch. 18). Administration of endogenous or exogenous (e.g. Δ^9-THC) cannabinoids provokes a powerful feeding response.[5] This system in turn may be modulated by 'stress' and other factors in the environment.

[5]This effect is responsible for the 'munchies', a common side effect of smoking cannabis.

Control of Energy Expenditure

Balancing food intake is the energy expenditure required to maintain metabolism, physical activity and *thermogenesis* (heat production). The metabolic aspects of energy expenditure include, among other things, cardiorespiratory work and the actions of a multitude of enzymes. Physical activity increases all these, as well as increasing energy expenditure by the skeletal muscles. Exposure to cold or feeding also stimulates thermogenesis, and the reverse is also true. The, often dramatic (20–40% increase), thermogenic effects of feeding may provide a partial protection against developing obesity.

The sympathetic nervous system (sometimes in concert with thyroid hormone) plays a significant part in the regulation of energy expenditure in cardiovascular and skeletal muscle function during physical activity, as well as in the thermogenic response of adipose tissue and the response to cold. Both 'white' and 'brown' (the colour is apparently caused by the high density of mitochondria) fat cells (but especially the latter) have a

major role in thermogenesis. Brown fat, which is densely innervated by the sympathetic nervous system, is abundant in rodents and human infants, although in human adults these cells are generally to be found more interspersed with white fat cells. Because of their abundant mitochondria, they are remarkable heat generators, producing more heat and less ATP than white fat cells. The basis for this, as determined in mice, is the presence of *mitochondrial uncoupling proteins* (UCP). Three isoforms, UCP-1, -2 and -3, are known and have different distributions, although all are found in brown fat. These proteins 'uncouple' oxidative phosphorylation, so that mitochondria continue oxidative metabolism but produce much less ATP, thus promoting net energy loss as heat. As one might anticipate, exposure to cold or leptin administration increases both the activity and (after prolonged stimulation) the amount of UCP-1 in brown fat. Noradrenaline, acting on β-adrenoceptors (mainly β_3) in brown fat, increases the activity of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ (PPARγ) transcription factor which, in turn, activates the gene for UCP-1. The expression of β_3-adrenoceptors is decreased in genetically obese mice.

Energy balance

Energy balance depends on food intake, energy storage in fat and energy expenditure. In most individuals, the process is tightly regulated by a homeostatic system that integrates inputs from a number of internal sensors and external factors. Important components of the system include the following:

- Hormones that signal the status of fat stores (e.g. leptin). Increasing fat storage promotes leptin release from adipocytes.

- Hormones released from the gut during feeding that convey sensations of hunger (e.g. ghrelin), satiety (e.g. CCK) or satiation (e.g. PYY3–36).

• This hormonal information together with neural gustatory, olfactory and viscerosensory input is integrated in the hypothalamus. The arcuate nucleus is a key site.

• Two groups of opposing neurons in the arcuate nucleus sense hormonal and other signals. Those secreting POMC/CART products promote feeding while those secreting NPY/AgRP inhibit feeding. Many other CNS neurotransmitters (e.g. endocannabinoids) are involved.

• The net output from this process is relayed to other sites in the brain stem motor nuclei that control feeding behaviour.

Obesity as a Health Problem

Obesity is a growing and costly global health problem. According to the WHO (2005 figures), there are already more than 1.6 billion overweight adults, approximately one-quarter of whom are obese according to the criteria outlined above, and this is expected to rise to 2.3 billion overweight and 700 million obese people by 2015. National obesity levels vary enormously, being less than 5% in China, Japan and parts of Africa, to a staggering 75% in parts of Samoa. Obesity levels in the USA, Europe and the UK (among others) have increased three-fold since 1980, with figures of 31% being quoted for the USA and about 25% for many other industrialised nations (Padwal et al., 2003). The disease is not confined to adults: some 22 million children under 5 years old are estimated to be overweight. In the USA, the number of overweight children has doubled and the number of overweight adolescents has trebled since 1980. Ironically, obesity often co-exists with malnutrition in many developing countries. All socioeconomic classes are affected. In the poorest countries, it is the top socioeconomic classes in whom obesity is prevalent, but in the West it is usually the reverse.

▼ While obesity itself is rarely fatal, it brings with it the risk of increased susceptibility to a host of metabolic and other disorders, the

most important of which are type 2 diabetes, metabolic syndrome, hypertension and cardiovascular conditions, cancers (particularly hormone dependent), respiratory (particularly sleep apnoea) and digestive problems, as well as osteoarthritis. One commentator (Kopelman, 2000) has remarked that obesity '… *is beginning to replace under-nutrition and infectious diseases as the most significant contributor to ill health*'. The total costs of obesity-related illness are hard to estimate. Figures in the range of 2–7% of the total healthcare budget are often given but are probably an underestimate. Increasingly, social stigma is suffered by obese individuals, leading to a sense of psychological isolation.

The risk of developing type 2 diabetes (which represents 85% of all cases of the disease) rises sharply with increasing BMI. The WHO reports that 90% of those diagnosed with the disease are obese. In a study of the disease in women, the risk of developing diabetes was closely correlated with BMI, increasing five-fold when the BMI was 25 kg/m^2, to 93-fold when the BMI was 35 kg/m^2 or above (Colditz et al., 1995). Cardiovascular disease is also increased in the obese individual, and the increased thoracic and abdominal adipose tissue reduces lung volume and makes respiration difficult. Obese subjects also have an increased risk of colon, breast, prostate, gall bladder, ovarian and uterine cancer. Numerous other disorders are associated with excess body weight, including osteoarthritis, hyperuricaemia and male hypogonadism. Gross obesity (BMI over 40 kg/m^2) is associated with a 12-fold increase in mortality in the group aged 25–35 years compared with those in this age group with a BMI of 20–25 kg/m^2.

The pathophysiology of human obesity

In most adult subjects, body fat and body weight remain more or less

constant over many years, even decades, in the face of very large variations in food intake and energy expenditure—amounting to about a million calories per year. The steady-state body weight and BMI of an individual is, as has been stressed above, the result of the integration of multiple interacting regulatory pathways. How, then, does obesity occur? Why is it so difficult for the obese to lose weight and maintain the lower weight?

The main determinant is manifestly a disturbance of the homeostatic mechanisms that control energy balance, but genetic endowment underlies this disturbance. Other factors, such as food availability and lack of physical activity, contribute, and there are, of course, social, cultural and psychological aspects. We will deal below with the imbalance of homeostatic mechanisms and genetic endowment in obesity. The role of social, cultural and psychological aspects we will leave (with a profound sigh of relief) to the psychosociologists!

Food Intake and Obesity

As Spiegelman & Flier (1996) point out, '*one need not be a rocket scientist to notice that increased food intake tends to be associated with obesity*'. A typical obese subject will usually have gained 20 kg over a decade or so. This means that there has been a daily excess of energy input over energy requirement of 30–40 kcal initially, increasing gradually to maintain the increased body weight.

The type of food eaten, as well as the quantity, can disturb energy homeostasis. Fat is an energy-dense foodstuff, and it may be that the mechanisms regulating appetite react rapidly to carbohydrate and protein, but too slowly to fat to stop an individual consuming too much before the satiety systems come into play.

However, when obese individuals reduce their calorie intake as part of

a diet regime, they shift into negative energy balance. When they lose weight, the resting metabolic rate decreases, and there is a concomitant reduction in energy expenditure. Thus an individual who was previously obese and is now of normal weight generally needs fewer calories to maintain that weight than an individual who has never been obese. The decrease in energy expenditure appears to be largely caused by an alteration in the conversion efficiency of chemical energy to mechanical work in the skeletal muscles. This adaptation to the caloric reduction contributes to the difficulty of maintaining weight loss by diet.

Physical Exercise and Obesity

It used to be said that the only exercise effective in combating obesity was pushing one's chair back from the table. It is now recognised that physical activity—i.e. increased energy expenditure—has a much more positive role in reducing fat storage and adjusting energy balance in the obese, particularly if associated with modification of the diet. An inadvertent, natural population study provides an example. Many years ago, a tribe of Pima Indians split into two groups. One group settled in Mexico and continued to live simply at subsistence level, eating frugally and spending most of the week in hard physical labour. They are generally lean and have a low incidence of type 2 diabetes. The other group moved to the USA—an environment with easy access to calorie-rich food and less need for hard physical work. They are, on average, 57 lb (26 kg) heavier than the Mexican group and have a high incidence of early-onset type 2 diabetes.

Obesity as a disorder of the homeostatic control of energy balance

The long-term regulation of energy balance by adiposity signals such as leptin and insulin must obviously occur against a background of day-to-

day variations in meal size, frequency and content.[6] Because the homeostatic control of energy balance is extremely complex, it is not easy to determine exactly what goes wrong in obesity. When the leptin story unfolded, it was thought that alterations in leptin kinetics might provide a simple explanation. There is a considerable interindividual variation in sensitivity to leptin, and some individuals seem to produce insufficient amounts of this hormone. Paradoxically, however, plasma leptin is often higher in obese individuals compared with non-obese subjects, not lower as might be expected. The reason for this is that resistance to leptin rather than insufficient hormone is more prevalent in obesity. Such resistance could be caused by defects in leptin carriage in the circulation, transport into the CNS, in leptin receptors in the hypothalamus (as occurs in *db/db* mice) or in postreceptor signalling.

[6]Even the type of gut flora has come under scrutiny as a potential determining factor in obesity. The notion that this could be supplemented with probiotics to modify the risk is obviously attracting attention. 'Holy shit!' was the title of one magazine article on the subject (*The Economist*, 12 November 2009).

Mediators other than leptin are certainly implicated in obesity. For example, TNF-α, a cytokine that can relay information from fat tissue to brain, is increased in the adipose tissue of insulin-resistant obese individuals. Another pathophysiological alteration in obesity is a reduced insulin sensitivity of muscle and fat, and decreased β_3-adrenoceptor function in brown adipose tissue (see above) may also occur; alternatively, UCP-2, one of the proteins that uncouple oxidative phosphorylation in adipocytes, may be dysfunctional in obese individuals.

A further suggestion is that alterations in the function of specific nuclear receptors, such as PPARα, β and γ, may play a role in obesity.

These receptors regulate gene expression of enzymes associated with lipid and glucose homeostasis, and they also promote the genesis of adipose tissue. PPARγ is expressed preferentially in fat cells and synergises with another transcription factor, C/EBPα, to convert precursor cells to fat cells (see Spiegelman & Flier, 1996). The gene for UCP (see above) in white fat cells also has regulatory sites that respond to PPARα and C/EBPα. The *thiazoladinediones* bind to and activate PPARγ (see Ch. 30). One of these, **pioglitazone**, is licensed in the UK for treatment of type 2 diabetes and both cause weight gain. The pathophysiology of obesity could involve disturbance(s) in any of the multitude of other factors involved in energy balance.

Genetic Factors and Obesity

Analyses of large-scale (> 100 000) studies in human monozygotic and dizygotic twin pairs indicate that 50–90% of the variance of BMI can be attributed to genetic factors, and suggest a relatively minor role for environmental factors (Barsh et al., 2000). This conclusion may seem surprising, but feeding studies using laboratory rodents where food intake is held constant have demonstrated the importance of genetic background to body weight regulation, and this is especially true for high-fat diets. The prevailing viewpoint is that susceptibility to obesity is largely determined by genetic factors, while environmental factors determine the expression of the disease.

The discovery that spontaneous mutations arising in single genes (e.g. the *ob/ob* genotype) produced obese phenotypes in mice led to a search for equivalent genes in humans. A review (Pérusse et al., 2005) identified over 170 human obesity cases that could be traced to single gene mutations in 10 different genes. Leptin receptor or POMC mutations are sometimes observed, but melanocortin $(MC)_4$ receptor

mutations seem to be more prevalent (3–5%) in obese patients (e.g. see Barsh et al., 2000). In general, however, human obesity should be regarded as a polygenic disorder involving the interaction of many genes. At the time of writing, some 600 genes, markers and chromosomal regions are under investigation for linkage to human obesity (Pérusse et al., 2005).

Other genes that appear to be involved include the β_3-adrenoceptor and the glucocorticoid receptor. Decreased function of the β_3-adrenoceptor gene could be associated with impairment of lipolysis in white fat or with thermogenesis in brown fat. A mutation of this gene has been found to be associated with abdominal obesity, insulin resistance and early-onset type 2 diabetes in some subjects and a markedly increased propensity to gain weight in a separate group of morbidly obese subjects. Alterations in the function of the glucocorticoid receptor could be associated with obesity through the permissive effect of glucocorticoids on several aspects of fat metabolism and energy balance. The significance of polymorphisms in the ghrelin gene has already been mentioned.

Obesity

• Obesity is a multifactorial disorder of energy balance, in which long-term calorie intake exceeds energy output.

• A subject with a BMI (W/h^2) of 20–25 kg/m^2 is considered as having a healthy body weight, one with a BMI of 25–30 kg/m^2 as overweight, and one with a BMI $>$ 30 kg/m^2 as obese.

• Obesity is a growing problem in most rich nations; the incidence—at present approximately 30% in the USA and 15–20% in Europe—is increasing.

• A BMI > 30 kg/m^2 significantly increases the risk of type 2 diabetes, hypercholesterolaemia, hypertension, ischaemic heart disease, gallstones and some cancers.

• The causes of obesity may include:

– dietary, exercise, social, financial and cultural factors

– genetic susceptibility

– deficiencies in the synthesis or action of leptin or other gut hormone signals

– defects in the hypothalamic neuronal systems responding to any of these signals

– defects in the systems controlling energy expenditure (e.g. reduced sympathetic activity), decreased metabolic expenditure of energy or decreased thermogenesis caused by a reduction in β3-adrenoceptor-mediated tone and/or dysfunction of the proteins that uncouple oxidative phosphorylation.

Pharmacological Approaches to the Problem of Obesity

The first weapons in the fight against obesity are diet and exercise. Unfortunately, these often fail or show only short-term efficacy, leaving only surgical techniques (such as gastric stapling or bypass)[7] or drug therapy as a viable alternative. Surgery is much more effective than currently licensed drugs.

[7]Such *bariatric* (weight loss) surgery owes at least part of its efficacy to the changes in blood levels of the hormones that regulate feeding behaviour.

The attempt to control appetite with drugs has had a long and largely undistinguished history. Many types of 'anorectic' (e.g. appetite suppressant) agents have been tested in the past, including the uncoupling agent **dinitrophenol** (DNP), **amphetamines** and **fenfluramine**. However, these are no longer used and the only drug currently (2010) licensed in the UK for the treatment of obesity is **orlistat** (see below). It should not be used without concomitant dietary

and other therapy (e.g. exercise). As might be imagined, the quest for further effective antiobesity agents is the subject of a prodigious effort by the pharmaceutical industry.

Sibutramine

Sibutramine inhibits the reuptake of 5-HT and noradrenaline at the hypothalamic sites that regulate food intake.[8] Its main effects are to reduce food intake and cause dose-dependent weight loss (see Fig. 31.3), the weight loss being associated with a decrease in obesity-related risk factors. Sibutramine enhances satiety and is reported to produce a reduction in waist circumference (i.e. a reduction in visceral fat), a decrease in plasma triglycerides and very-low-density lipoproteins, but an increase in high-density lipoproteins. In addition, beneficial effects on hyperinsulinaemia and the rate of glucose metabolism are said to occur. There is some evidence that the weight loss is associated with higher energy expenditure, possibly through an increase in thermogenesis mediated by the sympathetic nervous system.

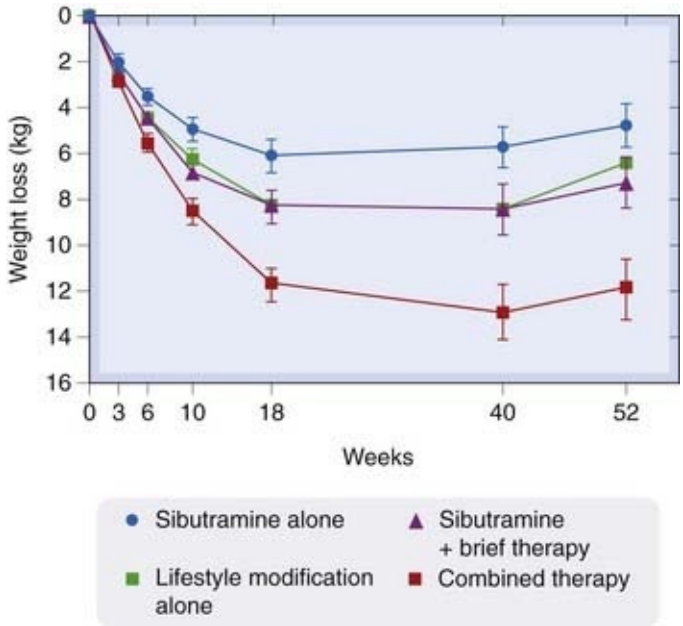


Fig. 31.3 The effect of treatment with sibutramine alone or in combination with lifestyle

modification.

In this study, 224 obese patient were given sibutramine alone, lifestyle modification counselling alone or sibutramine together with a 'brief' or more extensive programme of lifestyle counselling. The Y-axis shows the weight loss in kg (± SE) over time (X-axis). It is evident that sibutramine is far more effective as a weight-loss therapy when combined with changes in patients' lifestyle. This is a common experience when treating obesity

(From Wadden et al. 2005.)

[8]Many antidepressant drugs act by the same mechanism (see Ch. 46), and also cause weight loss by reducing appetite. However, sibutramine does not have antidepressant properties. Furthermore, depressed patients are often obese, and antidepressant drugs are used to treat both conditions (see Appolinario et al., 2004).

A meta-analysis of three long-term treatment studies comparing sibutramine with placebo (Padwal et al., 2003) concluded that there was a 4.6% loss of weight after 1 year's treatment with the drug, and a 15% increase in the number of patients who lost more than 10% of their body weight. Sibutramine was much more effective when combined with lifestyle modification (Wadden et al., 2005) and it was usually recommended only in conjunction with such measures.

The marketing authorisation for sibutramine was recently suspended by the European Medicines Agency because of concerns that its cardiovascular risks (see below) outweighed its benefits.

Pharmacokinetic Aspects and Unwanted Effects

Sibutramine is given orally; it is well absorbed and undergoes extensive first-pass metabolism. The metabolites are responsible for the pharmacological actions. Steady-state blood levels of the metabolites occur within 4 days. The active metabolites are inactivated in the liver, and 85% of the inactive residues are excreted in the urine and faeces.

Sibutramine increases heart rate and blood pressure and is contraindicated in hypertension, which often co-exists with obesity. Other unwanted effects include dry mouth, constipation, insomnia and drug interactions (e.g. antidepressants, see Ch. 46).

Orlistat

In the intestine, **orlistat** reacts with serine residues at the active sites of gastric and pancreatic lipases, irreversibly inhibiting these enzymes and thereby preventing the breakdown of dietary fat to fatty acids and glycerols. It therefore decreases fat absorption and correspondingly increases faecal fat excretion up to some 30% of dietary fat. Given in conjunction with a low-calorie diet in obese individuals, it produces a modest but consistent loss of weight compared with placebo-treated control subjects. In a meta-analysis of 11 long-term placebo-controlled trials encompassing over 6000 patients, orlistat was found to produce a 2.9% greater reduction in body weight than in the control group, and 12% more patients lost 10% or more of their body weight compared with the controls (Padwal et al., 2003).

Orlistat is also reported to be effective in patients suffering from type 2 diabetes and other complications of obesity, to reduce leptin levels and blood pressure, to protect against weight loss-induced changes in biliary secretion, to delay gastric emptying and gastric secretion, to improve several important metabolic parameters and not to interfere with the release or action of thyroid and other important hormones (Curran & Scott, 2004). It does not induce changes in energy expenditure.

Pharmacokinetic Aspects and Unwanted Effects

Virtually all (97%) of orlistat is excreted in the faeces (83% unchanged), with only negligible amounts of the drug or its metabolites being absorbed.

Abdominal cramps, flatus with discharge and faecal incontinence can occur, as can intestinal *borborygmi* (rumbling) and oily spotting. Surprisingly, in view of the possibility of these antisocial effects occurring, the drug is well tolerated. Supplementary therapy with fat-soluble vitamins may be needed. The absorption of contraceptive pills and ciclosporin (see Ch. 26) may be decreased. The former is probably not clinically significant but the latter is more serious. Given its good safety record, orlistat has recently been licensed for inclusion in some over-the-counter medicines for weight loss.

Clinical uses of antiobesity drugs

• The main treatment of obesity is a suitable diet and increased exercise.

• **Orlistat**, which causes fat malabsorption, is considered for severely obese individuals, especially with additional cardiovascular risk factors (e.g. diabetes mellitus, hypertension).

• Many centrally acting appetite suppressants have been withdrawn because of addiction, pulmonary hypertension or other serious adverse effects.

New Approaches to Obesity Therapy

Rare cases of leptin deficiency in patients have been successfully treated by long-term treatment with the hormone, but this is an unusual intervention and unlikely to be of more than limited use in the future. Many other approaches are being piloted; in fact, a comprehensive review of the area estimated that there were more than 150 novel agents under development (Kaplan, 2005). Some of these aim to exploit the action or production of neuroendocrine satiety signals such as CCK to produce appetite suppression. Many of these GI satiety hormones produce such effects when given systemically to humans or rodents although these are not always useful; for example, CCK reduces meal

size but increases meal frequency (West et al., 1984).

Other strategies aim to alter the CNS levels of neurotransmitters such as NPY or melanocortins, which transduce changes in these hormonal signals (Halford, 2006). The tractability of the MC_4 receptor itself as a drug target, coupled with the observation that defects in MC_4 signalling are prevalent in obesity, has attracted much interest from the pharmaceutical industry.

Given the importance of the sympathetic nervous system in the control of energy regulation, one might predict that β_3-adrenoceptor agonists might be useful therapeutics. This field has been extensively researched (see Arch, 2008, for a recent review) but disappointingly has so far failed to produce an acceptable drug. The search continues.

Another novel approach originated from research in the cannabinoid field (see Ch. 18 for further details). As noted above, the endocannabinoid system is involved in the regulation of feeding behaviour and from this observation arose the idea that this could be a useful site of pharmacological intervention. Such a drug was the CB_1 receptor antagonist **rimonabant** that was originally developed for smoking cessation. This drug was introduced into therapy following some encouraging clinical trails (see Fig. 18.5) but was eventually withdrawn in 2008 because of adverse effects on mood seen in some patients.

References and Further Reading

Body weight regulation

dan R.A., Vanderschuren L.J., la Fleur S.E. Antiobesity drugs and neural circuits of feeding. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2008;29:208-217. (*Very accessible overview of the area. Recommended*)

hima R.S., Flier J.S. Leptin. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*. 2000;62:413-437. (*Comprehensive review of leptin:*

its expression, actions in hypothalamus, role in energy homeostasis and other actions)

hima R.S., Osei S. Molecular regulation of eating behaviour: new insights and prospects for future strategies. *Trends Mol. Med.*. 2001;7:205-213. (*Praiseworthy short review; excellent figures and useful tables of the mediators involved in stimulation and inhibition of feeding behaviour*)

nglish P.J., Ghatei M.A., Malik I.A., *et al.* Food fails to suppress ghrelin levels in obese humans. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.*. 2002;87:2984-2987.

arooqi I.S., Jebb S.A., Langmack G., *et al.* Effects of recombinant leptin therapy in a child with congenital leptin deficiency. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1999;341:879-884. (*A classic clinical paper on the role of leptin in the control of feeding behaviour and weight control*)

rühbeck G., Gómez-Ambrosi J., Muruzábal F.J., Burrell M.A. The adipocyte: a model for integration of endocrine and metabolic signalling in energy metabolism regulation. *Am. J. Physiol. Endocrinol. Metab.*. 2001;280:E827-E847. (*Detailed review covering receptors on and the factors secreted by the fat cell, and the role of these factors in energy homeostasis*)

ennedy G.C. The role of depot fat in the hypothalamic control of food intake in the rat. *Proc. R. Soc. Lond. B. Biol. Sci.*. 1953;140:578-592. (*The paper that put forward the proposal, based on experiments on rats, that there was a hypothalamus-based homeostatic mechanism for controlling body fat*)

chwartz M.W., Woods S.C., Porte D.J., et al Central nervous control of food intake Nature 404:2000:661-671 (*Outlines a model that delineates the roles of hormones and neuropeptides in the control of food intake. Outstanding diagrams. Note that there are several other excellent articles in this* Nature Insight *supplement on obesity*)

piegelman B.M., Flier J.S. Adipogenesis and obesity: rounding out the big picture. *Cell.* 1996;87:377-389.

piegelman B.M., Flier J.S. Obesity regulation and energy balance. *Cell.* 2001;104:531-543. (*Excellent review with up-to-date coverage of the CNS control of energy intake/body weight, monogenic obesities, leptin physiology, central neural circuits, the melanocortin pathway, the role of insulin and adaptive thermogenesis*)

Veigle D.S. Appetite and the regulation of body composition. *FASEB J.*. 1994;8:302-310.

Obesity as a disease

olditz G.A., Willett W.C., Rotnitzky A., Manson J.E. Weight gain as a risk factor for clinical diabetes mellitus in women. *Ann. Intern. Med.*. 1995;122:481-486.

opelman P.G. Obesity as a medical problem. *Nature*. 2000;404:635-643.

Obesity genetics

arsh G.S., Farooqi I.S., O'Rahilly S. Genetics of body-weight regulation. *Nature*. 2000;404:644-651.

ɔos R.J., Rankinen T. Gene–diet interactions on body weight changes. *J. Am. Diet. Assoc.*. 2005;105(Suppl. 1):S29-S34. (*Discusses gene–environment studies relating to obesity, drawing on data from monozygotic twins and candidate gene approaches*)

érusse C., Rankinen T., Zuberi A., *et al.* The human obesity gene map: the 2004 update. *Obes. Res.*. 2005;13:381-490. (*Detailed review of the genes, markers and chromosomal regions that have been shown to be associated with human obesity*)

hang Y., Proenca R., Maffei M., *et al.* Positional cloning of the mouse obese gene and its human homologue. *Nature*. 1994;372:425-432.

Drugs in obesity

ppolinario J.C., Bueno J.R., Coutinho W. Psychotropic drugs in the treatment of obesity: what promise? *CNS Drugs*. 2004;18:629-651.

hiesi M., Huppertz C., Hofbauer K.G. Pharmacotherapy of obesity: targets and perspectives. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2001;22:247-254. (*Commendable, succinct review; table of the potential targets, and useful, simple figures of the central and peripheral pathways of energy regulation and of the regulation of thermogenesis*)

lapham J.C., Arch J.R.S., Tadayyon M. Antiobesity drugs: a critical review of current therapies and future opportunities Pharmacol. Ther. 89:2001:81-121 (*Comprehensive review covering, under energy intake; biogenic amines, cannabinoids, neuropeptides, leptin, gastrointestinal tract peptides and inhibitors of fat absorption; and under energy expenditure, β3-adrenoceptor agonists*

and uncoupling proteins)

ollins P., Williams G. Drug treatment of obesity: from past failures to future successes? *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2001;51:13-25. (*Overview—from a clinical perspective—of currently available antiobesity drugs and potential future drugs; well written*)

rowley V.E.F., Yeo G.S.H., O'Rahilly S. Obesity therapy: altering the energy intake-and-expenditure balance sheet. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2002;1:276-286. (*Review stressing that pharmacological approaches to obesity therapy necessitate altering the balance between energy intake and expenditure and/or altering the partitioning of nutrients between lean tissue and fat*)

urran M.P., Scott L.J. Orlistat: a review of its use in the management of patients with obesity. *Drugs*. 2004;64:2845-2864.

ames W.P.T., Finer N., Kopelman P., *et al.* Effect of sibutramine on weight maintenance after weight loss: a randomised trial. *Lancet*. 2000;256:2119-2125. (*Report of the results of a multicentre, randomised, double-blind clinical trial*)

adwal R., Li S.K., Lau D.C. Long-term pharmacotherapy for overweight and obesity: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Int. J. Obes. Relat. Metab. Disord.*. 2003;27:1437-1446.

/adden T.A., Berkowitz R.I., Womble G., *et al.* Randomized trial of lifestyle modification and pharmacotherapy for obesity. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;353:2111-2120.

Future drug treatments for obesity

rch J.R. The discovery of drugs for obesity, the metabolic effects of leptin and variable receptor pharmacology: perspectives from beta3-adrenoceptor agonists Naunyn. Schmiedebergs Arch. Pharmacol. 378:2008:225-240 (*A comprehensive review that focuses on the quest for antiobesity drugs that act through the β3-adrenoceptor. Useful comments and insights into the field as a whole*)

i Marzo V., Matias I. Endocannabinoid control of food intake and energy balance. *Nat. Neurosci.*. 2005;8:585-589. (*A discussion of the putative role of endocannabinoids in this complex physiological mechanism; also considers therapeutic applications arising from this area*)

ong T.M. Development of antiobesity agents: drugs that target neuropeptide and neurotransmitter

systems. *Expert Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2008;17:321-325. (*Deals with drugs in late-stage development that target the regulatory neuropeptide pathways discussed in this chapter*)

alford J.C. Obesity drugs in clinical development. *Curr. Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2006;7:312-318.

aplan L.M. Pharmacological therapies for obesity. *Gastroenterol. Clin. North Am.*. 2005;34:91-104.

efebvre P.J., Scheen A.J. Obesity: causes and new treatments. *Exp. Clin. Endocrinol. Diabet.*. 2001;109(Suppl. 2):S215-S224.

lertens I.L., Van Gaal L.F. Promising new approaches to the management of obesity. *Drugs*. 2000;60:1-9.

Vest D.B., Fey D., Woods S.C. Cholecystokinin persistently suppresses meal size but not food intake in free-feeding rats. *Am. J. Physiol.*. 1984;246:R776-R787.

Books

Vilding J.P.H. Pharmacotherapy of obesity. (Ed.). Parnham M.J., Bruinvels J., editors. Milestones in drug therapy. Basel: Birkhäuser, 2008. (*This book covers a wide variety of topics connected with obesity and its therapy. The contributors are experts in the field*)

Useful Web resource

ttp://www.who.int (*This is the World Health Organization Web page that carries data about the prevalence of 'globesity' and its distribution around the world; click on the Health topics link and navigate to Obesity in the alphabetical list of topics for further information*)

32

The pituitary and the adrenal cortex

Overview

The pituitary and adrenal glands are major sites for the synthesis and release of hormones that profoundly affect the biochemistry and physiology of almost all cells, and which are crucial to the understanding of the actions of many endocrine, anti-inflammatory and other drugs. The pituitary itself is controlled by hormones released from the hypothalamus and, in turn, the hypothalamic–pituitary axis orchestrates the activity of the adrenal (and other endocrine) glands. In the first part of this chapter, we examine the control of pituitary function by hypothalamic hormones and review the physiological roles and clinical uses of both anterior and posterior pituitary hormones. The second part of the chapter concentrates on the actions of adrenal hormones and, in particular, the anti-inflammatory effect of glucocorticoids. This should be read in conjunction with the relevant sections of Chapters 3 and 26.

The Pituitary Gland

The pituitary gland comprises three different structures arising from two different embryological precursors. The *anterior pituitary* and the *intermediate lobe* are derived from the endoderm of the buccal cavity, while the *posterior pituitary* is derived from neural ectoderm. The main parts of the gland, the anterior and posterior lobes, receive independent

neuronal input from the hypothalamus, with which they have an intimate functional relationship.

The Anterior Pituitary Gland (Adenohypophysis)

The *adenohypophysis* secretes a number of hormones crucial for normal physiological function. Within this tissue are specialised cells such as *corticotrophs*, *lactotrophs* (*mammotrophs*), *somatotrophs*, *thyrotrophs* and *gonadotrophs*, which secrete hormones that regulate different endocrine organs of the body (Table 32.1). Interspersed among these are other cell types, including the *folliculostellate* cells that exert a nurturing and regulatory influence on the hormone-secreting endocrine cells.

Table 32.1 Hormones secreted by the hypothalamus and the anterior pituitary and related drugs

Hypothalamic factor/hormone[a]	Effect on anterior pituitary	Main effects of anterior pituitary hormone
Corticotrophin-releasing factor (CRF)	Releases adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH, corticotrophin) Analogue: tetracosactide	Stimulates secretion of adrenal cortical hormones (mainly glucocorticoids); maintains integrity of adrenal cortex
Thyrotrophin-releasing hormone (TRH) Analogue: protirelin	Releases thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH; thyrotrophin)	Stimulates synthesis and secretion of thyroid hormones, thyroxine and tri-iodothyronine; maintains integrity of thyroid gland
Growth hormone-releasing factor (GHRF, somatorelin) Analogue:	Releases growth hormone (GH; somatotrophin) Analogue: somatropin	Regulates growth, partly directly, partly through evoking the release of somatomedins from the liver and elsewhere; increases protein synthesis, increases blood glucose, stimulates lipolysis

Analogue: sermorelin		
Growth hormone release-inhibiting factor (somatostatin) Analogues: octreotide, lanreotide	Inhibits the release of GH	Prevents effects above as well as TSH release
Gonadotrophin (or luteinising hormone)-releasing hormone (GnRH) Analogue: gonadorelin	Releases follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH; see Ch. 34)	Stimulates the growth of the ovum and the Graafian follicle in the female, and gametogenesis in the male; with LH, stimulates the secretion of oestrogen throughout the menstrual cycle and progesterone in the second half
	Releases luteinising hormone (LH) or interstitial cell-stimulating hormone (see Ch. 34)	Stimulates ovulation and the development of the corpus luteum; with FSH, stimulates secretion of oestrogen and progesterone in the menstrual cycle; in male, regulates testosterone secretion
Prolactin-releasing factor (PRF)	Releases prolactin	Together with other hormones, prolactin promotes development of mammary tissue during pregnancy; stimulates milk production in the postpartum period
Prolactin release-inhibiting factor (probably dopamine)	Inhibits the release of prolactin	Prevents effects above
Melanocyte-stimulating hormone (MSH)-releasing factor	Releases α-, β-and γ-MSH	Promotes formation of melanin, which causes darkening of skin; MSH is anti-inflammatory and helps to regulate feeding

MSH release-inhibiting factor	Inhibits the release of α-, β-and γ-MSH	Prevents effects above

[a] These hormones are often spelled without the 'h' (e.g. corticotropin, thyrotropin, etc) in contemporary texts. We have retained the original nomenclature in this edition.

Secretion from the anterior pituitary is largely regulated by the release from the hypothalamus of 'factors'—in effect local hormones—that reach the pituitary through the bloodstream.[1] The blood supply to the hypothalamus divides to form a meshwork of capillaries, the primary plexus (Fig. 32.1), which drains into the hypophyseal *portal vessels*. These pass through the pituitary stalk to feed a secondary plexus of capillaries in the anterior pituitary. Peptidergic neurons in the hypothalamus secrete a variety of releasing or inhibitory hormones directly into the capillaries of the primary capillary plexus (Table 32.1 and Fig. 32.1). Most of these regulate the secretion of hormones from the anterior lobe, although the melanocyte-stimulating hormones (MSHs) are secreted mainly from the intermediate lobe.

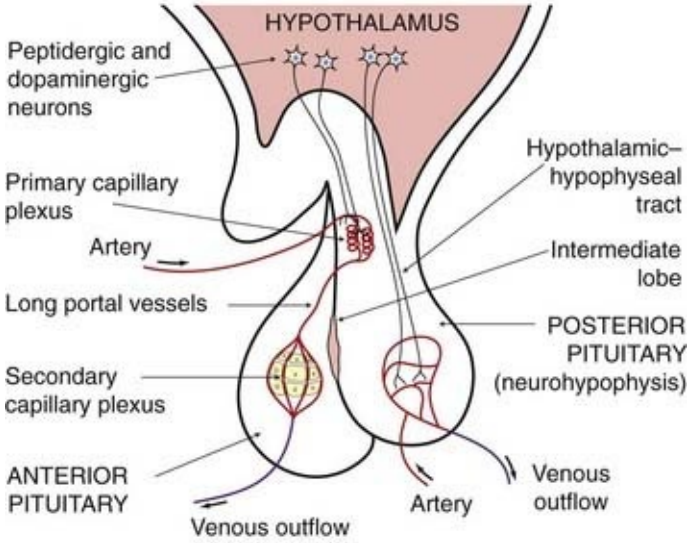


Fig. 32.1 Schematic diagram of vascular and neuronal relationships between the hypothalamus, the posterior pituitary and the anterior pituitary.

The main portal vessels to the anterior pituitary lie in the pituitary stalk and arise from the primary plexus in the hypothalamus, but some (the short portal vessels) arise from the vascular bed in the posterior pituitary (not shown).

[1]The word ‘factor’ was originally coined at a time when their structure and function were not known. These are blood-borne messengers, and as such are clearly hormones. Nevertheless, the term ‘factor’, however irrational, lingers on.

Negative feedback pathways between the hormones of the hypothalamus, the anterior pituitary and the peripheral endocrine glands regulate the release of stimulatory hormones and integrate the functions of individual components of the endocrine system into a functional whole. In *long negative feedback* pathways, hormones secreted from the peripheral glands exert regulatory actions on both the hypothalamus and the anterior pituitary. The mediators of the *short negative feedback* pathways are anterior pituitary hormones that act directly on the hypothalamus.

The peptidergic neurons in the hypothalamus are themselves influenced by other centres within the central nervous system (CNS) mediated through pathways that release dopamine, noradrenaline, 5-hydroxytryptamine and the opioid peptides (which are particularly abundant in the hypothalamus, see Ch. 19). Hypothalamic control of the anterior pituitary is also exerted through the *tuberohypophyseal dopaminergic pathway* (see Ch. 38), the neurons of which lie in close apposition to the primary capillary plexus. Dopamine secreted directly into the hypophyseal portal circulation reaches the anterior pituitary in the blood.

Hypothalamic Hormones

The secretion of anterior pituitary hormones, then, is primarily regulated

by the releasing factors that originate in the hypothalamus. These are listed in Table 32.1 and the most significant are described in more detail below. Somatostatin and gonadotrophin-releasing hormone are used therapeutically, the rest being used for diagnostic tests or as research tools. Many of these factors also function as neurotransmitters or neuromodulators elsewhere in the CNS (Ch. 38).

Somatostatin

Somatostatin is a peptide of 14 amino acid residues. It inhibits the release of growth hormone and thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH, thyrotrophin) from the anterior pituitary (Fig. 32.2), and insulin and glucagon from the pancreas; it also decreases the release of most gastrointestinal hormones, and reduces gastric acid and pancreatic secretion.

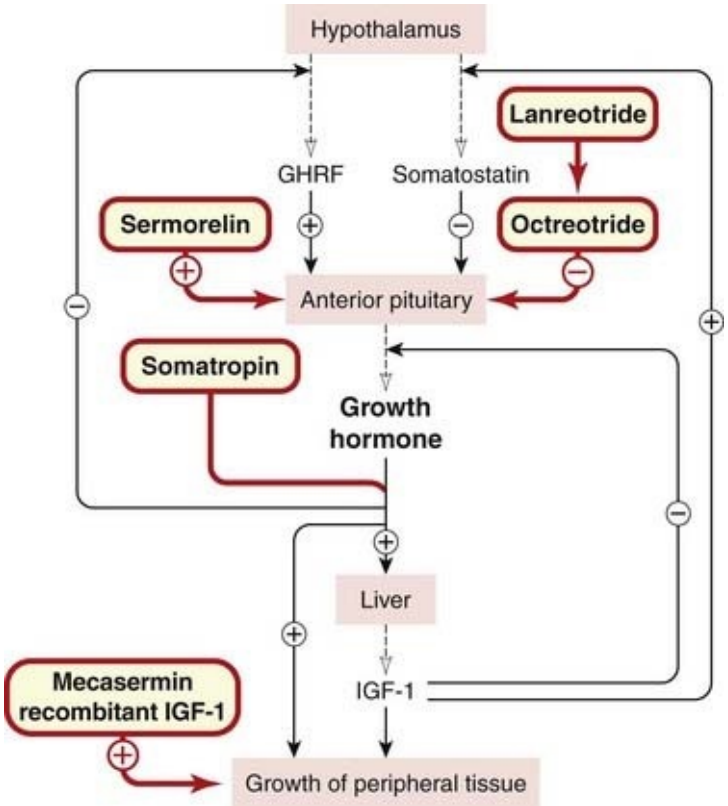


Fig. 32.2 Control of growth hormone secretion and its actions.

Drugs are shown in red-bordered boxes. GHRF, growth hormone-releasing factor; IGF-1, insulin-like growth factor-1.

Octreotide is a long-acting analogue of somatostatin (Ch. 19). It is used for the treatment of *carcinoid* and other hormone-secreting tumours (Ch. 15). It also has a place in the therapy of *acromegaly* (a condition in which there is oversecretion of growth hormone in an adult). It also constricts splanchnic blood vessels, and is used to treat bleeding oesophageal varices. Octreotide is generally given subcutaneously. The peak action is at 2 h, and the suppressant effect lasts for up to 8 h.

Unwanted effects include pain at the injection site and gastrointestinal disturbances. Gallstones and postprandial hyperglycaemia have also been reported, and acute hepatitis or pancreatitis has occurred in a few cases.

Lanreotide has similar effects and is also used in the treatment of thyroid tumours.

Gonadotrophin-Releasing Hormone

Gonadotrophin- (or luteinising hormone-) releasing hormone is a decapeptide that releases both *follicle-stimulating hormone* and *luteinising hormone* from gonadotrophs. It is also available as a preparation called **gonadorelin**, used mainly in the treatment of infertility (see Ch. 34).

Growth Hormone-Releasing Factor (Somatorelin)

Growth hormone-releasing factor (GHRF) is a peptide with 40–44 amino acid residues. The main action of GHRF is summarised in Figure 32.2. An analogue, **sermorelin**, may be used as a diagnostic test for growth hormone secretion. Given intravenously, subcutaneously or intranasally (generally the former), it causes secretion of growth hormone within minutes and peak concentrations in 1 h. The action is selective for the

somatotrophs in the anterior pituitary, and no other pituitary hormones are affected. *Unwanted effects* are rare.

Thyrotrophin-Releasing Hormone (Protirelin)

Thyrotrophin-releasing hormone (TRH) from the hypothalamus releases thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) from the thyrotrophs. **Protirelin** is a synthetic TRH used for the diagnosis of thyroid disorders (see Ch. 33). Given intravenously in normal subjects, it causes an increase in plasma TSH concentration, whereas in patients with *hyper*thyroidism there is a blunted response because the raised blood thyroxine concentration has a negative feedback effect on the anterior pituitary. The opposite occurs with *hypo*thyroidism, where there is an intrinsic defect in the thyroid itself.

Corticotrophin-Releasing Factor

Corticotrophin-releasing factor (CRF) is a peptide that releases **adrenocorticotrophic hormone** (ACTH, corticotrophin) and β-endorphin from the corticotrophs. CRF acts synergistically with *antidiuretic hormone* (ADH; arginine-**vasopressin**), and both its action and its release are inhibited by *glucocorticoids* (see Fig. 32.4, below). Synthetic preparations have been used to test the ability of the pituitary to secrete ACTH, and to assess whether ACTH deficiency is caused by a pituitary or a hypothalamic defect. It has also been used to evaluate hypothalamic pituitary function after therapy for Cushing's syndrome (see Fig. 32.7, below).

Anterior Pituitary Hormones

The main hormones of the anterior pituitary are listed in Table 32.1. The gonadotrophins are dealt with in Chapter 34 and TSH in Chapter 33. The remainder are dealt with below.

Growth Hormone (Somatotrophin)

Growth hormone is secreted by the somatotroph cells and is the most abundant pituitary hormone. Secretion is high in the newborn, decreasing at 4 years to an intermediate level, which is then maintained until after puberty, after which there is a further decline. Several recombinant preparations of growth hormone, or **somatropin**, are available for treating growth defects and other developmental problems (see below).

Regulation of secretion

Secretion of growth hormone is regulated by the action of hypothalamic GHRF and modulated by somatostatin, as described above and outlined in Figure 32.2. One of the mediators of growth hormone action, *insulin-like growth factor* (*IGF*)*-1*, which is released from the liver (see below), has an inhibitory effect on growth hormone secretion by stimulating somatostatin release from the hypothalamus.

Growth hormone release, like other anterior pituitary secretions, is pulsatile, and its plasma concentration may fluctuate 10-to 100-fold. These surges occur repeatedly during the day and night, and reflect the dynamics of hypothalamic control. Deep sleep is a potent stimulus to growth hormone secretion, particularly in children.

Actions

The main effect of growth hormone (and its analogues) is to stimulate normal growth and, in doing this, it affects many tissues, acting in conjunction with other hormones secreted from the thyroid, the gonads and the adrenal cortex. It stimulates hepatic production of the IGFs—also termed *somatomedins*—which mediate most of its anabolic actions. Receptors for IGF-1 (the principal mediator) exist on many cell types,

including liver cells and fat cells.

Growth hormone stimulates the uptake of amino acids and protein synthesis, especially in skeletal muscle. IGF-1 mediates many of these anabolic effects, acting on skeletal muscle and also on the cartilage at the epiphyses of long bones, thus influencing bone growth.

Disorders of production and clinical use

Deficiency of growth hormone results in *pituitary dwarfism*. In this condition, which may result from lack of GHRF or a failure of IGF generation or action, the normal proportions of the body are maintained. Growth hormone is used therapeutically in patients (often children) with growth hormone deficiency and with the short stature associated with the chromosomal disorder known as *Turner's syndrome*. It may also be used to correct chronic renal insufficiency in children. Satisfactory linear growth can be achieved by giving **somatropin** subcutaneously, six to seven times per week, and therapy is most successful when started early. Humans are insensitive to growth hormone of other species, so human growth hormone (hGH) must be used clinically. This used to be obtained from human cadavers, but this led to the spread of *Creutzfeldt–Jacob disease*, a prion-mediated neurodegenerative disorder (Ch. 39). hGH is now prepared by recombinant DNA technology, which avoids this risk. Human recombinant IGF-1 is also available (**mecasermin**) for the treatment of growth failure in children who lack adequate amounts of this hormone. hGH is also used illicitly by athletes (see Ch. 58) to increase muscle mass. The large doses used have serious side effects, causing abnormal bone growth and cardiomegaly. It has also been tested as a means of combating the bodily changes in senescence; clinical trials have shown increases in body mass, but no functional improvement.

An excessive production of growth hormone in children results in

gigantism. An excessive production in adults, which is usually the result of a benign pituitary tumour, results in *acromegaly*, in which there is enlargement mainly of facial structures and of the hands and feet. The dopamine agonist **bromocriptine** and octreotide may mitigate the condition. Another useful agent is **pegvisomant**, a modified version of growth hormone prepared by recombinant technology that is a highly selective antagonist of growth hormone actions.

Prolactin

Prolactin is secreted from the anterior pituitary by lactotroph (mammotroph) cells. These are abundant in the gland and increase in number during pregnancy, probably under the influence of oestrogen.

Regulation of secretion

Prolactin secretion is under tonic inhibitory control by the hypothalamus (Fig. 32.3 and Table 32.1), the inhibitory mediator being dopamine (acting on D_2 receptors on the lactotrophs). The main stimulus for release is suckling; in rats, both the smell and the sounds of hungry pups are also effective triggers. Neural reflexes from the breast may stimulate the secretion from the hypothalamus of prolactin-releasing factor(s), possible candidates for which include TRH and **oxytocin**. Oestrogens increase both prolactin secretion and the proliferation of lactotrophs through release, from a subset of lactotrophs, of the neuropeptide *galanin*. Dopamine antagonists (used mainly as antipsychotic drugs; see Ch. 45) are potent stimulants of prolactin release, whereas agonists such as bromocriptine (see below and also Chs 38 and 45) suppress prolactin release. Bromocriptine is also used in parkinsonism (Ch. 39).

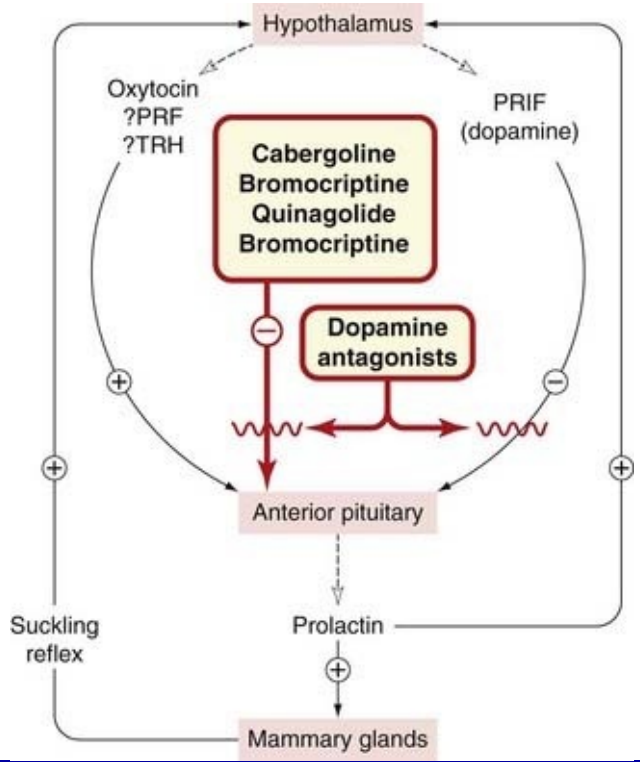


Fig. 32.3 Control of prolactin secretion.

Drugs are shown in red-bordered boxes. PRF, prolactin-releasing factor(s); PRIF, prolactin release-inhibiting factor(s); TRH, thyrotrophin-releasing hormone.

Actions

There are at least three specific receptor subtypes that bind prolactin, and these are not only found in the mammary gland but are widely distributed throughout the body, including the brain, ovary, heart and lungs. The main function of prolactin in women is the control of milk production. At parturition, when the blood level of oestrogen falls, the prolactin concentration rises and lactation is initiated. Maintenance of lactation depends on suckling (see above), which causes a 10-to 100-fold increase within 30 min.

Together with other hormones, prolactin is responsible for the proliferation and differentiation of mammary tissue during pregnancy. It inhibits gonadotrophin release and/or the response of the ovaries to

these trophic hormones. This is one of the reasons why ovulation does not usually occur during breastfeeding, and it is believed to constitute a natural contraceptive mechanism.

▼ According to one rather appealing hypothesis, the high postpartum concentration of prolactin reflects its biological function as a 'parental' hormone. Certainly, broodiness and nest-building activity can be induced in birds, mice and rabbits by prolactin injections. Prolactin also exerts other, apparently unrelated, actions, including stimulating mitogenesis in lymphocytes. There is some evidence that it may play a part in regulating immune responses.

Modification of prolactin secretion

Prolactin itself is not used clinically. Bromocriptine, a dopamine receptor agonist, is used to decrease excessive prolactin secretion (*hyperprolactinaemia*). It is well absorbed orally, and peak concentrations occur after 2 h. Unwanted reactions include nausea and vomiting. Dizziness, constipation and postural hypotension may also occur. **Cabergoline** and **quinagolide** are similar.

Clinical uses of bromocriptine

• To prevent lactation.

• To treat galactorrhoea (i.e. non-puerperal lactation in either sex), owing to excessive prolactin secretion.

• To treat prolactin-secreting pituitary tumours (prolactinomas).

• In the treatment of parkinsonism (Ch. 39) and of acromegaly.

Adrenocorticotrophic Hormone

Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH, corticotrophin) is the anterior

pituitary secretion that controls the synthesis and release of the glucocorticoids of the adrenal cortex (see Table 32.1). It is a 39-residue peptide derived from the precursor *pro-opiomelanocortin* (POMC; Ch. 19) by sequential proteolytic processing. Failure of ACTH action because of defects in its receptor or intracellular signalling pathways can lead to severe glucocorticoid deficiency (Chan et al., 2008). Details of the regulation of ACTH secretion are shown in Figure 32.4.

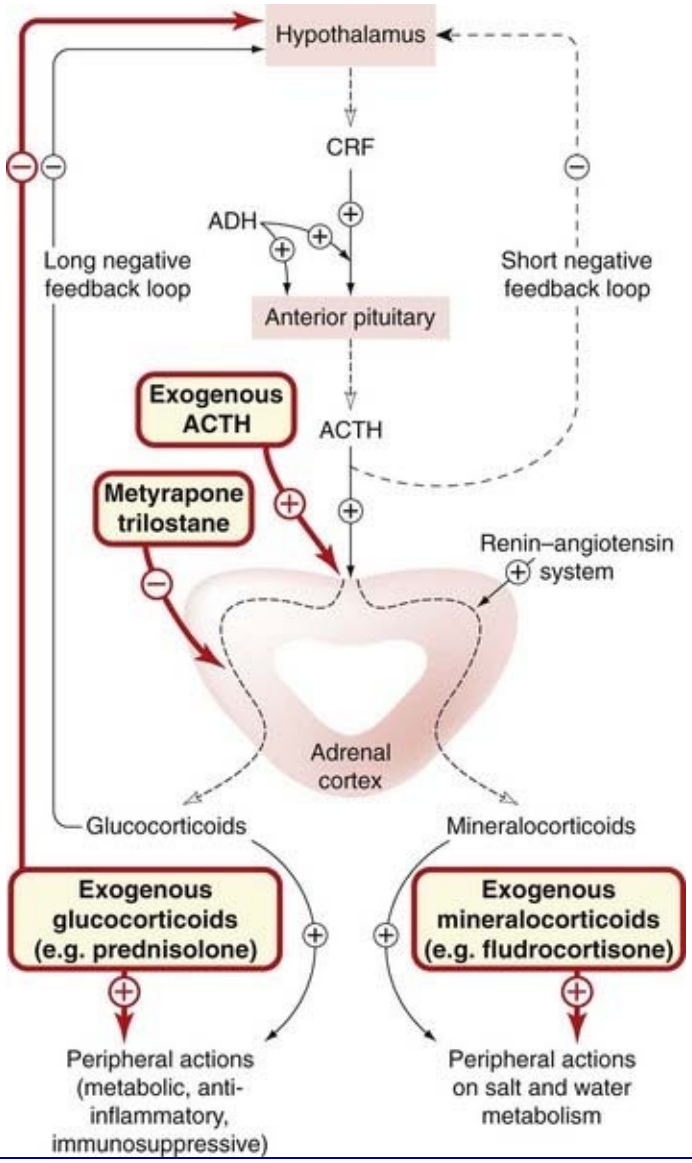


Fig. 32.4 Regulation of synthesis and secretion of adrenal corticosteroids.

The long negative feedback loop is more important than the short loop (dashed lines).

Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH, corticotrophin) has only a minimal effect on mineralocorticoid production. Drugs are shown in red-bordered boxes. ADH, antidiuretic hormone (vasopressin); CRF, corticotrophin-releasing factor.

▼ This hormone occupies (together with cortisone) an important place in the history of inflammation therapy because of the work of Hench and his colleagues in the 1940s, who first observed that both substances had anti-inflammatory effects in patients with rheumatoid disease. The effect of ACTH was thought to be secondary to stimulation of the adrenal cortex but, interestingly, the hormone also has anti-inflammatory actions in its own right, through activation of macrophage (melanocortin) MC_3 receptors (Getting et al., 2002).

Adrenocorticotrophic hormone itself is not often used in therapy today, because its action is less predictable than that of the corticosteroids and it may provoke antibody formation. **Tetracosactide**, a synthetic polypeptide that consists of the first 24 N-terminal residues of human ACTH, has the same drawbacks but is now widely used in its stead for assessing the competency of the adrenal cortex (see below).

The concentration of ACTH in the blood is reduced by glucocorticoids, forming the basis of the ***dexamethasone*** *suppression test*.

Actions

Tetracosactide and ACTH have two actions on the adrenal cortex:

1 Stimulation of the synthesis and release of glucocorticoids. This action occurs within minutes of injection, and the main biological actions are those of the steroids released.

2 A trophic action on adrenal cortical cells, and regulation of the levels of key mitochondrial steroidogenic enzymes. The loss of this effect accounts for the adrenal atrophy that results from chronic

glucocorticoid administration, which suppresses ACTH secretion.

The main use of tetracosactide is in the diagnosis of adrenal cortical insufficiency. The drug is given intramuscularly or intravenously, and the concentration of hydrocortisone in the plasma is measured by radioimmunoassay.

Melanocyte-Stimulating Hormone (MSH)

α-, β-and γ-MSH are peptide hormones with structural similarity to ACTH and are derived from the same precursor. Together, these peptides are referred to as *melanocortins*, because their first recognised action was to stimulate the production of melanin by specialised skin cells called *melanocytes*. As such, they play an important part in determining hair coloration, skin colour and reaction to ultraviolet light.

Melanocyte-stimulating hormone acts on *melanocortin receptors*, of which five ($MC_{1–5}$) have been cloned. These are G-protein-coupled receptors that activate cAMP synthesis. Melanin formation is under the control of the MC_1 receptor, and excessive α-MSH production can provoke abnormal proliferation of melanocytes and may predispose to melanoma.

▼ Melanocortins exhibit numerous other biological effects. For example, α-MSH inhibits the release of interleukin IL-1β and tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α, reduces neutrophil infiltration, and exhibits anti-inflammatory and antipyretic activity. Levels of α-MSH are increased in synovial fluid of patients with rheumatoid arthritis. MC_1 and MC_3 receptors mediate the immunomodulatory effect of MSH. Agonists at these receptors with potential anti-inflammatory activity are being sought. Central injection of α-MSH also causes changes in animal behaviour, such as increased grooming and sexual activity as well as reduced feeding.

γ-MSH increases blood pressure, heart rate and cerebral blood flow following intracerebroventricular or intravenous injection. These effects are likely mediated by the MC_4 receptor.

Two naturally occurring ligands for melanocortin receptors (*agouti-signalling protein* and *agouti-related peptide*, together called the *agouti*) have been discovered in human tissues. These are proteins that competitively antagonise the effect of MSH at melanocortin receptors.

The anterior pituitary gland and hypothalamus

• The anterior pituitary gland secretes hormones that regulate:

– the release of *glucocorticoids* from the adrenal cortex

– the release of *thyroid* hormones

– *ovulation* in the female and *spermatogenesis* in the male, and the *release of sex hormones*

– *growth*

– *mammary gland* structure and function.

• Each anterior pituitary hormone is regulated by a specific hypothalamic releasing factor. Feedback mechanisms govern the release of these factors. Substances available for clinical use include:

– *growth hormone-releasing factor* (sermorelin) and analogues of growth hormone (somatropin)

– *thyrotrophin-releasing factor* (protirelin) and *thyroid-stimulating hormone* (thyrotrophin; used to test thyroid function)

– octreotide and lanreotide, analogues of *somatostatin*, which inhibit growth hormone release

– *corticotrophin-releasing factor*, used in diagnosis

– *gonadotrophin-releasing factor*.

Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (corticotrophin) and the adrenal

steroids

• Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) stimulates synthesis and release of glucocorticoids (e.g. hydrocortisone), and also some androgens, from the adrenal cortex.

• Corticotrophin-releasing factor (CRF) from the hypothalamus regulates ACTH release, and is regulated in turn by neural factors and negative feedback effects of plasma glucocorticoids.

• Mineralocorticoid (e.g. aldosterone) release from the adrenal cortex is controlled by the renin–angiotensin system.

Posterior Pituitary Gland (Neurohypophysis)

The neurohypophysis consists largely of the terminals of nerve cells that lie in the *supraoptic* and *paraventricular* nuclei of the hypothalamus. Their axons form the *hypothalamic–hypophyseal tract*, and the fibres terminate in dilated nerve endings in close association with capillaries in the posterior pituitary gland (Fig. 32.1). Peptides, synthesised in the hypothalamic nuclei, pass down these axons into the posterior pituitary, where they are stored and eventually secreted into the bloodstream.

The two main hormones of the posterior pituitary are **oxytocin** (which contracts the smooth muscle of the uterus; for details see Ch. 34) and ADH (also called **vasopressin**; see Chs 22 and 28). Several similar peptides have been synthesised that vary in their antidiuretic, vasopressor and oxytocic (uterine stimulant) properties.

Antidiuretic Hormone

Regulation of secretion and physiological role

Antidiuretic hormone released from the posterior pituitary has a crucial role in the control of the water content of the body through its action on the cells of the distal part of the nephron and the collecting tubules in

the kidney (see Ch. 28). The hypothalamic nuclei that control fluid balance lie close to the nuclei that synthesise and secrete ADH.

One of the main stimuli to ADH release is an increase in plasma osmolarity (which produces a sensation of thirst). A decrease in circulating blood volume (hypovolaemia) is another, and here the stimuli arise from stretch receptors in the cardiovascular system or from angiotensin release. *Diabetes insipidus* is a condition in which large volumes of dilute urine are produced because ADH secretion is reduced or absent, or because of a reduced sensitivity of the kidney to the hormone.

Antidiuretic hormone receptors

There are three classes of receptor for ADH: V_1, V_2 and V_3. V_2 receptors stimulate adenylyl cyclase, which mediates its main physiological actions in the kidney, whereas the V_1 and V_3 receptors are coupled to the phospholipase C/inositol trisphosphate system.

Actions

Renal actions

Antidiuretic hormone binds to V_2 receptors in the basolateral membrane of the cells of the distal tubule and collecting ducts of the nephron. Its main effect in the collecting duct is to increase the rate of insertion of water channels (*aquaporins*) into the lumenal membrane, thus increasing the permeability of the membrane to water (see Ch. 28). It also activates urea transporters and transiently increases Na^+ absorption, particularly in the distal tubule.

Several drugs affect the action of ADH. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and **carbamazepine** increase, and **lithium**, **colchicine** and **vinca alkaloids** decrease, ADH effects. The effects of the

last two agents are secondary to their action on the microtubules required for translocation of water channels. The antagonist **demeclocycline** counteracts the action of ADH on renal tubules and can be used to treat patients with water retention combined with urinary salt loss (and thus hyponatraemia) caused by excessive secretion of the hormone. This *syndrome of inappropriate ADH secretion* ('SIADH') is seen in some patients with lung or other malignancies or following head injury. More specific antagonists of V_2 receptors are also used for SIADH and in some patients with heart failure (Ch. 22).

Other non-renal actions

Antidiuretic hormone causes contraction of smooth muscle, particularly in the cardiovascular system, by acting on V_1 receptors (see Ch. 22). The affinity of these receptors for ADH is lower than that of the V_2 receptors, and smooth muscle effects are seen only with doses larger than those affecting the kidney. ADH also stimulates blood platelet aggregation and mobilisation of coagulation factors. In the CNS, ADH acts as a neuromodulator and neurotransmitter. When released into the pituitary portal circulation, it promotes the release of ACTH from the anterior pituitary by an action on V_3 receptors (Fig. 32.4).

Pharmacokinetic aspects

ADH, as well as various peptide analogues, is used clinically either for the treatment of diabetes insipidus or as a vasoconstrictor. The analogues have been developed to (a) increase the duration of action and (b) shift the potency between V_1 and V_2 receptors.

The main substances used are vasopressin (ADH itself; short duration of action, weak selectivity for V_2 receptors, given by subcutaneous or intramuscular injection, or by intravenous infusion), **desmopressin**

(increased duration of action, V_2-selective and therefore fewer pressor effects, can be given by several routes including nasal spray) and **terlipressin** (increased duration of action, low but protracted vasopressor action and minimal antidiuretic properties). **Felypressin** is a short-acting vasoconstrictor that is injected with local anaesthetics such as **prilocaine** to prolong their action (see Ch. 42).

Vasopressin itself is rapidly eliminated, with a plasma half-life of 10 min and a short duration of action. Metabolism is by tissue peptidases, and 33% is removed by the kidney. Desmopressin is less subject to degradation by peptidases, and its plasma half-life is 75 min.

Unwanted effects

There are few unwanted effects and they are mainly cardiovascular in nature: intravenous vasopressin may cause spasm of the coronary arteries with resultant angina, but this risk can be minimised if the antidiuretic peptides are administered intranasally.

Posterior pituitary 

- The posterior pituitary secretes:
  - – oxytocin (see Ch. 34)
  - – antidiuretic hormone (vasopressin), which acts on V_2 receptors in the distal kidney tubule to increase water reabsorption and, in higher concentrations, on V_1 receptors to cause vasoconstriction. It also stimulates adrenocorticotrophic hormone secretion.
- Substances available for clinical use are vasopressin and the analogues desmopressin, felypressin and terlipressin.

Clinical uses of antidiuretic hormone (vasopressin) and analogues 

• Diabetes insipidus: **felypressin**, **desmopressin**.

• Initial treatment of bleeding *oesophageal varices*: **vasopressin**, **terlipressin**, **felypressin**. (Octreotide—a somatostatin analogue—is also used, but direct injection of sclerosant via an endoscope is the main treatment.)

• Prophylaxis against bleeding in *haemophilia* (e.g. before tooth extraction): **vasopressin**, **desmopressin** (by increasing the concentration of factor VIII).

• **Felypressin** is used as a vasoconstrictor with local anaesthetics (see Ch. 42).

• **Desmopressin** is used for persistent *nocturnal enuresis* in older children and adults.

The Adrenal Cortex

The adrenal glands consist of two parts: the inner *medulla*, which secretes catecholamines (see Ch. 14), and the outer *cortex*, which secretes adrenal steroids. The cortex, which concerns us in this section, comprises three concentric zones: the *zona glomerulosa* (the outermost layer) that elaborates mineralocorticoids, the *zona fasciculata* that elaborates glucocorticoids, and the innermost *zona reticularis*. While the principal adrenal steroids are those with glucocorticoid and mineralocorticoid[2] activity, some sex steroids (mainly androgens) are also secreted by the gland but are not considered further in this chapter.

[2]So named because early experimenters noticed that two crude fractions of adrenal gland extracts caused changes in blood glucose or salt and water retention.

The mineralocorticoids regulate water and electrolyte balance, and the main endogenous hormone is *aldosterone*. The glucocorticoids have widespread actions on intermediate metabolism, affecting carbohydrate and protein metabolism, as well as potent regulatory effects on host defence mechanisms (Ch. 6). The adrenal secretes a mixture of

glucocorticoids; the main hormone in humans is *hydrocortisone* (also, confusingly, called *cortisol*), and in rodents, *corticosterone*. The mineralocorticoid and glucocorticoid actions are not completely separated in naturally occurring steroids, some glucocorticoids having quite substantial effects on water and electrolyte balance. In fact, hydrocortisone and aldosterone are equiactive on mineralocorticoid receptors, but, in mineralocorticoid-sensitive tissues such as the kidney, the action of *11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase* converts hydrocortisone to the inactive metabolite *cortisone*,[3] thereby protecting the receptor from inappropriate activation.

[3]Oddly, it was cortisone that was originally demonstrated to have potent anti-inflammatory activity in the classic studies by Hench and his colleagues in 1949. The reason for this apparent anomaly is that an isoform of 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase present in some tissues can transform this steroid back into cortisol (i.e. hydrocortisone), thus restoring biological activity.

With the exception of *replacement therapy* (see below), glucocorticoids are most commonly employed for their anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive properties (see Ch. 26). Under these circumstances, all their metabolic and other actions are seen as unwanted side effects. Synthetic steroids have been developed in which it has been possible to separate, to some degree, the glucocorticoid from the mineralocorticoid actions (see Table 32.2), but it has not been possible to separate the anti-inflammatory from the other actions of the glucocorticoids completely.

Table 32.2 Comparison of the main corticosteroid agents used for systemic therapy (using hydrocortisone as a standard)

Compound	Relative affinity for receptor[a]	Approximate relative potency in clinical use		Duration of action after oral dose[b]	Comments
		Anti-inflammatory	Sodium retaining		
Hydrocortisone	1	1	1	Short	Drug of choice for replacement therapy (cortisol)
Cortisone	Prodrug	0.8	0.8	Short	Cheap; inactive until converted to hydrocortisone; not used as anti-inflammatory because of mineralocorticoid effects
Deflazacort	Prodrug	3	?	Short	Must be converted by plasma esterases into active metabolite Similar utility to prednisolone
Prednisolone	2.2	4	0.8	Intermediate	Drug of choice for systemic anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effects
Prednisone	Prodrug	4	0.8	Intermediate	Inactive until converted to prednisolone
Methylprednisolone	11.9	5	Minimal	Intermediate	Anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive
Triamcinolone	1.9	5	None	Intermediate	Relatively more toxic than others
Dexamethasone	7.1	27	Minimal	Long	Anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive, used especially where water retention is undesirable (e.g. cerebral oedema); drug of choice for suppression of adrenocorticotrophic hormone production
Betamethasone	5.4	27	Negligible	Long	Anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive, used especially when water retention is undesirable
Fludrocortisone	3.5	15	150	Short	Drug of choice for mineralocorticoid effects
Aldosterone	0.38	None	500	–	Endogenous mineralocorticoid

[a]Data obtained in human fetal lung cells.
[b]Duration of action (half-lives in hours): short, 8–12; intermediate, 12–36; long, 36–72.
Some drugs are inactive until converted to active compounds in vivo and therefore have negligible affinity for the glucocorticoid receptor.
(Data for relative affinity obtained from Baxter J D, Rousseau G G (eds) 1979 Glucocorticoid hormone action. Monographs on Endocrinology, vol 12. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.)

▼ The adrenal gland is essential to life, and animals deprived of these glands are able to survive only under rigorously controlled conditions. In humans, a deficiency in corticosteroid production, termed *Addison's disease*, is characterised by muscular weakness, low blood pressure, depression, anorexia, loss of weight and hypoglycaemia. Addison's disease may have an autoimmune aetiology, or it may result from destruction of the gland by chronic inflammatory conditions such as tuberculosis.

When corticosteroids are produced in excess, the clinical picture depends on which species predominates. Excessive glucocorticoid activity results in *Cushing's syndrome*, the manifestations of which are outlined in Figure 32.7. This can be caused by hypersecretion from the adrenal glands or by prolonged therapeutic use of glucocorticoids. An excessive production of mineralocorticoids results in disturbances of Na^+ and K^+ balance. This may occur with hyperactivity or tumours of the adrenals (*primary hyperaldosteronism*, or *Conn's syndrome*, an uncommon but important cause of hypertension; see Ch. 22), or with excessive activation of the renin–angiotensin system such as occurs in some forms of kidney disease, cirrhosis of the liver or congestive cardiac failure (*secondary hyperaldosteronism*).

Glucocorticoids

Synthesis and release

Glucocorticoids are not stored in the adrenal. They are synthesised under the influence of circulating ACTH secreted from the anterior pituitary gland (Fig. 32.4) and released in a pulsatile fashion into the blood. While they are always present, there is a well-defined circadian rhythm in the secretion in healthy humans, with the net blood concentration being highest early in the morning, gradually diminishing throughout the day and reaching a low point in the evening or night. ACTH secretion itself (also pulsatile in nature) is regulated by CRF released from the hypothalamus and vasopressin from the posterior gland. The release of both ACTH and CRF, in turn, is reflexly inhibited by the ensuing rising concentrations of glucocorticoids in the blood. This functional hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal unit is referred to as the *HPA axis*.

Opioid peptides also exercise a tonic inhibitory control on the secretion of CRF, and psychological factors can affect the release of both

vasopressin and CRF, as can stimuli such as excessive heat or cold, injury or infections. This is the principal mechanism whereby the HPA axis is activated in response to a threatening environment.

The precursor of glucocorticoids is cholesterol (Fig. 32.5). The initial conversion of cholesterol to *pregnenolone* is the rate-limiting step and is itself regulated by ACTH. Some of the reactions in the biosynthetic pathway can be inhibited by drugs. **Metyrapone** prevents the β-hydroxylation at C11, and thus the formation of hydrocortisone and corticosterone. Synthesis is blocked at the 11-deoxycorticosteriod stage, and as these substances have no effects on the hypothalamus and pituitary, there is a marked increase in ACTH in the blood. Metyrapone can therefore be used to test ACTH production, and may also be used to treat patients with Cushing's syndrome. **Trilostane** (also of use in Cushing's syndrome and primary hyperaldosteronism) blocks an earlier enzyme in the pathway—the *3β-dehydrogenase*.

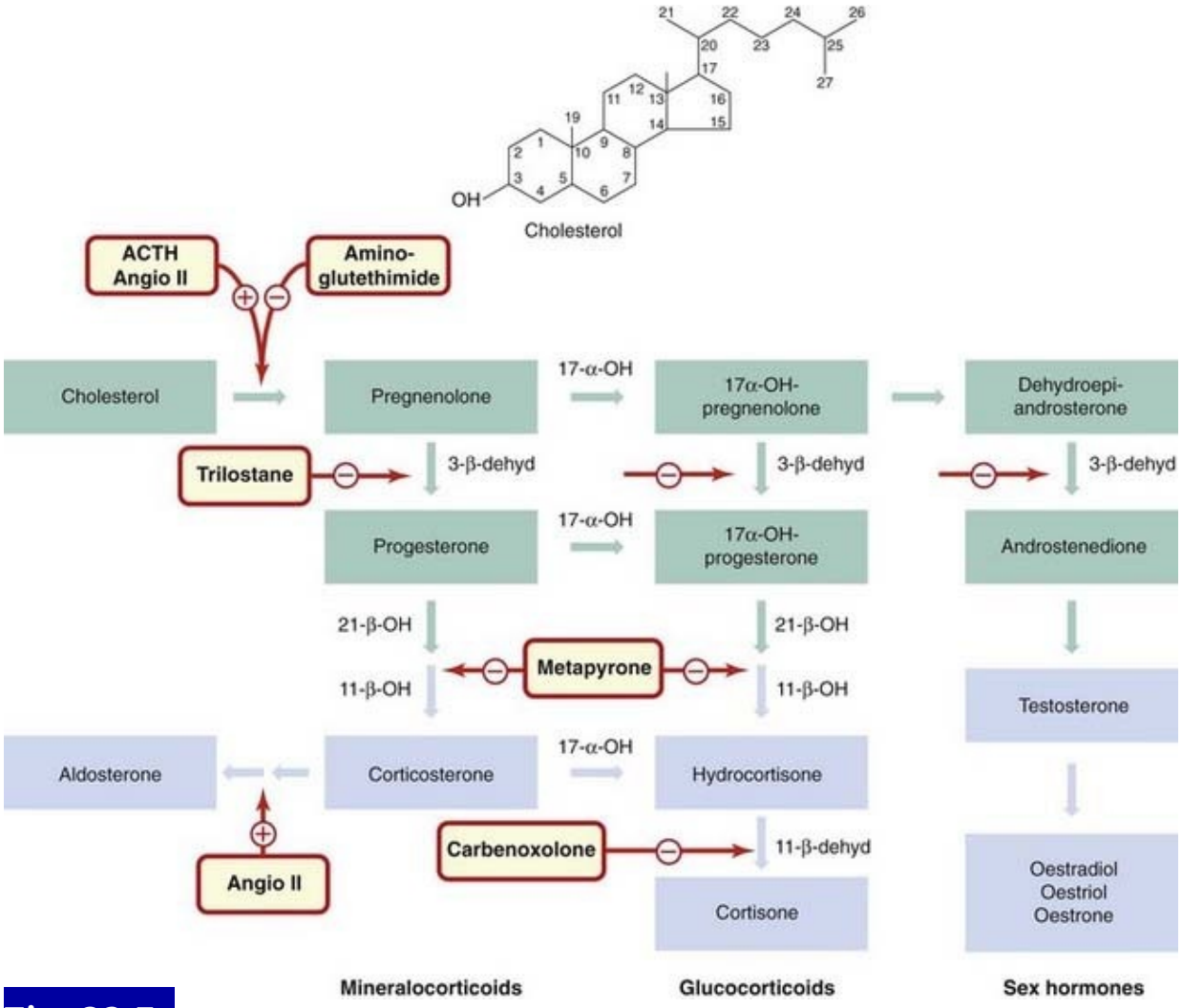


Fig. 32.5 Biosynthesis of corticosteroids, mineralocorticoids and sex hormones.

All steroid hormones are synthesised from cholesterol. Successive steps of hydroxylation and dehydrogenation are important in the biosynthetic pathway and are targets for drugs. Intermediates are shown in green boxes; interconversions occur between the pathways. Blue boxes indicate circulating hormones. Drugs are shown in red-bordered boxes adjacent to their sites of action. Glucocorticoids are produced by cells of the zona fasciculata, and their synthesis is stimulated by adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH); aldosterone is produced by cells of the zona glomerulosa, and its synthesis is stimulated by angiotensin II (angio II). Metyrapone inhibits glucocorticoid synthesis, aminoglutethimide and trilostane block synthesis of all three types of adrenal steroid (see text for details). Carbenoxolone inhibits the interconversion of hydrocortisone and cortisone in the kidney. Enzymes: 17-α-OH, 17-α-hydroxylase; 3-β-dehyd, 3-β-dehydrogenase; 21-β-OH, 21-β-hydroxylase; 11-β-OH, 11-β-hydroxylase; 11-β-dehyd, 11-β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase.

Aminoglutethimide inhibits the initial step in the biosynthetic

pathway and has the same overall effect as metyrapone. **Ketoconazole**, an antifungal agent (Ch. 52), used in higher doses also inhibits steroidogenesis and may be of value in the specialised treatment of Cushing's syndrome.

Glucocorticoids

Common drugs used systemically include hydrocortisone, prednisolone and dexamethasone.

Metabolic actions

• *Carbohydrates*: decreased uptake and utilisation of glucose accompanied by increased gluconeogenesis; this causes a tendency to hyperglycaemia.

• *Proteins*: increased catabolism, reduced anabolism.

• *Lipids*: a permissive effect on lipolytic hormones and a redistribution of fat, as observed in Cushing's syndrome.

Regulatory actions

• *Hypothalamus* and *anterior pituitary gland*: a negative feedback action resulting in reduced release of endogenous glucocorticoids.

• *Cardiovascular system*: reduced vasodilatation, decreased fluid exudation.

• *Musculoskeletal*: decreasing osteoblast and increasing osteoclast activity.

• *Inflammation* and *immunity*:

– *acute inflammation*: decreased influx and activity of leukocytes

– *chronic inflammation*: decreased activity of mononuclear cells, decreased angiogenesis, less fibrosis

– *lymphoid tissues*: decreased clonal expansion of T and B cells, and decreased action of cytokine-secreting T cells. Switch from Th1 to Th2 response.

• *Mediators*:

– decreased production and action of cytokines, including interleukins, tumour necrosis factor-α and granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor

– reduced generation of eicosanoids

– decreased generation of IgG

– decrease in complement components in the blood

– increased release of anti-inflammatory factors such as interleukin-10 and annexin 1.

• *Overall effects*: reduction in the activity of the innate and acquired immune systems, but also decreased healing and diminution in the protective aspects of the inflammatory response.

Mechanism of action

The glucocorticoid effects relevant to this discussion are initiated by interaction of the drugs with specific intracellular glucocorticoid receptors belonging to the nuclear receptor superfamily (although there may be other binding proteins or sites; see Norman et al., 2004). This superfamily (see Ch. 3) also includes the receptors for mineralocorticoids, the sex steroids, thyroid hormones, vitamin D_3 and retinoic acid. The actual mechanism of transcriptional control is complex with at least four mechanisms operating within the nucleus. These are summarised diagrammatically in Figure 32.6.

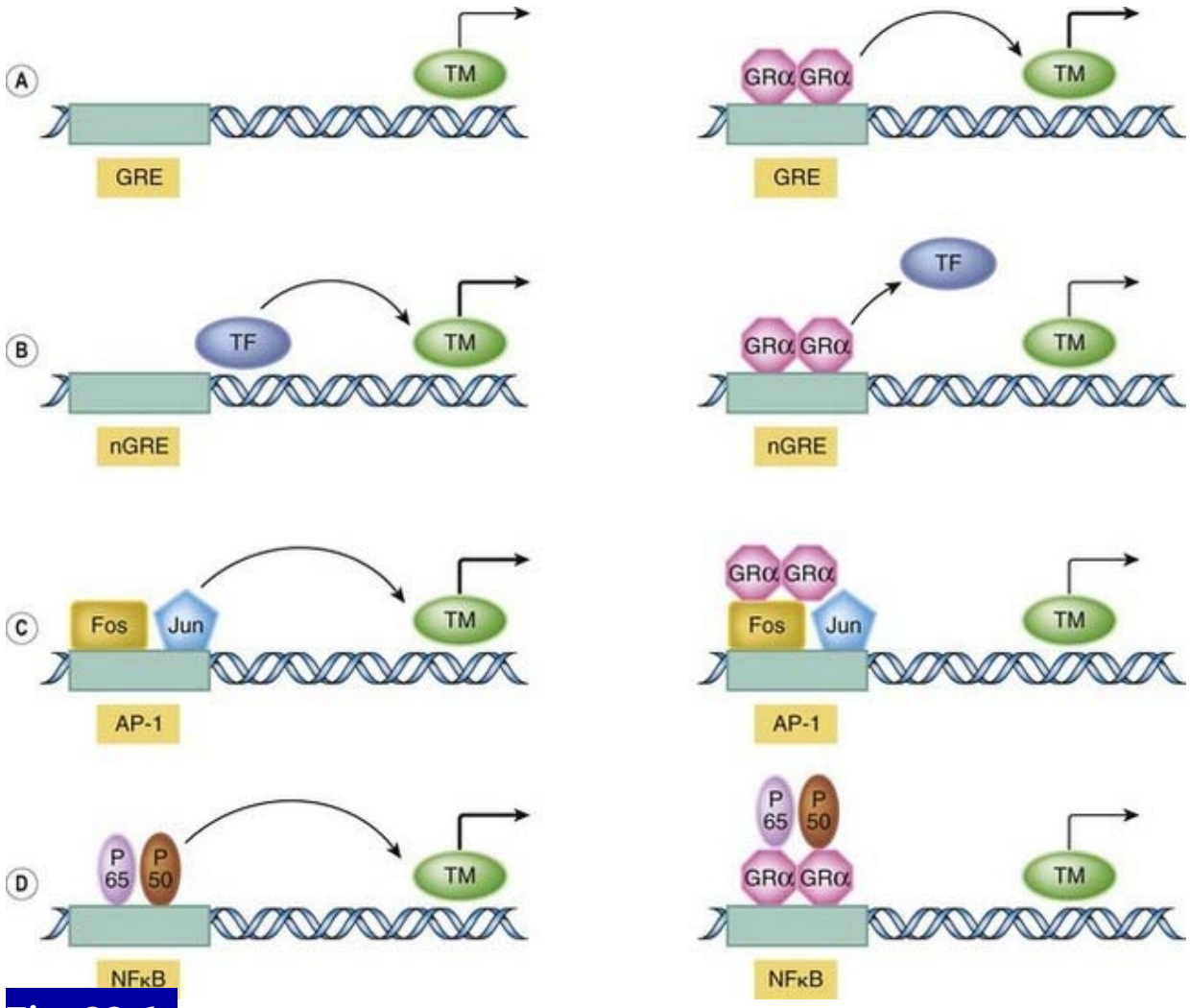


Fig. 32.6 Molecular mechanism of action of glucocorticoids.

The schematic figure shows three possible ways by which the liganded glucocorticoid receptor can control gene expression following translocation to the nucleus. [**A**] Basic transactivation mechanism. Here, the transcriptional machinery (TM) is presumed to be operating at a low level. The liganded glucocorticoid receptor (GR) dimer binds to one or more 'positive' glucocorticoid response elements (GREs) within the promoter sequence (shaded zone) and upregulates transcription. [**B**] Basic transrepression mechanism. The transcriptional machinery is constitutively driven by transcription factors (TF). In binding to the 'negative' GRE (nGRE), the receptor complex displaces these factors and expression falls. [**C**] Fos/Jun mechanism. Transcription is driven at a high level by Fos/Jun transcription factors binding to their AP-1 regulatory site. This effect is reduced in the presence of the GR. [**D**] Nuclear factor (NF)κβ mechanism. The transcription factors P65 and P50 bind to the NFκβ site, promoting gene expression. This is prevented by the presence of the GR, which binds the transcription factors, preventing their action (this may occur in the cytoplasm also). (For further details of the structure of the glucocorticoid receptor, see Ch. 3.)

(Modified from Oakley R H, Cidlowski J A in Goulding N J, Flower R J (eds) 2001 Glucocorticoids. Birkhauser Verlag.)

In addition to controlling gene expression, the liganded receptor itself, in either a monomeric or a dimeric form, may trigger important signal transduction events while still in the cytosolic compartment (there may even be a subpopulation of receptors that reside there permanently). One of these cytosolic effects, germane to the anti-inflammatory action of these drugs, is the release, following phosphorylation, of the protein *annexin-1*, which has potent inhibitory effects on leukocyte trafficking and other biological actions. The significance of such 'receptor-mediated, nongenomic' actions is that they can happen very rapidly (within seconds), as they do not entail changes in protein synthesis that require a longer time frame.

Actions

General metabolic and systemic effects

The main metabolic effects are on carbohydrate and protein metabolism. The glucocorticoids cause both a decrease in the uptake and utilisation of glucose and an increase in gluconeogenesis, resulting in a tendency to hyperglycaemia (see Ch. 30). There is a concomitant increase in glycogen storage, which may be a result of insulin secretion in response to the increase in blood sugar. Overall, there is decreased protein synthesis and increased protein breakdown, particularly in muscle, and this can lead to wasting. Glucocorticoids also have a 'permissive' effect on the cAMP-dependent lipolytic response to catecholamines and other hormones. Such hormones cause lipase activation through a cAMP-dependent kinase, the synthesis of which requires the presence of glucocorticoids (see below). Large doses of glucocorticoids given over a long period result in the redistribution of body fat characteristic of

Cushing's syndrome (Fig. 32.7).

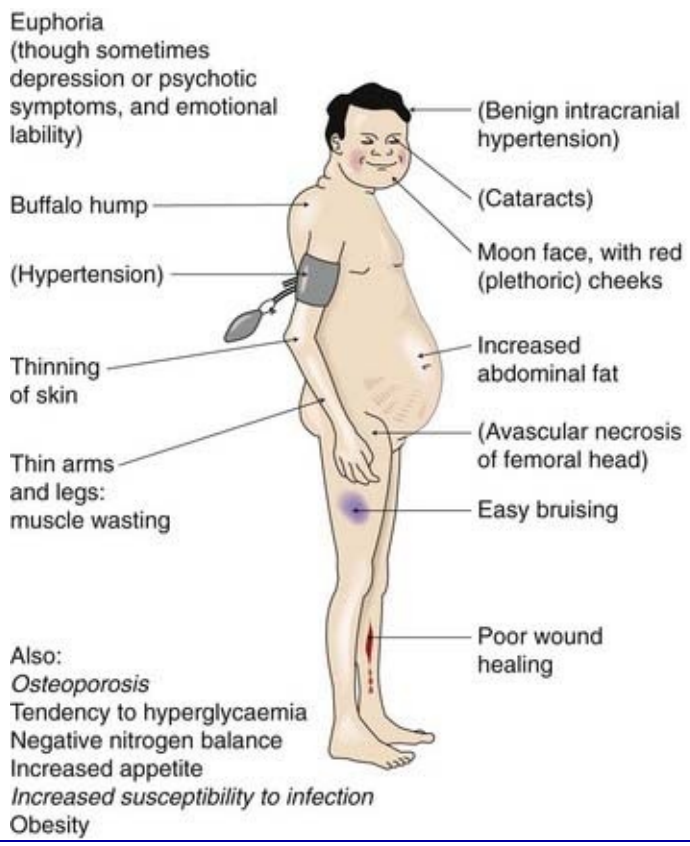


Fig. 32.7 Cushing's syndrome.

This is caused by excessive exposure to glucocorticoids, and may be caused by disease (e.g. an adrenocorticotrophic hormone-secreting tumour) or by prolonged administration of glucocorticoid drugs (iatrogenic Cushing's). Italicised effects are particularly common. Less frequent effects, related to dose and duration of therapy, are shown in parentheses.

(Adapted from Baxter JD, Rousseau G G (eds) 1979 Glucocorticoid hormone action. Monographs on Endocrinology, vol 12. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.)

Glucocorticoids tend to produce a negative calcium balance by decreasing Ca^{2+} absorption in the gastrointestinal tract and increasing its excretion by the kidney. This may contribute to osteoporosis (see below). In higher, non-physiological concentrations, the glucocorticoids have some mineralocorticoid actions (see below), causing Na^{+} retention and K^{+} loss—possibly by swamping the protective 11β-hydroxysteriod

dehydrogenase and acting at mineralocorticoid receptors.

Negative feedback effects on the anterior pituitary and hypothalamus

Both endogenous and exogenous glucocorticoids have a negative feedback effect on the secretion of CRF and ACTH (see Fig. 32.4). Administration of exogenous glucocorticoids depresses the secretion of CRF and ACTH, thus inhibiting the secretion of endogenous glucocorticoids and potentially causing atrophy of the adrenal cortex. If therapy is prolonged, it may take many months to return to normal function when the drugs are stopped.

Anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive effects

That endogenous glucocorticoids maintain a low-level anti-inflammatory tonus can be readily demonstrated by observing the heightened response seen in adrenalectomised animals to even mild inflammatory stimuli. A failure of appropriate secretion in response to injury or infection may underlie certain chronic inflammatory human pathologies.

Exogenous glucocorticoids are the anti-inflammatory drugs *par excellence,* and when given therapeutically inhibit both the early and the late manifestations of inflammation, *i.e.* not only the initial redness, heat, pain and swelling, but also the later stages of wound healing and repair, and the proliferative reactions seen in chronic inflammation. They reverse virtually all types of inflammatory reaction, whether caused by invading pathogens, by chemical or physical stimuli, or by inappropriately deployed immune responses such as are seen in hypersensitivity or autoimmune disease. When used prophylactically to suppress graft rejection, glucocorticoids suppress the initiation and generation of an immune response mounted against this new ‘invader’ more efficiently than an established response in which clonal

proliferation has already occurred.

Given that the glucocorticoids are able to modify the expression of so many genes, and that the extent and direction of regulation varies between tissues and even at different times during disease, you will not be surprised to learn that their anti-inflammatory effects are fearsomely complex. Some prominent actions may be highlighted, but these should not be considered a complete list.

Actions on *inflammatory cells* include:

• decreased egress of neutrophils from blood vessels and reduced activation of neutrophils, macrophages and mast cells secondary to decreased transcription of the genes for cell adhesion factors and cytokines

• decreased overall activation of T-helper (Th) cells, reduced clonal proliferation of T cells, and a 'switch' from the Th1 to the Th2 immune response (see Ch. 6)

• decreased fibroblast function, less production of collagen and glycosaminoglycans, and thus reduced healing and repair

• reduced activity of osteoblasts but increased activation of osteoclasts and therefore a tendency to develop osteoporosis.

Action on the *mediators* of inflammatory and immune responses (Ch. 17) include:

• decreased production of prostanoids owing to decreased expression of cyclo-oxygenase-2

• decreased generation of many cytokines, including IL-1, IL-2, IL-3, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-8, tumour necrosis factor-α, cell adhesion factors and granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor, secondary to

inhibition of gene transcription

• reduction in the concentration of complement components in the plasma

• decreased generation of induced nitric oxide

• decreased histamine release from basophils and mast cells

• decreased IgG production

• increased synthesis of anti-inflammatory factors such as IL-10, IL-1-soluble receptor and annexin-1.

Inflammation is an important protective response designed to ensure the survival of an infected or injured host. It therefore strikes many as odd that we should not only have potent anti-inflammatory hormones circulating constantly in the blood, but that these should be dramatically increased during such threatening episodes. A useful explanatory paradigm is that of Munck et al. (1984): according to this idea, the anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive actions may play a crucial counter-regulatory role, in that they prevent excessive activation of inflammation and other powerful defence reactions that might, if unchecked, themselves threaten homeostasis. Certainly, this view is borne out by experimental work. While these drugs are of great value in treating conditions characterised by hypersensitivity and unwanted inflammation, they carry the hazard that they are able to suppress the same defence reactions that provide protection to infection and promote healing.

Mechanism of action of the glucocorticoids

• Glucocorticoids bind intracellular receptors that then dimerise, migrate to the nucleus and

interact with DNA to modify gene transcription, inducing synthesis of some proteins and inhibiting synthesis of others.

• Some rapid nongenomic effects of glucocorticoids have also been observed. These are mediated through signalling systems in the cytosol that are triggered by the liganded glucocorticoid receptor.

• *Metabolic actions*: most mediator proteins are enzymes, for example cAMP-dependent kinase, but not all actions on genes are known.

• *Anti-inflammatory* and *immunosuppressive actions*. Known actions include:

  – inhibition of transcription of the genes for inducible cyclo-oxygenase-2 and inducible nitric oxide synthase, cytokines and interleukins, cell adhesion molecules

  – block of vitamin D3-mediated induction of the osteocalcin gene in osteoblasts, and modification of transcription of the collagenase genes

  – increased synthesis and release of annexin-1 in cells of the innate immune system. This has potent anti-inflammatory effects on cells and mediator release, and may also mediate negative feedback at the level of the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary gland.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects occur with large doses or prolonged administration of glucocorticoids rather than replacement therapy, and are a serious problem. The major effects are as follows:

• *Suppression of the response to infection or injury*: opportunistic infection can be potentially very serious unless quickly treated with antimicrobial agents along with an increase in the dose of steroid. Wound healing is impaired, and peptic ulceration may also occur. Oral thrush (*candidiasis*, a fungal infection; see Ch. 52) frequently occurs when glucocorticoids are taken by inhalation, because of suppression of local anti-infective mechanisms.

• *Cushing's syndrome* (see Fig. 32.7).

• *Osteoporosis*, with the attendant hazard of fractures, is one of the main limitations to long-term glucocorticoid therapy. These drugs influence bone density both by regulation of calcium and phosphate metabolism and through effects on collagen turnover. They reduce osteoblast function (which deposits bone matrix) and increase the activity of osteoclasts (which digest bone matrix). An effect on the blood supply to bone can result in avascular necrosis of the head of the femur (see Ch. 35).

• *Hyperglycaemia* produced by exogenous glucocorticoids may develop into actual diabetes.

• *Muscle wasting* and proximal muscle weakness.

• In children, *inhibition of growth*[4] if treatment is continued for more than 6 months.

• *Central nervous system effects*: euphoria, depression and psychosis.

• *Other effects*: glaucoma (in genetically predisposed persons), raised intracranial pressure and an increased incidence of cataracts.

[4]However, some of the diseases for which glucocorticoids are indicated themselves retard growth. In a classical trial, glucocorticoid treatment *increased* growth in adolescents with inflammatory bowel disease as the disease resolved (Whittington et al., 1977).

Sudden withdrawal of the drugs after prolonged therapy may result in acute adrenal insufficiency through suppression of the patient's capacity to synthesise corticosteroids.[5] Careful procedures for phased withdrawal should be followed. Recovery of full adrenal function usually takes about 2 months, although it can take 18 months or more.

[5]Patients on long-term glucocorticoid therapy are advised to carry a card stating, ‘I am a patient on STEROID TREATMENT which must not be stopped abruptly’.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

There are many glucocorticoid drugs in therapeutic use. Although **cortisol**, the endogenous hormone, is often used, synthetic derivatives are even more common. These have different physicochemical properties as well as varying potency and have been optimised for administration by different routes. They may be administered orally, systemically or intra-articularly; given by aerosol into the respiratory tract, administered as drops into the eye or the nose, or applied in creams or ointments to the skin. Topical administration diminishes the likelihood of systemic toxic effects unless large quantities are used. When prolonged use of systemic glucocorticoids is necessary, therapy on alternate days may decrease suppression of the HPA axis and other unwanted effects.

As small lipophilic molecules, glucocorticoids probably enter their target cells by simple diffusion. Hydrocortisone has a plasma half-life of 90 min, although its main biological effects have a 2–8 h latency. Biological inactivation, which occurs in liver cells and elsewhere, is initiated by reduction of the C4–C5 double bond. Cortisone and **prednisone** are inactive until converted in vivo to hydrocortisone and **prednisolone**, respectively.

Endogenous glucocorticoids are transported in the plasma bound to *corticosteroid-binding globulin* (CBG) and to albumin. CBG accounts for about 77% of bound hydrocortisone, but many synthetic glucocorticoids are not bound at all. Albumin has a lower affinity for hydrocortisone but binds both natural and synthetic steroids. Both CBG-bound and albumin-

bound steroids are biologically inactive.

The clinical use of systemic glucocorticoids is given in the clinical box. **Dexamethasone** has a special use: it can be used to test HPA axis function in the *dexamethasone suppression test*. A relatively low dose, usually given at night, should suppress the hypothalamus and pituitary, and result in reduced ACTH secretion and hydrocortisone output, as measured in the plasma about 9 hours later. Failure of suppression implies hypersecretion of ACTH or of glucocorticoids (Cushing's syndrome).

Clinical uses of glucocorticoids 

• Replacement therapy for patients with adrenal failure (*Addison's disease*).

• Anti-inflammatory/immunosuppressive therapy (see also Ch. 26):

– in *asthma* (Ch. 27)

– topically in various inflammatory conditions of skin, eye, ear or nose (e.g. *eczema*, *allergic conjunctivitis* or *rhinitis*)

– *hypersensitivity states* (e.g. severe allergic reactions)

– in miscellaneous diseases with autoimmune and inflammatory components (e.g. *rheumatoid arthritis* and other 'connective tissue' diseases, *inflammatory bowel diseases*, some forms of *haemolytic anaemia*, *idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura*)

– to prevent *graft-versus-host disease* following organ or bone marrow transplantation.

• In *neoplastic* disease (Ch. 55):

– in combination with cytotoxic drugs in treatment of specific malignancies (e.g. *Hodgkin's disease*, *acute lymphocytic leukaemia*)

– to reduce cerebral oedema in patients with metastatic or primary *brain tumours* (**dexamethasone**).

Pharmacokinetics and unwanted actions of the glucocorticoids

• Administration can be oral, topical or parenteral. Most naturally occuring glucocorticoids are transported in the blood by corticosteroid-binding globulin or albumen and enter cells by diffusion. They are metabolised in the liver.

• Unwanted effects are seen mainly after prolonged systemic use as anti-inflammatory or immunosuppressive agents but not usually following replacement therapy. The most important are:

– suppression of response to infection

– suppression of endogenous glucocorticoid synthesis

– metabolic actions (see above)

– osteoporosis

– iatrogenic Cushing's syndrome (see Fig. 32.7).

Mineralocorticoids

The main endogenous mineralocorticoid is aldosterone. Its chief action is to increase Na^+ reabsorption by the distal tubules in the kidney, with concomitant increased excretion of K^+ and H^+ (see Ch. 28). An excessive secretion of mineralocorticoids, as in Conn's syndrome, causes marked Na^+ and water retention, with increased extracellular fluid volume, and sometimes hypokalaemia, alkalosis and hypertension. Decreased secretion, as in Addison's disease, causes Na^+ loss (desalinisation) and a marked decrease in extracellular fluid volume. There is a concomitant decrease in the excretion of K^+, resulting in hyperkalaemia.

Regulation of aldosterone synthesis and release

The regulation of the synthesis and release of aldosterone is complex. Control depends mainly on the electrolyte composition of the plasma and on the angiotensin II system (Fig. 32.4; Chs 22 and 28). Low plasma

Na^+ or high plasma K^+ concentrations affect the zona glomerulosa cells of the adrenal directly, stimulating aldosterone release. Depletion of body Na^+ also activates the renin–angiotensin system (see Fig. 22.4). One of the effects of angiotensin II is to increase the synthesis and release of aldosterone (see Fig. 28.5).

Mechanism of action

Like other steroid hormones, aldosterone acts through specific intracellular receptors of the nuclear receptor family. Unlike the glucocorticoid receptor, which occurs in most tissues, the *mineralocorticoid receptor* is restricted to a few tissues, such as the kidney and the transporting epithelia of the colon and bladder. Cells containing mineralocorticoid receptors also contain the 11β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 2 enzyme (see above), which converts hydrocortisone (cortisol) into inactive cortisone. This has a low affinity for the mineralocorticoid receptors, thus ensuring that the cells are appropriately affected only by the mineralocorticoid hormone itself. Interestingly, this enzyme is inhibited by **carbenoxolone** (previously used to treat gastric ulcers; see Ch. 29), a compound derived from liquorice. If this inhibition is marked, it allows corticosterone to act on the mineralocorticoid receptor, producing a syndrome similar to Conn's syndrome (primary hyperaldosteronism) except that the circulating aldosterone concentration is not raised.

As with the glucocorticoids, the interaction of aldosterone with its receptor initiates transcription and translation of specific proteins, resulting in an increase in the number of sodium channels in the apical membrane of the cell, and subsequently an increase in the number of Na^+-K^+-ATPase molecules in the basolateral membrane (see Fig. 28.5), causing increased K^+ excretion (see Ch. 28). In addition to the genomic

effects, there is evidence for a rapid nongenomic effect of aldosterone on Na^+ influx, through an action on the Na^+-H^+ exchanger in the apical membrane.

Clinical use of mineralocorticoids and antagonists

The main clinical use of mineralocorticoids is in replacement therapy. The most commonly used drug is **fludrocortisone** (Table 32.2 and Fig. 32.4), which can be taken orally. **Spironolactone** is a competitive antagonist of aldosterone, and it also prevents the mineralocorticoid effects of other adrenal steroids on the renal tubule (Ch. 28). Side effects include gynaecomastia and impotence, because spironolactone also has some blocking action on androgen and progesterone receptors. It is used to treat primary or secondary hyperaldosteronism and, in conjunction with other drugs, in the treatment of resistant hypertension and of heart failure (Ch. 22) and resistant oedema (Ch. 28). **Eplerenone** has a similar indication and mechanism of action, although fewer side effects.

Mineralocorticoids

Fludrocortisone is given orally to produce a mineralocorticoid effect. This drug:

- increases Na^+ reabsorption in distal tubules and increases K^+ and H^+ efflux into the tubules
- acts on intracellular receptors that modulate DNA transcription, causing synthesis of protein mediators
- is used together with a glucocorticoid in replacement therapy.

New Directions in Glucocorticoid Therapy

Glucocorticoids are highly effective in controlling inflammation, but severely limited by their unwanted effects. The ideal solution would be a

glucocorticoid possessing the anti-inflammatory but not the unwanted metabolic or other effects.

For many years, the pharmaceutical industry pursued this goal using simple strategies based on the development of structural analogues of hydrocortisone. While this yielded many new active and interesting compounds (several of which are in clinical use today), they never achieved 'separation' of the glucocorticoid actions.

Recently, investigators have taken another tack. It has been noted that glucocorticoids suppress inflammation largely by *down*regulating genes (e.g. cytokine genes) that promote the inflammatory response, whereas many of the side effects are caused by *over*expression of metabolic and other genes (causing, for example, diabetes). Because these effects are brought about through different molecular pathways, researchers have sought steroids that may exhibit one set of actions without the other. At the time of writing, modest successes have been achieved with these 'dissociated' steroids (see Schacke et al., 2002, 2005), but it is too early to tell whether they will really make a difference in the clinic.

A related idea has been to manipulate the *histone deacetylase* enzymes that are responsible for facilitating the transcriptional regulation of genes following nuclear receptor binding to response elements (Hayashi et al., 2004). One current notion is that there may be a specific isoform of this enzyme that deals with gene upregulation, and that if this could be inhibited, it would lessen the possibility of those unwanted effects.

Another approach has been to focus on the actual mechanism of receptor activation. It is clear that not all glucocorticoids bind to the receptor in the same way, and so the dynamics of the resulting liganded complex may vary (Adcock, 2003). This could be exploited to alter the ability of the steroid–receptor complex to initiate transcriptional and

other changes in a way that could be beneficial to the profile of the drug.

These (and other) ideas have been reviewed by Song et al., 2005, but despite their ingenuity it is depressing to report that none has yet made a major difference to the tolerability of these most useful drugs.

References and Further Reading

The hypothalamus and pituitary

irnbaumer M. Vasopressin receptors. *Trends Endocrinol. Metab.*. 2000;11:406-410.

hini B., Manning M., Guillon G. Affinity and efficacy of selective agonists and antagonists for vasopressin and oxytocin receptors: an ‘easy guide’ to receptor pharmacology. *Prog. Brain Res.*. 2008;170:513-517. (*The title is self-explanatory! Also deals with the prospects for new drugs in this area*)

lark R.G., Robinson C.A.F. Up and down the growth hormone cascade. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev.*. 1996;1:65-80. (*A review covering the cascade that controls the primary regulators of growth and metabolism, namely growth hormone and the insulin-like growth factors*)

rolet G., Rivest S. Corticotropin-releasing hormone and its receptors; an evaluation at the transcription level in vivo. *Peptides*. 2001;22:761-767.

reeman M.E., Kanyicska B., Lerant A., Nagy G. Prolactin: structure, function and regulation of secretion. *Physiol. Res.*. 2000;80:1524-1585. (*Comprehensive review of prolactin and its receptors*)

uillemin R. Hypothalamic hormones a.k.a. hypothalamic releasing factors. *J. Endocrinol.*. 2005;184:11-28. (*This little review focuses on the history of research in this area and covers the discovery and characterisation of the principal releasing factors. Something to read if you are drawn to this area*)

amberts S.W.J., van der Lely A.-J., de Herder W.W., Hofland L.J. Octreotide. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1996;334:246-254. (*A review covering somatostatin receptors, somatostatin analogues and treatment of tumours expressing somatostatin receptors with octreotide*)

laybauer M.O., Maybauer D.M., Enkhbaatar P., Traber D.L. Physiology of the vasopressin

receptors. *Best Pract. Res. Clin. Anaesthesiol.*. 2008;22:253-263. (*A small review written mainly from a clinical perspective. Discusses future therapeutic uses for receptor agonists*)

kada S., Kopchick J.J. Biological effects of growth hormone and its antagonist. *Trends Mol. Med.*. 2001;7:126-132.

rakash A., Goa K.L. Sermorelin: a review of its use in the diagnosis and treatment of children with idiopathic growth hormone deficiency. *BioDrugs*. 1999;12:139-157. (*Mainly a clinical appraisal of sermorelin utility in treating growth deficiency in contrast to growth hormone itself*)

chneider F., Tomek W., Grundker C. Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) and its natural analogues: a review. *Theriogenology*. 2006;66:691-709. (*Focuses mainly on the use of such agents in veterinary medicine*)

hibonnier M., Coles P., Thibonnier A., *et al.* The basic and clinical pharmacology of nonpeptide vasopressin receptor antagonists. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol.*. 2001;41:175-202. (*Authoritative account of ADH receptors and the search for new antagonists*)

ance M.L. Hypopituitarism. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1994;330:1651-1662. (*Review of causes, clinical features and hormone replacement therapy of hypopituitarism*)

/ikberg J.E.S., Muceniece R., Mandrika I., *et al.* New aspects on the melanocortins and their receptors. *Pharmacol. Res.*. 2000;42:393-420. (*Detailed review of the varied biological roles of melanocortins and their receptors*)

ACTH

han L.F., Clark A.J., Metherell L.A. Familial glucocorticoid deficiency: advances in the molecular understanding of ACTH action. *Horm. Res.*. 2008;69:75-82. (*This paper and the one below discuss research into the role of the ACTH signalling system in familial glucocorticoid deficiency. An expert piece of scientific detective work. The second paper is more accessible*)

lark A.J., Metherell L.A., Cheetham M.E., Huebner A. Inherited ACTH insensitivity illuminates the mechanisms of ACTH action. *Trends Endocrinol. Metab.*. 2005;16:451-457.

Mineralocorticoids

astl C., Hayslett J.P. The cellular action of aldosterone in target epithelia Kidney Int. 42:1992:250-264 (*A detailed review covering the aldosterone receptor and regulation of gene expression, aldosterone action on electrogenic and electroneutral* Na^+ *transport, and on* K^+ *and* H^+ *secretion*)

Glucocorticoids

Mechanism of action

dcock I.M. Glucocorticoids: new mechanisms and future agents. *Curr. Allergy Asthma. Rep.*. 2003;3:249-257. (*Excellent review of advances in glucocorticoid pharmacology*)

orski R.J. Nongenomic membrane actions of glucocorticoids in vertebrates. *Trends Endocrinol. Metab.*. 2000;11:427-436. (*A thought-provoking account of the nongenomic effects of glucocorticoids*)

uckingham J.C. Stress and the hypothalamo–pituitary–immune axis. *Int. J. Tissue React.*. 1998;20:23-34. (*Clear review of the complexities of the effect of stress on HPA axis function*)

'Acquisto F., Perretti M., Flower R.J. Annexin-A1: a pivotal regulator of the innate and adaptive immune systems. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;155:152-169. (*Reviews the role of the glucocorticoid-regulated protein annexin-A1 in mediating the anti-inflammatory action of glucocorticoid drugs*)

e Kloet E.R. Stress in the brain. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*. 2000;405:187-198.

berhardt W., Kilz T., Akool el-S., Müller R., Pfeilschifter J. Dissociated glucocorticoids equipotently inhibit cytokine-and cAMP-induced matrix degrading proteases in rat mesangial cells. *Biochem. Pharmacol.*. 2005;70:433-445. (*A research paper on the action of dissociated glucocorticoids on the expression of proteolytic enzymes during inflammation as an example of their action*)

alkenstein E., Tillmann H.C., Christ M., *et al.* Multiple actions of steroid hormones—a focus on rapid, nongenomic effects. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2000;52:513-556.

under J.W. Glucocorticoid and mineralocorticoid receptors: biology and clinical relevance. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 1997;48:231-240. (*Succinct review of glucocorticoid and mineralocorticoid receptors, differences in glucocorticoid receptor—and mineralocorticoid receptor-mediated transcription and*

responses, and steroid resistance)

etting S.J., Christian H.C., Flower R.J., Perretti M. Activation of melanocortin type 3 receptor as a molecular mechanism for adrenocorticotropic hormone efficacy in gouty arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum.*. 2002;46:2765-2775. (*Original paper that demonstrates that ACTH has intrinsic anti-inflammatory actions that are independent of the adrenals*)

ayashi R., Wada H., Ito K., Adcock I.M. Effects of glucocorticoids on gene transcription. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*. 2004;500:51-62. (*Good basic review of glucocorticoid action; easy to read*)

irwan J., Power L. Glucocorticoids: action and new therapeutic insights in rheumatoid arthritis. *Curr. Opin. Rheumatol.*. 2007;19:233-237. (*Written mainly from the viewpoint of a practising rheumatologist, this review offers interesting insights into the use of these drugs to modify severe chronic arthritic disease*)

amberts S.W.J., Bruining H.A., de Jong F.S. Corticosteroid therapy in severe illness. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1997;337:1285-1292. (*Review with succinct coverage of normal response of adrenal to illness, followed by more detail on clinical therapy*)

lunck A., Guyre P.M., Holbrook N.J. Physiological functions of glucocorticoids in stress and their relation to pharmacological actions. *Endocr. Rev.*. 1984;5:25-44. (*Seminal review suggesting that the anti-inflammatory/immunosuppressive actions of the glucocorticoids have a physiological function; required reading if you want to understand glucocorticoid physiology and pharmacology*)

orman A.W., Mizwicki M.T., Norman D.P. Steroid-hormone rapid actions, membrane receptors and a conformational ensemble model. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2004;3:27-41. (*Fairly advanced reading but contains many useful tables and excellent diagrams; well worth the effort if this subject interests you*)

hodes D., Klug A. Zinc fingers. *Sci. Am.*. 1993;268:32-39. (*Clear discussion of the role of zinc fingers, such as those utilised by nuclear receptors, in regulating gene transcription; excellent diagrams, of course*)

chacke H., Docke W.D., Asadullah K. Mechanisms involved in the side effects of glucocorticoids. *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2002;96:23-43. (*Useful review dealing with side effects and 'dissociated steroids'*)

chacke H., Rehwinkel H., Asadullah K. Dissociated glucocorticoid receptor ligands: compounds

with an improved therapeutic index. *Curr. Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2005;6:503-507. (*More details about the dissociated steroid concept, with several examples*)

chafer-Korting M., Kleuser B., Ahmed M., *et al.* Glucocorticoids for human skin: new aspects of the mechanism of action. *Skin Pharmacol. Physiol.*. 2005;18:103-114. (*The title is self-explanatory: good discussions of different mechanisms of glucocorticoid action*)

ong I.H., Gold R., Straub R.H., *et al.* New glucocorticoids on the horizon: repress, don't activate!. *J. Rheumatol.*. 2005;32:1199-1207. (*Good summary of the various approaches taken to circumvent glucocorticoid side effects*)

ak P.P., Firestein G.S. NF-kappaB: a key role in inflammatory diseases. *J. Clin. Invest.*. 2001;107:7-11. (*Succinct and very readable account of the role of nuclear factor (NF)κβ in inflammation*)

sai M.-J., O'Malley B.W. Molecular mechanisms of action of steroid/thyroid receptor superfamily members. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.*. 1994;63:451-486. (*Detailed review, by one of the pioneers of the field, of the molecular biology of these receptors, including gene activation and gene silencing*)

/hittington P.F., Barnes H.V., Bayless T.M. Medical management of Crohn's disease in adolescence. *Gastroenterology*. 1977;72:1338-1344.

/ilckens T. Glucocorticoids and immune dysfunction: physiological relevance and pathogenic potential of hormonal dysfunction. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1995;16:193-197. (*Covers glucocorticoid interaction with their receptors, heat shock protein 90, AP-1 and nuclear factor NFκβ transcription factors; clear diagrams*)

Books

uckingham J.C., Gillies G.E., Cowell A.M., editors. Stress, stress hormones and the immune system. Chichester: John Wiley, 1997. (*Another excellent source book for information that covers the concepts of stress, the release of cortisol and its subsequent physiological actions*)

oulding N.J., Flower R.J., editors. Milestones in drug therapy: glucocorticoids. Basel: Birkhäuser Verlag, 2001. (*A useful source of information on all aspects of glucocorticoid biology and pharmacology, containing chapters by some of the leaders in the field*)

33

The thyroid

Overview

Diseases of the thyroid gland are prevalent, and in this chapter we deal with drug therapy used to mitigate these disorders. We set the scene by briefly outlining the structure, regulation and physiology of the thyroid, and highlight the most common abnormalities of thyroid function. We then go on to consider the drugs that replace the thyroid hormones when these are deficient or cease to function adequately, and the drugs that decrease thyroid function when this is excessive.

Synthesis, Storage and Secretion of Thyroid Hormones

The thyroid gland secretes three main hormones: *thyroxine* (T_4), *tri-iodothyronine* (T_3) and *calcitonin*. T_4 and T_3 are critically important for normal growth and development and for controlling energy metabolism. Calcitonin is involved in the control of plasma [Ca^{2+}] and is used to treat osteoporosis and other metabolic bone diseases. It is dealt with in Chapter 35. The term *thyroid hormone* will be used here solely to refer to T_4 and T_3.

The functional unit of the thyroid is the *follicle* or *acinus*. Each follicle consists of a single layer of epithelial cells around a cavity, the follicle lumen, which is filled with a thick colloid containing *thyroglobulin*. Thyroglobulin is a large glycoprotein, each molecule of which contains about 115 tyrosine residues. It is synthesised, glycosylated and then

secreted into the lumen of the follicle, where iodination of the tyrosine residues occurs. Surrounding the follicles is a dense capillary network, and the rate of blood flow through the gland is very high in comparison with other tissues. The main steps in the synthesis, storage and secretion of thyroid hormone (Fig. 33.1) are:

- uptake of plasma iodide by the follicle cells
- oxidation of iodide and iodination of tyrosine residues of thyroglobulin
- secretion of thyroid hormone.

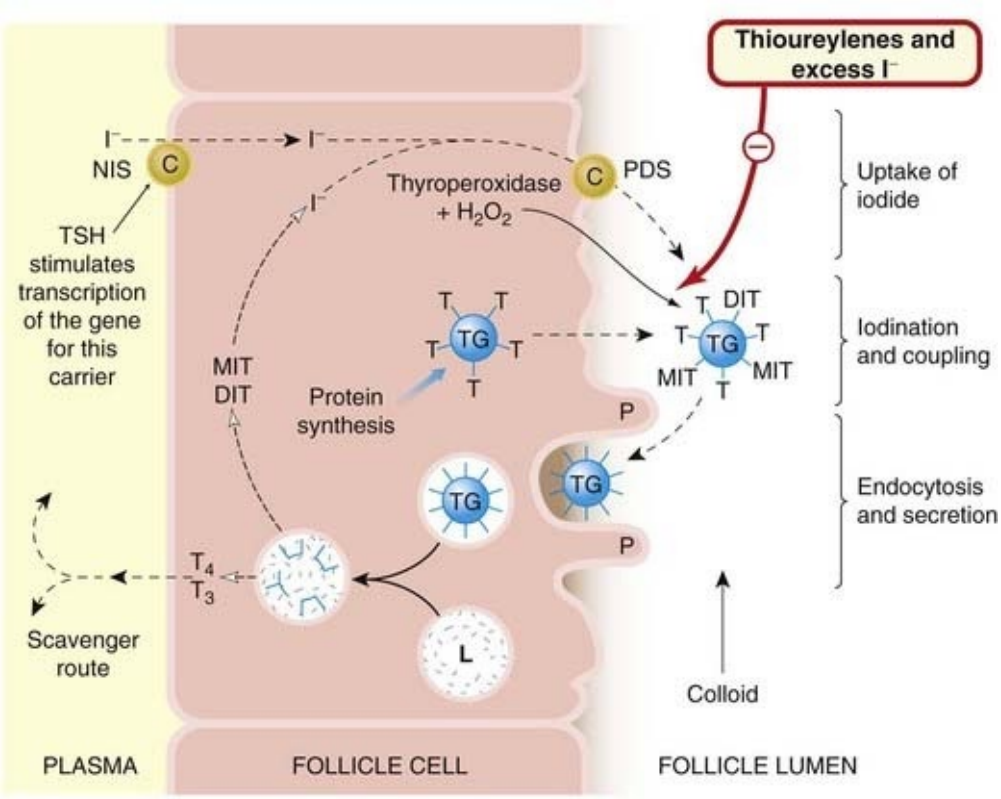


Fig. 33.1 Diagram of thyroid hormone synthesis and secretion, with the sites of action of drugs used in the treatment of thyroid disorders.

Iodide in the blood is transported by the carriers NIS and pendrin (PDS) through the follicular cell and into the colloid-rich lumen, where it is incorporated into thyroglobulin under the influence of the thyroperoxidase enzyme (see text for details). The hormones are produced by processing of the endocytosed thyroglobulin and exported into the blood. DIT, di-iodotyrosine; L, lysosome; MIT, monoiodotyrosine; P, pseudopod; T, tyrosine; T3, tri-iodothyronine; T4,

thyroxine; TG, thyroglobulin; TSH, thyroid-stimulating hormone (thyrotrophin).

Uptake of Plasma Iodide by the Follicle Cells

Iodide uptake is an energy-dependent process occurring against a gradient, which is normally about 25:1. Iodide is captured from the blood and moved to the lumen by two transporters: the Na^+/I^- symporter (NIS) located at the basolateral surface of the thyrocytes (the energy being provided by Na^+-K^+-ATPase), and *pendrin*[1] (PDS), an I^-/Cl^- porter in the apical membranes (Nilsson, 2001; Yoshida et al., 2004). Uptake is very rapid: labelled iodide (^{125}I) is found in the lumen within 40 s of intravenous injection. Numerous mutations have been discovered in the *NIS* and *PDS* genes, and these contribute to thyroid disease in some patients.

[1]So called because it is implicated in the pathophysiology of Pendred's syndrome, named after the eponymous English physician who first described this form of familial goitre.

Oxidation of Iodide and Iodination of Tyrosine Residues

The oxidation of iodide and its incorporation into thyroglobulin (termed the *organification* of iodide) is catalysed by *thyroperoxidase*, an enzyme situated at the inner surface of the cell at the interface with the colloid. The reaction requires the presence of hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) as an oxidising agent. Iodination occurs after the tyrosine has been incorporated into thyroglobulin. The process is shown in Figure 33.2.

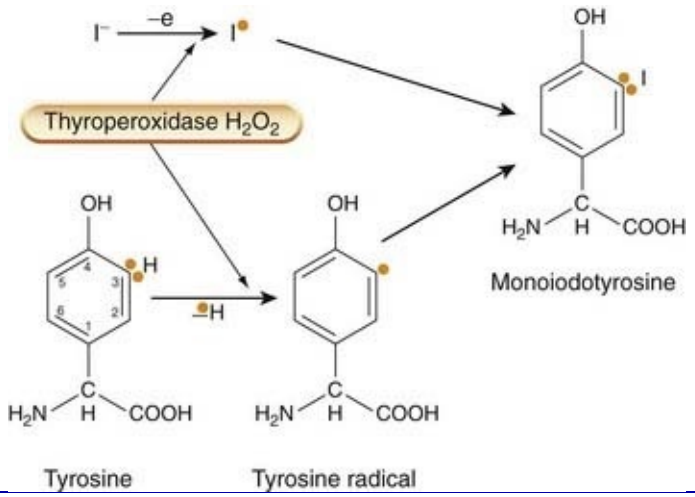


Fig. 33.2 Iodination of tyrosyl residues by the thyroperoxidase–H_2O_2 complex.

This probably involves two sites on the enzyme, one of which removes an electron from iodide to give the free radical $I^{\bullet}$; another removes an electron from tyrosine to give the tyrosyl radical (shown by orange dot). Monoiodotyrosine results from the addition of the two radicals.

Tyrosine residues are iodinated first at position 3 on the ring, forming *monoiodotyrosine* (MIT) and then, in some molecules, on position 5 as well, forming *di-iodotyrosine* (DIT). While still incorporated into thyroglobulin, these molecules are then coupled in pairs, either MIT with DIT to form T_3, or two DIT molecules to form T_4. The mechanism for coupling is believed to involve a peroxidase system similar to that involved in iodination. About one-fifth of the tyrosine residues in thyroglobulin are iodinated in this way.

The iodinated thyroglobulin of the thyroid forms a large store of thyroid hormone within the gland, with a relatively slow turnover. This is in contrast to some other endocrine secretions (e.g. the hormones of the adrenal cortex), which are not stored but synthesised and released as required.

Secretion of Thyroid Hormone

The thyroglobulin molecule is taken up into the follicle cell by

endocytosis (Fig. 33.1). The endocytotic vesicles then fuse with lysosomes, and proteolytic enzymes act on thyroglobulin, releasing T_4 and T_3 to be secreted into the plasma. The surplus MIT and DIT, which are released at the same time, are scavenged by the cell, where the iodide is removed enzymatically and reused.

Regulation of Thyroid Function

Thyrotrophin-releasing hormone (TRH), released from the hypothalamus in response to various stimuli, releases *thyroid-stimulating hormone* (TSH; thyrotrophin) from the anterior pituitary (Fig. 33.3), as does the synthetic tripeptide **protirelin** (pyroglutamyl-histidyl-proline amide), which is used in this way for diagnostic purposes. TSH acts on receptors on the membrane of thyroid follicle cells through a mechanism that involves cAMP and phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase. It has a trophic action on thyroid cells and controls all aspects of thyroid hormone synthesis, including:

- the *uptake of iodide* by follicle cells, by stimulating transcription of the iodide transporter genes; this is the main mechanism by which it regulates thyroid function
- the *synthesis and secretion of thyroglobulin*
- the *generation of* H_2O_2 and the iodination of tyrosine
- the *endocytosis and proteolysis* of thyroglobulin
- the actual *secretion* of T_3 and T_4
- the *blood flow* through the gland.

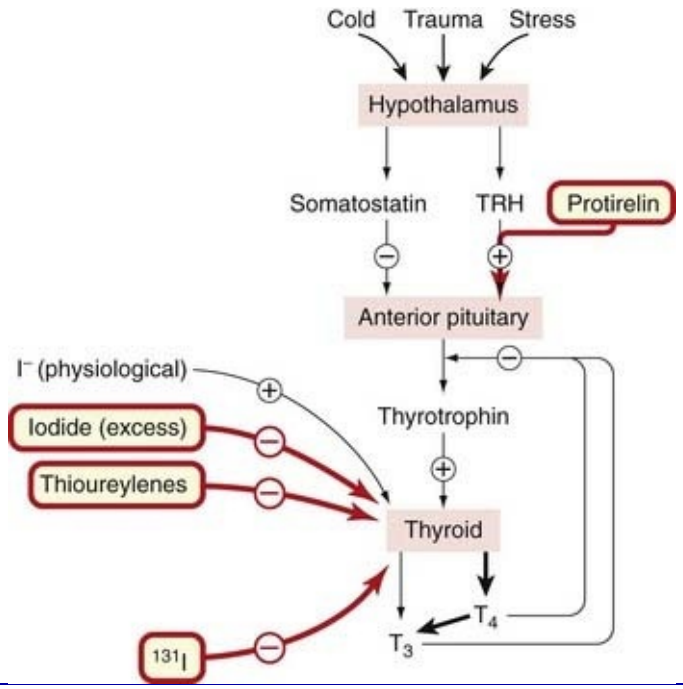


Fig. 33.3 Regulation of thyroid hormone secretion.

Iodide (I^-) is essential for thyroid hormone synthesis, but excess of endogenous or exogenous iodide (30 times the daily requirement of iodine) actually inhibits the increased thyroid hormone production, which occurs in thyrotoxicosis. Protirelin as well as recombinant thyrotrophin-releasing hormone (TRH) is sometimes used to stimulate the system for diagnostic purposes, as is the administration of ^{131}I (see text for details). T_3, tri-iodothyronine; T_4, thyroxine.

The production of TSH is also regulated by a negative feedback effect of thyroid hormones on the anterior pituitary gland, T_3 being more active than T_4 in this respect. The peptide **somatostatin** also reduces basal TSH release. The control of the secretion of TSH thus depends on a balance between the actions of T_3/T_4 and TRH (and probably also somatostatin) on the pituitary, although even high concentrations of thyroid hormone do not totally inhibit TSH secretion.

The other main factor influencing thyroid function is the plasma iodide concentration. About 100 nmol of T_4 is synthesised daily, necessitating uptake by the gland of approximately 500 nmol of iodide each day (equivalent to about 70 μg of iodine). A *reduced* iodine intake, with

reduced plasma iodide concentration, will result in a decrease of hormone production and an increase in TSH secretion. An *increased* plasma iodide has the opposite effect, although this may be modified by other factors (see below). The overall feedback mechanism responds to changes of iodide slowly over fairly long periods of days or weeks, because there is a large reserve capacity for the binding and uptake of iodide in the thyroid. The size and vascularity of the thyroid are reduced by an increase in plasma iodide and this is exploited therapeutically in preparing hyperthyroid patients for surgery to the gland (see below). Diets deficient in iodine eventually result in a continuous excessive compensatory secretion of TSH, and eventually in an increase in vascularity and (sometimes gross) hypertrophy of the gland.[2]

[2]'Derbyshire neck' was the name given to this condition in a part of the UK where sources of dietary iodine were once scarce.

Actions of the Thyroid Hormones

The physiological actions of the thyroid hormones fall into two categories: those affecting metabolism and those affecting growth and development.

Effects on Metabolism

The thyroid hormones produce a general increase in the metabolism of carbohydrates, fats and proteins, and regulate these processes in most tissues, T_3 being three to five times more active than T_4 in this respect (Fig. 33.4). Although the thyroid hormones directly control the activity of some of the enzymes of carbohydrate metabolism, most effects are brought about in conjunction with other hormones, such as insulin, glucagon, the glucocorticoids and the catecholamines. There is an increase in oxygen consumption and heat production, which is

manifested as an increase in the measured basal metabolic rate. This reflects the action of these hormones on tissues such as heart, kidney, liver and muscle, although not on others, such as the gonads, brain or spleen. The calorigenic action is important as part of the response to a cold environment. Administration of thyroid hormone results in augmented cardiac rate and output, and increased tendency to dysrhythmias such as atrial fibrillation.

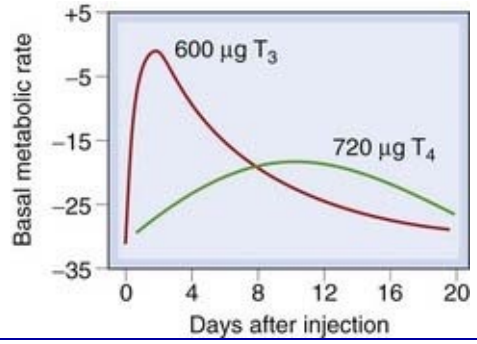


Fig. 33.4 The effect of equimolar doses of tri-iodothyronine (T3) and thyroxine (T4) on basal metabolic rate (BMR) in a hypothyroid subject.

Note that this figure is meant only to illustrate overall differences in effect; thyroxine is not given clinically in a single bolus dose as here, but in regular daily doses so that the effect builds up to a plateau. The apparent differences in potency really represent differences in kinetics, reflecting the prehormone role of T4.

(From Blackburn C M et al. 1954 J Clin Invest 33: 819.)

Effects on Growth and Development

The thyroid hormones have a critical effect on growth, partly by a direct action on cells, and also indirectly by influencing *growth hormone* production and potentiating its effects on its target tissues. The hormones are important for a normal response to parathormone and calcitonin as well as for skeletal development; they are also essential for normal growth and maturation of the central nervous system.

Mechanism of Action

While there is some evidence for non-genomic actions (see Bassett et al., 2003; Lazar, 2003), these hormones act mainly through a specific nuclear receptor, TR (Ch. 3 and Fig. 3.17). Two distinct genes, TRα and TRβ, code for several receptor isoforms that have distinct functions. T_4 may be regarded as a prohormone, because when it enters the cell, it is converted to T_3, which then binds with high affinity to a member of the TR family. This interaction is likely to take place in the nucleus, where TR isoforms generally act as a constitutive repressor of target genes. When T_3 is bound, the receptors change conformation, the co-repressor complex is released and a co-activator complex is recruited, which then activates transcription, resulting in generation of mRNA and protein synthesis.

Transport and Metabolism of Thyroid Hormones

Both thyroid hormones are transported in the blood bound mainly to *thyroxine-binding globulin* (TBG). Plasma concentrations of these hormones can be measured by radioimmunoassay, and are approximately 1×10^{-7} mol/l (T_4) and 2×10^{-9} mol/l for T_3. Both are eventually metabolised in their target tissues by deiodination, deamination, decarboxylation and conjugation with glucuronic and sulfuric acids. The liver is a major site of metabolism, and the free and conjugated forms are excreted partly in the bile and partly in the urine. The metabolic clearance of T_3 is 20 times faster than that of T_4 (plasma half-life about 6 days). The long half-life of T_4 is a consequence of its strong binding to TBG. Abnormalities in the metabolism of these hormones may occur naturally or be induced by drugs or heavy metals, and this may give rise to a variety of (uncommon) clinical conditions such as the ‘low T_3 syndrome’.

Abnormalities of Thyroid Function

Thyroid disorders are among the most common endocrine diseases, and subclinical thyroid disease is particularly prevalent in the middle-aged and elderly. They are accompanied by many extrathyroidal symptoms, particularly in the heart and skin. One (rare) cause of organ dysfunction is thyroid cancer. Many other thyroid disorders have an autoimmune basis and like other autoimmune diseases are more common in women than men. The ultimate reason for this is not clear, although it may be linked to polymorphisms in the PDS, tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α or other genes. Regardless of causation, thyroid dysfunction is often associated with enlargement of the gland, known as *goitre*.

Hyperthyroidism (Thyrotoxicosis)

In *thyrotoxicosis*, there is excessive activity of the thyroid hormones, resulting in a high metabolic rate, an increase in skin temperature and sweating, and a marked sensitivity to heat. Nervousness, tremor, tachycardia, heat sensitivity and increased appetite associated with loss of weight occur. There are several types of hyperthyroidism, but only two are common: *diffuse toxic goitre* (also called *Graves' disease*[3] or *exophthalmic goitre*) and *toxic nodular goitre*.

[3]After a Dublin physician who connected 'violent and long continued palpitations in females' with enlargement of the thyroid gland. The young ladies' complaints of fluttering hearts and lumps in their throats had previously been attributed to hysteria.

Diffuse toxic goitre is an organ-specific autoimmune disease caused by autoantibodies to the TSH receptor which actually stimulate it, increasing thyroxine secretion. Constitutively active mutations of the TRH receptor may also be involved. As is indicated by the name,

patients with exophthalmic goitre have protrusion of the eyeballs. The pathogenesis of this condition is not fully understood, but it is thought to be caused by the presence of TSH receptor-like proteins in orbital tissues. There is also an enhanced sensitivity to catecholamines. Toxic nodular goitre is caused by a benign neoplasm or adenoma, and may develop in patients with long-standing simple goitre (see below). This condition does not usually have concomitant exophthalmos. The antidysrhythmic drug **amiodarone** (Ch. 21) is rich in iodine and can cause either hyperthyroidism or hypothyroidism. Some other iodine-containing drugs, such as **iopanoic acid** and its congeners, which are used as imaging agents used to visualise the gall bladder, may also interfere with thyroid function.

Simple, Non-Toxic Goitre

A dietary deficiency of iodine, if prolonged, causes a rise in plasma TRH and eventually an increase in the size of the gland. This condition is known as simple or non-toxic goitre. Another cause is ingestion of *goitrogens* (e.g. from cassava root). The enlarged thyroid usually manages to produce normal amounts of thyroid hormone, although if the iodine deficiency is very severe, hypothyroidism may supervene.

Hypothyroidism

A decreased activity of the thyroid results in hypothyroidism, and in severe cases *myxoedema*. Once again, this disease is immunological in origin, and the manifestations include low metabolic rate, slow speech, deep hoarse voice, lethargy, bradycardia, sensitivity to cold and mental impairment. Patients also develop a characteristic thickening of the skin (caused by the subcutaneous deposition of glycosaminoglycans), which gives myxoedema its name. *Hashimoto's thyroiditis*, a chronic autoimmune disease in which there is an immune reaction against

thyroglobulin or some other component of thyroid tissue, can lead to hypothyroidism and myxoedema. Genetic factors play an important role. Therapy of thyroid tumours with **radioiodine** (see below) is another cause of hypothyroidism.

Thyroid deficiency during development, which is the most prevalent endocrine disorder in the newborn (1 in 3000–4000 births) causes *congenital hypothyroidism*,[4] characterised by gross retardation of growth and mental deficiency. *Pendred's syndrome*, an autosomal recessive disorder caused by mutations in the PDS transporter gene, may cause goitre as well as deafness and other symptoms (see Hadj Kacem et al., 2003).

[4]An older term for this condition, *cretinism*, has been dropped.

The thyroid

• Thyroid hormones, tri-iodothyronine (T3) and thyroxine (T4), are synthesised by iodination of tyrosine residues on thyroglobulin within the lumen of the thyroid follicle.

• Hormone synthesis and secretion are regulated by thyroid-stimulating hormone (thyrotrophin) and influenced by plasma iodide.

• There is a large pool of T4 in the body; it has a low turnover rate and is found mainly in the circulation.

• There is a small pool of T3 in the body; it has a fast turnover rate and is found mainly intracellularly.

• Within target cells, the T4 is converted to T3, which interacts with a nuclear receptor to regulate gene transcription.

• T3 and T4 actions:

– stimulation of metabolism, causing increased oxygen consumption and increased

metabolic rate

– regulation of growth and development.

• Abnormalities of thyroid function include:

– hyperthyroidism (thyrotoxicosis); either diffuse toxic goitre or toxic nodular goitre

– hypothyroidism; in adults this causes myxoedema, in infants cretinism

– simple non-toxic goitre caused by dietary iodine deficiency, usually with normal thyroid function.

Drugs Used in Diseases of the Thyroid

Hyperthyroidism

Hyperthyroidism may be treated pharmacologically or surgically. In general, surgery is used only when there are mechanical problems resulting from compression of the trachea, and it is usual to remove only part of the organ. Although the condition of hyperthyroidism can be controlled with antithyroid drugs, these drugs do not alter the underlying autoimmune mechanisms or improve the exophthalmos associated with Graves' disease.

Radioiodine

Radioiodine is a first-line treatment for hyperthyroidism (particularly in the USA). The isotope used is ^{131}I (usually as the sodium salt), and the dose generally 5–15 millicuries. Given orally, it is taken up and processed by the thyroid in the same way as the stable form of iodide, eventually becoming incorporated into thyroglobulin. The isotope emits both β and γ radiation. The γ rays pass through the tissue without causing damage, but the β particles have a very short range; they are absorbed by the tissue and exert a powerful cytotoxic action that is restricted to the cells of the thyroid follicles, resulting in significant destruction of the tissue. ^{131}I has a half-life of 8 days, so by 2 months its

radioactivity has effectively disappeared. It is given as one single dose, but its cytotoxic effect on the gland is delayed for 1–2 months and does not reach its maximum for a further 2 months.

Hypothyroidism will eventually occur after treatment with radioiodine, particularly in patients with Graves' disease, but is easily managed by replacement therapy with T_4. Radioiodine is best avoided in children and also in pregnant patients because of potential damage to the fetus. There is theoretically an increased risk of thyroid cancer but this has not been seen following the therapeutic treatment.

The uptake of ^{131}I and other isotopes of iodine is also used diagnostically as a test of thyroid function. A tracer dose of the isotope is given orally or intravenously, and the amount accumulated by the thyroid is measured by a γ-scintillation counter placed over the gland. Another use for this drug is the treatment of thyroid cancer.

Thioureylenes

The thioureylene group of drugs comprises **carbimazole**, **methimazole** and **propylthiouracil**. Chemically, they are related to thiourea, and the thiocarbamide (S–C–N) group is essential for antithyroid activity.

Mechanism of action

Thioureylenes decrease the output of thyroid hormones from the gland, and cause a gradual reduction in the signs and symptoms of thyrotoxicosis, the basal metabolic rate and pulse rate returning to normal over a period of 3–4 weeks. Their mode of action is not completely understood, but there is evidence that they inhibit the iodination of tyrosyl residues in thyroglobulin (see Figs 33.1 and 33.2). It is thought that they inhibit the thyroperoxidase-catalysed oxidation reactions by acting as substrates for the postulated peroxidase–iodinium

complex, thus competitively inhibiting the interaction with tyrosine. Propylthiouracil has the additional effect of reducing the deiodination of T_4 to T_3 in peripheral tissues.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Thioureylenes are given orally. Carbimazole is rapidly converted to its active metabilite methimazole, which is distributed throughout the body water and has a plasma half-life of 6–15 h. An average dose of carbimazole produces more than 90% inhibition of thyroid incorporation of iodine within 12 h. The clinical response to this and other antithyroid drugs, however, may take several weeks (Fig. 33.5). This is not only because T_4 has a long half-life, but also because the thyroid may have large stores of hormone, which need to be depleted before the drug's action can be fully manifest. Propylthiouracil is thought to act somewhat more rapidly because of its additional effect as an inhibitor of the peripheral conversion of T_4 to T_3.

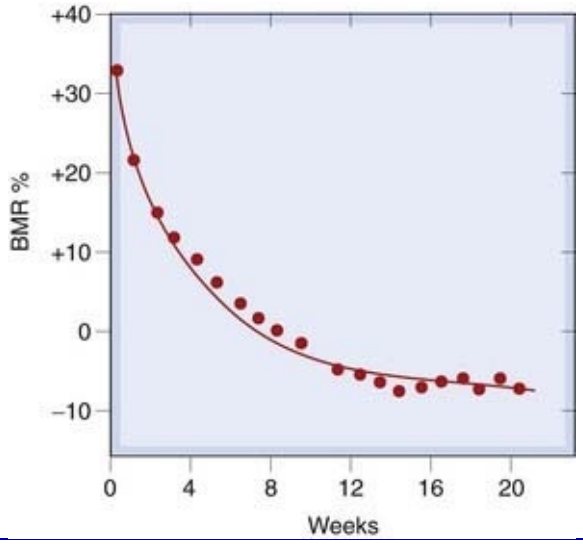


Fig. 33.5 Time course of fall of basal metabolic rate (BMR) during treatment with an antithyroid drug, carbimazole.

The curve is exponential, corresponding to a daily decrease in BMR of 3.4%.

(From Furth E O et al. 1963 J Clin Endocrinol Metab 23: 1130.)

Both methimazole and propylthiouracil cross the placenta and also appear in the milk, but this effect is less pronounced with propylthiouracil, because it is more strongly bound to plasma protein. After degradation, the metabolites are excreted in the urine, propylthiouracil being excreted more rapidly than methimazole. The thioureylenes may be concentrated in the thyroid.

Unwanted effects

The most dangerous unwanted effect of thioureyline drugs is neutropenia and agranulocytosis (see Ch. 24). This is relatively rare, having an incidence of 0.1–1.2%, and is reversible on cessation of treatment. Patients must be warned to report symptoms (especially sore throat) immediately and have a blood count. Rashes are more common (2–25%), and other symptoms, such as headaches, nausea, jaundice and pain in the joints, can also occur with the thiourelyenes.

Iodine/Iodide

Iodine is converted in vivo to iodide (I^-), which temporarily inhibits the release of thyroid hormones. When high doses of iodine are given to thyrotoxic patients, the symptoms subside within 1–2 days. There is inhibition of the secretion of thyroid hormones and, over a period of 10–14 days, a marked reduction in vascularity of the gland, which becomes smaller and firmer. Iodine is often given orally in a solution with potassium iodide (*'Lugol's iodine'*). With continuous administration, its effect reaches maximum within 10–15 days and then decreases. The mechanism of action is not entirely clear; it may inhibit iodination of thyroglobulin, possibly by reducing the H_2O_2 generation that is necessary for this process.

The main uses of iodine/iodide are for the preparation of hyperthyroid subjects for surgical resection of the gland, and as part of the treatment

of severe thyrotoxic crisis (*thyroid storm*). Allergic reactions can occur; these include angio-oedema, rashes and drug fever. Lacrimation, conjunctivitis, pain in the salivary glands and a cold-like syndrome are dose-related adverse effects connected to the concentration of iodide by transport mechanisms in tears and saliva.

Other Drugs Used

The β-adrenoceptor antagonists, for example **propranolol** (Ch. 14), are not antithyroid agents as such, but they are useful for decreasing many of the signs and symptoms of hyperthyroidism—the tachycardia, dysrhythmias, tremor and agitation. They are used during the preparation of thyrotoxic patients for surgery, as well as in most hyperthyroid patients during the initial treatment period while the thioureylenes or radioiodine take effect, or as part of the treatment of acute hyperthyroid crisis. Eye drops containing **guanethidine**, a noradrenergic-blocking agent (Ch. 14), are used to ameliorate the exophthalmos of hyperthyroidism (which is not relieved by antithyroid drugs); it acts by relaxing the sympathetically innervated smooth muscle that causes eyelid retraction. Glucocorticoids (e.g. **prednisolone** or **hydrocortisone**) or surgical decompression may be needed to mitigate severe exophthalmia in Graves' disease. Some other drugs (e.g. cholecystographic agents or antiepileptic drugs) as well as 'endocrine disruptors'[5] may interfere with the normal production of thyroid hormones.

[5]These are man-made chemicals such as pesticides or herbicides (e.g. polychlorinated biphenyls) that linger in the environment and are ingested in foodstuffs. The endocrine system is particularly sensitive to these, especially during development.

Hypothyroidism

There are no drugs that specifically augment the synthesis or release of thyroid hormones. The only effective treatment for hypothyroidism, unless it is caused by iodine deficiency (which is treated with iodide; see above), is to administer the thyroid hormones themselves as replacement therapy. **Thyroxine** (official name: **levothyroxine**) and **tri-iodothyronine** (official name: **liothyronine**) are synthetic compounds, identical to the natural hormones, and are given orally. Thyroxine as the sodium salt in doses of 50–100 μg/day is the usual first-line drug of choice. Liothyronine has a faster onset but a shorter duration of action, and is generally reserved for acute emergencies such as the rare condition of myxoedema coma, where these properties are an advantage.

Unwanted effects may occur with overdose, and in addition to the signs and symptoms of hyperthyroidism there is a risk of precipitating angina pectoris, cardiac dysrhythmias or even cardiac failure. The effects of less severe overdose are more insidious; the patient feels well but bone resorption is increased, leading to osteoporosis (Ch. 35).

The use of drugs acting on the thyroid is summarised in the clinical box.

Drugs in thyroid disease

Drugs for hyperthyroidism

• *Radioiodine*, given orally, is selectively taken up by thyroid and damages cells; it emits short-range β radiation, which affects only thyroid follicle cells. Hypothyroidism will eventually occur.

• *Thioureylenes* (e.g. **carbimazole**, **propylthiouracil**) decrease the synthesis of thyroid hormones; the mechanism is through inhibition of thyroperoxidase, thus reducing iodination of thyroglobulin. They are given orally.

• *Iodine*, given orally in high doses, transiently reduces thyroid hormone secretion and decreases vascularity of the gland.

Drugs for hypothyroidism

• **Levothyroxine** has all the actions of endogenous thyroxine; it is given orally.

• **Liothyronine** has all the actions of endogenous tri-iodothyronine; it is given intravenously.

Clinical use of drugs acting on the thyroid 

Radioiodine

• Hyperthyroidism (Graves' disease, multinodular toxic goitre).

• Relapse of hyperthyroidism after failed medical or surgical treatment.

Carbimazole or propylthiouracil

• Hyperthyroidism (diffuse toxic goitre); at least 1 year of treatment is needed.

• Preliminary to surgery for toxic goitre.

• Part of the treatment of *thyroid storm* (very severe hyperthyroidism); **propylthiouracil** is preferred. The β-adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. **propranolol**) are also used.

Thyroid hormones and iodine

• **Levothyroxine** (T4) is the standard replacement therapy for hypothyroidism.

• **Liothyronine** (T3) is the treatment of choice for myxoedema coma.

• Iodine dissolved in aqueous potassium iodide ('**Lugol's iodine**') is used short term to control thyrotoxicosis *preoperatively*. It reduces the vascularity of the gland.

References and Further Reading

assett J.H.D., Harvey C.B., Williams G.R. Mechanisms of thyroid hormone receptor-specific nuclear and extra nuclear actions. *Mol. Cell Endocrinol.*. 2003;213:1-11. (*An excellent and comprehensive review dealing with the actions of thyroid hormones through the nuclear receptor mechanism as well as other actions through G-protein-coupled receptors and other pathways*)

raga M., Cooper D.S. Clinical review 129. Oral cholecystographic agents and the thyroid. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.*. 2001;86:1853-1860. (*Discusses the deleterious effect of imaging agents on thyroid function*)

adj Kacem H., Rebai A., Kaffel N., *et al.* PDS is a new susceptibility gene to autoimmune thyroid diseases: association and linkage study. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.*. 2003;88:2274-2280. (*Interesting article on the PDS transporter protein and its contribution to disease susceptibility*)

ahaly G.J., Dillmann W.H. Thyroid hormone action in the heart. *Endocr. Rev.*. 2005;26:704-728. (*A very interesting review focusing on the cardiac actions of thyroid hormones; much historical detail*)

elly G.S. Peripheral metabolism of thyroid hormones: a review. *Altern. Med. Rev.*. 2000;5:306-333. (*This review focuses on the role of peripheral metabolism in thyroid hormone action*)

azar M.A. Thyroid hormone action: a binding contract. *J. Clin. Invest.* 2003;112:497-499. (*A short and accessible article dealing with the main nuclear receptor-mediated effects of thyroid hormones as well as some other potential mechanisms of action*)

azarus J.H. Hyperthyroidism. *Lancet.* 1997;349:339-343. (*A 'seminar' covering aetiology, clinical features, pathophysiology, diagnosis and treatment*)

indsay R.S. Hypothyroidism. *Lancet.* 1997;349:413-417. (*A 'seminar' emphasising the management of hypothyroidism*)

Iastorakos G., Karoutsou E.I., Mizamtsidi M., Creatsas G. The menace of endocrine disruptors on thyroid hormone physiology and their impact on intrauterine development. *Endocrine.*. 2007;3:219-237. (*A review of endocrine disrupters and their effects on the thyroid. Not mainstream reading but an interesting topic*)

ilsson M. Iodide handling by the thyroid epithelial cell. *Exp. Clin. Endocrinol. Diabetes*. 2001;109:13-17. (*Useful and readable review of iodide handling by the thyroid gland*)

aschke R., Ludgate M. The thyrotropin receptor and its diseases. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1997;337:1675-1679. (*Reviews aspects of TSH biology and disease*)

oberts C.G., Ladenson P.W. Hypothyroidism. *Lancet*. 2004;363:793-803. (*Authoritative and accessible review dealing with this thyroid pathology*)

chmutzler C., Kohrle J. Implications of the molecular characterization of the sodium–iodide symporter (NIS). *Exp. Clin. Endocrinol. Diabetes*. 1998;106:S1-S10. (*Discusses the diagnostic and therapeutic implications of the information now available as a result of the cloning of NIS*)

urks M.I., Ortiz E., Daniels G.H., *et al.* Subclinical thyroid disease: scientific review and guidelines for diagnosis and management. *JAMA*. 2004;291:228-238. (*Discusses and reviews the treatment of subclinical thyroid disease in detail; primarily of interest to clinical students*)

en P.M. Physiological and molecular basis of thyroid hormone action. *Physiol. Rev.*. 2001;81:1097-1142. (*Comprehensive review of thyroid hormone–receptor interaction and the effects of thyroid hormone on target tissues*)

oshida A., Hisatome I., Taniguchi S., *et al.* Mechanism of iodide/chloride exchange by pendrin. *Endocrinology*. 2004;145:4301-4308. (*An original research article that takes an electrophysiological approach to understanding of the PDS transporter and its relationship to Pendred's syndrome*)

hang J., Lazar M. The mechanism of action of thyroid hormones. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*. 2000;62:439-466. (*Detailed review of the molecular aspects of thyroid hormone–receptor interaction*)

34

The reproductive system

Overview

In this chapter, we describe the endocrine control of the female and male reproductive systems as the basis for understanding drug actions in sex hormone replacement, contraception, treatment of infertility, management of labour and treatment of erectile dysfunction.

Introduction

Drugs that affect reproduction (both by preventing conception and more recently for treating infertility) transformed society in the latter half of the last century. In this chapter, we briefly summarise salient points in reproductive endocrinology as a basis for understanding the numerous important drugs that work on the male and female reproductive systems. Such drugs are used for contraception, to treat infertility, as sex hormone replacement and in obstetric practice to influence labour. The principle of negative feedback is stressed and is central to understanding how hormones interact to control reproduction[1]—many drugs, including agents used to prevent or assist conception, work by influencing negative feedback mechanisms. The chapter concludes with a short section on erectile dysfunction.

[1]Recognition that negative feedback is central to endocrine control was a profound insight, made in 1930 by Dorothy Price, a laboratory assistant in the University of Chicago experimenting on effects of

testosterone in rats. She referred to it as ‘reciprocal influence’.

Endocrine Control of Reproduction

Hormonal control of the reproductive systems in men and women involves sex steroids from the gonads, hypothalamic peptides and glycoprotein gonadotrophins from the anterior pituitary.

Neurohormonal Control of the Female Reproductive System

Increased secretion of hypothalamic and anterior pituitary hormones occurs in girls at puberty and stimulates secretion of oestrogen from the ovaries. This causes maturation of the reproductive organs and development of secondary sexual characteristics, and also accelerated growth followed by closure of the epiphyses of the long bones. Sex steroids, *oestrogens* and *progesterone* are thereafter involved in the menstrual cycle, and in pregnancy. A simplified outline is given in Figures 34.1 and 34.2.

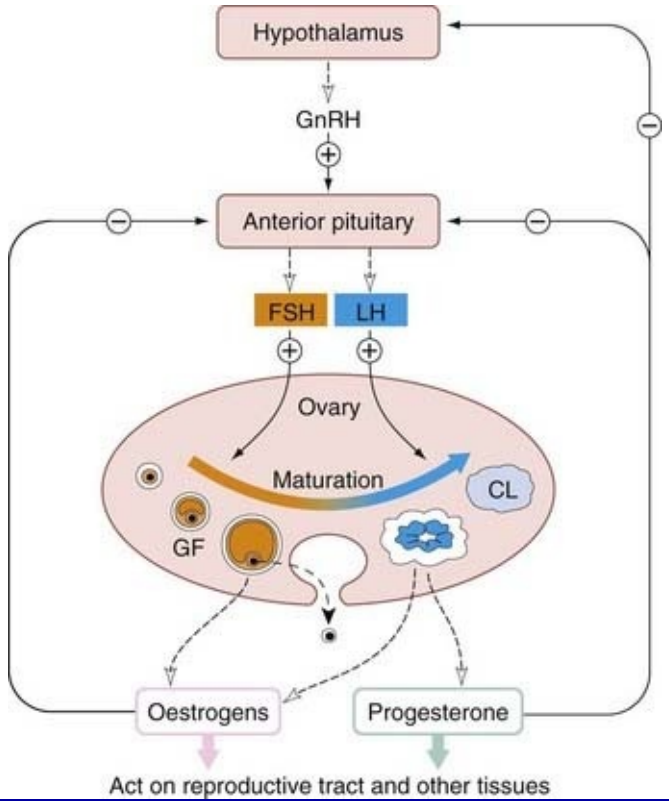


Fig. 34.1 Hormonal control of the female reproductive system.

The Graafian follicle (GF) is shown developing on the left, then involuting to form the corpus luteum (CL) on the right, after the ovum (•) has been released. FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; GnRH, gonadotrophin-releasing hormone; LH, luteinising hormone.

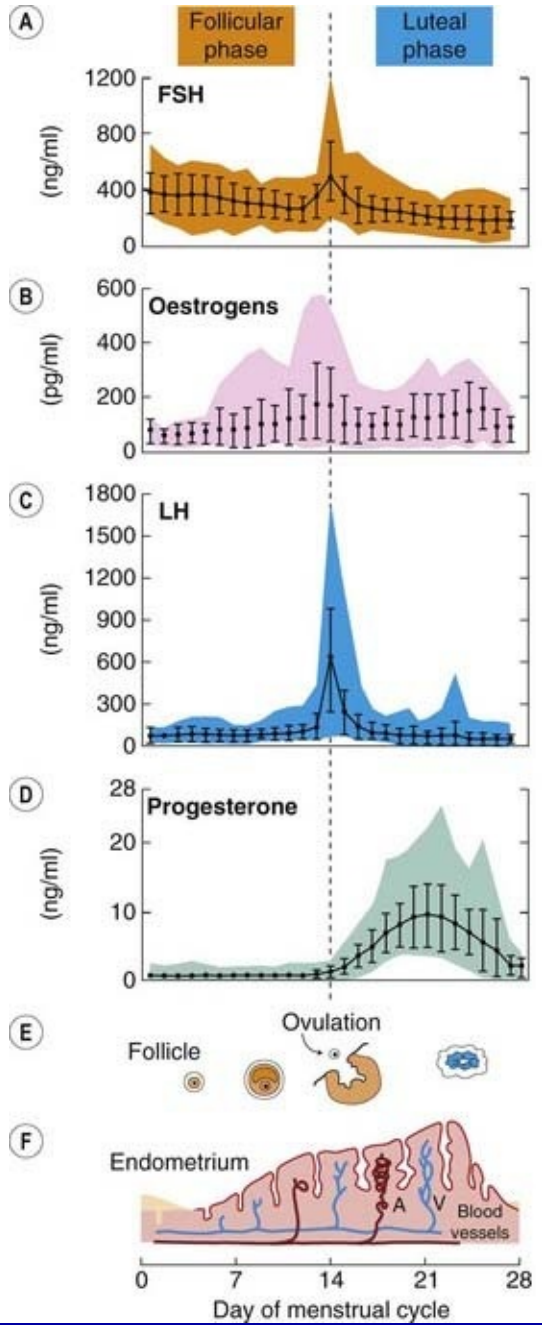


Fig. 34.2 Plasma concentrations of ovarian hormones and gonadotrophins in women during normal menstrual cycles.

Values are the mean ± standard deviation of 40 women. The shaded areas indicate the entire range of observations. Day 1 is the onset of menstruation. **E** and **F** show diagrammatically the changes in the ovarian follicle and the endometrium during the cycle. Ovulation on day 14 of the menstrual cycle occurs with the mid-cycle peak of luteinising hormone (LH), represented by the vertical dashed line. A, arterioles; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; V, venules.

(After van de Wiele R L, Dyrenfurth I 1974 Pharmacol Rev 25: 189–217.)

The menstrual cycle begins with menstruation, which lasts for 3–6 days, during which the superficial layer of uterine endometrium is shed. The endometrium regenerates during the follicular phase of the cycle after menstrual flow has stopped. A releasing factor, *gonadotrophin-releasing hormone* (GnRH), is secreted from peptidergic neurons in the hypothalamus which discharge in a pulsatile fashion, approximately one burst per hour. GnRH stimulates the anterior pituitary to release gonadotrophic hormones (Fig. 34.1)—*follicle-stimulating hormone* (FSH) and *luteinising hormone* (LH). These act on the ovaries to promote development of small groups of follicles, each of which contains an ovum. One follicle develops faster than the others and forms the Graafian follicle (Figs 34.1 and 34.2E), which secretes oestrogens, and the rest degenerate. The ripening Graafian follicle consists of thecal and granulosa cells surrounding a fluid-filled centre, within which lies an ovum. Oestrogens are responsible for the proliferative phase of endometrial regeneration, which occurs from day 5 or 6 until mid-cycle (Fig. 34.2B,F). During this phase, the endometrium increases in thickness and vascularity, and at the peak of oestrogen secretion there is a prolific cervical secretion of mucus of pH 8–9, rich in protein and carbohydrate, which facilitates entry of spermatozoa. Oestrogen has a negative feedback effect on the anterior pituitary, decreasing gonadotrophin release during chronic administration of oestrogen as oral contraception (see below). In contrast, the high endogenous oestrogen secretion just before mid-cycle sensitises LH-releasing cells of the pituitary to the action of the GnRH and causes the mid-cycle surge of LH secretion (Fig. 34.2C). This, in turn, causes rapid swelling and rupture of the Graafian follicle, resulting in ovulation. If fertilisation occurs, the fertilised ovum passes down the fallopian tubes to the uterus, starting to divide as it goes.

Stimulated by LH, cells of the ruptured follicle proliferate and develop into the *corpus luteum*, which secretes progesterone. Progesterone acts, in turn, on oestrogen-primed endometrium, stimulating the secretory phase of the cycle, which renders the endometrium suitable for the implantation of a fertilised ovum. During this phase, cervical mucus becomes more viscous, less alkaline, less copious and in general less welcoming for sperm. Progesterone exerts negative feedback on the hypothalamus and pituitary, decreasing the release of LH. It also has a thermogenic effect, causing a rise in body temperature of about 0.5°C at ovulation, which is maintained until the end of the cycle.

If implantation of a fertilised ovum does not occur, progesterone secretion stops, triggering menstruation. If implantation does occur, the corpus luteum continues to secrete progesterone, which, by its effect on the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary, prevents further ovulation. The chorion (an antecedent of the placenta) secretes human chorionic gonadotrophin (HCG), which maintains the lining of the uterus during pregnancy. For reasons that are not physiologically obvious, HCG has an additional pharmacological action in stimulating ovulation. As pregnancy proceeds, the placenta develops further hormonal functions and secretes a variety of hormones, including gonadotrophins, progesterone and oestrogens. Progesterone secreted during pregnancy controls the development of the secretory alveoli in the mammary gland, while oestrogen stimulates the lactiferous ducts. After parturition, oestrogens, along with prolactin (see Ch. 32), are responsible for stimulating and maintaining lactation, whereas high doses of exogenous oestrogen suppress this.

Oestrogens, progestogens (progesterone-like drugs), androgens and the gonadotrophins are described below—see Figure 34.3 for biosynthetic pathways.

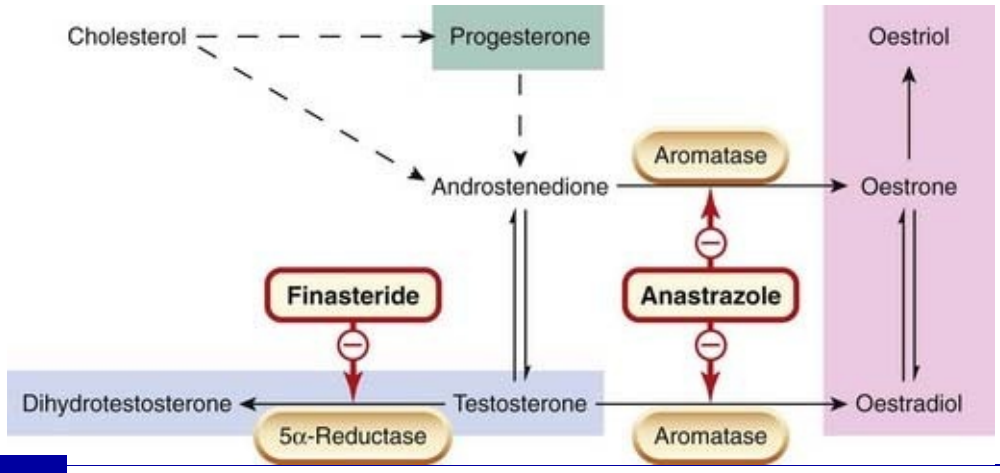


Fig. 34.3 The biosynthetic pathway for the androgens and oestrogens, with sites of drug action.

(See also Fig. 32.5.) Finasteride is used in benign prostatic hyperplasia, and anastrazole to treat breast cancer in postmenopausal women.

Hormonal control of the female reproductive system

• The menstrual cycle starts with menstruation.

• Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone, released from the hypothalamus, acts on the anterior pituitary to release follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) and luteinising hormone (LH).

• FSH and LH stimulate follicle development in the ovary. FSH is the main hormone stimulating oestrogen release. LH stimulates ovulation at mid-cycle and is the main hormone controlling subsequent progesterone secretion from the corpus luteum.

• Oestrogen controls the proliferative phase of the endometrium and has negative feedback effects on the anterior pituitary. Progesterone controls the later secretory phase, and has negative feedback effects on both the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary.

• If a fertilised ovum is implanted, the corpus luteum continues to secrete progesterone.

• After implantation, human chorionic gonadotrophin from the chorion becomes important, and later in pregnancy progesterone and other hormones are secreted by the placenta.

Neurohormonal Control of the Male Reproductive System

As in women, hypothalamic, anterior pituitary and gonadal hormones control the male reproductive system. A simplified outline is given in Figure 34.4. GnRH controls the secretion of gonadotrophins by the anterior pituitary. This secretion is not cyclical as in menstruating women, although it is pulsatile in both sexes (see below). FSH is responsible for the integrity of the seminiferous tubules, and after puberty is important in gametogenesis through an action on Sertoli cells, which nourish and support developing spermatozoa. LH, which in the male is also called *interstitial cell-stimulating hormone* (ICSH), stimulates the interstitial cells (Leydig cells) to secrete androgens—in particular *testosterone*. LH/ICSH secretion begins at puberty, and the consequent secretion of testosterone causes maturation of the reproductive organs and development of secondary sexual characteristics. Thereafter, the primary function of testosterone is the maintenance of spermatogenesis and hence fertility—an action mediated by Sertoli cells. Testosterone is also important in the maturation of spermatozoa as they pass through the epididymis and vas deferens. A further action is a feedback effect on the anterior pituitary, modulating its sensitivity to GnRH and thus influencing secretion of LH/ICSH. Testosterone has marked anabolic effects, causing development of the musculature and increased bone growth which results in the pubertal growth spurt, followed by closure of the epiphyses of the long bones.

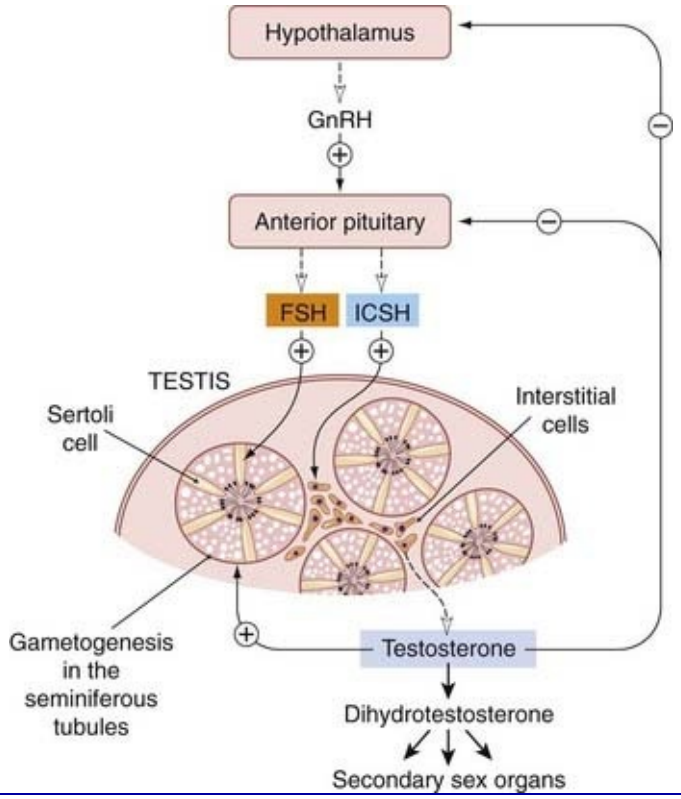


Fig. 34.4 Hormonal control of the male reproductive system.

FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; GnRH, gonadotrophin-releasing hormone; ICSH, interstitial cell-stimulating hormone.

Secretion of testosterone is mainly controlled by LH/ICSH, but FSH also plays a part, possibly by releasing a factor similar to GnRH from the Sertoli cells which are its primary target. The interstitial cells that synthesise testosterone also have receptors for prolactin, which may influence testosterone production by increasing the number of receptors for LH/ICSH.

Behavioural Effects of Sex Hormones

As well as controlling the menstrual cycle, sex steroids affect sexual behaviour. Two types of control are recognised: *organisational* and *activational*. The former refers to the fact that sexual differentiation of the brain can be permanently altered by the presence or absence of sex steroids at key stages in development.

In rats, administration of androgens to females within a few days of birth results in long-term virilisation of behaviour. Conversely, neonatal castration of male rats causes them to develop behaviourally as females. Brain development in the absence of sex steroids follows female lines, but is switched to the male pattern by exposure of the hypothalamus to androgen at a key stage of development. Similar but less complete behavioural virilisation of female offspring has been demonstrated following androgen administration in non-human primates, and probably also occurs in humans if pregnant women are exposed to excessive androgen.

The activational effect of sex steroids refers to their ability to modify sexual behaviour after brain development is complete. In general, oestrogens and androgens increase sexual activity in the appropriate sex. Oxytocin, which is important during parturition (see below), also has roles in mating and parenting behaviours, its action in the central nervous system being regulated by oestrogen (see Ch. 32).

Drugs Affecting Reproductive Function

Oestrogens

Oestrogens are synthesised by the ovary and placenta, and in small amounts by the testis and adrenal cortex. The starting substance for synthesis of oestrogen (and other steroids) is cholesterol. The immediate precursors to the oestrogens are androgenic substances—androstenedione or testosterone (Fig. 34.3). There are three main endogenous oestrogens in humans: *oestradiol*, *oestrone* and *oestriol* (Fig. 34.3). Oestradiol is the most potent and is the principal oestrogen secreted by the ovary. At the beginning of the menstrual cycle, the plasma concentration is 0.2 nmol/l, rising to ~2.2 nmol/l in mid-cycle.

Actions

Oestrogen acts in concert with progesterone, and induces synthesis of progesterone receptors in uterus, vagina, anterior pituitary and hypothalamus. Conversely, progesterone decreases oestrogen receptor expression in the reproductive tract. Prolactin (see Ch. 32) also influences oestrogen action by increasing the numbers of oestrogen receptors in the mammary gland, but has no effect on oestrogen receptor expression in the uterus.

Effects of exogenous oestrogen depend on the state of sexual maturity when the oestrogen is administered:

- In primary hypogonadism: oestrogen stimulates development of secondary sexual characteristics and accelerates growth.
- In adults with primary amenorrhoea: oestrogen, given cyclically with a progestogen, induces an artificial cycle.
- In sexually mature women: oestrogen (with a progestogen) is contraceptive.
- At or after the menopause: oestrogen replacement prevents menopausal symptoms and bone loss.

Oestrogens have several metabolic actions, including mineralocorticoid (retention of salt and water) and mild anabolic actions. They increase plasma concentrations of high-density lipoproteins, a potentially beneficial effect (Ch. 23) that may contribute to the relatively low risk of atheromatous disease in premenopausal women compared with men of the same age. However, oestrogens also increase the coagulability of blood, and increase the risk of thromboembolism. This effect is dose related.

Mechanism of action

As with other steroids, oestrogen binds to type 4 (i.e. nuclear) receptors (Ch. 3). There are at least two types of oestrogen receptor, termed ERα and ERβ. Binding is followed by interaction of the resultant complexes with nuclear sites and subsequent genomic effects. In addition to these 'classic' intracellular receptors, some oestrogen effects, in particular its rapid vascular actions, may be initiated by interaction with membrane receptors (e.g. Chen et al., 1999). Acute vasodilatation caused by 17-β-oestradiol is mediated by nitric oxide, and a plant-derived (phyto-) oestrogen called **genistein** (which is selective for ERβ, as well as having quite distinct effects from inhibition of protein kinase C) is as potent as 17-β-oestradiol in this regard. Oestrogen receptor modulators (receptor-selective oestrogen agonists or antagonists) are mentioned briefly below.

Preparations

Many preparations (oral, transdermal, intramuscular, implantable and topical) of oestrogens are available for a wide range of indications. These preparations include natural (e.g. **estradiol**, **estriol**) and synthetic (e.g. **mestranol**, **ethinylestradiol**, **diethylstilbestrol**) oestrogens. Oestrogens are presented either as single agents or combined with progestogen.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Natural as well as synthetic oestrogens are well absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract, but after absorption the natural oestrogens are rapidly metabolised in the liver, whereas synthetic oestrogens are degraded less rapidly. There is a variable amount of enterohepatic cycling, which forms the basis for drug interaction, because broad-spectrum antibiotic use alters bowel flora and can thereby render oral contraception ineffective (Ch. 56). Most oestrogens are readily absorbed from skin and mucous membranes. They may be given as intravaginal

creams or pessaries for local effect. In the plasma, natural oestrogens are bound to albumin and to a sex steroid-binding globulin. Natural oestrogens are excreted in the urine as glucuronides and sulfates.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects of oestrogens include tenderness in the breasts, nausea, vomiting, anorexia, retention of salt and water with resultant oedema, and increased risk of thromboembolism. More details of the unwanted effects of oral contraceptives are given below.

Used intermittently for postmenopausal replacement therapy, oestrogens cause menstruation-like bleeding. Oestrogen causes endometrial hyperplasia unless given cyclically with a progestogen. When administered to males, oestrogens result in feminisation.

Oestrogen administration to pregnant women can cause genital abnormalities in their offspring. Carcinoma of the vagina was more common in young women whose mothers were given diethylstilbestrol in early pregnancy in a misguided attempt to prevent miscarriage (see Ch. 57).

The clinical uses of oestrogens and antioestrogens are summarised in the box. In addition, see the section below on postmenopausal hormone replacement therapy (HRT).

Oestrogen Receptor Modulator

Raloxifene, a ‘selective oestrogen receptor modulator’ (SERM), has antioestrogenic effects on breast and uterus but oestrogenic effects on bone, lipid metabolism and blood coagulation. It is used for prevention and treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis (Ch. 35) and also reduces the incidence of oestrogen receptor-positive breast cancer to an extent similar to **tamoxifen** while causing fewer adverse events (Barret-Connor

et al., 2006; Vogel et al., 2006). The US Food and Drug Administration has supported its use to reduce the risk of invasive breast cancer in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis and in postmenopausal women at high risk for invasive breast cancer. Unlike oestrogen, it does not prevent menopausal flushes.

Tamoxifen has antioestrogenic action on mammary tissue but oestrogenic actions on plasma lipids, endometrium and bone. It produces mild oestrogen-like adverse effects consistent with partial agonist activity. The tamoxifen–oestrogen receptor complex does not readily dissociate, so there is interference with the recycling of receptors.

Tamoxifen upregulates transforming growth factor-β, a cytokine that retards the progression of malignancy, and which also has a role in controlling the balance between bone-producing osteoblasts and bone-resorbing osteoclasts (Ch. 35).

Tamoxifen is discussed further in Chapter 55.

Antioestrogens

Antioestrogens compete with natural oestrogens for receptors in target organs; in addition to SERMs (raloxifene, tamoxifen) which are partial agonists in some tissues and antagonists in others, there are drugs that are pure oestrogen receptor antagonists.

Clomiphene inhibits oestrogen binding in the anterior pituitary, so preventing the normal modulation by negative feedback and causing increased secretion of GnRH and gonadotrophins. This results in a marked stimulation and enlargement of the ovaries and increased oestrogen secretion. The main effect of its antioestrogen action in the pituitary is to induce ovulation. It is used in treating infertility caused by lack of ovulation. Twins are common, but multiple pregnancy is unusual.

See the box on oestrogens and antioestrogens for a summary of clinical uses.

Oestrogens and antioestrogens

• The endogenous oestrogens are oestradiol (the most potent), oestrone and oestriol; there are numerous exogenous synthetic forms (e.g. ethinylestradiol).

• Mechanism of action involves interaction with nuclear receptors (termed ERα or ERβ) in target tissues, resulting in modification of gene transcription.

• Their pharmacological effects depend on the sexual maturity of the recipient:

– before puberty, they stimulate development of secondary sexual characteristics

– given cyclically in the female adult, they induce an artificial menstrual cycle and are used for contraception

– given at or after the menopause, they prevent menopausal symptoms and protect against osteoporosis, but increase thromboembolism.

• Antioestrogens are competitive antagonists or partial agonists. **Tamoxifen** is used in oestrogen-dependent breast cancer. **Clomiphene** induces ovulation by inhibiting the negative feedback effects on the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary.

• Selective drugs that are oestrogen agonists in some tissues but antagonists in others are being developed. **Raloxifene** (one such drug) is used to treat and prevent osteoporosis.

Clinical uses of oestrogens and antioestrogens

Oestrogens

• Replacement therapy:

– primary ovarian failure (e.g. Turner's syndrome)

– secondary ovarian failure (menopause) for flushing, vaginal dryness and to preserve bone mass.

• Contraception.

• Prostate and breast cancer (these uses have largely been superseded by other hormonal manipulations; see Ch. 55).

Antioestrogens

• To treat oestrogen-sensitive breast cancer (**tamoxifen**).

• To induce ovulation (**clomiphene**) in treating infertility.

Progestogens

The natural progestational hormone (progestogen) is progesterone (see Figs 34.2 and 34.3). This is secreted by the corpus luteum in the second part of the menstrual cycle, and by the placenta during pregnancy. Small amounts are also secreted by the testis and adrenal cortex.

Progestogens act, as do other steroid hormones, on nuclear receptors. The density of progesterone receptors is controlled by oestrogens (see above).

Preparations

There are two main groups of progestogens:

1 The naturally occurring hormone and its derivatives (e.g. **hydroxyprogesterone**, **medroxyprogesterone**, **dydrogesterone**). Progesterone itself is virtually inactive orally, because after absorption it is metabolised in the liver, and hepatic extraction is nearly complete. Other preparations are available for oral administration, intramuscular injection or administration via the vagina or rectum.

2 Testosterone derivatives (e.g. **norethisterone**, **norgestrel** and **ethynodiol**) can be given orally. The first two have some androgenic activity and are metabolised to give oestrogenic products. Newer

progestogens used in contraception include **desogestrel** and **gestodene**; they may have fewer adverse effects on lipids than ethynodiol and may be considered for women who experience side effects such as acne, depression or breakthrough bleeding with the older drugs. However, these newer drugs have been associated with higher risks of venous thromboembolic disease (see below).

Actions

The pharmacological actions of the progestogens are in essence the same as the physiological actions of progesterone described above. Specific effects relevant to contraception are detailed below.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Injected progesterone is bound to albumin, not to the sex steroid-binding globulin. Some is stored in adipose tissue. It is metabolised in the liver, and the products, pregnanolone and pregnanediol, are conjugated with glucuronic acid and excreted in the urine.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects of progestogens include weak androgenic actions. Other unwanted effects include acne, fluid retention, weight change, depression, change in libido, breast discomfort, premenstrual symptoms, irregular menstrual cycles and breakthrough bleeding. There is an increased incidence of thromboembolism.

Clinical uses of progestogens are summarised in the box.

Antiprogestogens

Mifepristone is a partial agonist at progesterone receptors. It sensitises the uterus to the action of prostaglandins. It is given orally and has a plasma half-life of 21 h. Mifepristone is used, in combination with a

prostaglandin (e.g. **gemeprost**; see below), as a medical alternative to surgical termination of pregnancy (see clinical box).

Progestogens and antiprogestogens

• The endogenous hormone is progesterone. Examples of synthetic drugs are the progesterone derivative **medroxyprogesterone** and the testosterone derivative **norethisterone**.

• Mechanism of action involves intracellular receptor/altered gene expression, as for other steroid hormones. Oestrogen stimulates synthesis of progesterone receptors, whereas progesterone inhibits synthesis of oestrogen receptors.

• Main therapeutic uses are in oral contraception and oestrogen replacement regimens, and to treat endometriosis.

• The antiprogestogen **mifepristone**, in combination with prostaglandin analogues, is an effective medical alternative to surgical termination of early pregnancy.

Clinical uses of progestogens and antiprogestogens

Progestogens

• Contraception:

– with oestrogen in *combined oral contraceptive pill*

– as *progesterone-only contraceptive pill*

– as *injectable* or *implantable* progesterone-only contraception

– as part of an *intrauterine* contraceptive system.

• Combined with oestrogen for *oestrogen replacement therapy* in women with an intact uterus, to prevent endometrial hyperplasia and carcinoma.

• For *endometriosis*.

• In *endometrial carcinoma*; use in breast and renal cancer has declined.

• Poorly validated uses have included various menstrual disorders.

Antiprogestogens

• Medical termination of pregnancy: **mifepristone** (partial agonist) combined with a prostaglandin (e.g. **gemeprost**).

Postmenopausal Hormone Replacement Therapy

At the menopause, whether natural or surgically induced, ovarian function decreases and oestrogen levels fall. There is a long history of disagreement regarding the pros and cons of hormone replacement therapy (HRT) in this context, with the prevailing wisdom undergoing several revisions over the years (see Davis et al., 2005). HRT normally involves the cyclic or continuous administration of low doses of one or more oestrogens, with or without a progestogen. Short-term HRT has some clear-cut benefits:

• improvement of symptoms caused by reduced oestrogen, for example hot flushes and vaginal dryness

• prevention and treatment of osteoporosis, but other drugs are usually preferable for this (Ch. 35).

Oestrogen replacement does not reduce the risk of coronary heart disease, despite earlier hopes, nor is there evidence that it reduces age-related decline in cognitive function. Drawbacks include:

• cyclical withdrawal bleeding

• adverse effects related to progestogen (see above)

• increased risk of endometrial cancer if oestrogen is given unopposed by progestogen

• increased risk of breast cancer, related to the duration of HRT use and

disappearing within 5 years of stopping

• increased risk of venous thromboembolism (risk approximately doubled in women using combined HRT for 5 years).

See Web links in the reference list for a useful table quantifying risks of cancer (breast, endometrium, ovary), venous thromboembolism, stroke and coronary artery disease in relation to age and duration of HRT use.

Oestrogens used in HRT can be given orally (conjugated estrogens, estradiol, estriol), vaginally (estriol), by transdermal patch (estradiol) or by subcutaneous implant (estradiol). **Tibolone** is marketed for the short-term treatment of symptoms of oestrogen deficiency. It has oestrogenic, progestogenic and weak androgenic activity, and can be used continuously without cyclical progesterone (avoiding the inconvenience of withdrawal bleeding).

Androgens

Testosterone is the main natural androgen. It is synthesised mainly by the interstitial cells of the testis, and in smaller amounts by the ovaries and adrenal cortex. Adrenal androgen production is controlled by adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH, corticotrophin). As for other steroid hormones, cholesterol is the starting substance. Dehydroepiandrosterone and androstenedione are important intermediates. They are released from the gonads and the adrenal cortex, and converted to testosterone in the liver (see Fig. 34.3).

Actions

In general, the effects of exogenous androgens are the same as those of testosterone, and depend on the age and sex of the recipient. If given to prepubertal boys, the individuals concerned do not reach their full predicted height because of premature closure of the epiphyses of the

long bones. In boys at the age of puberty, there is rapid development of secondary sexual characteristics (i.e. growth of facial, axillary and pubic hair, deepening of the voice), maturation of the reproductive organs and a marked increase in muscular strength. There is a growth spurt with an acceleration in the usual increase in height that occurs year on year in younger children, followed by cessation of linear growth. In adults, the anabolic effects can be accompanied by retention of salt and water. The skin thickens and may darken, and sebaceous glands become more active which can result in acne. Body weight and muscle mass increase, partly due to water retention. Androgens cause a feeling of well-being and an increase in physical vigour, and may increase libido. Whether they are responsible for sexual behaviour as such is controversial, as is their contribution to aggressive behaviour. Paradoxically, testosterone administration inhibits spermatogenesis, so reducing male fertility.

Administration of 'male' doses to women results in masculinisation, but lower doses (e.g. patches that release 300 μg of testosterone/day) restore plasma testosterone to normal female concentrations and improve sexual dysfunction in women following ovariectomy, without adverse effects (Shifren et al., 2000; Braunstein et al., 2005).

Mechanism of action

In most target cells, testosterone works through an active metabolite, dihydrotestosterone, to which it is converted locally by a 5α-reductase enzyme. In contrast, testosterone itself causes virilisation of the genital tract in the male embryo and regulates LH/ICSH production in anterior pituitary cells. Testosterone and dihydrotestosterone modify gene transcription by interacting with nuclear receptors.

Preparations

Testosterone itself can be given by subcutaneous implantation or by

transdermal patches (male replacement dose approximately 2.5 mg/day. Various esters (e.g. enanthate and proprionate) are given by intramuscular depot injection. Testosterone undecanoate and mesterolone can be given orally.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

If given orally, testosterone is rapidly metabolised in the liver. Virtually all testosterone in the circulation is bound to plasma protein—mainly to the sex steroid-binding globulin. The elimination half-life of free testosterone is short (10–20 min). It is inactivated in the liver by conversion to androstenedione (see Fig. 34.3). This has weak androgenic activity in its own right and can be reconverted to testosterone, although approximately 90% of testosterone is eliminated as metabolites rather than the parent compound. Synthetic androgens are less rapidly metabolised, and some are excreted in the urine unchanged.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects of androgens include eventual decrease of gonadotrophin release, with resultant infertility, and salt and water retention leading to oedema. Adenocarcinoma of the liver has been reported. Androgens impair growth in children (via premature fusion of epiphyses), cause acne and lead to masculinisation in girls. Adverse effects of testosterone replacement and monitoring for these are reviewed by Rhoden & Morgentaler (2004).

The clinical uses of androgens are given in the clinical box.

Androgens and the hormonal control of the male reproductive system 

- Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone from the hypothalamus acts on the anterior pituitary to

release both follicle-stimulating hormone, which stimulates gametogenesis, and luteinising hormone (also called interstitial cell-stimulating hormone), which stimulates androgen secretion.

• The endogenous hormone is testosterone; intramuscular depot injections of testosterone esters are used for replacement therapy.

• Mechanism of action is via intracellular receptors.

• Effects depend on age/sex, and include development of male secondary sexual characteristics in prepubertal boys and masculinisation in women.

Clinical uses of androgens and antiandrogens 

• Androgens (**testosterone** preparations) as hormone replacement in:
  – male hypogonadism due to pituitary or testicular disease (e.g. 2.5 mg/day patches)
  – female hyposexuality following ovariectomy (e.g. 300 μg/day patches).

• Antiandrogens (e.g. **flutamide**, **cyproterone**) are used as part of the treatment of prostatic cancer.

• 5α-Reductase inhibitors (e.g. **finasteride**) are used in benign prostatic hypertrophy.

Anabolic Steroids

Androgens can be modified chemically to alter the balance of anabolic and other effects. Such 'anabolic steroids' (e.g. **nandrolone**) increase protein synthesis and muscle development, but clinical use (e.g. in debilitating disease) has been disappointing. They are used in the therapy of aplastic anaemia and (notoriously) abused by some athletes (Ch. 58), as is testosterone itself. Unwanted effects are described above, under Androgens. In addition, cholestatic jaundice, liver tumours and increased risk of coronary heart disease are recognised adverse effects of high-dose anabolic steroids.

Antiandrogens

Both oestrogens and progestogens have antiandrogen activity, oestrogens mainly by inhibiting gonadotrophin secretion and progestogens by competing at androgen receptors in target organs. **Cyproterone** is a derivative of progesterone and has weak progestational activity. It is a partial agonist at androgen receptors, competing with dihydrotestosterone for receptors in androgen-sensitive target tissues. Through its effect in the hypothalamus, it depresses the synthesis of gonadotrophins. It is used as an adjunct in the treatment of prostatic cancer during initiation of GnRH treatment (see below). It is also used in the therapy of precocious puberty in males, and of masculinisation and acne in women. It also has a central nervous system effect, decreasing libido, and has been used to treat hypersexuality in male sexual offenders.[2]

[2]Very different doses are used for these different conditions, for example 2 mg/day for acne, 100 mg/day for hypersexuality and 300 mg/day for prostatic cancer.

Flutamide is a non-steroidal antiandrogen used with GnRH in the treatment of prostate cancer.

Drugs can have antiandrogen action by inhibiting synthetic enzymes. **Finasteride** inhibits the enzyme (5α-reductase) that converts testosterone to dihydrotestosterone (Fig. 34.3). This which has greater affinity than testosterone for androgen receptors in the prostate gland. Finasteride is well absorbed after oral administration, has a half-life of about 7 h, and is excreted in the urine and faeces. It is used to treat benign prostatic hyperplasia, although α_1-adrenoceptor antagonists, for example **terazosin** or **tamsulosin** (Ch. 14), are more effective (working by the entirely different mechanism of relaxing smooth muscle in the

capsule of the prostate gland and opposing α_1-adrenoceptor-mediated prostatic growth). Surgery is the preferred option (especially by surgeons).

Gonadotrophin-Releasing Hormone: Agonists and Antagonists

Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone is a decapeptide that controls the secretion of FSH and LH by the anterior pituitary. Secretion of GnRH is controlled by neural input from other parts of the brain, and through negative feedback by the sex steroids (Figs 34.1 and 34.5). Exogenous androgens, oestrogens and progestogens all inhibit GnRH secretion, but only progestogens exert this effect at doses that do not have marked hormonal actions on peripheral tissues, presumably because progesterone receptors in the reproductive tract are sparse unless they have been induced by previous exposure to oestrogen. **Danazol** (see below) is a synthetic steroid that inhibits release of GnRH and, consequently, of gonadotrophins (FSH and LH). **Clomiphene** is an oestrogen antagonist that stimulates gonadotrophin release by inhibiting the negative feedback effects of endogenous oestrogen; it is used to treat infertility (see above and Fig. 34.5).

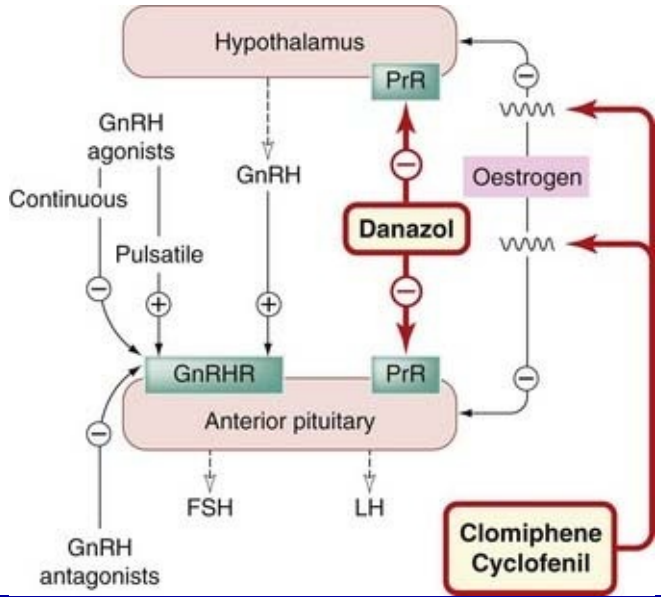


Fig. 34.5 Regulation of gonadotrophin (follicle-stimulating hormone, FSH; luteinising hormone, LH) release from the anterior pituitary.

GnRHR, GnRH receptor; PrR, progestogen receptor.

Synthetic GnRH is termed **gonadorelin**. Numerous analogues of GnRH, both agonists and antagonists, have been synthesised. **Buserelin**, **leuprorelin**, **goserelin** and **nafarelin** are agonists, the last being 200 times more potent than endogenous GnRH.

Pharmacokinetics and clinical use

Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone agonists, given by subcutaneous infusion in pulses to mimic physiological secretion of GnRH, stimulate gonadotrophin release (Fig. 34.5) and induce ovulation. They are absorbed intact following nasal administration (Ch. 8). Continuous use, by nasal spray or as depot preparations, stimulates gonadotrophin release transiently, but then paradoxically inhibits gonadotrophin release (Fig. 34.5) because of downregulation (desensitisation) of GnRH receptors in the pituitary. GnRH analogues are given in this fashion to cause gonadal suppression in various sex hormone-dependent conditions, including prostate and breast cancers, endometriosis (endometrial tissue

outside the uterine cavity) and large uterine fibroids. Continuous, non-pulsatile administration inhibits spermatogenesis and ovulation, raising the possibility (which is under investigation) that GnRH analogues could be useful as contraceptives. GnRH agonists are used by specialists in infertility treatment, not to stimulate ovulation (which is achieved using gonadotrophin preparations) but to suppress the pituitary before administration of FSH or HCG (see below). It was originally hoped that GnRH antagonists would be useful for contraception, but this has not been realised.

Unwanted effects of GnRH analogues

Unwanted effects of GnRH agonists in women, for example flushing, vaginal dryness and bone loss, result from hypo-oestrogenism. The initial stimulation of gonadotrophin secretion on starting treatment can cause transient worsening of pain from bone metastases in men with prostate cancer, so treatment is started only after the patient has received an androgen receptor antagonist such as **flutamide** (see above and Ch. 55).

Danazol

Actions and pharmacokinetics

Danazol inhibits gonadotrophin secretion (especially the mid-cycle surge), and consequently reduces oestrogen synthesis in the ovary (Fig. 34.5). In men, it reduces androgen synthesis and spermatogenesis. It has androgenic activity. It is orally active and metabolised in the liver.

Danazol is used in sex hormone-dependent conditions including endometriosis, breast dysplasia and gynaecomastia. An additional special use is to reduce attacks of swelling in hereditary angio-oedema (Ch. 27).

Unwanted effects are common, and include gastrointestinal disturbances, weight gain, fluid retention, dizziness, menopausal

symptoms, muscle cramps and headache. Danazol is virilising in women.

Gonadotrophins and Analogues

Gonadotrophins (FSH, LH and HCG) are glycoproteins produced and secreted by the anterior pituitary (see Ch. 32) or chorion and placenta. Large amounts of gonadotrophins are present in the urine of women following the menopause, in whom oestrogen no longer exerts feedback inhibition on the pituitary, which consequently secretes large amounts of FSH and LH.[3] The chorion and placenta secrete HCG.

[3]This forms the basis for the standard blood test, estimation of plasma LH/FSH concentrations, to confirm whether a woman is postmenopausal.

Preparations

Gonadotrophins are extracted from urine of pregnant (HCG) or postmenopausal women (human menopausal gonadotrophin, which contains a mixture of FSH and LH). Recombinant FSH (**follitropin**) and LH (**lutropin**) are also available.

Pharmacokinetics and clinical use

Gonadotrophin preparations are given by injection. They are used to treat infertility caused by lack of ovulation as a result of hypopituitarism, or following failure of treatment with **clomiphene**; they are also used by specialists to induce ovulation to enable eggs to be collected for in vitro fertilisation. For this use, gonadotrophin is usually administered after secretion of endogenous FSH and LH has been suppressed (see above). Gonadotrophins are also sometimes used in men with infertility caused by a low sperm count as a result of hypogonadotrophic hypogonadism (a disorder that is sometimes accompanied by lifelong anosmia, *i.e.* lack of sense of smell).

(Gonadotrophins do not, of course, work for patients whose low sperm count is the result of primary testicular failure.) HCG has been used to stimulate testosterone synthesis in boys with delayed puberty, but testosterone is usually preferred.

Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone and gonadotrophins

• Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone is a decapeptide; **gonadorelin** is the synthetic form. **Nafarelin** is a potent analogue.

• Given in pulsatile fashion, they stimulate gonadotrophin release; given continuously, they inhibit it.

• The gonadotrophins, follicle-stimulating hormone and luteinising hormone, are glycoproteins.

• Preparations of gonadotrophins (e.g. chorionic gonadotrophin) are used to treat infertility caused by lack of ovulation.

• **Danazol** is a modified progestogen that inhibits gonadotrophin production by an action on the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary.

Drugs Used for Contraception

Oral Contraceptives

There are two main types of oral contraceptives:

1 Combinations of an oestrogen with a progestogen (the combined pill).

2 Progestogen alone (the progestogen-only pill).

The Combined Pill

The combined oral contraceptive pill is extremely effective, at least in the absence of intercurrent illness and of treatment with potentially

interacting drugs (see below). The oestrogen in most combined preparations (second-generation pills)[4] is **ethinylestradiol**, although a few preparations contain **mestranol** instead. The progestogen may be **norethisterone**, **levonorgestrel**, **ethynodiol**, or—in 'third-generation' pills—**desogestrel** or **gestodene**, which are more potent, have less androgenic action and cause less change in lipoprotein metabolism, but which probably cause a greater risk of thromboembolism than do second-generation preparations. The oestrogen content is generally 20–50 μg of ethinylestradiol or its equivalent, and a preparation is chosen with the lowest oestrogen and progestogen content that is well tolerated and gives good cycle control in the individual woman. This combined pill is taken for 21 consecutive days followed by 7 pill-free days, which causes a withdrawal bleed. Normal cycles of menstruation usually commence fairly soon after discontinuing treatment, and permanent loss of fertility (which may be a result of early menopause rather than a long-term consequence of the contraceptive pill) is rare.

[4]The first-generation pills, containing more than 50 μg of oestrogen, were shown in the 1970s to be associated with an increased risk of deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism.

The mode of action is as follows:

• Oestrogen inhibits secretion of FSH via negative feedback on the anterior pituitary, and thus suppresses development of the ovarian follicle.

• Progestogen inhibits secretion of LH and thus prevents ovulation; it also makes the cervical mucus less suitable for the passage of sperm.

• Oestrogen and progestogen act in concert to alter the endometrium in such a way as to discourage implantation.

They may also interfere with the coordinated contractions of the cervix, uterus and fallopian tubes that facilitate fertilisation and implantation.

Hundreds of millions of women worldwide have used this method since the 1960s, and in general the combined pill constitutes a safe and effective method of contraception. There are distinct health benefits from taking the pill (see below), and serious adverse effects are rare. However, minor unwanted effects constitute drawbacks to its use, and several important questions need to be considered.

Common adverse effects

The common adverse effects are:

- weight gain, owing to fluid retention or an anabolic effect, or both
- mild nausea, flushing, dizziness, depression or irritability
- skin changes (e.g. acne and/or an increase in pigmentation)
- amenorrhoea of variable duration on cessation of taking the pill.

Questions that need to be considered

Is there an increased risk of cardiovascular disease (venous thromboembolism, myocardial infarction, stroke)?

With second-generation pills (oestrogen content less than 50 μg), the risk of thromboembolism is small (incidence approximately 15 per 100 000 users per year, compared with 5 per 100 000 non-pregnant non-users per year or 60 episodes of thromboembolism per 100 000 pregnancies). The risk is greatest in subgroups with additional factors, such as smoking (which increases risk substantially) and long-continued use of the pill, especially in women over 35 years of age. For preparations containing

the third-generation progestogens **desogestrel** or **gestodene**, the incidence of thromboembolic disease is approximately 25 per 100 000 users per year, which is still a small absolute risk compared with the risk of thromboemolism in an unwanted pregnancy. In general, provided risk factors, *e.g.* smoking, hypertension and obesity, have been identified, combined oral contraceptives are safe for most women for most of their reproductive lives.

Is cancer risk affected?

Ovarian and endometrial cancer risk is *reduced*.

Is blood pressure increased?

A marked increase in arterial blood pressure occurs in a small percentage of women shortly after starting the combined oral contraceptive pill. This is associated with increased circulating angiotensinogen, and disappears when treatment is stopped. Blood pressure is therefore monitored carefully when oral contraceptive treatment is started, and an alternative contraceptive substituted if necessary.

Beneficial effects

The combined pill markedly decreases menstrual symptoms such as irregular periods and intermenstrual bleeding. Iron deficiency anaemia and premenstrual tension are reduced, as are benign breast disease, uterine fibroids and functional cysts of the ovaries. Unwanted pregnancy, carrying a maternal mortality ranging from 1 in 10 000 in developed countries to 1 in 150 in Africa, is avoided.

The Progestogen-Only Pill

The drugs used in progestogen-only pills include **norethisterone**,

levonorgestrel or **ethynodiol**. The pill is taken daily without interruption. The mode of action is primarily on the cervical mucus, which is made inhospitable to sperm. The progestogen probably also hinders implantation through its effect on the endometrium and on the motility and secretions of the fallopian tubes (see above).

Potential beneficial and unwanted effects

Progestogen-only contraceptives offer a suitable alternative to the combined pill for some women in whom oestrogen is contraindicated, and are suitable for women whose blood pressure increases unacceptably during treatment with oestrogen. However, their contraceptive effect is less reliable than that of the combination pill, and missing a dose may result in conception. Disturbances of menstruation (especially irregular bleeding) are common. Only a small proportion of women use this form of contraception, so long-term safety data are less reliable than for the combined pill.

Pharmacokinetics of oral contraceptives: drug interactions

Combined and progestogen-only oral contraceptives are metabolised by hepatic cytochrome P450 enzymes. Because the minimum effective dose of oestrogen is used (in order to avoid excess risk of thromboembolism), any increase in its clearance may result in contraceptive failure, and indeed enzyme-inducing drugs can have this effect not only for combined but also for progesterone-only pills. Such drugs include (*par excellence*) **rifampicin** and **rifabutin**, as well as **carbamazepine**, **phenytoin** and others. Enterohepatic recycling of oestrogen is mentioned above. Broad-spectrum antibiotics such as **amoxicillin** can disturb this by altering the intestinal flora, and cause failure of the combined pill. This does not occur with progestogen-only pills.

Oral contraceptives

The combined pill

• The combined pill contains an oestrogen and a progestogen. It is taken for 21 consecutive days out of 28.

• Mode of action: the oestrogen inhibits follicle-stimulating hormone release and therefore follicle development; the progestogen inhibits luteinising hormone release and therefore ovulation, and makes cervical mucus inhospitable for sperm; together, they render the endometrium unsuitable for implantation.

• Drawbacks: weight gain, nausea, mood changes and skin pigmentation can occur.

• Serious unwanted effects are rare. A small proportion of women develop reversible hypertension; there is evidence both for and against an increased risk of breast cancer. There is a small increased risk of thromboembolism with third-generation pills.

• There are several beneficial effects, not least the avoidance of unwanted pregnancy, which itself carries risks to health.

The progestogen-only pill

• The progestogen-only pill is taken continuously. It differs from the combined pill in that the contraceptive effect is less reliable and is mainly a result of the alteration of cervical mucus. Irregular bleeding is common.

Other Drug Regimens Used for Contraception

Postcoital (Emergency) Contraception

Oral administration of **levonorgestrel**, alone or combined with oestrogen, is effective if taken within 72 h of unprotected intercourse and repeated 12 h later. Nausea and vomiting are common (and the pills may then be lost: replacement tablets can be taken with an antiemetic

such as **domperidone**). Insertion of an intrauterine device is more effective than hormonal methods, and works up to 5 days after intercourse.

Long-Acting Progestogen-Only Contraception

Medroxyprogesterone can be given intramuscularly as a contraceptive. This is effective and safe. However, menstrual irregularities are common, and infertility may persist for many months after cessation of treatment.

Levonorgestrel implanted subcutaneously in non-biodegradable capsules is used by approximately 3 million women worldwide. This route of administration avoids first-pass metabolism. The capsules release their progestogen content slowly over 5 years. Irregular bleeding and headache are common.

A levonorgestrel-impregnated intrauterine device has contraceptive action for 35 years.

The Uterus

The physiological and pharmacological responses of the uterus vary at different stages of the menstrual cycle and during pregnancy.

The Motility of the Uterus

Uterine muscle contracts rhythmically both in vitro and in vivo, contractions originating in the muscle itself. Myometrial cells in the fundus act as pacemakers and give rise to conducted action potentials. The electrophysiological activity of these pacemaker cells is regulated by the sex hormones.

The non-pregnant human uterus contracts spontaneously but weakly during the first part of the cycle, and more strongly during the luteal phase and during menstruation. Uterine movements are depressed in

early pregnancy because oestrogen, potentiated by progesterone, hyperpolarises myometrial cells. This suppresses spontaneous contractions. Towards the end of gestation, however, contractions recommence; these increase in force and frequency, and become fully coordinated during parturition. The nerve supply to the uterus includes both excitatory and inhibitory sympathetic components: adrenaline, acting on β_2 adrenoceptors, inhibits uterine contraction, whereas noradrenaline, acting on α-adrenoceptors, stimulates contraction.

Drugs that Stimulate the Uterus

Drugs that stimulate the pregnant uterus and are important in obstetrics include **oxytocin**, **ergometrine** and *prostaglandins*.

Oxytocin

As explained in Chapter 32, the neurohypophyseal hormone oxytocin (an octapeptide) regulates myometrial activity. Oxytocin release is stimulated by cervical dilatation, and by suckling, but its role in parturition is incompletely understood.

Oxytocin contracts the uterus. Oestrogen induces oxytocin receptor synthesis and, consequently, the uterus at term is highly sensitive to this hormone. Given by slow intravenous infusion to induce labour, oxytocin causes regular coordinated contractions that travel from fundus to cervix. Both amplitude and frequency of these contractions are related to dose, the uterus relaxing completely between contractions during low-dose infusion. Larger doses further increase the frequency of the contractions, and there is incomplete relaxation between them. Still higher doses cause sustained contractions that interfere with blood flow through the placenta and cause fetal distress or death.

Oxytocin contracts myoepithelial cells in the mammary gland, which

causes ‘milk let-down’—the expression of milk from the alveoli and ducts. It also has a vasodilator action. A weak antidiuretic action can result in water retention, which can be problematic in patients with cardiac or renal disease, or with pre-eclampsia.[5] Oxytocin and oxytocin receptors are also found in the brain, particularly in the limbic system, and are believed to play a role in mating and parenting behaviour.

[5]Eclampsia is a pathological condition (involving, among other things, high blood pressure, swelling and seizures) that occurs in pregnant women.

The clinical use of synthetic oxytocin is given in the box.

Oxytocin can be given by intravenous injection or intramuscularly, but is most often given by intravenous infusion. It is inactivated in the liver and kidneys, and by circulating placental oxytocinase.

Unwanted effects of oxytocin include dose-related hypotension, due to vasodilatation, with associated reflex tachycardia. Its antidiuretic hormone-like effect on water excretion by the kidney causes water retention and, unless water intake is curtailed, consequent hyponatraemia.

Ergometrine

Ergot (*Claviceps purpurea*) is a fungus that grows on rye and contains a surprising variety of pharmacologically active substances (see Ch. 15). Ergot poisoning, which was once common, was often associated with abortion. In 1935, **ergometrine** was isolated and was recognised as the oxytocic principle in ergot.

Ergometrine contracts the human uterus. This action depends partly on the contractile state of the organ. On a contracted uterus (the normal state following delivery), ergometrine has relatively little effect.

However, if the uterus is inappropriately relaxed, ergometrine initiates strong contraction, thus reducing bleeding from the placental bed (the raw surface from which the placenta has detached). Ergometrine also has a moderate vasoconstrictor action.

The mechanism of action of ergometrine on smooth muscle is not understood. It is possible that it acts partly on α-adrenoceptors, like the related alkaloid ergotamine (see Ch. 14), and partly on 5-hydroxytryptamine receptors.

The clinical use of ergometrine is given in the box.

Ergometrine can be given orally, intramuscularly or intravenously. It has a very rapid onset of action and its effect lasts for 3–6 h.

Ergometrine can produce vomiting, probably by an effect on dopamine D_2 receptors in the chemoreceptor trigger zone (see Fig. 29.5). Vasoconstriction with an increase in blood pressure associated with nausea, blurred vision and headache can occur, as can vasospasm of the coronary arteries, resulting in angina.

Prostaglandins

Prostaglandins are discussed in detail in Chapter 17. The endometrium and myometrium have substantial prostaglandin-synthesising capacity, particularly in the second, proliferative phase of the menstrual cycle. Prostaglandin (PG)$F_{2\alpha}$ is generated in large amounts, and has been implicated in the ischaemic necrosis of the endometrium that precedes menstruation (although it has relatively little vasoconstrictor action on many human blood vessels, in contrast to some other mammalian species). Vasodilator prostaglandins, PGE_2 and PGI_2 (prostacyclin), are also generated by the uterus.

In addition to their vasoactive properties, the E and F prostaglandins

contract the non-pregnant as well as the pregnant uterus. The sensitivity of uterine muscle to prostaglandins increases during gestation. Their role in parturition is not fully understood, but as cyclo-oxygenase inhibitors can delay labour (see below), they probably play some part in this.

Prostaglandins also play a part in two of the main disorders of menstruation: dysmenorrhoea (painful menstruation) and menorrhagia (excessive blood loss). Dysmenorrhoea is associated with increased production of PGE_2 and $PGF_{2\alpha}$; non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, which inhibit prostaglandin biosynthesis (see Ch. 26), are used to treat dysmenorrhoea. Menorrhagia, in the absence of uterine pathology, may be caused by a combination of increased vasodilatation and reduced haemostasis. Increased generation by the uterus of PGI_2 (which inhibits platelet aggregation) could impair haemostasis as well as causing vasodilatation. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (e.g. **mefenamic acid**) are used to treat menorrhagia as well as dysmenorrhoea.

Prostaglandin preparations

Prostaglandins of the E and F series promote coordinated contractions of the body of the pregnant uterus, while relaxing the cervix. E and F prostaglandins reliably cause abortion in early and middle pregnancy, unlike oxytocin which generally does not cause expulsion of the uterine contents at this stage. The prostaglandins used in obstetrics are **dinoprostone** (PGE_2), **carboprost** (15-methyl $PGF_{2\alpha}$) and **gemeprost** or **misoprostol** (PGE_1 analogues). Dinoprostone can be given intravaginally as a gel or as tablets, or by the extra-amniotic route as a solution. Carboprost is given by deep intramuscular injection. Gemeprost or misoprostol are given intravaginally.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects include uterine pain, nausea and vomiting, which

occur in about 50% of patients when the drugs are used as abortifacients. Dinoprost may cause cardiovascular collapse if it escapes into the circulation after intra-amniotic injection. Phlebitis can occur at the site of intravenous infusion. When combined with mifepristone, a progestogen antagonist that sensitises the uterus to prostaglandins, lower doses of the prostaglandins (e.g. misoprostol) can be used to terminate pregnancy and side effects are reduced.

See the clinical box for the clinical uses of prostaglandins.

Clinical uses of drugs acting on the uterus

Myometrial stimulants (oxytocics)

• **Oxytocin** is used to *induce or augment labour* when the uterine muscle is not functioning adequately. It can also be used to treat *postpartum haemorrhage*.

• **Ergometrine** can be used to treat *postpartum haemorrhage*. **Carboprost** can be used if patients do not respond to ergometrine.

• A preparation containing both oxytocin and ergometrine is used for the management of the third stage of labour; the two agents together can also be used, prior to surgery, to control bleeding due to incomplete abortion.

• **Dinoprostone** given by the extra-amniotic route is used for late (second trimester) *therapeutic abortion*; given as vaginal gel, it is used for cervical ripening and induction of labour.

• **Gemeprost**, given as vaginal pessary following **mifepristone**, is used as a medical alternative to surgical *termination of pregnancy* (up to 63 days of gestation).

Myometrial relaxants

• The β-adrenoceptor agonists (e.g. **ritodrine**) are used to delay *preterm labour*.

• **Atosiban** (oxytocin antagonist) also delays preterm labour.

Drugs that Inhibit Uterine Contraction

Selective β_2-adrenoceptor agonists, such as **ritodrine** or **salbutamol**, inhibit spontaneous or oxytocin-induced contractions of the pregnant uterus. These uterine relaxants are used in selected patients to prevent premature labour occurring between 22 and 33 weeks of gestation in otherwise uncomplicated pregnancies. They can delay delivery by 48 h, time that can be used to administer glucocorticoid therapy to the mother so as to mature the lungs of the baby and reduce neonatal respiratory distress. It has been difficult to demonstrate that any of the drugs used to delay labour improve the outcome for the baby. Risks to the mother, especially pulmonary oedema, increase after 48 h, and myometrial response is reduced, so prolonged treatment is avoided. Cyclo-oxygenase inhibitors (e.g. **indometacin**) inhibit labour, but their use could cause problems in the baby, including renal dysfunction and delayed closure of the ductus arteriosus, both of which are influenced by endogenous prostaglandins.

An oxytocin receptor antagonist, **atosiban**, provides an alternative to a β_2-adrenoceptor agonist. It is given as an intravenous bolus followed by an intravenous infusion for not more than 48 h. Adverse effects include vasodilatation, nausea, vomiting and hyperglycaemia.

Drugs acting on the uterus

• At parturition, **oxytocin** causes regular coordinated uterine contractions, each followed by relaxation; **ergometrine**, an ergot alkaloid, causes uterine contractions with an increase in basal tone. **Atosiban**, an antagonist of oxytocin, delays labour.

• Prostaglandin (PG) analogues, for example **dinoprostone** (PGE_2) and **dinoprost** ($PGF_{2\alpha}$),

contract the pregnant uterus but relax the cervix. Cyclo-oxygenase inhibitors inhibit PG synthesis and delay labour. They also alleviate symptoms of dysmenorrhoea and menorrhagia.

• The β_2-adrenoceptor agonists (e.g. **ritodrine**) inhibit spontaneous and oxytocin-induced contractions of the pregnant uterus.

Erectile Dysfunction

Erectile function depends on complex interactions between physiological and psychological factors. Erection is caused by vasorelaxation in the arteries and arterioles supplying the erectile tissue. This increases penile blood flow; the consequent increase in sinusoidal filling compresses the venules, occluding venous outflow and causing erection. During sexual intercourse, reflex contraction of the ischiocavernosus muscles compresses the base of the corpora cavernosa, and the intracavernosal pressure can reach several hundred millimetres of mercury during this phase of rigid erection. Innervation of the penis includes autonomic and somatic nerves. Nitric oxide is probably the main mediator of erection and is released both from nitrergic nerves and from endothelium (Ch. 20; Fig. 20.6).

Erectile function is adversely affected by several therapeutic drugs (including many antipsychotic, antidepressant and antihypertensive agents), and psychiatric and vascular disease (especially if this has caused endothelial dysfunction) can themselves cause erectile dysfunction, which is common in middle-aged and older men, even if they have no psychiatric or cardiovascular problems.[6] There are several organic causes, including hypogonadism (see above), hyperprolactinaemia (see Ch. 32), arterial disease and various causes of neuropathy (most commonly diabetes), but often no organic cause is identified.

[6]In randomised controlled trials, an appreciable proportion of men who discontinued treatment because of erectile dysfunction had been receiving placebo.

Over the centuries, there has been a huge trade in parts of various creatures that have the misfortune to bear some fancied resemblance to human genitalia, in the pathetic belief that consuming these will restore virility or act as an aphrodisiac (i.e. a drug that stimulates libido). Alcohol (Ch. 48) 'provokes the desire but takes away the performance', and cannabis (Ch. 18) can also release inhibitions and probably does the same. **Yohimbine** (an α_2 adrenoceptor antagonist; Ch. 14) may have some positive effect in this regard, but trials have proved inconclusive. **Apomorphine** (a dopamine agonist; Ch. 38) causes erections in humans as well as in rodents when injected subcutaneously, but it is a powerful emetic, an effect that is usually regarded as socially unacceptable in this context. Despite this rather obvious disadvantage, a sublingual preparation is licensed for erectile dysfunction.[7] Nausea is said to subside with continued use—but really!

[7]Ironically so, because apomorphine was used as 'aversion therapy' in a misguided attempt to 'cure' homosexuality by conditioning individuals to associate homoerotic stimuli with nausea and vomiting, during the not-so-very-far-off time when homosexuality was classified as a psychiatric disease ('only apomorphine cures'—William Burroughs, *Naked Lunch*. Grove Press, 1966).

The generally negative picture picked up somewhat when it was found that injecting vasodilator drugs directly into the corpora cavernosa causes penile erection. **Papaverine** (Ch. 22), if necessary with the addition of **phentolamine**, was used in this way. The route of administration is not acceptable to most men, but diabetics in particular are often not needle-shy, and this approach was a real boon to many

such patients. **PGE_1** (**alprostadil**) is often combined with other vasodilators when given intracavernosally. It can also be given transurethrally as an alternative (albeit still a somewhat unromantic one) to injection. Adverse effects of all these drugs include priapism, which is no joke. Treatment consists of aspiration of blood (using sterile technique) and, if necessary, cautious intracavernosal administration of a vasoconstrictor such as **phenylephrine**. Intracavernosal and transurethral preparations are still available, but orally active phosphodiesterase inhibitors are now generally the drugs of choice.

Phosphodiesterase Type V Inhibitors

Sildenafil, the first selective phosphodiesterase type V inhibitor (see also Chs 20 and 22), was found accidentally to influence erectile function.[8] **Tadalafil** and **vardenafil** are also phosphodiesterase type V inhibitors licensed to treat erectile dysfunction. Tadalafil is longer acting than sildenafil. In contrast to intracavernosal vasodilators, phosphodiesterase type V inhibitors do not cause erection independent of sexual desire, but enhance the erectile response to sexual stimulation. They have transformed the treatment of erectile dysfunction.

[8]Sildenafil was originally intended to treat angina, but volunteers in early phase trials reported an effect on affairs of the heart in a quite different anatomical region from the precordium.

Mechanism of action

Phosphodiesterase V is the isoform that inactivates cGMP. Nitrergic nerves release nitric oxide (or a related nitrosothiol) which diffuses into smooth muscle cells, where it activates guanylyl cyclase. The resulting increase in cytoplasmic cGMP mediates vasodilatation via activation of protein kinase G (Fig 4.10). Consequently, inhibition of phosphodiesterase V potentiates the effect on penile vascular smooth

muscle of endothelium-derived nitric oxide and of nitrergic nerves that are activated by sexual stimulation (Fig. 34.6). Other vascular beds are also affected, suggesting other possible uses, notably in pulmonary hypertension (Ch. 22).

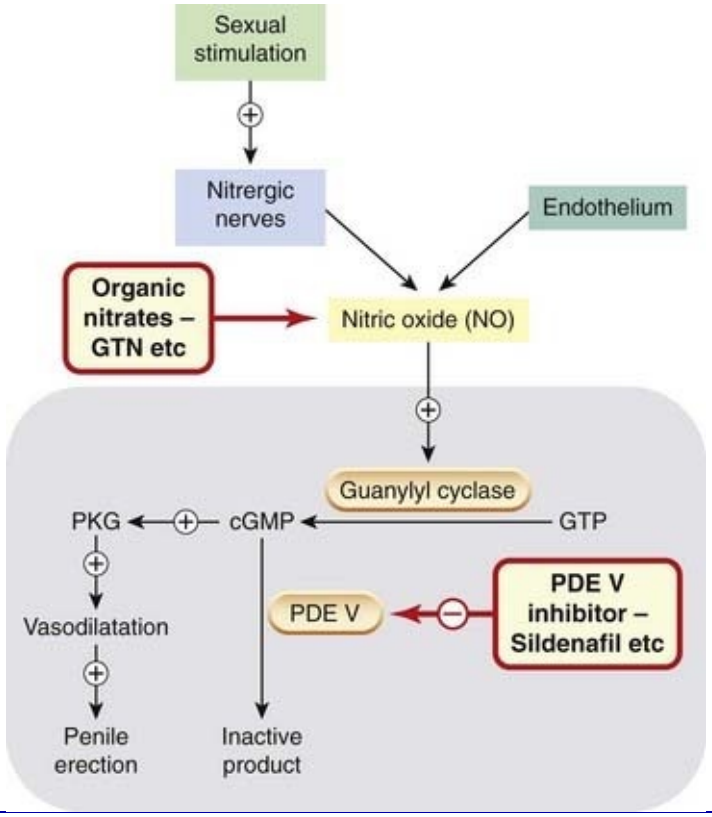


Fig. 34.6 Mechanism of phosphodiesterase V (PDE V) inhibitors on penile erection, and of the interaction of PDE V inhibitors with organic nitrates.

The large grey rectangle denotes a vascular smooth muscle cell in the corpora cavernosa. Sexual stimulation releases nitric oxide (NO) from nitrergic nerves and this activates guanylyl cyclase, increasing cGMP production and hence activating protein kinase G (PKG), causing vasodilatation and penile erection. cGMP is inactivated by PDE V, so PDE V inhibitors (e.g. sildenafil) potentiate NO and promote penile erection. NO from organic nitrates such as glyceryl trinitrate (GTN) is also potentiated leading to generalised vasodilatation and hypotension.

Pharmacokinetic aspects and drug interactions

Peak plasma concentrations of sildenafil occur approximately 30–120 min after an oral dose and are delayed by eating, so it is taken an

hour or more before sexual activity. It is given as a single dose as needed. It is metabolised by CYP3A4, which is induced by **carbamazepine**, **rifampicin** and **barbiturates**, and inhibited by **cimetidine**, macrolide antibiotics, antifungal imidazolines, some antiviral drugs (such as **ritonavir**) and also by grapefruit juice (Ch. 56). These drugs can potentially interact with sildenafil in consequence. Tadalafil has a longer half-life than sildenafil, so can be taken longer before sexual activity. A clinically important pharmacodynamic interaction of all phosphodiesterase V inhibitors occurs with all organic nitrates,[9] which work through increasing cGMP (Ch. 20) and are therefore markedly potentiated by sildenafil (Fig. 34.6). Consequently, concurrent nitrate use, including use of **nicorandil**, contraindicates the use of any phosphodiesterase type V inhibitor.

[9]This is important not only for sufferers from angina who take nitrates such as glyceryl trinitrate or isosorbide mononitrate therapeutically or prophylactically and are at risk of hypotension because of coronary artery disease, but also asymptomatic individuals who take amyl nitrate recreationally (‘poppers’) because of its effect on pelvic musculature.

Unwanted effects

Many of the unwanted effects of phosphodiesterase type V inhibitors are caused by vasodilatation in other vascular beds; these effects include hypotension, flushing and headache. Visual disturbances have occasionally been reported and are of concern because sildenafil has some action on phosphodiesterase VI, which is present in the retina and important in vision. The manufacturers advise that sildenafil should not be used in patients with hereditary retinal degenerative diseases (such as retinitis pigmentosa) because of the theoretical risk posed by this. Vardenafil is more selective for the type V isozyme than is sildenafil

(reviewed by Doggrell, 2005), but is also contraindicated in patients with hereditary retinal disorders.

References and Further Reading

Sex hormones and their control

arrett-Connor E., Mosca L., Collins P., *et al.* Effects of raloxifene on cardiovascular events and breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *N. Eng. J. Med.*. 2006;355:125-137. (*Reduced breast cancer*)

hen Z., Yuhanna I.S., Galcheva-Gargova Z., *et al.* Estrogen receptor-alpha mediates the nongenomic activation of endothelial nitric oxide synthase by estrogen. *J. Clin. Invest.* 1999;103:401-406. (*Acute vasodilator action of oestrogen may involve membrane ER rather than the classic intracellular receptor pathway*)

ruber C.J., Tschugguel W., Schneeberger C., Huber J.C. Production and actions of estrogens. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2002;346:340-352. (*Review focusing on the new biochemical aspects of the action of oestrogen—including phyto-oestrogens and selective oestrogen receptor modulators—as well as physiological and clinical aspects*)

uirne J.A.F., Lambalk C.B. Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone receptor antagonists. *Lancet.* 2001;358:1793-1803. (*Review discussing their clinical potential*)

live D.L., Pritts E.A. Treatment of endometriosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;34:266-275. (*Critical review of existing evidence—which is thin—forms the basis for sensible recommendations regarding treatment of pelvic pain or infertility from endometriosis using oral contraceptives and GnRH agonist therapy with oestrogen–progestin add-back*)

hoden E.L., Morgentaler A. Risks of testosterone-replacement therapy and recommendations for monitoring. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2004;350:482-492. (*Review*)

ogel V., Constantino J., Wickerman L., *et al.* Effects of tamoxifen vs. raloxifene on the risk of developing invasive breast cancer and other disease outcomes. *JAMA*. 2006;295:2727-2741. (*Raloxifene had similar efficacy as tamoxifen with fewer thrombotic events*)

Contraceptives

jerassi C. *This man's pill: reflections on the 50th birthday of the pill*. New York: Oxford University Press; 2001. (*Scientific and autobiographical memoir by polymath steroid chemist who worked on 'the pill' at its inception under Syntex in Mexico, and has continued thinking about human reproduction in a broad biological and biosocial sense ever since*)

Postmenopausal aspects

raunstein G.D., Sundwall D.A., Katz M., et al Safety and efficacy of a testosterone patch for the treatment of hypoactive sexual desire disorder in surgically menopausal women: a randomized, placebo-controlled trial 165. 2005 Arch. Intern. Med.

avis S.R., Dinatale I., Rivera-Woll L., Davison S. Postmenopausal hormone therapy: from monkey glands to transdermal patches. *J. Endocrinol.*. 2005;185:207-222. (*Reviews the history of knowledge of the menopause and the development of hormonal therapy for climacteric complaints, and summarises current evidence for specific benefits and risks of hormone treatment*)

ulley S., Grady D., Bush T., *et al.* Randomized trial of estrogen plus progestin for secondary prevention of coronary heart disease in postmenopausal women. *JAMA*. 1998;280:605-613. (*A total of 2763 postmenopausal women who had suffered a previous coronary event randomised to active or placebo and observed for a mean of 4.1 years. The incidence of fatal myocardial infarction was similar in the two groups, despite favourable changes in low-and high-density lipoproteins cholesterol in the HRT group. Venous thromboembolism was increased by a factor of 2.89 in the active group*)

hifren J.L., Braunstein G.D., Simon J.A., *et al.* Transdermal testosterone treatment in women with impaired sexual function after oophorectomy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2000;343:682-688. (*Transdermal testosterone improves sexual function and psychological well-being in women who have undergone oophorectomy and hysterectomy*)

The uterus

orwitz E.R., Robinson J.N., Challis J.R. The control of labor. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1999;341:660-666.

(*Review*)

hornton S., Vatish M., Slater D. Oxytocin antagonists: clinical and scientific considerations. *Exp. Physiol.*. 2001;86:297-302. (*Reviews rationale for uterine relaxants in preterm labour; evidence for administering atosiban; and the role of oxytocin, vasopressin and their receptors in the onset of labour*)

Erectile dysfunction

ndersson K.-E. Pharmacology of penile erection. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2001;53:417-450. (*Scholarly review covering central and peripheral regulation, and a very wide-ranging coverage of the pharmacology*)

oggrell S.A. Comparison of clinical trials with sildenafil, vardenafil and tadalafil in erectile dysfunction. *Expert Opin. Pharmacother.*. 2005;6:75-84. (*Vardenafil is similarly effective to sildenafil. Its only advantage is that it does not inhibit phosphodiesterase VI to alter colour perception, a rare side effect that sometimes occurs with sildenafil. Tadalafil has a longer duration of action*)

Useful Web resource

ttp://www.mhra.gov.uk/mhra/drugsafetyupdate (*A useful table quantifying risks of cancer [breast, endometrium, ovary], venous thromboembolism, stroke and coronary artery disease in relation to age and duration of HRT use*)

35

Bone metabolism

Overview

In this chapter, we consider first the cellular and biochemical processes involved in bone remodelling, and the various hormones and other mediators that regulate these processes. We then describe the drugs used to treat disorders of bone and finally deal with the new agents in the pipeline.

Introduction

The human skeleton undergoes a continuous process of remodelling throughout life—some bone being resorbed and new bone being laid down resulting in the complete skeleton being replaced every 10 years. With advancing age, there is an increasing possibility of structural deterioration and decreased bone mass (osteoporosis). This constitutes a major health problem throughout the world, and there are, in addition, various other conditions that can lead to pathological changes in bone that require therapy. In the past decade, there have been significant advances in the understanding of bone biology, which have already led to new drugs, progress that will no doubt continue.

Bone Structure and Composition

The human skeleton consists of 80% cortical bone and 20% trabecular bone. Cortical bone is the dense, compact outer part, and trabecular bone the inner meshwork. The former predominates in the shafts of long

bones, the latter in the vertebrae, the epiphyses of long bones and the iliac crest. Trabecular bone, having a large surface area, is metabolically more active and more affected by factors that lead to bone loss (see below).

The main minerals in bone are calcium and phosphates. More than 99% of the calcium in the body is in the skeleton, mostly as crystalline hydroxyapatite but some as non-crystalline phosphates and carbonates; together, these make up half the bone mass.

The main cells in bone homeostasis are *osteoblasts*, *osteoclasts* and *osteocytes*.

• Osteoblasts are bone-forming cells derived from precursor cells in the bone marrow and the periosteum: they secrete important components of the extracellular matrix—the *osteoid*, particularly the collagen. They also have a role in the activation of osteoclasts (see below).

• Osteoclasts are multinucleated bone-resorbing cells derived from precursor cells of the macrophage/monocyte lineage.

• Osteocytes are derived from the osteoblasts, which, during the formation of new bone, become embedded in the bony matrix and differentiate into osteocytes. These cells form a connected cellular network that, along with the nerve fibres in bone, has a role in the response to mechanical loading in that the cells can sense mechanical strain and cracking, and respond by triggering bone remodelling. To balance this effect they can secrete *sclerostin,* which reduces bone formation (Khosla et al., 2008).

• Other cells of importance are monocytes/macrophages, lymphocytes and vascular endothelial cells; these secrete cytokines and other mediators necessary for bone remodelling.

Osteoid is the organic matrix of bone and its principal component is collagen. But there are also other components such as *proteoglycans*, *osteocalcin* and various phosphoproteins, one of which, *osteonectin*, binds to both calcium and collagen and thus links these two major constituents of bone matrix.

Calcium phosphate crystals in the form of hydroxyapatite [$Ca_{10}(PO_4)_6(OH)_2$] are deposited in the osteoid, converting it into hard bone matrix.

In addition to its structural function, bone plays a major role in overall calcium homeostasis in the body.

Bone Remodelling

There has been substantial progress in our understanding of bone remodelling in recent years (see reviews by Boyce & Xing, 2008; Gallagher, 2008; Deal, 2009; and Wright et al., 2009.)

The process of remodelling involves the following:

- the activity of the two main cell types: osteoblasts and osteoclasts (Fig. 35.1)
- the actions of a variety of cytokines (Figs 35.1 and 35.2)
- the turnover of bone minerals—particularly calcium and phosphate
- the actions of several hormones: parathyroid hormone (PTH), the vitamin D family, oestrogens, growth hormone, steroids, calcitonin and various cytokines.

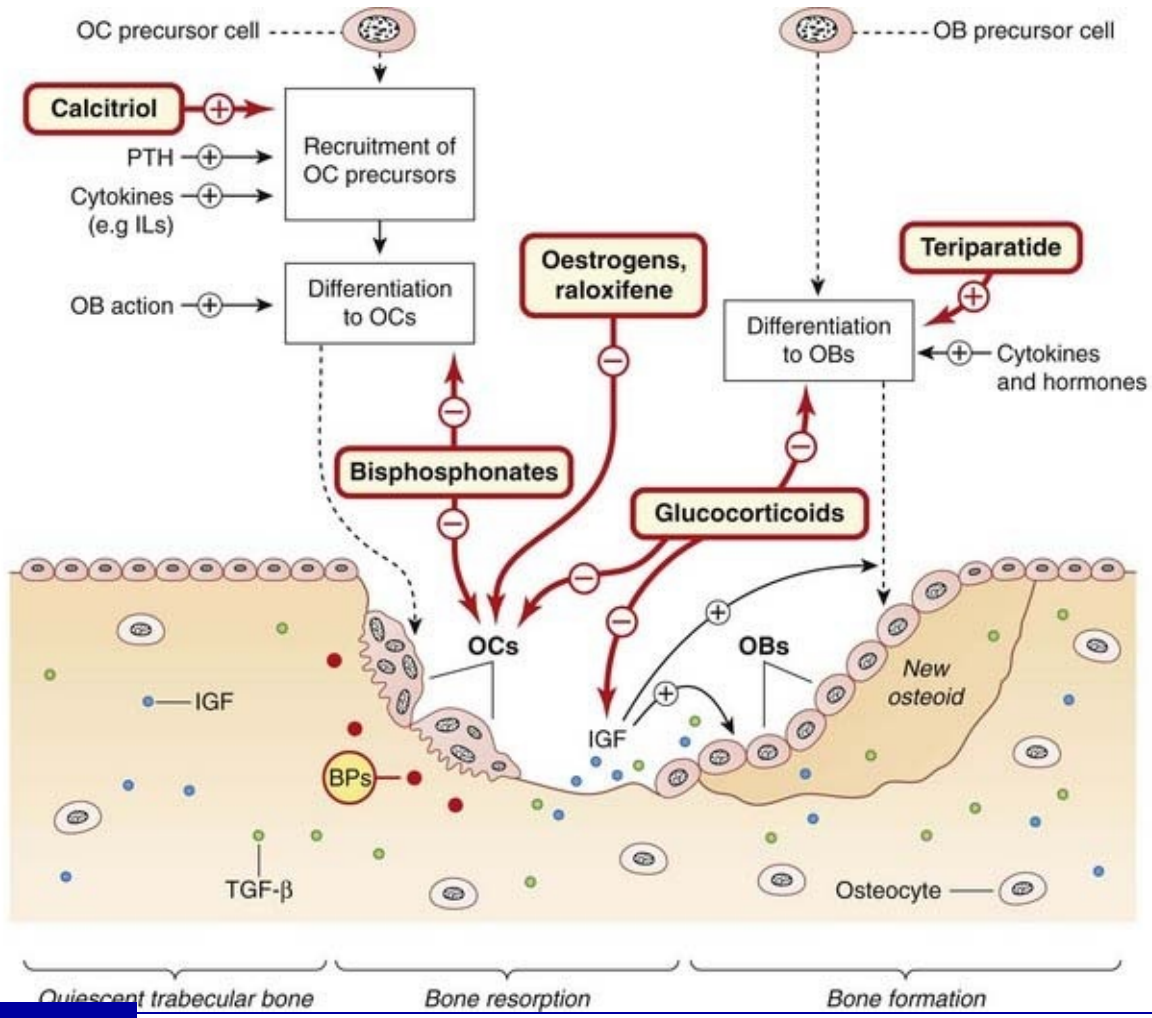


Fig. 35.1 The bone-remodelling cycle and the action of hormones, cytokines and drugs.

Quiescent trabecular bone. Cytokines such as insulin-like growth factor (IGF) and transforming growth factor (TGF)-β, shown as dots, are embedded in the bone matrix. ***Bone resorption.*** Osteoclast (OC) precursor cells, recruited by cytokines and hormones, are activated by osteoblasts (OBs) to form mobile multinuclear OCs (see Fig. 35.2) that move along the bone surface, resorbing bone and releasing the embedded cytokines. ***Bone formation.*** The released cytokines recruit OBs, which lay down osteoid and embed cytokines IGF and TGF-β in it. Some OBs also become embedded, forming terminal osteocytes (now known not to be inert). The osteoid then becomes mineralised, and lining cells cover the area (not shown). Oestrogens cause apoptosis (programmed cell death) of OCs. Note that pharmacological concentrations of glucocorticoids have the effects specified above, but physiological concentrations are required for OB differentiation. BPs, embedded bisphosphonates—these are ingested by OCs when bone is resorbed (not shown); IL, interleukin; PTH, parathyroid hormone.

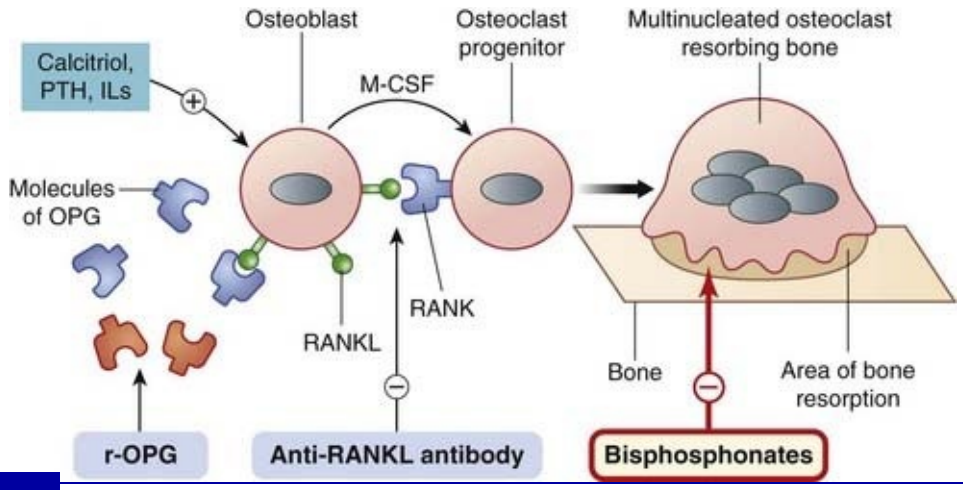


Fig. 35.2 Schematic diagram of the role of the osteoblast and cytokines in the differentiation and activation of the osteoclast and the action of drugs thereon.

The osteoblast is stimulated by calcitriol, parathyroid hormone (PTH) and cytokines (not shown) to express a surface ligand, the RANK ligand (RANKL). RANKL expression is increased by various interleukins, PTH, tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α and glucocorticoids. RANKL interacts with a receptor on the osteoclast—an osteoclast differentiation and activation receptor termed RANK (**r**eceptor **a**ctivator of **n**uclear factor **k**appa B). This, with cytokines (e.g. macrophage colony-stimulating factor, MCSF) released by the osteoblast, causes differentiation and activation of the osteoclast progenitors to form mature osteoclasts (not shown). Fusion of osteoclasts occurs to give giant multinucleated bone-resorbing cells, which are polarised with a ruffled border on the bone-resorbing side (shown). Bisphosphonates inhibit bone resorption by osteoclasts. Anti-RANKL antibodies (e.g. denosumab) bind RANKL and prevent the RANK–RANKL interaction. The osteoblast also releases 'decoy' molecules of osteoprotegerin (OPG), which can bind RANKL and prevent activation of the RANK receptor. Recombinant OPG (r-OPG)—which has this effect—is in clinical trial. Drugs used clinically are in red-bordered boxes, those in development in blue boxes.

Diet, drugs and physical factors (exercise, loading) also affect remodelling. Bone loss—of 0.5–1% per year—starts in the 35–40 age group in both sexes. The rate accelerates by as much as 10-fold during the menopause in women or with castration in men, and then gradually settles at 1–3% per year. The loss during the menopause is due to increased osteoclast activity and affects mainly trabecular bone; the later loss in both sexes with increasing age is due to decreased osteoblast numbers and affects mainly cortical bone.

The Action of Cells and Cytokines

A cycle of remodelling starts with recruitment of the cells that give rise to osteoclast precursors and the subsequent differentiation of these to mature multinucleated osteoclasts induced by cytokines (Fig. 35.1). The osteoclasts adhere to an area of trabecular bone, developing a ruffled border at the attachment site. They move along the bone, digging a pit by secreting hydrogen ions and proteolytic enzymes, mainly *cathepsin K*. This process gradually liberates cytokines such as insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-1 and transforming growth factor (TGF)-β, which have been embedded in the osteoid (Fig. 35.1); these in turn recruit and activate successive teams of osteoblasts that have been stimulated to develop from precursor cells and are awaiting the call to duty (see Fig. 35.1 and below). The osteoblasts invade the site, synthesising and secreting the organic matrix of bone, the osteoid, and secreting IGF-1 and TGF-β (which become embedded in the osteoid; see above). Some osteoblasts become embedded in the osteoid, forming terminal osteocytes; others interact with and activate osteoclast precursors—and we are back to the beginning of the cycle.

Cytokines involved in bone remodelling other than IGF-1 and TGF-β include other members of the TGF-β family, such as the *bone morphogenic proteins* (BMPs), a range of interleukins, various hormones and members of the tumour necrosis factor (TNF) family. A member of this last family —a ligand for a receptor on the osteoclast precursor cell—is of particular importance. The receptor is termed (wait for it—biological terminology has fallen over its own feet here) *RANK*, which stands for ***r**eceptor **a**ctivator of **n**uclear factor **k**appa B* (NFκB), NFκB being the principal transcription factor involved in osteoclast differentiation and activation. And the ligand is termed, unsurprisingly, RANK ligand (RANKL).

▼ The osteoblast synthesises and releases a molecule termed *osteoprotegerin* (OPG), identical with RANK, which functions as a decoy receptor. In a sibling-undermining process by the two cells (osteoblast and osteoclast precursor), OPG can bind to RANKL[1] (generated by the very cell that OPG itself is generated by) and inhibit RANKL's binding to the functional receptor, RANK, on the osteoclast precursor cell (Fig. 35.2). The ratio of RANKL to OPG is critical in the formation and activity of osteoclasts and thus the optimal functioning of the RANK, RANKL, OPG system is fundamental to bone remodelling (reviewed by Boyce & Xing, 2008; Wright et al., 2009).

[1]RANKL is also sometimes confusingly termed OPG ligand.

The Turnover of Bone Minerals

The main bone minerals are calcium and phosphates.

Calcium Metabolism

The daily turnover of bone minerals during remodelling involves about 700 mg of calcium. Calcium has numerous roles in physiological functioning. Intracellular Ca^{2+} is part of the signal transduction mechanism of many cells (see Ch. 4), so the concentration of Ca^{2+} in the extracellular fluid and the plasma, normally about 2.5 mmol/l, needs to be controlled with great precision. The plasma Ca^{2+} concentration is regulated by interactions between PTH and various forms of vitamin D (Figs 35.3 and 35.4); calcitonin also plays a part.

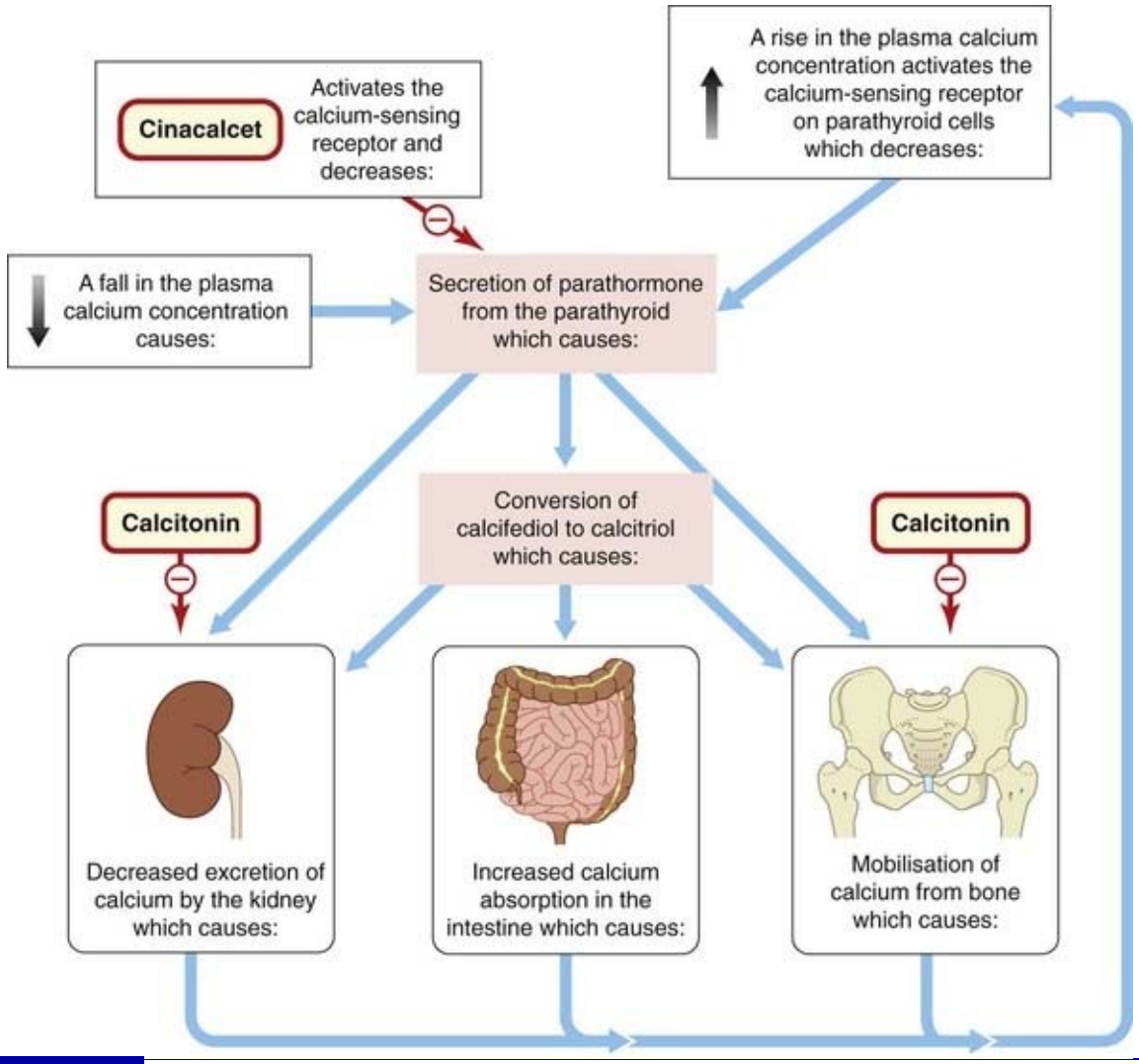


Fig. 35.3 The main factors involved in maintaining the concentration of Ca^{2+} in the plasma and the action of drugs.

The calcium receptor on the parathyroid cell is a G-protein-coupled receptor. Calcifediol and calcitriol are metabolites of vitamin D3 and constitute the 'hormones' 25-hydroxy-vitamin D3 and 1,25-dihydroxy-vitamin D3, respectively. Endogenous calcitonin, secreted by the thyroid, inhibits Ca^{2+} mobilisation from bone and decreases its resorption in the kidney, thus reducing blood Ca^{2+}. Calcitonin is also used therapeutically in osteoporosis.

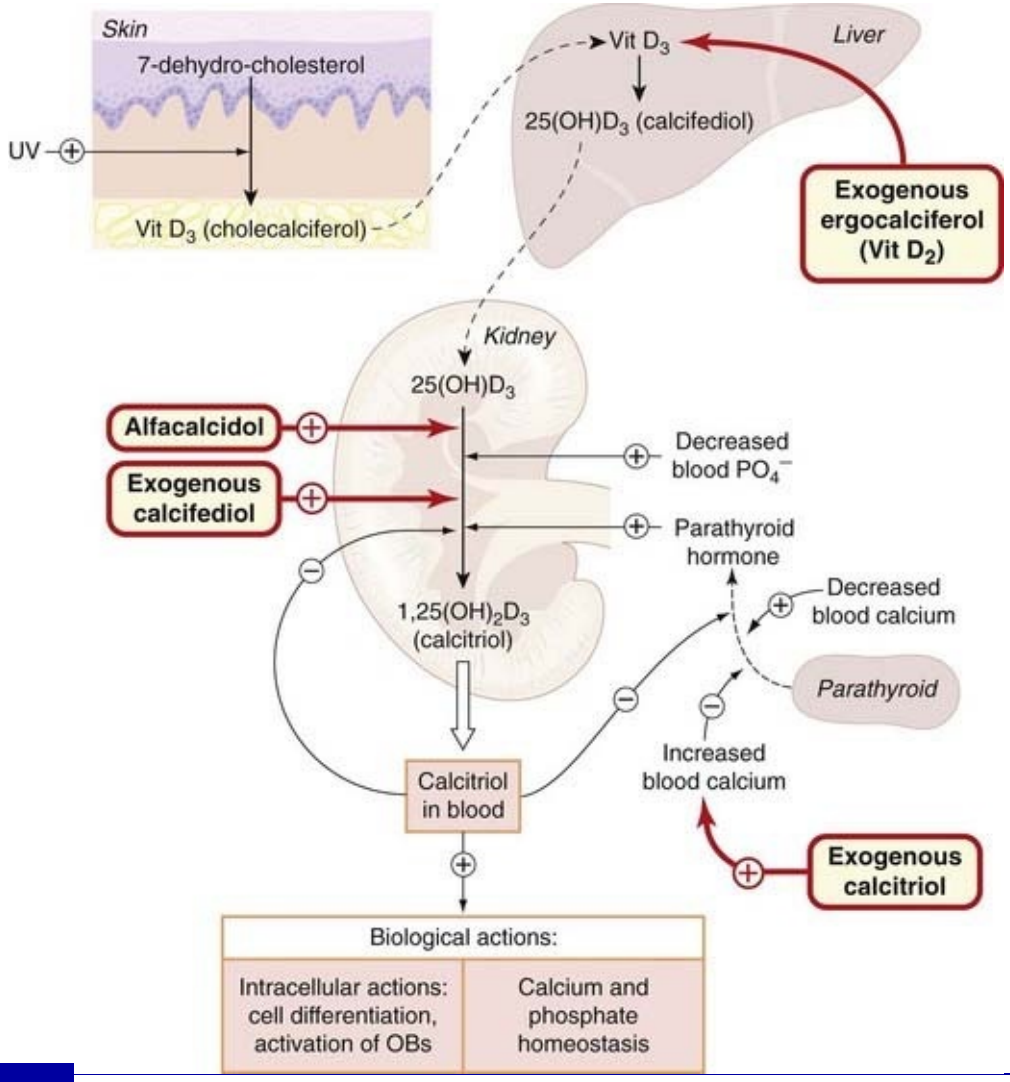


Fig. 35.4 Summary of the actions of the vitamin D endocrine system and the action of drugs.

Exogenous ergocalciferol, vitamin (Vit) D_2 (formed in plants by ultraviolet, UV, light), is converted to the corresponding D_2 metabolites in liver and kidney, as is the D_2 analogue dihydrotachysterol (not shown). Alfacalcidol (1α-hydroxycholecalciferol) is 25-hydroxylated to calcitriol in the liver. OB, osteoblast.

Calcium absorption in the intestine involves a Ca^{2+}-binding protein whose synthesis is regulated by calcitriol (see Fig. 35.3). It is probable that the overall calcium content of the body is regulated largely by this absorption mechanism, because urinary Ca^{2+} excretion normally remains more or less constant. However, with high blood Ca^{2+}

concentrations urinary excretion increases, and with low blood concentrations urinary excretion can be reduced by PTH and calcitriol, both of which enhance Ca^{2+} reabsorption in the renal tubules (Fig. 35.3).

Phosphate Metabolism

Phosphates are important constituents of bone, and are also critically important in the structure and function of all the cells of the body. They are constituents of nucleic acids, provide energy in the form of ATP, and control—through phosphorylation—the actitivity of many functional proteins. They also have roles as intracellular buffers and in the excretion of hydrogen ions in the kidney.

Phosphate absorption is an energy-requiring process regulated by *calcitriol*. Phosphate deposition in bone, as hydroxyapatite, depends on the plasma concentration of PTH, which, with calcitriol, mobilises both Ca^{2+} and phosphate from the bone matrix. Phosphate is excreted by the kidney; here PTH inhibits reabsorption and thus increases excretion.

Bone remodelling

• Bone is continuously remodelled throughout life. The events of the remodelling cycle are as follows:

– osteoclasts, having been activated by osteoblasts, resorb bone by digging pits in trabecular bone. Into these pits the bone-forming osteoblasts secrete osteoid (bone matrix), which consists mainly of collagen but also contains osteocalcin, osteonectin, phosphoproteins and the cytokines insulin growth factor (IGF) and transforming growth factor (TGF)-β

– the osteoid is then mineralised, *i.e.* complex calcium phosphate crystals (hydroxyapatites) are deposited.

• Bone metabolism and mineralisation involve the action of parathyroid hormone, the vitamin D family, and various cytokines (e.g. IGF, the TGF-β family and interleukins). Declining physiological levels of oestrogens and therapeutic levels of glucocorticoids can result in bone resorption not balanced by bone formation—leading to osteoporosis.

Hormones Involved in Bone Metabolism and Remodelling

The main hormones involved in bone metabolism and remodelling are parathyroid hormone (PTH), members of the vitamin D family, oestrogens and calcitonin. Glucocorticoids and thyroid hormone also affect bone.

Parathyroid Hormone

Parathyroid hormone, which consists of a single-chain polypeptide of 84 amino acids, is an important physiological regulator of Ca^{2+} metabolism. It acts on PTH receptors in various tissues (bone, kidney, gastrointestinal tract) to maintain the plasma Ca^{2+} concentration. It mobilises Ca^{2+} from bone, promotes its reabsorption by the kidney and stimulates the synthesis of calcitriol, which in turn increases Ca^{2+} absorption from the intestine and synergises with PTH in mobilising bone Ca^{2+} (Figs 35.3 and 35.4). PTH promotes phosphate excretion, and thus its net effect is to increase the concentration of Ca^{2+} in the plasma and lower that of phosphate.

The mobilisation of Ca^{2+} from bone by PTH is mediated, at least in part, by stimulation of the recruitment and activation of osteoclasts. Pathological oversecretion of PTH (hyperparathyroidism) inhibits osteoblast activity (not shown in Fig. 35.1). But given therapeutically in a low intermittent dose, PTH and fragments of PTH paradoxically stimulate osteoblast activity and enhance bone formation.

Parathyroid hormone is synthesised in the cells of the parathyroid

glands and stored in vesicles. The principal factor controlling secretion is the concentration of ionised calcium in the plasma, low plasma Ca^{2+} stimulating secretion, high plasma Ca^{2+} decreasing it by binding to and activating a Ca^{2+}-sensing G-protein-coupled surface receptor (see Ch. 3, Figure 35.3). (For reviews, see Stewart, 2004; Deal, 2009.)

Vitamin D

Vitamin D (calciferol) consists of a group of lipophilic prehormones that are converted in the body into a number of biologically active metabolites that function as true hormones, circulating in the blood and regulating the activities of various cell types (see Reichel et al., 1989). Their main action, mediated by nuclear receptors of the steroid receptor superfamily (see Ch. 3), is the maintenance of plasma Ca^{2+} by increasing Ca^{2+} absorption in the intestine, mobilising Ca^{2+} from bone and decreasing its renal excretion (see Fig. 35.3). In humans, there are two sources of vitamin D:

1 Dietary *ergocalciferol* (D_2), derived from ergosterol in plants.

2 *Cholecalciferol* (D_3) generated in the skin from 7-dehydrocholesterol by the action of ultraviolet irradiation, the 7-dehydrocholesterol having been formed from cholesterol in the wall of the intestine.

Cholecalciferol is converted to *calcifediol* (25-hydroxy-vitamin D_3) in the liver, and this is converted to a series of other metabolites of varying activity in the kidney, the most potent of which is *calcitriol* (1,25-dihydroxy-vitamin D_3); see Fig. 35.4).

The synthesis of calcitriol from calcifediol is regulated by PTH, and is also influenced by the phosphate concentration in the plasma and by the calcitriol concentration itself through a negative feedback mechanism (Fig. 35.4). Receptors for calcitriol are ubiquitous, and calcitriol is

important in the functioning of many cell types.

The main actions of calcitriol are the stimulation of absorption of Ca^{2+} and phosphate in the intestine, and the mobilisation of Ca^{2+} from bone, but it also increases Ca^{2+} reabsorption in the kidney tubules (Fig. 35.3). Its effect on bone involves promotion of maturation of osteoclasts and indirect stimulation of their activity (Figs 35.1 and 35.3). It decreases collagen synthesis by osteoblasts. However, the effect on bone is complex and not confined to mobilising Ca^{2+}, because in clinical vitamin D deficiency (see below), in which the mineralisation of bone is impaired, administration of vitamin D restores bone formation. One explanation may lie in the fact that calcitriol stimulates synthesis of *osteocalcin*, the Ca^{2+}-binding protein of bone matrix.

Oestrogens

During reproductive life in the female, oestrogens have an important role in maintenance of bone integrity, acting on both osteoblasts and osteoclasts. They inhibit the cytokines that recruit osteoclasts and oppose the bone-resorbing, Ca^{2+}-mobilising action of PTH. They increase osteoblast proliferation, augment the production of TGF-β and bone morphogenic proteins, and inhibit apoptosis (see Ch. 5). Withdrawal of oestrogen, as happens at the menopause, can (and usually does) lead to osteoporosis.

Calcitonin

Calcitonin is a peptide hormone secreted by the specialised 'C' cells found in the thyroid follicles (see Ch. 33).

The main action of calcitonin is on bone; it inhibits bone resorption by binding to a specific receptor on osteoclasts, inhibiting their action. In the kidney, it decreases the reabsorption of both Ca^{2+} and phosphate in

the proximal tubules. Its overall effect is to decrease the plasma Ca^{2+} concentration (Fig. 35.3).

Secretion is determined mainly by the plasma Ca^{2+} concentration.

Other Hormones

Physiological concentrations of glucocorticoids are required for osteoblast differentiation. Excessive pharmacological concentrations inhibit bone formation by inhibiting osteoblast differentiation and activity, and may stimulate osteoclast action—leading to osteoporosis, which is a feature of Cushing's syndrome (Fig. 32.7) and an important adverse effect of glucocorticoid administration (Ch. 32).

Thyroxine stimulates osteoclast action, reducing bone density and liberating Ca^{2+}. Osteoporosis occurs in association with thyrotoxicosis, and care must be taken not to use excessive thyroxine dosage for treating hypothyroidism (see Ch. 33).

Parathyroid, vitamin D and bone mineral homeostasis

• The vitamin D family are true hormones; precursors are converted to calcifediol in the liver, then to the main hormone, calcitriol, in the kidney.

• Calcitriol increases plasma Ca^{2+} by mobilising it from bone, increasing its absorption in the intestine and decreasing its excretion by the kidney.

• Parathyroid hormone (PTH) increases blood Ca^{2+} by increasing calcitriol synthesis, mobilising Ca^{2+} from bone and reducing renal Ca^{2+} excretion. (But, paradoxically, small doses of PTH given intermittently increase bone formation.)

• Calcitonin (secreted from the thyroid) reduces Ca^{2+} resorption from bone by inhibiting osteoclast activity.

Disorders of Bone

The reduction of bone mass with distortion of the microarchitecture is termed *osteoporosis*; a reduction in the mineral content is termed *osteopenia*. Osteoporotic bone fractures easily after minimal trauma. The commonest causes of osteoporosis are postmenopausal deficiency of oestrogen and age-related deterioration in bone homeostasis. It is calculated that, in England and Wales, one in two women and one in five men over the age of 50 will have a fracture due to osteoporosis (van Staa et al., 2001), while in the USA a 50-year-old woman is estimated to have a 40% lifetime risk of an osteoporotic fracture (Strewler, 2005). Osteoporosis can also occur secondary to conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis, and can result from other factors, such as excessive thyroxine or glucocorticoid administration.

Because life expectancy has increased significantly in the developed world, osteoporosis is now regarded as being of epidemic proportions, and has become an important public health problem, affecting about 75 million people in the USA, Japan and Europe. Drugs that can be used in prevention and treatment are being vigorously sought and substantial progress has been made in recent years.

Other diseases of bone requiring drug therapy are *osteomalacia* and *rickets* (the juvenile form of osteomalacia), in which there are defects in bone mineralisation due to vitamin D deficiency, and *Paget's disease*, in which there is distortion of the processes of bone resorption and remodelling.

Drugs Used in Bone Disorders

Two types of agent are currently used for treatment of osteoporosis:

1 *Antiresorptive drugs* that decrease bone loss, *e.g.* bisphosphonates,

calcitonin, selective oestrogen receptor modulators (SERMs), calcium.

2 *Anabolic agents* that increase bone formation *e.g.* PTH, **teriparatide**. **Strontium ranelate** has both actions.

Rickets and osteomalacia, nutritionally induced deficiencies in bone mass, result from vitamin D deficiency and are treated with vitamin D preparations.

Bisphosphonates

Bisphosphonates (Fig. 35.5) are enzyme-resistant analogues of pyrophosphate, a normal constituent of tissue fluids that accumulates in bone, and has a role in regulating bone resorption. Bisphosphonates inhibit bone resorption by an action mainly on the osteoclasts. They form tight complexes with calcium in the bone matrix, and are released slowly as bone is resorbed by the osteoclasts, which are thus exposed to high concentrations of the drugs.

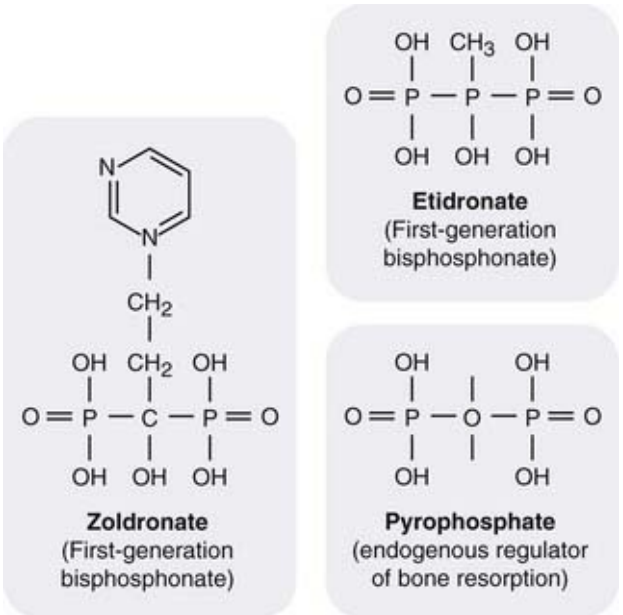


Fig. 35.5 Structure of bisphosphonates.

Replacement of the oxygen atom in pyrophosphate renders the compounds enzyme resistant. Addition of an N-containing side chain alters the mechanism of action (see text) and greatly

increases potency.

Mechanism of action

In terms of their molecular mechanism of action, the bisphosphonates can be grouped into two classes:

1 Simple compounds that are very similar to pyrophosphate (e.g. **etidronate**). These are incorporated into ATP analogues that accumulate within the osteoclasts and promote their apoptosis.

2 Potent, nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates (e.g. **alendronate**, **risedronate**, **ibandronate**, **zoledronate**). These prevent bone resorption by interfering with the anchoring of cell surface proteins to the osteoclast membrane by prenylation, which is necessary for their attachment to bone (see Strewler, 2005).

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Bisphosphonates are usually given orally and are poorly absorbed. They may be given intravenously in malignancy. About 50% of a dose accumulates at sites of bone mineralisation, where it remains, potentially for months or years, until the bone is resorbed. The free drug is excreted unchanged by the kidney.

Absorption is impaired by food, particularly milk, so the drugs must be taken on an empty stomach.

Unwanted effects include gastrointestinal disturbances including peptic ulcers and oesophagitis. Bone pain occurs occasionally. Given intravenously, some bisphosphonates (in particular zoledronate) can lead to osteonecrosis of the jaw.

Clinical use

Alendronate and risedronate are given orally for prophylaxis and

treatment of osteoporosis. Etidronate is an alternative. **Clodronate** is used in patients with malignant disease involving bone and **pamidronate** is given by intravenous infusion to treat hypercalcaemia of malignancy or for Paget's disease. Ibandronate is given intravenously every 3–4 weeks in patients with breast cancer metastatic to bone or every 3 months to treat postmenopausal osteoporosis. Zoledronate, which is given as an intravenous infusion, is used for advanced malignancy involving bone, for Paget's disease and selected cases of osteoporosis (postmenopausal or in men) when it is administered once a year (see clinical box.)

Bisphosphonates

• Orally active, stable analogues of pyrophosphate, which are incorporated into remodelling bone and remain there for months or years.

• Released when osteoclast-mediated bone resorption occurs, exposing osteoclasts to their toxic effects.

• First-generation compounds (e.g. **etidronate**) act by promoting apoptosis of osteoclasts.

• Second-generation compounds (e.g. **risedronate**) with N-containing sidechains are much more potent, and prevent osteoclast action by inhibiting prenylation reactions required for membrane anchoring of functional proteins.

• Used long term for prevention and treatment of osteoporosis.

• Main unwanted effect is gastrointestinal disturbance

Clinical uses of bisphosphonates

• *Osteoporosis*:

– 'primary' prevention of fractures in high-risk individuals (e.g. with established

osteoporosis, several risk factors for osteoporosis, treated chronically with systemic glucocorticoids)

– 'secondary' prevention after an osteoporitic fracture

– **alendronate** by mouth is the bisphosphonate of choice, given daily or once weekly in addition to calcium with vitamin D3. **Risedronate** or **etidronate** are alternatives; **zoledronate** is given annually by intravenous infusion but is expensive.

• *Malignant disease* involving bone (e.g. metastatic breast cancer, multiple myeloma):

– to reduce bone damage, pain and hypercalcaemia (e.g. **clodronate**, **ibandronate**, **zoledronate**).

• *Paget's disease* of bone (e.g. **etidronate**, **pamidronate**) administered intermittently and with monitoring of serum phosphate, alkaline phosphatase and urinary hydroxyproline (a marker of collagen turnover).

Oestrogens and Related Compounds

The decline in oestrogen levels is a major factor in postmenopausal osteoporosis, and there is evidence that giving oestrogen as hormone replacement therapy (HRT; see Ch. 34) can ameliorate this condition. But HRT has actions on many systems, and newer non-hormonal agents (e.g. **raloxifene**, see Ch. 34) have now been developed that exhibit agonist actions on some tissues and antagonist actions on others. These are termed ***s**elective **o**estrogen **r**eceptor **m**odulators* (SERMs). The most important of these is **raloxifene** (Ch. 34).

Raloxifene

Raloxifene is a SERM that has agonist activity on bone, stimulating osteoblasts and inhibiting osteoclasts. It also has agonist actions on the cardiovascular system, and antagonist activity on mammary tissue and the uterus.

It is well absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract, and undergoes

extensive first-pass metabolism in the liver to give the glucuronide—resulting in only about 2% bioavailability. **Colestyramine** (Ch. 23), given with it, reduces the enterohepatic cycling of raloxifene by 60%.

Raloxifene is widely distributed in the tissues, and is converted to an active metabolite in liver, lungs, bone, spleen, uterus and kidney. Its half-life averages 32 h. It is excreted mainly in the faeces.

Unwanted effects include hot flushes, leg cramps, flu-like symptoms and peripheral oedema. Less common are thrombophlebitis and thromboembolism. Other rarer adverse effects are thrombocytopenia, gastrointestinal disturbances, rashes, raised blood pressure and arterial thromboembolism. It is not recommended for primary prevention of osteoporotic fractures, but is one alternative to a bisphosphonate for secondary prevention in postmenopausal women who cannot tolerate a bisphosphonate.

Parathyroid Hormone and Teriparatide

PTH and fragments of PTH given in small doses paradoxically *stimulate* osteoblast activity and *enhance* bone formation, and are used to treat selected patients with osteoporosis. The main compound currently used is **teriparatide**—the peptide fragment (1–34) of recombinant PTH. A new peptide analogue (**ostabolin**—cyclic PTH1–35, which increases bone mass with less effect on plasma calcium concentration than PTH) is in development.

Teriparatide has anabolic effects on bone. It reverses osteoporosis by stimulating new bone formation (Yasothan & Santwana, 2008). It increases bone mass, structural integrity and bone strength by increasing the number of osteoblasts and by activating those osteoblasts already in bone. It also reduces osteoblast apoptosis.

It acts on the G-protein-coupled receptor PTH_1 in the membrane of

target cells, and its effects are mediated through adenylyl cyclase, phospholipases A, C and D, and increases in intracellular Ca^{2+} and cyclic AMP (see Brixen et al., 2004; Deal, 2009).

Teriparatide is given subcutaneously once daily. It is well tolerated, and serious adverse effects are few. Nausea, dizziness, headache and arthralgias can occur. Mild hypercalcaemia, transient orthostatic hypotension and leg cramps have been reported.

Teriparatide is used to treat osteoporosis. There is controversy as to whether or not this drug should be given sequentially or in combination with one of the bisphosphonates (Heaney & Recker, 2005); however, a bisphosphonate should be given at the end of a course of teriparatide to prevent bone loss due to teriparatide withdrawal.

Strontium Ranelate

Strontium (given as the ranelate salt) inhibits bone resorption and also stimulates bone formation. In recent trials, it has been shown to be effective in preventing vertebral and non-vertebral fractures in older women (see Fogelman & Blake, 2005). It is approved in the UK and recommended by the National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence as an alternative to a bisphosphonate in primary or secondary prevention of osteoporotic fractures, when a bisphosphonate is not tolerated, although some authors consider it to be first-line treatment for osteoporosis because of its positive risk–benefit ratio (Reginster et al., 2009).

The precise mechanism of action is not clear. Like calcium it is absorbed from the intestine, incorporated into bone and excreted via the kidney. Strontium atoms are adsorbed onto the hydroxyapatite crystals, but eventually they exchange for calcium in the bone minerals and remain in the bone for many years.

The drug is well tolerated; a low incidence of nausea and diarrhoea is reported.

Vitamin D Preparations

Vitamin D preparations are used in the treatment of vitamin D deficiencies, bone problems associated with renal failure and hypoparathyroidism—acute hypoparathyroidism necessitating the use of intravenous calcium and injectable vitamin D preparations.

The main vitamin D preparation used clinically is **ergocalciferol**. Other preparations are **alfacalcidol** and **calcitriol**. All can be given orally and are well absorbed from the intestine. Vitamin D preparations are fat soluble, and bile salts are necessary for absorption. Injectable forms are available. A vitamin D analogue with less potential to cause hypercalcaemia is the vitamin D sterol, **paracalcitol** (Salusky, 2005).

Given orally, vitamin D is bound to a specific α-globulin in the blood. The plasma half-life is about 22 h, but vitamin D can be found in the fat for many months. The main route of elimination is in the faeces.

The clinical uses of vitamin D preparations are given in the box.

Excessive intake of vitamin D causes hypercalcaemia. If hypercalcaemia persists, calcium salts are deposited in the kidney and urine, causing renal failure and kidney stones.

Clinical uses of vitamin D



• Deficiency states: prevention and treatment of *rickets*, *osteomalacia* and vitamin D deficiency owing to *malabsorption* and *liver disease* (**ergocalciferol**).

• Hypocalcaemia caused by *hypoparathyroidism* (ergocalciferol).

• *Osteodystrophy* of *chronic renal failure*, which is the consequence of decreased calcitriol

generation (**calcitriol** or **alphacalcidol**).

Plasma Ca^{2+} levels should be monitored during therapy with vitamin D.

Calcitonin

The main preparation available for clinical use (see the clinical box) is **salcatonin** (synthetic salmon calcitonin). Synthetic human calcitonin is now also available. Calcitonin is given by subcutaneous or intramuscular injection, and there may be a local inflammatory action at the injection site. It can also be given intranasally. Its plasma half-life is 4–12 min, but its action lasts for several hours.

Unwanted effects include nausea and vomiting. Facial flushing may occur, as may a tingling sensation in the hands and an unpleasant taste in the mouth.

Clinical uses of calcitonin/salcatonin

- *Hypercalcaemia* (e.g. associated with neoplasia).
- *Paget's disease* of bone (to relieve pain and reduce neurological complications).
- Postmenopausal and corticosteroid-induced *osteoporosis* (with other agents).

Calcium Salts

Calcium salts used therapeutically include **calcium gluconate** and **calcium lactate**, given orally. Calcium gluconate is also used for intravenous injection in emergency treatment of hyperkalaemia (Ch. 28); intramuscular injection is not used, because it causes local necrosis.

Calcium carbonate, an antacid, is usually poorly absorbed in the gut, but there is concern about possible systemic absorption with the potential to cause arterial calcification.

Unwanted effects: oral calcium salts can cause gastrointestinal disturbance. Intravenous administration requires care, especially in patients on cardiac glycosides (see Ch. 21).

The clinical uses of the calcium salts are given in the clinical box.

Clinical uses of calcium salts

- Dietary deficiency.
- Hypocalcaemia caused by *hypoparathyroidism* or *malabsorption* (intravenous for acute tetany).
- Calcium carbonate is an antacid; it is poorly absorbed and binds phosphate in the gut. It is used to treat *hyperphosphataemia* (Ch. 28).
- Prevention and treatment of *osteoporosis* (often with oestrogen, bisphosphonate, vitamin D or calcitonin).
- Cardiac dysrhythmias caused by severe *hyperkalaemia* (intravenous; see Ch. 21).

Calcimimetic Compounds

Calcimimetics enhance the sensitivity of the parathyroid Ca^{2+}-sensing receptor to the concentration of blood Ca^{2+}. The effect is to decrease the secretion of PTH and reduce the serum Ca^{2+} concentration. There are two types of calcimimetics:

1 Type I are agonists, and include various inorganic and organic cations. They are not used clinically.

2 Type II are allosteric activators that activate the receptor indirectly. One such compound is **cinacalcet**, which is used for the treatment of hyperparathyroidism (Fig. 35.3; Peacock et al., 2005).

Potential New Therapies

The recent substantial increase in the understanding of bone remodelling (Deal, 2009; Yasothan & Kar, 2008) has opened possible therapeutic approaches that may yield new drugs for clinical use in the foreseeable future. These include:

- RANKL inhibitors (e.g. the monoclonal antibody, **denosumab**)
- cathepsin K inhibitors (e.g. **odanacatib**)
- recombinant human OPG for the treatment of Paget's disease (Deftos, 2005).

Other promising targets are discussed by Deal (2009).

References and Further Reading

Bone disorders and bone remodelling

oyce B.F., Xing L. Functions of RANKL/RANK/OPG in bone modeling and remodeling. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.*. 2008;473:139-146. (*Good review of the role of the RANK/RANKL/OPG in osteoclast formation and the transcription factors involved*)

ompston J. Clinical and therapeutic aspects of osteoporosis. *Eur. J. Radiol.*. 2009;71:388-391. (*Clear brief coverage of epidemiology, clinical aspects, pathogenesis and drugs currently used*)

eal C. Potential new drug targets for osteoporosis. *Nat. Clin. Pract. Rheumatol.*. 2009;5:174-180. (*Outstanding review; good diagrams*)

eftos L.J. Treatment of Paget's disease—taming the wild osteoclast. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;353:872-875. (*Editorial covering the use of OPG and zoledronic acid for Paget's disease; excellent diagram. See also article by Cundy et al. in the same issue, pp. 918–923*)

allagher J.C. Advances in bone biology and new treatments for bone loss. *Maturitas*. 2008;20:65-69. (*Article on preventing bone loss by targeting the RANK/RANKL/OPG system with denosumab*)

eaney R.P., Recker R.R. Combination and sequential therapy for osteoporosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;353:624-625. (*Editorial*)

orowitz M.C., Xi Y., Wilson K., Kacena M.A. Control of osteoclastogenesis and bone resorption by members of the TNF family of receptors and ligands. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev.*. 2001;12:9-18. (*Worthwhile minireview, good diagram*)

hosla K., Westendorf J.J., Oursler M.J. Building bone to reverse osteoporosis and repair fractures. *J. Clin. Invest.*. 2008;118:421-428. (*Good review; covers the role of Wnt signalling and sclerostin secretion*)

eichel H., Koeftler H.P., Norman A.W. The role of the vitamin D endocrine system in health and disease. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1989;320:980-991. (*Outstanding comprehensive early review*)

eid R. Antiresorptive therapies for osteoporosis. *Semin. Cell Dev. Biol.*. 2008;19:5473-5478. (*Excellent review of the actions of current and novel anti-resorptive drugs*)

oodman G.D. Mechanisms of bone metastasis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2004;350:1655-1664. (*Has excellent section on bone remodelling, with good diagrams*)

alusky I.B. Are new vitamin D analogues in renal bone disease superior to calcitriol? *Pediatr. Nephrol.*. 2005;20:393-398.

tewart J.F. Translational implications of the parathyroid calcium receptor. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2004;351:324-326. (*Succinct article with useful diagram*)

olar J., Teitelbaum S.L., Orchard P.J. Osteopetrosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2004;351:2839-2849. (*Very good review; has excellent section on the biology of osteoclasts, with very good diagrams*)

an Staa T.P., Dennison E.M., Leufkens H.G., Cooper C. Epidemiology of fractures in England and Wales. *Bone*. 2001;29:517-522.

/right H.L., McCarthy H.S., Middleton J., Marshall M.J. RANK, RANKL and osteoprotegerin in bone biology and disease. *Curr. Rev. Musculoskelet. Med.*. 2009;2:56-64. (*Synopsis of the structures of RANK, RANKL and OPG, and the intracellular RANK/RANKL signalling pathways with a review of diseases linked to their malfunction*)

Drugs used to treat bone disorders

rennan T.C., Rybchyn M.S., Green W., *et al.* Osteoblasts play key roles in the mechanisms of action of strontium ranelate. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2009;57:1291-1300. (*A study in human cells*

showing that strontium ranelate acts at least in part by activating the calcium-sensing receptor)

rixen K.T., Christensen P.M., Ejersted C., Langdahl B.L. Teriparatide (biosynthetic human parathyroid hormone 1–34): a new paradigm in the treatment of osteoporosis. *Basic Clin. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2004;94:260-270. (*A minireview of the action, mechanism of action, clinical studies and adverse effects*)

lemett D., Spenser C.M. Raloxifene: a review of its use in postmenopausal osteoporosis. *Drugs*. 2000;60:379-411. (*Comprehensive review covering the mechanism of action, pharmacology, pharmacokinetic aspects, therapeutic use and adverse effects of raloxifene*)

ummings S.R., San Martin J., McClung M.R., *et al.* Denosumab for prevention of fractures in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2009;361:818-820. (*'Freedom Trial' with 239 collaborators. Denosumab was effective in reducing fracture risk in women with osteoporosis*)

ogelman I., Blake G.M. Strontium ranelate for the treatment of osteoporosis. *Br. Med. J.*. 2005;330:1400-1401. (*Crisp editorial analysis*)

hosla K. Increasing options for the treatment of osteoporosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2009;361:818-820. (*Useful editorial*)

emeth E.F., Heaton W.H., Miller M., *et al.* Pharmacodynamics of the type II calcimimetic compound cinacalcet HCl. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*. 2004;398:627-635. (*Detailed study of pharmacokinetic aspects and the pharmacological action of cinacalcet hydrochloride*)

eacock M., Bilezikian J.P., Klassen P.S., *et al.* Cinacalcet hydrochloride maintains long-term normocalcaemia in patients with primary hyperparathyroidism. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.*. 2005;90:135-141.

uattrocchi E., Kourlas H. New drugs. Teriparatide: a review. *Clin. Ther.*. 2004;26:841-854. (*Excellent review*)

eginster J.Y., Deroisy R., Neuprez A., *et al.* Strontium ranelate: new data on fracture prevention and mechanisms of action. *Curr. Osteoporos. Rep.*. 2009;7:96-102. (*Stresses that in 5-year studies this drug has proved efficacious in both decreasing bone reabsorption and stimulating bone formation, and has a positive risk–benefit ratio*)

ogers M.J. New insights into the mechanisms of action of the bisphosphonates. *Curr. Pharm. Des.*. 2003;9:2643-2658. (*Covers the different mechanisms of action of the simple bisphosphonates and the nitrogen-containing bisphosphonates*)

trewler G.J. Decimal point—osteoporosis therapy at the 10-year mark. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;350:1172-1174. (*Crisp article concentrating mainly on bisphosphonates; excellent diagram of bisphosphonate action*)

/hyte M.P. The long and the short of bone therapy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2006;354:860-863. (*Succinct article on the present status of and future possibilities for bone therapy. Excellent diagram*)

asothan U., Kar S. Osteoporosis: overview and pipeline. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.*. 2008;7:725-726.

asothan U., Santwana K. From the analyst's couch. Osteoporosis: overview and pipeline. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.*. 2008;7:725-726. (*Crisp outline of current antiosteoporosis drugs with table of new drugs in phase I and phase II development*)

Section 4
The nervous system

36

Chemical transmission and drug action in the central nervous system

Overview

Brain function is the single most important aspect of physiology that defines the difference between humans and other species. Disorders of brain function, whether primary or secondary to malfunction of other systems, are a major concern of human society, and a field in which pharmacological intervention plays a key role. In this chapter, we introduce some basic principles of neuropharmacology that underlie much of the material in the rest of this section.

Introduction

There are two reasons why understanding the action of drugs on the central nervous system (CNS) presents a particularly challenging problem. The first is that centrally acting drugs are of special significance to humankind. Not only are they of major therapeutic importance,[1] but they are also the drugs that humans most commonly administer to themselves for non-medical reasons (e.g. alcohol, tea and coffee, cannabis, nicotine, opioids, amphetamines and so on). The second reason is that the CNS is functionally far more complex than any other system in the body, and this makes the understanding of drug effects very much more difficult. The relationship between the behaviour of individual cells and that of the organ as a whole is far less direct in

the brain than in other organs. Currently, the links between a drug's action at the biochemical and cellular level and its effects on brain function remain largely mysterious. Functional brain imaging is beginning to reveal relationships between brain activity in specific regions and mental function, and this tool is being used increasingly to probe drug effects. Nevertheless, the fairly gross (millimetre scale) resolution currently achievable with imaging methods is far from being able to reveal events at the level of individual neurons and synapses. Despite sustained progress in understanding the cellular and biochemical effects produced by centrally acting drugs, and the increasing use of brain imaging to study brain function and drug effects, the gulf between our understanding of drug action at the cellular level and at the functional and behavioural level remains, for the most part, very wide.

[1]In Britain in 2008/2009, 145 million prescriptions (about 20% of all prescriptions), costing £1.7 billion, were for CNS drugs as defined by the *British National Formulary*. This amounted to over two per person across the whole population.

In some instances, our understanding of brain function and how drugs alter it is more advanced. Thus, the relationship between dopaminergic pathways in the extrapyramidal system and the effects of drugs in alleviating or exacerbating the symptoms of Parkinson's disease (see Ch. 39) is clear cut. Many CNS drugs are used to treat psychiatric disorders that are defined according to their symptomatology rather than on the basis of causative factors or clinical signs and investigations. What is called 'schizophrenia' or 'depression' on the basis of particular symptoms is likely to consist of several distinct disorders caused by different mechanisms and responding to drugs in different ways. Much effort is going into pinning down the biological basis of psychiatric disorders—a necessary step to improve the design of better drugs for clinical use—but

the task is daunting and progress is slow.

In this chapter, we outline the general principles governing the action of drugs on the CNS. Most neuroactive drugs work by interfering with the chemical signals that underlie brain function, and the next two chapters discuss the major CNS transmitter systems and the ways in which drugs affect them. In Chapter 39, we focus on neurodegenerative diseases, and the remaining chapters in this section deal with the main classes of neuroactive drugs that are currently in use.

Background information will be found in neurobiology textbooks such as Kandel et al. (2000) and Bear et al. (2006), and in texts on neuropharmacology such as Nestler et al. (2008) and Iversen et al. (2009).

Chemical Signalling in the Nervous System

The brain (like every other organ in the body!) is basically a chemical machine; it controls the main functions of a higher animal across timescales ranging from milliseconds (e.g. returning a 100 mph tennis serve) to years (e.g. remembering how to ride a bicycle).[2] The chemical signalling mechanisms cover a correspondingly wide dynamic range, as summarised, in a very general way, in Figure 36.1. Currently, we understand much about drug effects on events at the fast end of the spectrum—synaptic transmission and neuromodulation—but much less about long-term adaptive processes, although it is quite evident that the latter are of great importance for the neurological and psychiatric disorders that are susceptible to drug treatment.

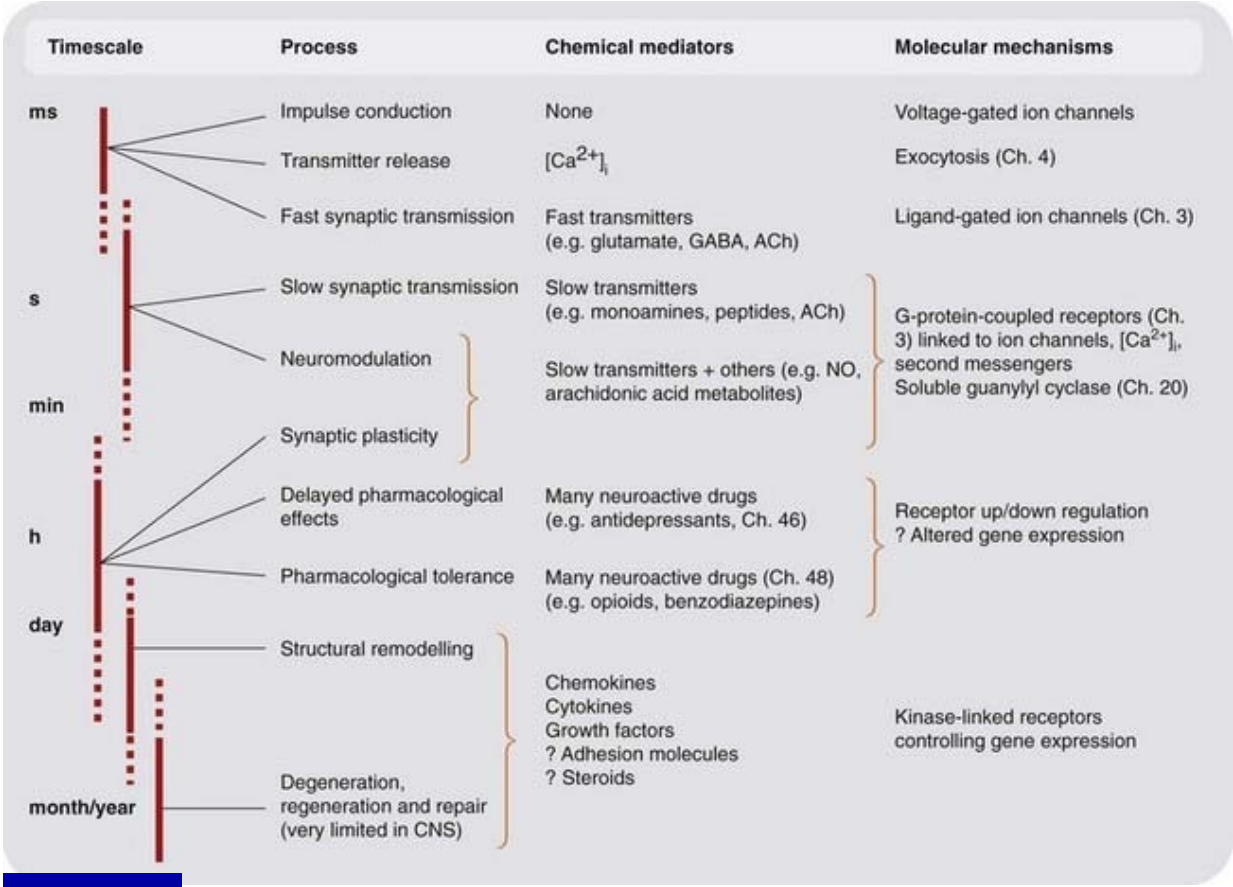


Fig. 36.1 Chemical signalling in the nervous system.

Knowledge of the mediators and mechanisms becomes sparser as we move from the rapid events of synaptic transmission to the slower ones involving remodelling and alterations of gene expression. ACh, acetylcholine; CNS, central nervous system; NO, nitric oxide.

[2]Memory of drug names and the basic facts of pharmacology seems to come somewhere in the middle of this range (skewed towards the short end).

The original concept of neurotransmission envisaged a substance released by one neuron and acting rapidly, briefly and at short range on the membrane of an adjacent (postsynaptic) neuron, causing excitation or inhibition. The principles outlined in Chapter 12 apply to the central as well as the peripheral nervous system. It is now clear that chemical mediators within the brain can produce slow and long-lasting effects; that they can act rather diffusely, at a considerable distance from their

site of release; and that they can produce diverse effects, for example on transmitter synthesis, on the expression of neurotransmitter receptors and on neuronal morphology, in addition to affecting the ionic conductance of the postsynaptic cell membrane. The term *neuromodulator* is often used to denote a mediator, the actions of which do not conform to the original neurotransmitter concept. The term is not clearly defined, and it covers not only the diffusely acting neuropeptide mediators, but also mediators such as nitric oxide (NO) and arachidonic acid metabolites, which are not stored and released like conventional neurotransmitters, and may come from non-neuronal cells, particularly glia, as well as neurons. In general, *neuromodulation* relates to synaptic plasticity, including short-term physiological events such as the regulation of presynaptic transmitter release or postsynaptic excitability. Longer-term *neurotrophic* effects are involved in regulating the growth and morphology of neurons, as well as their functional properties. Table 36.1 summarises the types of chemical mediator that operate in the CNS.

Table 36.1 Types of chemical mediators in the central nervous system

Mediator type[a]	Examples	Targets	Main functional role
Conventional small-molecule mediators	Glutamate, GABA, acetylcholine, dopamine, 5-hydroxytryptamine, etc.	Ligand-gated ion channels G-protein-coupled receptors	Fast and slow synaptic neurotransmission Neuromodulation
Neuropeptides	Substance P, neuropeptide Y, endorphins, corticotrophin-releasing factor, etc.	G-protein-coupled receptors	Neuromodulation
Lipid mediators	Prostaglandins, endocannabinoids	G-protein-coupled receptors	Neuromodulation
Nitric oxide	—	Guanylyl cyclase	Neuromodulation
Neurotrophins, cytokines	Nerve growth factor, brain-derived neurotrophic factor, interleukin-1	Kinase-linked receptors	Neuronal growth, survival and functional plasticity
Steroids	Androgens, oestrogens	Nuclear and membrane receptors	Functional plasticity

[a] Most central nervous system pharmacology is currently centred on small-molecule mediators and, less commonly, neuropeptides. Other mediator types have yet to be targeted successfully for therapeutic purposes.

Glial cells, particularly astrocytes, which are the main non-neuronal

cells in the CNS and outnumber neurons by 10 to 1, also play an important signalling role. Once thought of mainly as housekeeping cells, whose function was merely to look after the fastidious neurons, they are increasingly seen as 'inexcitable neurons' with a major communications role (see Barres, 2008), albeit on a slower timescale than that of neuronal communication. These cells express a range of receptors and transporters similar to those present in neurons, and also release a wide variety of mediators, including glutamate, D-serine, lipid mediators and growth factors. They respond to chemical signals from neurons, and also from neighbouring astrocytes and microglial cells (the CNS equivalent of macrophages, which function much like inflammatory cells in peripheral tissues). Electrical coupling between astrocytes causes them often to respond in concert in a particular brain region, thus controlling the chemical environment in which the neurons operate. Although they do not conduct action potentials, and do not send signals to other parts of the body, astrocytes are otherwise very similar to neurons and play a crucial communication role within the brain. Because they are difficult to study in situ, however, our knowledge of how they function, and how they respond to drugs, is still fragmentary. It is an area to watch closely.

Chemical transmission in the central nervous system

• The basic processes of synaptic transmission in the central nervous system are essentially similar to those operating in the periphery (Ch. 12).

• Glial cells, particularly astrocytes, participate actively in chemical signalling, functioning essentially as 'inexcitable neurons'.

• The terms *neurotransmitter*, *neuromodulator* and *neurotrophic factor* refer to chemical mediators that operate over different timescales. In general:

– *neurotransmitters* are released by presynaptic terminals and produce rapid excitatory or

inhibitory responses in postsynaptic neurons

– fast neurotransmitters (e.g. glutamate, GABA) operate through ligand-gated ion channels

– slow neurotransmitters and neuromodulators (e.g. dopamine, neuropeptides, prostanoids) operate mainly through G-protein-coupled receptors

– *neuromodulators* are released by neurons and by astrocytes, and produce slower pre-or postsynaptic responses

– *neurotrophic factors* are released mainly by non-neuronal cells and act on tyrosine kinase-linked receptors that regulate gene expression and control neuronal growth and phenotypic characteristics.

• The same agent (e.g. glutamate, 5-hydroxytryptamine, acetylcholine) may act through both ligand-gated channels and G-protein-coupled receptors, and function as both neurotransmitter and neuromodulator.

• Many chemical mediators, including glutamate, nitric oxide and arachidonic acid metabolites, are produced by glia as well as neurons.

• Many mediators (e.g. cytokines, chemokines, growth factors and steroids) control long-term changes in the brain (e.g. synaptic plasticity and remodelling), mainly by affecting gene transcription.

Targets for Drug Action

▼ To recapitulate what was discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, neuroactive drugs act on one of four types of target proteins, namely ion channels, receptors, enzymes and transport proteins. Of the four main receptor families—ionotropic receptors, G-protein-coupled receptors, kinase-linked receptors and nuclear receptors—current drugs target mainly the first two.

In the last two or three decades, knowledge about these targets in the CNS has accumulated rapidly, particularly as follows.

• As well as 40 or more small-molecule and peptide mediators, the importance of other 'non-classical' mediators—nitric oxide, eicosanoids, growth factors, etc.—has become apparent (see Barañano et al., 2001).

• Considerable molecular diversity of known receptor molecules and ion channels (see Ch. 3) has been revealed.

• All the receptors and channels are expressed in at least three or four (often more) subtypes, with quite characteristic distributions in different brain areas. In most cases, we are only beginning to discover what this diversity means at a functional level, through the study of transgenic 'gene knockout' and 'gene knock-in' animals. From the pharmacological standpoint, the molecular diversity of such targets raises the possibility of developing drugs with improved selectivity of action, *e.g.* interacting with one kind of $GABA_A$ receptor without affecting others (see Ch. 43). The potential of these new approaches in terms of improved drugs for neurological and psychiatric diseases is large but as yet relatively untapped.

• The pathophysiology of neurodegeneration in conditions such as Alzheimer's disease and stroke is beginning to be understood (see Ch. 39), and progress is being made in understanding the mechanisms underlying drug dependence (see Ch. 48). These advances are suggesting new strategies for treating these disabling conditions. Other areas of brain research (e.g. the neurobiology of epilepsy, schizophrenia and depressive illnesses) are advancing less rapidly, but there is still progress to report.

Drug Action in the Central Nervous System

As we have already emphasised, the molecular and cellular mechanisms underlying drug action in the CNS and in the periphery are essentially

similar. Understanding how drugs affect brain function is, however, made difficult by several factors. One is the complexity of neuronal interconnections in the brain—the wiring diagram. Figure 36.2 illustrates in a schematic way the kind of interconnections that typically exist for, say, a noradrenergic neuron in the *locus coeruleus* (see Ch. 38), shown as **neuron 1** in the diagram, releasing **transmitter *a*** at its terminals. Release of *a* affects **neuron 2** (which releases **transmitter *b***), and also affects neuron 1 by direct feedback and, indirectly, by affecting presynaptic inputs impinging on neuron 1. The firing pattern of neuron 2 also affects the system, partly through interneuronal connections (**neuron 3**, releasing **transmitter *c***). Even at this grossly oversimplified level, the effects on the system of blocking or enhancing the release or actions of one or other of the transmitters are difficult to predict, and will depend greatly on the relative strength of the various excitatory and inhibitory synaptic connections, and on external inputs (*x* and *y* in the diagram). Added to this complexity at the level of neuronal interconnections is the influence of glial cells, mentioned above.

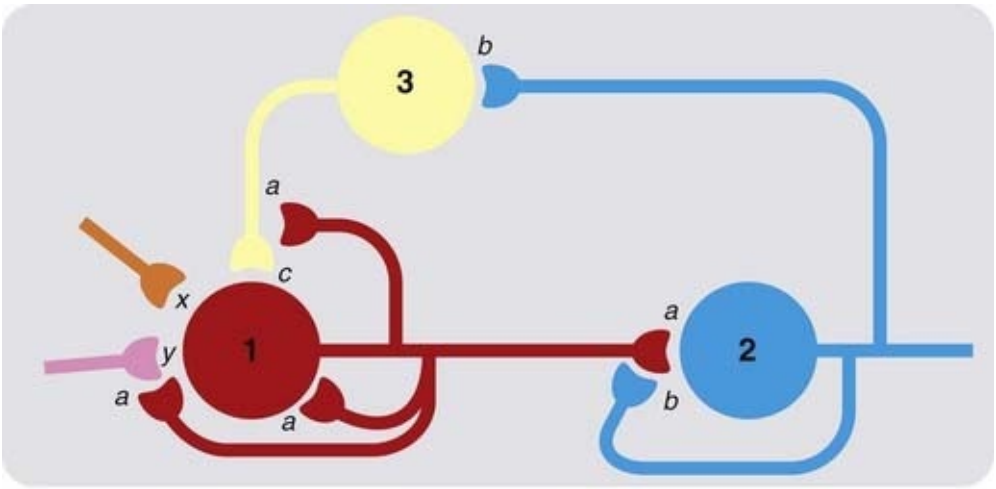


Fig. 36.2 Simplified scheme of neuronal interconnections in the central nervous system.

Neurons 1, 2 and 3 are shown releasing transmitters *a*, *b* and *c*, respectively, which may be excitatory or inhibitory. Boutons of neuron 1 terminate on neuron 2, but also on neuron 1 itself, and on presynaptic terminals of other neurons that make synaptic connections with neuron 1. Neuron 2 also feeds back on neuron 1 via interneuron 3. Transmitters (*x* and *y*) released by other neurons are also shown impinging on neuron 1. Even with such a simple network, the effects of drug-induced interference with specific transmitter systems can be difficult to predict.

A further important complicating factor is that a range of secondary, adaptive responses is generally set in train by any drug-induced perturbation of the system. Typically, an increase in transmitter release, or interference with transmitter reuptake, is countered by inhibition of transmitter synthesis, enhanced transporter expression or decreased receptor expression. These changes, which involve altered gene expression, generally take time (hours, days or weeks) to develop and are not evident in acute pharmacological experiments.

In the clinical situation, the effects of psychotropic drugs often take weeks to develop, so it is likely that they reflect the adaptive responses rather than the immediate pharmacodynamic effects of the drug. This is well documented for antidepressant drugs (Ch. 46) and some antipsychotic drugs (Ch. 45). The development of dependence on drugs such as opioids, benzodiazepines and psychostimulants is similarly gradual (Ch. 48). Thus, one has to take into account not only the primary interaction of the drug with its target, but also the secondary response of the brain to this primary effect; it is often the secondary response, rather than the primary effect, which leads to clinical benefit.

Blood–Brain Barrier

▼ A further important factor in CNS pharmacology is the existence of the blood–brain barrier (see Ch. 8), penetration of which requires molecules to traverse the vascular endothelial cells rather than going between them. In general, only small non-polar molecules can diffuse passively

across cell membranes. Some neuroactive drugs penetrate the blood–brain barrier in this way, but many do so via transporters, which either facilitate entry into the brain or diminish it by pumping the compound from the endothelial cell interior back into the bloodstream. Drugs that gain entry in this way include **L-dopa** (Ch. 39), **valproate** (Ch. 44) and various sedative histamine antagonists (Ch. 17). Active extrusion of drugs from the brain occurs via P-glycoprotein, an ATP-driven drug efflux transporter, and related transporter proteins (see Ch. 8). Drugs that are excluded from the brain include many antibacterial and anticancer drugs while the brain concentrations of some CNS-acting drugs—including certain opioid, antidepressant, antipsychotic and antiepileptic drugs—may be limited by active extrusion from the brain see (Linnet & Ejsing, 2008). In addition, variations in the activity of efflux transporters between individuals due to levels of expression or genetic variations and the potential for drug interactions at the level of these transporters due to inhibition or induction of activity by other drugs is becoming an important consideration.

Drug action in the central nervous system



• The basic types of drug target (ion channels, receptors, enzymes and transporter proteins) described in Chapter 3 apply in the central nervous system, as elsewhere.

• Most of these targets occur in several different molecular isoforms, giving rise to subtle differences in function and pharmacology.

• Many of the currently available neuroactive drugs are relatively non-specific, affecting several different targets, the principal ones being receptors, ion channels and transporters.

• The relationship between the pharmacological profile and the therapeutic effect of neuroactive drugs is often unclear.

• Slowly developing secondary responses to the primary interaction of the drug with its target are often important (e.g. the delayed efficacy of antidepressant drugs, and tolerance and dependence with opioids).

The Classification of Psychotropic Drugs

Psychotropic drugs are defined as those that affect mood and behaviour. Because these indices of brain function are difficult to define and measure, there is no consistent basis for classifying psychotropic drugs. Instead, we find a confusing mêlée of terms relating to chemical structure (*benzodiazepines*, *butyrophenones*, etc.), biochemical target (*monoamine oxidase inhibitors*, *serotonin reuptake inhibitors*, etc.), behavioural effect (*hallucinogens*, *psychomotor stimulants*) or clinical use (*antidepressants*, *antipsychotic agents*, *antiepileptic drugs*, etc.), together with a number of indefinable rogue categories (*atypical antipsychotic drugs*, *nootropic drugs*) thrown in for good measure.

However, grumbling about terminology is fruitless. The general classification in Table 36.2 is based on that suggested in 1967 by the World Health Organization; although flawed, it provides a basis for the material presented later (Chs 37–48).

Table 36.2 General classification of drugs acting on the central nervous system

Class	Definition	Examples	See Chapter
General anaesthetic agents	Drugs used to produce surgical anaesthesia	Isoflurane, propofol	40
Analgesic drugs	Drugs used clinically for controlling pain	Opiates, carbamazepine, gabapentin	41
Anxiolytics and sedatives Synonyms: hypnotics, sedatives, minor tranquillisers	Drugs that reduce anxiety and cause sleep	Benzodiazepines	43
Antiepileptic drugs Synonym: anticonvulsants	Drugs used to reduce seizures	Carbamazepine, valproate, lamotrigine	44
Antipsychotic drugs Synonyms: neuroleptic drugs,[a] antischizophrenic drugs, major tranquillisers	Drugs used to relieve the symptoms of schizophrenic illness	Clozapine, haloperidol, risperidone	45
Antidepressant drugs	Drugs that alleviate the symptoms of depressive illness	Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, tricyclic antidepressants, monoamine oxidase inhibitors	46
Psychomotor stimulants Synonym: psychostimulants	Drugs that cause wakefulness and euphoria	Amphetamine, cocaine, methylphenidate, caffeine	47
Psychotomimetic drugs Synonyms: hallucinogens, psychodysleptics[a]	Drugs that cause disturbance of perception (particularly visual hallucinations) and of behaviour in ways that cannot be simply characterised as sedative or stimulant effects	Lysergic acid diethylamide, mescaline, phencyclidine	47
Cognition enhancers[b] Synonyms: nootropic drugs	Drugs that improve memory and cognitive performance	Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors: donepezil, galantamine, rivastigmine NMDA receptor antagonists: memantine Others: piracetam	39 37

[a] These strange terms are the remnants of a classification proposed by Javet in 1903, who distinguished psycholeptics (depressants of mental function), psychoanaleptics (stimulants of mental function) and psychodysleptics (drugs that produce disturbed mental function). The term neuroleptic (literally 'nerve seizing') was coined 50 years later to describe chlorpromazine-like drugs. It gained favour, presumably by virtue of its brevity rather than its literal meaning.
[b] This is something of a wishful category, in that several classes of drugs that improve learning and memory in animal tests have not been shown to do so in humans.

Also, some drugs defy classification in this scheme, for example **lithium** (see Ch. 46), which is used in the treatment of manic depressive psychosis, and **ketamine** (see Ch. 40), which is classed as a dissociative anaesthetic but produces psychotropic effects rather similar to those produced by phencyclidine.

In practice, the use of drugs in psychiatric illness frequently cuts across specific therapeutic categories. For example, it is common for antipsychotic drugs to be used as 'tranquillisers' to control extremely anxious or unruly patients, or to treat severe depression. Antidepressant drugs are often used to treat anxiety (Ch. 43) and neuropathic pain (Ch.

41), and certain psychostimulants are of proven efficacy for treating hyperactive children. Here we will adhere to the conventional pharmacological categories, but it needs to be emphasised that in clinical use these distinctions are often disregarded.

References and Further Reading

arañano D.E., Ferris C.D., Snyder S.H. Atypical neural messengers Trends Neurosci. 24:2001:99-106 (*Short review on some established mediators, such as nitric oxide, and some speculative ones, such as carbon monoxide and D-serine*)

arres B.A. The mystery and magic of glia: a perspective on their roles in health and disease. *Neuron*. 2008;60:430-440. (*Extensive review of the role of glial cells in brain development, function and disease*)

ear M.F., Connors B.W., Paradiso M.A. *Neuroscience: exploring the brain*, third ed. Baltimore: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins; 2006. (*Comprehensive textbook on neuroscience*)

ersen L.L., Iversen S.D., Bloom F.E., Roth R.H. *Introduction to neuropsychopharmacology*. New York: Oxford University Press; 2009. (*Excellent and readable account focusing on basic rather than clinical aspects*)

andel E., Schwartz J.H., Jessell T.M. *Principles of neural science*, fourth ed. New York: Elsevier; 2000. (*Excellent and detailed standard text on neurobiology—little emphasis on pharmacology*)

innet K., Ejsing T.B. A review on the impact of P-glycoprotein on the penetration of drugs into the brain. Focus on psychotropic drugs. *Eur. Neuropsychopharmacol.* 2008;18:157-169. (*Review of how P-glycoprotein can limit the brain concentration of antidepressant and antipsychotic drugs*)

estler E.J., Hyman S.E., Malenka R.C. *Molecular neuropharmacology*, second ed. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2008. (*Good modern textbook*)

37

Amino acid transmitters

Overview

In this chapter, we discuss the major neurotransmitters in the central nervous system (CNS), namely the excitatory transmitter, glutamate, and the inhibitory transmitters, GABA and glycine. It is an area in which scientific interest has been intense in recent years. Unravelling the complexities of amino acid receptors and signalling mechanisms has thrown considerable light on their role in brain function and their likely involvement in CNS disease. Drugs that target specific receptors and transporters have been developed, but translating this knowledge into drugs for therapeutic use is only now beginning to happen. Here, we present the pharmacological principles and include recent references for those seeking more detail.

Excitatory Amino Acids

Excitatory Amino Acids as CNS Transmitters

L-**Glutamate** is the principal and ubiquitous excitatory transmitter in the CNS (see Cotman et al., 1995, for general review). **Aspartate** plays a similar role in certain brain regions, and possibly also **homocysteate**, but this is controversial.

▼ The realisation of glutamate's importance came slowly (see Watkins & Jane, 2006). By the 1950s, work on the peripheral nervous system had

highlighted the transmitter roles of acetylcholine and catecholamines, and as the brain also contained these substances, there seemed little reason to look further. The presence of γ-**aminobutyric acid** (GABA; see below) in the brain, and its powerful inhibitory effect on neurons, were discovered in the 1950s, and its transmitter role was postulated. At the same time, work by Curtis's group in Canberra showed that glutamate and various other acidic amino acids produced a strong excitatory effect, but it seemed inconceivable that such workaday metabolites could actually be transmitters. Through the 1960s, GABA and excitatory amino acids (EAAs) were thought, even by their discoverers, to be mere pharmacological curiosities. In the 1970s, the humblest amino acid, glycine, was established as an inhibitory transmitter in the spinal cord, giving the lie to the idea that transmitters had to be exotic molecules, too beautiful for any role but to sink into the arms of a receptor. Once glycine had been accepted, the rest quickly followed. A major advance was the discovery of EAA antagonists, based on the work of Watkins in Bristol, which enabled the physiological role of glutamate to be established unequivocally, and also led to the realisation that EAA receptors are heterogeneous.

To do justice to the wealth of discovery in this field in the past two decades is beyond the range of this book; for more detail see Gereau & Swanson (2008). Here we concentrate on pharmacological aspects. After several beautiful but false dawns, a number of new drugs are in development on the basis of EAA mechanisms.[1] The major problem has been that EAA-mediated neurotransmission is ubiquitous in the brain and so agonist and antagonist drugs exert effects at many sites, giving rise not only to therapeutically beneficial effects, but also to other, unwanted harmful effects.

[1]**Memantine**, an N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) antagonist, licensed for

the treatment of moderate to severe Alzheimer's disease (Ch. 39), has been around for some time as has the dissociative anaesthetic, **ketamine**, an NMDA channel blocker.

Metabolism and Release of Amino Acids

Glutamate is widely and fairly uniformly distributed in the CNS, where its concentration is much higher than in other tissues. It has an important metabolic role, the metabolic and neurotransmitter pools being linked by transaminase enzymes that catalyse the interconversion of glutamate and α-oxoglutarate (Fig. 37.1). Glutamate in the CNS comes mainly from either glucose, via the Krebs cycle, or glutamine, which is synthesised by glial cells and taken up by the neurons; very little comes from the periphery. The interconnection between the pathways for the synthesis of EAAs and inhibitory amino acids (GABA and glycine), shown in Figure 37.1, makes it difficult to use experimental manipulations of transmitter synthesis to study the functional role of individual amino acids, because disturbance of any one step will affect both excitatory and inhibitory mediators.

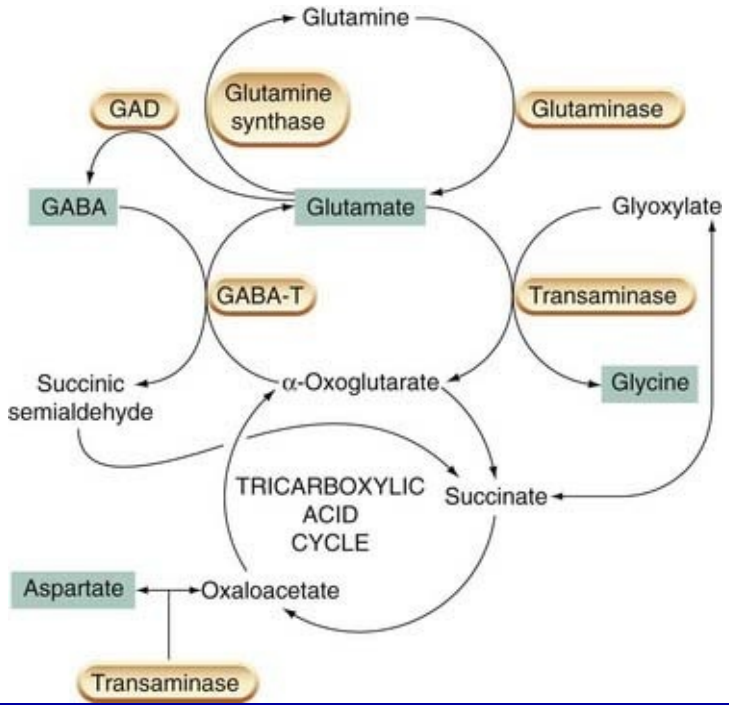


Fig. 37.1 Metabolism of transmitter amino acids in the brain.

Transmitter substances are marked with green boxes. GABA-T, GABA transaminase; GAD, glutamic acid decarboxylase.

In common with other fast neurotransmitters, glutamate is stored in synaptic vesicles and released by Ca^{2+}-dependent exocytosis; specific transporter proteins account for its uptake by neurons and other cells, and for its accumulation by synaptic vesicles (see Ch. 12). Released glutamate is taken up into cells by $Na^+/H^+/K^+$ dependent transporters (cf. monoamine transporters—Chs 12 & 14), and transported into synaptic vesicles, by a different transporter driven by the proton gradient across the vesicle membrane. Several EAA transporters have been cloned and characterised in detail (see Shigeri et al., 2004). There may be value in developing enhancers and inhibitors of glutamate uptake (see Bunch et al., 2009) for the treatment of CNS disorders in which the level of extracellular glutamate may be abnormal, *e.g.* neurodegeneration (see Ch. 39), schizophrenia (see Ch. 45) and depression (see Ch. 46). In contrast to the situation with monoamine

synthesis and transport (Chs 14 and 38), few drugs (none in clinical use) are known that interfere specifically with glutamate metabolism.

The action of glutamate is terminated mainly by carrier-mediated reuptake into the nerve terminals and neighbouring astrocytes (Fig. 37.2). This transport can, under some circumstances (e.g. depolarisation by increased extracellular [K^+]), operate in reverse and constitute a source of glutamate release (see Takahashi et al., 1997), a process that may occur under pathological conditions such as brain ischaemia (see Ch. 39). Glutamate taken up by astrocytes is converted to glutamine and recycled, via transporters, back to the neurons, which convert the glutamine back to glutamate. Glutamine, which lacks the pharmacological activity of glutamate, thus serves as a pool of inactive transmitter under the regulatory control of the astrocytes, which act as ball boys, returning the ammunition in harmless form in order to rearm the neurons.

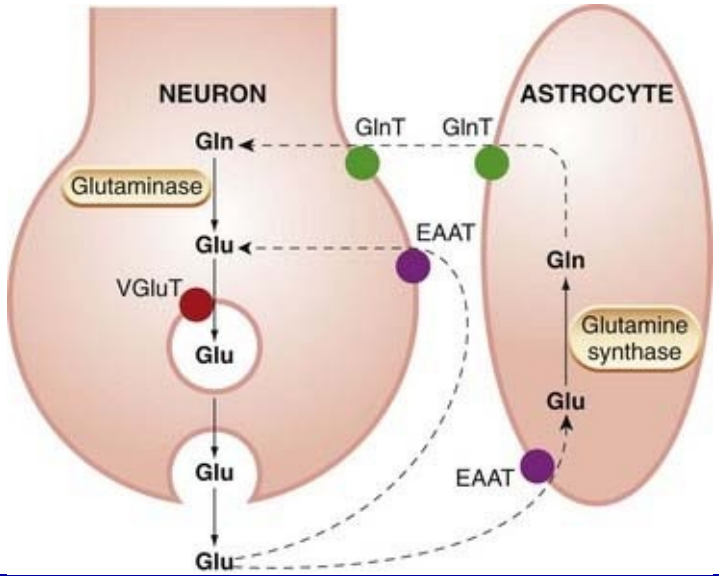


Fig. 37.2 Transport of glutamate (Glu) and glutamine (Gln) by neurons and astrocytes. Released glutamate is captured partly by neurons and partly by astrocytes, which convert most of it to glutamine. EAAT, excitatory amino acid transporter; GlnT, glutamine transporter; VGluT, vesicular glutamate transporter.

Glutamate

Glutamate Receptor Subtypes

Glutamate and related excitatory amino acids activate both ionotropic (ligand-gated cation channels) and metabotropic (G-protein-coupled) receptors (see Ch. 3 for a general description of ionotropic and metabotropic receptors).

Ionotropic Glutamate Receptors

On the basis of studies with selective agonists and antagonists (Fig. 37.3), three main subtypes of ionotropic receptors for glutamate can be distinguished: **NMDA**, **AMPA** and **kainate**[2] receptors, named originally according to their specific agonists (Table 37.1). These ligand-gated channels can be homomeric or heteromeric assemblies of four subunits, each with the 'pore loop' structure shown in Figure 3.18. There are some 16 different receptor subunits and their nomenclature has, until recently, been somewhat confusing.[3] Here, in this brief, general description, we use the new International Union of Basic and Clinical Pharmacology (IUPHAR) recommended terminology because it simplifies the subject considerably, but beware confusion when reading older papers. NMDA receptors are assembled from seven types of subunit (GluN1, GluN2A, GluN2B, GluN2C, GluN2D, GluN3A, GluN3B). The subunits comprising AMPA receptors (GluA1–4)[4] and kainate receptors (GluK1–5), are closely related to, but distinct from, GluN subunits. Receptors comprising different subunits can have different pharmacological and physiological characteristics, *e.g.* AMPA receptors lacking the GluA2 subunit have much higher permeability to Ca^{2+} than the others, which has important functional consequences (see Ch. 4).

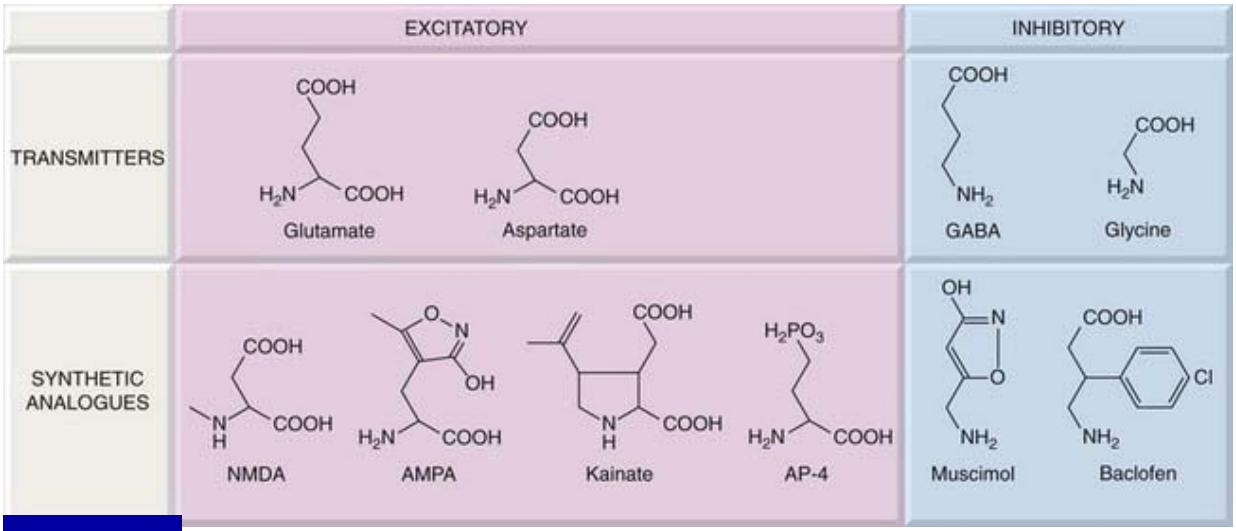


Fig. 37.3 Structures of agonists acting on glutamate, GABA and glycine receptors.

The receptor specificity of these compounds is shown in Tables 37.1 and 37.2. AMPA, α-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methylisoxazole-4-propianic acid; AP-4, 3-amino-4-phosphonopentanoic acid; NMDA, N-methyl-D-asparatic acid.

Table 37.1 Properties of ionotropic glutamate receptors

	NMDA		AMPA	Kainate
Subunit composition	Tetramers consisting of GluN1–3 subunits		Tetramers consisting of GluA1–4 subunits (variants splicing and RNA editing)	Tetramers consisting of GluK1–5 subunits
	Receptor site	**Modulatory site (glycine)**		
Endogenous agonist(s)	Glutamate Aspartate	Glycine D-Serine	Glutamate	Glutamate
Other agonist(s)[a]	NMDA	Cycloserine	AMPA Quisqualate	Kainate Domoate[b]
Antagonist(s)[a]	AP-5, CPP	7-Chloro-kynurenic acid, HA-466	NBQX	NBQX ACET
Other modulators	Polyamines (e.g. spermine, spermidine) Mg^{2+}, Zn^{2+}		Cyclothiazide Piracetam CX-516	—
Channel blockers	Dizocilpine (MK801) Phencyclidine Ketamine Remacemide Memantine Mg^{2+}		—	—
Effector mechanism	Ligand-gated cation channel (slow kinetics, high Ca^{2+} permeability)		Ligand-gated cation channel (fast kinetics; channels possessing GluR2A subunits show low Ca^{2+} permeability)	Ligand-gated cation channel (fast kinetics, low Ca^{2+} permeability)
Location	Postsynaptic (some presynaptic, also glial) Wide distribution		Postsynaptic (also glial)	Pre- and postsynaptic
Function	Slow epsp Synaptic plasticity (long-term potentiation, long-term depression) Excitotoxicity		Fast epsp Wide distribution	Fast epsp Presynaptic inhibition Limited distribution

[a] Structures of experimental compounds can be found in Brauner-Osborne et al. 2002 (J Med Chem 43: 2609–2645).
[b] A neurotoxin from mussels (see Ch. 39).
ACET, -(*S*)-1-(2-Amino-2-carboxyethyl)-3-(2-carboxy-5-phenylthiophene-3-yl-methyl)-5-methylpyrimidine-2,4-dione; AP-5, 2-amino-5-phosphonopentanoic acid; CPP, 3-(2-carboxypirazin-4-yl)-propyl-1-phosphonic acid; CX-516, 1-(quinoxalin-6-ylcarbonyl)-piperidine; epsp, excitatory postsynaptic potential; NBQX, 2,3-dihydro-6-nitro-7-sulfamoyl-benzoquinoxaline. (Other structures are shown in Figure 37.3.)

[2]In the past, AMPA and kainate receptors were often lumped together as AMPA/kainate or non-NMDA receptors, but nowadays it is realised that they each have distinct subunit compositions and should not be grouped together.

[3]An international committee has sought to bring order to the area but, despite the logic of their recommendations, how generally accepted they will be remains to be seen (see Collingridge et al., 2009). Scientists can get very stuck in their ways.

[4]AMPA receptor subunits are also subject to other kinds of variation, namely alternative splicing, giving rise to the engagingly named *flip* and

flop variants, and RNA editing at the single amino acid level, both of which contribute yet more functional diversity to this diverse family.

AMPA receptors, and in certain brain regions kainate receptors (see Bleakman & Lodge, 1998), serve to mediate fast excitatory synaptic transmission in the CNS—absolutely essential for our brains to function. Kainate and NMDA receptors are also expressed on nerve terminals where they can enhance or reduce transmitter release (see Corlew et al., 2008; Jane et al., 2009).[5] AMPA receptors occur on astrocytes as well as on neurons, and these cells play an important role in communication in the brain. Postsynaptic NMDA receptors (which often coexist with AMPA receptors) contribute a slow component to the excitatory synaptic potential (Fig. 37.4), the magnitude of which varies in different pathways.

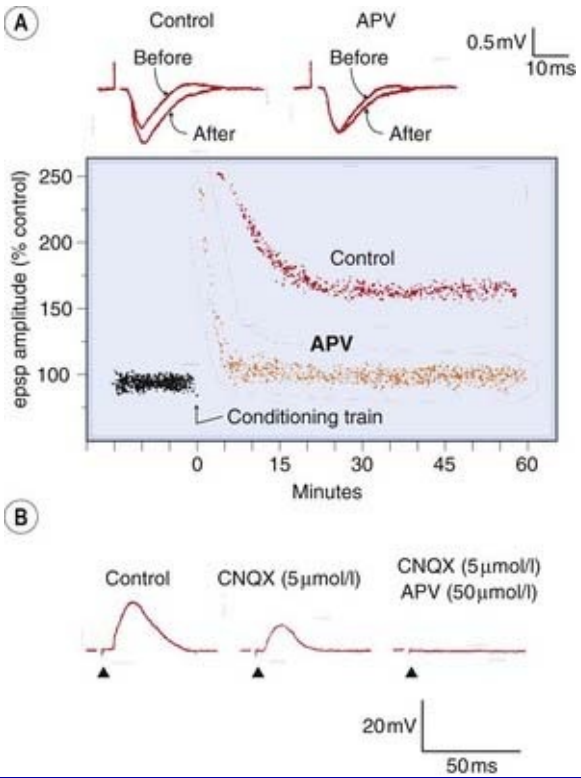


Fig. 37.4 Effects of excitatory amino acid receptor antagonists on synaptic transmission.

[A] APV (NMDA antagonist) prevents long-term potentiation (LTP) in the rat hippocampus without affecting the fast excitatory postsynaptic potential (epsp). Top records show the

extracellularly recorded fast epsp (downward deflection) before, and 50 min after, a conditioning train of stimuli (100 Hz for 2 s). The presence of LTP in the control preparation is indicated by the increase in epsp amplitude. In the presence of APV (50 μmol/l), the normal epsp is unchanged, but LTP does not occur. Lower trace shows epsp amplitude as a function of time. The conditioning train produces a short-lasting increase in epsp amplitude, which still occurs in the presence of APV, but the long-lasting effect is prevented. [**B**] Block of fast and slow components of epsp by CNQX (6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione; AMPA receptor antagonist) and APV (NMDA receptor antagonist). The epsp (upward deflection) in a hippocampal neuron recorded with intracellular electrode is partly blocked by CNQX (5 μmol/l), leaving behind a slow component, which is blocked by APV (50 μmol/l).

*(From: **[A]** Malinow R, Madison D, Tsien R W 1988 Nature 335: 821; **[B]** Andreasen M, Lambert J D, Jensen M S 1989 J Physiol 414: 317–336.)*

[5]In the CNS, presynaptic ligand-gated ion channels such as kainate and NMDA receptors as well as nicotinic and P2X receptors (see Ch. 38) control neurotransmitter release. An explanation of how this control can be either facilitatory or inhibitory is given in Khahk & Henderson (2000).

Binding studies show that ionotropic glutamate receptors are most abundant in the cortex, basal ganglia and sensory pathways. NMDA and AMPA receptors are generally co-localised, but kainate receptors have a much more restricted distribution. Expression of the many different receptor subtypes in the brain also shows distinct regional differences, but we have hardly begun to understand the significance of this extreme organisational complexity.

Special features of NMDA receptors

NMDA receptors and their associated channels have been studied in more detail than the other types and show special pharmacological properties, summarised in Fig. 37.5, which are postulated to play a role in pathophysiological mechanisms.

• They are highly permeable to Ca^{2+}, as well as to other cations, so activation of NMDA receptors is particularly effective in promoting Ca^{2+} entry.

• They are readily blocked by Mg^{2+}, and this block shows marked voltage dependence. It occurs at physiological Mg^{2+} concentrations when the cell is normally polarised, but disappears if the cell is depolarised.

• Activation of NMDA receptors requires glycine as well as glutamate (Fig. 37.6). The binding site for glycine is distinct from the glutamate binding site, and both have to be occupied for the channel to open. This discovery by Johnson and Ascher caused a stir, because glycine had hitherto been recognised as an inhibitory transmitter (see below), so to find it facilitating excitation ran counter to the prevailing doctrine. The concentration of glycine required depends on the subunit composition of the NMDA receptor: for some NMDA receptor subtypes, physiological variation of the glycine concentration may serve as a regulatory mechanism, whereas others are fully activated at all physiological glycine concentrations. Competitive antagonists at the glycine site (see Table 37.1) indirectly inhibit the action of glutamate. **D-serine**, somewhat surprisingly,[6] has been found to activate the NMDA receptor via the glycine site and to be released from astrocytes.

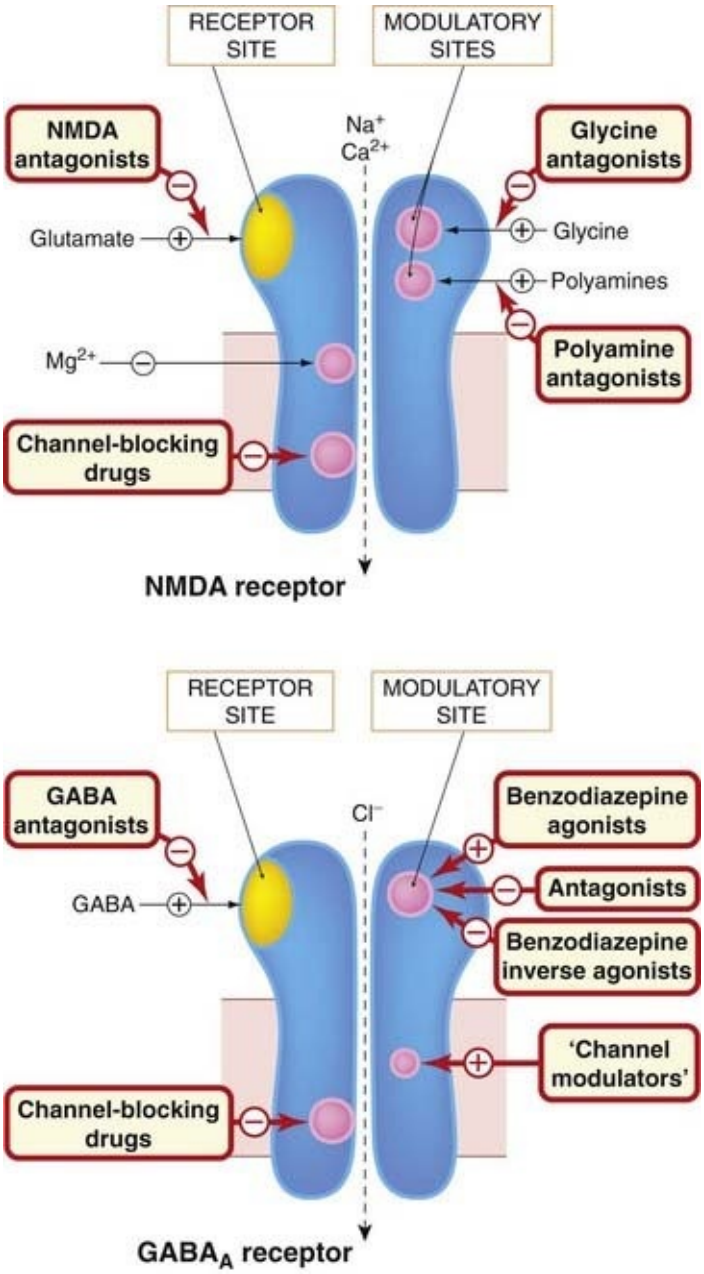


Fig. 37.5 Main sites of drug action on NMDA and $GABA_A$ receptors.

Both receptors are multimeric ligand-gated ion channels. Drugs can act as agonists or antagonists at the neurotransmitter receptor site or at modulatory sites associated with the receptor. They can also act to block the ion channel at one or more distinct sites. In the case of the $GABA_A$ receptor, the mechanism by which 'channel modulators' (e.g. ethanol, anaesthetic agents) facilitate channel opening is uncertain; they may affect both ligand binding and channel sites. The location of the different binding sites shown in the figure is largely imaginary, although study of mutated receptors is beginning to reveal where they actually reside. Examples of the different drug classes are given in Tables 37.1 and 37.3.

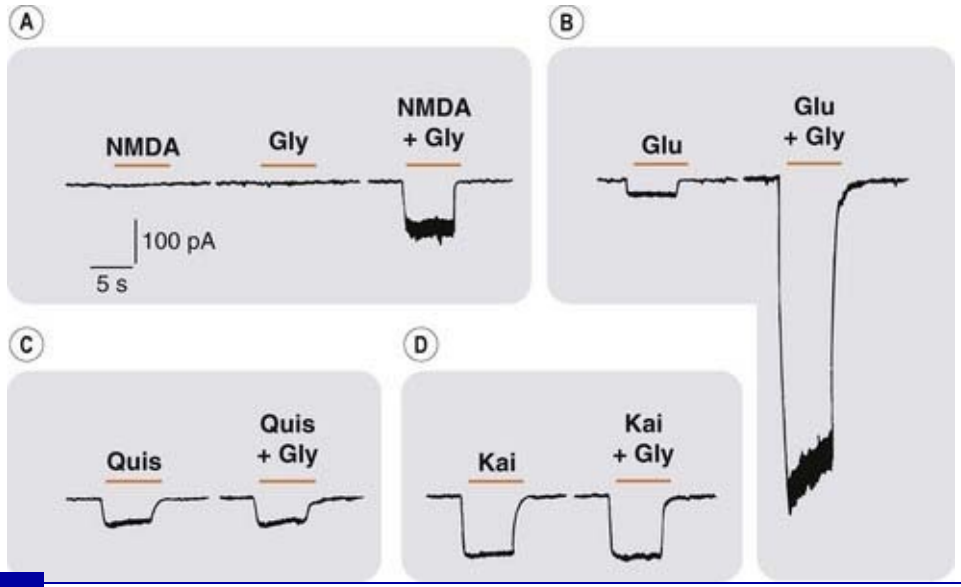


Fig. 37.6 Facilitation of NMDA by glycine.

Recordings from mouse brain neurons in culture (whole-cell patch clamp technique). Downward deflections represent inward current through excitatory amino acid-activated ion channels. [**A**] NMDA (10 μmol/l) or glycine (1 μmol/l) applied separately had little or no effect, but together produced a response. [**B**] The response to glutamate (Glu,10 μmol/l) was strongly potentiated by glycine (Gly, 1 μmol/l). [**C**] and [**D**] Responses of AMPA and kainate receptors to quisqualate (Quis) and kainate (Kai) were unaffected by glycine.

(From Johnson J W, Ascher P 1987 Nature 325: 529–531.)

[6]Surprising, because it is the 'wrong' enantiomer for amino acids of higher organisms. Nevertheless, vertebrates possess specific enzymes and transporters for this D-amino acid, which is abundant in the brain.

• Certain well-known anaesthetic and psychotomimetic agents, such as **ketamine** (Ch. 40) and **phencyclidine** (Ch. 47), are selective blocking agents for NMDA-operated channels. The experimental compound **dizocilpine** (codename MK801) shares this property.

• Certain endogenous polyamines (e.g. **spermine**, **spermidine**) act on a different accessory site to facilitate channel opening. The experimental drugs **ifenprodil** and **eliprodil** block their action.

Metabotropic Glutamate Receptors

There are eight different metabotropic glutamate receptors ($mGlu_{1–8}$) which are unusual in showing no sequence homology with other G-protein-coupled receptors (Ferraguti & Shigemoto, 2006). They function as homodimers (see Ch. 3) cross-linked by a disulfide bridge across the extracellular domain of each protein (see Goudet et al., 2009). They are members of class C G-protein-coupled receptors, possessing a large extracellular N terminus domain that forms a venus fly trap-like structure into which glutamate binds. They can be divided into three groups on the basis of their sequence homology, G-protein coupling and pharmacology (see Table 37.2). Alternatively spliced receptor variants have been reported.

Table 37.2 Metabotropic glutamate receptors

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Members	$mGlu_1$, $mGlu_5$	$mGlu_2$, $mGlu_3$	$mGlu_4$, $mGlu_6$,[a] $mGlu_7$, $mGlu_8$
G-protein coupling	G_q	G_i/G_o	G_i/G_o
Agonist	DHPG CHPG[b]	LY354740	L-AP4 (S)-3,4-DCPG[c]
Antagonist	LY367385[d] S-4-CPG	LY341495	CPPG
Neuronal location	Somatodendritic	Somatodendritic and nerve terminals	Nerve terminals

[a] $mGlu_6$ is found only in the retina. [b] $mGlu_5$ selective. [c] $mGlu_8$ selective. [d] $mGlu_1$ selective.
CHPG, (RS)-2-chloro-5-hydroxyphenylglycine; CPPG, (RS)-α-cyclopropyl-4-phosphonophenylglycine; DHPG, 3,5-dihydroxyphenylglycine; L-AP4, 2-amino-4-phosphonobutyrate; (S)-3,4-DCPG, (S)-3,4-dicarboxyphenylglycine; S-4-CPG, (S)-4-carboxy-3-hydroxyphenylglycine.

mGlu receptors are widely distributed throughout the central nervous system (see Ferraguti & Shigemoto, 2006) on neurons, where they regulate cell excitability and synaptic transmission, and on glia. Neuronal group 1 mGlu receptors are located postsynaptically and are largely excitatory. By raising intracellular [Ca^{2+}], they modify responses through ionotropic glutamate receptors (see Fig. 37.7). Group 2 and 3

mGlu receptors are mostly presynaptic receptors and their activation tends to reduce synaptic transmission and neuronal excitability. They can be autoreceptors, involved in reducing glutamate release or heteroreceptors, *e.g.* when present on GABA-containing terminals.

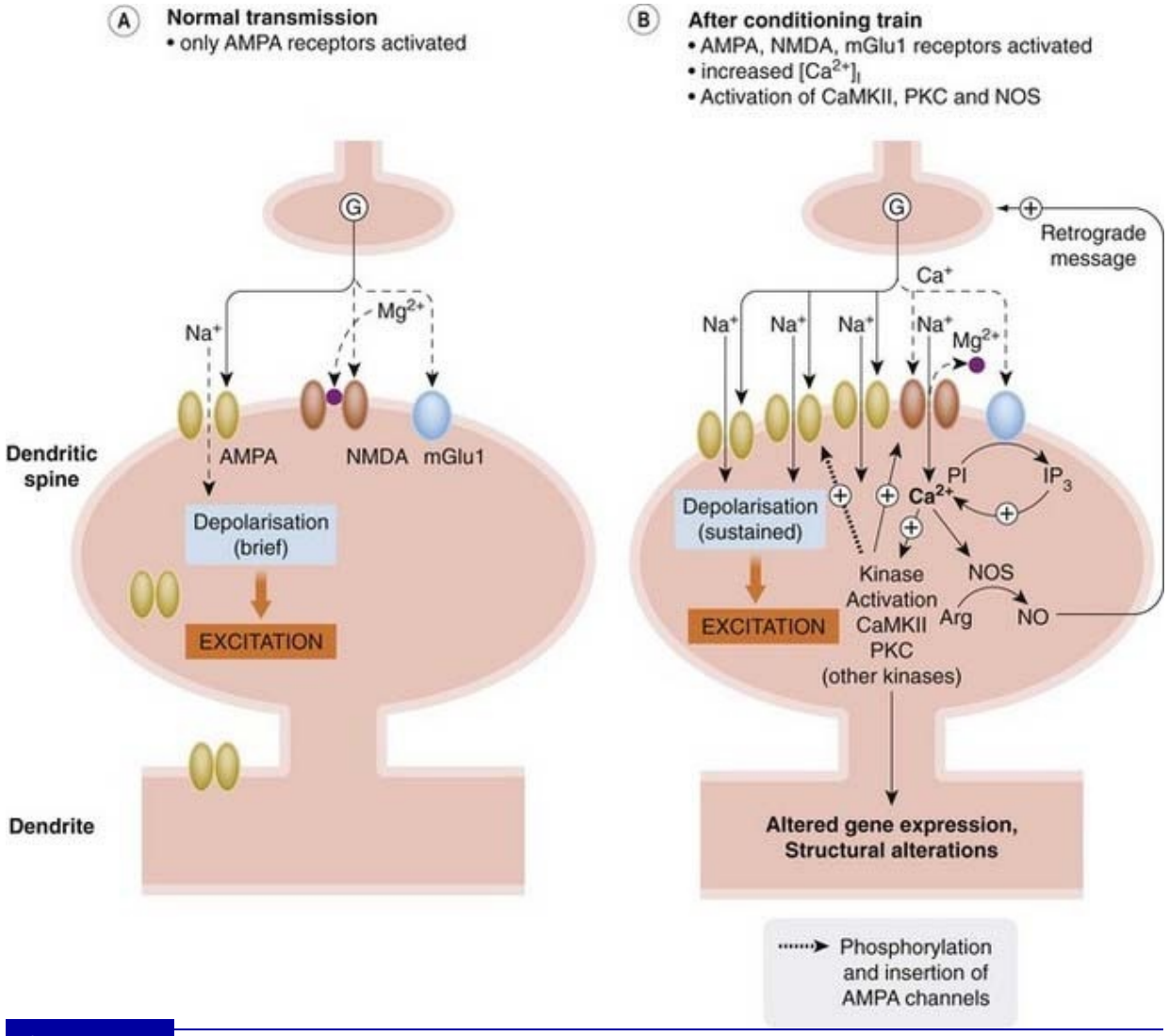


Fig. 37.7 Mechanisms of long-term potentiation.

[**A**] With infrequent synaptic activity, glutamate (G) activates mainly AMPA receptors. There is insufficient glutamate to activate metabotropic receptors, and NMDA receptor channels are blocked by Mg^{2+}. [**B**] After a conditioning train of stimuli, enough glutamate is released to activate metabotropic receptors, and NMDA channels are unblocked by the sustained depolarisation. The resulting increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ activates various enzymes, including the following:

• Ca^{2+}/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase (CaMKII) and protein kinase C (PKC) phosphorylates various proteins, including AMPA receptors (causing them to be trafficked to areas of synaptic contact on dendritic spines and facilitation of transmitter action) and other signal transduction molecules controlling gene transcription (not shown) in the postsynaptic cell.

• Nitric oxide synthase (NOS). Release of nitric oxide (NO) facilitates glutamate release (retrograde signalling, otherwise known as NO turning back).

• Phospholipase A_2 (not shown) catalyses the formation of arachidonic acid (Ch. 17), a retrograde messenger that increases presynaptic glutamate release.

• A phospholipase (NAPE-PLD, not shown) that catalyses production of the endocannabinoid, anandamide (Ch. 18). Anandamide appears to act on GABAergic inhibitory nerve terminals, enhancing transmission by suppressing GABA release.

Arg, arginine; IP_3, inositol (1,4,5) trisphosphate; NO, nitric oxide; PI, phosphatidylinositol.

Synaptic Plasticity and Long-Term Potentiation

▼ In general, it appears that NMDA and mGlu receptors play a particular role in long-term adaptive and pathological changes in the brain, and are of particular interest as potential drug targets. AMPA receptors, on the other hand, are mainly responsible for fast excitatory transmission, and if they are fully blocked, brain function shuts down entirely; nevertheless, they too are involved in synaptic plasticity.

Two aspects of glutamate receptor function are of particular pathophysiological importance, namely *synaptic plasticity*, discussed here,

and *excitotoxicity* (discussed in Ch. 39).

Synaptic plasticity is a general term used to describe long-term changes in synaptic connectivity and efficacy, either following physiological alterations in neuronal activity (as in learning and memory), or resulting from pathological disturbances (as in epilepsy, chronic pain or drug dependence). Synaptic plasticity underlies much of what we call 'brain function'. Needless to say, no single mechanism is responsible; however, one significant and much-studied component is *long-term potentiation* (LTP), a phenomenon in which AMPA and NMDA receptors play a central role.

Long-term potentiation (LTP; see Bennett, 2000; Bear et al., 2006) is a prolonged (hours in vitro, days or weeks in vivo) enhancement of synaptic transmission that occurs at various CNS synapses following a short (conditioning) burst of high-frequency presynaptic stimulation. Its counterpart is *long-term depression* (LTD), which is produced at some synapses by a longer train of stimuli at lower frequency (see Massey & Bashir, 2007). These phenomena have been studied at various synapses in the CNS, most especially in the hippocampus which plays a central role in learning and memory (Fig. 37.4). It has been argued that 'learning', in the synaptic sense, can occur if synaptic strength is enhanced following simultaneous activity in both pre-and postsynaptic neurons. LTP shows this characteristic; it does not occur if presynaptic activity fails to excite the postsynaptic neuron, or if the latter is activated independently, for instance by a different presynaptic input. The mechanisms underlying both LTP and LTD differ somewhat at different synapses in the brain (see Bear et al., 2006). Here only a brief, generic view of the underlying events is given. LTP initiation may involve both presynaptic and postsynaptic components, and results from enhanced activation of postsynaptic AMPA receptors at EAA synapses

and (probably) to enhanced glutamate release (although the argument rumbles on about whether increased transmitter release does or does not occur in LTP; see Blundon & Zakharenko, 2008). The response of postsynaptic AMPA receptors to glutamate is increased due to phosphorylation of the AMPA receptor subunits by kinases such as Ca^{2+}/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase (CaMKII) and protein kinase C (PKC), thus enhancing their conductance, as well as to increased expression and trafficking of AMPA receptors to synaptic sites. LTD, on the other hand, results from modest Ca^{2+} entry into the cell through AMPA receptors (NMDA receptors remain blocked by Mg^{2+}) activating phosphatases that reduce AMPA receptor phosphorylation and insertion into the plasma membrane.

LTP is reduced by agents that block the synthesis or effects of nitric oxide or arachidonic acid. These mediators (see Chs 17 and 20) may act as retrograde messengers through which events in the postsynaptic cell are able to influence the presynaptic nerve terminal. *Anandamide*, released by the postsynaptic cell, may also play a role by reducing the release of GABA from inhibitory nerve endings (see Ch. 18).

Two special properties of the NMDA receptor underlie its involvement in LTP, namely voltage-dependent channel block by Mg^{2+} and its high Ca^{2+} permeability. At normal membrane potentials, the NMDA channel is blocked by Mg^{2+}; a sustained postsynaptic depolarisation produced by glutamate acting repeatedly on AMPA receptors, however, removes the Mg^{2+} block, and NMDA receptor activation then allows Ca^{2+} to enter the cell. Activation of group 1 mGlu receptors also contributes to the increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. This rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in the postsynaptic cell activates protein kinases, phospholipases and nitric oxide synthase, which act jointly with other cellular proceses (by mechanisms that are not yet fully understood) to facilitate transmission via AMPA receptors.

Initially, during the induction phase of LTP, phosphorylation of AMPA receptors increases their responsiveness to glutamate. Later, during the maintenance phase, more AMPA receptors are recruited to the membrane of postsynaptic dendritic spines as a result of altered receptor trafficking; later still, various other mediators and signalling pathways are activated, causing structural changes and leading to a permanent increase in the number of synaptic contacts.

The general description of LTP given above is intended to provide the uninitiated reader with an overview of the topic. There are subtle differences in its forms and in the mechanisms underlying it at different synapses in the CNS. How LTP, in all of its guises, relates to different forms of memory is slowly being worked out (see Bear et al., 2006; Kessels & Malinow, 2009). Thus there is hope that drugs capable of enhancing LTP may improve learning and memory.

Drugs Acting on Glutamate Receptors

Antagonists and Negative Modulators

Inotropic glutamate receptor antagonists

The main types and examples of ionotropic glutamate antagonists are shown in Table 37.1. They are selective for the main receptor types but generally not for specific subtypes. Many of these compounds, although very useful as experimental tools in vitro, are unable to penetrate the blood–brain barrier, so they are not effective when given systemically.

NMDA receptors, as discussed above, require glycine as well as NMDA to activate them, so blocking of the glycine site is an alternative way to produce antagonism. **Kynurenic acid** and the more potent analogue **7-chloro-kynurenic acid** act in this way, as do various compounds currently in development. Another site of block is the channel itself,

where various substances act, for example **ketamine** and **phencyclidine**. **Dizocilpine**, **remacemide** and **memantine** are more recent examples. These agents are lipid soluble and thus able to cross the blood–brain barrier.

The potential therapeutic interest in ionotropic glutamate receptor antagonists lies mainly in the reduction of brain damage following strokes and head injury (Ch. 39), as well as in the treatment of epilepsy (Ch. 44) and Alzheimer's disease (Ch. 39). They have also been considered for indications such as drug dependence (Ch. 48) and schizophrenia (Ch. 45). Trials with NMDA antagonists and channel blockers have so far proved disappointing, and a serious drawback of these agents is their tendency to cause hallucinatory and other disturbances (also a feature of phencyclidine; Ch. 47). Only two NMDA receptor antagonists, **ketamine** (anaesthesia and analgesia; see Chs 40 and 41) and **memantine** (Alzheimer's disease; Ch. 39), are in clinical use. It is possible that antagonists selective for NMDA receptors containing the GluN2B subunit, which is highly Ca^{2+} permeable, may be effective for treating neurodegeneration and have fewer CNS side effects. Glycine site antagonists may also have fewer unwanted effects, and experimental compounds have been tested in clinical trials for conditions such as stroke and epilepsy (see Jansen & Dannhart, 2003); the results have been inconclusive. AMPA receptor antagonists seem unpromising as therapeutic agents, because the available agents (as might be expected) produce overall CNS depression, including respiratory depression, cognition impairment and motor incoordination, with little margin of safety. Only if subtype selectivity can be achieved is this approach likely to succeed. The prospects for kainate receptor antagonists appear more promising—antagonists for GluK1 have shown potential for the treatment of pain, migraine, epilepsy, stroke and anxiety (see Jane et al.,

2009).

Overall, the promise foreseen for ionotropic glutamate receptor antagonists in the clinic has simply not, so far, been fulfilled. The problem may be that glutamate is such a ubiquitous and multifunctional mediator—involved, it seems, in almost every aspect of brain function—that attempting to improve a specific malfunction by flooding the brain with a compound that affects the glutamate system in some way is just too crude a strategy.

Metabotropic glutamate receptor antagonists

While antagonists that discriminate between the different groups of mGlu receptors are available (see Table 37.2), it has proven more difficult to develop selective antagonists for the subtypes within the groups. mGlu receptors, like many G-protein-coupled receptors, possess allosteric modulatory sites (see Ch. 3). Allosteric modulation can be either inhibitory or facilitatory. Antagonists or negative modulators acting at group 1 mGlu receptors have potential for the treatment of various pain states, Parkinson's disease, neuroprotection, epilepsy and drug abuse; whereas antagonists or negative modulators of group 2 mGlu receptors have potential as cognition enhancers (Kew, 2004).

Agonists and Positive Modulators

Ionotropic glutamate receptors

Various agonists at ionotropic glutamate receptors that are used experimentally are shown in Table 37.1. From the clinical perspective, interest centres on the theory that positive AMPA receptor modulators may improve memory and cognitive performance. Examples include **cyclothiazide**, **piracetam** and CX-516 (**Ampalex**). These positive modulators, known as *ampakines*, are allosteric modulators and can act

in subtly different ways to increase response amplitude, slow deactivation and attenuate desensitisation of AMPA receptor-mediated currents. They therefore increase AMPA-mediated synaptic responses and enhance long-term potentiation as well as upregulating the production of nerve growth factors such as *brain-derived neurotrophic factor* (BDNF). They are thought to have therapeutic potential as cognition enhancers and in the treatment of schizophrenia, depression, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and Parkinson's disease (see Lynch, 2006).

Metabotropic glutamate receptors

Agonists at group 2 and 3 mGlu receptors decrease glutamate release. They therefore have therapeutic potential to decrease neuronal cell death in stroke and in the treatment of epilepsy and anxiety as well as in controlling the positive symptoms of schizophrenia. As with antagonists (see above), developing selective agonists of mGlu receptors has proven to be quite difficult; the hope is that it will be easier to develop highly selective positive allosteric modulators (see Kew, 2004).

Excitatory amino acids



- Excitatory amino acids (EAAs), namely glutamate, aspartate and possibly homocysteate, are the main fast excitatory transmitters in the central nervous system.
- Glutamate is formed mainly from the Krebs cycle intermediate α-oxoglutarate by the action of GABA transaminase.
- There are three main ionotropic glutamate receptors and eight metabotropic receptors.
- NMDA, AMPA and kainate receptors are ionotropic receptors regulating cation channels.
- The channels controlled by NMDA receptors are highly permeable to Ca^{2+} and are blocked

by Mg^{2+}.

• AMPA and kainate receptors are involved in fast excitatory transmission; NMDA receptors mediate slower excitatory responses and, through their effect in controlling Ca^{2+} entry, play a more complex role in controlling synaptic plasticity (e.g. long-term potentiation).

• Competitive NMDA receptor antagonists include **AP-5** (2-amino-5-phosphonopentanoic acid) and CPP (3-(2-carboxypirazin-4-yl)-propyl-1-phosphonic acid); the NMDA-operated ion channel is blocked by **dizocilpine**, as well as by the psychotomimetic drugs **ketamine** and **phencyclidine**.

• **NBQX** (2,3-dihydro-6-nitro-7-sulfamoyl-benzoquinoxaline) is an AMPA and kainate receptor antagonist.

• NMDA receptors require low concentrations of glycine as a co-agonist, in addition to glutamate; 7-chlorokynurenic acid blocks this action of glycine.

• NMDA receptor activation is increased by endogenous polyamines, such as **spermine**, acting on a modulatory site that is blocked by **ifenprodil**.

• The entry of excessive amounts of Ca^{2+} produced by NMDA receptor activation can result in cell death—excitotoxicity (see Ch. 39).

• Metabotropic glutamate receptors ($mGlu_{1–8}$) are dimeric G-protein-coupled receptors. $mGlu_1$ and $mGlu_5$ receptors couple through G_q to inositol trisphosphate formation and intracellular Ca^{2+} release. They play a part in glutamate-mediated synaptic plasticity and excitotoxicity. The other mGlu receptors couple to G_i/G_o and inhibit neurotransmitter release, most importantly glutamate release.

• Specific metabotropic glutamate receptor agonists and antagonists are available as are positive and negative allosteric modulators.

• Glutamate receptor antagonists have yet to be developed for clinical use.

γ-Aminobutyric Acid

GABA is the main inhibitory transmitter in the brain. In the spinal cord and brain stem, glycine is also important.

Synthesis, Storage and Function

GABA occurs in brain tissue but not in other mammalian tissues, except in trace amounts. It is particularly abundant (about 10 μmol/g tissue) in the nigrostriatal system, but occurs at lower concentrations (2–5 μmol/g) throughout the grey matter.

GABA is formed from glutamate (Fig. 37.1) by the action of glutamic acid decarboxylase (GAD), an enzyme found only in GABA-synthesising neurons in the brain. Immunohistochemical labelling of GAD is used to map the GABA pathways in the brain. GABAergic neurons and astrocytes take up GABA via specific transporters, thus removing GABA after it has been released. GABA transport is inhibited by **guvacine**, **nipecotic acid** and **tiagabine**. Tiagabine is used to treat epilepsy (Ch. 44). GABA can be destroyed by a transamination reaction in which the amino group is transferred to α-oxoglutaric acid (to yield glutamate), with the production of succinic semialdehyde and then succinic acid. This reaction is catalysed by GABA transaminase, an enzyme located primarily in astrocytes. It is inhibited by **vigabatrine**, another compound used to treat epilepsy (Ch. 44).

GABA functions as an inhibitory transmitter in many different CNS pathways. About 20% of CNS neurons are GABAergic; most are short interneurons, but there are some long GABAergic tracts, *e.g.* from the striatum to the substantia nigra and globus pallidus (see Ch. 39 and Fig. 39.4). The widespread distribution of GABA—GABA serves as a transmitter at about 30% of all the synapses in the CNS—and the fact

that virtually all neurons are sensitive to its inhibitory effect suggests that its function is ubiquitous in the brain. That antagonists such as **bicuculline** (see below) induce seizures illustrates the important, ongoing inhibitory role of GABA in the brain.

Gaba Receptors: Structure and Pharmacology

GABA acts on two distinct types of receptor: $GABA_A$ receptors are ligand-gated ion channels whereas the other, $GABA_B$ receptors, are G-protein coupled.

$Gaba_a$ Receptors

$GABA_A$ receptors[7] (see Barnard, 2000) are members of the *Cys* loop family of receptors that also includes the glycine, nicotinic, and 5-HT_3 receptors (see Fig. 3.18). The $GABA_A$ receptors are pentamers made up of different subunits. The reader should not despair when informed that nineteen $GABA_A$ receptor subunits have been cloned (α1–6, β1–3, γ1–3, δ, ε, θ, π and ρ1–3) and that splice variants of some subunits also exist. Although the number of possible combinations is large, only a few dozen have been shown to exist (Mody & Pearce, 2004). The most common are α1β2γ2 (by far the most abundant), α2β3γ2 and α3β1–3γ2 subunits. To make up the pentamer, each receptor contains 2 α, 2 β and 1 γ subunit arranged in a circle in the sequence α–β–α–β–γ around the pore when viewed from the extracellular side of the membrane. GABA binds at the interface between the α and β subunits whereas benzodiazepines (see Ch. 43) bind at the α/γ interface. Receptors containing different α and γ subunits exhibit differential sensitivity to benzodiazepines and mediate different behavioural responses to these drugs. This raises the tantalising prospect of developing new agents with greater selectivity and potentially fewer side effects. The $GABA_A$ receptor should therefore be

thought of as a group of receptors exhibiting subtle differences in their physiological and pharmacological properties.

[7]The IUPHAR Nomenclature Committee has recommended (see Olsen & Sieghart, 2008) that the receptors previously referred to as '$GABA_C$' receptors, because they were insensitive to bicuculline or baclofen, should be subtypes of the $GABA_A$ receptor family as they are pentameric Cl^--permeable ligand-gated channels that contain ρ subunits. Their functional significance is slowly being worked out (see Chebib, 2004).

$GABA_A$ receptors are primarily located postsynaptically and mediate fast postsynaptic inhibition, the channel being selectively permeable to Cl^-. Because the equilibrium membrane potential for Cl^- is usually negative to the resting potential, increasing Cl^- permeability hyperpolarises the cell as Cl^- ions enter, thereby reducing its excitability.[8] $GABA_A$ receptors are located both at areas of synaptic contact and extrasynaptically (Farrant & Nusser, 2005). Thus GABA produces inhibition by acting both as a fast 'point-to-point' transmitter and as an 'action-at-a-distance' neuromodulator, as the extrasynaptic $GABA_A$ receptors can be tonically activated by GABA that has diffused away from its site of release. Extrasynaptic $GABA_A$ receptors contain α4, α5 and α6 subunits as well as the δ subunit, and are highly sensitive to general anaesthetic agents (see Ch. 40) and ethanol (see Ch. 48), have higher affinities for GABA and show less desensitisation. **Gaboxadol** (previously known as THIP from its chemical structure) is a selective $GABA_A$ receptor agonist with a preference for δ subunit-containing $GABA_A$ receptors.

[8]During early brain development (in which GABA plays an important role), and also in some regions of the adult brain, GABA has an excitatory rather than an inhibitory effect, because the intracellular Cl^-

concentration is relatively high, so that the equilibrium potential is positive to the resting membrane potential.

$Gaba_B$ Receptors

$GABA_B$ receptors (see Bettler et al., 2004) are located pre-and postsynaptically. They are class C G-protein-coupled receptors that couple through G_i/G_o to inhibit voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels (thus reducing transmitter release), to open potassium channels (thus reducing postsynaptic excitability) and to inhibit adenylyl cyclase.

▼ For $GABA_B$ receptors, the functional receptor is a dimer (see Ch. 3) consisting of two different seven-transmembrane subunits, B1 and B2, held together by a coil/coil interaction between their C-terminal tails (Kubo & Tateyama, 2005). In the absence of B2, the B1 subunit does not traffic to the plasma membrane as it possesses an endoplasmic reticulum retention signal. Interaction of B1 with B2 masks the retention signal and facilitates trafficking to the membrane. Activation of the dimer results from GABA binding to the extracellular, venus fly trap-like domain of B1 (even although the B2 subunit possesses a similar domain) whereas it is the B2 subunit that interacts with and activates the G-protein (Fig. 37.8).

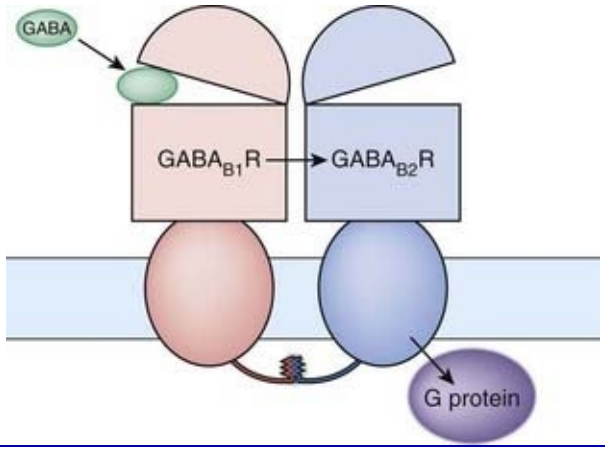


Fig 37.8 Dimeric structure of the $GABA_B$ receptor.

The receptor is made up of two seven-transmembrane domain subunits held together by a coil/coil interaction between their C-terminal tails. Activation of the receptor occurs when GABA binds to the extracellular domain of the B1 subunit. This produces an allosteric change in the B2 subunit which is coupled to the G-protein.

(Adapted from Kubo & Tateyama, 2005 Current Opinion in Neurobiology. 15: 289–295.)

Drugs Acting on Gaba Receptors

$Gaba_a$ Receptors

$GABA_A$ receptors resemble NMDA receptors in that drugs may act at several different sites (Fig. 37.5; see Johnston, 1996). These include:

- the GABA-binding site
- several modulatory sites
- the ion channel.

There is growing evidence that the different receptor subtypes differ in their pharmacological properties.

$GABA_A$ receptors are the target for several important centrally acting drugs, notably benzodiazepines, barbiturates, neurosteroids (see below) and several general anaesthetics. The main agonists, antagonists and modulatory substances that act on GABA receptors are shown in Table 37.3.

Table 37.3 Properties of inhibitory amino acid receptors

	$GABA_A$			$GABA_B$	Glycine
	Receptor site	Modulatory site (benzodiazepine)	Modulatory site (others)		
Endogenous agonists	GABA	Unknown, several postulated (see text)	Various neurosteroids (e.g. progesterone metabolites)	GABA	Glycine β-Alanine Taurine
Other agonist(s)	Muscimol Gaboxadol (THIP,[a] partial agonist)	Anxiolytic benzodiazepines (e.g. diazepam)	Barbiturates Steroid anaesthetics (e.g. alphaxolone)	Baclofen	—
Antagonist(s)	Bicuculline Gabazine	Flumazenil (inverse agonist?)	—	2-Hydroxy-saclofen CGP 35348 and others	Strychnine
Channel blocker	Picrotoxin[b]			Not applicable	—
Effector mechanism(s)	Ligand-gated chloride channel			G-protein-coupled receptor; inhibition of adenylyl cyclase, inhibition of Ca^{2+} channels, activation of K^+ channels	Ligand-gated chloride channel
Location	Widespread; mainly GABAergic interneurons			Pre- and postsynaptic Widespread	Postsynaptic Mainly in brain stem and spinal cord
Function	Postsynaptic inhibition (fast ipsp and tonic inhibition)			Presynaptic inhibition (decreased Ca^{2+} entry) Postsynaptic inhibition (increased K^+ permeability)	Postsynaptic inhibition (fast ipsp)

[a] THIP is an abbreviation of the chemical name of gaboxadol. It is reported to have preference for δ subunit-containing extrasynaptic $GABA_A$ receptors.
[b] Picrotoxin also blocks homomeric α subunit-containing glycine receptors but not heteromeric glycine receptors.
ipsp, inhibitory postsynaptic potential.

Muscimol, derived from a hallucinogenic mushroom, resembles GABA chemically and is a powerful $GABA_A$ receptor agonist. A synthetic analogue, **gaboxadol** is a partial agonist that was developed as a hypnotic drug (Ch. 43) but has now been withdrawn. **Bicuculline**, a naturally occurring convulsant compound, is a specific antagonist that blocks the fast inhibitory synaptic potential in most CNS synapses. **Gabazine**, a synthetic GABA analogue, is similar. These compounds are useful experimental tools but have no therapeutic uses.

Benzodiazepines, which have powerful sedative, anxiolytic and anticonvulsant effects (see Ch. 43), selectively potentiate the effects of GABA on some $GABA_A$ receptors depending upon the subunit composition of the receptor. They bind with high affinity to an accessory site (the 'benzodiazepine receptor') on the $GABA_A$ receptor, in such a

way that the binding of GABA is facilitated and its agonist effect is enhanced. Conversely, inverse agonists at the benzodiazepine receptor (e.g. Ro15-4513) reduce GABA binding and are anxiogenic and proconvulsant—they are unlikely to be therapeutically useful!

Modulators that also enhance the action of GABA, but whose site of action is less well defined than that of benzodiazepines (shown as 'channel modulators' in Fig. 37.5), include other CNS depressants such as barbiturates (Ch. 43), anaesthetic agents (Ch. 40) and neurosteroids. Neurosteroids (see Lambert et al., 2003) are compounds that are related to steroid hormones but that act (like benzodiazepines) to enhance activation of $GABA_A$ receptors as well as on conventional intracellular steroid receptors. Interestingly, they include metabolites of progesterone and androgens that are formed in the nervous system, and are believed to have a physiological role. Synthetic neurosteroids include **alphaxolone**, developed as an anaesthetic agent (Ch. 40).

Picrotoxin is a convulsant that acts by blocking the chloride channel associated with the $GABA_A$ receptor, thus blocking the postsynaptic inhibitory effect of GABA. It has no therapeutic uses.

$Gaba_B$ Receptors

When the importance of GABA as an inhibitory transmitter was recognised, it was thought that a GABA-like substance might prove to be effective in controlling epilepsy and other convulsive states; because GABA itself fails to penetrate the blood–brain barrier, more lipophilic GABA analogues were sought, one of which, **baclofen** (see Fig. 37.3), was introduced in 1972. Unlike GABA, its actions are not blocked by bicuculline. These findings led to the recognition of the $GABA_B$ receptor, for which baclofen is a selective agonist (see Bowery, 1993). Baclofen is used to treat spasticity and related motor disorders (Ch. 44) and may

also be useful in the treatment of drug dependence (see Ch. 48).

Competitive antagonists for the $GABA_B$ receptor include a number of experimental compounds (e.g. **2-hydroxy-saclofen** and more potent compounds with improved brain penetration, such as CGP 35348). Tests in animals have shown that these compounds produce only slight effects on CNS function (in contrast to the powerful convulsant effects of $GABA_A$ antagonists). The main effect observed, paradoxically, was an antiepileptic action, specifically in an animal model of absence seizures (see Ch. 44), together with enhanced cognitive performance. Whether such compounds will prove to have therapeutic uses remains to be seen.

γ-Hydroxybutyrate

γ-Hydroxybutyrate (GHB; see Wong et al., 2004) occurs naturally in the brain as a side product of GABA synthesis. As a synthetic drug from 1960 onwards, it has found favour with bodybuilders, based on its ability to evoke the release of growth hormone, and with party-goers, based on its euphoric and disinhibitory effects. In common with many abused drugs (see Ch. 48), it activates 'reward pathways' in the brain, and its use is now illegal in most countries. The pharmacological properties of GHB are not well understood, although it is believed to be a weak partial agonist at $GABA_B$ receptors and to bind to specific GHB receptor sites (see Wu et al., 2004), of which little is known.

Glycine

Glycine is present in particularly high concentration (5 μmol/g) in the grey matter of the spinal cord. Applied ionophoretically to motor neurons or interneurons, it produces an inhibitory hyperpolarisation that is indistinguishable from the inhibitory synaptic response. **Strychnine**, a convulsant poison that acts mainly on the spinal cord, blocks both the

synaptic inhibitory response and the response to glycine. This, together with direct measurements of glycine release in response to nerve stimulation, provides strong evidence for its physiological transmitter role. β-**Alanine** has pharmacological effects and a pattern of distribution very similar to those of glycine, but its action is not blocked by strychnine.

The inhibitory effect of glycine is quite distinct from its role in facilitating activation of NMDA receptors (see p. 450).

▼ The glycine receptor (see Lynch, 2009) resembles the $GABA_A$ receptor in that it is a *Cys* loop, pentameric ligand-gated chloride channel. There are no specific metabotropic receptors for glycine. Five glycine receptor subunits have been cloned (α1–4, β) and it appears that in the adult brain the main form of receptor is made up of α1 and β subunits, although debate is ongoing about the exact stoichiometry. The situation for glycine is therefore much simpler than for GABA (see above). Mutations of the receptor have been identified in some inherited neurological disorders associated with muscle spasm and reflex hyperexcitability. There are no therapeutic drugs that act specifically by modifying glycine receptors, although it turns out that many of the compounds (such as benzodiazepines and anaesthetic agents) that enhance $GABA_A$ receptor activation act similarly on glycine receptors.

Tetanus toxin, a bacterial toxin resembling **botulinum toxin** (Ch. 13), acts selectively to prevent glycine release from inhibitory interneurons in the spinal cord, causing excessive reflex hyperexcitability and violent muscle spasms (lockjaw).

Glycine is removed from the extracellular space by two transporters Gly_{T1} and Gly_{T2} (Eulenburg et al., 2005). Gly_{T1} is located primarily on astrocytes and expressed throughout most regions of the CNS. Gly_{T2} on

the other hand is expressed on glycinergic neurons in the spinal cord, brain stem and cerebellum. As described above, in addition to its function as an inhibitory transmitter, glycine also functions as a co-agonist with glutamate at NMDA receptors. Inhibition of glycine uptake by Gly_{T1} leads to an elevation of extracellular glycine levels throughout the brain and, through potentiation of NMDA receptor-mediated responses, could be beneficial in the treatment of schizophrenia (see Ch. 45). Another potential use of glycine transporter inhibitors could be as analgesics.

Inhibitory amino acids: GABA and glycine

• GABA is the main inhibitory transmitter in the brain.

• It is present fairly uniformly throughout the brain; there is very little in peripheral tissues.

• GABA is formed from glutamate by the action of glutamic acid decarboxylase. Its action is terminated mainly by reuptake, but also by deamination, catalysed by GABA transaminase.

• There are two main types of GABA receptor: $GABA_A$ and $GABA_B$.

• $GABA_A$ receptors, which occur mainly postsynaptically, are directly coupled to chloride channels, the opening of which reduces membrane excitability.

• **Muscimol** is a specific $GABA_A$ agonist, and the convulsant **bicuculline** is an antagonist.

• Other drugs that interact with $GABA_A$ receptors and channels include:
  – benzodiazepines, which act at an accessory binding site to facilitate

the action of GABA
– convulsants such as **picrotoxin**, which block the anion channel
– neurosteroids, including endogenous progesterone metabolites, and other CNS depressants, such as barbiturates and some general anaesthetic agents, which facilitate the action of GABA.

• $GABA_B$ receptors are heterodimeric G-protein-coupled receptors. They cause pre-and postsynaptic inhibition by inhibiting Ca^{2+} channel opening and increasing K^+ conductance. **Baclofen** is a $GABA_B$ receptor agonist used to treat spasticity. $GABA_B$ antagonists are not yet in clinical use.

• Glycine is an inhibitory transmitter mainly in the spinal cord, acting on its own receptor, structurally and functionally similar to the $GABA_A$ receptor.

• The convulsant drug **strychnine** is a competitive glycine antagonist. Tetanus toxin acts mainly by interfering with glycine release.

Concluding Remarks

The study of amino acids and their receptors in the brain has been one of the most active fields of research in the past two decades, and the amount of information available is prodigious. These signalling systems have been speculatively implicated in almost every kind of neurological and psychiatric disorder, and the pharmaceutical industry has put a great deal of effort into identifying specific ligands—agonists, antagonists, modulators, enzyme inhibitors, transport inhibitors—designed to influence them. However, while a large number of pharmacologically unimpeachable compounds have emerged, and many clinical trials undertaken, there have been no major therapeutic

breakthroughs. The optimistic view is that a better understanding of the particular functions of the many molecular subtypes of these targets, and the design of more subtype-specific ligands, will lead to future breakthroughs. Expectations have, however, undoubtedly dimmed in recent years.

References and Further Reading

Excitatory amino acids

leakman D., Lodge D. Neuropharmacology of AMPA and kainate receptors. *Neuropharmacology*. 1998;37:187-204. (*Review giving molecular and functional information on these receptors*)

unch L., Enrichsen M.N., Jensen A.A. Excitatory amino acid transporters as potential drug targets. *Expert Opin. Ther. Targets*. 2009;13:719-731.

ollingridge G.L., Olsen R.W., Peters J., Spedding M. A nomenclature for ligand-gated ion channels. *Neuropharmacology*. 2009;56:2-5.

orlew R., Brasier D.J., Feldman D.E., Philpot B.D. Presynaptic NMDA receptors: newly appreciated roles in cortical synaptic function and plasticity. *Neuroscientist*. 2008;14:609-625.

otman C.W., Kahle J.S., Miller S.E., *et al.* Excitatory amino acid transmission. In: Bloom F.E., Kupfer D.J., editors. *Psychopharmacology: a fourth generation of progress*. New York: Raven Press; 1995:75-85.

erraguti F., Shigemoto R. Metabotropic glutamate receptors. *Cell Tissue Res.*. 2006;326:483-504.

oudet C., Magnaghi V., Landry M., *et al.* Metabotropic receptors for glutamate and GABA in pain. *Brain Res. Rev.*. 2009;60:43-56.

ane D.E., Lodge D., Collingridge G.L. Kainate receptors: pharmacology, function and therapeutic potential. *Neuropharmacology*. 2009;56:90-113.

ansen M., Dannhart G. Antagonists and agonists at the glycine site of the NMDA receptor for therapeutic applications. *Eur. J. Med. Chem.*. 2003;38:661-670. (*Update on efforts to develop glycine site ligands for clinical use*)

ew J.N.C. Positive and negative allosteric modulation of metabotropic glutamate receptors: emerging therapeutic potential. *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2004;104:233-244.

ynch G. Glutamate-based therapeutic approaches: ampakines. *Current Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2006;6:82-88.

higeri Y., Seal R.P., Shimamoto K. Molecular pharmacology of glutamate transporters. *Brain Res. Rev.*. 2004;45:250-265.

akahashi M., Billups B., Rossi D., *et al.* The role of glutamate transporters in glutamate homeostasis in the brain. *J. Exp. Biol.*. 1997;200:401-409.

/atkins J.C., Jane D.E. The glutamate story. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2006;147(Suppl. 1):S100-S108. (*A brief and engaging history by one of the pioneers in the discovery of glutamate as a CNS transmitter*)

Inhibitory amino acids

arnard E.A. The molecular architecture of $GABA_A$ receptors Möhler H., editor, Pharmacology of GABA and glycine neurotransmission. Handbook of experimental pharmacology 150. 2000 Springer-Verlag Berlin. 79-100 (*Authoritative review on the molecular subtypes of $GABA_A$ receptors*)

ettler B., Kaupmann K., Mosbacher J., Gassmann M. Molecular structure and function of $GABA_B$ receptors Physiol. Rev. 84:2004:835-867 (*Comprehensive review article by the team that first cloned the $GABA_B$ receptor and discovered its unusual heterodimeric structure*)

owery N.G. $GABA_B$ receptor pharmacology. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 1993;33:109-147.

hebib M. $GABA_C$ receptor ion channels. *Clin. Exp. Pharmacol. Physiol.*. 2004;31:800-804.

ulenburg V., Armsen W., Betz H., Gomez J. Glycine transporters: essential regulators of neurotransmission. *Trends Biochem. Sci.*. 2005;30:325-333.

arrant M., Nusser Z. Variations on an inhibitory theme: phasic and tonic activation of $GABA_A$ receptors. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2005;6:215-229.

ohnston G.A.R. $GABA_A$-receptor pharmacology. *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 1996;69:173-198.

ubo Y., Tateyama M. Towards a view of functioning dimeric metabotropic receptors. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.*. 2005;15:289-295.

ambert J.J., Belelli D., Peden D.R., *et al.* Neurosteroid modulation of $GABA_A$ receptors. *Prog. Neurobiol.*. 2003;71:67-80.

ynch J.W. Native glycine receptor subtypes and their physiological roles. *Neuropharmacology*. 2009;56:303-309.

Iody I., Pearce R.A. Diversity of inhibitory transmission through $GABA_A$ receptors Trends Neurosci. 27:2004:569-575 (*An update on what we know about the functional roles of the many $GABA_A$ receptor subtypes in the brain*)

lsen R.W., Sieghart W. International Union of Pharmacology. LXX. Subtypes of γ-aminobutyric

acid$_A$ receptors: classification on the basis of subunit composition, pharmacology, and function. Update Pharmacol. Rev. 60:2008:243-260 (*IUPHAR Nomenclature Subcommittee report containing an extensive discussion of the subtypes of GABA$_A$ receptor depending upon subunit composition. It also contains the recommendation that GABA$_C$ receptors should be considered as subtypes of the GABA$_A$ receptor*)

*l*ong C.G.T., Gibson K.M., Snead O.C. From street to brain: neurobiology of the recreational drug γ-hydroxybutyric acid. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2004;25:29-34. (*Short review article*)

*l*u Y., Ali S., Ahmadian G., *et al.* γ-Hydroxybutyric acid (GHB) and γ-aminobutyric acid$_B$ receptor (GABA$_B$R) binding sites are distinctive. *Neuropharmacology*. 2004;47:1146-1156.

Physiological aspects

ear M.F., Connors B.W., Paradiso M.A. *Neuroscience: exploring the brain*, third ed. Baltimore: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins; 2006. (*Major neuroscience textbook that discusses in detail long-term potentiation and memory mechanisms*)

ennett M.R. The concept of long term potentiation of transmission at synapses. *Prog. Neurobiol.*. 2000;60:109-137. (*An excellent and not overlong review of this complex phenomenon*)

lundon J.A., Zakharenko S.S. Dissecting the components of long-term potentiation. *Neuroscientist.* 2008;14:598-608.

ereau R.W., Swanson G. *The glutamate receptors*. Totowa, NJ: Humana Press; 2008. (*Contains in-depth chapters on many aspects of the topic written by experts in the field*)

essels H.W., Malinow R. Synaptic AMPA receptor plasticity and behavior. *Neuron.* 2009;61:340-350.

hahk B.S., Henderson G. Modulation of fast synaptic transmission by presynaptic ligand-gated cation channels. *J. Auton. Nerv. Syst.*. 2000;81:110-121. (*Describes how activation of presynaptic ligand-gated cation channels can either enhance or inhibit neurotransmitter release*)

lassey P.V., Bashir Z.I. Long-term depression: multiple forms and implications for brain function. *Trends Neurosci.*. 2007;30:176-184.

38

Other transmitters and modulators

Overview

The principal 'amine' transmitters in the central nervous system (CNS), namely noradrenaline, dopamine, 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT, serotonin) and acetylcholine (ACh), are described in this chapter, with briefer coverage of other mediators, including histamine, melatonin and purines. The monoamines were the first CNS transmitters to be identified, and during the 1960s a combination of neurochemistry and neuropharmacology led to many important discoveries about their role, and about the ability of drugs to influence these systems. Amine mediators differ from the amino acid transmitters discussed in Chapter 37 in being localised to small populations of neurons with cell bodies in the brain stem and basal forebrain, which project diffusely both rostrally to cortical and other areas, and in some cases caudally to the spinal cord. These amine-containing neurons are broadly associated with high-level behaviours (e.g. emotion, cognition and awareness), rather than with localised synaptic excitation or inhibition.[1] More recently, some 'atypical' chemical mediators, such as nitric oxide (NO; Ch. 20) and endocannabinoids (Ch. 18) have come on the scene, and they are discussed at the end of the chapter. The other major class of CNS mediators, the neuropeptides, are described in Chapter 19, and information on specific neuropeptides (e.g. endorphins and neurokinins) appears

in later chapters in this section.

[1]They are, if you like, voices from the nether regions, which make you happy or sad, sleepy or alert, cautious or adventurous, energetic or lazy, although you do not quite know why—very much the stuff of mental illness.

Introduction

Although we know much about the many different mediators, their cognate receptors and signalling mechanisms at the cellular level, when describing their effects on brain function and behaviour we fall back on relatively crude terms—psychopharmacologists will be at our throats for so under-rating the sophistication of their measurements—such as 'motor coordination', 'arousal', 'cognitive impairment' and 'exploratory behaviour'. The gap between these two levels of understanding still frustrates the best efforts to link drug action at the molecular level to drug action at the therapeutic level. Modern approaches, such as the use of transgenic animal technology (see Ch. 7) and non-invasive imaging techniques, are helping to forge links, but there is still a long way to go.

More detail on the content of this chapter can be found in Davis et al. (2002), Nestler et al. (2008) and Iversen et al. (2009).

Noradrenaline

The basic processes responsible for the synthesis, storage and release of noradrenaline are the same in the CNS as in the periphery (Ch. 14). In the CNS, inactivation of released noradrenaline is by neuronal reuptake or by metabolism, largely through the *monamine oxidase*, *aldehyde reductase* and *catechol*-O-*methyl transferase* mediated pathway to 3-hydroxy-4-methoxyphenylglycol (MHPG) (see Fig. 14.4).

Noradrenergic Pathways in the CNS

Although the transmitter role of noradrenaline in the brain was suspected in the 1950s, detailed analysis of its neuronal distribution became possible only when a technique, based on the formation of fluorescent catecholamine derivatives when tissues are exposed to formaldehyde, was devised by Falck and Hillarp. Detailed maps of the pathway of noradrenergic, dopaminergic and serotonergic neurons in laboratory animals were produced and later confirmed in human brains. The cell bodies of noradrenergic neurons occur in small clusters in the *pons* and *medulla*, and they send extensively branching axons to many other parts of the brain and spinal cord (Fig. 38.1). The most prominent cluster is the locus coeruleus (LC), located in the pons. Although it contains only about 10 000 neurons in humans, the axons, running in a discrete *medial forebrain bundle*, give rise to many millions of noradrenergic nerve terminals throughout the cortex, hippocampus, thalamus, hypothalamus and cerebellum. These nerve terminals do not form distinct synaptic contacts but appear to release transmitter somewhat diffusely. The LC also projects to the spinal cord and is involved in the descending control of pain (Ch. 41).

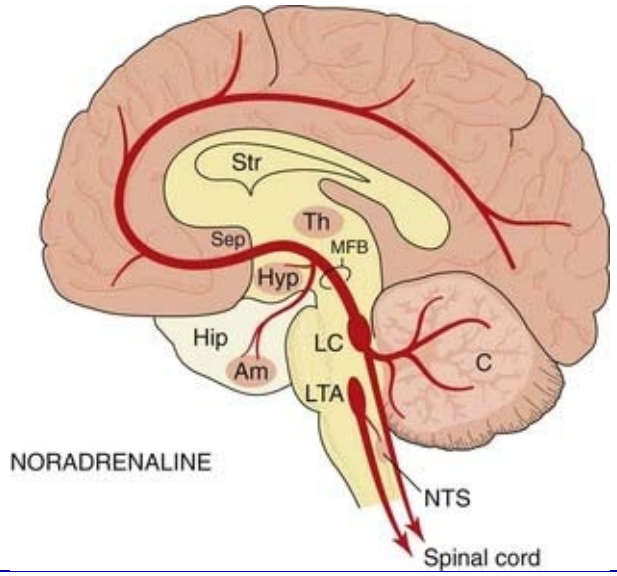


Fig. 38.1 Simplified diagram of the noradrenaline pathways in the brain.

The location of the main groups of cell bodies and fibre tracts is in solid colour. Light-shaded areas show the location of noradrenergic terminals. Am, amygdaloid nucleus; C, cerebellum; Hip, hippocampus; Hyp, hypothalamus; LC, locus coeruleus; LTA, lateral tegmental area, part of the reticular formation; MFB, medial forebrain bundle; NTS, nucleus of the tractus solitarius (vagal sensory nucleus); Sep, septum; Str, corpus striatum; Th, thalamus.

Other noradrenergic neurons lie close to the LC in the pons and project to the amygdala, hypothalamus, hippocampus and other parts of the forebrain, as well as to the spinal cord. A small cluster of adrenergic neurons, which release adrenaline rather than noradrenaline, lies more ventrally in the brain stem. These cells contain phenylethanolamine *N*-methyl transferase, the enzyme that converts noradrenaline to adrenaline (see Ch. 14), and project mainly to the pons, medulla and hypothalamus. Rather little is known about them, but they are believed to be important in cardiovascular control.

Functional Aspects

With the exception of the β_3 adrenoceptor, all of the adrenoceptors (α_{1A}, α_{1B}, α_{1C}, α_{2A}, α_{2B}, α_{2C}, β_1 and β_2) are expressed in the CNS (see Bylund, 2007). They are G-protein-coupled receptors that interact with a variety

of effector mechanisms (see Table 14.1). The role of α_1 receptors in the CNS is poorly understood. They are widely distributed, located both on postsynaptic neurons and on glial cells, and may be involved in motor control, cognition and fear. α_2 Adrenoceptors are located on noradrenergic neurons (in both somatodendritic and nerve terminal regions where they function as inhibitory autoreceptors) as well as on postsynaptic non-noradrenergic neurons. They are involved in blood pressure control (see below), sedation (α_2 agonists such as **medetomidine** are used as anaesthetics in veterinary practice) and analgesia. β_1 Receptors are found in the cortex, striatum and hippocampus whereas β_2 receptors are largely found in the cerebellum. They have been implicated in the long-term effects of antidepressant drugs but quite how remains a mystery (see Ch. 46).

Research on the α_2 adrenoceptor antagonist, **idazoxan**, has led to the identification of other putative imidazoline 'receptors' (see Head & Mayorov, 2006). These are the I_1 receptor, which plays a role in the central control of blood pressure; the I_2 receptor, an allosteric binding site on monoamine oxidase, and the I_3 receptor, present in the pancreas with a role in regulating insulin secretion.

Arousal and mood

Attention has focused mainly on the LC, which is the source of most of the noradrenaline released in the brain, and from which neuronal activity can be measured by implanted electrodes. LC neurons are silent during sleep, and their activity increases with behavioural arousal. 'Wake-up' stimuli of an unfamiliar or threatening kind excite these neurons much more effectively than familiar stimuli. Amphetamine-like drugs, which release catecholamines in the brain, increase wakefulness, alertness and exploratory activity (although, in this case, firing of LC

neurons is actually reduced by feedback mechanisms; see Ch. 47).

There is a close relationship between mood and state of arousal; depressed individuals are usually lethargic and unresponsive to external stimuli. The catecholamine hypothesis of depression (see Ch. 46) suggested that it results from a functional deficiency of noradrenaline in certain parts of the brain, while mania results from an excess. This remains controversial, and subsequent findings suggest that 5-HT may be more important than noradrenaline in relation to mood.

Blood pressure regulation

The role of central, as well as peripheral, noradrenergic synapses in blood pressure control is shown by the action of hypotensive drugs such as **clonidine** and **methyldopa** (see Chs 14 and 22) which decrease the discharge of sympathetic nerves emerging from the CNS. They cause hypotension when injected locally into the medulla or fourth ventricle, in much smaller amounts than are required when the drugs are given systemically. Noradrenaline and other α_2 adrenoceptor agonists have the same effect when injected locally. Noradrenergic synapses in the medulla probably form part of the baroreceptor reflex pathway, because stimulation or antagonism of α_2 adrenoceptors in this part of the brain has a powerful effect on the activity of baroreceptor reflexes.

Ascending noradrenergic fibres run to the hypothalamus, and descending fibres run to the lateral horn region of the spinal cord, acting to increase sympathetic discharge in the periphery. It has been suggested that these regulatory neurons may release adrenaline rather than noradrenaline as inhibition of phenylethanolamine *N*-methyl transferase, the enzyme that converts noradrenaline to adrenaline, interferes with the baroreceptor reflex.

Moxonidine, reported to be an I_1 receptor agonist with less activity at

α_2 adrenoceptors, acts centrally to reduce peripheral sympathetic activity, thus decreasing peripheral vascular resistance.

Noradrenaline in the CNS

• Mechanisms for synthesis, storage, release and reuptake of noradrenaline in the central nervous system (CNS) are essentially the same as in the periphery, as are the receptors (Ch. 14).

• Noradrenergic cell bodies occur in discrete clusters, mainly in the pons and medulla, one important such cell group being the locus coeruleus.

• Noradrenergic pathways, running mainly in the medial forebrain bundle and descending spinal tracts, terminate diffusely in the cortex, hippocampus, hypothalamus, cerebellum and spinal cord.

• The actions of noradrenaline are mediated through $\alpha 1$, $\alpha 2$, $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$ receptors.

• Noradrenergic transmission is believed to be important in:

– the 'arousal' system, controlling wakefulness and alertness

– blood pressure regulation

– control of mood (functional deficiency contributing to depression).

• Psychotropic drugs that act partly or mainly on noradrenergic transmission in the CNS include antidepressants, **cocaine** and **amphetamine**. Some antihypertensive drugs (e.g. **clonidine**, **methyldopa**) act mainly on noradrenergic transmission in the CNS.

Dopamine

Dopamine is particularly important in relation to neuropharmacology, because it is involved in several common disorders of brain function, notably Parkinson's disease, schizophrenia and attention deficit disorder, as well as in drug dependence and certain endocrine disorders. Many of

the drugs used clinically to treat these conditions work by influencing dopamine transmission.

The distribution of dopamine in the brain is more restricted than that of noradrenaline. Dopamine is most abundant in the *corpus striatum*, a part of the extrapyramidal motor system concerned with the coordination of movement (see Ch. 39), and high concentrations also occur in certain parts of the frontal cortex, limbic system and hypothalamus (where its release into the pituitary blood supply inhibits secretion of prolactin; Ch. 32).

The synthesis of dopamine follows the same route as that of noradrenaline (see Fig. 14.2), namely conversion of tyrosine to dopa (the rate-limiting step), followed by decarboxylation to form dopamine. Dopaminergic neurons lack dopamine β-hydroxylase, and thus do not convert dopamine to noradrenaline.

Dopamine is largely recaptured, following its release from nerve terminals, by a specific dopamine transporter, one of the large family of monoamine transporters (see Ch. 14). It is metabolised by monoamine oxidase and catechol-*O*-methyl transferase (Fig. 38.2), the main products being *dihydroxyphenylacetic acid* (DOPAC) and *homovanillic acid* (HVA, the methoxy derivative of DOPAC). The brain content of HVA is often used as an index of dopamine turnover. Drugs that cause the release of dopamine increase HVA, often without changing the concentration of dopamine. DOPAC and HVA, and their sulfate conjugates, are excreted in the urine, which provides an index of dopamine release in human subjects.

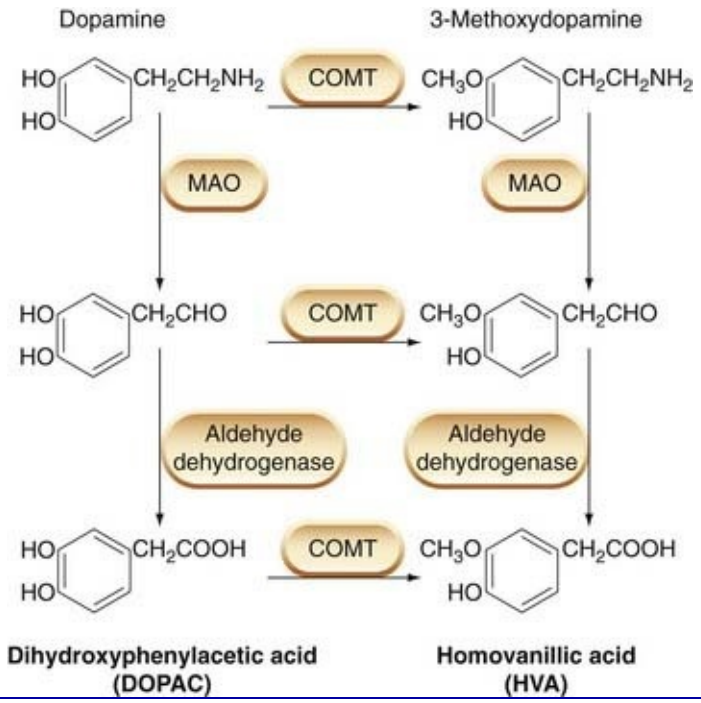


Fig. 38.2 The main pathways for dopamine metabolism in the brain.
COMT, catechol-*O*-methyl transferase; MAO, monoamine oxidase.

6-Hydroxydopamine, which selectively destroys dopaminergic nerve terminals, is commonly used as a research tool. It is taken up by the dopamine transporter and converted to a reactive metabolite that causes oxidative cytotoxicity.

Dopaminergic Pathways in the CNS

There are four main dopaminergic pathways in the brain (Fig. 38.3):

1 The **nigrostriatal pathway**, accounting for about 75% of the dopamine in the brain, consists of cell bodies largely in the substantia nigra whose axons terminate in the corpus striatum. These fibres run in the medial forebrain bundle along with other monoamine-containing fibres. The abundance of dopamine-containing neurons in the human striatum can be appreciated from the image shown in Figure 38.4, which was obtained by injecting a dopa derivative containing

radioactive fluorine, and scanning for radioactivity 3 h later by positron emission tomography.

2 The **mesolimbic pathway**, whose cell bodies occur in the midbrain ventral tegmental area (VTA), adjacent to the substantia nigra, and whose fibres project via the medial forebrain bundle to parts of the limbic system, especially the *nucleus accumbens* and the *amygdaloid nucleus*.

3 The **mesocortical pathway**, whose cell bodies also lie in the VTA and which project via the medial forebrain bundle to the frontal cortex.

4 The **tuberohypophyseal** (or **tuberoinfundibular**) system is a group of short neurons running from the ventral hypothalamus to the median eminence and pituitary gland, the secretions of which they regulate.

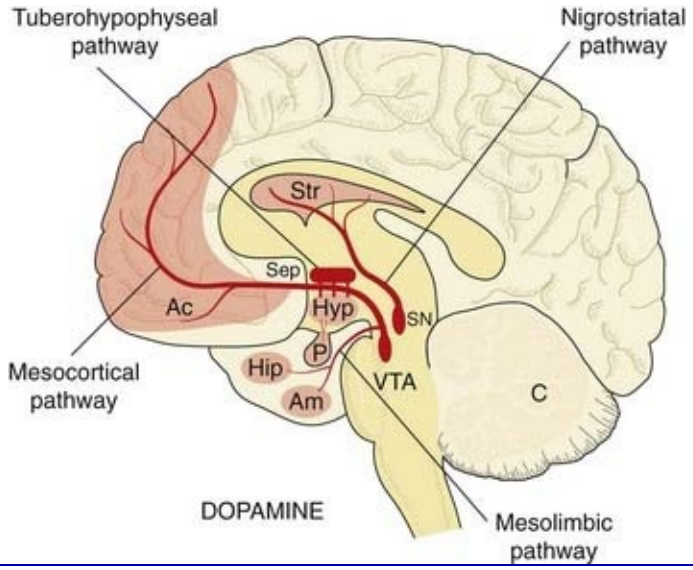


Fig. 38.3 Simplified diagram of the dopamine pathways in the brain, drawn as in Figure 38.1.

The pituitary gland (P) is shown, innervated with dopaminergic fibres from the hypothalamus. Ac, nucleus accumbens; SN, substantia nigra; VTA, ventral tegmental area; other abbreviations as in Figure 38.1.

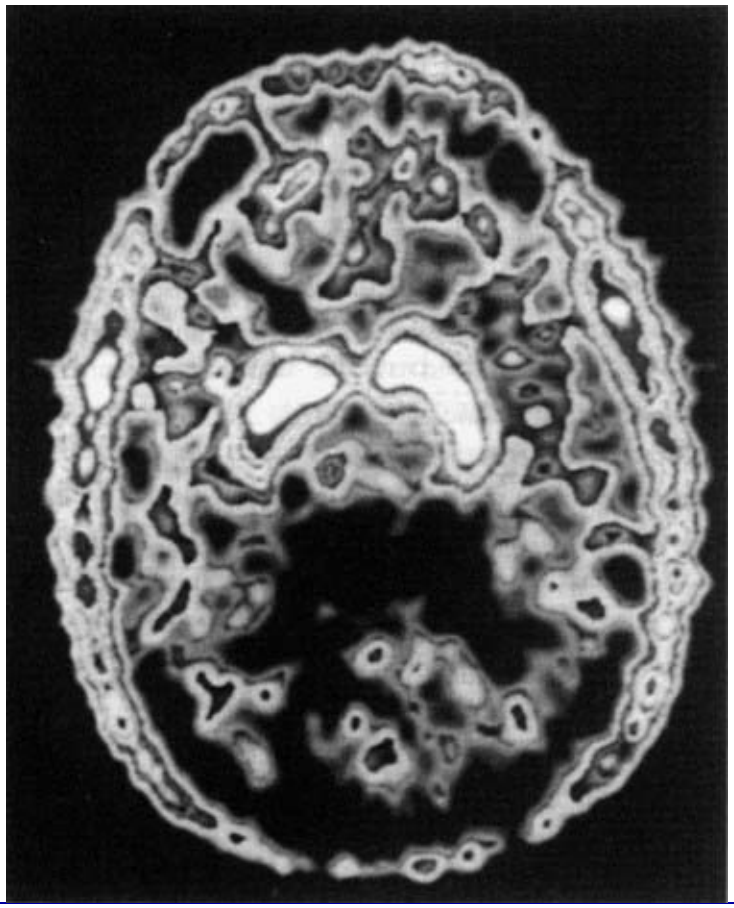


Fig. 38.4 Dopamine in the basal ganglia of a human subject.

The subject was injected with 5-fluoro-dopa labelled with the positron-emitting isotope ^{18}F, which was localised 3 h later by the technique of positron emission tomography. The isotope is accumulated (white areas) by the dopa uptake system of the neurons of the basal ganglia, and to a smaller extent in the frontal cortex. It is also seen in the scalp and temporalis muscles.

(From Garnett E S et al. Nature 305: 137.)

There are also dopaminergic neurons in other brain regions and in the retina. For a more complete description, see Björklund & Dunnett (2007). The functions of the main dopaminergic pathways are discussed below.

Dopamine Receptors

Two types of receptor, D_1 and D_2, were originally distinguished on pharmacological and biochemical grounds. Gene cloning revealed

further subgroups, D_1 to D_5 (for review, see Missale et al., 1998). The original D_1 family now includes D_1 and D_5, while the D_2 family, which is pharmacologically more important in the CNS, consists of D_2, D_3 and D_4 (see Table 38.1). Splice variants, leading to long and short forms of D_2, and genetic polymorphisms, particularly of D_4 (see below), have subsequently been identified.

Table 38.1 Dopamine receptors

	Functional role	D_1 type		D_2 type		
		D_1	D_5	D_2	D_3	D_4
Distribution						
Cortex	Arousal, mood	+++	–	++	–	+
Limbic system	Emotion, stereotypic behaviour	+++	+	++	+	+
Striatum	Prolactin secretion	+++	+	++	+	+
Ventral hypothalamus and anterior pituitary	Prolactin secretion	–	–	++	+	–
Agonists						
Dopamine		+ (Low potency)		+ (High potency)		
Apomorphine		PA (Low potency)		+ (High potency)		
Bromocriptine		PA (Low potency)		+ (High potency)		
Quinpirole		Inactive		Active		
Antagonists						
Chlorpromazine		+	+	+++	++	+
Haloperidol		+	+	+++	++	++
Spiperone		+?	–	+++	+++	+++
Sulpiride		–	–	++	++	+
Clozapine		+	+	+	+	++
Aripiprazole		–	–	+++(PA)	++	–
Raclopride		–	?	+++	++	–
Signal transduction		G_s coupled—activates adenylyl cyclase		G_i/G_o coupled—inhibits adenylyl cyclase, activates K^+ channels, inhibits Ca^{2+} channels, may also activate phospholipase C		
Effect		Mainly postsynaptic inhibition		Pre- and postsynaptic inhibition Stimulation/inhibition of hormone release		

PA, partial agonist.
Affinity data based on data contained at NIMH Psychoactive Drug Screening Program database (http://pdsp.med.unc.edu/).

▼ All belong to the family of G-protein-coupled transmembrane receptors described in Chapter 3—D_1 and D_5 link through G_s to stimulate adenylyl cyclase; D_2, D_3, and D_4 link through G_i/G_o and activate

potassium channels as well as inhibiting calcium channels and adenylyl cyclase. In addition they can also affect other cellular second messenger cascades (see Ch. 3). A key component in the signal transduction pathway is the protein DARPP-32 (*32-kDa dopamine-and cAMP-regulated phosphoprotein*; see Girault & Greengard, 2004). When intracellular cAMP is increased through activation of D_1 receptors, activating protein kinase A, DARPP-32 is phosphorylated (Fig. 38.5). Phosphorylated DARPP-32 acts as an inhibitor of protein phosphatases such as protein phosphatase-1 and calcineurin, thus acting in concert with protein kinases and favouring protein phosphorylation—effectively an amplifying mechanism. In general, activation of D_2 receptors opposes the effect of D_1 receptor activation.

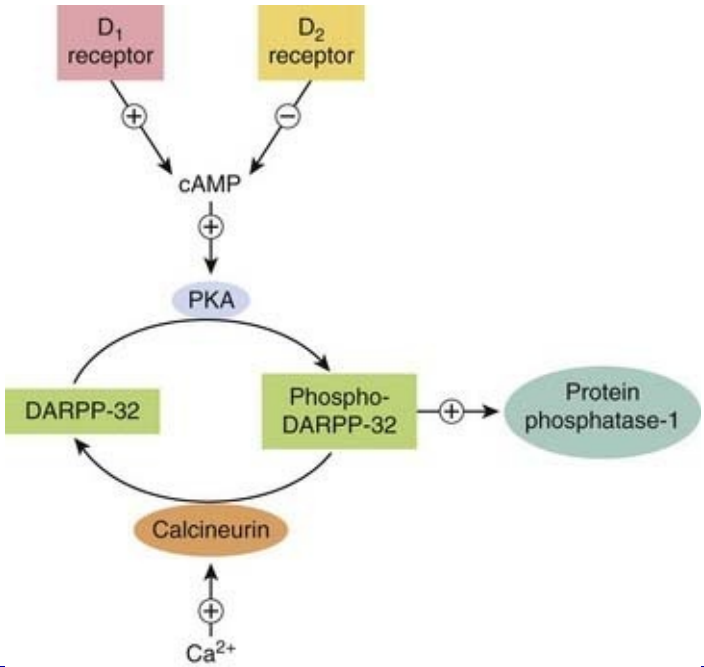


Fig. 38.5 The role of the neuron-specific phosphoprotein DARPP-32 in signalling by dopamine receptors (see text).

PKA, protein kinase A.

Dopamine receptors are expressed in the brain in distinct but overlapping areas. D_1 receptors are the most abundant and widespread

in areas receiving a dopaminergic innervation (namely the striatum, limbic system, thalamus and hypothalamus; Fig. 38.3), as are D_2 receptors, which also occur in the pituitary gland. D_2 receptors are found not only on dopaminergic neurons (cell bodies, dendrites and nerve terminals), where they function as inhibitory autoreceptors, but also on non-dopaminergic neurons (see De Mei et al., 2009). D_3 receptors occur in the limbic system but not in the striatum. The D_4 receptor is much more weakly expressed, mainly in the cortex and limbic systems.

▼ The D_4 receptor displays an unexpected polymorphism in humans, with a varying number (from 2 to 10) of 16 amino acid repeat sequences being expressed in the third intracellular loop, which participates in G-protein coupling (Ch. 3). Expectations that D_4 receptor polymorphism might be related to the occurrence of schizophrenia in humans were disappointed after several studies failed to find any correlation (Tarazi et al., 2004). There may be a connection with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (see Thapar et al., 2007).

Dopamine, like many other transmitters and modulators, acts presynaptically as well as postsynaptically. Presynaptic D_2 receptors occur mainly on dopaminergic neurons, for example those in the striatum and limbic system, where they act to inhibit dopamine synthesis and release. Dopamine antagonists, by blocking these receptors, increase dopamine synthesis and release, and cause accumulation of dopamine metabolites in these parts of the brain. They also cause an increase in the rate of firing of dopaminergic neurons, probably by blocking feedback at the somatodendritic level mediated by locally released dopamine.

Dopamine receptors also mediate various effects in the periphery (mediated by D_1 receptors), notably renal vasodilatation and increased

myocardial contractility (dopamine itself has been used clinically in the treatment of circulatory shock; see Ch. 21).

Functional Aspects

The functions of dopaminergic pathways divide broadly into:

- motor control (nigrostriatal system)
- behavioural effects (mesolimbic and mesocortical systems)
- endocrine control (tuberohypophyseal system).

Dopamine and motor systems

Ungerstedt showed, in 1968, that bilateral ablation of the substantia nigra in rats, which destroys the nigrostriatal neurons, causes profound catalepsy, the animals becoming so inactive that they die of starvation unless artificially fed. Parkinson's disease (Ch. 39) is a disorder of motor control, associated with a deficiency of dopamine in the nigrostriatal pathway.

In treating CNS disorders, it is often desired that a certain receptor type be activated or inhibited only in one part of the brain but the problem is that drugs are rarely brain region selective and will affect all of a receptor type throughout the brain. For example, many antipsychotic drugs (see Ch. 45) are D_2 receptor antagonists, exerting a beneficial effect by blocking D_2 receptors in the mesolimbic pathway. However, their D_2 antagonist property also gives rise to their major side effect, which is to cause movement disorders, by simultaneously blocking D_2 receptors in the nigrostriatal pathway.

Transgenic mice lacking D_2 receptors show greatly reduced spontaneous movement, resembling Parkinson's disease.

Behavioural effects

Administration of **amphetamine** to rats, which releases both dopamine and noradrenaline, causes a cessation of normal 'ratty' behaviour (exploration and grooming), and the appearance of repeated 'stereotyped' behaviour (rearing, gnawing and so on) unrelated to external stimuli. These amphetamine-induced motor disturbances in rats probably reflect hyperactivity in the nigrostriatal dopaminergic system, and are prevented by dopamine antagonists and by destruction of dopamine-containing cell bodies in the midbrain, but not by drugs that inhibit the noradrenergic system.

Amphetamine and **cocaine** (which act by inhibiting the dopamine transporter) and also other drugs of abuse (Ch. 48) activate mesolimbic dopaminergic 'reward' pathways to produce feelings of euphoria in humans. The main receptor involved appears to be D_1, and transgenic mice lacking D_1 receptors behave as though generally demotivated, with reduced food intake and insensitivity to amphetamine and cocaine (see Sibley, 1999).

Neuroendocrine function

The tuberohypophyseal dopaminergic pathway (see Fig. 38.3) is involved in the control of prolactin secretion. The hypothalamus secretes various mediators (mostly small peptides; see Ch. 32), which control the secretion of different hormones from the pituitary gland. One of these mediators, which has an inhibitory effect on prolactin release, is dopamine. This system is of clinical importance. Many antipsychotic drugs (see Ch. 45), by blocking D_2 receptors, increase prolactin secretion and can cause breast development and lactation, even in males. **Bromocriptine**, a dopamine receptor agonist derived from ergot, is used clinically to suppress prolactin secretion by tumours of the pituitary

gland.

Growth hormone production is increased in normal subjects by dopamine, but bromocriptine paradoxically inhibits the excessive secretion responsible for acromegaly (probably because it desensitises dopamine receptors, in contrast to the physiological release of dopamine, which is pulsatile) and has a useful therapeutic effect, provided it is given before excessive growth has taken place. It is now rarely used, as other agents are more effective (see Ch. 32). Bromocriptine and other dopamine agonists, such as **cabergoline**, enhance libido and sexual performance.

Vomiting

Pharmacological evidence strongly suggests that dopaminergic neurons have a role in the production of nausea and vomiting. Thus nearly all dopamine receptor agonists (e.g. bromocriptine) and other drugs that increase dopamine release in the brain (e.g. **levodopa**; Ch. 39) cause nausea and vomiting as side effects, while many dopamine antagonists (e.g. phenothiazines, **metoclopramide**; Ch. 29) have antiemetic activity. D_2 receptors occur in the area of the medulla (chemoreceptor trigger zone) associated with the initiation of vomiting (Ch. 29), and are assumed to mediate this effect.

Dopamine in the CNS

• Dopamine is a neurotransmitter as well as being the precursor for noradrenaline. It is degraded in a similar fashion to noradrenaline, giving rise mainly to dihydroxyphenylacetic acid and homovanillic acid, which are excreted in the urine.

• There are four main dopaminergic pathways:

– nigrostriatal pathway, important in motor control

– mesolimbic pathway, running from groups of cells in the midbrain to parts of the limbic system, especially the nucleus accumbens, involved in emotion and drug-induced reward

– mesocortical pathway, running from the midbrain to the cortex, involved in emotion

– tuberohypophyseal neurons, running from the hypothalamus to the pituitary gland, whose secretions they regulate.

• There are five dopamine receptor subtypes. D_1 and D_5 receptors are linked to stimulation of adenylyl cyclase. D_2, D_3 and D_4 receptors are linked to activation of K^+ channels and inhibition of Ca^{2+} channels as well as to inhibition of adenylyl cyclase.

• D_2 receptors may be implicated in the positive symptoms and D_1 receptors in the negative symptoms of schizophrenia. The D_4 receptor shows marked polymorphism in humans, but no clear relationship with disease has been established.

• Parkinson's disease is associated with a deficiency of nigrostriatal dopaminergic neurons.

• Hormone release from the anterior pituitary gland is regulated by dopamine, especially prolactin release (inhibited) and growth hormone release (stimulated).

• Dopamine acts on the chemoreceptor trigger zone to cause nausea and vomiting.

5-Hydroxytryptamine

The occurrence and functions of 5-HT (serotonin) in the periphery are described in Chapter 15. Interest in 5-HT as a possible CNS transmitter dates from 1953, when Gaddum found that **lysergic acid diethylamide** (LSD), a drug known to be a powerful hallucinogen (see Ch. 47), acted as a 5-HT antagonist on peripheral tissues, and suggested that its central effects might also be related to this action. The presence of 5-HT in the brain was demonstrated a few years later. Even though brain accounts for only about 1% of the total body content, 5-HT is an important CNS transmitter (see Iversen et al., 2009; Muller & Jacobs, 2009). 5-HT is involved in various physiological processes including sleep, appetite,

thermoregulation and pain perception as well as in disorders such as migraine, depression, anxiety, obsessive compulsive disorders, schizophrenia and drug abuse.

In its formation, storage and release, 5-HT resembles noradrenaline. Its precursor is tryptophan, an amino acid derived from dietary protein, the plasma content of which varies considerably according to food intake and time of day. Tryptophan is actively taken up into neurons, converted by tryptophan hydroxylase to 5-hydroxytryptophan (see Fig. 15.1), and then decarboxylated by a non-specific amino acid decarboxylase to 5-HT. Tryptophan hydroxylase can be selectively and irreversibly inhibited by ***p*-chlorophenylalanine** (PCPA). Availability of tryptophan and the activity of tryptophan hydroxylase are thought to be the main factors that regulate 5-HT synthesis. The decarboxylase is very similar, if not identical, to dopa decarboxylase, and does not play any role in regulating 5-HT synthesis. Following release, 5-HT is largely recovered by neuronal uptake, through a specific transporter (see Ch. 3) similar to, but not identical with, those that take up noradrenaline and dopamine. 5-HT reuptake is specifically inhibited by *selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors* (SSRIs) such as **fluoxetine** and by many of the drugs that inhibit catecholamine uptake (e.g. *tricyclic antidepressants*). SSRIs (see Ch. 46) constitute an important group of antidepressant drugs. 5-HT is degraded almost entirely by monoamine oxidase (Fig. 15.1), which converts it to 5-hydroxyindole acetaldehyde, most of which is then dehydrogenated to form 5-hydroxyindole acetic acid (5-HIAA) and excreted in the urine.

5-HT Pathways in the CNS

The distribution of 5-HT-containing neurons (Fig. 38.6) resembles that of noradrenergic neurons. The cell bodies are grouped in the pons and

upper medulla, close to the midline (raphe), and are often referred to as raphe nuclei. The rostrally situated nuclei project, via the medial forebrain bundle, to many parts of the cortex, hippocampus, basal ganglia, limbic system and hypothalamus. The caudally situated cells project to the cerebellum, medulla and spinal cord.

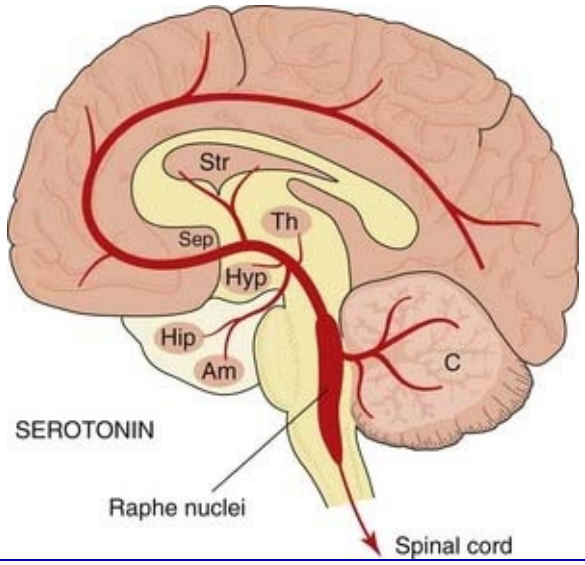


Fig. 38.6 Simplified diagram of the 5-hydroxytryptamine pathways in the brain, drawn as in Figure 38.1.

Abbreviations as in Figure 38.1.

5-HT Receptors in the CNS

The main 5-HT receptor types are shown in Table 15.1. All are G-protein-coupled receptors except for 5-HT_3, which is a ligand-gated cation channel (see below). All are expressed in the CNS, and their functional roles have been extensively analysed. With some 14 identified subtypes plus numerous splice variants, and a large number of pharmacological tools of relatively low specificity, assigning clear-cut functions to 5-HT receptors is not simple. Detailed accounts of our present state of knowledge are given by Barnes & Sharp (1999) and Bockaert et al. (2006). Knowledge about the newer members of the

family (5-$HT_{5\text{-}7}$ receptors) is summarised in reviews by Woolley et al. (2004) and Hedlund & Sutcliffe (2004).

Certain generalisations can be made:

• 5-HT_1 receptors are predominantly inhibitory in their effects. 5-HT_{1A} receptors are expressed as somatodendritic autoreceptors by the 5-HT neurons in the raphe nuclei, and their autoinhibitory effect tends to limit the rate of firing of these cells. They are also widely distributed in the limbic system, and are believed to be a major target for drugs used to treat anxiety and depression (see Chs 43 and 46). 5-HT_{1B} and 5-HT_{1D} receptors are found mainly as presynaptic inhibitory receptors on both 5-HT-containing and other nerve terminals in the basal ganglia and cortex. Agonists acting on peripheral 5-HT_{1D} receptors are used to treat migraine (see Ch. 15).

• 5-HT_2 receptors (5-HT_{2A} and 5-HT_{2C}) are abundant in the cortex and limbic system where they are located at both pre-and postsynaptic sites. They can exert excitatory or inhibitory effects by enhancing the release of glutamate and GABA. They are believed to be the target of some antidepressants (see Ch. 46) and various hallucinogenic drugs (see Ch. 47). The use of 5-HT_2 receptor antagonists such as **methysergide** in treating migraine is discussed in Chapter 15.

• 5-HT_3 receptors are pentameric ligand-gated cation channels that can be either homomeric or heteromeric complexes of different 5-HT_3 receptor subunits (see Peters et al., 2005). While 5-HT_{3A} and 5-HT_{3B} subunits are the most extensively studied, the roles of other subunits remain to be fully investigated (see Jensen et al., 2008). In the brain, 5-HT_3 receptors are found in the *area postrema* (a region of the medulla involved in vomiting; see Ch. 29) and other parts of the brain stem,

extending to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord. They are also present in certain parts of the cortex, as well as in the peripheral nervous system. They are excitatory ionotropic receptors, and specific antagonists (e.g. **ondansetron**; see Chs 15 and 29) are used to treat nausea and vomiting.

• 5-HT_4 receptors are important in the gastrointestinal tract (see Chs 15 and 29), and are also expressed in the brain, particularly in the limbic system, basal ganglia, hippocampus and substantia nigra. They are located at both pre-and postsynaptic sites. They exert a presynaptic facilitatory effect, particularly on ACh release, thus enhancing cognitive performance (see Ch. 39). Activation of medullary 5-HT_4 receptors opposes the respiratory depressant actions of opioids (see Ch. 41).

• Little is known about 5-HT_5 receptors at present. Studies on CNS distribution and function have so far provided conflicting data (see Bockaert et al., 2006).

• 5-HT_6 receptors occur only in the CNS, particularly in the hippocampus, cortex and limbic system. They are considered potential targets for drugs to improve cognition or relieve symptoms of schizophrenia, although no such drugs are yet available.

• 5-HT_7 receptors occur in the hippocampus, cortex, amygdala, thalamus and hypothalamus. They are found on the soma and axon terminals of GABAergic neurons. They are also expressed in blood vessels and the gastrointestinal tract. Likely CNS functions include thermoregulation and endocrine regulation, as well as suspected involvement in mood, cognitive function and sleep. Selective antagonists are being developed for clinical use in a variety of potential indications.

Functional Aspects

The precise localisation of 5-HT neurons in the brain stem has allowed their electrical activity to be studied in detail and correlated with behavioural and other effects produced by drugs thought to affect 5-HT-mediated transmission. 5-HT cells show an unusual, highly regular, slow discharge pattern, and are strongly inhibited by 5-HT_1 receptor agonists, suggesting a local inhibitory feedback mechanism.

In vertebrates, certain physiological and behavioural functions relate particularly to 5-HT pathways (see Barnes & Sharp, 1999), namely:

- hallucinations and behavioural changes
- sleep, wakefulness and mood
- feeding behaviour
- control of sensory transmission (especially pain pathways; see Ch. 41).

Hallucinatory effects

Many hallucinogenic drugs (e.g. LSD; Ch. 47) are agonists at 5-HT_{2A} receptors. It is suggested that a loss of cortical inhibition underlies the hallucinogenic effect, as well as certain behavioural effects in experimental animals, such as the 'wet dog shakes' that occur in rats when the 5-HT precursor 5-hydroxytryptophan is administered. Many antipsychotic drugs (Ch. 45) are antagonists at 5-HT_{2A} receptors in addition to blocking dopamine D_2 receptors. The psychostimulant properties of MDMA ('ecstasy'; see Ch. 47) are due partly to its ability to release 5-HT. MDMA is taken up by the serotonin transporter, causing it to displace 5-HT from storage vesicles—a mechanism analogous to the action of amphetamine on noradrenergic nerve terminals (Ch. 14).

Sleep, wakefulness and mood

Lesions of the raphe nuclei, or depletion of 5-HT by PCPA

administration, abolish sleep in experimental animals, whereas microinjection of 5-HT at specific points in the brain stem induces sleep. 5-HT_7 receptor antagonists inhibit 'rapid-eye-movement' (REM) sleep and increase the latency to onset of REM sleep. Attempts to cure insomnia in humans by giving 5-HT precursors (tryptophan or 5-hydroxytryptophan) have, however, proved unsuccessful. There is strong evidence that 5-HT, as well as noradrenaline, may be involved in the control of mood (see Ch. 46), and the use of tryptophan to enhance 5-HT synthesis has been tried in depression, with equivocal results.

Feeding and appetite

In experimental animals, 5-HT_{1A} agonists such as 8-hydroxy-2-(di-n-propylamino)tetralin (8-OH-DPAT) cause hyperphagia, leading to obesity. Antagonists acting on 5-HT_2 receptors, including several antipsychotic drugs used clinically, also increase appetite and cause weight gain. On the other hand, antidepressant drugs that inhibit 5-HT uptake (see Ch. 46) cause loss of appetite.

Sensory transmission

After lesions of the raphe nuclei or administration of PCPA, animals show exaggerated responses to many forms of sensory stimulus. They are startled much more easily, and also quickly develop avoidance responses to stimuli that would not normally bother them. It appears that the normal ability to disregard irrelevant forms of sensory input requires intact 5-HT pathways. The 'sensory enhancement' produced by hallucinogenic drugs may be partly due to loss of this gatekeeper function of 5-HT. 5-HT also exerts an inhibitory effect on transmission in the pain pathway, both in the spinal cord and in the brain, and there is a synergistic effect between 5-HT and analgesics such as **morphine** (see Ch. 41). Thus, depletion of 5-HT by PCPA, or selective lesions to the

descending 5-HT-containing neurons that run to the dorsal horn, antagonise the analgesic effect of morphine, while inhibitors of 5-HT uptake have the opposite effect.

Other possible roles

Other putative roles of 5-HT include various autonomic and endocrine functions, such as the regulation of body temperature, blood pressure and sexual function. Further information can be found in Azmitia & Whitaker-Azmitia (1995) and Iversen et al. (2009).

Clinically Used Drugs

Several classes of drugs used clinically influence 5-HT-mediated transmission. They include:

- 5-HT reuptake inhibitors, such as **fluoxetine**, used as antidepressants (Ch. 46) and anxiolytic agents (Ch. 43)
- 5-HT_{1D} receptor agonists, such as **sumatriptan**, used to treat migraine (Ch. 15)
- **buspirone**, a 5-HT_{1A} receptor agonist used in treating anxiety (Ch. 43)
- 5-HT_3 receptor antagonists, such as **ondansetron**, used as antiemetic agents (see Ch. 29)
- antipsychotic drugs (e.g. **clozapine**, Ch. 45), which owe their efficacy partly to an action on 5-HT receptors.

5-Hydroxytryptamine in the CNS

- The processes of synthesis, storage, release, reuptake and degradation of 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) in the brain are very similar to events in the periphery (Ch. 15).

• Availability of tryptophan is the main factor regulating synthesis.

• Urinary excretion of 5-hydroxyindole acetic acid provides a measure of 5-HT turnover.

• 5-HT neurons are concentrated in the midline raphe nuclei in the brain stem projecting diffusely to the cortex, limbic system, hypothalamus and spinal cord, similar to the noradrenergic projections.

• Functions associated with 5-HT pathways include:

– various behavioural responses (e.g. hallucinatory behaviour, 'wet dog shakes')

– feeding behaviour

– control of mood and emotion

– control of sleep/wakefulness

– control of sensory pathways, including nociception

– control of body temperature

– vomiting.

• 5-HT can exert inhibitory or excitatory effects on individual neurons, acting either presynaptically or postsynaptically.

• The main receptor subtypes (see Table 15.1) in the CNS are 5-HT_{1A}, 5-HT_{1B}, 5-HT_{1D}, 5-HT_{2A}, 5-HT_{2C} and 5-HT_3. Associations of behavioural and physiological functions with these receptors have been partly worked out. Other receptor types (5-$HT_{4–7}$) also occur in the central nervous system, but less is known about their function.

• Drugs acting selectively on 5-HT receptors or transporters include:

– **buspirone**, 5-HT_{1A} receptor agonist used to treat anxiety (see Ch. 43)

– 'triptans' (e.g. **sumatriptan**), 5-HT_{1D} agonists used to treat migraine (see Ch. 15)

– 5-HT_2 antagonists (e.g. **pizotifen**) used for migraine prophylaxis (see Ch. 15)

– selective serotonin uptake inhibitors (e.g. **fluoxetine**) used to treat depression (see Ch. 46)

– **ondansetron**, a 5-HT_3 antagonist, used to treat chemotherapy-induced emesis (see Chs 15 and 29)

– **MDMA** (ecstasy), a substrate for the 5-HT transporter. It then displaces 5-HT from nerve terminals onto 5-HT receptors to produce its mood-altering effects (see Ch. 47).

Acetylcholine

There are numerous cholinergic neurons in the CNS, and the basic processes by which ACh is synthesised, stored and released are the same as in the periphery (see Ch. 13). Various biochemical markers have been used to locate cholinergic neurons in the brain, the most useful being choline acetyltransferase, the enzyme responsible for ACh synthesis, and the transporters that capture choline and package ACh, which can be labelled by immunofluorescence. Biochemical studies on ACh precursors and metabolites are generally more difficult than corresponding studies on other amine transmitters, because the relevant substances, choline and acetate, are involved in many processes other than ACh metabolism.

Cholinergic Pathways in the Cns

Acetylcholine is very widely distributed in the brain, occurring in all parts of the forebrain (including the cortex), midbrain and brain stem, although there is little in the cerebellum. Cholinergic neurons in the forebrain and brain stem send diffuse projections to many parts of the brain (see Fig. 38.7). Cholinergic neurons in the forebrain lie in a discrete area, forming the magnocellular forebrain nuclei (so called because the cell bodies are conspicuously large). Degeneration of one of these, the *nucleus basalis of Meynert*, which projects mainly to the cortex, is associated with Alzheimer's disease (Ch. 39). Another cluster, the *septohippocampal nucleus*, provides the main cholinergic input to the hippocampus, and is involved in memory. In addition, there are—in contrast to the monoamine pathways—many local cholinergic interneurons, particularly in the corpus striatum, these being important

in relation to Parkinson's disease and Huntington's chorea (Ch. 39).

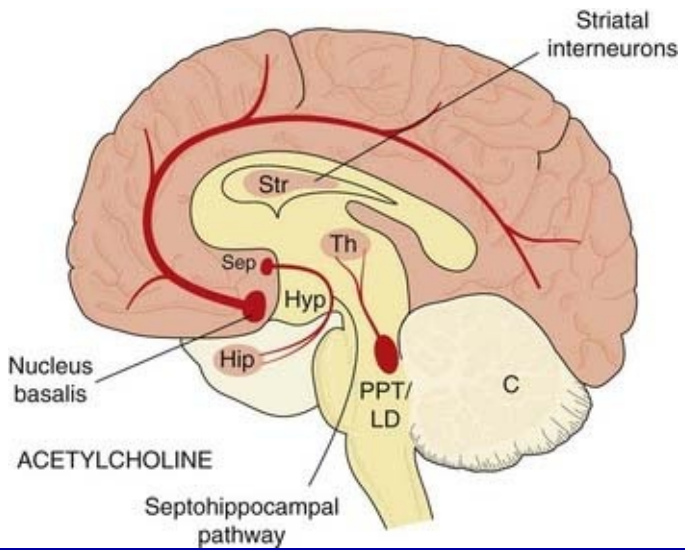


Fig. 38.7 Simplified diagram of the acetylcholine pathways in the brain, drawn as in Figure 38.1.

PPT/LD, pedunculopontine and laterodorsal tegmental nuclei; other abbreviations as in Figure 38.1.

Acetylcholine Receptors

Acetylcholine acts on both muscarinic (G-protein-coupled) and nicotinic (ionotropic) receptors in the CNS (see Ch. 13).

The muscarinic ACh receptors (mAChRs) in the brain are predominantly of the G_q-coupled M_1 class (i.e. M_1, M_3 and M_5 subtypes; see Ch. 13). Activation of these receptors can result in excitation through blockade of M-type (KCNQ/Kv7) K^+ channels (see Delmas & Brown, 2005). G_i/G_o-coupled M_2 and M_4 receptors, on the other hand, are inhibitory through activation of inwardly rectifying K^+ channels and inhibition of voltage-sensitive Ca^{2+} channels. mAChRs on cholinergic terminals function to inhibit ACh release, and muscarinic antagonists, by blocking this inhibition, markedly increase ACh release. Many of the behavioural effects associated with cholinergic pathways seem to be

produced by ACh acting on mAChRs.

Nicotinic ACh receptors (nAChRs) are ligand-gated cation channels permeable to Na^+, K^+ and Ca^{2+} ions (see Ch. 13). They are pentamers and can be formed as homomeric or heteromeric combinations of α (α2–7) and β (β2–4) subunits (Ch. 3; see Gotti et al., 2008) distributed widely throughout the brain (see Table 38.2). The heteromeric α4β2 and the homomeric α_7 subtypes are the most extensively characterised. The lack of subtype-specific ligands and the fact that some neurons express multiple subtypes has made the elucidation of the functions of each receptor subtype extremely difficult. Nicotine (see Ch. 48) exerts its central effects by agonist action on nAChRs.

Table 38.2 Presence of nicotinic receptors of different subunit composition in selected regions of the central nervous system

Brain region	Nicotinic receptors						
	α7	α3β2	α3β4	α4β2	α4α5β	α6β2β3	α6α4β2β3
Cortex	+			+	+		
Hippocampus	+		+	+	+		
Striatum				+	+	+	+
Amygdala	+			+			
Thalamus				+			
Hypothalamus	+			+			
Substantia nigra	+		+	+	+	+	
Cerebellum	+	+	+	+			
Spinal cord	+	+		+			

nAChRs comprising α2β2 and α3β3β4 are found in some other areas of the brain.
Data taken from Gotti et al., 2006.

For the most part, nAChRs are located presynaptically and act usually to facilitate the release of other transmitters such as glutamate, dopamine and GABA.[2] In a few situations, they function postsynaptically to mediate fast excitatory transmission, as in the periphery.

[2]See Khahk & Henderson, 2000, for a description of how presynaptic cation-selective ligand-gated channels can, under different circumstances, facilitate or enhance neurotransmitter release.

Many of the drugs that block nAChRs (e.g. **tubocurarine**; see Ch. 13) do not cross the blood–brain barrier, and even those that do (e.g. **mecamylamine**) produce only modest CNS effects. Various nAChR knockout mouse strains have been produced and studied. Deletion of the various CNS-specific nAChR subtypes generally has rather little effect, although some cognitive impairment can be detected. Mutations in nAChRs may be the cause of some forms of epilepsy and changes in nAChR expression may occur in disorders such as schizophrenia, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, depression and anxiety, as well as following neurodegeneration in Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases.

Functional Aspects

The functional roles of cholinergic pathways have been deduced mainly from studies of the action of drugs that mimic, accentuate or block the actions of ACh, and from studies of transgenic animals in which particular AChRs were deleted or mutated (see Cordero-Erausquin et al., 2000; Hogg et al., 2003).

The main functions ascribed to cholinergic pathways are related to arousal, learning and memory, and motor control. The cholinergic projection from the ventral forebrain to the cortex is thought to mediate arousal, whereas the septohippocampal pathway is involved in learning and short-term memory (see Hasselmo, 2006). Cholinergic interneurons in the striatum are involved in motor control (see Ch. 39).

Muscarinic agonists have been shown to restore partially learning and memory deficits induced in experimental animals by lesions of the septohippocampal cholinergic pathway. **Hyoscine**, a muscarinic

antagonist, impairs memory in human subjects and causes amnesia when used as preanaesthetic medication. M_1 receptor knockout mice, however, show only slight impairment of learning and memory (see Wess, 2004).

Nicotine increases alertness and also enhances learning and memory, as do various synthetic agonists at neuronal nAChRs. Conversely, CNS-active nAChR antagonists such as **mecamylamine** cause detectable, although slight, impairment of learning and memory. Transgenic mice with disruption of brain nAChRs are only slightly impaired in spatial learning tasks.

In conclusion, both nAChRs and mAChRs may play a role in learning and memory, while nAChRs also mediate behavioural arousal. Receptor knockout mice are surprisingly little affected, suggesting that alternative mechanisms may be able to compensate for the loss of ACh receptor signalling.

The importance of cholinergic neurons in neurodegenerative conditions such as dementia and Parkinson's disease is discussed in Chapter 39. The role of nAChRs in modulating pain transmission in the CNS is described in Chapter 41.

Acetylcholine in the CNS

• Synthesis, storage and release of acetylcholine (ACh) in the central nervous system (CNS) are essentially the same as in the periphery (Ch. 13).

• ACh is widely distributed in the CNS, important pathways being:

– basal forebrain (magnocellular) nuclei, which send a diffuse projection to most forebrain structures, including the cortex

– septohippocampal projection

– short interneurons in the striatum and nucleus accumbens.

• Certain neurodegenerative diseases, especially dementia and Parkinson's disease (see Ch. 39), are associated with abnormalities in cholinergic pathways.

• Both nicotinic and muscarinic (predominantly M_1) ACh receptors occur in the CNS. The former mediate the central effects of nicotine. Nicotinic receptors are mainly located presynaptically; there are few examples of transmission mediated by postsynaptic nicotinic receptors.

• Muscarinic receptors appear to mediate the main behavioural effects associated with ACh, namely effects on arousal, and on learning and short-term memory.

• Muscarinic antagonists (e.g. **hyoscine**) cause amnesia.

Purines

Both adenosine and ATP act as transmitters and/or modulators in the CNS (for review, see Fredholm et al., 2005; Khahk & North, 2006) as they do in the periphery (Ch. 16). Mapping the pathways is difficult, because purinergic neurons are not easily identifiable histochemically, but it is likely that adenosine serves as a very widespread neuromodulator, while ATP has more specific synaptic functions as a fast transmitter and as a local modulator.

Adenosine is produced intracellularly from ATP. It is not packaged into vesicles but is released mainly by carrier-mediated transport. Because the intracellular concentration of ATP (several mmol/l) greatly exceeds that of adenosine, conversion of a small proportion of ATP results in a large increase in adenosine. ATP is packaged into vesicles and released by exocytosis as a conventional transmitter, but can also leak out of cells in large amounts under conditions of tissue damage. In high concentrations, ATP can act as an excitotoxin (like glutamate; see Ch. 39) and cause further neuronal damage. It is also quickly converted to adenosine, which exerts a protective effect. These special characteristics

of adenosine metabolism suggest that it serves mainly as a safety mechanism, protecting the neurons from damage when their viability is threatened, for example by ischaemia or seizure activity.

Adenosine produces its effects through G-protein-coupled adenosine A receptors (see Ch. 16). For ATP there are two forms of receptor—P2X and P2Y receptors (see Ch. 16 also). P2X receptors are trimeric ligand-gated cation channels that can be homomeric or heteromeric in composition whereas P2Y receptors are G-protein coupled.

There are four adenosine receptors—A_1, A_{2A}, A_{2B} and A_3—distributed throughout the CNS. The overall effect of adenosine, or of various adenosine receptor agonists, is inhibitory, leading to effects such as drowsiness and sedation, motor incoordination, analgesia and anticonvulsant activity. Xanthines, such as **caffeine** (Ch. 47), which are antagonists at A_2 receptors, produce arousal and alertness.

While there is little doubt that purinergic signalling plays a major role in CNS function, our understanding is still very limited. There is optimism that purinergic receptor ligands—both agonists and antagonists—will prove useful in a wide range of CNS disorders (see Burnstock, 2008).

Histamine

▼ Histamine is present in the brain in much smaller amounts than in other tissues, such as skin and lung, but undoubtedly serves a neurotransmitter role (see Brown et al., 2001). The cell bodies of histaminergic neurons, which also synthesise and release a variety of other transmitters, are restricted to a small part of the hypothalamus, and their axons run to virtually all parts of the brain. Unusually, no uptake mechanism for histamine is present, its action being terminated

instead by enzymic methylation.

Histamine acts on at least three types of receptor ($H_{1–3}$; Ch. 17) in the brain (the evidence for H_4 receptors in brain is still rather flimsy). They occur in most brain regions and are all G-protein coupled—H_1 receptors to G_q, H_2 to G_s and H_3 to $G_{i/o}$. H_3 receptors are inhibitory autoreceptors on histamine-releasing neurons.

Like other monoamine transmitters, histamine is involved in many different CNS functions. Histamine release follows a distinct circadian pattern, the neurons being active by day and silent by night. H_1 receptors in the cortex and reticular activating system contribute to arousal and wakefulness, and H_1 receptor antagonists produce sedation (see Ch. 43). Other functions ascribed to histamine include control of food and water intake, and thermoregulation, but these are less well characterised. Antihistamines are widely used to control nausea and vomiting, for example in motion sickness and middle ear disorders, as well as to induce sleep.

Other CNS Mediators

We now move from the familiar neuropharmacological territory of the 'classic' monoamines to some of the frontier towns, bordering on the Wild West. Useful drugs are still few and far between in this area, and if applied pharmacology is your main concern, you can safely skip the next part and wait a few years for law and order to be established.

Melatonin

▼ Melatonin (*N*-acetyl-5-methoxytryptamine) (reviewed by Dubocovich et al., 2003) is synthesised exclusively in the pineal, an endocrine gland that plays a role in establishing circadian rhythms. The gland contains two enzymes, not found elsewhere, which convert 5-HT by acetylation

and *O*-methylation to melatonin, its hormonal product.

There are two well-defined melatonin receptors (MT_1 and MT_2) which are G-protein-coupled receptors—both coupling to G_i/G_o—found mainly in the brain and retina but also in peripheral tissues (see Jockers et al., 2008). Another type (termed MT_3) has been suggested to be the enzyme quinone reductase 2 (QR2). The function of the interaction between melatonin and QR2 is still unclear.

Melatonin secretion (in all animals, whether diurnal or nocturnal in their habits) is high at night and low by day. This rhythm is controlled by input from the retina via a noradrenergic retinohypothalamic tract that terminates in the suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN) in the hypothalamus, a structure often termed the 'biological clock', which generates the circadian rhythm. Activation of MT_1 receptors inhibits neuronal firing in the SCN and prolactin secretion from the pituitary. Activation of MT_2 receptors phase shifts circadian rhythms generated within the SCN.

Given orally, melatonin is well absorbed but quickly metabolised, its plasma half-life being a few minutes. It has been promoted as a means of controlling jet lag, or of improving the performance of night-shift workers, based on its ability to reset the circadian clock. A single dose appears to have the effect of resynchronising the physiological secretory cycle, although it is not clear how this occurs. **Ramelteon**, an agonist at MT_1 and MT_2 receptors, is used to treat insomnia (see Ch. 43) and **agomelatine**, which has agonist actions at MT_1 and MT_2 receptors as well as antagonist actions at $5\text{-}HT_{2c}$ receptors, is a novel antidepressant drug (see Ch. 46)

Nitric Oxide

Nitric oxide (NO) as a peripheral mediator is discussed in Chapter 20. Its

significance as an important chemical mediator in the nervous system has demanded a considerable readjustment of our views about neurotransmission and neuromodulation (for review, see Garthwaite, 2008). The main defining criteria for transmitter substances—namely that neurons should possess machinery for synthesising and storing the substance, that it should be released from neurons by exocytosis, that it should interact with specific membrane receptors and that there should be mechanisms for its inactivation—do not apply to NO. Moreover, it is an inorganic gas, not at all like the kind of molecule we are used to. The mediator function of NO is now well established (Zhou & Zhu, 2009). NO diffuses rapidly through cell membranes, and its action is not highly localised. Its half-life depends greatly on the chemical environment, ranging from seconds in blood to several minutes in normal tissues. The rate of inactivation of NO (see Ch. 20, reaction 20.1) increases disproportionately with NO concentration, so low levels of NO are relatively stable. The presence of superoxide, with which NO reacts (see below), shortens its half-life considerably.

Nitric oxide in the nervous system is produced mainly by the constitutive neuronal form of *nitric oxide synthase* (nNOS; see Ch. 20), which can be detected either histochemically or by immunolabelling. This enzyme is present in roughly 2% of neurons, both short interneurons and long-tract neurons, in virtually all brain areas, with particular concentrations in the cerebellum and hippocampus. It occurs in cell bodies and dendrites, as well as in axon terminals, suggesting that NO may be produced both pre-and postsynaptically. nNOS is calmodulin dependent and is activated by a rise in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration, which can occur by many mechanisms, including action potential conduction and neurotransmitter action, especially by glutamate activation of Ca^{2+}-permeable NMDA receptors. NO is not stored, but

released as it is made. Many studies have shown that NO production is increased by activation of synaptic pathways, or by other events, such as brain ischaemia (see Ch. 39).

Nitric oxide exerts pre-and postsynaptic actions on neurons as well as acting on glial cells (Garthwaite, 2008). It produces its effects in two main ways:

1 By activation of soluble guanylyl cyclase, leading to the production of cGMP, which activates various phosphorylation cascades (Ch. 3). This 'physiological' control mechanism operates at low NO concentrations of about 0.1 μmol/l.

2 By reacting with the superoxide free radical to generate peroxynitrite, a highly toxic anion that acts by oxidising various intracellular proteins. This requires concentrations of 1–10 μmol/l, which are achieved in brain ischaemia.

There is good evidence that NO plays a role in synaptic plasticity (see Ch. 37), because long-term potentiation and depression are reduced or prevented by NOS inhibitors and are absent in transgenic mice in which the *nNOS* gene has been disrupted.

Based on the same kind of evidence, NO is also believed to play an important part in the mechanisms by which ischaemia causes neuronal death (see Ch. 39). There is also evidence that it may be involved in other processes, including neurodegeneration in Parkinson's disease, senile dementia and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, and the local control of blood flow linked to neuronal activity.

▼ **Carbon monoxide** (CO) is best known as a poisonous gas present in vehicle exhaust, which binds strongly to haemoglobin, causing tissue anoxia. However, it is also formed endogenously and has many features in common with NO (see Barañano et al., 2001). Neurons and other cells

contain a CO-generating enzyme, haem oxygenase, and CO, like NO, activates guanylyl cyclase.

The role of CO as a CNS mediator is not well established, but there is some evidence that it plays a role in memory mechanisms in the hippocampus (see Cutajar & Edwards, 2007).

Lipid Mediators

▼ The formation of arachidonic acid, and its conversion to eicosanoids (mainly prostaglandins, leukotrienes and hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids (HETEs); see Ch. 17) and to endocannabinoids, anandamide and 2-arachidonoylglycerol (see Ch. 18), also take place in the CNS (for reviews, see Piomelli, 1995; Pertwee, 2008).

Phospholipid cleavage, leading to arachidonic acid production, occurs in neurons in response to receptor activation by many different mediators, including neurotransmitters. The arachidonic acid so formed can act directly as an intracellular messenger, controlling both ion channels and various parts of the protein kinase cascade (see Ch. 3), producing both rapid and delayed effects on neuronal function. Both arachidonic acid itself and its products escape readily from the cell of origin and can affect neighbouring structures, including presynaptic terminals (retrograde signalling) and adjacent cells (paracrine signalling), by acting on receptors or by acting directly as intracellular messengers. Figure 38.8 shows a schematic view of the variety of different roles these agents can play at the synapse.

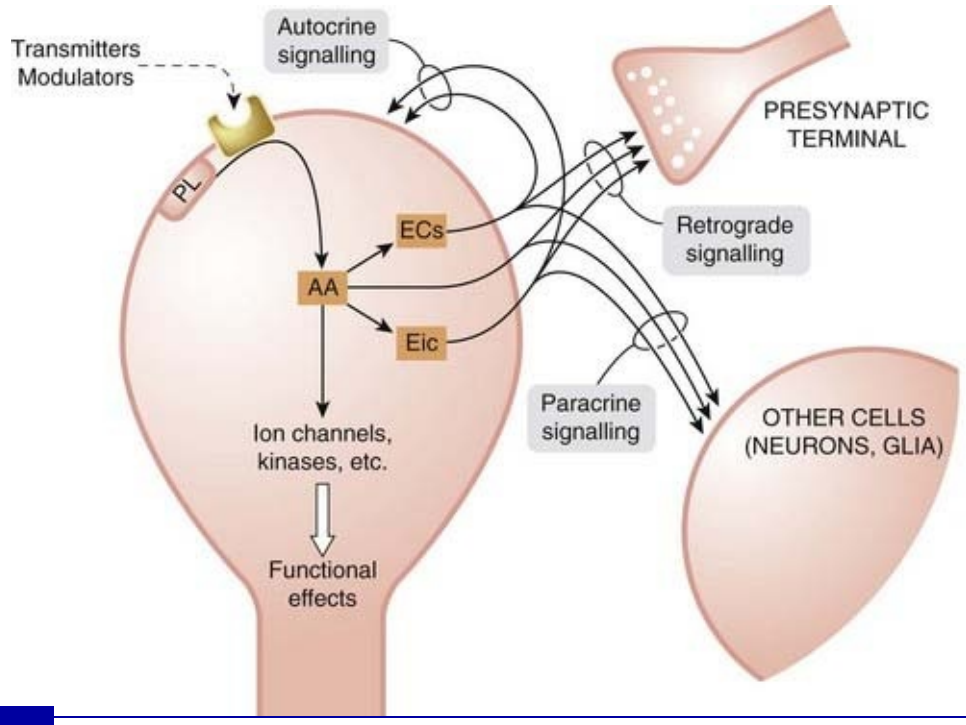


Fig. 38.8 Postulated modes of signalling by lipid mediators.

Arachidonic acid (AA) is formed by receptor-mediated cleavage of membrane phospholipid. It can act directly as an intracellular messenger on ion channels or components of different kinase cascades, producing various long-and short-term effects. It can also be converted to eicosanoids (prostaglandins, leukotrienes or hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids [HETEs]) or to the endocannabinoids (ECs), anandamide and 2-arachidonoylglycerol. HETEs can also act directly as intracellular messengers. All these mediators diffuse out of the cell, and exert effects on presynaptic terminals and neighbouring cells, acting either on extracellular receptors or intracellularly. There are examples of most of these modes of signalling but only limited information about their functional significance in the nervous system. Eic, eicosanoids; PL, membrane phospholipid.

Arachidonic acid can be metabolised to eicosanoids, some of which (principally the HETEs) can also act as intracellular messengers acting in the same cell. Eicosanoids can also exert an autocrine effect via membrane receptors expressed by the cell (see Ch. 17). The eicosanoids play important roles in neural function including pain, temperature regulation, sleep induction, synaptic plasticity and spatial learning.

It is now generally accepted that the endocannabinoids act as retrograde synaptic messengers. They are synthesised and secreted in

response to a rise in intracellular Ca^{2+} and activate presynaptic CB_1 receptors resulting in an inhibition of the release of neurotransmitters such as glutamate and GABA (see Vaughan & Christie, 2005). CB_1 receptors are widely distributed in the brain and spinal cord whereas CB_2 receptor expression is much less. Agonists at CB_1 receptors have therapeutic potential for the treatment of vomiting, pain (CB_2 receptor agonists may also be effective in some pain states), muscle spasms as occur in conditions such as multiple sclerosis and anxiety, as well as in other brain disorders including Alzheimer's disease and tardive dyskinesias (see Pertwee, 2008). The CB_1 receptor antagonist, **rimonabant**, was introduced as an antiobesity agent but subsequently had to be withdrawn because of negative effects on mood (see Ch. 18). One surprise in this field has been the discovery that anandamide, besides being an agonist at cannabinoid receptors, also activates TRPV1 channels (see Ch. 41) which are involved in the response of peripheral sensory nerve terminals to painful stimuli.

Other transmitters and modulators

Purines

• ATP functions as a neurotransmitter, being stored in vesicles and released by exocytosis. It acts, via ionotropic P2X receptors, as a fast excitatory transmitter in certain pathways and, via metabotropic P2Y receptors, as a neuromodulator.

• Cytosolic ATP is present at relatively high concentration and can be released directly if neuronal viability is compromised (e.g. in stroke). Excessive release may be neurotoxic.

• Released ATP is rapidly converted to ADP, AMP and adenosine.

• Adenosine is not stored in vesicles but is released by carrier mechanisms or generated from released ATP, mainly under pathological conditions.

• Adenosine exerts mainly inhibitory effects, through A_1 and A_2 receptors, resulting in sedative, anticonvulsant and neuroprotective effects, and acting as a safety mechanism.

• Methylxanthines (e.g. **caffeine**) are antagonists at A_2 receptors and increase wakefulness.

Histamine

• Histamine fulfils the criteria for a neurotransmitter. Histaminergic neurons originate in a small area of the hypothalamus and have a widespread distribution.

• H_1, H_2 and H_3 receptors are widespread in the brain.

• The functions of histamine are not well understood, the main clues being that histaminergic neurons are active during waking hours, and H_1 receptor antagonists are strongly sedative.

• H_1 receptor antagonists are antiemetic.

Melatonin

• Melatonin is synthesised from 5-hydroxytryptamine, mainly in the pineal gland, from which it is released as a circulating hormone.

• Secretion is controlled by light intensity, being low by day and high by night. Fibres from the retina run to the suprachiasmatic nucleus ('biological clock'), which controls the pineal gland via its sympathetic innervation.

• Melatonin acts on MT_1 and MT_2 receptors in the brain. Given orally, it causes sedation and also 'resets' the biological clock, being used for this purpose to counter jet lag.

• Agonists at melatonin receptors induce sleep and have antidepressant properties.

Nitric oxide (see Ch. 20)

• Neuronal nitric oxide synthase (nNOS) is present in many central nervous system neurons, and nitric oxide (NO) production is increased by mechanisms (e.g. transmitter action) that raise intracellular Ca^{2+}.

• NO affects neuronal function by increasing cGMP formation, producing both inhibitory and excitatory effects on neurons.

• In larger amounts, NO forms peroxynitrite, which contributes to neurotoxicity.

• Inhibition of nNOS reduces long-term potentiation and long-term depression, probably because NO functions as a retrograde messenger. Inhibition of nNOS also protects against ischaemic brain damage in animal models.

• Carbon monoxide shares many properties with NO and may also be a neural mediator.

Lipid mediators

• Arachidonic acid is produced in neurons by receptor-mediated hydrolysis of phospholipid. It is converted to various eicosanoids and endocannabinoids.

• Arachidonic acid itself, as well as its active products, can produce rapid and slow effects by regulation of ion channels and protein kinase cascades. Such effects can occur in the donor cell or in adjacent cells and nerve terminals.

• Anandamide and 2-arachidonoylglycerol are endogenous activators of cannabinoid CB_1 and CB_2 receptors (Ch. 18) and also of the TRPV1 receptor (Ch. 41).

A Final Message

In the last two chapters, we have taken a long and tortuous tour through the brain and its chemistry, with two questions at the back of our minds. What mediators and what receptors play a key role in what brain functions? How does the information relate to existing and future drugs that aim to correct malfunctions? Through the efforts of a huge army of researchers deploying an arsenal of powerful new techniques, the answers to these questions are slowly being produced. The array of potential CNS targets—comprising multiple receptor subtypes, many with the added complexity of heteromeric assemblies, splice variants,

etc., along with regulatory mechanisms that control their expression and localisation—continues to grow in complexity. Speculation about the best target to aim at in order to ameliorate the effect of a particular brain malfunction, such as stroke or schizophrenia, has become less focused, even if better informed, than it was two decades ago. In the ensuing chapters in this section, we shall find that most of the therapeutic successes have come from chance discoveries that were followed up empirically; few have followed a logical, mechanism-based route to success. The optimistic view is that this is changing, and that future therapeutic discoveries will depend less on luck and more on molecular logic. But the revolution is slow in coming. One of the key problems, perhaps, is that the brain puts cells, organelles and molecules exactly where they are needed, and uses the same molecules to perform different functions in different locations. Drug discovery scientists are getting quite good at devising molecule-specific ligands (see Ch. 60), but we lack delivery systems able to target them anatomically even to macroscopic brain regions, let alone to specific cells and subcellular structures.

References and Further Reading

General references

avis K.L., Charney D., Coyle J.T., Nemeroff C., editors. Neuropsychopharmacology: the fifth generation of progress. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins, 2002. (*A 2000-page monster with excellent and authoritative articles on basic and clinical aspects*)

ersen L.L., Iversen S.D., Bloom F.E., Roth R.H. *Introduction to neuropsychopharmacology*. New York: Oxford University Press; 2009. (*Clear and well-written textbook giving more detailed information on many topics covered in this chapter*)

estler E.J., Hyman S.E., Malenka R.C. *Molecular neuropharmacology: a foundation for clinical*

neuroscience, second ed. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2008. . (*Good modern textbook*)

Noradrenaline

ylund D.B. Receptors for norepinephrine and signal transduction pathways. In: Ordway G.A., Schwartz M.A., Frazer A., editors. *Brain norepinephrine*. London: Cambridge University Press, 2007.

ead G.A., Mayorov D.N. Imidazoline receptors, novel agents and therapeutic potential. *Cardiovasc. Hematol. Agents Med. Chem.*. 2006;4:17-32. *Provides an update on the elusive imidazoline receptors*)

Dopamine

jörklund A., Dunnett S.B. Dopamine neuron systems in the brain: an update. *Trends Neurosci.*. 2007;30:194-202. (*Short review of the anatomy of dopaminergic neurons in the central nervous system*)

e Mei C., Ramos M., Iitaka C., Borrelli E. Getting specialized: presynaptic and postsynaptic dopamine D2 receptors. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2009;9:53-58.

irault J.-A., Greengard P. The neurobiology of dopamine signalling. *Arch. Neurol.*. 2004;61:641-644. (*Short review article*)

Iissale C., Nash S.R., Robinson S.W., *et al.* Dopamine receptors: from structure to function. *Physiol. Rev.*. 1998;78:198-225. (*Comprehensive review article*)

ibley D.R. New insights into dopaminergic receptor function using antisense and genetically altered animals. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 1999;39:313-341.

arazi F.I., Zhang K., Baldessarini R.J. Dopamine D4 receptors: beyond schizophrenia J. Recept. Signal Transduct. 24:2004:131-147 (*Dismisses link between D4 receptor polymorphism and schizophrenia, suggesting possible link with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, impulsivity and cognitive function*)

hapar A., Langley K., Owen M.J., O'Donovan M.C. Advances in genetic findings on attention deficit hyperactivity disorder 37. 2007 Psychol. Med.

5-Hydroxytryptamine

zmitia E.C., Whitaker-Azmitia P.M. Anatomy, cell biology and plasticity of the serotonergic system. In: Bloom F.E., Kupfer D.J., editors. *Psychopharmacology: a fourth generation of progress*. New York: Raven Press, 1995. (*General review article*)

arnes N.M., Sharp T. A review of central 5-HT receptors and their function. *Neuropharmacology*. 1999;38:1083-1152. (*Detailed compilation of data relating to distribution, pharmacology and function of 5-HT receptors in the CNS; useful information source but not particularly illuminating*)

ockaert J., Claeysen S., Becamel C., *et al.* Neuronal 5-HT metabotropic receptors: fine-tuning of their structure, signaling, and roles in synaptic modulation. *Cell Tissue Res.*. 2006;326:553-572.

edlund P.B., Sutcliffe J.G. Functional, molecular and pharmacological advances in 5-HT7 receptor research Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 25:2004:481-486 (*Reviews current understanding of role of 5-HT7 receptors, including data from receptor knockout mice*)

ensen A.A., Davies P.A., Bräuner-Osborne H., Krzywkowski K. 3B but which 3B? And that's just one of the questions: the heterogeneity of human 5-HT3 receptors Trends Pharmacol. Sci. 29:2008:437-444 (*Discusses the potential complexity of 5-HT3 receptors now that new subunits have been discovered*)

Iuller C., Jacobs B. Handbook of behavioral neurobiology of serotonin vol. 18. 2009 Academic Press Oxford. (*Extensive coverage of the role of 5-HT in the brain*) (Handbook of behavioral neuroscience)

eters J.A., Hales T.G., Lambert J.J. Molecular determinants of single-channel conductance and ion selectivity in the *Cys*-loop family: insights from the 5-HT3 receptor. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2005;26:587-594. (*For those who thought ligand-gated ion channels were just simple pores opened by neurotransmitters, this review will contain a few surprises!*)

Woolley M.L., Marsden C.A., Fone K.C. 5-HT6 receptors Curr. Drug Targets CNS Neurol. Disord. 3:2004:59-79 (*General review article focusing on the many possible clinical applications of 5-HT6 receptor agonists and antagonists*)

Acetylcholine

ordero-Erausquin M., Marubio L.M., Klink R., Changeux J.-P. Nicotinic receptor function: new perspectives from knockout mice. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2000;21:211-217. (*Short review article*)

elmas P., Brown D.A. Pathways modulating neural KCNQ/M (Kv7) potassium channels. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2005;6:850-862. (*Gives information on the functional significance of the 'M-current' and the therapeutic potential of drugs that modify it*)

otti C., Zoli M., Clementi F. Brain nicotinic acetylcholine receptors: native subtypes and their relevance. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2008;27:482-491.

asselmo M.E. The role of acetylcholine in learning and memory. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.*. 2006;16:710-715.

ogg R.C., Raggenbass M., Bertrand D. Nicoticin acetylcholine receptors: from structure to brain function. *Rev. Physiol. Biochem. Pharmacol.*. 2003;147:1-46. (*General review of molecular and functional properties of brain nAChRs*)

hahk B.S., Henderson G. Modulation of fast synaptic transmission by presynaptic ligand-gated cation channels. *J. Auton. Nerv. Syst.*. 2000;81:110-121. (*Describes how activation of presynaptic ligand-gated cation channels can either enhance or inhibit neurotransmitter release*)

/ess J. Muscarinic acetylcholine receptor knockout mice: novel phenotypes and clinical implications. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2004;44:423-450. (*Description of functional effects of deleting various peripheral and central mAChR isoforms*)

Other messengers

arañano D.E., Ferris C.D., Snyder S.H. Atypical neural messengers. *Trends Neurosci.*. 2001;24:99-106. (*Short review on some established mediators such as NO, and some speculative ones*)

rown R.E., Stevens D.R., Haas H.L. The physiology of brain histamine. *Prog. Neurobiol.*. 2001;63:637-672. (*Useful review article*)

urnstock G. Purinergic signalling and disorders of the central nervous system. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2008;7:575-590. (*Extensive discussion of the therapeutic potential of drugs acting at*

purinergic receptors)

utajar M.C., Edwards T.M. Evidence for the role of endogenous carbon monoxide in memory processing. *J. Cogn. Neurosci.*. 2007;19:557-562.

ubocovich M.L., Rivera-Bermudez M.A., Gerdin M.J., Masana M.I. Molecular pharmacology, regulation and function of mammalian melatonin receptors. *Front. Biosci.*. 2003;8:1093-1108.

redholm B.B., Chen J.F., Masino S.A., Vaugeois J.M. Actions of adenosine at its receptors in the CNS: insights from knockouts and from drugs. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2005;45:385-412.

arthwaite J. Concepts of neural nitric oxide-mediated transmission. *Eur. J. Neurosci.*. 2008;27:2783-2802.

ɔckers R., Maurice P., Boutin J.A., Delagrange P. Melatonin receptors, heterodimerization, signal transduction and binding sites: what's new? *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;154:1182-1195.

hahk B.S., North R.A. P2X receptors as cell-surface ATP sensors in health and disease. *Nature*. 2006;442:527-532.

ertwee R.G. Ligands that target cannabinoid receptors in the brain: from THC to anandamide and beyond. *Addic. Biol.*. 2008;13:147-159.

iomelli D. Arachidonic acid. In: Bloom F.E., Kupfer D.J., editors. *Psychopharmacology: a fourth generation of progress*. New York: Raven Press, 1995. (*Excellent review article*)

aughan C.W., Christie M.J. Retrograde signalling by endocannabinoids. *Handb. Exp. Pharmacol.*. 2005;168:367-383.

hou L., Zhu D.-Y. Neuronal nitric oxide synthase: Structure, subcellular localization, regulation and clinical implications. *Nitric Oxide*. 2009;20:223-230.

39

Neurodegenerative diseases

Overview

As a rule, dead neurons in the adult central nervous system (CNS) are not replaced,[1] nor can their terminals regenerate when their axons are interrupted. Therefore any pathological process causing neuronal death generally has irreversible consequences. At first sight, this appears to be very unpromising territory for pharmacological intervention, and indeed drug therapy is currently very limited, except in the case of Parkinson's disease (PD; see below). Nevertheless, the incidence and social impact of neurodegenerative brain disorders in ageing populations has resulted in a massive research effort in recent years.

[1]It is recognised that new neurons are formed from progenitor cells (*neurogenesis*) in certain regions of the adult brain and can become functionally integrated, even in primates (see Rakic, 2002; Zhao et al., 2008). Neurogenesis in the hippocampus is thought to play a role in learning and memory, but plays little if any role in brain repair. However, learning how to harness the inherent ability of neuronal progenitors (stem cells) to form new neurons is seen as an obvious approach to treating neurodegenerative disorders.

In this chapter, we focus mainly on three common neurodegenerative conditions: Alzheimer's disease (AD), PD and ischaemic brain damage (stroke). AD and PD are the commonest examples of a group of chronic, slowly developing conditions that

include various prion diseases (e.g. Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease, CJD). They have a common aetiology in that they are caused by the aggregation of misfolded variants of normal physiological proteins. The high hopes that the new pathophysiological understanding that has emerged over the last two decades would lead to significant therapeutic progress in this important area remain largely unrealised, and to date the available therapeutic interventions are aimed at compensating for, rather than preventing or reversing, the neuronal loss.

Stroke, which is a common disorder of enormous socioeconomic importance, results from acute ischaemic brain damage, quite different from the aetiology of chronic neurodegenerative diseases, requiring different but equally challenging therapeutic approaches.

The main topics discussed are:

- mechanisms responsible for neuronal death, focusing on protein aggregation (e.g. amyloidosis), excitotoxicity, oxidative stress and apoptosis

- pharmacological approaches to neuroprotection, based on the above mechanisms

- pharmacological approaches to compensation for neuronal loss (applicable mainly to AD and PD).

Protein Misfolding and Aggregation in Chronic Neurodegenerative Diseases

Protein misfolding and aggregation is the first step in many neurodegenerative diseases (see Stefani & Dobson, 2003; Forman et al., 2004; Selkoe, 2004). Misfolding means the adoption of abnormal

conformations, by certain normally expressed proteins, such that they tend to form large insoluble aggregates (Fig. 39.1). The conversion of the linear amino acid chain produced by the ribosome into a functional protein requires it to be folded correctly into a compact conformation with specific amino acids correctly located on its surface. This complicated stepwise sequence can easily go wrong and lead to misfolded variants that are unable to find a way back to the correct 'native' conformation. The misfolded molecules are non-functional with respect to the normal function of the protein, but can nonetheless make mischief within the cell. The misfolding often means that hydrophobic residues that would normally be buried in the core of the protein are exposed on its surface, which gives the molecules a strong tendency to stick to cell membranes and aggregate, initially as oligomers and then as insoluble microscopic aggregates (Fig. 39.1), leading to the death of neurons. The tendency to adopt such conformations may be favoured by specific mutations of the protein in question, or by infection with prions (see below).

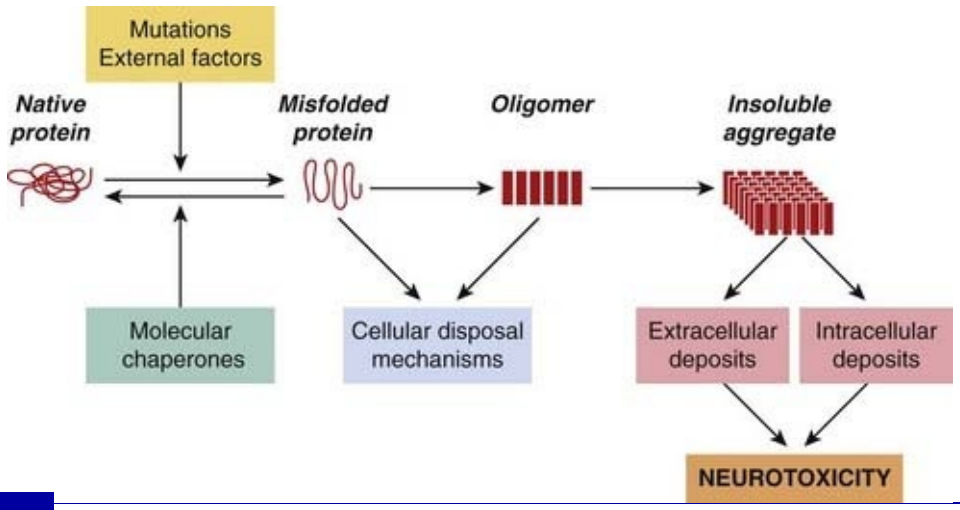


Fig. 39.1 Protein misfolding: a process involved in many chronic neurodegenerative diseases.

Misfolded conformations can be generated spontaneously at a low rate throughout life, so that aggregates accumulate gradually with age. In the nervous system, the aggregates often form distinct structures, generally known as *amyloid deposits*, that are visible under the microscope and are characteristic of neurodegenerative disease. Although the mechanisms are not clear, such aggregates, or the misfolded protein precursors, lead to neuronal death. Examples of neurodegenerative diseases that are caused by such protein misfolding and aggregation are shown in Table 39.1.

Table 39.1 Examples of neurodegenerative diseases associated with protein misfolding and aggregation[a]

Disease	Protein	Characteristic pathology	Notes
Alzheimer's disease	β-Amyloid (Aβ) Tau	Amyloid plaques Neurofibrillary tangles	Aβ mutations occur in rare familial forms of Alzheimer's disease Implicated in other pathologies ('tauopathies') as well as Alzheimer's disease
Parkinson's disease	α-Synuclein	Lewy bodies	α-Synuclein mutations occur in some types of familial Parkinson's disease
Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease	Prion protein	Insoluble aggregates of prion protein	Transmitted by infection with prion protein in its misfolded state
Huntington's disease	Huntingtin	No gross lesions	One of several genetic 'polyglutamine repeat' disorders
Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (motor neuron disease)	Superoxide dismutase	Loss of motor neurons	Mutated superoxide dismutase tends to form aggregates; loss of enzyme function increases susceptibility to oxidative stress

[a]Protein aggregation disorders are often collectively known as amyloidoses and commonly affect organs other than the brain.

The brain possesses a variety of protective mechanisms that limit the accumulation of such protein aggregates. The main ones involve the production of 'chaperone' proteins, which bind to newly synthesised or misfolded proteins and encourage them to fold correctly, and the 'ubiquitination' reaction, which prepares proteins for destruction within the cell. Accumulation of protein deposits occurs when these protective mechanisms are unable to cope.

Protein misfolding

• Many chronic neurodegenerative diseases involve the misfolding of normal or mutated forms of physiological proteins. Examples include Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis and many less common diseases.

• Misfolded proteins are normally removed by intracellular degradation pathways, which may be altered in neurodegenerative disorders.

• Misfolded proteins tend to aggregate, initially as soluble oligomers, later as large insoluble aggregates that accumulate intracellularly or extracellularly as microscopic deposits, which are stable and resistant to proteolysis.

• Misfolded proteins often present hydrophobic surface residues that promote aggregation and association with membranes.

• The mechanisms responsible for neuronal death are unclear, but there is evidence that both the soluble aggregates and the microscopic deposits may be neurotoxic.

Mechanisms of Neuronal Death

Acute injury to cells causes them to undergo *necrosis*, recognised pathologically by cell swelling, vacuolisation and lysis, and associated with Ca^{2+} overload of the cells and membrane damage (see below). Necrotic cells typically spill their contents into the surrounding tissue, evoking an inflammatory response. Chronic inflammation is a feature of most neurodegenerative disorders (see Schwab & McGeer, 2008), and a possible target for therapeutic intervention.

Cells can also die by *apoptosis* or programmed cell death (see Ch. 5), a mechanism that is essential for many processes throughout life, including development, immune regulation and tissue remodelling. Apoptosis, as well as necrosis, occurs in both acute neurodegenerative

disorders (such as stroke and head injury) and chronic ones (such as Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease; see Okouchi et al., 2007). The distinction between necrosis and apoptosis as processes leading to neurodegeneration is not absolute, for challenges such as excitotoxicity and oxidative stress may be enough to kill cells directly by necrosis or, if less intense, may induce them to undergo apoptosis. Both processes therefore represent possible targets for putative neuroprotective drug therapy. Pharmacological interference with the apoptotic pathway may become possible in the future, but for the present most efforts are directed at the processes involved in cell necrosis, and at compensating pharmacologically for the neuronal loss.

Excitotoxicity

Despite its ubiquitous role as a neurotransmitter, **glutamate** is highly toxic to neurons, a phenomenon dubbed *excitotoxicity* (see Ch. 37). A low concentration of glutamate applied to neurons in culture kills the cells, and the finding in the 1970s that glutamate given orally produces neurodegeneration in vivo caused considerable alarm because of the widespread use of glutamate as a 'taste-enhancing' food additive. The 'Chinese restaurant syndrome'—an acute attack of neck stiffness and chest pain—is well known, but so far the possibility of more serious neurotoxicity is only hypothetical.

Local injection of the glutamate receptor agonist *kainic acid* is used experimentally to produce neurotoxic lesions. It acts by excitation of local glutamate-releasing neurons, and the release of glutamate, acting on NMDA and also metabotropic receptors (Ch. 37), leads to neuronal death.

Calcium overload is the essential factor in excitotoxicity. The mechanisms by which this occurs and leads to cell death are as follows

(Fig. 39.2):

• Glutamate activates NMDA, AMPA and metabotropic receptors (sites 1, 2 and 3). Activation of AMPA receptors depolarises the cell, which unblocks the NMDA channels (see Ch. 37), permitting Ca^{2+} entry. Depolarisation also opens voltage-activated calcium channels (site 4), releasing more glutamate. Metabotropic receptors cause the release of intracellular Ca^{2+} from the endoplasmic reticulum. Na^{+} entry further contributes to Ca^{2+} entry by stimulating Ca^{2+}/Na^{+} exchange (site 5). Depolarisation inhibits or reverses glutamate uptake (site 6), thus increasing the extracellular glutamate concentration.

• The mechanisms that normally operate to counteract the rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ include the Ca^{2+} efflux pump (site 7) and, indirectly, the Na^{+} pump (site 8).

• The mitochondria and endoplasmic reticulum act as capacious sinks for Ca^{2+} and normally keep $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ under control. Loading of the mitochondrial stores beyond a certain point, however, disrupts mitochondrial function, reducing ATP synthesis, thus reducing the energy available for the membrane pumps and for Ca^{2+} accumulation by the endoplasmic reticulum. Formation of reactive oxygen species is also enhanced. This represents the danger point at which positive feedback exaggerates the process.

• Raised $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ affects many processes, the chief ones relevant to neurotoxicity being:

– increased glutamate release

– activation of proteases (calpains) and lipases, causing membrane damage

– activation of nitric oxide synthase; while low concentrations of

nitric oxide are neuroprotective, high concentrations in the presence of reactive oxygen species generate peroxynitrite and hydroxyl free radicals, which damage many important biomolecules, including membrane lipids, proteins and DNA

– increased arachidonic acid release, which increases free radical production and also inhibits glutamate uptake (site 6).

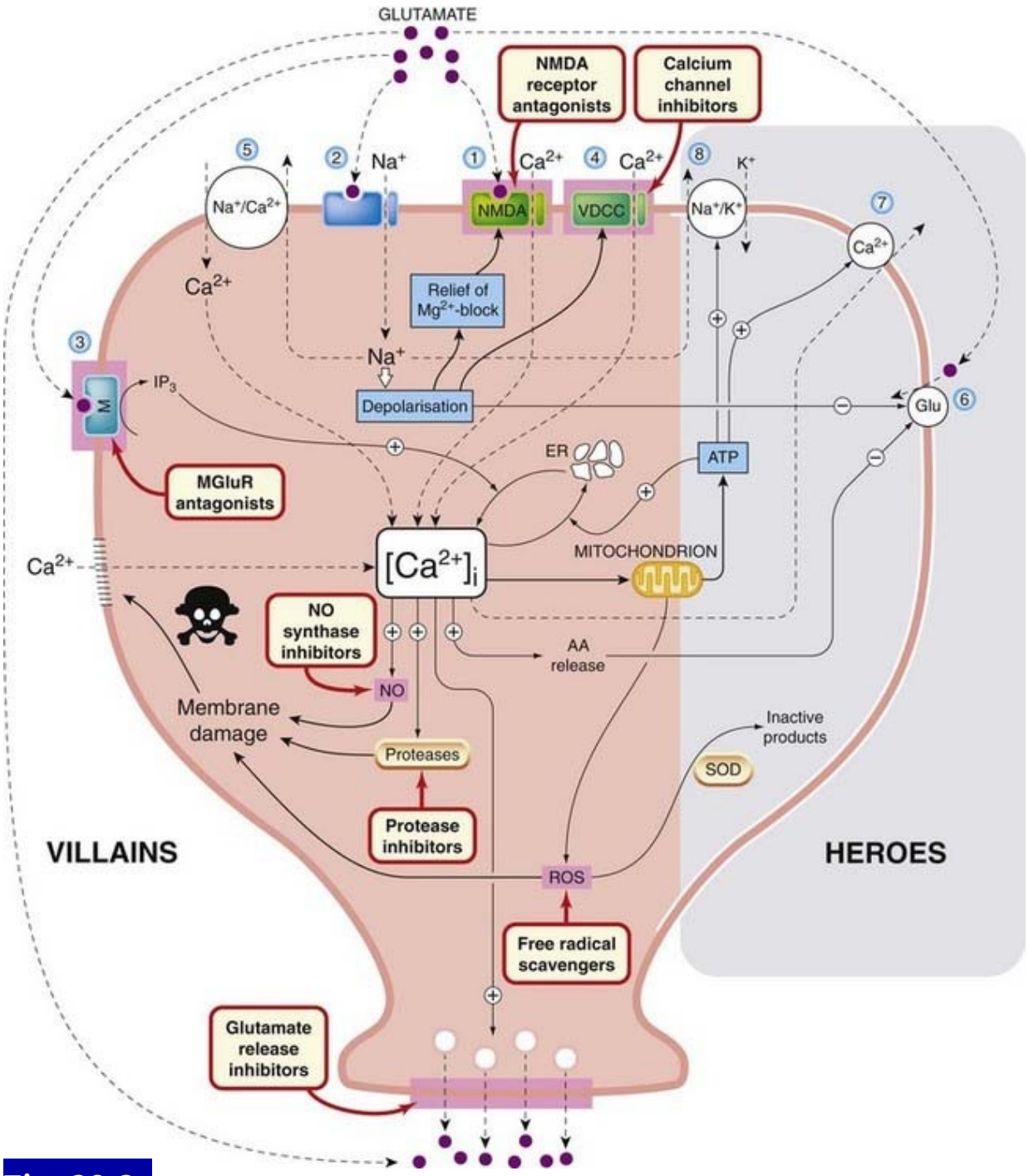


Fig. 39.2 Mechanisms of excitotoxicity.

Membrane receptors, ion channels and transporters, identified by numbers 1–8, are discussed in the text. Possible sites of action of neuroprotective drugs (not yet of proven clinical value) are highlighted. Mechanisms on the left (villains) are those that favour cell death, while those on the right (heroes) are protective. See text for details. AA, arachidonic acid; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; Glu, glutamate uptake; IP3, inositol trisphosphate; M, MGluR, metabotropic glutamate receptor; NO, nitric oxide; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SOD, superoxide dismutase;

VDCC, voltage-dependent calcium channel.

Glutamate and Ca^{2+} are arguably the two most ubiquitous chemical signals, extracellular and intracellular, respectively, underlying brain function, so it is disconcerting that such cytotoxic mayhem can be unleashed when they get out of control. Both are stored in dangerous amounts in subcellular organelles, like hand grenades in an ammunition store. Defence against excitotoxicity is clearly essential if our brains are to have any chance of staying alive. Mitochondrial energy metabolism provides one line of defence (see above), and impaired mitochondrial function, by rendering neurons vulnerable to excitotoxic damage, may be a factor in various neurodegenerative conditions, including PD. Furthermore, impaired mitochondrial function can cause release of cytochrome c, which is an important initiator of apoptosis.

The role of excitotoxicity in ischaemic brain damage is well established (see below), and it is also believed to be a factor in other neurodegenerative diseases, such as those discussed below (see Lipton & Rosenberg, 1994).

▼ There are several examples of neurodegenerative conditions caused by environmental toxins acting as agonists on glutamate receptors. *Domoic acid* is a glutamate analogue produced by mussels, which was identified as the cause of an epidemic of severe mental and neurological deterioration in a group of Newfoundlanders in 1987. On the island of Guam, a syndrome combining the features of dementia, paralysis and PD was traced to an excitotoxic amino acid, β-methylamino-alanine, in the seeds of a local plant. Discouraging the consumption of these seeds has largely eliminated the disease.

Disappointingly, intense effort, based on the mechanisms described above, to find effective drugs for a range of neurodegenerative disorders

in which excitotoxicity is believed to play a part has had very limited success. **Riluzole**, a compound that inhibits both the release and the postsynaptic action of glutamate, retards to some degree the deterioration of patients with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. **Memantine**, a compound first described 40 years ago, is a weak NMDA receptor antagonist that produces slight improvement in moderate-to-severe cases of AD, but is not recommended for routine clinical use.

Apoptosis

Apoptosis can be initiated by various cell surface signals (see Ch. 5). The cell is systematically dismantled, and the shrunken remnants are removed by macrophages without causing inflammation. Apoptotic cells can be identified by a staining technique that detects the characteristic DNA breaks. Many different signalling pathways can result in apoptosis, but in all cases the final pathway resulting in cell death is the activation of a family of proteases (caspases), which inactivate various intracellular proteins. Neural apoptosis is normally prevented by neuronal growth factors, including *nerve growth factor* and *brain-derived neurotrophic factor*, secreted proteins that are required for the survival of different populations of neurons in the CNS. These growth factors regulate the expression of the two gene products Bax and Bcl-2, Bax being proapoptotic and Bcl-2 being antiapoptotic (see Ch. 5). Blocking apoptosis by interfering at specific points on these pathways represents an attractive strategy for developing neuroprotective drugs, but one that has yet to bear fruit.

Oxidative Stress

The brain has high energy needs, which are met almost entirely by mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation, generating ATP at the same time as reducing molecular O_2 to H_2O. Under certain conditions, highly

reactive oxygen species (ROS), for example oxygen and hydroxyl free radicals and H_2O_2, may be generated as side products of this process (see Coyle & Puttfarken, 1993; Barnham et al., 2004). Oxidative stress is the result of excessive production of these reactive species. They can also be produced as a byproduct of other biochemical pathways, including nitric oxide synthesis and arachidonic acid metabolism (which are implicated in excitotoxicity; see above), as well as the P450 mono-oxygenase system (see Ch. 9). Unchecked, reactive oxygen radicals attack many key molecules, including enzymes, membrane lipids and DNA. Not surprisingly, defence mechanisms are provided, in the form of enzymes such as *superoxide dismutase* (SOD) and *catalase*, as well as antioxidants such as ascorbic acid, glutathione and α-tocopherol (vitamin E), which normally keep these reactive species in check. Some cytokines, especially tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α, which is produced in conditions of brain ischaemia or inflammation (Ch.17), exert a protective effect, partly by increasing the expression of SOD. Transgenic animals lacking TNF receptors show enhanced susceptibility to brain ischaemia. Mutations of the gene encoding SOD (Fig. 39.2) are associated with *amyotrophic lateral sclerosis* (ALS, also known as motor neuron disease), a fatal paralytic disease resulting from progressive degeneration of motor neurons, and transgenic mice expressing mutated SOD develop a similar condition.[2] Accumulation of aggregates of misfolded mutated SOD (see above) may also contribute to neurodegeneration.

[2]Surprisingly, some SOD mutations associated with ALS are more, rather than less, active than the normal enzyme. The mechanism responsible for neurodegeneration probably involves abnormal accumulation of the enzyme in mitochondria.

Mitochondria play a central role in energy metabolism, failure of which leads to oxidative stress. Damage to mitochondria, leading to the

release of cytochrome c into the cytosol, also initiates apoptosis. Mitochondrial integrity is therefore essential for neuronal survival, and mitochondrial dysfunction is seen as a major factor in many neurodegenerative disorders (see Petrozzi et al., 2007). It is possible that accumulated or inherited mutations in enzymes such as those of the mitochondrial respiratory chain lead to a congenital or age-related increase in susceptibility to oxidative stress, which is manifest in different kinds of inherited neurodegenerative disorders (such as Huntington's disease), and in age-related neurodegeneration.

Oxidative stress is both a cause and consequence of inflammation (Ch. 6), which is a general feature of neurodegenerative disease and is thought to contribute to neuronal damage (see Schwab & McGeer, 2008).

Several possible targets for therapeutic intervention with neuroprotective drugs are shown in Figure 39.2.

Excitotoxicity and oxidative stress

• Excitatory amino acids, especially glutamate, can cause neuronal death.

• Excitotoxicity is associated mainly with activation of NMDA receptors, but other types of excitatory amino acid receptors also contribute.

• Excitotoxicity results from a sustained rise in intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration (Ca^{2+} overload).

• Excitotoxicity can occur under pathological conditions (e.g. cerebral ischaemia, epilepsy) in which excessive glutamate release occurs. It can also occur when chemicals such as kainic acid are administered.

• Raised intracellular Ca^{2+} causes cell death by various mechanisms, including activation of

proteases, formation of free radicals and lipid peroxidation. Formation of nitric oxide and arachidonic acid are also involved.

• Various mechanisms act normally to protect neurons against excitotoxicity, the main ones being Ca^{2+} transport systems, mitochondrial function and the production of free radical scavengers.

• Oxidative stress refers to conditions (e.g. hypoxia) in which the protective mechanisms are compromised, reactive oxygen species accumulate and neurons become more susceptible to excitotoxic damage.

• Excitotoxicity due to environmental chemicals may contribute to some neurodegenerative disorders.

• Measures designed to reduce excitotoxicity include the use of glutamate antagonists, calcium channel-blocking drugs and free radical scavengers; none is yet proven for clinical use.

• Mitochondrial dysfunction, associated with ageing, environmental toxins and genetic abnormalities, leads to oxidative stress and is a common feature of neurodegenerative diseases.

Ischaemic Brain Damage

After heart disease and cancer, strokes are the commonest cause of death in Europe and North America, and the 70% that are non-fatal are the commonest cause of disability. Approximately 85% of strokes are *ischaemic*, usually due to thrombosis of a major cerebral artery. The remainder are *haemorrhagic*, due to rupture of a cerebral artery. Atherosclerosis is the usual underlying cause of both types.

Pathophysiology

Interruption of blood supply to the brain initiates the cascade of neuronal events shown in Figure 39.2, which lead in turn to later

consequences, including cerebral oedema and inflammation, which can also contribute to brain damage (see Dirnagl et al., 1999). Further damage can occur following reperfusion,[3] because of the production of reactive oxygen species when the oxygenation is restored. Reperfusion injury may be an important component in stroke patients. These secondary processes often take hours to develop, providing a window of opportunity for therapeutic intervention. The lesion produced by occlusion of a major cerebral artery consists of a central core in which the neurons quickly undergo irreversible necrosis, surrounded by a penumbra of compromised tissue in which inflammation and apoptotic cell death develop over a period of several hours. It is assumed that neuroprotective therapies, given within a few hours, might inhibit this secondary penumbral damage.

[3]Nevertheless, early reperfusion (within 3 h of the thrombosis) is clearly beneficial, based on clinical evidence with fibrinolytic drugs.

Glutamate excitotoxicity plays a critical role in brain ischaemia. Ischaemia causes depolarisation of neurons, and the release of large amounts of glutamate. Ca^{2+} accumulation occurs, partly as a result of glutamate acting on NMDA receptors, for both Ca^{2+} entry and cell death following cerebral ischaemia are inhibited by drugs that block NMDA receptors or channels (see Ch. 37). Nitric oxide is also produced in amounts much greater than result from normal neuronal activity (i.e. to levels that are toxic rather than modulatory).

Therapeutic Approaches

The only drug currently approved for treating strokes is recombinant tissue plasminogen activator, **alteplase**, given intravenously, which helps to restore blood flow by dispersing the thrombus (see Ch. 24). A controlled trial showed that it did not reduce mortality (about 8%), but

gave significant functional benefit to patients who survive. To be effective, it must be given within about 3 h of the thrombotic episode. Also, it must not be given in the 15% of cases where the cause is haemorrhage rather than thrombosis, so preliminary computerised tomography (CT) scanning is essential. These stringent requirements seriously limit the use of fibrinolytic agents for treating stroke, except where specialised rapid response facilities are available.

A preferable approach would be to use neuroprotective agents aimed at rescuing cells in the penumbral region of the lesion, which are otherwise likely to die. In animal models involving cerebral artery occlusion, many drugs targeted at the mechanisms shown in Figure 39.2 (not to mention many others that have been tested on the basis of more far-flung theories) act in this way to reduce the size of the infarct. These include glutamate antagonists, calcium and sodium channel inhibitors, free radical scavengers, antiinflammatory drugs, protease inhibitors and others (see Green, 2008). It seems that almost anything works. Altogether, Green et al. (2003) reported that more than 37 such agents had been tested in more than 114 clinical trials, and all had failed to show efficacy. The dispiriting list of failures includes calcium and sodium channel blockers (e.g. **nimodipine**, **fosphenytoin**), NMDA receptor antagonists (**selfotel**, **eliprodil**, **dextromethorphan**), drugs that inhibit glutamate release (adenosine analogues, **lobeluzole**), drugs that enhance GABA effects (e.g. **chlormethiazole**), 5-HT antagonists, metal chelators and various free radical scavengers (e.g. **tirilazad**). Green et al. (2003) argued, reasonably enough, that the animal models in use failed to replicate the clinical situation, and urged the use of more rigorous experimental protocols to make animal models more predictive, but 5 years later (see Green, 2008) the success rate was still zero, and the prospect for proven neuroprotective agents in clinical use remains

bleak.[4] Controlled clinical trials on stroke patients are problematic and very expensive, partly because of the large variability of outcome in terms of functional recovery, which means that large groups of patients (typically thousands) need to be observed for several months. The need to start therapy within hours of the attack is an additional problem.

[4]Nevertheless, Besancon et al., 2008 retain their optimism that among the plethora of channels and transporters possessed by neurons and glia, there must be *something* that will prove to be a useful neuroprotective drug target.

Stroke treatment is certainly not—so far at least—one of pharmacology's success stories, and medical hopes rest more on prevention (e.g. by controlling blood pressure, taking aspirin and preventing atherosclerosis) than on treatment.

Stroke

• Associated with intracerebral thrombosis or haemorrhage (less common), resulting in rapid death of neurons by necrosis in the centre of the lesion, followed by more gradual (hours) degeneration of cells in penumbra due to excitotoxicity and inflammation.

• Spontaneous functional recovery occurs to a highly variable degree.

• Although many types of drug that interfere with excitotoxicity are able to reduce infarct size in experimental animals, none of these has so far proved efficacious in humans.

• Recombinant tissue plasminogen activator (**alteplase**), which disperses blood clots, is beneficial if it is given within 3 h.

• None of the many neuroprotective drugs that are effective in animal models is efficacious in the clinical trials.

Alzheimer's Disease

Loss of cognitive ability with age is considered to be a normal process whose rate and extent is very variable. AD was originally defined as presenile dementia, but it now appears that the same pathology underlies the dementia irrespective of the age of onset. AD refers to dementia that does not have an antecedent cause, such as stroke, brain trauma or alcohol. Its prevalence rises sharply with age, from about 5% at 65 to 90% or more at 95. Until recently, age-related dementia was considered to result from the steady loss of neurons that normally goes on throughout life, possibly accelerated by a failing blood supply associated with atherosclerosis. Studies over the past three decades have, however, revealed specific genetic and molecular mechanisms underlying AD (reviewed by Selkoe, 1997; Bossy-Wetzel et al., 2004). These advances have raised hopes of more effective treatments (see Yamada & Nabeshima, 2000), but success has proved elusive.

Pathogenesis of Alzheimer's Disease

Alzheimer's disease is associated with brain shrinkage and localised loss of neurons, mainly in the hippocampus and basal forebrain. The loss of cholinergic neurons in the hippocampus and frontal cortex is a feature of the disease, and is thought to underlie the cognitive deficit and loss of short-term memory that occur in AD. Two microscopic features are characteristic of the disease, namely extracellular *amyloid plaques*, consisting of amorphous extracellular deposits of β-amyloid protein (known as Aβ), and intraneuronal *neurofibrillary tangles*, comprising filaments of a phosphorylated form of a microtubule-associated protein (Tau). Both of these deposits are protein aggregates that result from misfolding of native proteins, as discussed above. They appear also in normal brains, although in smaller numbers. The early appearance of amyloid deposits presages the development of AD, although symptoms may not develop for many years. Altered processing of amyloid protein

from its precursor (*amyloid precursor protein,* APP; see Bossy-Wetzel et al., 2004) is now recognised as the key to the pathogenesis of AD. This conclusion is based on several lines of evidence, particularly the genetic analysis of certain, relatively rare, types of familial AD, in which mutations of the APP gene, or of other genes that control amyloid processing, have been discovered. The APP gene resides on chromosome 21, which is duplicated in Down's syndrome, in which early AD-like dementia occurs in association with overexpression of APP.

▼ Amyloid deposits consist of aggregates of Aβ (Fig. 39.3), a 40 or 42 residue segment of APP, generated by the action of specific proteases (*secretases*). Aβ40 is produced normally in small amounts, whereas Aβ42 is overproduced as a result of the genetic mutations mentioned above. Both proteins aggregate to form *amyloid plaques*, but Aβ42 shows a stronger tendency than Aβ40 to do so, and appears to be the main culprit in amyloid formation. APP is a 770-amino acid membrane protein normally expressed by many cells, including CNS neurons. Cleavage by α-secretase releases the large extracellular domain as *soluble APP*, which is believed to serve a physiological trophic function. Formation of Aβ involves cleavage at two different points, including one in the intramembrane domain of APP, by β-and γ-secretases (Fig. 39.3). γ-Secretase is a clumsy enzyme—actually a large intramembrane complex of several proteins—that lacks precision and cuts APP at different points in the transmembrane domain, generating Aβ fragments of different lengths, including Aβ40 and 42. Mutations in this region of the APP gene affect the preferred cleavage point, tending to favour formation of Aβ42. Mutations of the unrelated presenilin genes result in increased activity of γ-secretase, because the presenilin proteins form part of the γ-secretase complex. These different AD-related mutations increase the ratio of Aβ42:Aβ40, which can be detected in plasma,

serving as a marker for familial AD. Mutations in another gene, that for the lipid transport protein ApoE4 which facilitates the clearance of Aβ oligomers, also predispose to AD, probably because the mutant form of ApoE4 proteins are less effective in this function.

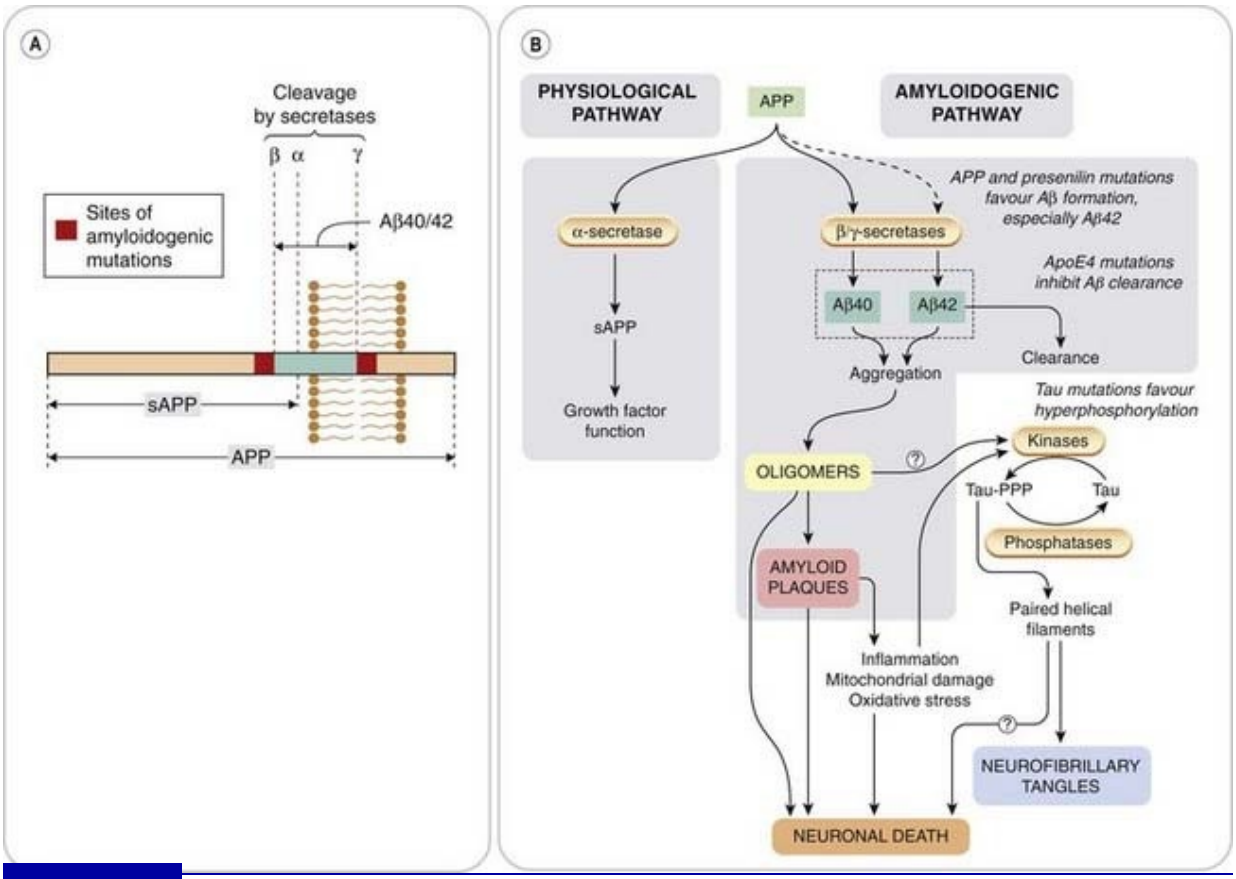


Fig. 39.3 Pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease.

[**A**] Structure of amyloid precursor protein (APP), showing origin of secreted APP (sAPP) and Aβ amyloid protein. The regions involved in amyloidogenic mutations discovered in some cases of familial Alzheimer's disease are shown flanking the Aβ sequence. APP cleavage involves three proteases: secretases α, β and γ. α-Secretase produces soluble APP, whereas β-and γ-secretases generate Aβ amyloid protein. γ-Secretase can cut at different points, generating Aβ peptides of varying lengths, including Aβ40 and Aβ42, the latter having a high tendency to aggregate as amyloid plaques. [**B**] Processing of APP. The main 'physiological' pathway gives rise to sAPP, which exerts a number of trophic functions. Cleavage of APP at different sites gives rise to Aβ, the predominant form normally being Aβ40, which is weakly amyloidogenic. Mutations in APP or presenilins increase the proportion of APP, which is degraded via the amyloidogenic pathway, and also increase the proportion converted to the much more strongly amyloidogenic form Aβ42. Clearance of Aβ is impaired by mutations in the *apoE4* gene.

Hyperphosphorylated Tau results in dissociation of Tau from microtubules, misfolding and aggregation to form paired helical filaments, which enhance Aβ toxicity.

It is uncertain exactly how Aβ accumulation causes neurodegeneration, and whether the damage is done by soluble Aβ monomers or oligomers or by amyloid plaques. There is evidence that the cells die by apoptosis, although an inflammatory response is also evident. Expression of Alzheimer mutations in transgenic animals (see Götz & Ittner, 2008) causes plaque formation and neurodegeneration, and also increases the susceptibility of CNS neurons to other challenges, such as ischaemia, excitotoxicity and oxidative stress, and this increased vulnerability may be the cause of the progressive neurodegeneration in AD. These transgenic models are of great value in testing potential drug therapies aimed at retarding the neurodegenerative process.

The other main player on the biochemical stage is *Tau*, the protein of which the neurofibrillary tangles are composed (Fig. 39.3). Their role in neurodegeneration is unclear, although similar 'tauopathies' occur in many neurodegenerative conditions (see Brunden et al., 2009; Hanger et al., 2009). Tau is a normal constituent of neurons, being associated with the intracellular microtubules that serve as tracks for transporting materials along nerve axons. In AD and other tauopathies, Tau is abnormally phosphorylated by the action of various kinases, and dissociates from microtubules to be deposited intracellularly as *paired helical filaments* with a characteristic microscopic appearance. When the cells die, these filaments aggregate as extracellular *neurofibrillary tangles*. Tau phosphorylation is enhanced by the presence of Aβ, possibly by activation of kinases. Conversely, hyperphosphorylated Tau favours the formation of amyloid deposits. Whether hyperphosphorylation and intracellular deposition of Tau directly harms the cell is not certain, although it is known that it impairs fast axonal transport, a process that

depends on microtubules.

Loss of cholinergic neurons

Although changes in many transmitter systems have been observed, mainly from measurements on postmortem AD brain tissue, a relatively selective loss of cholinergic neurons in the basal forebrain nuclei (Ch. 38) is characteristic. This discovery, made in 1976, implied that pharmacological approaches to restoring cholinergic function might be feasible, leading to the use of cholinesterase inhibitors to treat AD (see below).

Choline acetyl transferase activity, acetylcholine content, and acetylcholinesterase and choline transport in the cortex and hippocampus are all reduced considerably in AD but not in other disorders, such as depression or schizophrenia. Muscarinic receptor density, determined by binding studies, is not affected, but nicotinic receptors, particularly in the cortex, are reduced. The reason for the selective loss of cholinergic neurons resulting from Aβ formation is not known.

Alzheimer's disease

• Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a common age-related dementia distinct from vascular dementia associated with brain infarction.

• The main pathological features of AD comprise amyloid plaques, neurofibrillary tangles and a loss of neurons (particularly cholinergic neurons of the basal forebrain).

• Amyloid plaques consist of aggregates of the Aβ fragment of amyloid precursor protein (APP), a normal neuronal membrane protein, produced by the action of β-and γ-secretases. AD is associated with excessive Aβ formation, resulting in neurotoxicity.

• Familial AD (rare) results from mutations in the APP gene, or in presenilin genes (involved in γ-secretase function), both of which cause increased Aβ formation.

• Mutations in the lipoprotein ApoE4 increase the risk of developing AD, probably by interfering with Aβ clearance

• Neurofibrillary tangles comprise intracellular aggregates of a highly phosphorylated form of a normal neuronal protein (Tau). Hyperphosphorylated Tau and Aβ act synergistically to cause neurodegeneration.

• Loss of cholinergic neurons is believed to account for much of the learning and memory deficit in AD.

Therapeutic Approaches

Unravelling the mechanism of neurodegeneration in AD has yet to result in therapies able to retard it. Currently, cholinesterase inhibitors (see Ch. 13) and **memantine** (see above) are the only drugs approved for treating AD. Many other approaches have been explored, based on the amyloid hypothesis as well as other ideas for neuroprotection (see Citron, 2004; Spencer et al., 2007), so far without success in clinical trials. The Web site http://www.alzforum.org keeps track of ongoing trials.[5]

[5]The authors admit to disappointment that, despite intense research efforts, no new drugs worthy of mention have emerged since the last edition of this book.

Cholinesterase Inhibitors

Tacrine, the first drug approved for treating AD, was investigated on the basis that enhancement of cholinergic transmission might compensate for the cholinergic deficit. Trials showed modest improvements in tests of memory and cognition in about 40% of AD patients, but no

improvement in other functional measures that affect quality of life. Tacrine has to be given four times daily and produces cholinergic side effects such as nausea and abdominal cramps, as well as hepatotoxicity in some patients, so it is far from an ideal drug. Later compounds, which also have limited efficacy but are more effective than tacrine in improving quality of life, include **donepezil**, **rivastigmine** and **galantamine** (Table 39.2). These drugs produce a measurable, although slight, improvement of cognitive function in AD patients, but this may be too small to be significant in terms of everyday life.

Table 39.2 Cholinesterase inhibitors used in the treatment of Alzheimer's disease[a]

Drug	Type of inhibition	Duration of action and dosage	Main side effects	Notes
Tacrine	Affects both AChE and BuChE Not CNS selective	~6 h 2–3 times daily oral dosage	Cholinergic side effects (abdominal pain, nausea, diarrhoea), hepatotoxicity	The first anticholinesterase shown to be efficacious in AD Monitoring for hepatotoxicity needed
Donepezil	CNS, AChE selective	~24 h Once-daily oral dosage	Slight cholinergic side effects	—
Rivastigmine	CNS selective	~8 h Twice-daily oral dosage	Cholinergic side effects that tend to subside with continuing treatment	Gradual dose escalation to minimise side effects
Galantamine	Affects both AChE and BuChE Also enhances nicotinic ACh receptor activation by allosteric action	~8 h Twice-daily oral dosage	Slight cholinergic side effects	—

[a] Similar level of limited clinical benefit for all drugs. No clinical evidence for retardation of disease process, although animal tests suggest diminution of Aβ and plaque formation by a mechanism not related to cholinesterase inhibition.
AChE, acetylcholinesterase; BuChE, butyryl cholinesterase.

There is some evidence from laboratory studies that cholinesterase inhibitors may act somehow to reduce the formation or neurotoxicity of Aβ, and therefore retard the progression of AD as well as producing symptomatic benefit. Clinical trials, however, have shown only a small improvement in cognitive function, with no effect on disease progression.

Other drugs aimed at improving cholinergic function that are being investigated include other cholinesterase inhibitors and a variety of muscarinic and nicotinic receptor agonists, none of which looks promising on the basis of early clinical results.

Memantine

The other drug currently approved for the treatment of AD is **memantine**, an orally active antagonist at NMDA receptors, with weaker blocking actions on various other amine receptors. It was originally introduced as an antiviral drug, and resurrected as a potential inhibitor of excitotoxicity. It produces—surprisingly—a modest cognitive improvement in moderate or severe AD, but does not appear to be neuroprotective. It causes few side effects, and has a long plasma half-life.

Clinical use of drugs in dementia 

• Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors and NMDA antagonists detectably improve cognitive impairment in clinical trials but have significant adverse effects and are of limited use clinically. They have not been shown to retard neurodegeneration.

• Efficacy is monitored periodically in individual patients, and administration continued only if the drugs are believed to be working and their effect in slowing functional and behavioural deterioration is judged to outweigh adverse effects.

Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors

• **Donepezil**, **galantamine**, **rivastigmine**. Tacrine is also effective, but may cause liver damage. Unwanted cholinergic effects may be troublesome.

• Used in mild to moderate Alzheimer's disease.

NMDA receptor antagonists

• For example, **memantine** (see Ch. 37).

• Used in moderate to severe Alzheimer's disease.

Inhibiting neurodegeneration

▼ For most of the disorders discussed in this chapter, including AD, the Holy Grail, which so far eludes us, would be a drug that retards neurodegeneration. Now that we have several well-characterised targets, such as Aβ formation by the β-and γ-secretases, and Aβ neurotoxicity, together with a range of transgenic animal models of AD on which compounds can be tested, the prospects certainly look brighter than they did a decade ago. Particular developments are worth mentioning (see Selkoe & Schenk, 2003, and Citron, 2004, for more details).

Inhibitors of β-and γ-secretase have been identified and are undergoing clinical trials. Though they are effective in reducing Aβ formation, several have proved toxic to the immune system and gastrointestinal tract, and development has been halted.

Kinase inhibitors aimed at preventing Tau phosphorylation are also being investigated (see Brunden et al., 2009). The large number of phosphorylation sites and different kinases make this a difficult approach.

An ingenious new approach was taken by Schenk et al. (1999), who immunised AD transgenic mice with Aβ protein, and found that this not only prevented but also reversed plaque formation. Initial trials in humans had to be terminated because of neuroinflammatory complications, but monoclonal Aβ antibodies are undergoing clinical trials

Epidemiological studies reveal that some nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs (NSAIDs; see Ch. 26) used routinely to treat

arthritis reduce the likelihood of developing AD. **Ibuprofen** and **indometacin** have this effect, although other NSAIDs, such as **aspirin**, do not, nor do antiinflammatory steroids such as **prednisolone**. There is some evidence that certain NSAIDs may affect Aβ-induced neurotoxicity by mechanisms other than cyclo-oxygenase inhibition (see Weggen et al., 2007). Disappointingly, however, clinical trials with various NSAIDs have so far failed to show evidence of benefit.

Aβ plaques bind copper and zinc, and removal of these metal ions promotes dissolution of the plaques. The amoebicidal drug **clioquinol** is a metal-chelating agent that causes regression of amyloid deposits in animal models of AD, and showed some benefit in initial clinical trials. Clioquinol itself has known toxic effects in humans, which preclude its routine clinical use, but less toxic metal-chelating agents are under investigation.

Shortage of growth factors (particularly nerve growth factor) may contribute to the loss of forebrain cholinergic neurons in AD. Administering growth factors into the brain is not realistic for routine therapy, but alternative approaches, such as implanting cells engineered to secrete nerve growth factor, are under investigation.

Parkinson's Disease

Features of Parkinson's Disease

Parkinson's disease (see review by Schapira, 2009) is a progressive disorder of movement that occurs mainly in the elderly. The chief symptoms are:

- suppression of voluntary movements (*hypokinesia*), due partly to muscle rigidity and partly to an inherent inertia of the motor system, which means that motor activity is difficult to stop as well as to initiate

• tremor at rest, usually starting in the hands ('pill-rolling' tremor), which tends to diminish during voluntary activity

• muscle rigidity, detectable as an increased resistance in passive limb movement

• a variable degree of cognitive impairment.

Parkinsonian patients walk with a characteristic shuffling gait. They find it hard to start, and once in progress they cannot quickly stop or change direction. PD is commonly associated with dementia, depression and autonomic dysfunction, probably because the degenerative process is not confined to the basal ganglia but also affects other parts of the brain. In the later stages of the disease, the non-motor symptoms often predominate.

Parkinson's disease often occurs with no obvious underlying cause, but it may be the result of cerebral ischaemia, viral encephalitis or other types of pathological damage. The symptoms can also be drug induced, the main drugs involved being those that reduce the amount of dopamine in the brain (e.g. **reserpine**; see Ch. 14) or block dopamine receptors (e.g. antipsychotic drugs such as **chlorpromazine**; see Ch. 45). There are rare instances of familial early-onset PD, and several gene mutations have been identified, including those encoding *synuclein* and *parkin*. Study of these gene mutations has given some clues about the mechanism underlying the neurodegenerative process (see below).

Neurochemical changes

Parkinson's disease affects the basal ganglia, and its neurochemical origin was discovered in 1960 by Hornykiewicz, who showed that the dopamine content of the substantia nigra and corpus striatum (see Ch. 38) in postmortem brains of PD patients was extremely low (usually less

than 10% of normal), associated with a loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra and degeneration of nerve terminals in the striatum. Other monoamines, such as noradrenaline and 5-hydroxytryptamine, were much less affected than dopamine. Gradual loss of dopamine occurs over several years, with symptoms of PD appearing only when the striatal dopamine content has fallen to 20–40% of normal. Lesions of the nigrostriatal tract or chemically induced depletion of dopamine in experimental animals also produce symptoms of PD. The symptom most clearly related to dopamine deficiency is *hypokinesia*, which occurs immediately and invariably in lesioned animals. Rigidity and tremor involve more complex neurochemical disturbances of other transmitters (particularly acetylcholine, noradrenaline, 5-hydroxytryptamine and GABA) as well as dopamine. In experimental lesions, two secondary consequences follow damage to the nigrostriatal tract, namely a hyperactivity of the remaining dopaminergic neurons, which show an increased rate of transmitter turnover, and an increase in the number of dopamine receptors, which produces a state of denervation hypersensitivity (see Ch. 12). The striatum expresses mainly D_1 (excitatory) and D_2 (inhibitory) receptors (see Ch. 38), but fewer D_3 and D_4 receptors. A simplified diagram of the neuronal circuitry involved, and the pathways primarily affected in PD and Huntington's disease, is shown in Figure 39.4.

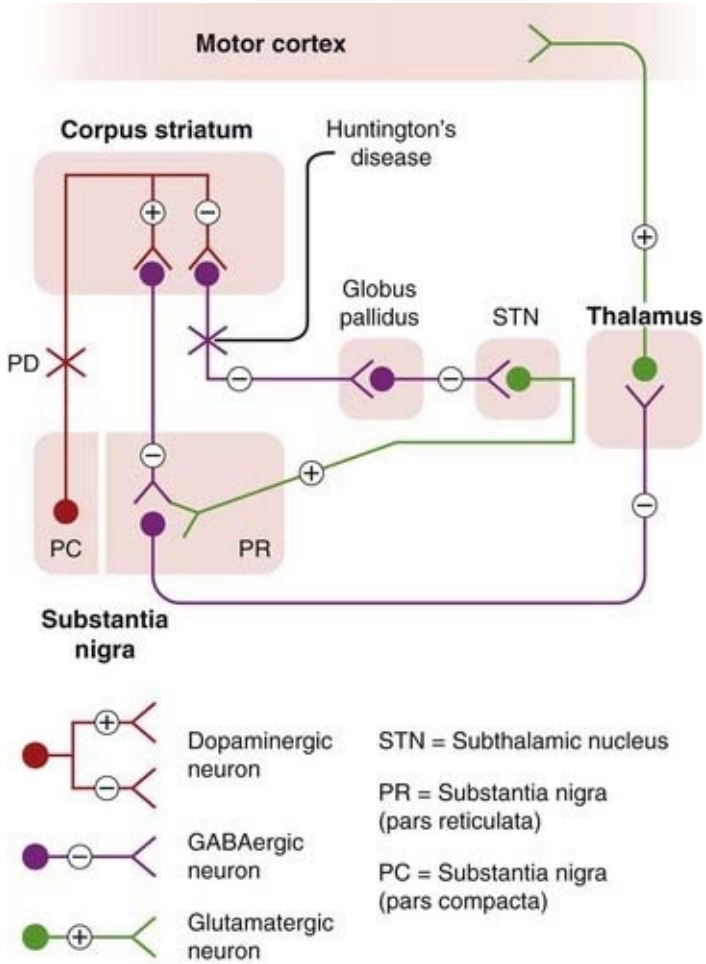


Fig. 39.4 Simplified diagram of the organisation of the extrapyramidal motor system and the defects that occur in Parkinson's disease (PD) and Huntington's disease.

Normally, activity in nigrostriatal dopamine neurons causes excitation of striatonigral neurons and inhibition of striatal neurons that project to the globus pallidus. In either case, because of the different pathways involved, the activity of GABAergic neurons in the substantia nigra is suppressed, releasing the restraint on the thalamus and cortex, causing motor stimulation. In PD, the dopaminergic pathway from the substantia nigra (pars compacta) to the striatum is impaired. In Huntington's disease, the GABAergic striatopallidal pathway is impaired, producing effects opposite to the changes in PD.

Cholinergic interneurons of the corpus striatum (not shown in Fig. 39.4) are also involved in PD and Huntington's disease. Acetylcholine release from the striatum is strongly inhibited by dopamine, and it is suggested that hyperactivity of these cholinergic neurons contributes to the symptoms of PD. The opposite happens in Huntington's disease, and

in both conditions therapies aimed at redressing the balance between the dopaminergic and cholinergic neurons are, up to a point, beneficial.

Pathogenesis of Parkinson's Disease

Parkinson's disease is believed to be caused mainly by environmental factors, although the rare types of hereditary PD have provided some valuable clues about the mechanism. As with other neurodegenerative disorders, the damage is caused by protein misfolding and aggregation, aided and abetted by other familiar villains, namely excitotoxicity, mitochondrial dysfunction, oxidative stress, inflammation and apoptosis (see Lotharius & Brundin, 2002; Schapira, 2009). Aspects of the pathogenesis and animal models of PD are described by Meredith et al. (2008).

Neurotoxins

New light was thrown on the possible aetiology of PD by a chance event. In 1982, a group of young drug addicts in California suddenly developed an exceptionally severe form of PD (known as the 'frozen addict' syndrome), and the cause was traced to the compound 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP), which was a contaminant in a preparation used as a heroin substitute (see Langston, 1985). MPTP causes irreversible destruction of nigrostriatal dopaminergic neurons in various species, and produces a PD-like state in primates. MPTP acts by being converted to a toxic metabolite, MPP^+, by the enzyme monoamine oxidase (MAO, specifically by the MAO-B subtype; see Chs 14 and 46). MPP^+ is taken up by the dopamine transport system, and thus acts selectively on dopaminergic neurons; it inhibits mitochondrial oxidation reactions, producing oxidative stress. MPTP appears to be selective in destroying nigrostriatal neurons and does not affect dopaminergic neurons elsewhere—the reason for this is unknown. **Selegiline**, a

selective MAO-B inhibitor, prevents MPTP-induced neurotoxicity by blocking its conversion to MPP^+. Selegiline is also used in treating PD (see below); as well as inhibiting dopamine breakdown, it might also work by blocking the metabolic activation of a putative endogenous, or environmental, MPTP-like substance, which is involved in the causation of PD. It is possible that dopamine itself could be the culprit, because oxidation of dopamine gives rise to potentially toxic metabolites. Whether or not the action of MPTP reflects the natural pathogenesis of PD, the MPTP model is a very useful experimental tool for testing possible therapies.

Impaired mitochondrial function is a feature of the disease in humans. Various herbicides, such as **rotenone**, that selectively inhibit mitochondrial function cause a PD-like syndrome in animals. PD in humans is more common in agricultural areas than in cities, suggesting that environmental toxins could be a factor in its causation.

Molecular aspects

▼ Parkinson's disease, as well as several other neurodegenerative disorders, is associated with the development of intracellular protein aggregates known as *Lewy bodies* in various parts of the brain. They consist largely of *α-synuclein*, a synaptic protein, present in large amounts in normal brains. Mutations occur in rare types of hereditary PD (see above), and it is believed that such mutations render the protein resistant to degradation within cells, causing it to pile up in Lewy bodies. It is possible (see Lotharius & Brundin, 2002) that the normal function of α-synuclein is related to synaptic vesicle recycling, and that the mutated form loses this functionality, with the result that vesicular storage of dopamine is impaired. This may lead to an increase in cytosolic dopamine, degradation of which produces reactive oxygen

species and hence neurotoxicity. Consistent with the α-synuclein hypothesis, another mutation associated with PD (*parkin*) also involves a protein that participates in the intracellular degradation of rogue proteins. Other gene mutations that have been identified as risk factors for early-onset PD code for proteins involved in mitochondrial function, making cells more susceptible to oxidative stress.

Thus, a picture similar to AD pathogenesis is slowly emerging. Misfolded α-synuclein, facilitated by genetic mutations or possibly by environmental factors, builds up in the cell as a result of impaired protein degradation (resulting from defective parkin) in the form of Lewy bodies, which, by unknown mechanisms, compromise cell survival. If oxidative stress is increased, as a result of ischaemia, mitochondrial poisons or mutations of certain mitochondrial proteins, the result is cell death.

Parkinson's disease

• Degenerative disease of the basal ganglia causing hypokinesia, tremor at rest and muscle rigidity, often with dementia and autonomic dysfunction.

• Associated with aggregation of α-synuclein (a protein normally involved in vesicle recycling) in the form of characteristic Lewy bodies.

• Often idiopathic but may follow stroke or virus infection; can be drug induced (antipsychotic drugs). Rare familial forms also occur, associated with various gene mutations, including α-synuclein.

• Associated with early degeneration of dopaminergic nigrostriatal neurons, followed by more general neurodegeneration.

• Can be induced by 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP), a neurotoxin affecting dopamine neurons. Similar environmental neurotoxins, as well as genetic factors,

may be involved in human Parkinson's disease.

Drug Treatment of Parkinson's Disease

Currently, the main drugs used (see Fig. 39.5) are:

- **levodopa** (often in combination with **carbidopa** and **entacopone**)
- dopamine agonists (e.g. **pramipexole**, **ropinirole**, **bromocriptine**)
- monoamine oxidase-B (MAO-B) inhibitors (e.g. **selegiline**, **rasagiline**).

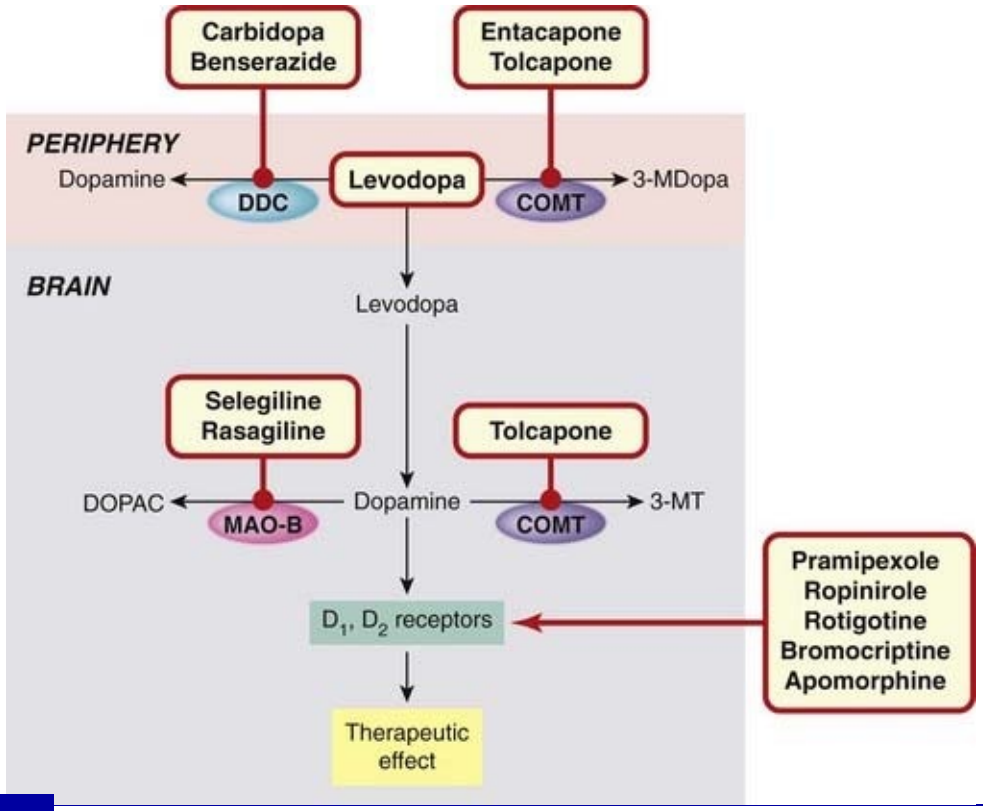


Fig. 39.5 Sites of action of drugs used to treat Parkinson's disease.

Levodopa enters the brain and is converted to dopamine (the deficient neurotransmitter). Inactivation of levodopa in the periphery is prevented by inhibitors of DDC and COMT. Inactivation in the brain is prevented by inhibitors of COMT and MAO-B. Dopamine agonists act directly on striatal dopamine receptors. 3-MDopa, 3-methoxydopa; 3-MT, 3-methoxytyrosine; COMT, catechol-*O*-methyl transferase; DDC, DOPA decarboxylase; DOPAC, dihydroxyphenylacetic acid; MAO-B, monoamine oxidase B.

Amantadine (thought to act by releasing dopamine), and muscarinic ACh receptor antagonists (e.g. **benztropine**) are occasionally used.

Despite past optimism, none of the drugs used to treat PD affects the progression of the disease. For general reviews of current and future approaches, see Olanow (2004) and Schapira (2009).

Levodopa

Levodopa is the first-line treatment for PD and is combined with a dopa decarboxylase inhibitor, either **carbidopa** or **benserazide**, which reduces the dose needed by about 10-fold and diminishes the peripheral side effects. It is well absorbed from the small intestine, a process that relies on active transport, although much of it is inactivated by MAO in the wall of the intestine. The plasma half-life is short (about 2 h). Conversion to dopamine in the periphery, which would otherwise account for about 95% of the levodopa dose and cause troublesome side effects, is largely prevented by the decarboxylase inhitor. Decarboxylation occurs rapidly within the brain, because the decarboxylase inhibitors do not penetrate the blood–brain barrier. It is not certain whether the effect depends on an increased release of dopamine from the few surviving dopaminergic neurons or on a 'flooding' of the synapse with dopamine formed elsewhere. Because synthetic dopamine agonists (see below) are equally effective, the latter explanation is more likely, and animal studies suggest that levodopa can act even when no dopaminergic nerve terminals are present. On the other hand, the therapeutic effectiveness of levodopa decreases as the disease advances, so part of its action may rely on the presence of functional dopaminergic neurons. Combination of levodopa plus dopa decarboxylase inhibitor with **entacapone**, a catechol-*O*-methyl transferase (COMT) inhibitor (see Ch. 14) to inhibit its degradation, is

used in patients troubled by ‘end of dose’ motor fluctuations.

Therapeutic effectiveness

About 80% of patients show initial improvement with levodopa, particularly of rigidity and hypokinesia, and about 20% are restored virtually to normal motor function. As time progresses, the effectiveness of levodopa gradually declines (Fig. 39.6). In a typical study of 100 patients treated with levodopa for 5 years, only 34 were better than they had been at the beginning of the trial, 32 patients having died and 21 having withdrawn from the trial. It is likely that the loss of effectiveness of levodopa mainly reflects the natural progression of the disease, but receptor downregulation and other compensatory mechanisms may also contribute. There is no evidence that levodopa can actually accelerate the neurodegenerative process through overproduction of dopamine, as was suspected on theoretical grounds (see above). Overall, levodopa increases the life expectancy of PD patients, probably as a result of improved motor function, although some symptoms (e.g. dysphagia, cognitive decline) are not improved.

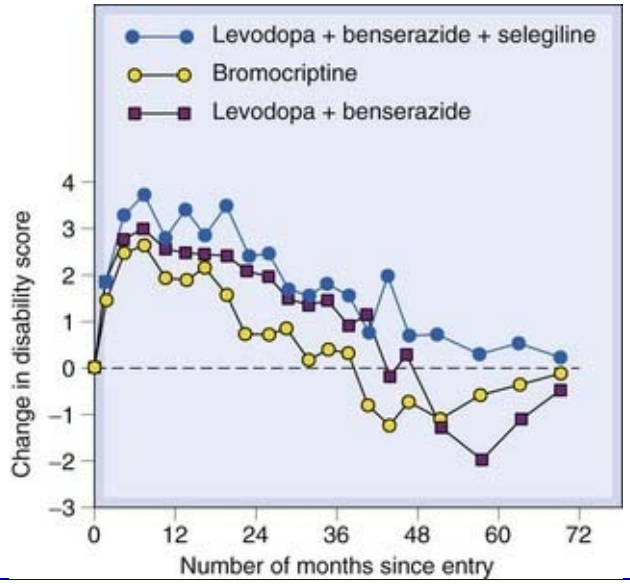


Fig. 39.6 Comparison of levodopa/benserazide, levodopa/benserazide/selegiline and

bromocriptine on progression of Parkinson's disease symptoms.

Patients (249–271 in each treatment group) were assessed on a standard disability rating score. Before treatment, the average rate of decline was 0.7 units/year. All three treatments produced improvement over the initial rating for 2–3 years, but the effect declined, either because of refractoriness to the drugs or disease progression. Bromocriptine appeared slightly less effective than levodopa regimens, and there was a higher drop-out rate due to side effects in this group.

(From Parkinson's Disease Research Group 1993 Br Med J 307: 469–472.)

Unwanted effects

There are two main types of unwanted effect:

1 Involuntary writhing movements (dyskinesia), which do not appear initially but develop in the majority of patients within 2 years of starting levodopa therapy. These movements usually affect the face and limbs, and can become very severe. They occur at the time of the peak therapeutic effect, and the margin between the beneficial and the dyskinetic effect becomes progressively narrower. Levodopa is short acting, and the fluctuating plasma concentration of the drug may favour the development of dyskinesias, as longer-acting dopamine agonists are less problematic in this regard.

2 Rapid fluctuations in clinical state, where hypokinesia and rigidity may suddenly worsen for anything from a few minutes to a few hours, and then improve again. This 'on–off effect' is not seen in untreated PD patients or with other anti-PD drugs. The 'off effect' can be so sudden that the patient stops while walking and feels rooted to the spot, or is unable to rise from a chair, having sat down normally a few moments earlier. As with the dyskinesias, the problem seems to reflect the fluctuating plasma concentration of levodopa, and it is suggested that as the disease advances, the ability of neurons to store dopamine is lost, so the therapeutic benefit of levodopa depends increasingly on the continuous formation of extraneuronal dopamine, which requires a

continuous supply of levodopa. The use of sustained-release preparations, or co-administration of COMT inhibitors such as entacapone (see above), may be used to counteract the fluctuations in plasma concentration of levodopa.

In addition to these slowly developing side effects, levodopa produces several acute effects, which are experienced by most patients at first but tend to disappear after a few weeks. The main ones are as follow:

• Nausea and anorexia. **Domperidone**, a dopamine antagonist that works in the chemoreceptor trigger zone (where the blood–brain barrier is leaky) but does not gain access to the basal ganglia, may be useful in preventing this effect.

• Hypotension. Postural hypotension is a problem in a few patients.

• Psychological effects. Levodopa, by increasing dopamine activity in the brain, can produce a schizophrenia-like syndrome (see Ch. 45) with delusions and hallucinations. More commonly, in about 20% of patients, it causes confusion, disorientation, insomnia or nightmares.

Dopamine Agonists

Two older drugs, **bromocriptine** and **pergolide**, are orally active ergot derivatives that act mainly on D_1 and D_2 receptors (see Ch. 38). Bromocriptine, which inhibits the release of prolactin from the anterior pituitary gland, was first introduced for the treatment of galactorrhoea and gynaecomastia (Ch. 32). Though effective in controlling the symptoms of PD, their usefulness is limited by side effects, mainly nausea and vomiting and somnolence. Pergolide is also believed to cause heart valve disease. These disadvantages have led to the replacement of these drugs by the non-ergot compounds **pramipexole** and **ropinirole**, which are $D_{2/3}$ selective and better tolerated, and do not show the

fluctuations in efficacy associated with levodopa. They do, however, cause somnolence and sometimes hallucinations and recent evidence suggests that they may predispose to compulsive behaviours, such as excessive gambling,[6] over-eating and sexual excess, related to the 'reward' functions of dopamine (see Ch. 48).

[6]In 2008, a plaintiff was awarded $8.2m damages by a US court, having become a compulsive gambler (and losing a lot of money) after taking pramipexole for PD—a side effect of which the pharmaceutical company had been aware.

A disadvantage of current dopamine agonists is their short plasma half-life (6–8 h), requiring three-times daily dosage, though slow-release once-daily formulations are now available.

Rotigotine is a newer agent, delivered as a transdermal patch, with similar efficacy and side effects.

Apomorphine, given by injection, is sometimes used to control the 'off effect' with levodopa. Because of its powerful emetic action, it must be combined with an oral antiemetic drug. It has other serious adverse effects (mood and behavioural changes, cardiac dysrhythmias, hypotension) and is a last resort if other drugs fail.

MAO-B Inhibitors

Selegiline is a selective MAO-B[7] inhibitor, which lacks the unwanted peripheral effects of non-selective MAO inhibitors used to treat depression (Ch. 46) and, in contrast to them, does not provoke the 'cheese reaction' or interact so frequently with other drugs. Inhibition of MAO-B protects dopamine from extraneuronal degradation and was initially used as an adjunct to levodopa. Long-term trials showed that the combination of selegiline and levodopa was more effective than levodopa alone in relieving symptoms and prolonging life. Recognition

of the role of MAO-B in neurotoxicity (see above) suggested that selegiline might be neuroprotective rather than merely enhancing the action of levodopa, but clinical studies do not support this. A large-scale trial (Fig. 39.6) showed no difference when selegiline was added to levodopa/benserazide treatment. Selegiline is metabolised to amphetamine, and sometimes causes excitement, anxiety and insomnia. **Rasagiline**, a very similar drug, does not have this unwanted effect, and a recent trial (Olanow et al., 2009) suggests that it may somewhat retard disease progression, as well alleviating symptoms.

[7]MAO-B in the brain is located mainly in glial cells, and also in 5-HT neurons (though, surprisingly, it does not appear to be expressed in dopamine neurons).

Other Drugs Used in Parkinson's Disease

Amantadine

▼ Amantadine was introduced as an antiviral drug and discovered by accident in 1969 to be beneficial in PD. Many possible mechanisms for its action have been suggested based on neurochemical evidence of increased dopamine release, inhibition of amine uptake or a direct action on dopamine receptors. Most authors now suggest, although not with much conviction, that increased dopamine release is primarily responsible for the clinical effects.

Amantadine is less effective than levodopa or bromocriptine, and its action declines with time. Its side effects are considerably less severe, although qualitatively similar to those of levodopa.

Acetylcholine antagonists

▼ For more than a century, until levodopa was discovered, atropine and related drugs were the main form of treatment for PD. Muscarinic

acetylcholine receptors exert an inhibitory effect on dopaminergic nerve terminals, suppression of which compensates for a lack of dopamine. The side effects of muscarinic antagonists—dry mouth, constipation, impaired vision, urinary retention—are troublesome, and they are now rarely used, except to treat parkinsonian symptoms in patients receiving antipsychotic drugs (which are dopamine antagonists and thus nullify the effect of L-dopa; see Ch. 45).

Drugs used in Parkinson's disease

• Drugs act by counteracting deficiency of dopamine in basal ganglia or by blocking muscarinic receptors. None of the available drugs affects the underlying neurodegeneration.

• Drugs include:

– **levodopa** (dopamine precursor; Ch. 14), given with an inhibitor of peripheral dopa decarboxylase (e.g. **carbidopa**) to minimise side effects; sometimes a catechol-*O*-methyl transferase inhibitor (e.g. **entacapone**) is also given, especially to patients with 'end of dose' motor fluctuations

– dopamine receptor agonists (**pramipexole**, **ropinirole**, **rotigotine**, **bromocriptine**). Rotigotine is available as a transdermal patch

– monoamine oxidase B inhibitors (**selegiline**, **rasagiline**)

– **amantadine** (which may enhance dopamine release)

– **benztropine** (muscarinic receptor antagonist used for parkinsonism caused by antipsychotic drugs).

• Neurotransplantation, still in an experimental phase, may be effective but results are variable, and slowly developing dyskinesias may occur.

Neural Transplantation and Brain Stimulation

▼ Parkinson's disease is the first neurodegenerative disease for which neural transplantation was attempted in 1982, amid much publicity.

Various transplantation approaches have been tried, based on the injection of dissociated fetal cells (neuroblasts) directly into the striatum. Trials in patients with PD (see Björklund & Lindvall, 2000; Barker & Rosser, 2001) have mainly involved injection of midbrain cells from aborted human fetuses. Such transplants have been shown to survive and establish functional dopaminergic connections, and to produce clinical benefit in many cases (see Lindvall & Kokaia, 2009). However, some patients have gone on to develop serious dyskinesias, possibly due to dopamine overproduction. It is not yet known whether the transplanted cells will prove vulnerable to the neurodegenerative process responsible for killing the resident dopaminergic neurons. The use of fetal material is, of course, fraught with difficulties (usually cells from five or more fetuses are needed for one transplant), and hopes for the future rest mainly on the possibility of developing stem cell transplants (see Lindvall & Kokaia, 2009).

Electrical stimulation of the subthalamic nuclei with implanted electrodes (which inhibits ongoing neural activity, equivalent to reversible ablation) is used in severe cases, and can improve motor dysfunction in PD, but does not improve cognitive and other symptoms (see Benabid et al., 2009).

Huntington's Disease

▼ Huntington's disease (HD) is an inherited (autosomal dominant) disorder resulting in progressive brain degeneration, starting in adulthood and causing rapid deterioration and death. As well as dementia, it causes severe motor symptoms in the form of involuntary writhing movements, which are highly disabling. It is the commonest of a group of so-called *trinucleotide repeat* neurodegenerative diseases, associated with the expansion of the number of repeats of the CAG

sequence in specific genes, and hence the number (50 or more) of consecutive glutamine residues at the N-terminal of the expressed protein (see Walker, 2007). The larger the number of repeats, the earlier the appearance of symptoms. The protein coded by the HD gene, *huntingtin*, which normally possesses a chain of fewer than 30 glutamine residues, is a soluble cytosolic protein of unknown function found in all cells. HD develops when the mutant protein contains 40 or more repeats. The long poly-Gln chains reduce the solubility of huntingtin, and favour the formation of aggregates, which are formed from proteolytic N-terminal fragments that include the poly-Gln region. As with AD and PD, aggregation is probably responsible for the neuronal loss, which affects mainly the cortex and the striatum, resulting in progressive dementia and severe involuntary jerky (choreiform) movements. Studies on postmortem brains showed that the dopamine content of the striatum was normal or slightly increased, while there was a 75% reduction in the activity of glutamic acid decarboxylase, the enzyme responsible for GABA synthesis (Ch. 37). It is believed that the loss of GABA-mediated inhibition in the basal ganglia produces a hyperactivity of dopaminergic synapses, so the syndrome is in some senses a mirror image of PD (Fig. 39.4). The effects of drugs that influence dopaminergic transmission are correspondingly the opposite of those that are observed in PD, dopamine antagonists being effective in reducing the involuntary movements, while drugs such as levodopa and bromocriptine make them worse. Drugs used to alleviate the motor symptoms include **tetrabenazine** (an inhibitor of the vesicular monoamine transporter (see Ch. 14) that reduces dopamine storage, dopamine antagonists such as **chlorpromazine** (Ch. 45) and the GABA agonist **baclofen** (Ch. 37). These do not affect dementia or retard the course of the disease, and it is possible that drugs that inhibit excitotoxicity, or possibly neural

transplantation procedures when these become available (see above), may prove useful.

Neurodegenerative Prion Diseases

▼ A group of human and animal diseases associated with a characteristic type of neurodegeneration, known as *spongiform encephalopathy* because of the vacuolated appearance of the affected brain, has recently been the focus of intense research activity (see Collinge, 2001; Prusiner, 2001). A key feature of these diseases is that they are transmissible through an infective agent, although not, in general, across species. The recent upsurge of interest has been spurred mainly by the discovery that the bovine form of the disease, bovine spongiform encephalopathy (BSE), is transmissible to humans. Different human forms of spongiform encephalopathy include Creutzfeld–Jacob disease (CJD) which is unrelated to BSE, and the new variant form (vCJD), which results from eating, or close contact with, infected beef or human tissue. Another human form is *kuru*, a neurodegenerative disease affecting cannibalistic tribes in Papua New Guinea. These diseases cause a progressive, and sometimes rapid, dementia and loss of motor coordination, for which no therapies currently exist. *Scrapie*, a common disease of domestic sheep, is another example, and it may have been the practice of feeding sheep offal to domestic cattle that initiated an epidemic of BSE in Britain during the 1980s, leading to the appearance of vCJD in humans in the mid-1990s. Although the BSE epidemic has been controlled, there is concern that more human cases may develop in its wake, because the incubation period—known to be long—is uncertain.

Prion diseases are examples of protein misfolding diseases (see above) in which the prion protein adopts a misfolded conformation that forms insoluble aggregates. The infectious agent responsible for transmissible

spongiform encephalopathies such as vCJD is, unusually, a protein, known as a prion. The protein involved (PrP^{C}) is a normal cytosolic constituent of the brain and other tissues, whose functions are not known. As a result of altered glycosylation, the protein can become misfolded, forming the insoluble PrP^{Sc} form, which has the ability to recruit normal PrP^{C} molecules to the misfolded PrP^{Sc}, thus starting a chain reaction. PrP^{Sc}—the infective agent—accumulates and aggregates as insoluble fibrils, and is responsible for the progressive neurodegeneration. In support of this unusual form of infectivity, it has been shown that injection of PrP^{Sc} into normal mice causes spongiform encephalopathy, whereas PrP knockout mice, which are otherwise fairly normal, are resistant because they lack the substrate for the autocatalytic generation of PrP^{Sc}. Fortunately, the infection does not easily cross between species, because there are differences between the *PrP* genes of different species. It is possible that a mutation of the *PrP* gene in either sheep or cattle produced the variant form that became infective in humans.

This chain of events bears some similarity to that of AD, in that the brain accumulates an abnormal form of a normally expressed protein.

There is as yet no known treatment for this type of encephalopathy, but laboratory experiments suggest that two very familiar drugs, namely **quinacrine** (an antimalarial drug) and **chlorpromazine** (a widely used antipsychotic drug; Ch. 45), can inhibit PrP^{Sc} aggregation in mouse models. Both are under investigation for treating human CJD. **Pentosan polyphosphate**, a glycosidic polymer that binds PrP and inhibits disease progression when give by intracerebroventricular injection in animal models, is also being tested in humans. Other possible strategies, none yet tested in patients, are discussed by Mallucci & Collinge (2005).

References and Further Reading

General mechanisms of neurodegeneration

arnham K.J., Masters C.L., Bush A.I. Neurodegenerative diseases and oxidative stress. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2004;3:205-214. (*Update on the oxidative stress model of neurodegeneration, including evidence based on various transgenic animal models*)

ossy-Wetzel E., Schwarzenbacher R., Lipton S.A. Molecular pathways to neurodegeneration. *Nat. Med.*. 2004;10(Suppl.):S2-S9. (*Review of molecular mechanisms underlying various chronic neurodegenerative diseases, including those discussed in the chapter*)

runden K., Trojanowski J.O., Lee V.M.-Y. Advances in Tau-focused drug discovery for Alzheimer's disease and related tauopathies. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2009;8:783-793. (*Good detailed review of the current status of Tau-directed drug discovery efforts, with a realistic assessment of the problems that have to be overcome*)

oyle J.T., Puttfarken P. Oxidative stress, glutamate and neurodegenerative disorders. *Science*. 1993;262:689-695. (*Good review article*)

orman M.S., Trojanowski J.G., Lee V.M.-Y. Neurodegenerative diseases: a decade of discoveries paves the way for therapeutic breakthroughs. *Nat. Med.*. 2004;10:1055-1063. (*General review on pathogenesis of neurodegenerative diseases—not much on therapeutic approaches, despite the title*)

ross C.G. Neurogenesis in the adult brain: death of a dogma. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2000;1:67-73.

anger D.P., Anderton B.H., Noble W. Tau phosphorylation: the therapeutic challenge for neurodegenerative disease. *Trends Mol. Med.*. 2009;15:112-119.

kouchi M., Ekshyyan O., Maracine M., Aw T.Y. Neuronal apoptosis in neurodegeneration. *Antioxid. Redox. Signal*. 2007;9:1059-1096. (*Detailed review describing the role of apoptosis, the factors that induce it and possible therapeutic strategies aimed at preventing it, in various neurodegenerative disorders*)

etrozzi L., Ricci G., Giglioli N.J., *et al.* Mitochondria and neurodegeneration. *Biosci. Rep.*. 2007;27:87-104. (*Summarises evidence for the involvement of mitochondrial dysfunction in several*

neurodegenerative diseases)

tefani M., Dobson C.M. Protein aggregation and aggregate toxicity: new insights into protein folding, misfolding diseases and biological evolution. *J. Mol. Med.*. 2003;81:678-699. (*Excellent review article on protein misfolding as the underlying cause of chronic neurodegenerative disease*)

amada K., Nabeshima T. Animal models of Alzheimer's disease and evaluation of anti-dementia drugs. *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2000;88:93-113. (*Describes pathology of AD, transgenic and other animal models, and therapeutic approaches*)

hao C., Deng W., Gage F.H. Mechanisms and functional implications of adult neurogenesis. *Cell.* 2008;132:645-660. (*Review by one of the pioneers in this controversial field. Neurogenesis probably contributes to learning, but evidence for involvement in neural repair is weak*)

Alzheimer's disease

itron M. Strategies for disease modification in Alzheimer's disease. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2004;5:677-685. (*A review—generally optimistic—of the status of new therapeutic strategies for treating AD*)

ötz J., Ittner L.M. Animal models of Alzheimer's disease and frontotemporal dementia. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2008;9:532-544. (*Detailed review focusing on transgenic models*)

akic P. Neurogenesis in the primate cortex: an evaluation of the evidence. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2002;3:65-71.

chenk D., Barbour R., Dunn W., *et al.* Immunization with amyloid-beta attenuates Alzheimer-disease-like pathology in the PDAPP mouse. *Nature*. 1999;400:173-177. (*Report of an ingenious experiment that could have implications for AD treatment in humans*)

chwab C., McGeer P.L. Inflammatory aspects of Alzheimer disease and other neurodegenerative disorders. *J. Alzheimer Dis.*. 2008;13:359-369. (*Discusses the role of inflammation in neurodegeneration and repair*)

elkoe D.J. Alzheimer's disease: genotypes, phenotype and treatments. *Science*. 1997;275:630-631. (*Short but informative summary of recent advances in Alzheimer genetics by one of the pioneers in*

identifying the amyloid hypothesis)

elkoe D.J. Cell biology of protein misfolding: the examples of Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases. *Nat. Cell Biol.*. 2004;6:1054-1061. (*Good review article*)

elkoe D.J., Schenk D. Alzheimer's disease: molecular understanding predicts amyloid-based therapeutics. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2003;43:545-584. (*Comprehensive review article*)

pencer B., Rockenstein E., Crews L., *et al.* Novel strategies for Alzheimer's disease treatment. *Exp. Opin. Biol. Ther.*. 2007;7:1853-1867. (*Focus on potential applications of gene therapy and other biological approaches*)

ownsend K.P., Pratico D. Novel therapeutic opportunities for Alzheimer's disease: focus on nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drugs. *FASEB J.*. 2005;19:1592-1601. (*Discussion of possible drug targets for treatment of AD, including animal studies and clinical trials data—largely negative, so far*)

/eggen S., Rogers M., Eriksen J. NSAIDs: small molecules for prevention of Alzheimer's disease or precursors for future drug development. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2007;28:536-543. (*Summarises data relating to effects of NSAIDs on AD and concludes that mechanisms other than cyclo-oxygenase inhibition may be relevant in the search for new anti-AD drugs*)

Parkinson's disease

arker R.A., Rosser A.E. Neural transplantation therapies for Parkinson's and Huntington's diseases. *Drug Discov. Today*. 2001;6:575-582. (*Informative and balanced review article on a controversial topic*)

enabid A.L., Chabardes S., Mitrofanis J., Pollak P. Deep brain stimulation of the subthalamic nucleus for the treatment of Parkinson's disease. *Lancet Neurol.*. 2009;8:67-81. (*Review of current status of brain stimulation techniques, which are increasing in use*)

jörklund A., Lindvall O. Cell replacement therapies for central nervous system disorders. *Nat. Neurosci.*. 2000;3:537-544. (*Upbeat review by pioneers in the field of neural transplantation*)

angston W.J. MPTP and Parkinson's disease. *Trends Neurosci.*. 1985;8:79-83. (*Readable account of the MPTP story by its discoverer*)

indvall O., Kokaia Z. Prospects of stem cell therapy for replacing dopamine neurons in Parkinson's disease. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2009;30:260-267. (*Suggests the way ahead for neurotransplantation for treating PD*)

ipton S.A., Rosenberg P.A. Excitatory amino acids as a final common pathway for neurologic disorders. *New Engl. J. Med.*. 1994;330:613-622. (*Review emphasising central role of glutamate in neurodegeneration*)

otharius J., Brundin P. Pathogenesis of Parkinson's disease: dopamine, vesicles and α-synuclein. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2002;3:833-842. (*Review of PD pathogenesis, emphasising the possible role of dopamine itself as a likely source of neurotoxic metabolites*)

leredith G.E., Sonsalla P.K., Chesselet M.-F. Animal models of Parkinson's disease progression. *Acta. Neuropath.* 2008;115:185-398. (*Useful review of animal models of PD*)

lanow C.W. The scientific basis for the current treatment of Parkinson's disease. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 2004;55:41-60. (*Detailed review of current PD therapeutics, based on knowledge of pathophysiology*)

lanow C.W., Rascol O., Hauser R., *et al.* A double-blind, delayed-start trial of rasagiline in Parkinson's disease. *New Engl. J. Med.*. 2009;139:1268-1278. (*Well-conducted trial showing that rasagiline can significantly retard disease progression in patients with early PD*)

chapira A.H.V. Neurobiology and treatment of Parkinson's disease. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2009;30:41-47. (*Short review of pathophysiology and treatment of PD, including summary of recent trials*)

Stroke

esancon E., Guo S., Lok J., Tymianski M., Lo E.H. Beyond NMDA and AMPA glutamate receptors: emerging mechanisms for ionic imbalance and cell death in stroke. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2008;29:268-275. (*Further elaboration of the excitotoxicity model described in this chapter*)

irnagl U., Iadecola C., Moskowitz M.A. Pathobiology of ischaemic stroke: an integrated view. *Trends Neurosci.*. 1999;22:391-397. (*Useful review of mechanisms underlying neuronal damage in stroke*)

reen A.R. Pharmacological approaches to acute ischaemic stroke: reperfusion certainly, neuroprotection possibly. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;153(Suppl. 1):S325-S338. (*Update on efforts —largely unsuccessful so far—to develop neuroprotective agents*)

reen A.R., Odergren T., Ashwood T. Animal models of stroke: do they have value for discovering neuroprotective agents? *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2003;24:402-408. (*Article suggesting reasons why drug efficacy in animal models does not predict success in the clinic*)

Huntington's disease

/alker F.O. Huntington's disease. *Lancet.* 2007;369:218-228. (*General review of genetics, pathogenesis and treatment of HD*)

Prion diseases

ollinge J. Prion diseases of humans and animals: their causes and molecular basis. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2001;24:519-550. (*Useful review article*)

Iallucci G., Collinge J. Rational targeting for prion therapeutics. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2005;6:23-34. (*Realistic review of possible approaches to treating prion diseases; a very difficult problem with nothing really in sight yet*)

rusiner S.B. Neurodegenerative disease and prions. *New Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;344:1544-1551. (*General review article by the discoverer of prions*)

40

General anaesthetic agents

Overview

General anaesthetics are used to render patients unaware of, and unresponsive to, painful stimulation during surgical procedures. They are given systemically and exert their main effects on the central nervous system (CNS), in contrast to local anaesthetics (Ch. 42). Although we now take them for granted, general anaesthetics are the drugs that paved the way for modern surgery. Without them, much of modern medicine would be impossible.

In this chapter, we describe the pharmacology of the main agents in current use, which fall into two main groups: intravenous agents and inhalation agents (gases and volatile liquids). Detailed information on the clinical pharmacology and use of anaesthetic agents can be found in specialised textbooks (e.g. Aitkinhead et al., 2006).

Introduction

It was only when inhalation anaesthetics were first discovered, in 1846, that most surgical operations became a practical possibility. Until that time, surgeons relied on being able to operate on struggling patients at lightning speed, and most operations were amputations.

▼ The use of **nitrous oxide** to relieve the pain of surgery was suggested by Humphrey Davy in 1800. He was the first person to make nitrous oxide, and he tested its effects on several people, including

himself and the Prime Minister, noting that it caused euphoria, analgesia and loss of consciousness. The use of nitrous oxide, billed as ‘laughing gas’, became a popular fairground entertainment and came to the notice of an American dentist, Horace Wells, who had a tooth extracted under its influence, while he himself squeezed the inhalation bag. Ether also first gained publicity in a disreputable way, through the spread of ‘ether frolics’, at which it was used to produce euphoria among the guests. William Morton, also a dentist and a student at Harvard Medical School, used it successfully to extract a tooth in 1846 and then suggested to Warren, the illustrious chief surgeon at Massachusetts General Hospital, that he should administer it for one of Warren’s operations. Warren grudgingly agreed, and on 16 October 1846 a large audience was gathered in the main operating theatre;[1] after some preliminary fumbling, Morton’s demonstration was a spectacular success. ‘Gentlemen, this is no humbug’, was the most gracious comment that Warren could bring himself to make to the assembled audience.

[1]Now preserved as the Ether Dome, a museum piece at Massachusetts General Hospital.

In the same year, James Simpson, Professor of Midwifery at Edinburgh University, used chloroform to relieve the pain of childbirth, bringing on himself fierce denunciation from the clergy, one of whom wrote:

‘Chloroform is a decoy of Satan, apparently offering itself to bless women; but in the end it will harden society and rob God of the deep, earnest cries which arise in time of trouble, for help.’

Opposition was effectively silenced in 1853, when Queen Victoria gave birth to her seventh child under the influence of chloroform, and the procedure became known as *anaesthésie à la reine*.

Mechanism of Action of Anaesthetic Drugs

Unlike most drugs, anaesthetics, which include substances as diverse as simple gases (e.g. **nitrous oxide** and **xenon**), halogenated hydrocarbons (e.g. **isoflurane**), barbiturates (e.g. **thiopental**) and steroids (e.g. **alphaxalone**), belong to no recognisable chemical class. At one time it appeared that the shape and electronic configuration of the molecule were relatively unimportant, and the pharmacological action required only that the molecule had certain physicochemical properties. We now know much more about how different anaesthetics interact with neuronal membrane proteins and have come to realise that there are multiple mechanisms by which anaesthesia can be produced and that different anaesthetics work by different mechanisms.

As the concentration of an anaesthetic is increased, the switch from being conscious to unconscious occurs over a very narrow concentration range (approximately 0.2 of a log unit). This is a much steeper concentration–response curve than that seen with drugs that interact as agonists or antagonists at classical receptors (see Ch. 2).

Lipid Solubility

Overton and Meyer, at the turn of the 20th century, showed a close correlation between anaesthetic potency and lipid solubility in a diverse group of simple and unreactive organic compounds that were tested for their ability to immobilise tadpoles. This led to a bold theory, formulated by Meyer in 1937: 'Narcosis commences when any chemically indifferent substance has attained a certain molar concentration in the lipids of the cell.'

The relationship between anaesthetic activity and lipid solubility has been repeatedly confirmed. Anaesthetic potency in humans is usually expressed as the minimal alveolar concentration (MAC) required to abolish the response to surgical incision in 50% of subjects. Figure 40.1

shows the correlation between MAC (inversely proportional to potency) and lipid solubility, expressed as oil:water partition coefficient, for a wide range of inhalation anaesthetics. The Overton–Meyer studies did not suggest any particular mechanism, but revealed an impressive correlation, for which any theory of anaesthesia needs to account. Oil:water partition was assumed to predict partition into membrane lipids, consistent with the suggestion that anaesthesia results from an alteration of membrane function.

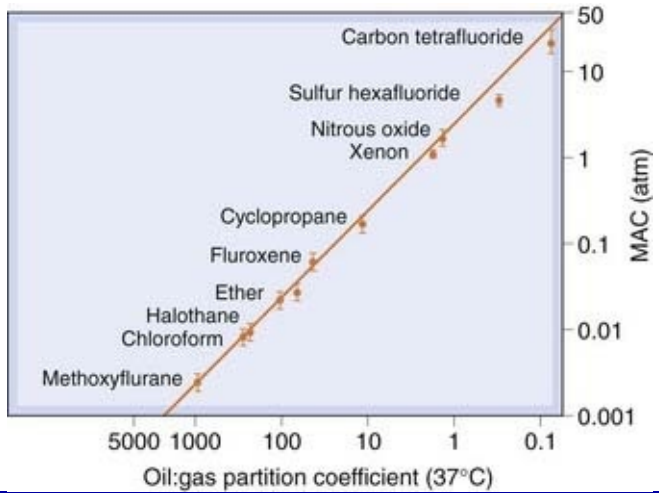


Fig. 40.1 Correlation of anaesthetic potency with oil:gas partition coefficient.

Anaesthetic potency in humans is expressed as minimum alveolar partial pressure (MAC) required to produce surgical anaesthesia. There is a close correlation with lipid solubility, expressed as the oil:gas partition coefficient.

(From: Halsey, 1989.)

How the simple introduction of inert foreign molecules into the lipid bilayer could cause a functional disturbance was not explained. Two possible mechanisms, namely volume expansion and increased membrane fluidity, have been suggested and tested experimentally, but both are now largely discredited (see Halsey, 1989; Little, 1996), and attention has swung from lipids to proteins, the correlation of potency with lipid solubility being explained by molecules of anaesthetic binding

to hydrophobic pockets within specific membrane protein targets.

Effects on ION Channels

Following early studies that showed that anaesthetics can bind to various proteins as well as lipids, it was found that anaesthetics affect several different types of ion channels (see Rudolph & Antkowiak, 2004; Franks, 2008). For most anaesthetics, there are no known competitive antagonists, so this approach to identify sites of action is denied. Therefore the main criterion for identifying putative mechanisms of action of general anaesthetics is that, for an effect to be relevant to the anaesthetic or analgesic actions of these agents, it must occur at therapeutically relevant concentrations.

$GABA_A$ receptors.

Almost all anaesthetics (with the exceptions of **cyclopropane**, **ketamine** and **xenon**) potentiate the action of GABA at the $GABA_A$ receptor. As described in detail in Chapter 37, $GABA_A$ receptors are ligand-gated Cl^- channels made up of five subunits (generally comprising two α, two β and one γ or δ subunit). Anaesthetics can bind to hydrophobic pockets within different $GABA_A$ receptor subunits (see Fig. 40.2).

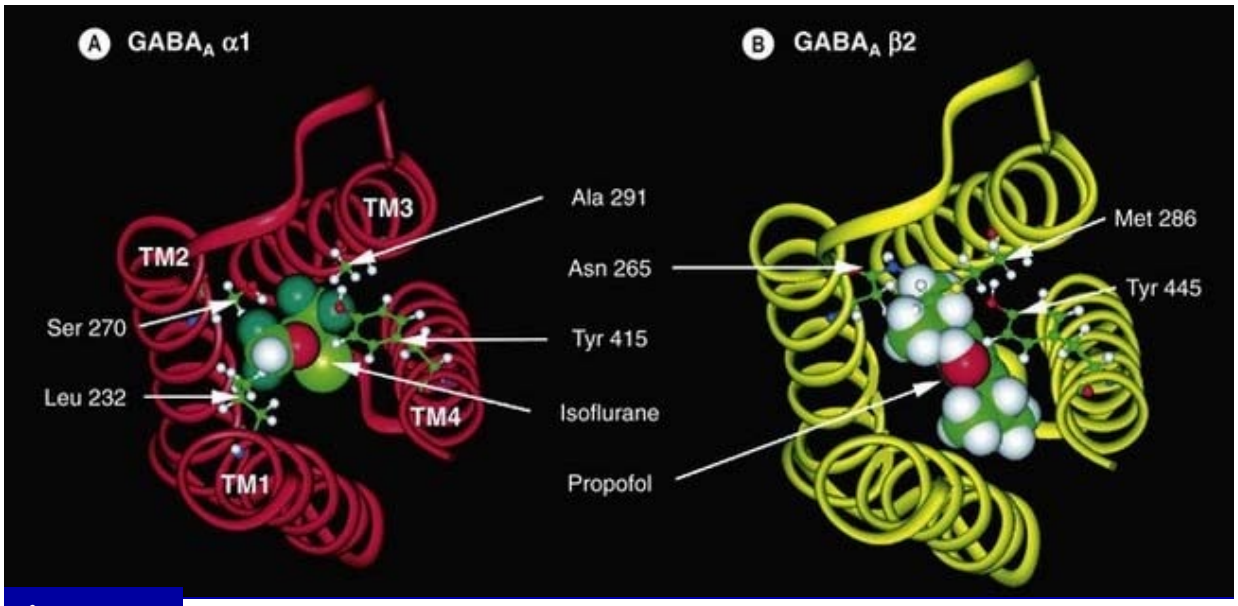


Fig. 40.2 Putative anaesthetic binding sites on GABA$_A$ receptor subunits.

[**A**] A model of the α1 subunit of the GABA$_A$ receptor with the amino acids that form the binding site (Leu 232, Ser 270, Ala 291 and Tyr 415) illustrated in ball-and-stick mode. A molecule of isoflurane is shown sitting in the putative binding site. The transmembrane α-helices (TM) are numbered 1–4. [**B**] A model of the β2 subunit of the GABA$_A$ receptor with Asn 265, Met 286 and Tyr 445 illustrated in ball-and-stick mode. A molecule of propofol is shown sitting in the putative binding site.

(Reproduced with permission from Hemmings H C et al. 2005 Trends Pharmacol Sci 26: 503–510.)

Specific mutations of the amino acid sequence of the α subunit inhibit the actions of volatile anaesthetics but not those of intravenous anaesthetics, whereas mutations of the β subunit inhibit both volatile and intravenous anaesthetics (see Franks, 2008). This suggest that volatile anaesthetics may bind at the interface between α and β subunits (analogous to benzodiazepines that bind at the interface between α and γ/δ subunits, see Ch. 37), whereas the intravenous anaesthetics bind only on the β subunit. A further level of complexity arises because there are different subtypes of each subunit (see Ch. 37). Different subunit compositions give rise to subtly different subtypes of GABA$_A$ receptor. It has recently been shown that the GABA$_A$ receptors clustered at the

synapse have different pharmacological and kinetic properties from those that are distributed elsewhere across the cell (extrasynaptic receptors; see Ch. 4). Anaesthetics appear to have a greater potentiating effect on these extrasynaptic $GABA_A$ receptors.

Two-pore domain K^+ channels.

These belong to a family of 'background' K^+ channels that modulate neuronal excitability. They are homomeric or heteromeric assemblies of a family of structurally related subunits (see Ch. 4 and Bayliss & Barrett, 2008). Channels made up of TREK1, TREK2, TASK1, TASK3 or TRESK subunits can be directly activated by low concentrations of volatile and gaseous anaesthetics, thus reducing membrane excitability (see Franks, 2008). This may contribute to the analgesic, hypnotic and immobilising effects of these agents. Two-pore domain K^+ channels do not appear to be affected by intravenous anaesthetics.

NMDA receptors.

Glutamate, the major excitatory neurotransmitter in the CNS, activates three main classes of ionotropic receptor—AMPA, kainate and NMDA receptors (see Ch. 37). NMDA receptors are an important site of action for anaesthetics such as **nitrous oxide**, **xenon** and **ketamine** which act, in different ways, to reduce NMDA receptor-mediated responses. Xenon appears to inhibit NMDA receptors by competing with glycine for its regulatory site on this receptor whereas ketamine blocks the pore of the channel (see Ch. 37). Other inhalation anaesthetics may also exert effects on the NMDA receptor in addition to their effects on other proteins such as the $GABA_A$ receptor.

Other ion channels.

Anaesthetics may also exert actions at other neuronal ligand-gated

channels including glycine, nicotinic and 5-hydroxytryptamine receptors as well as at cyclic nucleotide-gated K^+ channels. Some general anaesthetics inhibit certain subtypes of voltage-gated Na^+ channels. Inhibition of presynaptic Na^+ channels may give rise to the inhibition of transmitter release at excitatory synapses. For further reading, see Hemmings et al. (2005) and Franks (2008).

It may be overly simplistic to think of each anaesthetic as having only one mechanism of action: as Little (1996) emphasises, individual anaesthetics differ in their actions and affect cellular function in several different ways, so a single mechanism is unlikely to be sufficient.

Comprehensive reviews of the molecular and cellular actions of general anaesthetics can be found in Schüttler & Schwilden, 2008.

Theories of anaesthesia

- Many simple, unreactive compounds produce general anaesthesia, the extreme example being the inert gas xenon.
- Anaesthetic potency is closely correlated with lipid solubility (Overton–Meyer correlation), not with chemical structure.
- Earlier theories of anaesthesia postulated interaction with the lipid membrane bilayer. Recent work favours interaction with membrane ion channels.
- Most anaesthetics enhance the activity of inhibitory $GABA_A$ receptors. Other important effects are the activation of a subfamily of potassium channels (the two-pore domain K^+ channels) and inhibition of excitatory NMDA receptors.

Effects on the Nervous System

At the cellular level, the effects of anaesthetics are to enhance tonic inhibition (through enhancing the actions of GABA), reduce excitation

(opening K^+ channels) and to inhibit excitatory synaptic transmission (by depressing transmitter release and inhibiting ligand-gated ion channels). Effects on axonal conduction are relatively unimportant.

The anaesthetised state comprises several components, including *unconsciousness*, loss of reflexes (*muscle relaxation*) and *analgesia*. Much effort has gone into identifying the brain regions on which anaesthetics act to produce these effects. The most sensitive regions appear to be the midbrain reticular formation, thalamic sensory relay nuclei and, to a lesser extent, parts of the cortex. Inhibition of these regions results in unconsciousness and analgesia. Some anaesthetics—particularly volatile anaesthetics—cause inhibition at the spinal level, producing a loss of reflex responses to painful stimuli, although, in practice, neuromuscular-blocking drugs (Ch. 13) are used as an adjunct to produce muscle relaxation rather than relying on the anaesthetic alone. Anaesthetics, even in low concentrations, cause short-term amnesia. It is likely that interference with hippocampal function produces this effect, because the hippocampus is involved in short-term memory, and certain hippocampal synapses are highly susceptible to inhibition by anaesthetics.

As the anaesthetic concentration is increased, all brain functions are progressively affected, including motor control and reflex activity, respiration and autonomic regulation. Therefore it is not possible to identify a critical ‘target site’ in the brain responsible for all the phenomena of anaesthesia.

High concentrations of any general anaesthetic affect all parts of the CNS, causing profound inhibition which, in the absence of artificial respiration, leads to death from respiratory failure. The margin between surgical anaesthesia and potentially fatal respiratory and circulatory depression is quite narrow, requiring careful monitoring by the

anaesthetist and adjustment of the level of anaesthesia.

Effects on the Cardiovascular and Respiratory Systems

Most anaesthetics decrease cardiac contractility, but their effects on cardiac output and blood pressure vary because of concomitant actions on the sympathetic nervous system and vascular smooth muscle. **Isoflurane** and other halogenated anaesthetics inhibit sympathetic outflow, reduce arterial and venous tone and thus decrease arterial pressure and venous pressure. By contrast, **nitrous oxide** and **ketamine** increase sympathetic discharge and plasma noradrenaline concentration and, if used alone, increase heart rate and maintain blood pressure.

Many anaesthetics, especially **halothane**, cause ventricular extrasystoles. The mechanism involves sensitisation to adrenaline. Electrocardiogram monitoring shows that extrasystolic beats occur commonly in patients under anaesthesia, with no harm coming to the patient. If catecholamine secretion is excessive, however (*par excellence* in phaeochromocytoma; see Ch. 14), there is a risk of precipitating ventricular fibrillation.

With the exception of nitrous oxide, ketamine and xenon, all anaesthetics depress respiration markedly and increase arterial P_{CO_2}. Nitrous oxide has much less effect, in part because its low potency prevents very deep anaesthesia from being produced with this drug. Some inhalation anaesthetics are pungent, particularly **desflurane** which is liable to cause coughing, laryngospasm and bronchospasm, so desflurane is not used for induction of anaesthesia but only for maintenance.

Pharmacological effects of anaesthetic agents 

- Anaesthesia involves three main neurophysiological changes: unconsciousness, loss of

response to painful stimulation and loss of reflexes (motor and autonomic).

• At supra-anaesthetic doses, all anaesthetic agents can cause death by loss of cardiovascular reflexes and respiratory paralysis.

• At the cellular level, anaesthetic agents affect synaptic transmission and neuronal excitability rather than axonal conduction. GABA-mediated inhibitory transmission is enhanced by most anaesthetics. The release of excitatory transmitters and the response of the postsynaptic receptors are also inhibited.

• Although all parts of the nervous system are affected by anaesthetic agents, the main targets appear to be the cortex, thalamus, hippocampus, midbrain reticular formation and spinal cord.

• Most anaesthetic agents (with the exception of **ketamine**, **nitrous oxide** and **xenon**) produce similar neurophysiological effects and differ mainly in respect of their pharmacokinetic properties and toxicity.

• Most anaesthetic agents cause cardiovascular depression by effects on the myocardium and blood vessels, as well as on the nervous system. Halogenated anaesthetic agents are likely to cause cardiac dysrhythmias, accentuated by circulating catecholamines.

Intravenous Anaesthetic Agents

Even the fastest-acting inhalation anaesthetics, such as nitrous oxide, take a few minutes to act and cause a period of excitement before anaesthesia is induced. Intravenous anaesthetics act more rapidly, producing unconsciousness in about 20 s, as soon as the drug reaches the brain from its site of injection. These drugs (e.g. **propofol**, **thiopental** and **etomidate**) are normally used for induction of anaesthesia. They are preferred by many patients because injection generally lacks the menacing quality associated with a face mask in an apprehensive individual. With propofol, recovery is also fast due to rapid metabolism.

Although many intravenous anaesthetics are not suitable for maintaining anaesthesia because their elimination from the body is relatively slow compared with that of inhalation agents, propofol can be used as a continuous infusion, and the duration of action of ketamine is sufficient that it can be used as a single bolus for short operations without the need for an inhalation agent.

The properties of the main intravenous anaesthetics are summarised in Table 40.1.[2]

Table 40.1 Properties of intravenous anaesthetic agents

Drug	Speed of induction and recovery	Main unwanted effect(s)	Notes
Propofol	Fast onset, very fast recovery	Cardiovascular and respiratory depression	Rapidly metabolised Possible to use as continuous infusion Causes pain at injection site
Thiopental	Fast (accumulation occurs, giving slow recovery) 'Hangover'	Cardiovascular and respiratory depression	Largely replaced by propofol Causes pain at injection site Risk of precipitating porphyria in susceptible patients
Etomidate	Fast onset, fairly fast recovery	Excitatory effects during induction and recovery Adrenocortical suppression	Less cardiovascular and respiratory depression than with thiopental Causes pain at injection site
Ketamine	Slow onset, after effects common during recovery	Psychotomimetic effects following recovery Postoperative nausea, vomiting and salivation Raised intracranial pressure	Produces good analgesia and amnesia
Midazolam	Slower than other agents	—	Little respiratory or cardiovascular depression

[2]**Propanidid** and **alphaxalone** were withdrawn because of allergic reactions including hypotension and bronchoconstriction—probably attributable to the solvent Cremophor—but a new formulation of alphaxalone has been reintroduced to veterinary medicine and is thought to be less allergenic.

Propofol

Propofol, introduced in 1983, has now largely replaced thiopental as an induction agent. It has a rapid onset of action (approximately 30 s) and

rapid rate of distribution ($t_{1/2}$ 2–4 min). It has the advantage over thiopental of being very rapidly metabolised to inactive conjugates and quinols; therefore giving rapid recovery with less hangover effect. It has a cardiovascular depressant effect that may lead to hypotension and bradycardia. Respiratory depression and pain with injection may also occur. Propofol has less tendency to cause involuntary movement and adrenocortical suppression seen with etomidate. It is particularly useful for day-case surgery especially as its use is associated with less nausea and vomiting when compared with inhalation anaesthetics.

Propofol can also be given as a continuous infusion to maintain surgical anaesthesia without the need for any inhalation agent. However, there have been reports of a propofol infusion syndrome occurring in approximately 1 in 300 patients when high doses have been given for a prolonged period, particularly to sick patients—especially children—in intensive care units. This is characterised by severe metabolic acidosis, skeletal muscle necrosis (rhabdomyolysis), hyperkalaemia, lipaemia, hepatomegaly, renal failure, arrhythmia and cardiovascular collapse.

Thiopental

Thiopental is the only remaining barbiturate in common use as an anaesthetic. It has very high lipid solubility, and this accounts for the speed of onset and transience of its effect when it is injected intravenously. The free acid is insoluble in water, so thiopental is given as the sodium salt. On intravenous injection, thiopental causes unconsciousness within about 20 s, lasting for 5–10 min. The anaesthetic effect closely parallels the concentration of thiopental in the blood reaching the brain, because its high lipid solubility allows it to cross the blood–brain barrier without noticeable delay.

The blood concentration of thiopental declines rapidly, by about 80%

within 1–2 min, following the initial peak after intravenous injection, because the drug is redistributed, first to tissues with a large blood flow (liver, kidneys, brain, etc.) and more slowly to muscle. Uptake into body fat, although favoured by the high lipid solubility of thiopental, occurs only slowly, because of the low blood flow to this tissue. After several hours, however, most of the thiopental present in the body will have accumulated in body fat, the rest having been metabolised. Recovery from the anaesthetic effect of a bolus dose occurs within about 5 min, governed entirely by redistribution of the drug to well-perfused tissues; very little is metabolised in this time. After the initial rapid decline, the blood concentration drops more slowly, over several hours, as the drug is taken up by body fat and metabolised. Consequently, thiopental produces a long-lasting hangover. Repeated intravenous doses cause progressively longer periods of anaesthesia, because the plateau in blood concentration becomes progressively more elevated as more drug accumulates in the body. For this reason, thiopental is not used to maintain surgical anaesthesia but only as an induction agent.

Thiopental binds to plasma albumin (roughly 85% of the blood content normally being bound). The fraction bound is less in states of malnutrition, liver disease or renal disease, which affect the concentration and drug-binding properties of plasma albumin, and this can appreciably reduce the dose needed for induction of anaesthesia.

Accidental injection of intravenous thiopental—a strongly alkaline solution—around rather than into the vein, or into an artery, can cause pain, local tissue necrosis and ulceration or severe arterial spasm that can result in gangrene. If the injection is into an artery then immediate injection of **procaine**, through the same needle, is the recommended procedure to encourage vasodilatation.

The actions of thiopental on the nervous system are very similar to

those of inhalation anaesthetics, although it has little analgesic effect and can cause profound respiratory depression even in amounts that fail to abolish reflex responses to painful stimuli. Its long after-effect, associated with a slowly declining plasma concentration, means that drowsiness and some degree of respiratory depression persist for some hours.

Etomidate

Etomidate has gained favour over thiopental on account of the larger margin between the anaesthetic dose and the dose needed to produce cardiovascular depression. It is more rapidly metabolised than thiopental, and thus less likely to cause a prolonged hangover. It causes less hypotension than propofol or thiopental. In other respects, etomidate is very similar to thiopental, although it appears more likely to cause involuntary movements during induction, postoperative nausea and vomiting, and pain at the injection site. Etomidate, particularly with prolonged infusion, suppresses the production of adrenal steroids, an effect that has been associated with an increase in mortality in severely ill patients. It should be avoided in patients at risk of having adrenal insufficiency, *e.g.* in sepsis. It is preferable to thiopental in patients at risk of circulatory failure.

Other Intravenous Agents

Ketamine

▼ **Ketamine** closely resembles, both chemically and pharmacologically, **phencyclidine**, which is a 'street drug' with a pronounced effect on sensory perception (see Ch. 47). Both drugs produce a similar anaesthesia-like state and profound analgesia, but ketamine produces less euphoria and sensory distortion than phencyclidine and is thus more

useful in anaesthesia. Both drugs are believed to act by blocking activation of the NMDA receptor (see Ch. 37).

Given intravenously, ketamine takes effect more slowly (1–2 min) than thiopental, and produces a different effect, known as 'dissociative anaesthesia', in which there is a marked sensory loss and analgesia, as well as amnesia, without complete loss of consciousness. During induction and recovery, involuntary movements and peculiar sensory experiences often occur. Ketamine does not act simply as a CNS depressant, and it produces cardiovascular and respiratory effects quite different from those of most anaesthetics. Blood pressure and heart rate are usually increased, and respiration is unaffected by effective anaesthetic doses. This makes it relatively safe to use in low-technology healthcare situations or in emergencies in the field. However, ketamine, unlike other intravenous anaesthetic drugs, can increase intracranial pressure, so it should not be given to patients with raised intracranial pressure or at risk of cerebral ischaemia. The other main drawback of ketamine is that hallucinations, and sometimes delirium and irrational behaviour, are common during recovery. These after-effects limit the usefulness of ketamine but are said to be less marked in children,[3] and ketamine, often in conjunction with a benzodiazepine, is sometimes still used for minor procedures in paediatrics.

[3]A cautionary note: many adverse effects are claimed to be less marked in children, perhaps because they cannot verbalise their experiences. At one time, muscle relaxants alone were used without anaesthesia during cardiac surgery in neonates. The babies did not complain of pain, but their circulating catecholamines reached extreme levels.

Midazolam

Midazolam, a benzodiazepine (Ch. 43), is slower in onset and offset

than the drugs discussed above but, like ketamine, causes less respiratory or cardiovascular depression. Midazolam (or **diazepam**) is often used as a preoperative sedative and during procedures such as endoscopy, where full anaesthesia is not required. It can be administered in combination with an analgesic such as **alfentanyl**. In the event of overdose it can be reversed by **flumazenil** (see Ch. 43).

Neuroleptanalgesia

The combined use of a sedative (e.g. the dopamine antagonist **droperidol**) related to antipsychotic drugs (Ch. 45) and an opiate analgesic such as **fentanyl** (Ch. 41) can produce a state of deep sedation and analgesia (known as neuroleptanalgesia) in which the patient remains responsive to simple commands and questions, but does not respond to painful stimuli or retain any memory of the procedure. This can be used for minor procedures such as endoscopy but is less used since the advent of midazolam which has a shorter duration of action. Use of neuroleptanalgesics is more common in veterinary medicine; they are the pharmacological component in chemical darts used to immobilise wild animals.

Intravenous anaesthetic agents

• Most commonly used for induction of anaesthesia, followed by inhalation agent. Propofol can also be used to maintain anaesthesia during surgery.

• Propofol, thiopental and etomidate are most commonly used; all act within 20–30 s if given intravenously.

• **Propofol**:

  – potent

  – rapid onset and distribution

– rapidly metabolised

– very rapid recovery; limited cumulative effect

– useful for day-case surgery

– low incidence of nausea and vomiting

– risk of bradycardia

– may induce an adverse ‘propofol infusion syndrome’ when administered at high doses for prolonged periods of time.

• **Thiopental**:

– barbiturate with very high lipid solubility

– rapid action due to rapid transfer across blood–brain barrier; short duration (about 5 min) due to redistribution, mainly to muscle

– reduces intracranial pressure

– slowly metabolised and liable to accumulate in body fat, therefore may cause prolonged effect if given repeatedly

– narrow margin between anaesthetic dose and dose causing cardiovascular depression

– risk of tissue damage if accidentally injected extravascularly or into an artery

– can precipitate an attack of porphyria in susceptible individuals (see Ch. 57).

• **Etomidate**:

– similar to thiopental but more quickly metabolised

– less risk of cardiovascular depression

– may cause involuntary movements during induction and high incidence of nausea

– possible risk of adrenocortical suppression.

• **Ketamine**:

– analogue of phencyclidine, with similar properties

– action differs from other agents, probably related to inhibition of NMDA-type glutamate receptors

– onset of effect is relatively slow (1–2 min)

– powerful analgesic

– produces ‘dissociative’ anaesthesia, in which the patient may remain conscious although amnesic and insensitive to pain

– high incidence of dysphoria, hallucinations, *etc.* during recovery; used mainly for minor procedures in children

– can raise intracranial pressure.

Inhalation Anaesthetics

Many inhalation anaesthetics that were once widely used, such as ether, chloroform, trichloroethylene, cyclopropane, methoxyflurane and enflurane, have now been replaced in clinical practice, particularly by **isoflurane**, **sevoflurane** and **desflurane** which have improved pharmacokinetic properties, fewer side effects and are non-flammable. Of the older agents, nitrous oxide is still used widely (especially in obstetric practice), and halothane now only occasionally. Inhalation anaesthetics are most commonly used for the maintenance of anaesthesia.

Pharmacokinetic Aspects

An important characteristic of an inhalation anaesthetic is the speed at which the arterial blood concentration, which governs the pharmacological effect in the brain, follows changes in the partial pressure of the drug in the inspired air. Ideally, the blood concentration should follow as quickly as possible, so that the depth of anaesthesia can be controlled rapidly. In particular, the blood concentration should fall to a subanaesthetic level rapidly when administration is stopped, so that the patient recovers consciousness with minimal delay. A prolonged semicomatose state, in which respiratory reflexes are weak or absent, is particularly hazardous.

The lungs are the only quantitatively important route by which

inhalation anaesthetics enter and leave the body. For modern inhalation anaesthetics, metabolic degradation is generally insignificant in determining their duration of action. Inhalation anaesthetics are all small, lipid-soluble molecules that readily cross alveolar membranes. It is therefore the rates of delivery of drug to and from the lungs, via (respectively) the inspired air and bloodstream, that determine the overall kinetic behaviour of an anaesthetic. The reason that anaesthetics vary in their kinetic behaviour is that their relative solubilities in blood, and in body fat, vary between one drug and another.

The main factors that determine the speed of induction and recovery can be summarised as follows:

- Properties of the anaesthetic:
  - blood:gas partition coefficient (i.e. solubility in blood)
  - oil:gas partition coefficient (i.e. solubility in fat).
- Physiological factors:
  - alveolar ventilation rate
  - cardiac output.

Solubility of Inhalation Anaesthetics

Inhalation anaesthetics can be regarded physicochemically as ideal gases: their solubility in different media is expressed as *partition coefficients*, defined as the ratio of the concentration of the agent in two phases at equilibrium.

The *blood:gas partition coefficient* is the main factor that determines the rate of induction and recovery of an inhalation anaesthetic, and the lower the blood:gas partition coefficient, the faster is induction and recovery (Table 40.2). This is because it is the partial pressure of the gas in the alveolar space that governs the concentration in the blood. The

lower the blood:gas partition coefficient, the more rapidly the partial pressure of the gas in the alveolar space will equal that being administered in the inspired air (see below).

Table 40.2 Characteristics of inhalation anaesthetics

Drug	Partition coefficient		Minimum alveolar concentration (% v/v)	Induction/ recovery	Main adverse effect(s) and disadvantage(s)	Notes
	Blood:gas	Oil:gas				
Nitrous oxide	0.5	1.4	100[a]	Fast	Few adverse effects Risk of anaemia (with prolonged or repeated use) Accumulation in gaseous cavities	Good analgesic effect Low potency precludes use as sole anaesthetic agent—normally combined with other inhalation agents
Isoflurane	1.4	91	1.2	Medium	Few adverse effects Possible risk of coronary ischemia in susceptible patients	Widely used Has replaced halothane
Desflurane	0.4	23	6.1	Fast	Respiratory tract irritation, cough, bronchospasm	Used for day-case surgery because of fast onset and recovery (comparable with nitrous oxide)
Sevoflurane	0.6	53	2.1	Fast	Few reported Theoretical risk of renal toxicity owing to fluoride	Similar to desflurane
Halothane	2.4	220	0.8	Medium	Hypotension Cardiac arrhythmias Hepatotoxicity (with repeated use) Malignant hyperthermia (rare)	Little used nowadays Significant metabolism to trifluoracetate
Enflurane	1.9	98	0.7	Medium	Risk of convulsions (slight) Malignant hyperthermia (rare)	Has declined in use May induce seizures
Ether	12.0	65	1.9	Slow	Respiratory irritation Nausea and vomiting Explosion risk	Now obsolete, except where modern facilities are lacking

[a]Theoretical value based on experiments under hyperbaric conditions.

The *oil:gas partition coefficient*, a measure of fat solubility, determines the potency of an anaesthetic (as already discussed) and also influences the kinetics of its distribution in the body, the main effect being that high lipid solubility delays recovery from anaesthesia. Values of blood:gas and oil:gas partition coefficients for some anaesthetics are given in Table 40.2.

Induction and Recovery

Cerebral blood flow is a substantial fraction of cardiac output (~15%), and the blood–brain barrier is freely permeable to anaesthetics, so the concentration of anaesthetic in the brain closely tracks that in the arterial blood. The kinetics of transfer of anaesthetic between the inspired air and the arterial blood therefore determine the kinetics of the pharmacological effect.

When a volatile anaesthetic is first administered, the initial breaths are diluted into the residual gas volume in the lungs resulting in a reduction in the alveolar partial pressure of the anaesthetic as compared with the inspired gas mixture. With subsequent breaths, the alveolar partial pressure rises towards equilibrium. For an anaesthetic with a low blood:gas partition coefficient, the absorption into the blood will be slower, so with repeated breaths the partial pressure in the alveolar space will rise faster than with an agent of high blood:gas partition coefficient. Thus a smaller number of breaths (i.e. a shorter time) will be needed to reach equilibrium. Therefore, contrary to what one might intuitively suppose, the *lower* the solubility in blood, the *faster* is the process of equilibration. Figure 40.3 shows the much faster equilibration for **nitrous oxide**, a low-solubility agent, than for **ether**, a high-solubility agent.

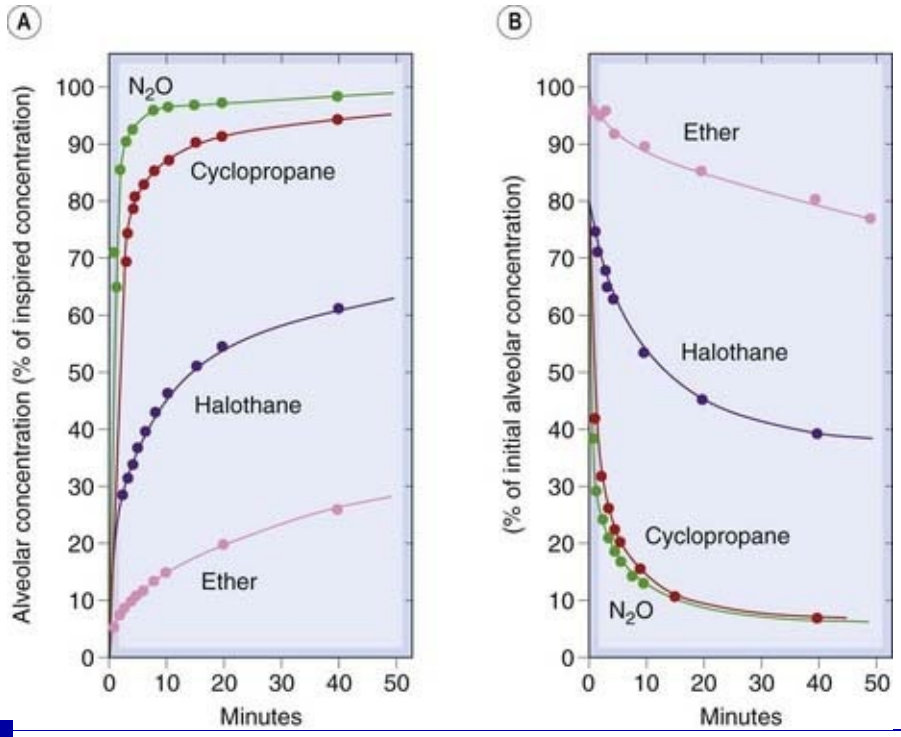


Fig. 40.3 Rate of equilibration of inhalation anaesthetics in humans.

The curves show alveolar concentration (which closely reflects arterial blood concentration) as a function of time during induction and recovery. The initial rate of equilibration reflects solubility in blood. There is also a slow phase of equilibration, most marked with highly lipid-soluble drugs (ether and halothane), owing to the slow transfer between blood and fat (Fig. 40.4). [**A**] Induction. [**B**] Recovery.

(From Papper E M, Kitz R (eds) 1963 Uptake and distribution of anaesthetic agents. McGraw-Hill, New York.)

The transfer of anaesthetic between blood and tissues also affects the kinetics of equilibration. Figure 40.4 shows a very simple model of the circulation, in which two tissue compartments are included. Body fat has a low blood flow but has a high capacity to take up anaesthetics, and constitutes about 20% of the volume of a representative man. Therefore, for a drug such as **halothane**, which is about 100 times more soluble in fat than in water, the amount present in fat after complete equilibration would be roughly 95% of the total amount in the body. Because of the low blood flow to adipose tissue, it takes many hours for the drug to enter and leave the fat, which results in a pronounced slow phase of

equilibration following the rapid phase associated with the blood–gas exchanges (Fig. 40.3). The more fat-soluble the anaesthetic and the fatter the patient, the more pronounced this slow phase becomes and recovery will also be delayed.

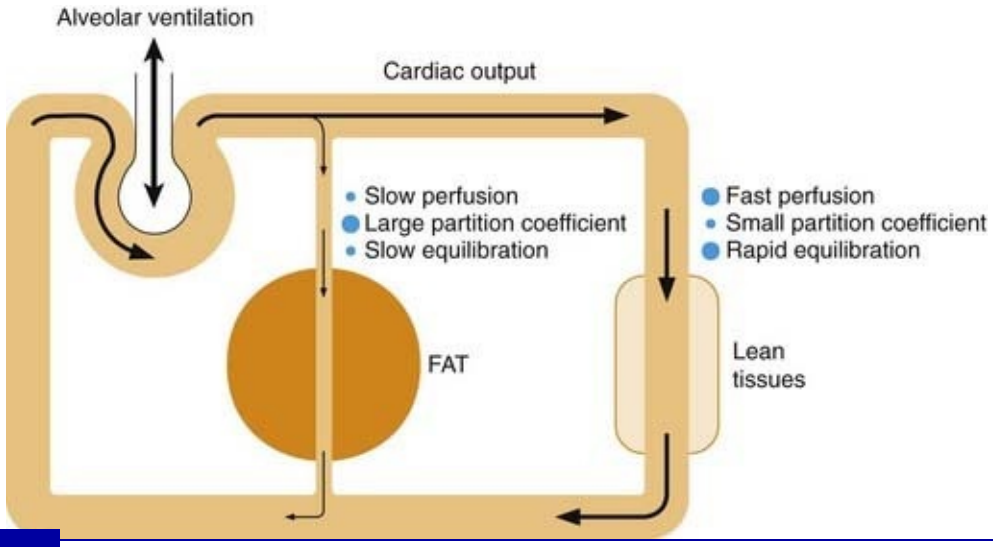


Fig. 40.4 Factors affecting the rate of equilibration of inhalation anaesthetics in the body.
The body is represented as two compartments. Lean tissues, including the brain, have a large blood flow and low partition coefficient for anaesthetics, and therefore equilibrate rapidly with the blood. Fat tissues have a small blood flow and large partition coefficient, and therefore equilibrate slowly, acting as a reservoir of drug during the recovery phase.

Of the physiological factors affecting the rate of equilibration of inhalation anaesthetics, alveolar ventilation is the most important. The greater the minute volume (respiration rate × tidal volume), the faster is equilibration, particularly for drugs that have high blood:gas partition coefficients. Respiratory depressant drugs such as **morphine** (see Ch. 41) can thus retard recovery from anaesthesia.

Recovery from anaesthesia involves the same processes as induction but in reverse (Fig. 40.3), the rapid phase of recovery being followed by a slow ‘hangover’. Because of these kinetic factors, the search for improved inhalation anaesthetics has focused on agents with low blood

and tissue solubility. Newer drugs, which show kinetic properties similar to those of nitrous oxide but have higher potency, include **sevoflurane** and **desflurane** (Table 40.2).

Metabolism and Toxicity

Metabolism, although not quantitatively important as a route of elimination of inhalation anaesthetics, can generate toxic metabolites.[4] **Chloroform** (now obsolete) causes hepatotoxicity associated with free radical formation in liver cells. **Methoxyflurane**, a halogenated ether, is no longer used because about 50% is metabolised to fluoride and oxalate, which cause renal toxicity. **Halothane** is less used nowadays because it undergoes substantial metabolism, about 30% being converted to bromide, trifluoroacetic acid and other metabolites that are implicated in rare instances of liver toxicity (see below). **Enflurane** and **sevoflurane** also generate fluoride, but at much lower (non-toxic) concentrations (Table 40.2).

[4]The problem of toxicity of low concentrations of anaesthetics inhaled over long periods by operating theatre staff has been a cause for concern. Strict measures are now used to minimise the escape of anaesthetics into the air of operating theatres.

Malignant hyperthermia is caused by heat production in skeletal muscle, due to excessive release of Ca^{2+} from the sarcoplasmic reticulum. The result is muscle contracture, acidosis, increased metabolism and an associated dramatic rise in body temperature that can be fatal unless treated promptly. Triggers include halogenated anaesthetics and depolarising neuromuscular-blocking drugs (see Ch. 13). Susceptibility has a genetic basis, being associated with mutations in the gene encoding the ryanodine receptor, which controls Ca^{2+} release from the sarcoplasmic reticulum (Ch. 4). Malignant hyperthermia is treated with

dantrolene, a muscle relaxant drug that blocks these calcium release channels.

Pharmacokinetic properties of inhalation anaesthetics

• Rapid induction and recovery are important properties of an anaesthetic agent, allowing flexible control over the depth of anaesthesia.

• Speed of induction and recovery are determined by two properties of the anaesthetic: solubility in blood (blood:gas partition coefficient) and solubility in fat (lipid solubility).

• Agents with low blood:gas partition coefficients produce rapid induction and recovery (e.g. **nitrous oxide**, **desflurane**); agents with high blood:gas partition coefficients show slow induction and recovery (e.g. **halothane**).

• Agents with high lipid solubility (e.g. halothane) accumulate gradually in body fat and may produce a prolonged 'hangover' if used for a long operation.

• Some halogenated anaesthetics (especially halothane and **methoxyflurane**) are metabolised. This is not very important in determining their duration of action, but contributes to toxicity (e.g. renal toxicity associated with fluoride production with methoxyflurane—no longer used).

Individual Inhalation Anaesthetics

The main inhalation anaesthetics currently used in developed countries are i**soflurane**, **desflurane** and **sevoflurane** sometimes used in combination with **nitrous oxide**. Due to its relatively rapid onset of action sevoflurane can, under some circumstances, be used on its own to induce anaesthesia. **Xenon**, an inert gas shown many years ago to have anaesthetic properties, is making something of a comeback in the clinic because—not surprisingly for an inert gas—it lacks toxicity, but its relatively low potency and high cost are disadvantages.

Halothane is still used in veterinary medicine in species that do not

metabolise it to toxic products, and is occasionally used in human medicine when a slow recovery from anaesthesia is desirable. **Enflurane** has decreased in use because of its propensity to induce seizures.

Isoflurane, Desflurane, Sevoflurane, Enflurane and Halothane

Isoflurane is now the most widely used volatile anaesthetic. It is not appreciably metabolised and lacks the proconvulsive property of enflurane. It can cause hypotension and is a powerful coronary vasodilator. This can exacerbate cardiac ischaemia in patients with coronary disease, because of the 'steal' phenomenon (see Ch. 21).

Desflurane is chemically similar to isoflurane, but its lower solubility in blood and fat means that titration of anaesthetic depth and recovery are faster, so it is increasingly used as an anaesthetic for day-case surgery. It is not appreciably metabolised. It is less potent than the drugs described above. At the concentrations used for induction of anaesthesia (about 10%), desflurane causes some respiratory tract irritation, which can lead to coughing and bronchospasm. Rapid increases in the depth of desflurane anaesthesia can be associated with a striking increase in sympathetic activity which is undesirable in patients with ischaemic heart disease.

Sevoflurane resembles desflurane but is more potent and does not cause the same degree of respiratory irritation. It is partially (about 3%) metabolised, and detectable levels of fluoride are produced, although this does not appear to be sufficient to cause toxicity.

Enflurane has a moderate speed of induction but is little used nowadays. It was originally introduced as an alternative to methoxyflurane. It can cause seizures, either during induction or following recovery from anaesthesia, especially in patients suffering

from epilepsy. In this connection, it is interesting that a related substance, the fluorine-substituted diethyl-ether hexafluoroether, is a powerful convulsant agent, although the mechanism is not understood.

Halothane was an important drug in the development of volatile inhalation anaesthetics, but its use has declined in favour of isoflurane due to the potential for accumulation of toxic metabolites. Halothane has a marked relaxant effect on the uterus which can cause postpartum bleeding and limits its usefulness for obstetric purposes.

Nitrous Oxide

Nitrous oxide (N_2O, not to be confused with nitric oxide, NO) is an odourless gas with many advantageous features for anaesthesia. It is rapid in onset of action because of its low blood:gas partition coefficient (Table 40.2), and is an effective analgesic in concentrations too low to cause unconsciousness. Its potency is low. It is used as a 50:50 mixture with O_2 to reduce pain during childbirth. It must never be given as 100% of the inspired gas as patients do need to breathe oxygen! Even at 80% in the inspired gas mixture, nitrous oxide does not produce surgical anaesthesia. It is not therefore used on its own as an anaesthetic, but is used (as 70% nitrous oxide in oxygen) as an adjunct to volatile anaesthetics, allowing them to be used at lower concentrations. During recovery from nitrous oxide anaesthesia, the transfer of the gas from the blood into the alveoli can be sufficient to reduce, by dilution, the alveolar partial pressure of oxygen, producing transient hypoxia (known as *diffusional hypoxia*). This is important for patients with respiratory disease.

Nitrous oxide tends to enter gaseous cavities in the body causing them to expand. This can be dangerous if a pneumothorax or vascular air embolus is present, or if the intestine is obstructed.

Given for brief periods, nitrous oxide is devoid of any serious toxic effects, but prolonged exposure (> 6 h) causes inactivation of methionine synthase, an enzyme required for DNA and protein synthesis, resulting in bone marrow depression that may cause anaemia and leucopenia, so its use should be avoided in patients with anaemia related to vitamin B_{12} deficiency. Bone marrow depression does not occur with brief exposure to nitrous oxide, but prolonged or repeated use (for example, in intermittently painful conditions such as sickle cell anaemia) should be avoided. Nitrous oxide 'sniffers' are subject to this danger.

Individual inhalation anaesthetics

• The main agents in current use in developed countries are isoflurane, desflurane and sevoflurane sometimes supplemented with nitrous oxide.

• As a rare but serious hazard, inhalation anaesthetics can cause malignant hyperthermia.

• **Nitrous oxide**:

– low potency, therefore must be combined with other agents

– rapid induction and recovery

– good analgesic properties

– risk of bone marrow depression with prolonged administration

– accumulates in gaseous cavities.

• **Isoflurane**:

– similar to enflurane but lacks epileptogenic property

– may precipitate myocardial ischaemia in patients with coronary disease

– irritant to respiratory tract.

• **Desflurane**:

– similar to isoflurane but with faster onset and recovery

– respiratory irritant, so liable to cause coughing and laryngospasm

– useful for day-case surgery.

• **Sevoflurane**:

– similar to desflurane, with lack of respiratory irritation.

• **Halothane**:

– no longer widely used

– potent, non-irritant

– may cause hypotension and dysrhythmias; about 30% metabolised

– can be useful when slow recovery is desirable but otherwise the 'hangover' due to high lipid solubility is unwanted

– risk of liver damage if used repeatedly in susceptible individuals.

• **Enflurane**:

– halogenated anaesthetic similar to halothane

– less metabolism than halothane, therefore less risk of toxicity

– faster induction and recovery than halothane (less accumulation in fat)

– risk of epilepsy-like seizures.

• **Ether**:

– obsolete except where modern facilities are not available

– easy to administer and control

– slow onset and recovery, with postoperative nausea and vomiting

– analgesic and muscle relaxant properties

– highly explosive

– irritant to respiratory tract.

Clinical uses of general anaesthetics 

• *Intravenous anaesthetics* are used for:

– induction of anaesthesia (e.g. **propofol** or **thiopental**)

– maintenance of anaesthesia throughout surgery ('total intravenous anaesthesia', *e.g.*

propofol sometimes in combination with muscle relaxants and analgesics).

• *Inhalational anaesthetics* (gases or volatile liquids) are used for maintenance of anaesthesia. Points to note are that:

– volatile anaesthetics (e.g. **isoflurane**, **sevoflurane**) are delivered in air, oxygen or oxygen–nitrous oxide mixtures as the carrier gas

– nitrous oxide must always be given with oxygen

– because of its potential for inducing hepatotoxicity, **halothane** has largely been replaced by newer volatile anaesthetics such as **isoflurane**

– all inhalational anaesthetics can trigger *malignant hyperthermia* in susceptible individuals (Ch.13).

Use of Anaesthetics in Combination with Other Drugs

Only in simple, short surgical procedures would a single anaesthetic be used on its own. In complex surgery, an array of drugs will be given at various times throughout the procedure. These may include a sedative or anxiolytic premedication (e.g. a benzodiazepine, see Ch. 43), an intravenous anaesthetic for rapid induction (e.g. **propofol**), a perioperative opioid analgesic (e.g. **remifentanyl**, see Ch. 41), an inhalation anaesthetic to maintain anaesthesia during surgery (e.g. **nitrous oxide** and **isoflurane**), a neuromuscular blocking agent to produce adequate muscle relaxation (e.g. **vecuronium**, see Ch. 13), an antiemetic agent (e.g. **ondansetron**, see Ch. 29) and a muscarinic antagonist to prevent or treat bradycardia or to reduce bronchial and salivary secretions (e.g. **atropine** or **glycopyrrolate**, see Ch. 13) and, towards the end of the procedure, an anticholinesterase agent (e.g. **neostigmine**, see Ch. 13) to reverse the neuromuscular blockade and an analgesic for postoperative pain relief (e.g. an opioid such as **morphine** and/or a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug such as **diclofenac**, see Ch. 41). Such combinations of drugs result in much faster induction and

recovery, avoiding long (and potentially hazardous) periods of semiconsciousness, and it enables surgery to be carried out with less undesirable cardiorespiratory depression.

References and Further Reading

itkinhead A.R., Smith G.B., Rowbotham D.J. *Textbook of anaesthesia*, fifth ed. London: Churchill Livingstone; 2006. (*The title says it all!*)

ayliss D.A., Barrett P.Q. Emerging roles for two-pore-domain potassium channels and their potential therapeutic impact. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2008;29:566-575.

ranks N.P. General anaesthesia: from molecular targets to neuronal pathways of sleep and arousal. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2008;9:370-386. (*Detailed discussion of the sites of action of general anaesthetics on specific ion channels*)

alsey M.J. Physicochemical properties of inhalation anaesthetics. In: Nunn J.F., Utting J.E., Brown B.R., editors. *General anaesthesia*. London: Butterworth, 1989. (*Good summary of evidence supporting lipid theories of anaesthesia*)

emmings H.C.Jr, Akabas M.H., Goldstein P.A., *et al.* Emerging molecular mechanisms of general anesthetic action. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2005;26:503-510.

ittle H.J. How has molecular pharmacology contributed to our understanding of the molecular mechanism(s) of general anaesthesia? *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 1996;69:37-58. (*Balanced account of the strengths and shortcomings of current theories*)

udolph U., Antkowiak B. Molecular and neuronal substrates for general anaesthetics. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2004;5:709-720. (*Useful review article covering both the interaction of general anaesthetic agents with different ion channels, and the neuronal pathways that are affected*)

chüttler J., Schwilden H. Modern anesthetics. *Handb. Exp. Pharmacol.*. 182, 2008. (*Entire volume given over to multiauthor reviews of the mechanisms of action of general anaesthetics*)

41

Analgesic drugs

Overview

Pain is a disabling accompaniment of many medical conditions, and pain control is one of the most important therapeutic priorities.

In this chapter, we discuss the neural mechanisms responsible for different types of pain, and the various drugs that are used to reduce it. The 'classic' analgesic drugs, notably opioids and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs; described in Ch. 26), have their origins in natural products that have been used for centuries. The original compounds, typified by morphine and aspirin, are still in widespread use, but many synthetic compounds that act by the same mechanisms have been developed. Opioid analgesics are described in this chapter. Next, we consider various other drug classes, such as antidepressants and antiepileptic drugs, which clinical experience has shown to be effective in certain types of pain. Finally, looking into the future, many potential new drug targets have emerged over the past decade or so as our knowledge of the neural mechanisms underlying pain has advanced. We describe briefly some of these new approaches at the end of the chapter.

Neural Mechanisms of Pain

Pain is a subjective experience, hard to define exactly, even though we

all know what we mean by it. Typically, it is a direct response to an untoward event associated with tissue damage, such as injury, inflammation or cancer, but severe pain can arise independently of any obvious predisposing cause (e.g. trigeminal neuralgia), or persist long after the precipitating injury has healed (e.g. phantom limb pain). It can also occur as a consequence of brain or nerve injury (e.g. following a stroke or herpes infection). Painful conditions of the latter kind, not directly linked to tissue injury, are often described as 'neuropathic pains'. They are very common and a major cause of disability and distress, and in general they respond less well to conventional analgesic drugs than do conditions where the immediate cause is clear. In these cases, we need to think of pain in terms of disordered neural function rather than simply as a 'normal' response to tissue injury.

Good accounts of the neural basis of pain can be found in McMahon & Koltzenburg (2006).

Nociceptive Afferent Neurons

Under normal conditions, pain is associated with impulse activity in small-diameter (C and Aδ) primary afferent fibres of peripheral nerves. These nerves have sensory endings in peripheral tissues and are activated by stimuli of various kinds (mechanical, thermal, chemical; Julius & Basbaum, 2001; Julius & McCleskey, 2006). The majority of umyelinated (C) fibres are associated with *polymodal nociceptive* endings and convey a dull, diffuse, burning pain, whereas myelinated (Aδ) fibres convey a sensation of sharp, well-localised pain. C and Aδ fibres convey nociceptive information from muscle and viscera as well as from the skin.

With many pathological conditions, tissue injury is the immediate cause of the pain and results in the local release of a variety of chemicals

that act on the nerve terminals, either activating them directly or enhancing their sensitivity to other forms of stimulation (Fig. 41.1). The pharmacological properties of nociceptive nerve terminals are discussed in more detail below.

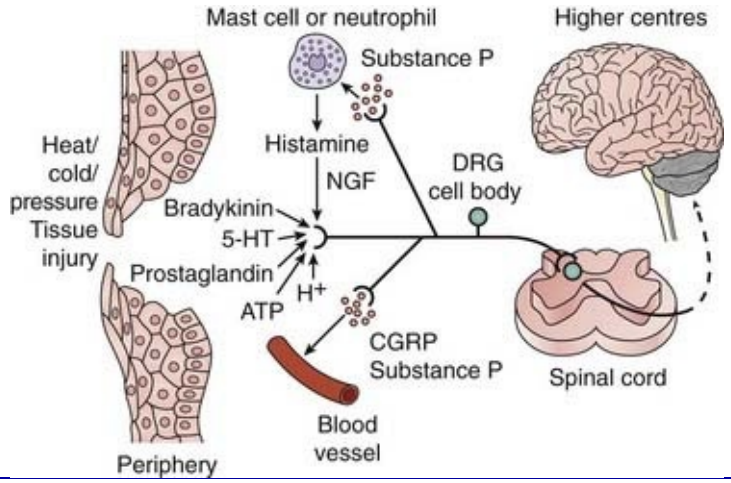


Fig. 41.1 Activation of nociceptive neurons.

Various stimuli (physical and chemical) can initiate or enhance the rate of action potential firing in nociceptive primary afferent neurons (i.e. induce pain). These afferent fibres project to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord where they synapse on neurons projecting to higher centres. 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; CGRP, calcitonin gene-related peptide; DRG, dorsal root ganglion; NGF, nerve growth factor.

(Adapted from Julius D, Basbaum A I 2001 Nature 413: 203–210.)

The cell bodies of spinal nociceptive afferent fibres lie in dorsal root ganglia; fibres enter the spinal cord via the dorsal roots, ending in the grey matter of the dorsal horn. Most of the nociceptive afferents terminate in the superficial region of the dorsal horn, the C fibres and some Aδ fibres innervating cell bodies in laminae I and II (also known as the *substantia gelatinosa*), while other A fibres penetrate deeper into the dorsal horn (lamina V). The substantia gelatinosa is rich in both endogenous opioid peptides and opioid receptors, and may be an important site of action for morphine-like drugs (see below).

Cells in laminae I and V give rise to the main projection pathways from the dorsal horn to the thalamus. For a more detailed account of dorsal horn circuitry, see Fields et al. (2006).

The nociceptive afferent neurons release glutamate and possibly ATP as the fast neurotransmitters at their central synapses in the dorsal horn. They also contain several neuropeptides (see Ch. 19), particularly substance P and calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP). These are released as mediators at both the central and the peripheral terminals, and play an important role in the pathology of pain. For a detailed description of synaptic transmission in the dorsal horn, see McMahon & Koltzenburg (2006).

Modulation in The Nociceptive Pathway

Acute pain is generally well accounted for in terms of nociception—an excessive noxious stimulus giving rise to an intense and unpleasant sensation. In contrast, most chronic pain states[1] are associated with aberrations of the normal physiological pathway, giving rise to *hyperalgesia* (an increased amount of pain associated with a mild noxious stimulus), *allodynia* (pain evoked by a non-noxious stimulus) or spontaneous pain without any precipitating stimulus. Some of the main mechanisms are summarised in Figure 41.2.

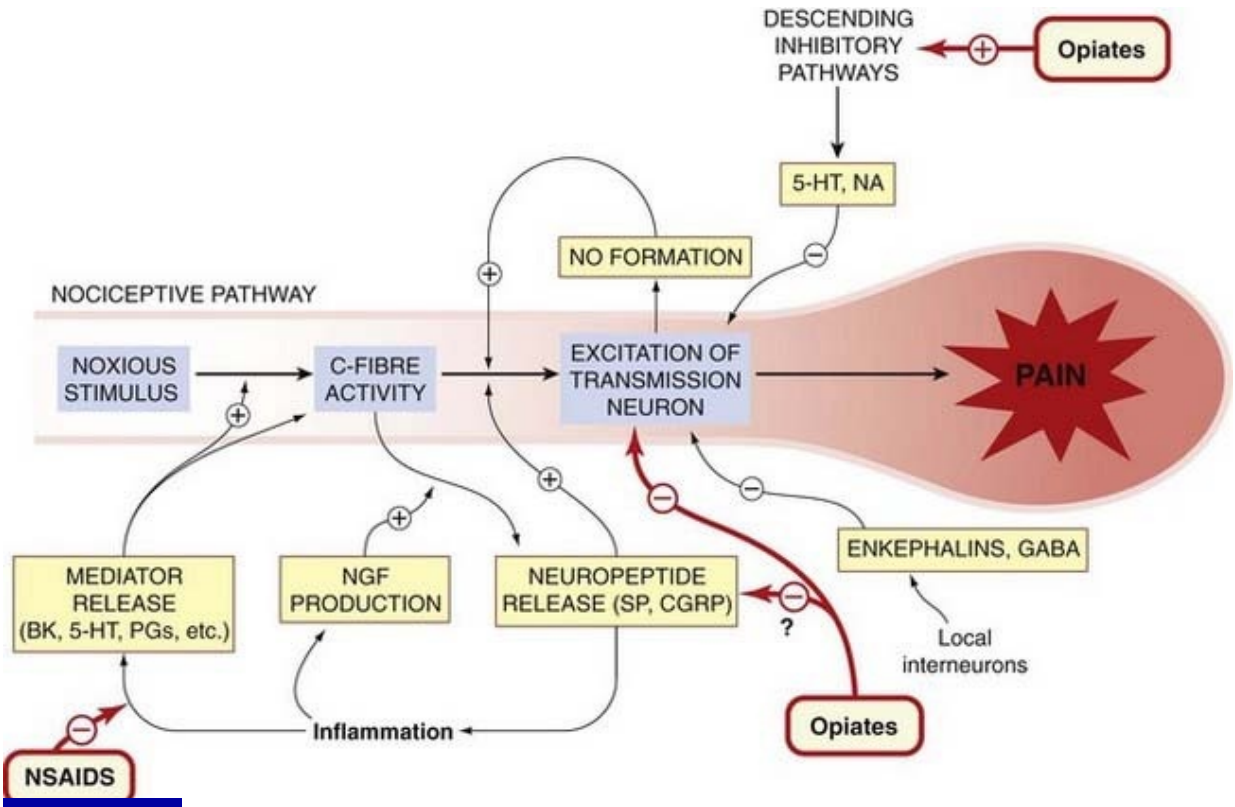


Fig. 41.2 Summary of modulatory mechanisms in the nociceptive pathway.

5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; BK, bradykinin; CGRP, calcitonin gene-related peptide; NA, noradrenaline; NGF, nerve growth factor; NO, nitric oxide; NSAID, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug; PG, prostaglandin; SP, substance P.

Hyperalgesia and Allodynia

[1]Defined as pain that outlasts the precipitating tissue injury. Many clinical pain states fall into this category. The dissociation of pain from noxious input is most evident in ‘phantom limb’ pain, which occurs after amputations and may be very severe. At the other extreme, noxious input with no pain, there are many well-documented reports of mystics and showmen who subject themselves to horrifying ordeals with knives, burning embers, nails and hooks (undoubtedly causing massive afferent input) without apparently suffering pain.

▼ Anyone who has suffered a burn or sprained ankle has experienced hyperalgesia and allodynia. Hyperalgesia involves both sensitisation of

peripheral nociceptive nerve terminals and central facilitation of transmission at the level of the dorsal horn and thalamus—changes defined by the term *neuroplasticity*. The peripheral component is due to the action of mediators such as bradykinin and prostaglandins acting on the nerve terminals. The central component reflects facilitation of synaptic transmission in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord (see Yaksh, 1999). The synaptic responses of dorsal horn neurons to nociceptive inputs display the phenomenon of 'wind-up'—i.e. the synaptic potentials steadily increase in amplitude with each stimulus—when repeated stimuli are delivered at physiological frequencies. This activity-dependent facilitation of transmission has features in common with the phenomenon of long-term potentiation in the hippocampus, described in Chapter 37, and the chemical mechanisms underlying it may also be similar (see Ji et al., 2003). In the dorsal horn, the facilitation is blocked by NMDA receptor antagonists and also in part by antagonists of substance P and by inhibitors of nitric oxide (NO) synthesis (see Figs 41.2 and 41.3).

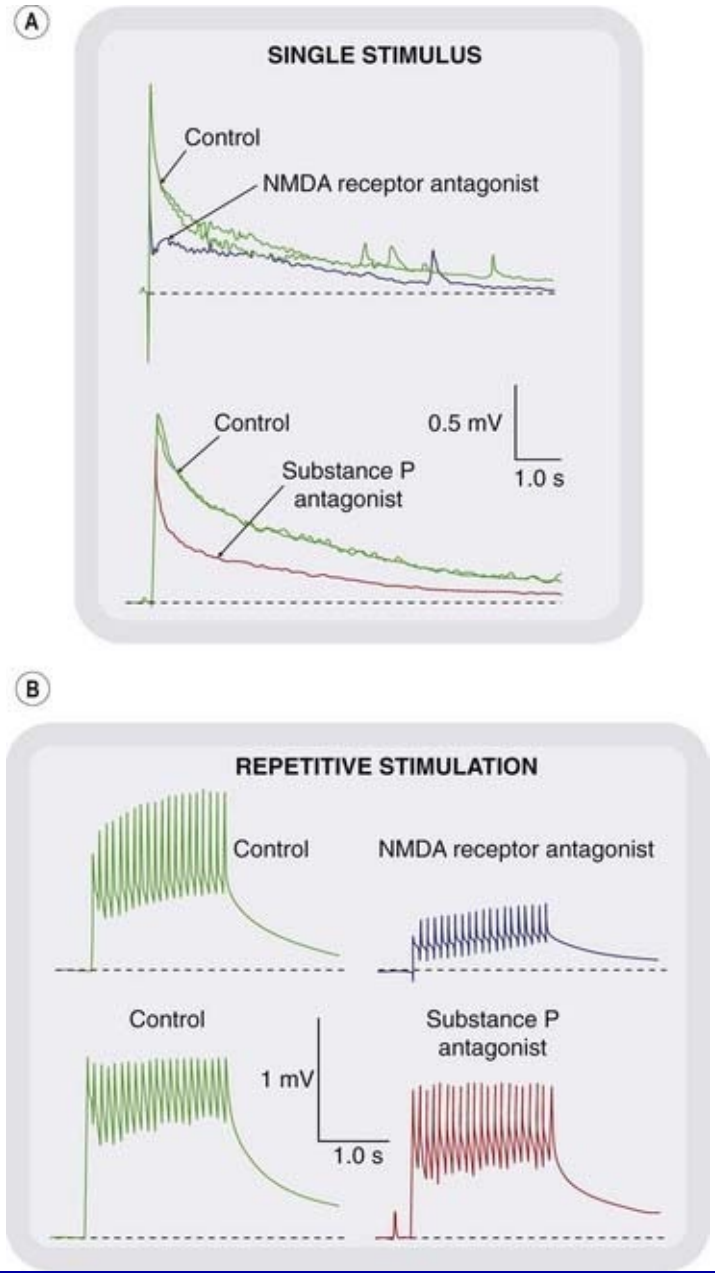


Fig. 41.3 Effect of glutamate and substance P antagonists on nociceptive transmission in the rat spinal cord.

The rat paw was inflamed by ultraviolet irradiation 2 days before the experiment, a procedure that induces hyperalgesia and spinal cord facilitation. The synaptic response was recorded from the ventral root, in response to stimulation of C fibres in the dorsal root with **A** single stimuli or **B** repetitive stimuli. The effects of the NMDA receptor antagonist D-AP-5 (see Ch. 37) and the substance P antagonist RP 67580 (selective for neurokinin type 2, (NK_2) receptors) are shown. The slow component of the synaptic response is reduced by both antagonists (**A**), as is the 'wind-up' in response to repetitive stimulation (**B**). These effects are much less pronounced in the normal animal. Thus both glutamate, acting on NMDA receptors, and substance P, acting on

NK_2 receptors, are involved in nociceptive transmission, and their contribution increases as a result of inflammatory hyperalgesia.

(Records kindly provided by L Urban and S W Thompson.)

Substance P and CGRP released from primary afferent neurons (see Fig. 41.1) also act in the periphery, promoting inflammation by their effects on blood vessels and cells of the immune system (Ch. 17). This mechanism, known as neurogenic inflammation, amplifies and sustains the inflammatory reaction and the accompanying activation of nociceptive afferent fibres.

Central facilitation is an important component of pathological hyperalgesia (e.g. that associated with inflammatory responses). The mediators responsible for central facilitation include substance P, CGRP, nerve growth factor (NGF), brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and NO as well as many others (see Ji et al., 2003). For example, NGF, a cytokine-like mediator produced by peripheral tissues, particularly in inflammation, acts on a kinase-linked receptor (known as TrkA) on nociceptive afferent neurons, increasing their electrical excitability, chemosensitivity and peptide content, and also promoting the formation of synaptic contacts. Increased NGF production may be an important mechanism by which nociceptive transmission becomes facilitated by tissue damage, leading to hyperalgesia (see Pezet & McMahon, 2006). Increased gene expression in sensory neurons is induced by NGF and other inflammatory mediators; the upregulated genes include those for neuropeptides and neuromodulators (e.g. CGRP, substance P and BDNF) as well as for receptors (e.g. transient receptor potential TRPV1 and $P2X_3$) and sodium channels, and have the overall effect of facilitating transmission at the first synaptic relay in the dorsal horn. BDNF released from primary afferent nerve terminals activates the kinase-linked TrkB

receptor on postsynaptic dorsal horn neurons leading to phosphorylation of the NMDA subunit GluN1 (NR1) and thus sensitisation of these glutamate receptors, resulting in synaptic facilitation, in the dorsal horn.

Excitation of nociceptive sensory neurons depends, as in other neurons (see Ch. 4), on voltage-gated sodium channels. Individuals who express non-functional mutations of *$Na_v1.7$* are unable to experience pain (see Cox et al., 2006). The expression of certain sodium channel subtypes (e.g. $Na_v1.3$, $Na_v1.8$ and Na_v 1.7 channels) is increased in sensory neurons in various pathological pain states and their enhanced activity underlies the sensitisation to external stimuli that occurs in inflammatory pain and hyperalgesia (see Ch. 4 for a detailed description of voltage-activated sodium channels). Consistent with this hypothesis is the fact that many antiepileptic and antidysrhythmic drugs, which act by blocking sodium channels (see Chs 21 and 44) also find clinical application as analgesics (see below).

Transmission of Pain to Higher Centres

From the dorsal horn, ascending nerve axons travel in the contralateral spinothalamic tracts, and synapse on neurons in the ventral and medial parts of the thalamus, from which there are further projections to the somatosensory cortex. In the medial thalamus in particular, many cells respond specifically to noxious stimuli in the periphery, and lesions in this area cause analgesia. Functional brain imaging studies in conscious subjects have been performed to localise regions involved in pain processing. These include sensory, discriminatory areas such as primary and secondary somatosensory cortex, thalamus and posterior parts of insula as well as affective, cognitive areas such as the anterior parts of insula, anterior cingulate cortex and prefrontal cortex (see Tracey, 2008).

Descending Inhibitory Controls

Descending pathways (Fig. 41.4) control impulse transmission in the dorsal horn (see Millan, 2002). A key part of this descending system is the *periaqueductal grey* (PAG) area of the midbrain, a small area of grey matter surrounding the central canal. In 1969, Reynolds found that electrical stimulation of this brain area in the rat caused analgesia sufficiently intense that abdominal surgery could be performed without anaesthesia and without eliciting any marked response. Non-painful sensations were unaffected. The PAG receives inputs from many other brain regions, including the hypothalamus, amygdala and cortex, and is the main pathway through which cortical and other inputs act to control the nociceptive 'gate' in the dorsal horn.

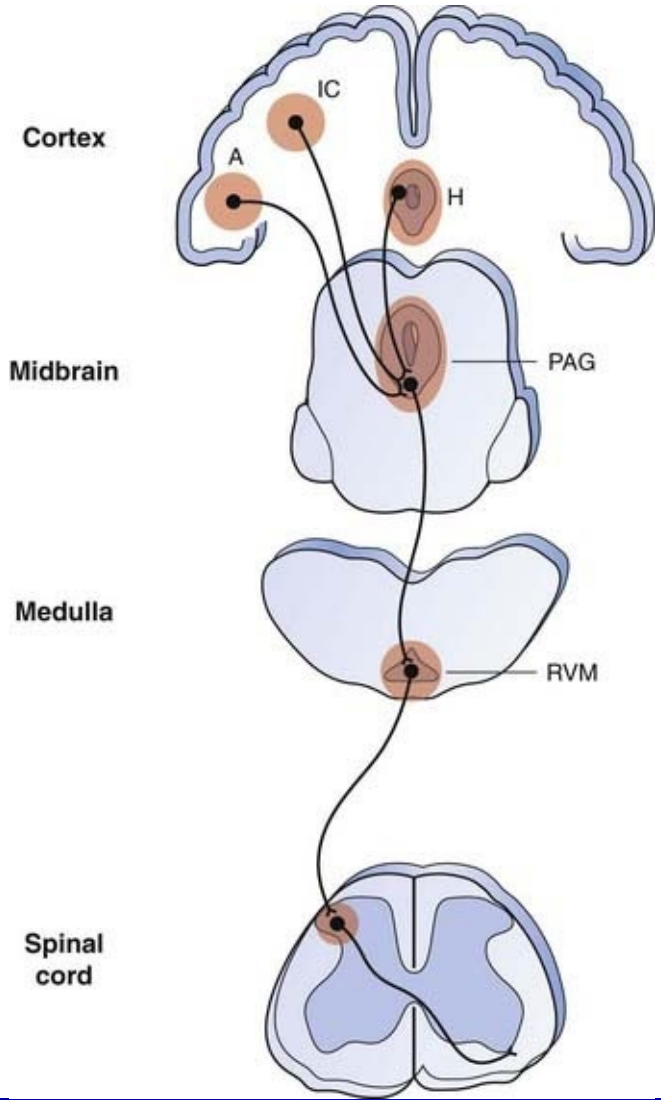


Fig. 41.4 The descending pain control system and sites of action of opioids to relieve pain.

Opioids induce analgesia when microinjected into the insular cortex (IC), amygdala (A), hypothalamus (H), periaqueductal grey (PAG) region and rostroventral medulla (RVM) as well as into the dorsal horn of the spinal cord. The PAG receives input from higher centres and is the main output centre of the limbic system. It projects to the rostral ventromedial medulla (RVM). From the RVM, descending inhibitory fibres, some of which contain 5-hydroxytryptamine, project to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord. Shaded areas indicate regions expressing μ-opioid receptors. The pathways shown in this diagram represent a considerable oversimplification.

(Adapted from Fields 2001 Prog Brain Res 122: 245–253. For a fuller account of the descending pain modulating pathways, see Fields, 2004.)

The PAG projects first to the rostroventral medulla (RVM) and thence

via the dorsolateral funiculus of the spinal cord to the dorsal horn. Two important transmitters in this pathway are 5-hydroxytryptamine and the enkephalins, which act directly or via interneurons to inhibit the discharge of spinothalamic neurons (Fig. 41.4).

The descending inhibitory pathway is probably an important site of action for opioid analgesics. Both PAG and substantia gelatinosa (SG) are particularly rich in enkephalin-containing neurons, and opioid antagonists such as **naloxone** (see later section) can prevent electrically induced analgesia, which would suggest that endogenous opioid peptides may function as transmitters in this system. The physiological role of opioid peptides in regulating pain transmission has been controversial, mainly because under normal conditions naloxone has relatively little effect on pain threshold. Under pathological conditions, however, when stress is present, naloxone causes hyperalgesia, implying that the opioid system is active.

There is also a noradrenergic pathway from the *locus coeruleus* (LC; see Ch. 38) which has a similar inhibitory effect on transmission in the dorsal horn. Surprisingly, opioids inhibit rather than activate this pathway. The use of tricyclic antidepressants to control pain probably depends on potentiating this pathway.

Modulation of pain transmission

• Descending pathways from the midbrain and brain stem exert a strong inhibitory effect on dorsal horn transmission. Electrical stimulation of the midbrain periaqueductal grey area causes analgesia through this mechanism.

• The descending inhibition is mediated mainly by endogenous opioid peptides, 5-hydroxytryptamine, noradrenaline and adenosine. Opioids cause analgesia partly by activating these descending pathways, partly by inhibiting transmission in the dorsal horn and

partly by inhibiting excitation of sensory nerve terminals in the periphery.

• Repetitive C-fibre activity facilitates transmission through the dorsal horn ('wind-up') by mechanisms involving activation of NMDA and substance P receptors.

Neuropathic Pain

Neurological disease affecting the sensory pathway can produce severe chronic pain—termed *neuropathic pain*—unrelated to any peripheral tissue injury. This occurs with central nervous system disorders such as stroke and multiple sclerosis, or with conditions associated with peripheral nerve damage, such as mechanical injury, diabetic neuropathy or herpes zoster infection (shingles). The pathophysiological mechanisms underlying this kind of pain are poorly understood, although spontaneous activity in damaged sensory neurons, due to overexpression or redistribution of voltage-gated sodium channels, is thought to be a factor (see Lai et al., 2004; Chahine et al., 2005). The sympathetic nervous system also plays a part, because damaged sensory neurons can express α adrenoceptors and develop a sensitivity to noradrenaline that they do not possess under normal conditions. Thus, physiological stimuli that evoke sympathetic responses can produce severe pain, a phenomenon described clinically as sympathetically mediated pain. Neuropathic pain, which appears to be a component of many types of clinical pain (including common conditions such as back pain and cancer pain, as well as amputation pain), responds poorly to conventional analgesic drugs but can be relieved by some antidepressant and antiepileptic agents (see later section). Potential new targets are discussed at the end of this chapter.

Pain and Nociception

▼ The perception of noxious stimuli (termed *nociception* by Sherrington)

is not the same thing as pain, which is a subjective experience and includes a strong emotional (affective) component. The amount of pain that a particular stimulus produces depends on many factors other than the stimulus itself. It is recognised clinically that many analgesics, particularly those of the morphine type, can greatly reduce the distress associated with pain even though the patient reports no great change in the intensity of the actual sensation. The affective component may be at least as significant as the antinociceptive component in the action of these drugs. There is thus often a poor correlation between the activity of analgesic drugs in animal tests (which mainly assess antinociceptive activity) and their clinical effectiveness.

Chemical Signalling in The Nociceptive Pathway

Chemosensitivity of Nociceptive Nerve Endings

In most cases, stimulation of nociceptive endings in the periphery is chemical in origin. Excessive mechanical or thermal stimuli can obviously cause acute pain, but the persistence of such pain after the stimulus has been removed, or the pain resulting from inflammatory or ischaemic changes in tissues, generally reflects an altered chemical environment of the pain afferents. The current state of knowledge is reviewed by McMahon et al. (2006) and summarised in Figure 41.5.

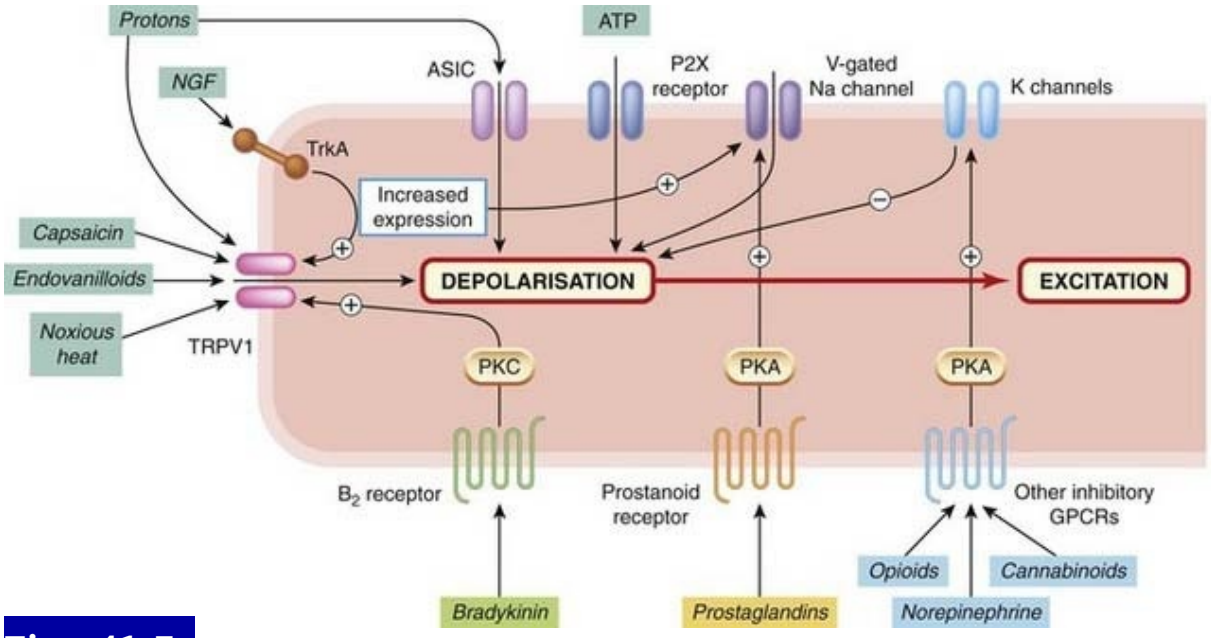


Fig. 41.5 Channels, receptors and transduction mechanisms of nociceptive afferent terminals.

Only the main channels and receptors are shown. Ligand-gated channels include acid-sensitive ion channels (ASICs), ATP-sensitive channels (P2X receptors) and the capsaicin-sensitive channel (TRPV1), which is also sensitive to protons and to temperature. Various facilitatory and inhibitory G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) are shown, which regulate channel function through various second messenger systems. Growth factors such as nerve growth factor (NGF) act via kinase-linked receptors (TrkA) to control ion channel function and gene expression. B_2 receptor, bradykinin type 2 receptor; PKA, protein kinase A; PKC, protein kinase C.

TRP channels—thermal sensation and pain

The *transient receptor potential* (TRP) channel family comprises some 27 or more structurally related ion channels that serve a wide variety of physiological functions (for review, see Flockerzi & Nilius, 2007). Within this family are a group of channels present on sensory neurons that are activated both by thermal stimuli across a wide range of temperatures and by chemical agents (Table 41.1). With respect to pain, the most important channels are TRPV1, TRPM8 and TRPA1 (see Patapoutian et al., 2009).

Table 41.1 Thermosensitive TRP channels expressed on sensory neurons

Channel type	TRPA1	TRPM8	TRPV4	TRPV3	TRPV1	TRPV2
Activation temperature (°C)	< 17	8–28	> 27	> 33	> 42	> 52
Chemical activators	Icilin Wintergreen oil Mustard oil	Menthol Icilin Eucalyptol Geraniol	4αPDD	Camphor Menthol Eugenol	Capsaicin Protons Anandamide Camphor Resiniferatoxin Eugenol	Δ^9-THC

4αPDD, 4 alpha-phorbol 12,13-didecanoate; Δ^9-THC, Δ^9-tetrahydrocannabinol.

▼ **Capsaicin**, the substance in chilli peppers that gives them their pungency, selectively excites nociceptive nerve terminals, causing intense pain if injected into the skin or applied to sensitive structures such as the cornea.[2] It produces this effect by activating TRPV1.[3] Agonists such as capsaicin open the channel, which is permeable to Na^+, Ca^{2+} and other cations, causing depolarisation and initiation of action potentials. The large influx of Ca^{2+} into peripheral nerve terminals also results in peptide release (mainly substance P and CGRP), causing intense vascular and other physiological responses. The Ca^{2+} influx may be enough to cause nerve terminal degeneration, which takes days or weeks to recover. Attempts to use topically applied capsaicin to relieve painful skin conditions have had some success, but the initial strong irritant effect is a major disadvantage. Capsaicin applied to the bladder causes degeneration of primary afferent nerve terminals, and has been used to treat incontinence associated with bladder hyper-reactivity in stroke or spinal injury patients. C-fibre afferents in the bladder serve a local reflex function, which promotes emptying when the bladder is distended, the reflex being exaggerated when central control is lost.

TRPV1 responds not only to capsaicin-like agonists but also to other stimuli (see Table 41.1), including temperatures in excess of about 42°C

(the threshold for pain) and proton concentrations in the micromolar range (pH 5.5 and below), which also cause pain. The receptor thus has unusual 'polymodal' characteristics that closely match those of nociceptive neurons, and it is believed to play a central role in nociception. TRPV1 is, like many other ionotropic receptors, modulated by phosphorylation, and several of the pain-producing substances that act through G-protein-coupled receptors (e.g. bradykinin) work by sensitising TRPV1. A search for endogenous ligands for TRPV1 revealed, surprisingly, that **anandamide** (a lipid mediator previously identified as an agonist at cannabinoid receptors; see Ch. 18) is also a TRPV1 agonist, although less potent than capsaicin. Confirming the role of TRPV1 in nociception, it has been found that TRPV1 knockout mice show reduced responsiveness to noxious heat and also fail to show thermal hyperalgesia in response to inflammation. The latter observation is interesting, because TRPV1 expression is known to be increased by inflammation and this may be a key mechanism by which hyperalgesia is produced. A number of pharmaceutical companies are actively developing TRPV1 antagonists as analgesic agents.

TRPM8 and TRPA1 respond to cold rather than heat (Table 41.1). TRPM8 is important in cold hypersensitivity in neuropathy. It may also be capable of eliciting a novel inhibitory, analgesic control over noxious inputs in chronic pain states (see Fleetwood-Walker et al., 2007). TRPA1 is activated in some experimental settings by noxious cold temperatures, calcium, pain-producing substances and inflammatory mediators (see Patapoutian et al., 2009); it can therefore also be considered to be a polymodal sensor.

Kinins

[2]Anyone who has rubbed their eyes after cutting up chilli peppers will

know this.

[3]The receptor was originally known as the vanilloid receptor because many capsaicin-like compounds are based on the structure of vanillic acid.

The most active pain-producing substances are *bradykinin* and *kallidin* (see Ch. 17), two closely related peptides produced under conditions of tissue injury by the proteolytic cleavage of the active kinins from a precursor protein contained in the plasma. Bradykinin is a potent pain-producing substance, acting partly by release of prostaglandins, which strongly enhance the direct action of bradykinin on the nerve terminals (Fig. 41.6). Bradykinin acts on B_2 receptors (see Ch. 17) on nociceptive neurons. B_2 receptors are coupled to activation of a specific isoform of protein kinase C (PKCε), which phosphorylates TRPV1 and facilitates opening of the TRPV1 channel.

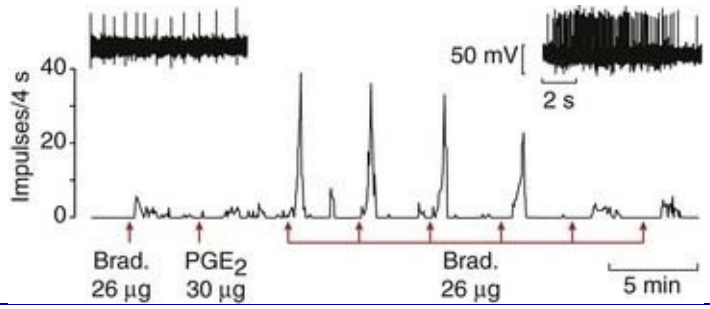


Fig. 41.6 Response of a nociceptive afferent neuron to bradykinin (Brad.) and prostaglandin.

Recordings were made from a nociceptive afferent fibre supplying a muscle, and drugs were injected into the arterial supply. Upper records: single-fibre recordings showing discharge caused by bradykinin alone (left), and by bradykinin following injection of prostaglandin (right). Lower trace: ratemeter recording of single-fibre discharge, showing long-lasting enhancement of response to bradykinin after an injection of prostaglandin E_2 (PGE_2). Prostaglandin itself did not evoke a discharge.

(From Mense S 1981 Brain Res 225: 95.)

▼ Bradykinin is converted in tissues by removal of a terminal arginine residue to *des-Arg9 bradykinin*, which acts selectively on B_1 receptors. B_1 receptors are normally expressed at very low levels, but their expression is strongly upregulated in inflamed tissues (see Calixto et al., 2004). Transgenic knockout animals lacking either type of receptor show reduced inflammatory hyperalgesia. Specific competitive antagonists for both B_1 and B_2 receptors are known, including peptides such as the B_2 antagonist **icatibant** (Ch. 17), as well as non-peptides. These show analgesic and anti-inflammatory properties, and may prove suitable for clinical use as analgesics (see Marceau & Regoli, 2004).

Prostaglandins

Prostaglandins do not themselves cause pain, but they strongly enhance the pain-producing effect of other agents such as 5-hydroxytryptamine or bradykinin (Fig. 41.6). Prostaglandins of the E and F series are released in inflammation (Ch. 17) and also during tissue ischaemia. Antagonists at EP_1 receptors decrease inflammatory hyperalgesia in animal models (Hall et al., 2007). Prostaglandins sensitise nerve terminals to other agents partly by inhibiting potassium channels and partly by facilitating —through second messenger-mediated phosphorylation reactions (see Ch. 3)—the cation channels opened by noxious agents. It is of interest that bradykinin itself causes prostaglandin release, and thus has a powerful 'self-sensitising' effect on nociceptive afferents. Other eicosanoids, including prostacyclin, leukotrienes and the unstable hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (HETE) derivatives (Ch. 17), may also be important (see Samad et al., 2002). The analgesic effects of NSAIDs (Ch. 26) result from inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis.

Other peripheral mediators

Various metabolites and substances are released from damaged or

ischaemic cells, or inflamed tissues, including ATP, protons (produced by lactic acid), 5-hydroxytryptamine, histamine and K^+, many of which affect nociceptive nerve terminals.

ATP excites nociceptive nerve terminals by acting on homomeric $P2X_3$ receptors or heteromeric $P2X_2/P2X_3$ receptors (see Ch. 16), ligand-gated ion channels that are selectively expressed by these neurons. Downregulation of $P2X_3$ receptors, by antisense DNA technology, reduces inflammatory pain.[4] Antagonists at this receptor are analgesic in animal models (see Jarvis, 2003) and may be developed for clinical use. Other P2X receptors ($P2X_4$ and $P2X_7$) are expressed on microglia in the spinal cord; activation results in the release of cytokines and chemokines that then act on neighbouring neurons to promote hypersensitivity. ATP and other purine mediators, such as adenosine, also play a role in the dorsal horn, and other types of purinoceptor may also be targeted by analgesic drugs in the future (see Sawynok, 2007).

[4]$P2X_3$ knockout mice are, in contrast, fairly normal in this respect, presumably because other mechanisms take over.

Low pH excites nociceptive afferent neurons partly by opening proton-activated cation channels (acid-sensitive ion channels) and partly by facilitation of TRPV1 (see above).

5-Hydroxytryptamine causes excitation, but studies with antagonists suggest that it plays at most a minor role. Histamine is also active but causes itching rather than actual pain. Both these substances are released locally in inflammation (see Ch. 17).

In summary, pain endings can be activated or sensitised by a wide variety of endogenous mediators, the receptors for which are often up-or downregulated under pathophysiological conditions. Neuroplasticity plays an important role in persistent pain states, irrespective of their

primary cause; not surprisingly, the signalling pathways have much in common with, and are at least as complex as, those involved in other neuroplasticity-based CNS pathologies discussed in later chapters. The strategies for developing the next wave of analgesic drugs therefore follow similar lines.[5]

[5]And, sceptics may argue, face similar obstacles in relation to specificity and unwanted effects.

Mechanisms of pain and nociception

• Nociception is the mechanism whereby noxious peripheral stimuli are transmitted to the central nervous system. Pain is a subjective experience not always associated with nociception.

• Polymodal nociceptors (PMNs) are the main type of peripheral sensory neuron that responds to noxious stimuli. The majority are non-myelinated C fibres whose endings respond to thermal, mechanical and chemical stimuli.

• Chemical stimuli acting on PMNs to cause pain include bradykinin, protons, ATP and vanilloids (e.g. capsaicin). PMNs are sensitised by prostaglandins, which explains the analgesic effect of **aspirin**-like drugs, particularly in the presence of inflammation.

• The TRPV1 receptor (transient receptor potential vanilloid receptor 1) responds to noxious heat as well as to **capsaicin**-like agonists. The lipid mediator **anandamide** is an agonist at vanilloid receptors, as well as being an endogenous cannabinoid receptor agonist.

• Nociceptive fibres terminate in the superficial layers of the dorsal horn, forming synaptic connections with transmission neurons running to the thalamus.

• PMN neurons release glutamate (fast transmitter) and various peptides (especially substance P) that act as slow transmitters. Peptides are also released peripherally and contribute to neurogenic inflammation.

• Neuropathic pain, associated with damage to neurons of the nociceptive pathway rather than an excessive peripheral stimulus, is frequently a component of chronic pain states and may respond poorly to opioid analgesics.

Transmitters and Modulators in The Nociceptive Pathway

The family of endogenous opioid peptides (see Ch. 19) plays a key role in modulating nociceptive transmission. Opioid analgesics act on the various receptors for these peptides.

Several neuropeptides are thought to play key roles in the transmission of nociceptive information in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord. These include substance P, CGRP and galanin, each of which is expressed by nociceptive afferent neurons and, it should be noted, can be released at their peripheral as well as their central terminals. In the periphery, substance P and CGRP produce some of the features of neurogenic inflammation whereas galanin is anti-inflammatory. CGRP antagonists have potential for the treatment of migraine (see Ch. 15) but not as analgesics for other pain states. In the dorsal horn, substance P may be involved in wind-up and central sensitisation. In animal models, antagonists of substance P at the NK_1 receptor were shown to be effective analgesic drugs, but clinical trials have failed to confirm this in humans, so the high hopes for developing a new type of analgesic for clinical use have so far not come to fruition (see Hill & Oliver, 2007). The reason for this failure is not clear, but it may imply that substance P is less important as a pain mediator in humans than in rats.

Other mediators include the following:

• Glutamate (see Ch. 37) is released from primary afferent neurons and, acting on AMPA receptors, is responsible for fast synaptic transmission at the first synapse in the dorsal horn. There is also a slower NMDA receptor-mediated response, which is important in relation to the wind-

up phenomenon (see Fig. 41.3).

• GABA (see Ch. 37) is released by spinal cord interneurons and inhibits transmitter release by primary afferent terminals in the dorsal horn.

• ATP mediates a component of fast synaptic transmission at the first synapse in the dorsal horn as well as acting on primary afferent fibres to excite them (see above).

• 5-Hydroxytryptamine is the transmitter of inhibitory neurons running from the RVM to the dorsal horn.

• Noradrenaline is the transmitter of the inhibitory pathway from the LC to the dorsal horn, and possibly also in other antinociceptive pathways.

• Adenosine plays a dual role in regulating nociceptive transmission, activation of A_1 receptors causing analgesia, by acting on both peripheral nerve terminals and dorsal horn neurons, while activation of A_2 receptors in the periphery does the opposite (see Liu & Salter, 2005). There is evidence for descending inhibitory purinergic pathways acting on pain transmission through A_1 receptors.

Analgesic Drugs

Opioid Drugs

Opium is an extract of the juice of the poppy *Papaver somniferum* that contains **morphine** and other related alkaloids. It has been used for social and medicinal purposes for thousands of years as an agent to produce euphoria, analgesia and sleep, and to prevent diarrhoea. It was introduced in Britain at the end of the 17th century, usually taken orally as ‘tincture of laudanum’, addiction to which acquired a certain social cachet during the next 200 years. The situation changed when the

hypodermic syringe and needle were invented in the mid-19th century, and opioid dependence began to take on a more sinister significance (see Ch. 48).

The opioid field is reviewed thoroughly by Corbett et al. (2006).

Chemical Aspects

The structure of morphine (Fig. 41.7) was determined in 1902, and since then many semisynthetic compounds (produced by chemical modification of morphine) and fully synthetic opioids have been studied.

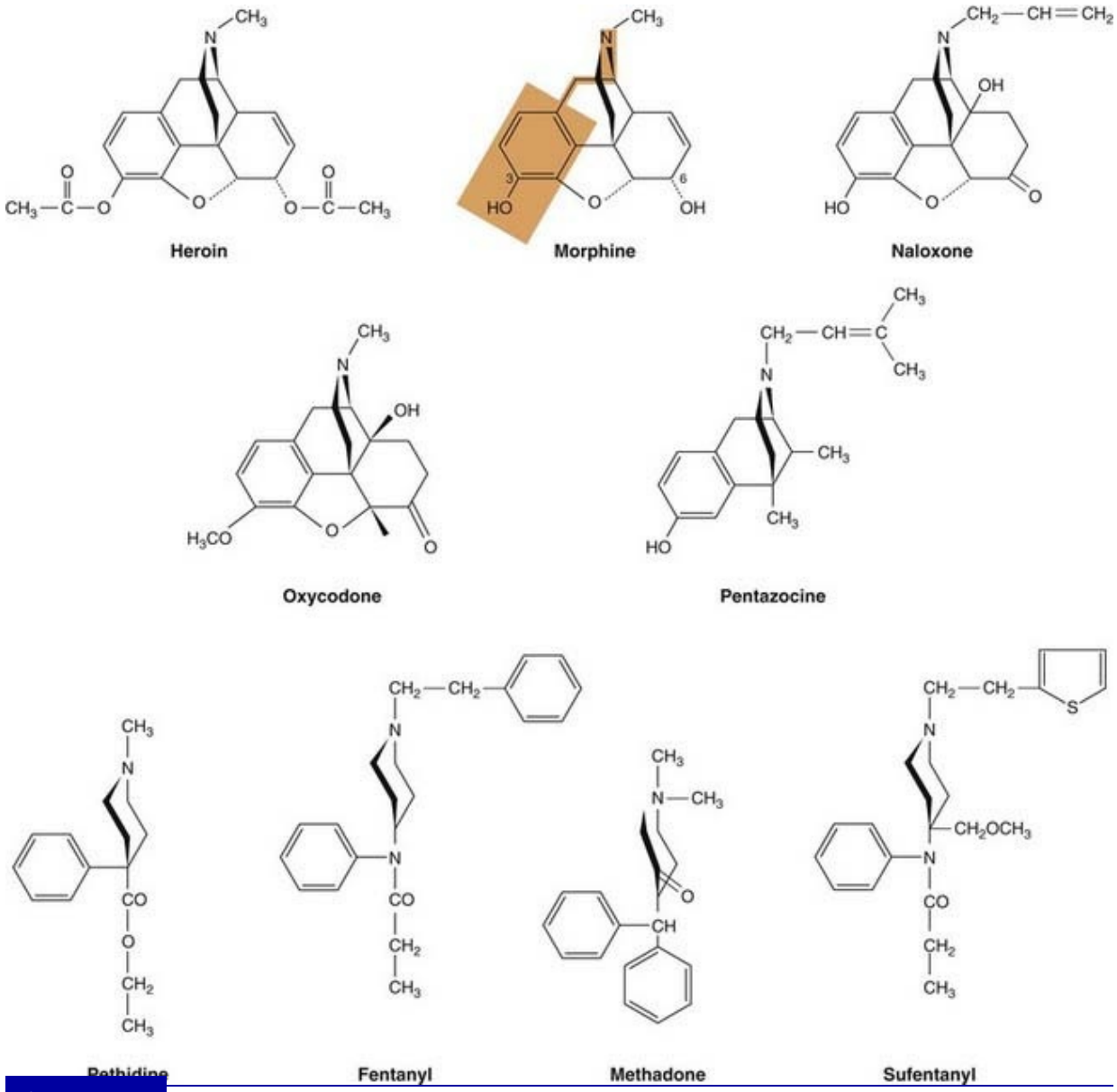


Fig. 41.7 Structures of some opioid analgesics.

The red shaded area indicates the part of the morphine molecule that is structurally similar to tyrosine, the N-terminal amino acid in the endorphins. Carbon atoms 3 and 6 in the morphine structure are indicated. Diamorphine (heroin) is 3,6-diacetylmorphine and morphine is metabolised by addition of a glucuronide moiety at either position 3 or position 6.

Morphine analogues

Morphine is a phenanthrene derivative with two planar rings and two aliphatic ring structures, which occupy a plane roughly at right angles to the rest of the molecule (Fig. 41.7). The most important parts of the

molecule for opioid activity are the free hydroxyl on the benzene ring that is linked by two carbon atoms to a nitrogen atom. Variants of the morphine molecule have been produced by substitution at one or both of the hydroxyls (e.g. **diamorphine**[6] 3,6-diacetylmorphine, **codeine** 3-methoxymorphine and **oxycodone**). Substitution of a bulky substituent on the nitrogen atom introduces antagonist activity to the molecule (e.g. **naloxone**).

Synthetic derivatives

Phenylpiperidine series.

[6]While 'diamorphine' is the recommended International Nonproprietary Name (rINN), this drug is better known as heroin.

Pethidine (known as meperidine in the USA), the first fully synthetic morphine-like drug (Fig. 41.7), was discovered accidentally when new atropine-like drugs were being sought. It is chemically unlike morphine, although its pharmacological actions are very similar. **Fentanyl** and **alfentanyl** as well as **sufentanil** (not used in the UK) are more potent and shorter-acting derivatives. **Remifentanyl** was designed as a potent analogue of fentanyl that is rapidly broken down by esterases in both blood and tissues, resulting in rapid elimination.

Methadone series.

Methadone, although its structural formula bears no obvious chemical relationship to that of morphine, assumes a similar conformation in solution and was designed by reference to the common three-dimensional structural features of morphine and pethidine (Fig. 41.7).

Benzomorphan series.

Therapeutically the most important member of this class is **pentazocine**

(Fig. 41.7). Benzomorphans differ from morphine in their receptor-binding profile (see below), and so have somewhat different actions and side effects. **Cyclazocine** was an important pharmacological tool in the original description of the putative σ receptor (see below); it is not used in the UK.

Thebaine derivatives.

Buprenorphine resembles morphine but is a partial agonist that binds very tightly to opioid receptors. Because it is a partial agonist, it induces less respiratory depression than other opioids. It is a very potent drug that can also antagonise the effect of other opioids. **Etorphine** is a highly potent full agonist used in veterinary practice.

Opioid analgesics

• **Terminology**:

– *opioid*: any substance, whether endogenous or synthetic, that produces morphine-like effects that are blocked by antagonists such as **naloxone**

– *opiate*: compounds such as **morphine** and **codeine** that are found in the opium poppy

– *narcotic analgesic*: old term for opioids; *narcotic* refers to their ability to induce sleep. Unfortunately, the term narcotic has subsequently been hijacked and used inappropriately by some to refer generically to drugs of abuse (see Ch. 48).

• Important morphine-like agonists include diamorphine, oxycodone and codeine.

• The main groups of synthetic analogues are the piperidines (e.g. **pethidine** and **fentanyl**), the methadone-like drugs, the benzomorphans (e.g. **pentazocine**) and the thebaine derivatives (e.g. **buprenorphine**).

• Opioid analgesics may be given orally, by injection or intrathecally to produce analgesia.

Opioid Receptors

The proposal that opioids produce analgesia and their other behavioural effects by interacting with specific receptors first arose in the 1950s, based on the strict structural and stereochemical requirements essential for activity. It was, however, only with the development of molecules with antagonist activity (first **nalorphine** and then **naloxone**) that the notion of a specific receptor became accepted. Martin and co-workers then provided evidence for multiple types of opioid receptors. They proposed three different types of receptor, called μ, κ and σ[7] for which the prototypical agonists were morphine, ketocyclazocine and *N*-allylnormetazocine (SKF 10047), respectively. Subsequently, in the early 1970s three research groups led by Simon, Snyder and Terenius simultaneously described the use of radioligand binding to demonstrate the presence of μ receptors in the brain.

[7]The σ 'receptor' is no longer considered to be an opioid receptor. It was postulated in order to account for the dysphoric effects (anxiety, hallucinations, bad dreams, etc.) produced by some opioids. It is now accepted that these effects result from drug-induced block of the NMDA receptor channel pore, an effect that is also produced by agents such as ketamine (see Ch. 40). Subsequently, the term σ receptor has also been used to describe other, non-NMDA receptor sites and a subdivision into σ_1 and σ_2 subtypes proposed (Hashimoto & Ishiwata, 2006). These proteins may be novel drug targets for psychiatric disorders.

Why are there specific receptors in the brain for morphine, a drug that is present in the opium poppy? Hughes and Kosterlitz rationalised that there must be an endogenous substance or substances in the brain that activated these receptors.[8] In 1975 they reported the isolation and characterisation of the first endogenous ligands, the *enkephalins*. We now know that the enkephalins are only two members of a larger family of endogenous opioid peptides known collectively as the *endorphins,* all of

which possess a tyrosine residue at their N-terminus. The chemical structure of tyrosine includes an amine group separated from a phenol ring by two carbon atoms. This same structure (phenol-2 carbon atom chain-amine) is also contained within the morphine structure (Fig. 41.7). It is probably just serendipity that the opium poppy synthesises a semirigid alkaloid molecule, morphine, part of which structurally resembles the tyrosine residue in the endogenous opioid peptides.

[8]It may seem obvious today that if there is a receptor then there is likely also to be an endogenous ligand for that receptor but it was the search for, and subsequent discovery of, the enkephalins that gave credence to this idea. There are, however, exceptions to this rule. For example, although several endogenous ligands for the benzodiazepine 'receptor' or binding site on the $GABA_A$ receptor have been suggested, none so far has achieved universal acceptance (see Ch. 43).

Following on from the discovery of the enkephalins, another receptor, δ, was discovered using a combination of classical pharmacological and radioligand binding approaches. Later, another opioid receptor (ORL_1) that had a high a degree of amino acid sequence homology (> 60%) towards the μ, δ and κ opioid receptors was identified by cloning techniques, although the antagonist, naloxone, did not bind to this new opioid receptor. The terminology used for opioid receptors has in recent years been through several revisions; in this chapter we shall use the classical terminology. The four opioid receptors, μ, δ, κ and ORL_1 are all G-protein-coupled receptors (see Ch 3).[9] The main behavioural effects resulting from their activation are summarised in Table 41.2. The interaction of various endogenous opioid peptides with the various receptor types is summarised in Table 41.3. Some agents that are used as experimental tools for distinguishing the different receptor types are also shown.

Table 41.2 Functional effects associated with the main types of opioid receptor

Receptor (classical terminology)	μ	δ	κ	ORL_1
Receptor (recommended new terminology)	**MOPr**	**DOPr**	**KOPr**	**NOPr**
Analgesia				
Supraspinal	+++	–?	–	Antiopioid[a]
Spinal	++	++	+	++
Peripheral	++	–	++	–
Respiratory depression	+++	++	–	–
Pupil constriction	++	–	+	–
Reduced gastrointestinal motility	++	++	+	–
Euphoria	+++	–	–	–
Dysphoria and hallucinations	–	–	+++	–
Sedation	++	–	++	–
Catatonia	–	–	–	++
Physical dependence	+++	–	–	–

[a]ORL_1 agonists were originally thought to produce nociception or hyperalgesia but it was later shown that they reverse the supraspinal analgesic effects of endogenous and exogenous μ opioid receptor agonists.

Table 41.3 Endogenous opioid peptides and receptor-selective drugs

	μ	δ	κ	ORL_1
Endogenous peptides				
β-Endorphin	+++	+++	+	–
Leu-enkephalin	(++)	+++	+	–
Met-enkephalin	++	+++	+	–
Dynorphin	+	+	+++	–
Orphanin FQ/nociceptin[a]	–	–	–	+++
Research tools				
Agonists				
DAMGO[b]	+++	–	–	–
DPDPE[b]	–	++	–	–
Enadoline	–	–	+++	–
Ro64-6198	–	–	–	+++
Antagonists				
CTOP[b]	+++	–	–	–
Naltrindole	–	+++	+	–
Nor-binaltorphimine	+	+	+++	–
SB 612111	–	–	–	+++

Note: + symbols represent agonists activity; partial agonists in parentheses; – symbols represent weak or no activity.
[a]The endogenous ligand for the ORL_1 receptor is referred to in the literature both as orphanin FQ and as nociceptin.
[b]DAMGO, DPDPE and CTOP are synthetic peptides.

[9]The opioid receptors are unusual among G-protein-coupled receptors. First, in that there are many (20 or more) opioid peptides but only four receptors. In contrast, 5-hydroxytryptamine, for example, is a single mediator interacting with many (about 14) receptors, which is the more common pattern. Second, all four receptors couple to the same types of G-protein (G_i/G_o) and therefore activate the same spectrum of cellular effector mechanisms. In contrast, other receptor families (e.g. muscarinic receptors) couple to different types of G-proteins and therefore give rise to different cellular responses (see Ch. 13).

The development of transgenic mouse strains lacking each of the three main opioid receptor types (see Kieffer, 1999) has revealed that the major pharmacological effects of morphine, including analgesia, are mediated by the μ receptor.

All four opioid receptors apear to form homomeric as well as heteromeric receptor complexes (see Milligan, 2004). Opioid receptors are, in fact, quite promiscuous and can form heterodimers with non-opioid receptors. Heterodimerisation between opioid receptors has been shown to result in changes in the pharmacology of the receptors from that observed with the monomeric receptors and may explain some of the subtypes of each receptor that have been proposed. Another level of complexity may reflect 'protean agonism' (see Ch. 3), whereby different ligands acting on the same opioid receptor can elicit different cellular responses and differential receptor trafficking (see Kelly et al., 2008).

Opioid receptors



• μ Receptors are responsible for most of the analgesic effects of opioids, and for some major unwanted effects (e.g. respiratory depression, euphoria, sedation and dependence). Most of the analgesic opioids are μ-receptor agonists.

• δ Receptor activation results in analgesia but also can be proconvulsant.

• κ Receptors contribute to analgesia at the spinal level and may elicit sedation, dysphoria and hallucinations. Some analgesics are mixed κ agonists/μ antagonists.

• ORL_1 receptors are also members of the opioid receptor family. Activation results in an antiopioid effect (supraspinal), analgesia (spinal), immobility and impairment of learning.

• σ Receptors are not true opioid receptors but are the site of action of certain psychotomimetic drugs, with which some opioids also interact.

• All opioid receptors are linked through G_i/G_o-proteins and thus open potassium channels (causing hyperpolarisation) and inhibit the opening of calcium channels (inhibiting transmitter release). In addition they inhibit adenylyl cyclase and activate the MAP kinase (ERK) pathway.

• Functional heterodimers, formed by combination of different types of opioid receptor or with other types of G-protein-coupled receptor, may occur and give rise to further pharmacological diversity.

Agonists and Antagonists

Opioids vary not only in their receptor specificity but also in their efficacy at the different types of receptor. Thus, some agents act as agonists or partial agonists on one type of receptor, and antagonists or partial agonists at another, producing a very complicated pharmacological picture.

Four main pharmacological categories are recognised:

1 *Pure agonists*. These can be either peptides (endogenous or synthetic) or non-peptides such as **etorphine** and **methadone**. They have high affinity for μ receptors and generally lower affinity for δ and κ sites. Methadone does, however, have activity at other, non-opioid receptors and this may explain its wide range of side effects.

2 *Partial agonists*. **Morphine** is in fact a partial agonist at the μ opioid receptor. This may surprise some clinicians because it is a powerful analgesic that can, at high doses, induce death due to severe respiratory depression. However, when considering receptor activation, it has lower intrinsic efficacy than full agonists. Other opioid drugs, notably **codeine** and **dextropropoxyphene**, are sometimes referred to as weak agonists because their maximal effects, both analgesic and unwanted, are less than those of morphine.

3 *Mixed agonist–antagonists*. These drugs, typified by **nalorphine** and **pentazocine**, combine a degree of κ agonist and μ antagonist (or weak partial agonist) activity. Most of the drugs in this group tend to cause dysphoria rather than euphoria, probably by acting on the κ receptor.

4 *Antagonists*. These drugs produce very little effect when given on their own but block the effects of opioids. The most important examples are **naloxone** and **naltrexone**.

Mechanism of Action of Opioids

The opioids have probably been studied more intensively than any other group of drugs in the effort to understand their powerful effects in molecular, cellular and physiological terms, and to use this understanding to develop new drugs as analgesics with significant advantages over morphine. Even so, morphine—described by Osler as 'God's own medicine'—remains the standard against which any new analgesic is assessed.

Cellular actions

All four types of opioid receptor belong to the family of G_i/G_o-protein-coupled receptors. Opioids thus exert powerful effects on ion channels on neuronal membranes through a direct G-protein coupling to the channel. Opioids promote the opening of a specific type of potassium channel (the inwardly rectifying potassium channel) and inhibit the opening of voltage-gated calcium channels (mainly the N type of calcium channel). These membrane effects decrease neuronal excitability (because the increased K^+ conductance causes hyperpolarisation of the membrane making the cell less likely to fire action potentials) and reduce transmitter release (due to inhibition of Ca^{2+} entry). The overall effect is therefore inhibitory at the cellular level. Nonetheless, opioids do

increase activity in some neuronal pathways (see below). They do this by a process of *disinhibition* whereby they cause excitation of projection neurons by suppressing the firing of inhibitory interneurons that tonically inhibit the projection neurons (see Ch. 36, Fig. 36.2).

At the biochemical level, all four receptor types inhibit adenylyl cyclase and cause MAP kinase (ERK) activation (see Ch. 3). These cellular responses are likely to be important in mediating the long-term adaptive changes that occur in response to prolonged receptor activation and which, for μ-receptor agonists, may underlie the phenomenon of physical dependence (see Ch. 48).

At the cellular level, therefore, all four types of opioid receptor mediate very similar effects. It is their heterogeneous anatomical distributions across the CNS that give rise to the different behavioural responses seen with selective agonists for each type of receptor.

Sites of action of opioids to produce analgesia

Opioid receptors are widely distributed in the brain and spinal cord. Opioids are effective as analgesics when injected in minute doses into a number of specific brain nuclei (such as the insular cortex, amygdala, hypothalamus, PAG region and RVM) as well as into the dorsal horn of the spinal cord see Fig. 41.4 and (for a fuller description, see Fields, 2004). There is evidence to suggest that supraspinal opioid analgesia involves endogenous opioid peptide release both at supraspinal and spinal sites and that at the spinal level there is also a component of the analgesia that results from the release of serotonin (5-HT) from descending inhibitory fibres. Surgical interruption of the descending pathway from the RVM to the spinal cord reduces analgesia induced by morphine that has been given systemically or microinjected into supraspinal sites, implying that in man a combination of effects at

supraspinal and spinal sites contribute to the analgesic response.

At the spinal level, morphine inhibits transmission of nociceptive impulses through the dorsal horn and suppresses nociceptive spinal reflexes, even in patients with spinal cord transection. It can act presynaptically to inhibit release of various neurotransmitters from primary afferent terminals in the dorsal horn as well as acting postsynaptically to reduce the excitability of dorsal horn neurons.

There is also evidence (see Sawynok, 2003) that opioids inhibit the discharge of nociceptive afferent terminals in the periphery, particularly under conditions of inflammation, in which the expression of opioid receptors by sensory neurons is increased. Injection of morphine into the knee joint following surgery to the joint provides effective analgesia, undermining the age-old belief that opioid analgesia is exclusively a central phenomenon.

Pharmacological Actions

Morphine is typical of many opioid analgesics and will be taken as the reference compound.

The most important effects of morphine are on the CNS and the gastrointestinal tract, although numerous effects of lesser significance on many other systems have been described.

Effects on the central nervous system

Analgesia

Morphine is effective in most kinds of acute and chronic pain, although opioids in general are less effective in neuropathic pain syndromes (such as phantom limb and other types of deafferentation pain, and trigeminal neuralgia) than in pain associated with tissue injury, inflammation or tumour growth.

As well as being antinociceptive, morphine also reduces the affective component of pain. This reflects its supraspinal action, possibly at the level of the limbic system, which is probably involved in the euphoria-producing effect. Drugs such as pentazocine share the antinociceptive actions of morphine but have much less effect on the psychological response to pain.

In both animal studies and in patients receiving opioids for pain relief, prolonged exposure to opioids may sometimes paradoxically induce a state of hyperalgesia in which pain sensitisation or allodynia occurs (see Chu et al., 2008). This can appear as a reduced analgesic response to a given dose of opioid but should not be confused with tolerance which is a reduced responsiveness due in large part to μ-receptor desensitisation (see below) and occurs with other opioid-induced behaviours in addition to analgesia. Hyperalgesia appears to have peripheral, spinal and supraspinal components. At the cellular level, the mechanisms underlying this phenomenon are still unclear but appear to involve PKC and NMDA receptor activation. Opioid-induced hyperalgesia can be reduced by ketamine, an NMDA antagonist, propofol, α_2 adrenoceptor agonists and COX-2 inhibitors. Switching to another opioid can also reduce hyperalgesia; in this regard, methadone may be a good choice as it is a weak NMDA receptor antagonist.

Euphoria

Morphine causes a powerful sense of contentment and well-being (see also Ch. 48). This is an important component of its analgesic effect, because the agitation and anxiety associated with a painful illness or injury are thereby reduced. If morphine or diamorphine (heroin) is given intravenously, the result is a sudden ‘rush’ likened to an ‘abdominal orgasm’. The euphoria produced by morphine depends considerably on

the circumstances. In patients who are distressed, it is pronounced, but in patients who become accustomed to chronic pain, morphine causes analgesia with little or no euphoria. Some patients report restlessness rather than euphoria under these circumstances.

Euphoria is mediated through μ receptors whereas κ-receptor activation produces dysphoria and hallucinations (see Table 41.2). Thus, different opioid drugs vary greatly in the amount of euphoria that they produce. It does not occur with codeine or with pentazocine to any marked extent.

Respiratory depression

Respiratory depression, resulting in increased arterial P_{CO_2}, occurs with a normal analgesic dose of morphine or related compounds, although in patients in severe pain the degree of respiratory depression produced may be less than anticipated. Respiratory depression is mediated by μ receptors. The depressant effect is associated with a decrease in the sensitivity of the respiratory centres to arterial P_{co2} and an inhibition of respiratory rhythm generation. Changes in P_{co2} are detected by chemosensitive neurons in a number of brain stem and medullary nuclei. Increased arterial CO_2 (hypercapnia) thus normally results in a compensatory increase in minute ventilation rate (V_E). In some of the chemosensitive regions, opioids exert a depressant effect on the hypercapnic response, making the increase in V_E insufficient to counteract the increased CO_2. Respiratory movements originate from activity of a rhythm generator (the *pre-Bötzinger complex*) within the ventral respiratory column of the medulla. μ Opioid receptors are located in this region, and local injection of opioid agonists decreases respiratory frequency.

Respiratory depression by opioids is not accompanied by depression of

the medullary centres controlling cardiovascular function (in contrast to the action of anaesthetics and other general depressants). This means that respiratory depression produced by opioids is much better tolerated than a similar degree of depression caused by, say, a barbiturate. Nonetheless, respiratory depression is the most troublesome unwanted effect of these drugs and, unlike that due to general CNS depressant drugs, it occurs at therapeutic doses. It is the commonest cause of death in acute opioid poisoning.

Depression of cough reflex

Cough suppression (antitussive effect; see also Ch. 27), surprisingly, does not correlate closely with the analgesic and respiratory depressant actions of opioids, and its mechanism at the receptor level is unclear. In general, increasing substitution on the phenolic hydroxyl group of morphine increases antitussive relative to analgesic activity. **Codeine** and **pholcodine** suppress cough in subanalgesic doses but they cause constipation as an unwanted effect.

▼ **Dextromethorphan**, the dextro-isomer of the opioid analgesic, **levorphanol**, has no affinity for opioid receptors and its cough suppression is not antagonised by naloxone. It is an uncompetitive NMDA receptor antagonist with putative actions at σ receptors and is believed to work at various sites in the brain stem and medulla to suppress cough. In addition to its antitussive action, dextromethorphan is neuroprotective (see Ch. 39) and has an analgesic action in neuropathic pain (see below).

Nausea and vomiting

Nausea and vomiting occur in up to 40% of patients to whom morphine is given, and do not seem to be separable from the analgesic effect among a range of opioid analgesics. The site of action is the *area*

postrema (chemoreceptor trigger zone), a region of the medulla where chemical stimuli of many kinds may initiate vomiting (see Ch. 29).[10] Nausea and vomiting following morphine injection are usually transient and disappear with repeated administration although, in some individuals, they persist and can limit patient compliance. Acute administration of morphine-6-glucuronide, an active metabolite of morphine, may produce less nausea and vomiting, probably because it is more polar and does not penetrate the area postrema as well as morphine.

Pupillary constriction

[10]The chemically related compound apomorphine is more strongly emetic than morphine, through its action as a dopamine agonist; despite its name, it is inactive on opioid receptors.

Pupillary constriction is caused by μ and κ receptor-mediated stimulation of the oculomotor nucleus. Pinpoint pupils are an important diagnostic feature in opioid poisoning,[11] because most other causes of coma and respiratory depression produce pupillary dilatation. Tolerance does not develop to the pupillary constriction induced by opioids and therefore can be observed in opioid-dependent drug users who may have been taking opioids for a considerable time.

Effects on the gastrointestinal tract

[11]The exception is pethidine, which causes pupillary dilatation because it blocks muscarinic receptors.

Opioids increase tone and reduce motility in many parts of the gastrointestinal system, resulting in constipation, which may be severe and very troublesome to the patient.[12] The resulting delay in gastric emptying can considerably retard the absorption of other drugs. Pressure

in the biliary tract increases because of contraction of the gall bladder and constriction of the biliary sphincter. Opioids should be avoided in patients suffering from biliary colic due to gallstones, in whom pain may be increased rather than relieved. The rise in intrabiliary pressure can cause a transient increase in the concentration of amylase and lipase in the plasma.

[12]In treating pain, constipation is considered as an undesirable side effect. However, opioids such as codeine and morphine can be used to treat diarrhoea.

The action of morphine on visceral smooth muscle is probably mediated mainly through the intramural nerve plexuses, because the increase in tone is reduced or abolished by atropine. It is also partly mediated by a central action of morphine, because intraventricular injection of morphine inhibits propulsive gastrointestinal movements. **Methylnaltrexone bromide** (see also Ch. 8) and **alvimopan** (not yet approved in the UK) are opioid antagonists that do not cross the blood–brain barrier. They have been developed to reduce unwanted peripheral side effects of opioids such as constipation without significantly reducing analgesia or precipitating withdrawal in dependent individuals.

Other actions of opioids

Morphine releases histamine from mast cells by an action unrelated to opioid receptors. Pethidine and fentanyl do not produce this effect. The release of histamine can cause local effects, such as urticaria and itching at the site of the injection, or systemic effects, namely bronchoconstriction and hypotension. The bronchoconstrictor effect can have serious consequences for asthmatic patients, to whom morphine should not be given. Although histamine release by morphine does not appear to be opioid-receptor mediated, itching in individuals receiving

opioids given systemically has been reported to be reduced by opioid antagonists indicating another potential therapeutic use of peripherally acting antagonists.

Hypotension and bradycardia occur with large doses of most opioids, due to an action on the medulla. With morphine and similar drugs, histamine release may contribute to the hypotension.

Effects on smooth muscle other than that of the gastrointestinal tract and bronchi are slight, although spasms of the ureters, bladder and uterus sometimes occur. The *Straub tail reaction*, an improbable phenomenon beloved of opioid pharmacologists, consists of a raising and stiffening of the tail of rats or mice given opioid drugs, and is due to spasm of a muscle at the base of the tail. It was through this effect that the analgesic action of pethidine was discovered.

Opioids also exert complex immunosuppressant effects, which may be important as a link between the nervous system and immune function (see Vallejo et al., 2004). The pharmacological significance of this is not yet clear, but there is evidence in humans that the immune system is depressed by long-term opioid abuse, leading to increased susceptibility to infections.

Actions of morphine



- The main pharmacological effects are:
  - analgesia
  - euphoria and sedation
  - respiratory depression and suppression of cough
  - nausea and vomiting
  - pupillary constriction
  - reduced gastrointestinal motility, causing constipation

– histamine release, causing bronchoconstriction and hypotension.

• The most troublesome unwanted effects are constipation and respiratory depression.

• Acute overdosage with morphine produces coma and respiratory depression.

• The morphine metabolite, morphine-6-glucuronide, is more potent as an analgesic.

• Diamorphine is inactive at opioid receptors but is rapidly cleaved to 6-acetylmorphine and morphine.

• Codeine is also converted to morphine.

Tolerance and Dependence

Tolerance to many of the actions of opioids (i.e. an increase in the dose needed to produce a given pharmacological effect) develops within a few days during repeated administration. There is some controversy over whether significant tolerance develops to the analgesic effects of morphine, especially in palliative care patients with severe cancer pain (see McQuay, 1999; Ballantyne & Mao, 2003). Drug rotation (changing from one opioid to another) is frequently used clinically to overcome loss of effectiveness. As tolerance is likely to depend upon the level of receptor occupancy, the degree of tolerance observed may reflect the response being assessed, the intrinsic efficacy of the drug and the dose being administered.

Physical dependence refers to a state in which withdrawal of the drug causes adverse physiological effects, *i.e.* the abstinence syndrome.

Different adaptive cellular mechanisms underlie tolerance and dependence (see Williams et al., 2001; see also Chs. 2 and 48). These phenomena occur to some degree whenever opioids are administered for more than a few days. They must not be confused with addiction (see Ch. 48), in which physical dependence is much more pronounced and

psychological dependence (or 'craving') is the main driving force. Addiction is rare in patients receiving opioids to control pain.

Tolerance

In animal experiments, tolerance can be detected even with a single dose of morphine. Tolerance extends to most of the pharmacological effects of morphine, including analgesia, emesis, euphoria and respiratory depression, but affects the constipating and pupil-constricting actions much less. Therefore, addicts may take 50 times the normal analgesic dose of morphine with relatively little respiratory depression but marked constipation and pupillary constriction.

The cellular mechanisms responsible for tolerance are discussed in Chapter 2. Tolerance results in part from desensitisation of the μ-opioid receptors (i.e. at the level of the drug target) as well as from long-term adaptive changes at the cellular, synaptic and network levels (see Christie, 2008). Tolerance is a general phenomenon of opioid receptor ligands, irrespective of which type of receptor they act on. Cross-tolerance occurs between drugs acting at the same receptor, but not between opioids that act on different receptors. In clinical settings, the opioid dose required for effective pain relief may increase as a result of developing tolerance, but it does not constitute a major problem.

Physical dependence

Physical dependence is characterised by a clear-cut abstinence syndrome. In experimental animals (e.g. rats), abrupt withdrawal of morphine after repeated administration for a few days, or the administration of an antagonist such as naloxone, causes an increased irritability, diarrhoea, loss of weight and a variety of abnormal behaviour patterns, such as body shakes, writhing, jumping and signs of aggression. These reactions decrease after a few days, but abnormal

irritability and aggression persist for many weeks. The signs of physical dependence are much less intense if the opioid is withdrawn gradually. Humans often experience an abstinence syndrome when opioids are withdrawn after being used for pain relief over days or weeks, with symptoms of restlessness, runny nose, diarrhoea, shivering and piloerection.[13] The intensity of the abstinence syndrome varies greatly, and dependence rarely progresses to addiction, in which psychological dependence (i.e. craving for the drug) is the predominant feature.

[13]Causing goose pimples. This is the origin of the phrase 'cold turkey' used to describe the effect of morphine withdrawal.

Many physiological changes have been described in relation to the abstinence syndrome. For example, spinal reflex hyperexcitability occurs in morphine-dependent animals and can be produced by chronic intrathecal as well as systemic administration of morphine. The noradrenergic pathways emanating from the LC (see Ch. 38) may also play an important role in causing the abstinence syndrome (see Ivanov & Aston-Jones, 2001), and the α_2 adrenoceptor agonist clonidine (Ch. 14) can be used to alleviate it. The rate of firing of LC neurons is reduced by opioids and increased during the abstinence syndrome. In animal models, and also in humans, the abstinence syndrome is reduced by giving NMDA receptor antagonists (e.g. ketamine).

Tolerance and dependence

• Tolerance develops rapidly.

• The mechanism of tolerance involves receptor desensitisation. It is not pharmacokinetic in origin.

• Dependence comprises two components:

– physical dependence, associated with the withdrawal syndrome and lasting for a few days

– psychological dependence, associated with craving and lasting for months or years. Psychological dependence rarely occurs in patients being given opioids as analgesics.

• Physical dependence, characterised by a withdrawal syndrome on cessation of drug administration, occurs with μ-receptor agonists.

• The withdrawal syndrome is precipitated by μ-receptor antagonists.

• Long-acting μ-receptor agonists such as **methadone** and **buprenorphine** may be used to relieve withdrawal symptoms.

• Certain opioid analgesics, such as **codeine**, **pentazocine**, **buprenorphine** and **tramadol**, are much less likely to cause physical or psychological dependence.

Pharmacokinetic Aspects

Table 41.4 summarises the pharmacokinetic properties of the main opioid analgesics. The absorption of morphine congeners by mouth is variable. Morphine itself is slowly and erratically absorbed, and is commonly given by intravenous or intramuscular injection to treat acute severe pain; oral morphine is, however, often used in treating chronic pain, and slow-release preparations are available to increase its duration of action. Oxycodone is now widely available as a slow-release oral preparation. Unfortunately, it has become popular among opioid addicts to grind up and inject such tablets as they contain large amounts of the drug. Codeine is well absorbed and normally given by mouth. Most morphine-like drugs undergo considerable first-pass metabolism, and are therefore markedly less potent when taken orally than when injected.

Table 41.4 Characteristics of the main opioid analgesic drugs

Drug	Use(s)	Route(s) of administration	Pharmacokinetic aspects	Main adverse effects	Notes
Morphine	Widely used for acute and chronic pain	Oral, including sustained-release form Injection[a] Intrathecal	Half-life 3–4 h Converted to active metabolite (morphine-6-glucuronide)	Sedation Respiratory depression Constipation Nausea and vomiting Itching (histamine release) Tolerance and dependence Euphoria	Tolerance and withdrawal effects not common when used for analgesia
Diamorphine (heroin)	Acute and chronic pain	Oral Injection	Acts more rapidly than morphine because of rapid brain penetration	As morphine	Not available in all countries Metabolised to morphine and other active metabolites
Hydromorphone	Acute and chronic pain	Oral Injection	Half-life 2–4 h No active metabolites	As morphine but allegedly less sedative	Levorphanol is similar, with longer duration of action
Oxycodone	Acute and chronic pain	Oral, including sustained-release form Injection	Half-life 3–4.5 h	As morphine	Claims for less abuse potential are unfounded
Methadone	Chronic pain Maintenance of addicts	Oral Injection	Long half-life (> 24 h) Slow onset	As morphine but little euphoric effect Accumulation may occur	Slow recovery results in attenuated withdrawal syndrome because of long half-life
Pethidine	Acute pain	Oral Intramuscular injection	Half-life 2–4 h Active metabolite (norpethidine) may account for stimulant effects	As morphine Anticholinergic effects Risk of excitement and convulsions	Known as meperidine in USA Interacts with monoamine oxidase inhibitors (Ch. 46)
Buprenorphine	Acute and chronic pain Maintenance of addicts	Sublingual Injection Intrathecal	Half-life about 12 h Slow onset Inactive orally because of first-pass metabolism	As morphine but less pronounced Respiratory depression not reversed by naloxone (therefore not suitable for obstetric use) May precipitate opioid withdrawal (partial agonist)	Useful in chronic pain with patient-controlled injection systems
Pentazocine	Mainly acute pain	Oral Injection	Half-life 2–4 h	Psychotomimetic effects (dysphoria) Irritation at injection site May precipitate opioid withdrawal (μ antagonist effect)	Nalbuphine is similar
Fentanyl	Acute pain Anaesthesia	Intravenous Epidermal Transdermal patch	Half-life 1–2 h	As morphine	High potency allows transdermal administration Sufentanil is similar
Remifentanil	Anaesthesia	Intravenous infusion	Half-life 5 min	Respiratory depression	Very rapid onset and recovery

Drug	Use(s)	Route(s) of administration	Pharmacokinetic aspects	Main adverse effects	Notes
Codeine	Mild pain	Oral	Acts as prodrug Metabolised to morphine and other active metabolites	Mainly constipation No dependence liability	Effective only in mild pain Also used to suppress cough Dihydrocodeine is similar
Dextropropoxyphene	Mild pain	Mainly oral	Half-life ~4 h Active metabolite (norpropoxyphene) with half-life ~24 h	Respiratory depression May cause convulsions (possibly by action of norpropoxyphene)	Similar to codeine No longer recommended
Tramadol	Acute (mainly postoperative) and chronic pain	Oral Intravenous	Well absorbed Half-life 4–6 h	Dizziness May cause convulsions No respiratory depression	Mechanism of action uncertain Weak agonist at opioid receptors Also inhibits noradrenaline uptake

[a]Injections may by given intravenously, intramuscularly or subcutaneously for most drugs.

The plasma half-life of most morphine analogues is 3–6 h. Hepatic metabolism is the main mode of inactivation, usually by conjugation with glucuronide. This occurs at the 3-and 6-OH groups (see Fig 41.7), and these glucuronides constitute a considerable fraction of the drug in the bloodstream. Morphine-6-glucuronide is, surprisingly, more active as an analgesic than morphine itself, and contributes substantially to the pharmacological effect. Morphine-3-glucuronide has been claimed to antagonise the analgesic effect of morphine, but the significance of this experimental finding is uncertain as this metabolite has little or no affinity for opioid receptors. Morphine glucuronides are excreted in the urine, so the dose needs to be reduced in cases of renal failure. Glucuronides also reach the gut via biliary excretion, where they are hydrolysed, most of the morphine being reabsorbed (enterohepatic circulation). Because of low conjugating capacity in neonates, morphine-like drugs have a much longer duration of action; because even a small degree of respiratory depression can be hazardous, morphine congeners should not be used in the neonatal period, nor used as analgesics during childbirth. Pethidine (see below) is a safer alternative for this purpose.

Analogues that have no free hydroxyl group in the 3 position (i.e.

diamorphine, codeine) are metabolised to morphine, which accounts for all or part of their pharmacological activity. Morphine produces very effective analgesia when administered intrathecally, and is often used in this way by anaesthetists, the advantage being that the sedative and respiratory depressant effects are reduced, although not completely avoided. **Remifentanyl** is rapidly hydrolysed and eliminated with a half life of 3–4 min. The advantage of this is that when given by intravenous infusion during general anaesthesia, the level of the drug can be manipulated rapidly when required (see Ch. 10 for a description of how, for intravenous infusion, both the rate of rise and the rate of decay of the plasma concentration are determined by the half-time of elimination).

For the treatment of chronic or postoperative pain, opioids are given 'on demand' (patient-controlled analgesia). The patients are provided with an infusion pump that they control, the maximum possible rate of administration being limited to avoid acute toxicity. Patients show little tendency to use excessively large doses and become dependent; instead, the dose is adjusted to achieve analgesia without excessive sedation, and is reduced as the pain subsides. Being in control of their own analgesia, the patients' anxiety and distress are reduced, and analgesic consumption actually tends to decrease. In chronic pain, especially that associated with cancer, patients often experience sudden, sharp increases in the level of pain they are experiencing. This is referred to as breakthrough pain. To combat this, there is a therapeutic need to be able to increase rapidly the amount of opioid being administered. This has led to the development of touch-sensitive transdermal patches containing potent opioids such as fentanyl that rapidly release drug into the bloodstream.

The opioid antagonist, naloxone, has a shorter biological half-life than most opioid agonists. In the treatment of opioid overdose, it must be

given repeatedly to avoid the respiratory depressant effect of the agonist reoccurring once the naloxone has been eliminated. Naltrexone has a longer biological half-life.

Unwanted Effects

The main unwanted effects of morphine and related drugs are listed in Table 41.4.

Acute overdosage with morphine results in coma and respiratory depression, with characteristically constricted pupils. It is treated by giving naloxone intravenously. This also serves as a diagnostic test, for failure to respond to naloxone suggests a cause other than opioid poisoning for the comatose state.[14] There is a danger of precipitating a severe withdrawal syndrome with naloxone, because opioid poisoning occurs mainly in addicts.

Individual variability

▼ Individuals vary by as much as 10-fold in their sensitivity to opioid analgesics. This can be due to altered metabolism or altered sensitivity of the receptors (for extensive review, see Rollason et al., 2008). For morphine, reduced responsiveness may result from mutations in a number of genes including that for the drug transporter, P-glycoprotein (see Chs 9 and 11), for glucuronyltransferase that metabolises morphine and for the μ receptor itself. Mutations of various cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes influence the metabolism of codeine, oxycodone, methadone, tramadol and dextromethorphan. Genotyping could in principle be used to identify opioid-resistant individuals, but first the contribution of genotype to clinical outcome must be confirmed in the population at large.

Other Opioid Analgesics

[14]Naloxone is less effective in reversing the effects of buprenorphine as this agonist binds very tightly to the receptors.

Diamorphine (heroin) is 3,6-diacetylmorphine; it can be considered as a prodrug as its high analgesic potency is attributable to rapid metabolism to 6-monoacetylmorphine and morphine (see Casy & Parfitt, 1986). Its effects are indistinguishable from those of morphine following oral administration. However, because of its greater lipid solubility, it crosses the blood–brain barrier more rapidly than morphine and gives a greater 'buzz' when injected intravenously. It is said to be less emetic than morphine, but the evidence for this is slight. It is still available in Britain for use as an analgesic, although it is banned in many countries. Its only advantage over morphine is its greater solubility, which allows smaller volumes to be given orally, subcutaneously or intrathecally. It exerts the same respiratory depressant effect as morphine and, if given intravenously, is more likely to cause dependence.

Codeine (3-methoxymorphine) is more reliably absorbed by mouth than morphine, but has only 20% or less of the analgesic potency. Furthermore, its analgesic effect does not increase appreciably at higher dose levels. It is therefore used mainly as an oral analgesic for mild types of pain (headache, backache, etc.). Unlike morphine, it causes little or no euphoria and is rarely addictive. It is often combined with paracetamol in proprietary analgesic preparations (see later section on combined use of opioids and NSAIDs). In relation to its analgesic effect, codeine produces the same degree of respiratory depression as morphine, but the limited response even at high doses means that it is seldom a problem in practice. It does, however, cause constipation. Codeine has marked antitussive activity and is often used in cough mixtures (see Ch. 27). Dihydrocodeine is pharmacologically very similar, having no substantial advantages or disadvantages over codeine. About

10% of the population is resistant to the analgesic effect of codeine, because they lack the demethylating enzyme that converts it to morphine.

Oxycodone is used in the treatment of acute and chronic pain. The suggestion that it acts on a subtype of κ opioid receptor is not generally accepted. Claims that it has less euphoric effect and less abuse potential appear unfounded. Diversion to the street market has resulted in it becoming a major drug of abuse (see Ch. 48), sometimes referred to as 'hillbilly heroin'.

Fentanyl, **alfentanyl**, **sufentanil** and **remifentanyl** are highly potent phenylpiperidine derivatives, with actions similar to those of morphine but with a more rapid onset and shorter duration of action, particularly remifentanyl. They are used extensively in anaesthesia, and they may be given intrathecally. Fentanyl, alfentanyl and sufentanil are also used in patient-controlled infusion systems and in severe chronic pain, when they are administered via patches applied to the skin. The rapid onset is advantageous in breakthrough pain.

Methadone is orally active and pharmacologically similar to morphine, the main difference being that its duration of action is considerably longer (plasma half-life > 24 h). The increased duration seems to occur because the drug is bound in the extravascular compartment and slowly released. On withdrawal, the physical abstinence syndrome is less acute than with morphine, although the psychological dependence is no less pronounced. Methadone is widely used as a means of treating heroin addiction (see Ch. 48). The lower intensity of the physical abstinence syndrome makes it possible to wean addicts from heroin by giving regular oral doses of methadone—an improvement if not a cure.[15] Methadone has actions at other sites in the CNS, including block of potassium channels, NMDA receptors and 5-HT

receptors that may explain its CNS side effect profile. There is also interindividual variation in the response to methadone, probably due to genetic variability between individuals in its metabolism.

[15]The benefits come mainly from removing the risks of self-injection and the need to finance the drug habit through crime.

Pethidine (meperidine) is very similar to morphine in its pharmacological effects, except that it tends to cause restlessness rather than sedation, and it has an additional antimuscarinic action that may cause dry mouth and blurring of vision as side effects. It produces a very similar euphoric effect and is equally liable to cause dependence. Its duration of action is the same or slightly shorter than that of morphine, but the route of metabolic degradation is different. Pethidine is partly *N*-demethylated in the liver to norpethidine, which has hallucinogenic and convulsant effects. These become significant with large oral doses of pethidine, producing an overdose syndrome rather different from that of morphine. Pethidine is preferred to morphine for analgesia during labour, because it does not reduce the force of uterine contraction. Pethidine is only slowly eliminated in the neonate, and naloxone may be needed to reverse respiratory depression in the baby. (Morphine is even more problematic in this regard, because the conjugation reactions on which the excretion of morphine, but not of pethidine, depends are deficient in the newborn.) Severe reactions, consisting of excitement, hyperthermia and convulsions, have been reported when pethidine is given to patients receiving monoamine oxidase inhibitors. This seems to be due to inhibition of an alternative metabolic pathway, leading to increased norpethidine formation, but the details are not known.

Etorphine is a morphine analogue of remarkable potency, more than 1000 times that of morphine, but otherwise very similar in its actions. Its high potency confers no particular human clinical advantage, but it is

used in veterinary practice, especially in large animals. It can be used in conjunction with sedative agents (neuroleptanalgesia) to immobilise wild animals for trapping.[16]

[16]The required dose of etorphine, even for an elephant, is small enough to be incorporated into a dart or pellet.

Buprenorphine is a partial agonist on μ receptors that produces strong analgesia but there is a ceiling to its respiratory depressant effect. Because of its antagonist actions, it can produce mild withdrawal symptoms in patients dependent on other opioids. It has a long duration of action and can be difficult to reverse with naloxone. It has abuse liability but, like methadone, it is also used in the treatment of heroin addiction. When heroin is injected 'on top' of buprenorphine, less euphoria is obtained because buprenorphine is a partial agonist that binds almost irreversibly to the receptors.

Meptazinol is an opioid of unusual chemical structure. It can be given orally or by injection and has a duration of action shorter than that of morphine. It seems to be relatively free of morphine-like side effects, causing neither euphoria nor dysphoria, nor severe respiratory depression. It does, however, produce nausea, sedation and dizziness, and has atropine-like actions. Because of its short duration of action and lack of respiratory depression, it may have advantages for obstetric analgesia.

Tramadol is widely used as an analgesic for postoperative pain. It is a weak agonist at μ opioid receptors and also a weak inhibitor of noradrenaline reuptake. It is effective as an analgesic and appears to have a better side effect profile than most opioids, although psychiatric reactions have been reported. It is given by mouth or by intramuscular or intravenous injection for moderate to severe pain.

Pentazocine is a mixed agonist–antagonist with analgesic properties similar to those of morphine. However, it causes marked dysphoria, with nightmares and hallucinations, rather than euphoria, and is now rarely used.

Loperamide is an opioid that does not enter the brain and therefore lacks analgesic activity. It inhibits peristalsis, and is used to control diarrhoea (see Ch. 29).

Opioid Antagonists

Naloxone was the first pure opioid antagonist, with affinity for all three classical opioid receptors ($\mu > \kappa \geq \delta$). It blocks the actions of endogenous opioid peptides as well as those of morphine-like drugs, and has been extensively used as an experimental tool to determine the physiological role of these peptides, particularly in pain transmission.

Given on its own, naloxone produces very little effect in normal subjects but produces a rapid reversal of the effects of morphine and other opioids. It has little effect on pain threshold under normal conditions but causes hyperalgesia under conditions of stress or inflammation, when endogenous opioids are produced. This occurs, for example, in patients undergoing dental surgery, or in animals subjected to physical stress. Naloxone also inhibits acupuncture analgesia, which is known to be associated with the release of endogenous opioid peptides. Analgesia produced by PAG stimulation is also prevented.

The main clinical uses of naloxone are to treat respiratory depression caused by opioid overdosage, and occasionally to reverse the effect of opioid analgesics, used during labour, on the respiration of the newborn baby. It is usually given intravenously, and its effects are produced immediately. It is rapidly metabolised by the liver, and its effect lasts only 2–4 h, which is considerably shorter than that of most morphine-

like drugs and therefore it may have to be given repeatedly.

Naloxone has no important unwanted effects of its own but precipitates withdrawal symptoms in addicts. It can be used to detect opioid addiction.

Naltrexone is very similar to naloxone but with the advantage of a much longer duration of action (half-life about 10 h). It may be of value in addicts who have been 'detoxified', because it nullifies the effect of a dose of opioid should the patient's resolve fail. For this purpose, it is available in a slow-release subcutaneous implant formulation. It is also effective in reducing alcohol consumption in heavy drinkers, the rationale being that part of the high from alcohol comes from the release of endogenous opioid peptides. It may also have beneficial effects in septic shock. It is effective in treating chronic itching (pruritus) as occurs in chronic liver disease. Again, this may indicate the involvement of endogenous opioid peptides in the pathophysiology of such itch conditions.

Methylnaltrexone bromide and **alvimopan** are μ opioid-receptor antagonists that do not cross the blood–brain barrier. They can be used in combination with opioid agonists to block unwanted effects, most notably reduced gastrointestinal motility, nausea and vomiting.

Specific antagonists at μ, δ and κ receptors are available for experimental use (Table 41.3) but they are not used clinically.

Opioid antagonists

• Pure antagonists include **naloxone** (short acting) and **naltrexone** (long acting). They block μ, δ and κ receptors. Selective antagonists are available as experimental tools.

• **Alvimopan** is a μ-receptor antagonist that does not cross the blood–brain barrier. It blocks

opioid-induced constipation, nausea and vomiting.

• Some drugs, such as **pentazocine**, produce a mixture of κ agonist and μ antagonist effects.

• Naloxone does not affect pain threshold normally but blocks stress-induced analgesia and can exacerbate clinical pain.

• Naloxone rapidly reverses opioid-induced analgesia and respiratory depression, and is used mainly to treat opioid overdose or to improve breathing in newborn babies affected by opioids given to the mother.

• Naloxone precipitates withdrawal symptoms in morphine-dependent patients or animals. Pentazocine may also do this.

Paracetamol

Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs, covered in detail in Ch. 26) are widely used to treat painful inflammatory conditions and to reduce fever. **Paracetamol** (known as **acetaminophen** in the USA) deserves special mention. It was first synthesised more than a century ago, and since the 1950s has (alongside aspirin) been the most widely used over-the-counter remedy for minor aches and pains. Paracetamol differs from other NSAIDs in producing analgesic and antipyretic effects while lacking anti-inflammatory effects. It also lacks the tendency of other NSAIDs to cause gastric ulceration and bleeding. The reason for the difference between paracetamol and other NSAIDs is unclear. Biochemical tests showed it to be only a weak cyclo-oxygenase (COX) inhibitor, with some selectivity for brain COX. It remains contentious whether paracetamol relieves pain centrally by inhibiting COX-3 (not a separate gene product but a splice variant of COX-1) or by inhibiting COX-2 at low rates of enzyme activity (see Davies et al., 2004; Graham & Scott, 2005).

Paracetamol is well absorbed by mouth, and its plasma half-life is about 3 h. It is metabolised by hydroxylation, conjugated mainly as glucuronide, and excreted in the urine. In therapeutic doses, it has few adverse effects. However, in overdose, paracetamol causes severe liver damage, which is commonly fatal (see Chs 26 and 57), and the drug is often used in attempted suicide.

Use of Opioids and Nsaids in Combination

The rationale behind co-administration of two drugs that produce analgesia by different mechanisms is that, if the effects are additive, less of each drug can therefore be given but the same degree of analgesia produced. This has the effect of reducing the intensity of the unwanted side effects produced by each drug. In the case of opioids (e.g. codeine) in combination with paracetamol or aspirin, the combination appears to produce synergy rather than simple additivity. The combination of dextropropoxyphene and paracetamol has been withdrawn in the UK due to concerns about overdosing.

Treatment of Neuropathic Pain

Neuropathic pain is the severe, debilitating pain that occurs in conditions such as trigeminal neuralgia, diabetic neuropathy, postherpetic neuralgia and phantom limb pain affecting millions of people worldwide. It is often stated that neuropathic pain is opioid resistant. However, recent clinical studies have shown opioids such as morphine, oxycodone, levorphanol and tramadol to be effective in the treatment of neuropathic pain, provided an adequate dose can be reached that provides analgesia without excessive side effects.

Several non-opioid drugs that are also used clinically for effects other than analgesia have been found to be effective in neuropathic pain (see Dworkin et al., 2007), largely as a result of serendipitous observations

rather than a rational programme of drug discovery.

Tricyclic antidepressants, particularly **amitriptyline**, **nortriptyline** and **desipramine** (Ch. 46) are widely used. These drugs act centrally by inhibiting noradrenaline reuptake and are highly effective in relieving neuropathic pain in some, but not all, cases. Their action is independent of their antidepressant effects. Drugs such as **venlafaxine**, which inhibit 5-HT and noradrenaline uptake, are also effective and have a different side effect profile, but selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors show little or no benefit.

Gabapentin and its congener, **pregabalin**, are antiepileptic drugs (Ch. 44) that are also effective in the treatment of neuropathic pain. They bind to α2δ1 and α2δ2 subunits of voltage-activated calcium channels (see Ch. 4) and reduce neurotransmitter release. There has been considerable debate about how exactly these drugs inhibit calcium channel function: it may be by inhibiting channel opening or by interfering with the trafficking of the calcium channels to the plasma membrane. The α2δ subunits are upregulated in damaged sensory neurons, thus explaining why these agents are more effective across a range of pain states associated with nerve damage than in other forms of pain.

Carbamazepine, another type of antiepileptic drug, is effective in trigeminal neuralgia but evidence for effectiveness against other neuropathic pains is lacking. Carbamazepine blocks voltage-gated sodium channels (see Ch. 4) being slightly more potent in blocking $Na_v1.8$ than $Na_v1.7$ and $Na_v1.3$ channels; all of these channel subtypes are thought to be upregulated by nerve damage and contribute to the sensation of pain. At higher concentrations, it inhibits voltage-activated calcium channels.

Other antiepileptic agents such as **valproic acid**, **lamotrogine**, **oxcarbazepine** and **topiramate** may have efficacy in some neuropathic pain states.

Lidocaine (lignocaine), a local anaesthetic drug (Ch. 42) with a short plasma half-life given either topically in a patch or intravenously, can give long-lasting relief in neuropathic pain states. It probably acts by blocking spontaneous discharges from damaged sensory nerve terminals, but the reason for its persistent analgesic effect is not clear. Some antidysrhythmic drugs (e.g. **mexiletine**, **tocainide**, **flecainide**; see Ch. 21) are effective orally (see Challapalli et al., 2005).

Other analgesic drugs

• **Paracetamol** resembles non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and is effective as an analgesic, but it lacks anti-inflammatory activity. It may act by inhibiting cyclo-oxygenase (COX)-3, a splice variant of COX-1, but probably has other effects as well. In overdose, it causes hepatotoxicity.

• Various antidepressants (e.g. **amitriptyline**), as well as antiepileptic drugs (e.g. **carbamazepine**, **gabapentin**), are used mainly to treat neuropathic pain.

• Other drugs occasionally used include the NMDA receptor antagonist **ketamine** and the local anaesthetic drug lidocaine.

Drugs used to treat neuropathic pain

• Opioids may be effective at higher doses if side effects can be tolerated.

• Various antidepressants (e.g. **amitriptyline**) that block noradrenaline uptake provide therapeutic benefit.

• **Gabapentin** and **pregabalin** are now used more to relieve neuropathic pain than as

antiepileptic agents.

• **Carbamazepine**, as well as some other antiepileptic agents that block sodium channels, can be effective in treating trigeminal neuralgia.

• **Lidocaine** may provide relief when applied topically or administered intravenously.

Treatment of Fibromyalgia

Fibromyalgia is a chronic disorder characterised by widespread musculoskeletal pain, fatigue and insomnia. Its cause is unknown, with no obvious characteristic pathology being apparent. It is associated with allodynia (painful sensation in response to stimuli that normally would be innocuous). As with neuropathic pain, classical analgesics (i.e NSAIDs and opioids), while bringing some relief, are not very effective in treating this disorder. Various antidepressant drugs (e.g **amitriptyline**, **citalopram**, **milnacipram**, **duloxetine**, **venlafaxine**; see Ch. 46), antiepileptic agents (e.g. **gabapentin**, **pregabalin**; see Ch. 44), benzodiazepines (e.g. **clonazepam**, **zopiclone**; see Ch. 43) and dopamine agonists (e.g. **ropinirole**; see Ch. 39) are currently used for this disorder—this long list reflecting their uncertain efficacy.

Other Pain-Relieving Drugs

Ketamine, a dissociative anaesthetic (Ch. 40), **memantine** and **dextromethorphan** work by blocking NMDA receptor channels, and probably reduce the wind-up phenomenon in the dorsal horn (Fig. 41.3). Given intrathecally, ketamine's effects on memory and cognitive function are largely avoided.

Ziconotide, a synthetic analogue of the N-type calcium channel blocking peptide ω-conotoxin MVIIA, is effective when administered by the intrathecal route. It is used in patients whose pain does not respond to other analgesic agents. Blockers of low-voltage-activated T-type

calcium channels may also be effective analgesics in some pain states.

Cannabinoids acting at CB_1 receptors are effective pain-relieving agents in animal pain models, including models of acute, antinociceptive, inflammatory and neuropathic pain. Although in clinical trials on neuropathic pain these drugs are able to reduce pain perception, the effect is generally weak and clinical relevance remains under evaluation (see Hosking & Zajicek, 2008). The strongest evidence of their benefit is for central neuropathic pain in multiple sclerosis. Sativex is an extract of the cannabis plant containing Δ9-tetrahydrocannabinol (THC) and cannabidiol that has been suggested to have improved therapeutic efficacy. CB_2 receptor agonists may also be potential analgesic agents.

Botulinum toxin injections are effective in relieving back pain and the pain associated with spasticity. This effect is due mainly to a relief of muscle spasm (Ch. 13).

New Approaches

▼ As in other fields of neuropharmacology, increasing knowledge of the various chemical mediators and signalling pathways responsible for pain sensation suggests many new approaches to the control of pain. Pain treatment is currently far from perfect, and many new approaches are being explored. For reviews of current areas of drug development, see Hill (2006) and Dray (2008).

• *Nerve growth factor* (NGF) is a major mediator of both inflammatory and neuropathic pain (Hefti et al., 2006). It is therefore an important new therapeutic target. It has proved difficult to design small-molecule, selective antagonists of NGF. Current alternative options being explored include the development of monoclonal antibodies to NGF or its receptor TrkA and the sequestration of NGF using TrkA domain 5

(TrkAd5), a soluble receptor protein that binds NGF with picomolar affinity.

• *TRP channel ligands*. Both TRPV1 agonist and antagonist drugs appear to have analgesic activity. TRPV1 agonists induce receptor desensitisation or a reversible sensory nerve terminal degeneration due to prolonged cation influx. Topical high-dose **capsaicin** is efficacious in a number of neuropathic pain conditions. On the other hand, competitive and non-competitive antagonists aim to inhibit peripheral nerve fibre activity selectively by block of TRPV1 channels.

• *Other TRP channels* (TRPV3, TRPV4, TRPA1, and TRPM8) have been suggested to be involved in pain particularly when sensitised by some pathophysiological changes. Ligands for these channels are in early development.

• A number of *sodium channel blockers* are currently in development. These have varying selectivity at the channels whose expression may be altered in chronic pain states and include **lacosamide** (antiepileptic) and **ralfinamide** (undergoing clinical trials). Ralfinamide blocks sodium channels and also inhibits the enzyme monoamine oxidase, and has shown activity in a number of preclinical pain models.

• **Retigabine**, a *KCNQ channel* (K_v7, M-current) *opener*, inhibits C-fibre- and Aδ-fibre-mediated nociceptive responses in dorsal horn neurons in both naive and neuropathic rats.

• Agonists at *nicotinic acetylcholine receptors*, based on **epibatidine** (an alkaloid from frog skin, which is a potent nicotinic agonist) show—unexpectedly—potent analgesic effects in animal models. Derivatives with fewer side effects are under investigation.

• Various *neuropeptides*, such as **somatostatin** (see Ch. 32) and **calcitonin** (see Ch. 35), produce powerful analgesia when applied intrathecally, and there are clinical reports suggesting that they may have similar effects when used systemically to treat endocrine disorders.

• *Glutamate antagonists* acting on NMDA or AMPA receptors show analgesic activity in animal models, but it has not yet been possible to obtain this effect in humans without unacceptable side effects. To circumvent this, attempts are being made to develop antagonists selective for channels of different subunit compositions (see Ch. 37) or antagonists at the glycine site on the NMDA receptor. Antagonists of metabotropic glutamate receptors, mGluR1 and mGluR5, are currently in development and may have fewer side effects.

Clinical uses of analgesic drugs (1) 

• Analgesics are used to treat and prevent pain, for example:

  – pre-and postoperatively

  – common painful conditions including headache, dysmenorrhoea, labour, trauma, burns

  – many medical and surgical emergencies (e.g. myocardial infarction and renal colic)

  – terminal disease (especially metatastic cancer).

• Opioid analgesics are used in some non-painful conditions, for example acute heart failure (because of their haemodynamic effects) and terminal chronic heart failure (to relieve distress).

• The choice and route of administration of analgesic drugs depends on the nature and duration of the pain.

• A progressive approach is often used, starting with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), supplemented first by weak opioid analgesics and then by strong opioids.

• In general, severe acute pain is treated with strong opioids (e.g. **morphine**, **fentanyl**) given by injection. Mild inflammatory pain (e.g. sprains, mild arthralgia) is treated with NSAIDs (e.g. **ibuprofen**) or by **paracetamol** supplemented by weak opioids (e.g. **codeine**. Severe pain (e.g. cancer pain) is treated with strong opioid given orally, intrathecally, epidurally or by subcutaneous injection. Patient-controlled infusion systems are useful postoperatively.

• Chronic neuropathic pain is less responsive to opioids and can be treated with tricyclic antidepressants (e.g. **amitriptyline**) or anticonvulsants (e.g. **carbamazepine**, **gabapentin**).

Clinical uses of analgesic drugs (2) 

• Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (see clinical box) including **paracetamol** are useful for musculoskeletal and dental pain and for dysmenorrhoea. They reduce opioid requirements in acute (e.g. postoperative) and chronic (e.g. bone metastasis) pain.

• Weak opioids (e.g. **codeine**) combined with paracetamol are useful in moderately severe pain if non-opioids are not sufficient. **Tramadol** (a weak opioid with additional action on 5-hydroxytryptamine and noradrenaline uptake) is an alternative.

• Strong opioids (e.g. **morphine**) are used for severe pain, particularly of visceral origin.

• Note that:

– the intravenous route provides rapid relief from pain and distress

– the intravenous dose is much lower than the oral dose because of presystemic metabolism

– morphine is given orally as a solution or as 'immediate-release' tablets every 4 h

– dose is titrated; when the daily requirement is apparent, the preparation is changed to a modified-release formulation to allow once-or twice-daily dosing

– **oxycodone** is given orally as a slow-release tablet

– transdermal administration (e.g. patches of **fentanyl**) is an alternative, rapid means of pain relief

– adverse effects (nausea, constipation) are anticipated and treated pre-emptively

– addiction is not an issue in the setting of terminal care

• Subanaesthetic doses of **nitrous oxide** (Ch. 40) are analgesic, and self-administration of a mixture of nitrous oxide with oxygen is widely used during labour, for painful dressing changes.

References and Further Reading

General

ields H.L., Basbaum A.I., Heinricher M.M. Central nervous system mechanisms of pain modulation. In: McMahon S.B., Koltzenburg M., editors. *Wall & Melzack's Textbook of Pain*. fifth ed. Edinburgh: Elsevier; 2006:125-142. (*Detailed account of central pathways that inhibit or enhance transmission in the dorsal horn*)

ılius D., McCleskey E.W. Cellular and molecular properties of primary afferent neurons. In: McMahon S.B., Koltzenburg M., editors. *Wall & Melzack's textbook of pain*. fifth ed. Edinburgh: Elsevier; 2006:35-48. (*Describes receptors, ion channels and signalling mechanisms of nociceptive neurons*)

IcMahon S.B., Koltzenburg M., editors. Wall & Melzack's textbook of pain, fifth ed, Edinburgh: Elsevier, 2006. (*Large multiauthor reference book*)

Iillan M.J. Descending control of pain. *Prog. Neurobiol.*. 2002;66:355-474. (*Comprehensive review article covering inhibitory and facilitatory mechanisms in great detail*)

racey I. Imaging pain. *Br. J. Anaesth.*. 2008;101:32-39. (*Description of brain imaging studies on which parts of the brain process pain information*)

aksh T.L. Spinal systems and pain processing: development of novel analgesic drugs with mechanistically defined models. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1999;20:329-337. (*Good general review article on spinal cord mechanisms—more general than its title suggests*)

Ion channels

hahine M., Ziane R., Vijayaragavan K., *et al.* Regulation of Na_V channels in sensory neurons. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2005;26:496-502. (*Discusses role of regulation of expression and gating*

characteristics of voltage-gated sodium channels in pathogenesis of pain)

ox J.J., Reimann F., Nicholas A.K., et al An SCN9A channelopathy causes congenital inability to experience pain Nature. 444:2006:894-898 (*Describes families in which there are mutations of $Na_V1.7$ which renders the person unable to experience pain*)

lockerzi V., Nilius B. Transient receptor potential (TRP) channels. (Eds.). Handb. Exp. Pharmacol. 179:2007 (*An entire volume given over to this topic with individual chapters written by experts in the field*)

arvis M.F. Contributions of P2X3 homomeric and heteromeric channels to acute and chronic pain. *Expert. Opin. Ther. Targets*. 2003;7:513-522.

ılius D., Basbaum A.I. Molecular mechanisms of nociception. *Nature.*. 2001;413:203-210. (*Review article focusing mainly on receptors and channels involved in activation of sensory nerves by noxious stimuli*)

ai J., Porreca F., Hunter J.C., *et al.* Voltage-gated sodium channels and hyperalgesia. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol.*. 2004;44:371-397. (*Review summarising the role of particular sodium channel subtypes in the pathogenesis of pain, and the use of local anaesthetic and antidysrhythmic drugs in controlling neuropathic pain*)

atapoutian A., Tate S., Woolf C.J. Transient receptor potential channels: targeting pain at the source. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.*. 2009;8:55-68. (*Reviews the function of TRPs in pain and discusses their potential as drug targets for the treatment of pain*)

Chemical mediators and receptors

alixto J.B., Medeiros R., Fernandes E.S. Kinin B_1 receptors: key G-protein-coupled receptors and their role in inflammatory and painful processes Br. J. Pharmacol. 143:2004:803-818 (*Review emphasising the role of inducible B_1 receptors in various conditions, including inflammatory pain*)

leetwood-Walker S.M., Proudfoot C.W.J., Garry E.M., *et al.* Cold comfort pharm. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2007;28:621-628.

:all A., Billinton A., Giblin G.M. EP_1 antagonists for the treatment of inflammatory pain. *Curr. Opin. Drug. Discov. Devel.*. 2007;10:597-612.

ill R.G., Oliver K.R. Neuropeptide and kinin antagonists. *Handb. Exp. Pharmacol.*. 2007;177:181-216.

i R.-R., Kohno T., Moore K.A., *et al.* Central sensitisation and LTP: do pain and memory share similar mechanisms? *Trends Neurosci.*. 2003;25:696-705. (*Review that emphasises the mechanistic parallels between pain and memory*)

iu X.J., Salter M.W. Purines and pain mechanisms: recent developments. *Curr. Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2005;6:65-75.

IcMahon S.B., Bennett D.H.L., Bevan S.J. Inflammatory mediators and modulators of pain. In: McMahon S.B., Koltzenburg M., editors. *Wall & Melzack's textbook of pain*. fifth ed. Edinburgh: Elsevier; 2006:49-72. (*Review of the actions of many peripheral mediators on nociceptive nerve terminals*)

Iarceau F., Regoli D. Bradykinin receptor ligands: therapeutic perspectives. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.*. 2004;3:845-852.

ezet P., McMahon S.B. Neurotrophins: mediators and modulators of pain. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2006;29:507-538. (*Comprehensive review of roles and mechanisms of action of NGF and BDNF in pain*)

amad T.A., Sapirstein A., Woolf C.J. Prostanoids and pain: unravelling mechanisms and revealing therapeutic targets. *Trends. Mol. Med.*. 2002;8:390-396. (*Useful review article*)

awynok J. Adenosine and ATP receptors. *Handb. Exp. Pharmacol.*. 2007;177:309-328.

Opioids

allantyne J.C., Mao J. Opioid therapy for chronic pain. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2003;349:1943-1953. (*Considers whether or not tolerance is a problem when opioids are used to treat chronic pain*)

asy A.F., Parfitt R.T. *Opioid analgesics*. New York: Plenum Press; 1986. (*This book focuses on the chemistry of opioid drugs*)

hristie M.J. Cellular neuroadaptations to chronic opioids: tolerance, withdrawal and addiction. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;154:384-396.

hu L.F., Angst M.S., Clark D. Opioid-induced hyperalgesia in humans: molecular mechanisms and

clinical considerations. *Clin. J. Pain*. 2008;24:479-496.

orbett A.D., Henderson G., McKnight A.T., *et al.* 75 years of opioid research: the exciting but vain search for the holy grail. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2006;147:S153-S162. (*Comprehensive historical review of opioid research*)

ields H. State-dependent opioid control of pain. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2004;5:565-575.

ashimoto K., Ishiwata K. Sigma receptor ligands: possible application as therapeutic drugs and as radiopharmaceuticals. *Curr. Pharm. Des.*. 2006;12:3857-3876.

anov A., Aston-Jones G. Local opiate withdrawal in locus coeruleus neurons in vitro. *J. Neurophysiol.*. 2001;85:2388-2397.

elly E., Bailey C.P., Henderson G. Agonist-selective mechanisms of GPCR desensitization. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;153(Suppl. 1):S379-388.

ieffer B.L. Opioids: first lessons from knockout mice. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1999;20:19-26.

IcQuay H. Opioids in pain management. *Lancet*. 1999;353:2229-2232. (*Discusses whether or not tolerance occurs to opioids in clinical situations*)

Iilligan G. G-protein-coupled receptor dimerization: function and ligand pharmacology. *Mol. Pharmacol.*. 2004;66:1-7.

ollason V., Samer C., Piquet V., *et al.* Pharmacogenetics of analgesics: towards the personalization of prescription. *Pharmacogenomics*. 2008;9:905-933.

awynok J. Topical and peripherally acting analgesics. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2003;55:1-20. (*Review of the numerous mechanisms by which drugs interfere with nociceptive mechanisms in the periphery*)

allejo R., de Leon-Casasola O., Benyamin R. Opioid therapy and immunosuppression: a review. *Am. J. Ther.*. 2004;11:354-365.

/illiams J.T., Christie M.J., Manzoni O. Cellular and synaptic adaptations mediating opioid dependence. *Physiol. Rev.*. 2001;81:299-343. (*Very comprehensive review of the molecular and cellular mechanisms underlying opioid tolerance and dependence*)

Paracetamol

avies N.M., Good R.L., Roupe K.A., *et al.* Cyclooxygenase-3: axiom, dogma, anomaly or splice

error—not as easy as 1, 2, 3. *J. Pharm. Pharm. Sci.*. 2004;7:217-226. (*Update on the confusing role of COX-3 as a target for paracetamol*)

raham G.G., Scott K.F. Mechanisms of action of paracetamol. *Am. J. Ther.*. 2005;12:46-55.

Neuropathic pain and new drug targets

hallapalli, V., Tremont-Lukats, I.W., McNicol, E.D., et al., 2005. Systemic administration of local anesthetic agents to relieve neuropathic pain. Cochrane Database Syst. Rev. Issue 4. Art. No.: CD003345. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD003345.pub2.

ray A. Neuropathic pain: emerging treatments. *Br. J. Anaesth.*. 2008;101:48-58. (*Extensive review of potential drug therapies for neuropathic pain*)

workin R.H., O'Connor A.B., Backonja M., *et al.* Pharmacologic management of neuropathic pain: evidence-based recommendations. *Pain.*. 2007;132:237-251. (*An evaluation of the clinical effectiveness of current drugs used to treat neuropathic pain*)

efti F.F., Rosenthal A., Walicke P.A., *et al.* Novel class of pain drugs based on antagonism of NGF. *Trends. Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2006;27:85-91.

ill R.G. Analgesic drugs in development. In: McMahon S.B., Koltzenburg M., editors. *Wall & Melzack's textbook of pain*. fifth ed. Edinburgh: Elsevier; 2006:541-552. (*Balanced account of current approaches to develop novel analgesic drugs*)

osking R.D., Zajicek J.P. Therapeutic potential of cannabis in pain medicine. *Br. J. Anaesth.*. 2008;101:59-68.

42

Local anaesthetics and other drugs affecting sodium channels

Overview

As described in Chapter 4, the property of electrical excitability is what enables the membranes of nerve and muscle cells to generate propagated action potentials, which are essential for communication in the nervous system and for the initiation of mechanical activity in striated and cardiac muscle. Initiation of the action potential depends on voltage-gated sodium channels, which open transiently when the membrane is depolarised. Here we discuss local anaesthetics, which act mainly by blocking sodium channels, and mention briefly other drugs that affect sodium channel function.

There are, broadly speaking, two ways in which channel function may be modified, namely block of the channels and modification of gating behaviour. Blocking sodium channels reduces excitability. On the other hand, different types of drugs can either facilitate channel opening and thus increase excitability, or inhibit channel opening and reduce excitability.

Local Anaesthetics

Although many drugs can, at high concentrations, block voltage-sensitive sodium channels and inhibit the generation of the action

potential, the only drugs used clinically for this effect are the local anaesthetics, various antiepileptic and analgesic drugs (see Chs 41 and 44) and class I antidysrhythmic drugs (see Ch. 21).

History

Coca leaves have been chewed for their psychotropic effects for thousands of years (see Ch. 47) by South American Indians, who knew about the numbing effect they produced on the mouth and tongue. **Cocaine** was isolated in 1860 and proposed as a local anaesthetic for surgical procedures. Sigmund Freud, who tried unsuccessfully to make use of its 'psychic energising' power, gave some cocaine to his ophthalmologist friend in Vienna, Carl Köller, who reported in 1884 that reversible corneal anaesthesia could be produced by dropping cocaine into the eye. The idea was rapidly taken up, and within a few years cocaine anaesthesia was introduced into dentistry and general surgery. A synthetic substitute, **procaine**, was discovered in 1905, and many other useful compounds were later developed.

Chemical aspects

Local anaesthetic molecules consist of an aromatic part linked by an ester or amide bond to a basic side-chain (Fig. 42.1). They are weak bases, with pK_a values mainly in the range 8–9, so that they are mainly, but not completely, ionised at physiological pH (see Ch. 8 for an explanation of how pH influences the ionisation of weak bases). This is important in relation to their ability to penetrate the nerve sheath and axon membrane; quaternary derivatives such as QX-314, which are fully ionised irrespective of pH, are ineffective as local anaesthetics but have important experimental uses (see below). **Benzocaine**, an atypical local anaesthetic, has no basic group.

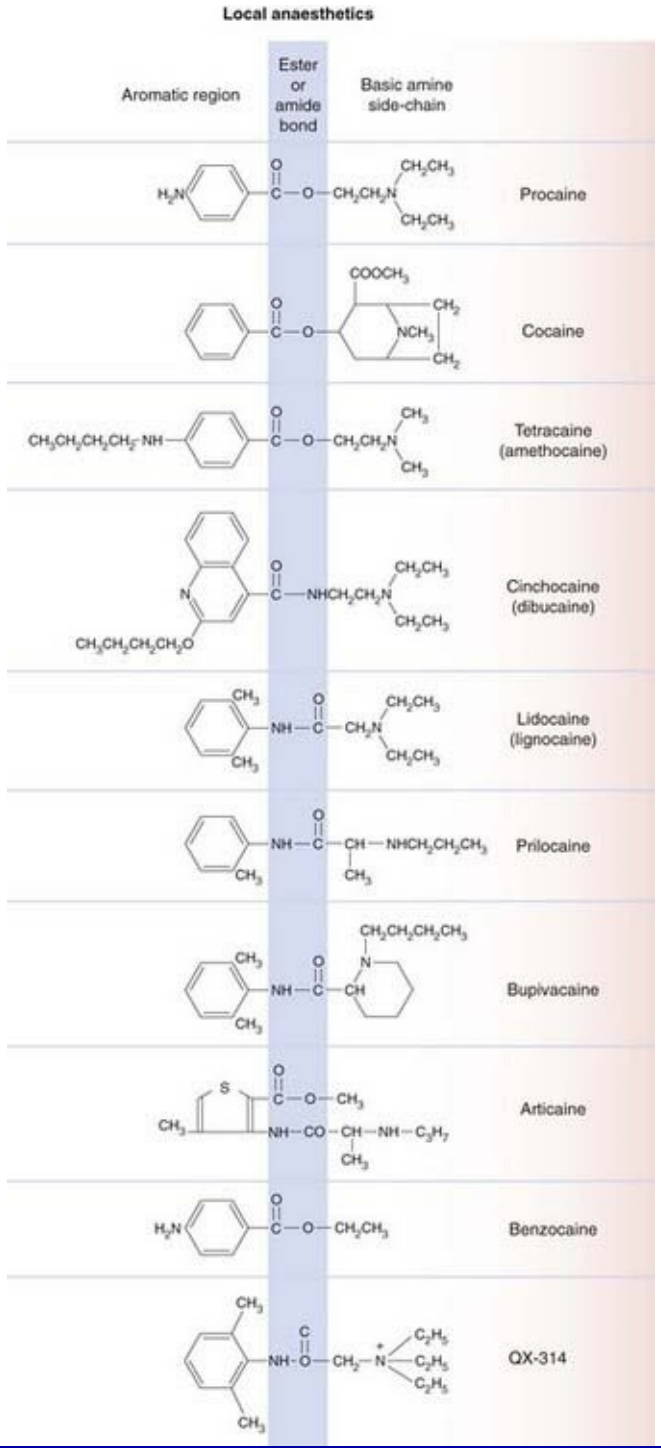


Fig. 42.1 Structures of local anaesthetics.

The general structure of local anaesthetic molecules consists of an aromatic group (left), ester or amide group (shaded blue) and amine group (right).

The presence of the ester or amide bond in local anaesthetic molecules

is important because of its susceptibility to metabolic hydrolysis. The ester-containing compounds are fairly rapidly inactivated in the plasma and tissues (mainly liver) by non-specific esterases. Amides are more stable, and these anaesthetics generally have longer plasma half-lives.

Mechanism of action

Local anaesthetics block the initiation and propagation of action potentials by preventing the voltage-dependent increase in Na^+ conductance (see Ch. 4) (see Strichartz & Ritchie, 1987; Hille, 2001). At low concentrations they decrease the rate of rise of the action potential, increasing its duration and reducing the firing rate. At higher concentrations they prevent action potential firing. Currently available local anaesthetic agents do not distinguish between different sodium channel subtypes (see Ch. 4; Lai et al., 2004). They block sodium channels, by physically plugging the transmembrane pore, interacting with various amino acid residues of the S6 transmembrane helical domain of the channel protein (see Ragsdale et al., 1994).

▼ Local anaesthetic activity is strongly pH dependent, being increased at alkaline extracellular pH (i.e. when the proportion of ionised molecules is low) and reduced at acid pH. This is because the compound needs to penetrate the nerve sheath and the axon membrane to reach the inner end of the sodium channel (where the local anaesthetic-binding site resides). Because the ionised form is not membrane permeant, penetration is very poor at acid pH. Once inside the axon, it is primarily the ionised form of the local anaesthetic molecule that binds to the channel and blocks it (Fig. 42.2), the unionised form having only weak channel-blocking activity. This pH dependence can be clinically important, because inflamed tissues are often acidic and thus somewhat resistant to local anaesthetic agents.

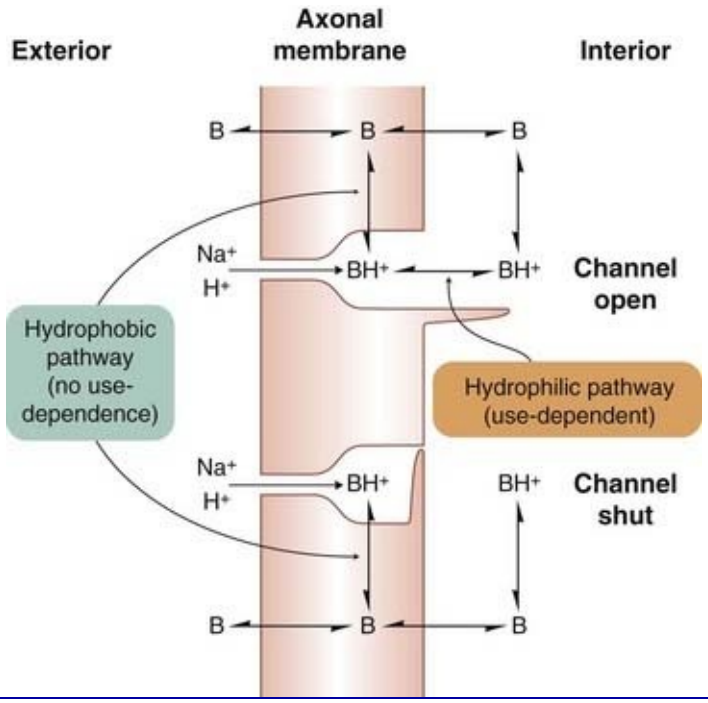


Fig. 42.2 Interaction of local anaesthetics with sodium channels.

The blocking site within the channel can be reached via the open channel gate on the inner surface of the membrane by the charged species BH^+ (hydrophilic pathway), or directly from the membrane by the uncharged species B (hydrophilic pathway).

Further analysis of local anaesthetic action (see Strichartz & Ritchie, 1987) has shown that many drugs exhibit the property of *'use-dependent' block* of sodium channels, as well as affecting, to some extent, the gating of the channels. Use-dependence means that the more the channels are opened, the greater the block becomes. It is a prominent feature of the action of many class I antidysrhythmic drugs (Ch. 21) and antiepileptic drugs (Ch. 44), and occurs because the blocking molecule enters the channel much more readily when the channel is open than when it is closed. For local anaesthetics that rapidly dissociate from the channel, block only occurs at high frequencies of action potential firing when the time between action potentials is too short for drug dissociation from the channel to occur. The channel can exist in three functional states: resting, open and inactivated (see Ch. 4). Many local anaesthetics bind

most strongly to the inactivated state of the channel. Therefore, at any given membrane potential, the equilibrium between resting and inactivated channels will, in the presence of a local anaesthetic, be shifted in favour of the inactivated state, and this factor contributes to the overall blocking effect. The passage of a train of action potentials causes the channels to cycle through the open and inactivated states, both of which are more likely to bind local anaesthetic molecules than the resting state; thus both mechanisms contribute to use-dependence.

Quaternary amine local anaesthetics only work when applied to the inside of the membrane and the channels must be cycled through their open state a few times before the blocking effect appears. With tertiary amine local anaesthetics, block can develop even if the channels are not open, and it is likely that the blocking molecule (uncharged) can reach the channel either directly from the membrane phase or via the open gate (Fig. 42.2). The relative importance of these two blocking pathways —the hydrophobic pathway via the membrane and the hydrophilic pathway via the inner mouth of the channel—varies according to the lipid solubility of the drug.

Local anaesthetics exert a number of effects on other ion channels as well as on membrane and intracellular signalling proteins. The importance of these actions to local anaesthetic action is as yet unclear (see Yanagidate & Stricharz, 2007).

In general, local anaesthetics block conduction in small-diameter nerve fibres more readily than in large fibres. Because nociceptive impulses are carried by Aδ and C fibres (Ch. 41), pain sensation is blocked more readily than other sensory modalities (touch, proprioception, etc.). Motor axons, being large in diameter, are also relatively resistant. The differences in sensitivity among different nerve fibres, although easily measured experimentally, are not of much practical importance, and it is

not possible to block pain sensation without affecting other sensory modalities.

Local anaesthetics, as their name implies, are mainly used to produce local nerve block. At low concentrations, they are also able to suppress the spontaneous action potential discharge in sensory neurons that occurs in neuropathic pain. **Lidocaine** (lignocaine) can be used intravenously to control neuropathic pain (see Ch. 41).

The properties of individual local anaesthetic drugs are summarised in Table 42.1.

Table 42.1 Properties of local anaesthetics

Drug	Onset	Duration	Tissue penetration	Plasma half-life (h)	Main unwanted effects	Notes
Cocaine	Medium	Medium	Good	~1	Cardiovascular and CNS effects owing to block of amine uptake	Rarely used, only as spray for upper respiratory tract
Procaine	Medium	Short	Poor	< 1	CNS: restlessness, shivering, anxiety, occasionally convulsions followed by respiratory depression Cardiovascular system: bradycardia and decreased cardiac output; vasodilatation, which can cause cardiovascular collapse	The first synthetic agent No longer used
Lidocaine (lignocaine)	Rapid	Medium	Good	~2	As procaine but less tendency to cause CNS effects	Widely used for local anaesthesia Also used intravenously for treating ventricular dysrhythmias (Ch. 21)
Mepivacaine	Rapid	Medium	Good	~2	As procaine	Less vasodilatation (may be administered without a vasoconstrictor)
Tetracaine (amethocaine)	Very slow	Long	Moderate	~1	As lidocaine	Used mainly for spinal and corneal anaesthesia
Bupivacaine	Slow	Long	Moderate	~2	As lidocaine but greater cardiotoxicity	Widely used because of long duration of action Ropivacaine is similar, with less cardiotoxicity Levobupivacaine causes less cardiotoxicity and CNS depression than the racemate, bupivacaine
Prilocaine	Medium	Medium	Moderate	~2	No vasodilator activity Can cause methaemoglobinaemia	Widely used; not for obstetric analgesia because of risk of neonatal methaemoglobinaemia
Articaine	Rapid	Short	Good	0.5	As lidocaine In a small proportion of patients it can induce paraesthesia (burning, tingling and sharp shooting pains) as well as numbness that outlasts the presence of the drug in the body	Used in dentistry

CNS, central nervous system.

Action of local anaesthetics

• Local anaesthetics block action potential generation by blocking sodium channels.

• Local anaesthetics are amphiphilic molecules with a hydrophobic aromatic group and a basic

amine group.

• Local anaesthetics are weak bases that act in their cationic form but must reach their site of action by penetrating the nerve sheath and axonal membrane as unionised species.

• Many local anaesthetics show use-dependence (depth of block increases with action potential frequency). This arises:

– because anaesthetic molecules gain access to the channel more readily when the channel is open

– because anaesthetic molecules have higher affinity for inactivated than for resting channels.

• Use-dependence is mainly of importance in relation to antidysrhythmic and antiepileptic effects of sodium channel blockers.

• Local anaesthetics block conduction in peripheral nerves in the following order: small myelinated axons, non-myelinated axons, large myelinated axons. Nociceptive and sympathetic transmission is thus blocked first.

• Sodium channel block in cardiac muscle and in CNS neurons is exploited in the therapy of cardiac dysrhythmias (Ch. 21) and epilepsy (Ch. 44).

Unwanted effects

When used clinically as local anaesthetics, the main unwanted effects involve the central nervous system (CNS) and the cardiovascular system (Table 42.1). Their action on the heart can also be therapeutic in cardiac arrhythmias (see Ch. 21). Although local anaesthetics are usually administered in such a way as to minimise their spread to other parts of the body, they are ultimately absorbed into the systemic circulation. They may also be injected into veins or arterioles by accident.

Most local anaesthetics produce a mixture of depressant and stimulant effects on the CNS. Depressant effects predominate at low plasma

concentrations, giving way to stimulation at higher concentrations, resulting in restlessness, tremor and sometimes convulsions, accompanied by subjective effects ranging from confusion to extreme agitation. Further increasing the dose produces profound CNS depression and death due to respiratory depression. The only local anaesthetic with markedly different CNS effects is **cocaine** (see Ch. 47), which produces euphoria at doses well below those that cause other CNS effects. This relates to its specific effect on monoamine uptake (see Ch. 47), an effect not shared by other local anaesthetics. **Procaine** is particularly liable to produce unwanted central effects, and has been superseded in clinical use by agents such as **lidocaine** and **prilocaine**. Studies with **bupivacaine**, a widely used long-acting local anaesthetic prepared as a racemic mixture of two optical isomers, suggested that its CNS and cardiac effects were mainly due to the *S*(+) isomer. The *R*(−) isomer (**levobupivacaine**) has a better margin of safety.

The adverse cardiovascular effects of local anaesthetics are due mainly to myocardial depression, conduction block and vasodilatation. Reduction of myocardial contractility probably results indirectly from an inhibition of the Na^+ current in cardiac muscle (see Ch. 21). The resulting decrease of $[Na^+]_i$ in turn reduces intracellular Ca^{2+} stores (see Ch. 4), and this reduces the force of contraction. Interference with atrioventricular conduction can result in partial or complete heart block, as well as other types of dysrhythmia. **Ropivacaine** has less cardiotoxicity than bupivacaine.

Vasodilatation, mainly affecting arterioles, is due partly to a direct effect on vascular smooth muscle, and partly to inhibition of the sympathetic nervous system. This leads to a fall in blood pressure, which may be sudden and life-threatening. Cocaine is an exception in respect of its cardiovascular effects, because of its ability to inhibit noradrenaline

reuptake (see Chs 14 and 47). This enhances sympathetic activity, leading to tachycardia, increased cardiac output, vasoconstriction and increased arterial pressure.

Hypersensitivity reactions sometimes occur with local anaesthetics, usually in the form of allergic dermatitis but rarely as an acute anaphylactic reaction. Other unwanted effects that are specific to particular drugs include mucosal irritation (cocaine) and methaemoglobinaemia (which occurs after large doses of prilocaine, because of the production of a toxic metabolite). **Articaine**, used in dentistry, can induce prolonged numbness (paraesthesia) that outlasts the presence of the drug in the body.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Local anaesthetics vary a good deal in the rapidity with which they penetrate tissues, and this affects the rate at which they cause nerve block when injected into tissues, and the rate of onset of, and recovery from, anaesthesia (Table 42.1). It also affects their usefulness as surface anaesthetics for application to mucous membranes.

Most of the ester-linked local anaesthetics (e.g. **tetracaine**) are rapidly hydrolysed by plasma cholinesterase, so their plasma half-life is short. Procaine—now rarely used—is hydrolysed to *p*-aminobenzoic acid, a folate precursor that interferes with the antibacterial effect of sulfonamides (see Ch. 50). The amide-linked drugs (e.g. lidocaine and prilocaine) are metabolised mainly in the liver, usually by *N*-dealkylation rather than cleavage of the amide bond, and the metabolites are often pharmacologically active.

Benzocaine is an unusual local anaesthetic of very low solubility, which is used as a dry powder to dress painful skin ulcers, or as throat lozenges. The drug is slowly released and produces long-lasting surface

anaesthesia.[1]

[1]Benzocaine is also used in condoms to delay ejaculation.

The routes of administration, uses and main adverse effects of local anaesthetics are summarised in Table 42.2.

Table 42.2 Methods of administration, uses and adverse effects of local anaesthetics

Method	Uses	Drug(s)	Notes and adverse effects
Surface anaesthesia	Nose, mouth, bronchial tree (usually in spray form), cornea, urinary tract Not effective for skin[a]	Lidocaine, tetracaine, (amethocaine), dibucaine, benzocaine	Risk of systemic toxicity when high concentrations and large areas are involved
Infiltration anaesthesia	Direct injection into tissues to reach nerve branches and terminals Used in minor surgery	Most	Adrenaline (epinephrine) or felypressin often added as vasoconstrictors (not with fingers or toes, for fear of causing ischaemic tissue damage) Suitable for only small areas, otherwise serious risk of systemic toxicity
Intravenous regional anaesthesia	LA injected intravenously distal to a pressure cuff to arrest blood flow; remains effective until the circulation is restored Used for limb surgery	Mainly lidocaine, prilocaine	Risk of systemic toxicity when cuff is released prematurely; risk is small if cuff remains inflated for at least 20 min
Nerve block anaesthesia	LA is injected close to nerve trunks (e.g. brachial plexus, intercostal or dental nerves) to produce a loss of sensation peripherally Used for surgery, dentistry, analgesia	Most	Less LA needed than for infiltration anaesthesia Accurate placement of the needle is important Onset of anaesthesia may be slow Duration of anaesthesia may be increased by addition of vasoconstrictor
Spinal anaesthesia	LA injected into the subarachnoid space (containing cerebrospinal fluid) to act on spinal roots and spinal cord Glucose sometimes added so that spread of LA can be limited by tilting patient Used for surgery to abdomen, pelvis or leg, mainly when general anaesthesia cannot be used	Mainly lidocaine	Main risks are bradycardia and hypotension (owing to sympathetic block), respiratory depression (owing to effects on phrenic nerve or respiratory centre); avoided by minimising cranial spread Postoperative urinary retention (block of pelvic autonomic outflow) is common
Epidural anaesthesia[b]	LA injected into epidural space, blocking spinal roots Uses as for spinal anaesthesia; also for painless childbirth	Mainly lidocaine, bupivacaine	Unwanted effects similar to those of spinal anaesthesia but less probable, because longitudinal spread of LA is reduced Postoperative urinary retention common

[a]Surface anaesthesia does not work well on the skin, although a non-crystalline mixture of lidocaine and prilocaine (eutectic mixture of local anaesthetics or EMLA) has been developed for application to the skin, producing complete anaesthesia in about 1 h.
[b]Intrathecal or epidural administration of LA in combination with an opioid (see Ch. 41) produces more effective analgesia than can be achieved with the opioid alone. Only a small concentration of LA is needed, insufficient to produce appreciable loss of sensation or other side effects. The mechanism of this synergism is unknown, but the procedure has proved useful in pain treatment.
LA, local anaesthetic.

Most local anaesthetics have a direct vasodilator action, which increases the rate at which they are absorbed into the systemic

circulation, thus increasing their potential toxicity and reducing their local anaesthetic action. **Adrenaline** (**epinephrine**) or **felypressin**, a short-acting vasopressin analogue (see Ch. 32), is often added to local anaesthetic solutions injected locally in order to cause vasoconstriction.

Unwanted effects and pharmacokinetics of local anaesthetics

• Local anaesthetics are either esters or amides. Esters are rapidly hydrolysed by plasma and tissue esterases, and amides are metabolised in the liver. Plasma half-lives are generally short, about 1–2 h.

• Unwanted effects are due mainly to escape of local anaesthetics into the systemic circulation.

• Main unwanted effects are:

– central nervous system effects, agitation, confusion, tremors progressing to convulsions and respiratory depression

– cardiovascular effects, namely myocardial depression and vasodilatation, leading to fall in blood pressure

– occasional hypersensitivity reactions.

• Local anaesthetics vary in the rapidity with which they penetrate tissues, and in their duration of action. **Lidocaine** (lignocaine) penetrates tissues readily and is suitable for surface application; **bupivacaine** has a particularly long duration of action.

Other therapeutic uses

Blocking specific sodium channel subtypes is seen as a promising therapeutic strategy for a variety of clinical conditions, including epilepsy (see Ch. 44), neurodegenerative diseases and stroke (see Ch. 39), neuropathic pain (see Ch. 41) and myopathies. As our understanding of the role of specific sodium channel subtypes in different pathophysiological situations has increased, it is likely that

selective blocking agents will be developed for use in different clinical situations.

Other Drugs that Affect Sodium Channels

Tetrodotoxin and Saxitoxin

Tetrodotoxin (TTX) is produced by a marine bacterium and accumulates in the tissues of a poisonous Pacific fish, the puffer fish. The puffer fish is regarded in Japan as a special delicacy partly because of the mild tingling sensation that follows eating its flesh. To serve it in public restaurants, however, the chef must be registered as sufficiently skilled in removing the toxic organs (especially liver and ovaries) so as to make the flesh safe to eat. Accidental TTX poisoning is quite common, nonetheless. Historical records of long sea voyages often contained reference to attacks of severe weakness, progressing to complete paralysis and death, caused by eating puffer fish. It was suggested that the powders used by voodoo practitioners to induce zombification may contain TTX but this has subsequently been disputed.

Saxitoxin (STX) is produced by a marine microorganism that sometimes proliferates in very large numbers and even colours the sea, giving the ‘red tide’ phenomenon. At such times, marine shellfish can accumulate the toxin and become poisonous to humans.

These toxins, unlike conventional local anaesthetics, act exclusively from the outside of the membrane. Both are complex molecules, bearing a positively charged guanidinium moiety. The guanidinium ion is able to permeate voltage-sensitive sodium channels, and this part of the TTX or STX molecule lodges in the channel, while the rest of the molecule blocks its outer mouth. In the manner of its blockade of sodium channels, TTX can be likened to a champagne cork. In contrast to the

local anaesthetics, there is no interaction between the gating and blocking reactions with TTX or STX—their association and dissociation are independent of whether the channel is open or closed. Some voltage-sensitive sodium channels are insensitive to TTX, notably those of cardiac muscle and those upregulated in sensory neurons in neuropathic pain (see Ch. 41).

Both TTX and STX are unsuitable for clinical use as local anaesthetics, being expensive to obtain from their exotic sources and poor at penetrating tissues because of their very low lipid solubility. They have, however, been important as experimental tools for the isolation and cloning of sodium channels (see Ch. 4).

Agents that Affect Sodium Channel Gating

Various substances are known that modify sodium channel gating in such a way as to increase the probability of opening of the channels (see Hille, 2001). They include various toxins, mainly from frog skin (e.g. batrachotoxin), scorpion or sea anemone venoms; plant alkaloids such as **veratridine**; and insecticides such as DDT and the pyrethrins. They facilitate sodium channel activation so that sodium channels open at more negative potentials close to the normal resting potential; they also inhibit inactivation, so that the channels fail to close if the membrane remains depolarised. The membrane thus becomes hyperexcitable, and the action potential is prolonged. Spontaneous discharges occur at first, but the cells eventually become permanently depolarised and inexcitable. All these substances affect the heart, producing extrasystoles and other dysrhythmias, culminating in fibrillation; they also cause spontaneous discharges in nerve and muscle, leading to twitching and convulsions. The very high lipid solubility of substances like DDT makes them effective as insecticides, for they are readily absorbed through the

integument. Drugs in this class are useful as experimental tools for studying sodium channels but have no clinical uses.

Clinical uses of local anaesthetics

• Local anaesthetics may be injected into soft tissue (e.g. of gums) or to block a nerve or nerve plexus.

• Co-administration of a vasoconstrictor (e.g. **adrenaline**) prolongs the local effect.

• Lipid-soluble drugs (e.g. **lidocaine**) are absorbed from mucous membranes and are used as surface anaesthetics.

• **Bupivacaine** has a slow onset but long duration. It is often used for epidural blockade (e.g. to provide continuous epidural blockade during labour) and spinal anaesthesia. Its isomer **levobupivacaine** is less cardiotoxic if it is inadvertently administered into a blood vessel.

References and Further Reading

ille B. *Ionic channels of excitable membranes*. Sunderland: Sinauer; 2001. (*Excellent, clearly written textbook for those wanting more than the basic minimum*)

ai J., Porreca F., Hunter J.C., Gold M.S. Voltage-gated sodium channels and hyperalgesia. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol.*. 2004;44:371-397. (*Review summarising the role of particular sodium channel subtypes in the pathogenesis of pain, and the use of local anaesthetic and antidysrhythmic drugs in controlling neuropathic pain*)

agsdale D.R., McPhee J.C., Scheuer T., Catterall W.A. Molecular determinants of state-dependent block of Na^+ channels by local anesthetics. *Science*. 1994;265:1724-1728. (*Use of site-directed mutations of the sodium channel to show that local anaesthetics bind to residues in the S6 transmembrane domain*)

trichartz G.R., Ritchie J.M. The action of local anaesthetics on ion channels of excitable tissues. *Handb. Exp. Pharmacol.*. 1987;81:21-52. (*Excellent review of actions of local anaesthetics—other articles in the same volume cover more clinical aspects*)

anagidate F., Stricharz G.R. Local anesthetics. *Handb. Exp. Pharmacol.*. 2007;177:95-127. (*Review of sodium channel block by local anaesthetics and description of other actions of these drugs that might also be important*)

43

Anxiolytic and hypnotic drugs

Overview

In this chapter, we discuss the nature of anxiety and the drugs used to treat it (anxiolytic drugs), as well as drugs used to treat insomnia (hypnotic drugs). Historically there was overlap between these two groups, reflecting the fact that older anxiolytic drugs commonly caused a degree of sedation and drowsiness. Newer anxiolytic drugs show much less sedative effect and other hypnotic drugs have been introduced that lack specific anxiolytic effects. Many of the drugs now used to treat anxiety were first developed, and are still used, to treat other disorders such as depression and epilepsy. Here we will focus on their use as anxiolytics. Of the classical anxiolytic/hypnotic drugs, the benzodiazepines are the most important group. Possible new approaches are discussed briefly.

The Nature of Anxiety and Its Treatment

The normal fear response to threatening stimuli comprises several components, including defensive behaviours, autonomic reflexes, arousal and alertness, corticosteroid secretion and negative emotions. In anxiety states, these reactions occur in an anticipatory manner, independently of external events. The distinction between a ‘pathological’ and a ‘normal’ state of anxiety is not clear-cut but represents the point at which the symptoms interfere with normal productive activities. The term ‘anxiety’ is applied to several distinct disorders. A useful division of anxiety

disorders that may help to explain why different types of anxiety respond differently to different drugs is into (i) disorders that involve *fear* (panic attacks and phobias) and (ii) those that involve a more general feeling of *anxiety* (often categorised as general anxiety disorder).

Anxiety disorders as recognised clinically include:

• *generalised anxiety disorder* (an ongoing state of excessive anxiety lacking any clear reason or focus)

• *social anxiety disorder* (fear of being with and interacting with other people)

• *panic disorder* (sudden attacks of overwhelming fear occur in association with marked somatic symptoms, such as sweating, tachycardia, chest pains, trembling and choking). Such attacks can be induced even in normal individuals by infusion of sodium lactate, and the condition appears to have a genetic component)

• *phobias* (strong fears of specific objects or situations, *e.g.* snakes, open spaces, flying)

• *post-traumatic stress disorder* (anxiety triggered by recall of past stressful experiences)

• *obsessive compulsive disorder* (compulsive ritualistic behaviour driven by irrational anxiety, *e.g.* fear of contamination).

It should be stressed that the treatment of such disorders generally involves psychological approaches as well as drug treatment. Over the last decade the drug treatment of anxiety has changed from using traditional anxiolytic/hypnotic agents (i.e. benzodiazepines and barbiturates) to using a range of drugs that are also used to treat other CNS disorders (e.g. antidepressant, antiepileptic and antipsychotic drugs)

or 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)$_{1A}$ receptor agonists (e.g. **buspirone**) that have no hypnotic effect. Furthermore, benzodiazepines, while being effective anxiolytic drugs, have the disadvantages of producing unwanted side effects such as amnesia, and of inducing tolerance and physical dependence as well as being drugs of abuse. They are also ineffective in treating any depression that may occur along with anxiety. Antidepressants and buspirone do, however, require three or more weeks to show any therapeutic effect and must be taken continuously, whereas benzodiazepines can be useful for patients who need acute treatment as they reduce anxiety within 30 min, and can be taken on an 'as needed' basis.

Measurement of Anxiolytic Activity

Animal Models of Anxiety

In addition to the subjective (emotional) component of human anxiety, there are measurable behavioural and physiological effects that also occur in experimental animals. In biological terms, anxiety induces a particular form of behavioural inhibition that occurs in response to novel environmental events that are threatening or painful. In animals, this behavioural inhibition may take the form of immobility or suppression of a behavioural response such as bar pressing to obtain food (see below). A rat placed in an unfamiliar environment normally responds by remaining immobile although alert (behavioural suppression) for a time, which may represent 'anxiety' produced by the strange environment. This immobility is reduced if anxiolytic drugs are administered. The 'elevated cross maze' is a widely used test model. Two arms of the raised horizontal cross are closed in, and the others are open. Normally, rats spend most of their time in the closed arms and avoid the open arms (afraid, possibly, of falling off or being attacked). Administration of

anxiolytic drugs increases the time spent in the open arms and also increases the number of entries made into the open arm but without an increase in motor activity.

Conflict tests can also be used. For example, a rat trained to press a bar repeatedly to obtain a food pellet normally achieves a high and consistent response rate. A conflict element is then introduced: at intervals, indicated by an auditory signal, bar pressing results in an occasional 'punishment' in the form of an electric shock in addition to the reward of a food pellet. Normally, the rat ceases pressing the bar (behavioural inhibition), and thus avoids the shock, while the signal is sounding. The effect of an anxiolytic drug is to relieve this suppressive effect, so that the rats continue bar pressing for reward despite the 'punishment'. Other types of psychotropic drug are not effective, nor are analgesic drugs. Other evidence confirms that anxiolytic drugs affect the level of behavioural inhibition produced by the 'conflict situation', rather than simply raising the pain threshold.

Some of these 'anxiety' models may measure fear rather than general anxiety which occurs in humans in the absence of specific stimuli. To develop new anxiolytic drugs, it is important to have animal tests that give a good guide to efficacy in humans, and much ingenuity has gone into developing and validating such tests (see Ramos, 2008).

Tests on Humans

Various subjective 'anxiety scale' tests have been devised based on standard patient questionnaires. Galvanic skin reactions—a measure of sweat secretion—are also used to monitor anxiety. Neuropsychological tests have been developed to investigate emotional and attentional biases associated with responses to emotive faces and words. An experience akin to a panic attack can be induced in many subjects by

breathing an increased level of CO_2 (usually prolonged breathing of 7.5% CO_2 or a single inhalation of 35% CO_2). Such tests have confirmed the efficacy of many anxiolytic drugs, but placebo treatment often also produces highly significant responses.

A human version of the conflict test described above involves the substitution of money for food pellets, and the use of graded electric shocks as punishment. As with rats, administration of diazepam increases the rate of button pressing for money during the periods when the punishment was in operation, although the subjects reported no change in the painfulness of the electric shock.

Measurement of anxiolytic activity

• Behavioural tests in animals are based on measurements of the behavioural inhibition (considered to reflect 'anxiety') in response to conflict or novelty.

• Human tests for anxiolytic drugs employ psychiatric rating scales or measures of autonomic responses such as the galvanic skin response.

• Tests such as these can distinguish between anxiolytic drugs (benzodiazepines, buspirone, etc.) and sedatives (e.g. barbiturates).

Drugs Used to Treat Anxiety

The main groups of drugs (see review by Hoffman & Mathew, 2008) are as follows:

• Antidepressants (see Ch. 46 for details). Selective serotonin (5-HT) reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs; *e.g.* **fluoxetine**, **paroxetine** and **sertraline**) and 5-HT/noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs; *e.g.* **venlafaxine**) are effective in the treatment of generalised anxiety disorder, phobias, social anxiety disorder and post-traumatic stress disorder. Older

antidepressants (tricyclic antidepressants [TCAs] and monoamine oxidase inhibitors [MAOIs]) are also effective but a lower side effect profile favours the use of SSRIs. These agents have the additional advantage of reducing any depression that may be associated with anxiety.

• **Benzodiazepines**. Used to treat acute anxiety. Those used to treat anxiety have a long biological half-life (see Table 43.1). They may be co-administered during stabilisation of a patient on an SSRI. There is some evidence that in panic disorders the combination of a benzodiazepine with an SSRI may be better than an SSRI alone.

• **Buspirone**. This 5-HT_{1A} receptor agonist is effective in generalised anxiety disorder but ineffective in the treatment of phobias or social anxiety disorder.

• **Gabapentin**, **pregabalin**, **tiagabine** and **valproate**, antiepileptic drugs (see Ch. 44), are also effective in treating generalised anxiety disorder.

• Some atypical antipsychotic agents (see Ch. 45) such as **olanzepine** and **risperidone** may be effective in generalised anxiety disorder and post-traumatic stress disorder but the incidence of side effects may be greater than with other anxiolytic drugs.

• β-Adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. **propranolol**; Ch. 14). These are used to treat some forms of anxiety, particularly where physical symptoms such as sweating, tremor and tachycardia are troublesome.[1] Their effectiveness depends on block of peripheral sympathetic responses rather than on any central effects.

Table 43.1 Characteristics of benzodiazepines in humans

Drug(s)	Half-life of parent compound (h)	Active metabolite	Half-life of metabolite (h)	Overall duration of action	Main use(s)
Triazolam,[a] midazolam	2–4	Hydroxylated derivative	2	Ultrashort (< 6 h)	Hypnotic Midazolam used as intravenous anaesthetic
Zolpidem[b]	2	No	—	Ultrashort (~4 h)	Hypnotic
Lorazepam, oxazepam, temazepam, lormetazepam	8–12	No	—	Short (12–18 h)	Anxiolytic, hypnotic
Alprazolam	6–12	Hydroxylated derivative	6	Medium (24 h)	Anxiolytic, antidepressant
Nitrazepam	16–40	No	—	Medium	Hypnotic, anxiolytic
Diazepam, chlordiazepoxide	20–40	Nordazepam	60	Long (24–48 h)	Anxiolytic, muscle relaxant Diazepam used as anticonvulsant
Flurazepam	1	Desmethyl-flurazepam	60	Long	Anxiolytic
Clonazepam	50	No	—	Long	Anticonvulsant, anxiolytic (especially mania)

[a]Triazolam has been withdrawn from use in the UK on account of side effects.
[b]Zolpidem is not a benzodiazepine but acts in a similar manner. Zopiclone is similar.

Drugs Used to Treat Insomnia (Hypnotic Drugs)

[1]β-Blockers are sometimes used by actors and musicians to reduce the symptoms of stage fright, but their use by snooker players to minimise tremor is banned as unsportsmanlike.

• **Benzodiazepines**. Short-acting benzodiazepines (e.g. **lorazepam** and **temazepam**) are used for treating insomnia as they have little hangover effect.

• **Zolpidem** and **zopiclone**. Although chemically distinct, these short-acting sedatives act similarly to benzodiazepines. They lack appreciable anxiolytic activity (see below).

• **Antihistamines**[2] (see Ch. 26; *e.g.* **diphenhydramine** and **promethazine**) can be used to induce sleep. They are included in various over-the-counter preparations.

• Miscellaneous other drugs (e.g. **chloral hydrate**, **meprobamate** and **methaqualone**). They are no longer recommended, but therapeutic habits die hard and they are occasionally used.

[2]This is an interesting example of an initial unwanted side effect—sedation is undesired when treating hay fever—subsequently becoming a therapeutic use.

Antidepressants (Ch. 46), antiepileptics (Ch. 44), antipsychotics Ch. 45), β-adrenoceptor antagonists (Ch. 14) and antihistamines (Ch. 26) are described in detail elsewhere in this book. Some discussion of how SSRIs exert their anxiolytic activity is included in the section on buspirone (see below). In this chapter we focus on drugs whose primary use is as anxiolytic and hypnotic agents.

Classes of anxiolytic and hypnotic drugs

• Antidepressant drugs (SSRIs, SNRIs, TCAs and MAOIs–see Ch. 46) are effective anxiolytic agents.

• Benzodiazepines are used for treating acute anxiety and insomnia.

• **Buspirone** is a 5-HT_{1A} receptor agonist with anxiolytic activity but little sedative effect.

• Some antiepileptic drugs (e.g. **gabapentin**, **pregabalin**, **tiagabine** and **valproate**) have anxiolytic properties.

• Some atypical antipsychotic agents can be useful to treat some forms of anxiety, but have significant unwanted effects.

• β-Adrenoceptor antagonists are used mainly to reduce physical symptoms of anxiety (tremor, palpitations, etc.); no effect on affective component.

• Histamine H_1 receptor antagonists have sedative effects.

• Miscellaneous other agents (e.g. **methaqualone**, **chloral hydrate**) are still used occasionally to treat insomnia (benzodiazepines are preferable in most cases).

Benzodiazepines and Related Drugs

▼ The first benzodiazepine, **chlordiazepoxide**, was synthesised by accident in 1961, the unusual seven-membered ring having been produced as a result of a reaction that went wrong in the laboratories of Hoffman-La Roche. Its unexpected pharmacological activity was recognised in a routine screening procedure, and benzodiazepines quite soon became the most widely prescribed drugs in the pharmacopoeia.

The basic chemical structure of benzodiazepines consists of a seven-membered ring fused to an aromatic ring, with four main substituent groups that can be modified without loss of activity. Thousands of compounds have been made and tested, and about 20 are available for clinical use, the most important ones being listed in Table 43.1. They are basically similar in their pharmacological actions, although some degree of selectivity has been reported. For example, some, such as **clonazepam**, show anticonvulsant activity with less marked sedative effects. From a clinical point of view, differences in pharmacokinetic behaviour among different benzodiazepines (see below) are more important than differences in profile of activity. Drugs with a similar structure have been discovered that specifically antagonise the effects of the benzodiazepines, for example **flumazenil** (see below).

The term ‘benzodiazepine’ refers to a distinct chemical structure. Drugs such as zolpidem and zopiclone have a different chemical structure and are therefore not benzodiazepines. However, since they bind to the same sites, often referred to as the ‘benzodiazepine receptor’, they are discussed along with the benzodiazepines.

Mechanism of Action

Benzodiazepines act selectively on $GABA_A$ receptors (Ch. 37), which mediate inhibitory synaptic transmission throughout the central nervous system. Benzodiazepines enhance the response to GABA by facilitating the opening of GABA-activated chloride channels (Fig. 37.4). They bind specifically to a regulatory site on the receptor, distinct from the GABA-binding sites (see below), and act allosterically to increase the affinity of GABA for the receptor. Single-channel recordings show an increase in the frequency of channel opening by a given concentration of GABA, but no change in the conductance or mean open time, consistent with an effect on GABA binding rather than the channel-gating mechanism. Benzodiazepines do not affect receptors for other amino acids, such as glycine or glutamate (Fig. 43.1).

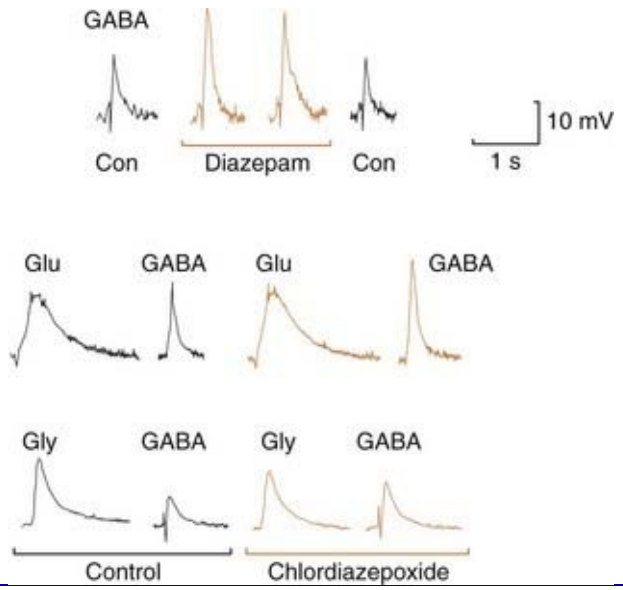


Fig. 43.1 Potentiating effect of benzodiazepines and chlordiazepoxide on the action of GABA.

Drugs were applied by ionophoresis to mouse spinal cord neurons grown in tissue culture, from micropipettes placed close to the cells. The membrane was hyperpolarised to −90 mV, and the cells were loaded with Cl^- from the recording microelectrode, so inhibitory amino acids (GABA and glycine, Gly), as well as excitatory ones (glutamate, Glu), caused depolarising responses. The potentiating effect of diazepam is restricted to GABA responses, glutamate and

glycine responses being unaffected. Con, control.

▼ The $GABA_A$ receptor is a ligand-gated ion channel (see Ch. 3) consisting of a pentameric assembly of different subunits, the main ones being α, β and γ (see Ch. 37). The $GABA_A$ receptor should actually be thought of as a family of receptors as there are six different subtypes of α subunit, three subtypes of β and three subtypes of γ. Although the potential number of combinations is therefore large, certain combinations predominate in the adult brain (see Ch. 37). The various combinations occur in different parts of the brain, have different physiological functions and have subtle differences in their pharmacological properties (see below).

Benzodiazepines bind across the interface between the α and γ subunits but only to receptors that contain γ2 and α1, α2, α3 or α5 subunits. Two genetic approaches have been used to study the roles of different subunits in the different behavioural effects of benzodiazepines —genetic knockout and loss of function mutants (see Whiting, 2003; Reynolds, 2008). The loss of function mutant approach has the advantage over subunit knockout that it reduces the likelihood of compensatory changes in the expression of other subunits. Mutation of a single amino acid (histidine 101 or its equivalent) in the α subunit eliminates benzodiazepine binding. Behavioural analysis of various mutant mice indicates that α1-containing receptors mediate the sedative but not the anxiolytic effect of benzodiazepines whereas α2-and α3-containing receptors mediate the anxiolytic effect.

The obvious next step has been to try and develop subunit-selective drugs (Reynolds, 2008; Christmas et al., 2008). Unfortunately, this has proved difficult, due to the structural similarity between the benzodiazepine binding site on different α subunits. What has been

possible is the development of drugs that, while having little subunit-selectivity of binding, have different levels of agonist efficacy at receptors containing different subunits. Selective efficacy at α2-and α3-containing receptors may produce drugs that have an anxiolytic effect without the unwanted effects of sedation and amnesia. Such compounds have been developed (e.g. MK-0343, TPA023) but only limited data on their effectiveness in humans are currently available. **Pagoclone**, which is reported to be an α3 agonist and α1, α2 and α5 partial agonist, has little or no sedative or amnesic actions and is in development for the treatment of panic disorders and stuttering.

Peripheral benzodiazepine-binding sites, not associated with GABA receptors, are known to exist in many tissues. They are located primarily on mitochondrial membranes. For information on their structure and functions, see Veenman & Gavish (2006).

Pharmacological Effects and Uses

The main effects of benzodiazepines are:

- reduction of anxiety and aggression
- induction of sleep and sedation
- reduction of muscle tone and coordination
- anticonvulsant effect
- anterograde amnesia.

Reduction of anxiety and aggression

Benzodiazepines show anxiolytic effects in animal tests, as described above, and also exert a marked 'taming' effect, allowing animals to be handled more easily.[3] If given to the dominant member of a pair of

animals (e.g. mice or monkeys) housed in the same cage, benzodiazepines reduce the number of attacks by the dominant individual and increase the number of attacks made on him. With the possible exception of **alprazolam** (Table 43.1), benzodiazepines do not have antidepressant effects. Benzodiazepines may paradoxically produce an increase in irritability and aggression in some individuals. This appears to be particularly pronounced with the ultrashort-acting drug **triazolam** (and led to its withdrawal in the UK and some other countries), and is generally more common with short-acting compounds. It is probably a manifestation of the benzodiazepine withdrawal syndrome, which occurs with all these drugs (see below) but is more acute with drugs whose action wears off rapidly.

[3]This depends on the species. Cats actually become more excitable, as a colleague of one of the authors discovered to his cost when attempting to sedate a tiger in the Baltimore zoo.

Benzodiazepines are now used mainly for treating acute anxiety states.

Induction of sleep and sedation

Benzodiazepines decrease the time taken to get to sleep, and increase the total duration of sleep, although the latter effect occurs only in subjects who normally sleep for less than about 6 h each night. With agents that have a short duration of action (e.g. zolpidem or temazepam), a pronounced hangover effect on wakening can be avoided.

▼ On the basis of electroencephalography measurements, several levels of sleep can be recognised. Of particular psychological importance are rapid-eye-movement (REM) sleep, which is associated with dreaming, and slow-wave sleep, which corresponds to the deepest level of sleep when the metabolic rate and adrenal steroid secretion are at their lowest and the secretion of growth hormone is at its highest (see Ch. 32). Most

hypnotic drugs reduce the proportion of REM sleep, although benzodiazepines affect it less than other hypnotics, and zolpidem (see below) least of all. Artificial interruption of REM sleep causes irritability and anxiety, even if the total amount of sleep is not reduced, and the lost REM sleep is made up for at the end of such an experiment by a rebound increase. The same rebound in REM sleep is seen at the end of a period of administration of benzodiazepines or other hypnotics. The proportion of slow-wave sleep is significantly reduced by benzodiazepines, although growth hormone secretion is unaffected.

Figure 43.2 shows the improvement of subjective ratings of sleep quality produced by a benzodiazepine, and the rebound decrease at the end of a 32-week period of drug treatment. It is notable that, although tolerance to objective effects such as reduced sleep latency occurs within a few days, this is not obvious in the subjective ratings.

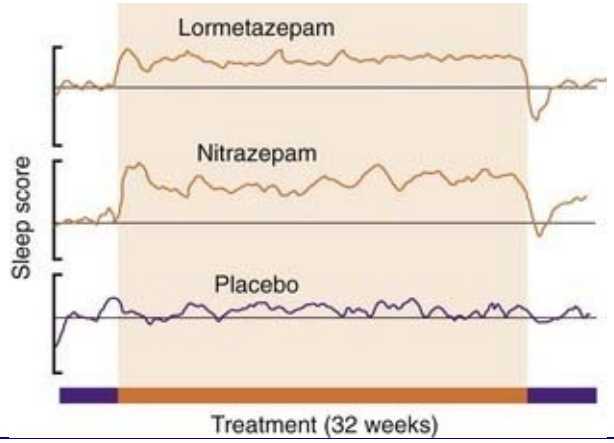


Fig. 43.2 Effects of long-term benzodiazepine treatment on sleep quality.

A group of 100 poor sleepers were given, under double-blind conditions, lormetazepam 5 mg, nitrazepam 2 mg or placebo nightly for 24 weeks, the test period being preceded and followed by 4 weeks of placebo treatment. They were asked to assess, on a subjective rating scale, the quality of sleep during each night, and the results are expressed as a 5-day rolling average of these scores. The improvement in sleep quality was maintained during the 24-week test period, and was followed by a 'rebound' worsening of sleep when the test period ended.

(From Oswald I et al. 1982 Br Med J 284: 860–864.)

Benzodiazepines are now, however, only recommended for short courses of treatment of insomnia. Tolerance develops over 1–2 weeks with continuous use, and on cessation rebound insomnia and a withdrawal syndrome may occur (see below).

Benzodiazepines are also used as premedication before surgery (both medical and dental). Under these circumstances their anxiolytic, sedative and amnesic properties may be beneficial. Intravenous midazolam can be used to induce anaesthesia (see Ch. 40).

Reduction of muscle tone

Benzodiazepines reduce muscle tone by a central action on $GABA_A$ receptors primarily in the spinal cord.

Increased muscle tone is a common feature of anxiety states in humans and may contribute to the aches and pains, including headache, which often trouble anxious patients. The relaxant effect of benzodiazepines may therefore be clinically useful. A reduction of muscle tone appears to be possible without appreciable loss of coordination. However, with intravenous administration in anaesthesia and in overdose when these drugs are being abused, airway obstruction may occur. Other clinical uses of muscle relaxants are discussed in Chapter 13.

Anticonvulsant effects

All the benzodiazepines have anticonvulsant activity in experimental animal tests. They are highly effective against chemically induced convulsions caused by **pentylenetetrazol**, **bicuculline** and similar drugs that act by blocking $GABA_A$ receptors (see Chs 37 and 44) but less so against electrically induced convulsions.

Clonazepam (see above) is used to treat epilepsy (Ch. 44), as is **diazepam**, which is administered rectally to children in acute seizures

and intravenously to control life-threatening seizures in status epilepticus. Tolerance develops to the anticonvulsant actions of benzodiazepines (see below).

Anterograde amnesia

Benzodiazepines prevent memory of events experienced while under their influence, an effect not seen with other CNS depressants. Minor surgical or invasive procedures can thus be performed without leaving unpleasant memories. **Flunitrazepam** (better known to the general public by one of its trade names, Rohypnol) is infamous as a date rape drug and victims frequently have difficulty in recalling exactly what took place during the attack.

Amnesia is thought to be due to benzodiazepines binding to $GABA_A$ receptors containing the α5 subunit. α5 Knockout mice show an enhanced learning and memory phenotype. This raises the possibility that an α5-subunit-selective inverse agonist (see below for a general description of benzodiazepine inverse agonism) could be memory enhancing.

Is There an Endogenous Benzodiazepine-Like Mediator?

▼ Despite considerable scientific effort, the question of whether or not there are endogenous ligands for the benzodiazepine receptors, whose function is to regulate the action of GABA, remains unanswered.

That the antagonist **flumazenil** produces responses both in vivo and in vitro in the absence of any exogenous benzodiazepines is frequently cited to support the view that there must be ongoing benzodiazepine receptor activation by endogenous ligand(s). Although flumazenil was originally described as a neutral antagonist (see below), it is possible, however, that it has agonist or inverse agonist activity at subtypes of

$GABA_A$ receptor (depending on the α subunit present) or in some pathological conditions in which the $GABA_A$ receptors have become modified.

Several molecules that act on benzodiazepine receptors have been isolated, including *β-carbolines* (e.g. ethyl-β-carboline-3-carboxylate, βCCE), structurally related to tryptophan, and *diazepam-binding inhibitor*, a 10-kDa peptide. Whether these molecules exist in the brain or are generated during the processes involved in extracting them from the tissue is an open issue. Interestingly both βCCE and diazepam-binding inhibitor have the opposite effect to benzodiazepines, *i.e.* they are inverse agonists and inhibit chloride channel opening by GABA and, in the whole animal, exert anxiogenic and proconvulsant effects. There was also a suggestion that benzodiazepines themselves may occur naturally in the brain but the origin of these compounds and how biosynthesis occurs is unclear. At present, there is no general agreement on the identity and function of endogenous ligands for the benzodiazepine receptor. Other possible endogenous modulators of $GABA_A$ receptors include steroid metabolites but they bind to a different site from benzodiazepines (see Ch. 40).

Pharmacokinetic Aspects

Benzodiazepines are well absorbed when given orally, usually giving a peak plasma concentration in about 1 h. Some (e.g. **oxazepam**, **lorazepam**) are absorbed more slowly. They bind strongly to plasma protein, and their high lipid solubility causes many of them to accumulate gradually in body fat. They are normally given by mouth but can be given intravenously (e.g. diazepam in status epilepticus, midazolam in anaesthesia). Intramuscular injection often results in slow absorption.

Benzodiazepines are all metabolised and eventually excreted as glucuronide conjugates in the urine. They vary greatly in duration of action and can be roughly divided into short-, medium-and long-acting compounds (Table 43.1). Duration of action influences their use, short-acting compounds being useful hypnotics with reduced hangover effect on wakening, long-acting compounds being more useful for use as anxiolytic and anticonvulsant drugs. Several are converted to active metabolites such as *N*-desmethyldiazepam (**nordazepam**), which has a half-life of about 60 h, and which accounts for the tendency of many benzodiazepines to produce cumulative effects and long hangovers when they are given repeatedly. The short-acting compounds are those that are metabolised directly by conjugation with glucuronide. Figure 43.3 shows the gradual build up and slow disappearance of nordazepam from the plasma of a human subject given diazepam daily for 15 days.

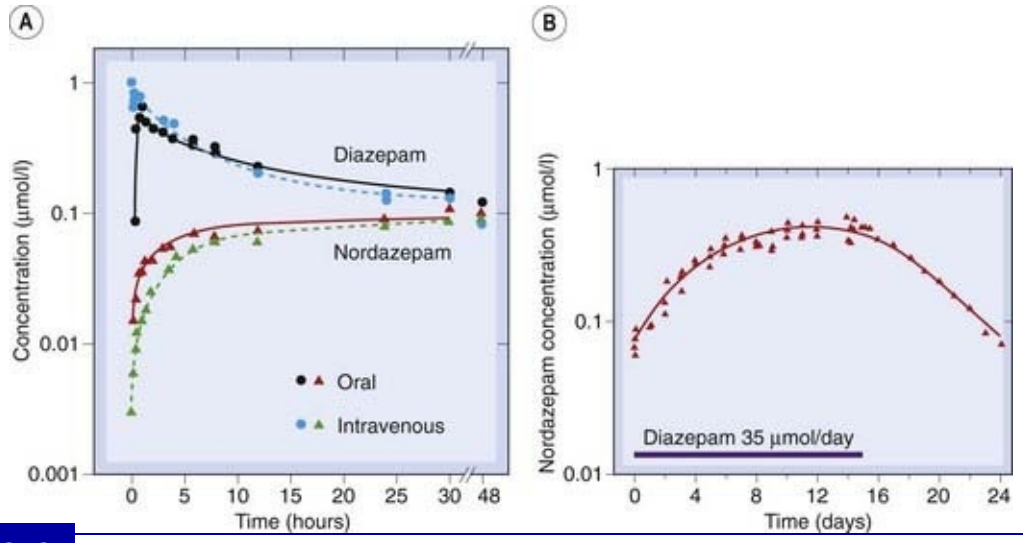


Fig. 43.3 Pharmacokinetics of diazepam in humans.

[**A**] Concentrations of diazepam and nordazepam following a single oral or intravenous dose. Note the very slow disappearance of both substances after the first 20 h. [**B**] Accumulation of nordazepam during 2 weeks' daily administration of diazepam, and slow decline (half-life about 3 days) after cessation of diazepam administration.

(Data from Kaplan S A et al. 1973 J Pharmacol Sci 62: 1789.)

▼ Advancing age affects the rate of oxidative reactions more than that of conjugation reactions. Thus the effect of the long-acting benzodiazepines tends to increase with age, and it is common for drowsiness and confusion to develop insidiously for this reason.[4]

Unwanted Effects

[4]At the age of 91, the grandmother of one of the authors was growing increasingly forgetful and mildly dotty, having been taking nitrazepam for insomnia regularly for years. To the author's lasting shame, it took a canny general practitioner to diagnose the problem. Cancellation of the nitrazepam prescription produced a dramatic improvement.

These may be divided into:

- toxic effects resulting from acute overdosage
- unwanted effects occurring during normal therapeutic use
- tolerance and dependence.

Acute toxicity

Benzodiazepines in acute overdose are considerably less dangerous than other anxiolytic/hypnotic drugs. Because such agents are often used in attempted suicide, this is an important advantage. In overdose, benzodiazepines cause prolonged sleep, without serious depression of respiration or cardiovascular function. However, in the presence of other CNS depressants, particularly alcohol, benzodiazepines can cause severe, even life-threatening, respiratory depression. This is a frequent problem when benzodiazepines are used as recreational drugs (see Chs 48 and 58). The availability of an effective antagonist, **flumazenil**, means that the effects of an acute overdose can be counteracted,[5] which is not possible for most CNS depressants.

Side effects during therapeutic use

[5]In practice, patients are usually left to sleep it off, because there is a risk of seizures with flumazenil; however, flumazenil may be useful diagnostically to rule out coma of other causes.

The main side effects of benzodiazepines are drowsiness, confusion, amnesia and impaired coordination, which considerably affects manual skills such as driving performance. Benzodiazepines enhance the depressant effect of other drugs, including alcohol, in a more than additive way. The long and unpredictable duration of action of many benzodiazepines is important in relation to side effects. Long-acting drugs such as nitrazepam are no longer used as hypnotics, and even shorter-acting compounds such as lorazepam can produce a substantial day-after impairment of job performance and driving skill.

Tolerance and dependence

Tolerance (i.e. a gradual escalation of dose needed to produce the required effect) occurs with all benzodiazepines, as does dependence, which is their main drawback. They share these properties with other sedatives. Tolerance appears to represent a change at the receptor level, but the mechanism is not well understood (Wafford, 2005).

At the receptor level, the degree of tolerance will be governed both by the number of receptors occupied (i.e. the dose) and the duration of receptor occupancy (which may vary according to the therapeutic use). Therefore, marked tolerance develops when benzodiazepines are used continuously to treat epilepsy whereas less tolerance occurs to the sleep-inducing effect when the subject is relatively drug free during the day. It is not clear to what degree tolerance develops to the anxiolytic effect.

Benzodiazepines produce dependence, and this is a major problem. In human subjects and patients, abrupt cessation of benzodiazepine

treatment after weeks or months causes a rebound heightened anxiety, together with tremor, dizziness, tinnitus, weight loss and disturbed sleep due to enhanced REM sleep. It is recommended that benzodiazepines be withdrawn gradually by stepwise lowering of the dose. Although animals show only a weak tendency to self-administer benzodiazepines, withdrawal after chronic administration causes physical symptoms, namely nervousness, tremor, loss of appetite and sometimes convulsions.[6] The withdrawal syndrome, in both animals and humans, is slower in onset than with opioids, probably because of the long plasma half-life of most benzodiazepines. With diazepam, the withdrawal symptoms may take up to 3 weeks to become apparent. Short-acting benzodiazepines cause more abrupt withdrawal effects. With triazolam, a very short-acting drug and no longer in use, the withdrawal effect occurred within a few hours, even after a single dose, producing early-morning insomnia and daytime anxiety when the drug was used as a hypnotic.

[6]Withdrawal symptoms can be more severe. A relative of one of the authors, advised to stop taking benzodiazepines after 20 years, suffered hallucinations and one day tore down all the curtains, convinced that they were on fire.

The physical and psychological withdrawal symptoms make it difficult for patients to give up taking benzodiazepines, but craving (i.e. severe psychological dependence that outlasts the physical withdrawal syndrome), which occurs with many drugs of abuse (Ch. 48), is not a major problem.

Benzodiazepine Antagonists and Inverse Agonists

Competitive antagonists of benzodiazepines were first discovered in 1981. The best-known compound is **flumazenil**. This compound was

originally reported to lack effects on behaviour or on drug-induced convulsions when given on its own, although it was later found to possess some 'anxiogenic' and proconvulsant activity. Flumazenil can be used to reverse the effect of benzodiazepine overdosage (normally used only if respiration is severely depressed), or to reverse the effect of benzodiazepines such as midazolam used for minor surgical procedures. Flumazenil acts quickly and effectively when given by injection, but its action lasts for only about 2 h, so drowsiness tends to return. It can be used to treat comatose patients suspected of having overdosed with benzodiazepines. Convulsions may rarely occur in patients treated with flumazenil, and this is more common in patients receiving tricyclic antidepressants (Ch. 46). Reports that flumazenil improves the mental state of patients with severe liver disease (hepatic encephalopathy) and alcohol intoxication have not been confirmed in controlled trials although partial inverse agonists do appear to be effective in animal models of hepatic encephalopathy (Ahboucha & Butterworth, 2005).

▼ The term *inverse agonist* (Ch. 2) is applied to drugs that bind to benzodiazepine receptors and exert the opposite effect to that of conventional benzodiazepines, producing signs of increased anxiety and convulsions. βCCE, diazepam-binding inhibitor (see above) and some benzodiazepine analogues show inverse agonist activity. It is possible (see Fig. 43.4) to explain these complexities in terms of the two-state model discussed in Chapter 2, by postulating that the benzodiazepine receptor exists in two distinct conformations, only one of which (A) can bind GABA molecules and open the chloride channel. The other conformation (B) cannot bind GABA. Normally, with no benzodiazepine receptor ligand present, there is an equilibrium between these two conformations; sensitivity to GABA is present but submaximal. Benzodiazepine agonists (e.g. diazepam) are postulated to bind

preferentially to conformation A, thus shifting the equilibrium in favour of A and enhancing GABA sensitivity. Inverse agonists bind selectively to B and have the opposite effect. Competitive antagonists would bind equally to A and B, and consequently would not disturb the conformational equilibrium but antagonise the effect of both agonists and inverse agonists

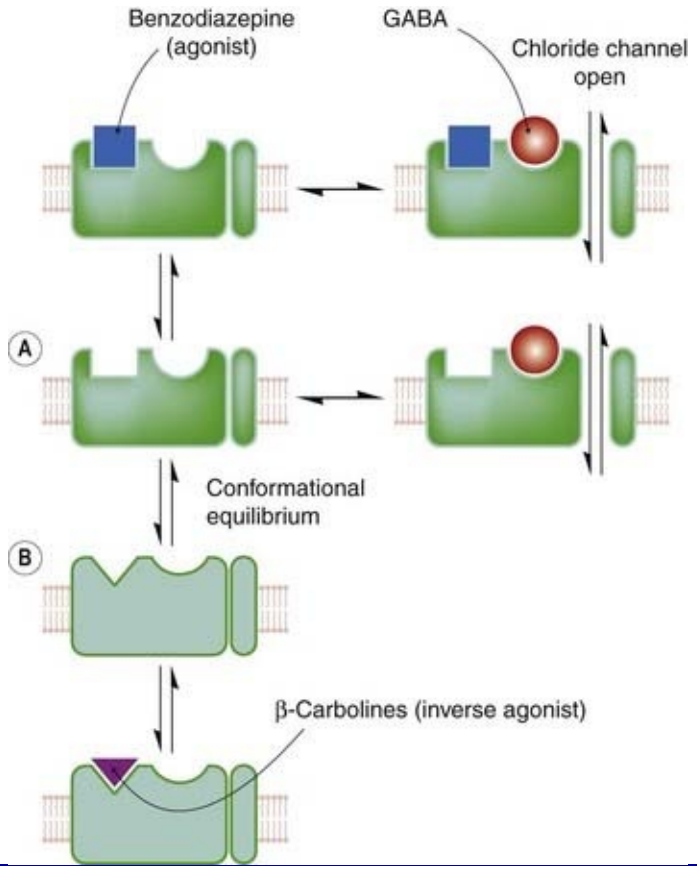


Fig. 43.4 Model of benzodiazepine/GABA receptor interaction.

Benzodiazepine agonists, antagonists and inverse agonists are believed to bind to a site on the GABA receptor distinct from the GABA-binding site. A conformational equilibrium exists between states in which the benzodiazepine receptor exists in its agonist-binding conformation (A), and in its inverse agonist-binding conformation (B). In the latter state, the GABA receptor has a much reduced affinity for GABA; consequently, the chloride channel remains closed.

Benzodiazepines

• Act by binding to a specific regulatory site on the $GABA_A$ receptor, thus enhancing the inhibitory effect of GABA. Subtypes of the $GABA_A$ receptor exist in different regions of the brain and differ in their functional effects.

• Anxiolytic benzodiazepines are agonists at this regulatory site. Other benzodiazepines (e.g. **flumazenil**) are weak inverse agonists or antagonists and prevent the actions of the anxiolytic benzodiazepines. Other inverse agonists (not used clinically) are anxiogenic.

• Anxiolytic effects are mediated by $GABA_A$ receptors containing the $\alpha 2$ or $\alpha 3$ subunits, while sedation occurs through those with the $\alpha 1$ subunit.

• Benzodiazepines cause:

– reduction of anxiety and aggression

– sedation, leading to improvement of insomnia

– muscle relaxation and loss of motor coordination

– suppression of convulsions (antiepileptic effect)

– anterograde amnesia.

• Differences in the pharmacological profile of different benzodiazepines are minor; **clonazepam** appears to have more anticonvulsant action in relation to its other effects.

• Benzodiazepines are active orally and differ mainly in respect of their duration of action. Short-acting agents (e.g. **lorazepam** and **temazepam**, half-lives 8–12 h) are metabolised to inactive compounds and are used mainly as sleeping pills. Some long-acting agents (e.g. **diazepam** and **chlordiazepoxide**) are converted to a long-lasting active metabolite (**nordazepam**).

• Some are used intravenously, for example diazepam in status epilepticus, **midazolam** in anaesthesia.

• **Zolpidem** is a short-acting drug that is not a benzodiazepine but acts similarly and is used as a hypnotic.

• Benzodiazepines are relatively safe in overdose. Their main disadvantages are interaction

with alcohol, long-lasting 'hangover' effects and the development of dependence—characteristic withdrawal syndrome on cessation of use.

Buspirone

Buspirone is used to treat generalised anxiety disorders. It is ineffective in controlling panic attacks or severe anxiety states.

Buspirone is a partial agonist at 5-HT_{1A} receptors (Ch. 15) and also binds to dopamine receptors, but it is likely that its 5-HT-related actions are important in relation to anxiety suppression, because related experimental compounds (e.g. **ipsapirone** and **gepirone)** which are highly specific for 5-HT_{1A} receptors, show similar anxiolytic activity in experimental animals (see Traber & Glaser, 1987). However, buspirone takes days or weeks to produce its effect in humans, suggesting a more complex mechanism of action than simply activation of 5-HT_{1A} receptors. SSRIs also have a delayed onset to their anxiolytic actions.

5-HT_{1A} receptors are expressed on the soma and dendrites of 5-HT-containing neurons, where they function as inhibitory autoreceptors, as well as being expressed on other types of neuron (e.g. noradrenergic locus coeruleus neurons) where, along with other types of 5-HT receptor (see Ch. 38), they mediate the postsynaptic actions of 5-HT. Postsynaptic 5-HT_{1A} receptors are highly expressed within the cortico-limbic circuits implicated in emotional behaviour. One theory of how buspirone and SSRIs produce their delayed anxiolytic effect is that over time they induce desensitisation of somatodendritic 5-HT_{1A} autoreceptors resulting in heightened excitation of serotonergic neurons and enhanced 5-HT release. This might also explain why early in treatment anxiety can be worsened by these drugs due to the initial activation of 5-HT_{1A} autoreceptors and inhibition of 5-HT release. This receptor desensitisation theory would predict that a 5-HT_{1A} antagonist that would

rapidly block the action of 5-HT at 5-HT_{1A} autoreceptors and thus swiftly enhance 5-HT release might be anxiolytic without delayed onset. Drugs with combined 5-HT_{1A} antagonism and SSRI properties have been developed but have not been found to be effective in man, perhaps because they block both $5HT_{1A}$ autoreceptors and postsynaptic receptors, the latter effect occluding the beneficial effect of the former. Elevated 5-HT levels may also induce other postsynaptic adaptations. Receptors that have received particular interest are the 5-HT_2 receptors and downregulation of these may be important for anxiolytic action. Drugs with 5-HT_2 and 5-HT_3 receptor antagonist activity are in clinical trials for treating anxiety.

Buspirone inhibits the activity of noradrenergic locus coeruleus neurons (Ch. 38) and thus interferes with arousal reactions. It has side effects quite different from those of benzodiazepines. It does not cause sedation or motor incoordination, nor have tolerance or withdrawal effects been reported. Its main side effects are nausea, dizziness, headache and restlessness, which generally seem to be less troublesome than the side effects of benzodiazepines. Buspirone does not suppress the benzodiazepine withdrawal syndrome, presumably because it acts by a different mechanism. Hence, when switching from benzodiazepine treatment to buspirone treatment, the benzodiazepine dose still needs to be reduced gradually (see above).

Antidepressants and 5-HT_{1A} agonists as anxiolytic drugs

- Anxiolytic effects take days or weeks to develop.
- Antidepressants (SSRIs, SNRIs, TCAs and MAOIs; see Ch. 46):
  - effective treatments for generalised anxiety disorder, phobias, social anxiety disorder and post-traumatic stress disorder

– may also reduce depression associated with anxiety.

• **Buspirone** is a potent agonist at 5-HT$_{1A}$ receptors:

– it is an effective treatment for generalised anxiety disorder but not phobias

– side effects appear less troublesome than with benzodiazepines; they include dizziness, nausea, headache, but not sedation or loss of coordination.

Other Potential Anxiolytic Drugs

Besides the GABA and 5-HT mechanisms discussed above, many other transmitters and hormones have been implicated in anxiety and panic disorders, particularly noradrenaline, glutamate, corticotrophin-releasing factor, cholecystokinin (CCK), substance P, neuropeptide Y, galanin, orexins and neurosteroids. Anxiolytic drugs aimed at these targets are in development, but none is so far available for clinical use (see Christmas et al., 2008; Mathew et al., 2009).

Clinical use of drugs as anxiolytics 

• Antidepressants are now the main drugs used to treat anxiety. Their effects are slow in onset (> 2 weeks). Effective against most forms of anxiety.

• Benzodiazepines are now largely used for acute relief of severe and disabling anxiety or in the early stages of treatment with antidepressants before they become effective.

• Buspirone (5-HT$_{1A}$ agonist) has a different pattern of adverse effects from benzodiazepines and much lower abuse potential. Its effect is slow in onset (> 2 weeks).

Clinical use of hypnotics ('sleeping tablets') 

• The cause of insomnia should be established before administering hypnotic drugs. Common causes include alcohol or other drug misuse (see Ch. 48) and physical or psychiatric disorder (especially depression).

• Tricyclic antidepressants (Ch. 46) cause drowsiness, so can kill two birds with one stone if taken at night by depressed patients with sleep disturbance.

• Optimal treatment of chronic insomnia is often by changing behaviour (e.g. increasing exercise, staying awake during the day) rather than with drugs.

• Benzodiazepines should be used only for short periods (< 4 weeks) and for severe insomnia. They can be useful for a few nights when transient factors such as admission to hospital, jet lag or an impending procedure cause insomnia.

• Drugs used to treat insomnia include:

– benzodiazepines (e.g. **temazepam**, **nitrazepam**) and related drugs (e.g. **zolpidem**, **zopiclone**, which also work on the benzodiazepine receptor)

– **chloral hydrate** and **triclofos**, which were used formerly in children, but this is seldom justified

– sedating antihistamines (e.g. **promethazine**, **diphenhydramine**), which cause drowsiness (see Ch. 26) and are on general sale for occasional insomnia. They can impair performance the day after they are used.

References and Further Reading

hboucha S., Butterworth R.F. Role of endogenous benzodiazepine ligands and their $GABA_A$-associated receptors in hepatic encephalopathy. *Metab. Brain. Dis.*. 2005;20:425-437.

hristmas D., Hood S., Nutt D. Potential novel anxiolytic drugs. *Curr. Pharm. Des.*. 2008;14:3534-3546. (*Explains brain mechanisms thought to underlie actions of anxiolytic drugs*)

offman E.J., Mathew S.J. Anxiety disorders: a comprehensive review of pharmacotherapies. *Mt. Sinai. J. Med.*. 2008;75:248-262. (*Describes the clinical usefulness of various drugs effective against different forms of anxiety*)

lathew S.J., Price R.B., Charney D.S. Recent advances in the neurobiology of anxiety disorders: implications for novel therapeutics. *Am. J. Med. Genet. C. Semin. Med. Genet.*. 2009;148C:89-98. (*This review focuses on the potential for development of novel treatments for anxiety*)

amos A. Animal models of anxiety: do I need multiple tests? *Trends. Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2008;29:493-498. (*Describes the need for animal models in the testing of anxiolytic drugs*)

eynolds D.S. The value of genetic and pharmacological approaches to understanding the complexities of $GABA_A$ receptor subtype functions: the anxiolytic effects of benzodiazepines Pharmacol. Biochem. Behav. 90:2008:37-42 (*Describes recent work with transgenic mice expressing mutated $GABA_A$ receptors, suggesting that anxiolytic and sedative actions of benzodiazepines may be separable*)

raber J., Glaser T. $5\text{-}HT_{1A}$ receptor-related anxiolytics. *Trends. Pharmacol. Sci.*. 1987;8:432-437.

eenman L., Gavish M. The peripheral-type benzodiazepine receptor and the cardiovascular system. Implications for drug development. *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2006;110:503-524. (*Useful update on peripheral benzodiazepine receptors in mitochondria*)

*l*afford K.A. $GABA_A$ receptor subtypes:any clues to the mechanism of benzodiazepine dependence? *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:47-52.

*l*hiting P. $GABA_A$ receptor subtypes in the brain: a paradigm for CNS drug discovery? Drug. Discov. Today 8:2003:445-450 (*Useful summary of the extensive data relating to $GABA_A$ receptor subtypes in relation to benzodiazepine and anaesthetic pharmacology*)

44

Antiepileptic drugs

Overview

In this chapter, we describe the nature of epilepsy, the neurobiological mechanisms underlying it and the animal models that can be used to study it. We then proceed to describe the various classes of drugs that are used to treat it, the mechanisms by which they work and their pharmacological characteristics. More information on the topics covered can be obtained from specialist textbooks (e.g. Engel & Pedley, 2007; Browne & Holmes, 2008; Hart & Sander, 2008).

Centrally acting muscle relaxants are discussed briefly at the end of the chapter.

Introduction

Epilepsy is a very common disorder, characterised by *seizures*, which take various forms and result from episodic neuronal discharges, the form of the seizure depending on the part of the brain affected. Epilepsy affects 0.5–1% of the population. Often, there is no recognisable cause, although it may develop after brain damage, such as trauma, stroke, infection or tumour growth, or other kinds of neurological disease, including various inherited neurological syndromes. Epilepsy is treated mainly with drugs, although brain surgery may be used for suitable severe cases. Current antiepileptic drugs are effective in controlling seizures in about 70% of cases, but their use is often limited by side

effects. In addition to their use in patients with epilepsy, antiepileptic drugs are used to treat or prevent convulsions caused by other brain diseases, for example trauma (including following neurosurgery), infection (as an adjunct to antibiotics), brain tumours and stroke. For this reason, they are sometimes termed anticonvulsants rather than antiepileptics. Increasingly, some antiepileptic drugs have been found to have beneficial effects in non-convulsive disorders such as neuropathic pain (Ch. 41) and bipolar depression (Ch. 46). Many new antiepileptic drugs have been developed over the past 20 or so years in attempts to improve their efficacy and side-effect profile. Improvements have been steady rather than spectacular, and epilepsy remains a difficult problem, despite the fact that controlling reverberative neuronal discharges would seem, on the face of it, to be a much simpler problem than controlling those aspects of brain function that determine emotions, mood and cognitive function.

The Nature of Epilepsy

The term ‘epilepsy’ is used to define a group of neurological disorders all of which exhibit periodic seizures. For information on the underlying causes of epilepsy and factors which precipitate periodic seizures see Browne & Holmes (2008) and Hart & Sander (2008). As explained later, not all seizures involve convulsions. Seizures are associated with episodic high-frequency discharge of impulses by a group of neurons (sometimes referred to as the *focus*) in the brain. What starts as a local abnormal discharge may then spread to other areas of the brain. The site of the primary discharge and the extent of its spread determine the symptoms that are produced, which range from a brief lapse of attention to a full convulsive fit lasting for several minutes, as well as odd sensations or behaviours. The particular symptoms produced depend on

the function of the region of the brain that is affected. Thus, involvement of the motor cortex causes convulsions, involvement of the hypothalamus causes peripheral autonomic discharge, and involvement of the reticular formation in the upper brain stem leads to loss of consciousness.

Abnormal electrical activity during and following a seizure can be detected by electroencephalography (EEG) recording from electrodes distributed over the surface of the scalp. Various types of seizure can be recognised on the basis of the nature and distribution of the abnormal discharge (Fig. 44.1). Modern brain imaging techniques, such as magnetic resonance imaging and positron emission tomography, are now routinely used in the diagnosis of epilepsy (see Fig. 44.2) to identify structural abnormalities (e.g. lesions, tumours) that cause certain epilepsies (see Deblaere & Achten, 2008).

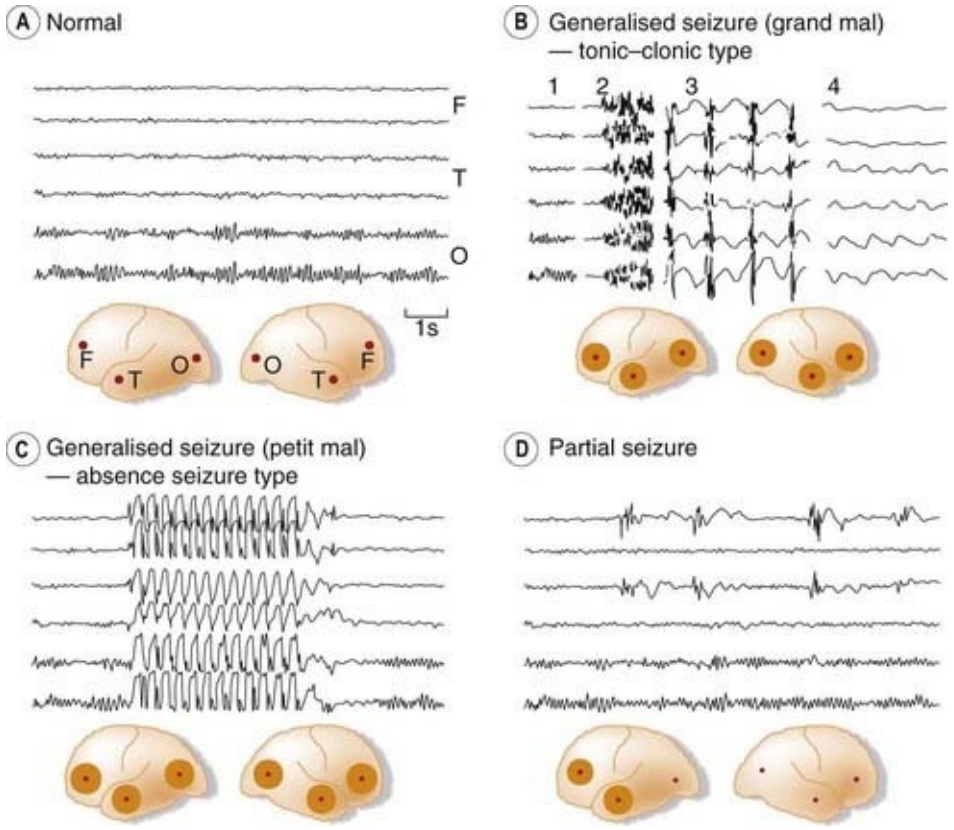


Fig. 44.1 Electroencephalography (EEG) records in epilepsy.

[**A**] Normal EEG recorded from frontal (F), temporal (T) and occipital (O) sites on both sides, as shown in the inset diagram. The α rhythm (10/s) can be seen in the occipital region. [**B**] Sections of EEG recorded during a generalised tonic–clonic (grand mal) seizure: 1, normal record; 2, onset of tonic phase; 3, clonic phase; 4, postconvulsive coma. [**C**] Generalised absence seizure (petit mal) showing sudden brief episode of 3/s 'spike and wave' discharge. [**D**] Partial seizure with synchronous abnormal discharges in left frontal and temporal regions.

(From Eliasson S G et al. 1978 Neurological pathophysiology, 2nd edn. Oxford University Press, New York.)

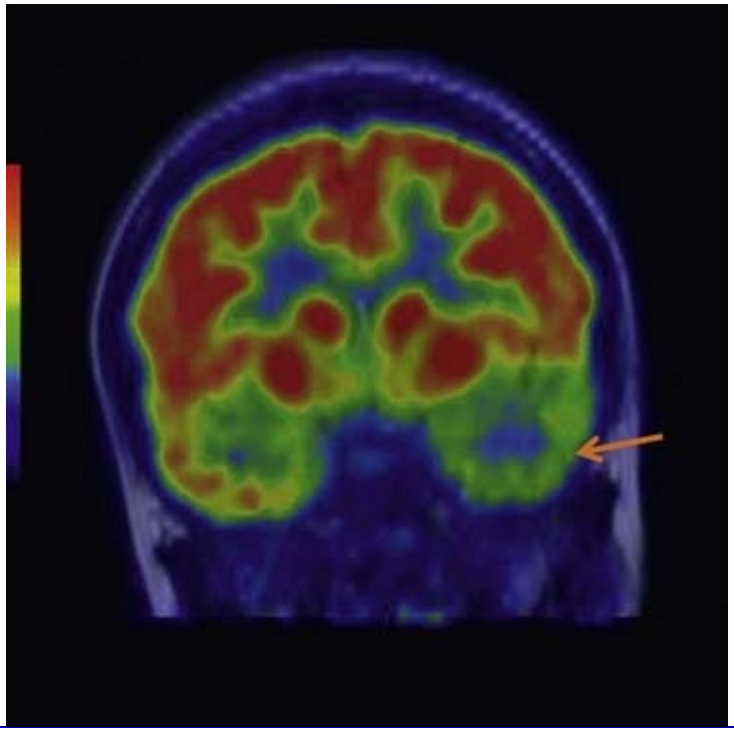


Fig. 44.2 Positron emission tomography (PET) image using [^{18}F]-fluoro-2-deoxyglucose (FDG) of the brain of a female patient suffering from temporal lobe epilepsy.

The interictal area of hypometabolism in the left temporal lobe (indicated by the arrow) is suggestive of the site of the epileptic focus.

(Image kindly provided by Prof. John Duncan and Prof. Peter Ell, UCL Institute of Neurology, London.)

Types of Epilepsy

The clinical classification of epilepsy is done on the basis of the characteristics of the seizure rather than on the cause or underlying

pathology. There are two major categories, namely *partial* and *generalised* seizures, although there is some overlap and many varieties of each. Either form is classified as *simple* (if consciousness is not lost) or *complex* (if consciousness is lost).

Partial Seizures

Partial seizures are those in which the discharge begins locally and often remains localised. The symptoms depend on the brain region or regions involved, and include involuntary muscle contractions, abnormal sensory experiences or autonomic discharge, or effects on mood and behaviour, often termed *psychomotor epilepsy*. The EEG discharge in this type of epilepsy is normally confined to one hemisphere (Fig. 44.1D). Partial seizures can often be attributed to local cerebral lesions, and their incidence increases with age. In complex partial seizures, loss of consciousness may occur at the outset of the attack, or somewhat later, when the discharge has spread from its site of origin to regions of the brain stem reticular formation. In some individuals, a partial seizure can, during the seizure, develop into a generalised seizure (see below)—referred to as partial seizures with secondary generalisation—when the abnormal neuronal activity spreads across the whole brain.

An epileptic focus in the motor cortex results in attacks, sometimes called *jacksonian epilepsy*,[1] consisting of repetitive jerking of a particular muscle group, beginning on one side of the body, often in the thumb, big toe or angle of the mouth, which spreads and may involve much of the body within about 2 min before dying out. The patient loses voluntary control of the affected parts of the body but does not necessarily lose consciousness. In *psychomotor epilepsy*, which is often associated with a focus in the temporal lobe, the attack may consist of stereotyped purposive movements such as rubbing or patting movements, or much

more complex behaviour such as dressing, walking or hair combing. The seizure usually lasts for a few minutes, after which the patient recovers with no recollection of the event. The behaviour during the seizure can be bizarre and accompanied by a strong emotional response.

Generalised Seizures

[1]After Hughlings Jackson, a distinguished 19th-century Yorkshire neurologist who published his outstanding work in the *Annals of the West Riding Lunatic Asylum*.

Generalised seizures involve the whole brain, including the reticular system, thus producing abnormal electrical activity throughout both hemispheres. Immediate loss of consciousness is characteristic of generalised seizures. There are a number of types of generalised seizure —two important categories are *tonic–clonic* seizures (formerly referred to as grand mal, Fig. 44.1B) and *absence seizures* (petit mal, Fig. 44.1C); others include myoclonic, tonic, atonic and clonic seizures.

A *tonic–clonic seizure* consists of an initial strong contraction of the whole musculature, causing a rigid extensor spasm and an involuntary cry. Respiration stops, and defaecation, micturition and salivation often occur. This tonic phase lasts for about 1 min, during which the face is suffused and becomes blue (an important clinical distinction from syncope, the main disorder from which fits must be distinguished, where the face is ashen pale), and is followed by a series of violent, synchronous jerks that gradually die out in 2–4 min. The patient stays unconscious for a few more minutes and then gradually recovers, feeling ill and confused. Injury may occur during the convulsive episode. The EEG shows generalised continuous high-frequency activity in the tonic phase and an intermittent discharge in the clonic phase (Fig. 44.1B).

Absence seizures occur in children; they are much less dramatic but may

occur more frequently (many seizures each day) than tonic–clonic seizures. The patient abruptly ceases whatever he or she was doing, sometimes stopping speaking in mid-sentence, and stares vacantly for a few seconds, with little or no motor disturbance. Patients are unaware of their surroundings and recover abruptly with no after effects. The EEG pattern shows a characteristic rhythmic discharge during the period of the seizure (Fig. 44.1C). The rhythmicity appears to be due to oscillatory feedback between the cortex and the thalamus, the special properties of the thalamic neurons being dependent on the T-type calcium channels that they express (see Shin, 2006). The pattern differs from that of partial seizures, where a high-frequency asynchronous discharge spreads out from a local focus. Accordingly (see below), the drugs used specifically to treat absence seizures act mainly by blocking T-type calcium channels, whereas drugs effective against other types of epilepsy act mainly by blocking sodium channels or enhancing GABA-mediated inhibition.

A particularly severe kind of epilepsy, *Lennox–Gastaut syndrome*, occurs in children and is associated with progressive mental retardation, possibly a reflection of excitotoxic neurodegeneration (see Ch. 39).

About one-third of cases of epilepsy are familial and involve genetic mutations. While some are due to a single mutation, most result from polygenetic mutations (see Weber & Lerche, 2008). Most genes associated with familial epilepsies encode neuronal ion channels closely involved in controlling action potential generation (see Ch. 4), such as voltage-gated sodium and potassium channels, $GABA_A$ receptors and nicotinic acetylcholine receptors. Some other genes encode proteins that interact with ion channels.

Status epilepticus refers to continuous uninterrupted seizures, requiring emergency medical treatment.

Neural Mechanisms and Animal Models of Epilepsy

▼ The underlying neuronal abnormality in epilepsy is poorly understood. In general, excitation will naturally tend to spread throughout a network of interconnected neurons but is normally prevented from doing so by inhibitory mechanisms. Thus *epileptogenesis* can arise if excitatory transmission is facilitated or inhibitory transmission is reduced (exemplified by $GABA_A$ receptor antagonists causing convulsions; see Ch. 37). In certain respects, epileptogenesis resembles long-term potentiation (Ch. 37), and similar types of use-dependent synaptic plasticity may be involved (see Kulmann et al., 2000). Because detailed studies are difficult to carry out on epileptic patients, many different animal models of epilepsy have been investigated (see Sarkisian, 2001). These include a variety of genetic strains that show epilepsy-like characteristics (e.g. mice that convulse briefly in response to certain sounds, baboons that show photically induced seizures and beagles with an inherited abnormality that closely resembles human epilepsy). Recently, several transgenic mouse strains have been reported that show spontaneous seizures. They include knockout mutations of various ion channels, receptors and other synaptic proteins. Local cortical damage (e.g. by applying aluminium oxide paste or crystals of a cobalt salt) results in focal epilepsy. Local application of penicillin crystals has a similar effect, probably by interfering with inhibitory synaptic transmission. Convulsant drugs such as **pentylenetetrazol** (PTZ) are often used, particularly in the testing of antiepileptic agents, and seizures caused by electrical stimulation of the whole brain are used for the same purpose. It has been found empirically that drugs that inhibit PTZ-induced convulsions and raise the threshold for production of electrically induced seizures are generally effective against absence seizures, whereas those that reduce the duration and spread of electrically induced convulsions

are effective in focal types of epilepsy such as tonic–clonic seizures.

The *kindling model* may approximate the human condition more closely than directly evoked seizure models. Low-intensity electrical stimulation of certain regions of the limbic system, such as the amygdala, with implanted electrodes normally produces no seizure response. If a brief period of stimulation is repeated daily for several days, however, the response gradually increases until very low levels of stimulation will evoke a full seizure, and eventually seizures begin to occur spontaneously. Once produced, the kindled state persists indefinitely. This change is prevented by NMDA receptor antagonists, and may involve processes similar to those that cause long-term potentiation of synaptic transmission in the hippocampus (see Ch. 37). In human focal epilepsies, surgical removal of a damaged region of cortex may fail to cure the condition, as though the abnormal discharge from the region of primary damage had somehow produced a secondary hyperexcitability elsewhere in the brain. Furthermore, prophylactic treatment with antiepileptic drugs for 2 years following severe head injury reduces the subsequent incidence of post-traumatic epilepsy, which suggests that a phenomenon similar to kindling may underlie this form of epilepsy.

The *kainate model* entails a single injection of the glutamate receptor agonist kainic acid into the amygdaloid nucleus of a rat. After transient intense stimulation, spontaneous seizures begin to occur 2–4 weeks later, and then continue indefinitely. It is believed that excitotoxic damage to inhibitory neurons is responsible, associated with structural remodelling of excitatory synaptic connections, changes that may also be a factor in human epilepsies.

Neurons from which the epileptic discharge originates display an unusual type of electrical behaviour termed the paroxysmal depolarising shift (PDS), during which the membrane potential suddenly decreases by

about 30 mV and remains depolarised for up to a few seconds before returning to normal. A burst of action potentials often accompanies this depolarisation (Fig. 44.3). This event probably results from the abnormally exaggerated and prolonged action of an excitatory transmitter. Activation of NMDA receptors (see Ch. 37) produces 'plateau-shaped' depolarising responses very similar to the PDS, as well as initiating seizure activity. This membrane response occurs because of the voltage-dependent blocking action of Mg^{2+} on channels operated by NMDA receptors (see Ch. 37). Glutamate must undoubtedly participate in the epileptic discharge, but efforts to develop glutamate antagonists as antiepileptic drugs have met with little success. It is known that repeated seizure activity can lead to neuronal degeneration, possibly due to excitotoxicity (Ch. 39).

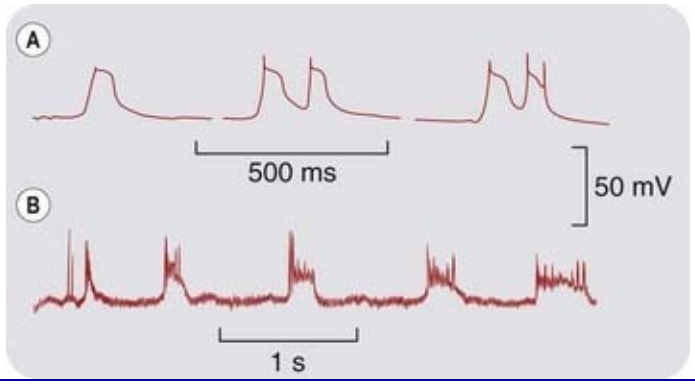


Fig. 44.3 'Paroxysmal depolarising shift' (PDS) compared with experimental activation of glutamate receptors of the NMDA type.

[**A**] PDS recorded with an intracellular microelectrode from cortical neurons of anaesthetised cats. Seizure activity was induced by topical application of penicillin. [**B**] Intracellular recording from the caudate nucleus of an anaesthetised cat. The glutamate analogue NMDA was applied by ionophoresis from a nearby micropipette. Note the periodic waves of depolarisation, associated with a burst of action potentials, which closely resemble the PDS.

*(From: [**A**] Matsumoto H, Marsan C A 1964 Exp Neurol 9: 286; [**B**] Herrling P L et al. 1983 J Physiol 339: 207.)*

Studies on experimental epilepsy in the kindling or kainate models have revealed a deficit in various biochemical markers of GABA-

mediated inhibitory transmission, and an increase of markers associated with glutamate-mediated excitation (see Jarrott, 1999). Human studies have shown less consistent changes, although studies on brain samples removed at operation suggest that the epileptic focus contains more glutamate than normal; the GABA content is not affected. Potassium-stimulated glutamate release is also increased in the epileptic focus compared with in normal tissue.

Neurotrophins, particularly brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), may play a role in epileptogenesis. BDNF, which acts on a membrane receptor tyrosine kinase (TrkB; Ch. 3), enhances membrane excitability and also stimulates synapse formation. Deletion of the neurotrophin receptor, TrkB, in mice prevents seizures from developing in the kindling model. Production and release of BDNF is increased in the kindling models, and there is also evidence for its involvement in human epilepsy. Specific blocking agents represent a possible future strategy for treating epilepsy but remain to be identified.

Nature of epilepsy

• Epilepsy affects about 0.5% of the population.

• The characteristic event is the seizure, which may be associated with convulsions but may take other forms.

• The seizure is caused by an asynchronous high-frequency discharge of a group of neurons, starting locally and spreading to a varying extent to affect other parts of the brain. In absence seizures, the discharge is regular and oscillatory.

• Partial seizures affect localised brain regions, and the attack may involve mainly motor, sensory or behavioural phenomena. Unconsciousness occurs when the reticular formation is involved.

• Generalised seizures affect the whole brain. Two common forms of generalised seizure are the tonic–clonic fit and the absence seizure. Status epilepticus is a life-threatening condition in which seizure activity is uninterrupted.

• Partial seizures can become secondarily generalised if the localised abnormal neuronal activity subsequently spreads across the whole brain.

• Many animal models have been devised, including electrically and chemically induced generalised seizures, production of local chemical damage and kindling. These provide good prediction of antiepileptic drug effects in humans.

• The neurochemical basis of the abnormal discharge is not well understood. It may be associated with enhanced excitatory amino acid transmission, impaired inhibitory transmission or abnormal electrical properties of the affected cells. Several susceptibility genes, mainly encoding neuronal ion channels, have been identified.

• Repeated epileptic discharge can cause neuronal death (excitotoxicity).

• Current drug therapy is effective in 70–80% of patients.

Antiepileptic Drugs

Antiepileptic (sometimes known as *anticonvulsant*) drugs are used to treat epilepsy as well as nonepileptic convulsive disorders.

With optimal drug therapy, epilepsy is controlled completely in about 75% of patients, but about 10% (50 000 in Britain) continue to have seizures at intervals of 1 month or less, which severely disrupts their life and work. There is therefore a need to improve the efficacy of therapy.

Patients with epilepsy usually need to take drugs continuously for many years, so avoidance of side effects is particularly important. Nevertheless, some drugs that have considerable adverse effects are still quite widely used even though they are not drugs of choice for newly

diagnosed patients.[2] There is clearly a need for more specific and effective drugs, and a number of new drugs have recently been introduced for clinical use or are in late stages of clinical trials. Long-established antiepileptic drugs (see Table 44.1) include **phenytoin**, **carbamazepine**, **valproate**, **ethosuximide** and **phenobarbital**, together with various benzodiazepines, such as **diazepam**, **clonazepam** and **clobazam**. Newer drugs in current use include **vigabatrin**, **gabapentin**, **pregabalin**, **lamotrigine**, **felbamate**, **tiagabine**, **topiramate**, **levetiracetam**, **oxcarbazepine**, **zonisamide** and **rufinamide**. Those new drugs in late stages of development that have novel mechanisms of action are described briefly towards the end of this section. The number of new antiepileptic drugs reflects the efforts being made to improve on the far from ideal properties of the earlier drugs. In general, the newer drugs are less likely to interact pharmacokinetically with other drugs (see Ch. 56) and have fewer adverse effects. The appropriate use of drugs from this large available menu depends on many clinical factors (for recent clinical use updates, see Macleod & Appleton, 2007; Azar & Abou-Khalil, 2008).

Table 44.1 Properties of the main antiepileptic drugs

Drug	Site of action				Main uses	Main unwanted effect(s)	Pharmacokinetics
	Sodium channel	$GABA_A$ receptor	Calcium channel	Other			
Carbamazepine[a]	++				All types except absence seizures Especially temporal lobe epilepsy Also trigeminal neuralgia Most widely used antiepileptic drug	Sedation, ataxia, blurred vision, water retention, hypersensitivity reactions, leukopenia, liver failure (rare)	Half-life 12–18 h (longer initially) Strong induction of liver enzymes, so risk of drug interactions
Phenytoin	++				All types except absence seizures	Ataxia, vertigo, gum hypertrophy, hirsutism, megaloblastic anaemia, fetal malformation, hypersensitivity reactions	Half-life ~24 h Saturation kinetics, therefore unpredictable plasma levels Plasma monitoring often required
Valproate[b]	+	?+	+	GABA transaminase inhibition	Most types, including absence seizures	Generally less than with other drugs Nausea, hair loss, weight gain, fetal malformations	Half-life 12–15 h
Ethosuximide[c]			++		Absence seizures May exacerbate tonic–clonic seizures	Nausea, anorexia, mood changes, headache	Long plasma half-life (~60 h)
Phenobarbital[d]	?+	+			All types except absence seizures	Sedation, depression	Long plasma half-life (> 60 h) Strong induction of liver enzymes, so risk of drug interactions (e.g. with phenytoin)
Benzodiazepines (e.g. clonazepam, clobazam, lorazepam, diazepam)		++			All types Lorazepam used intravenously to control *status epilepticus*	Sedation Withdrawal syndrome (see Ch. 43)	See Ch. 43
Vigabatrin				GABA transaminase inhibition	All types Appears to be effective in patients resistant to other drugs	Sedation, behavioural and mood changes (occasionally psychosis) Visual field defects	Short plasma half-life, but enzyme inhibition is long lasting
Lamotrigine	++		?+	Inhibits glutamate release	All types	Dizziness, sedation, rashes	Plasma half-life 24–36 h
Gabapentin, pregabalin			+		Partial seizures	Few side effects, mainly sedation	Plasma half-life 6–9 h

Mechanism of Action

[2]Bromide was the first antiepileptic agent. Its propensity to induce sedation and other unwanted side effects has resulted in it being largely withdrawn from human medicine, although it is still approved for human use in some countries (e.g. Germany) and may have uses in

childhood epilepsies. It is still widely used in veterinary practice to treat epilepsy in dogs and cats.

Antiepileptic drugs aim to inhibit the abnormal neuronal discharge rather than to correct the underlying cause. Three main mechanisms of action appear to be important (see Rogawski & Löscher, 2004a):

1 Enhancement of GABA action.

2 Inhibition of sodium channel function.

3 Inhibition of calcium channel function.

Antiepileptic drugs may exert more than one beneficial action, prime examples being **valproate** and **topiramate** (see Table 44.1). The relative importance and contribution of each of these actions to the therapeutic effect is somewhat uncertain.

As with drugs used to treat cardiac dysrhythmias (Ch. 21), the aim is to prevent the paroxysmal discharge without affecting normal transmission. It is clear that properties such as use-dependence and voltage-dependence of channel-blocking drugs (see Ch. 4) are important in achieving this selectivity, but our understanding remains fragmentary.

Enhancement of GABA action

Several antiepileptic drugs (e.g. **phenobarbital** and **benzodiazepines**) enhance the activation of $GABA_A$ receptors, thus facilitating the GABA-mediated opening of chloride channels (see Chs 3 and 43).[3] **Vigabatrin** acts by irreversibly inhibiting the enzyme GABA transaminase located within astrocytes, which is responsible for inactivating GABA (see Ch. 37), and **tiagabine** inhibits GABA uptake into neurons and glial cells, producing an increase in the extracellular concentration of GABA, and enhancing its action as an inhibitory transmitter. **Gabapentin** was designed as a brain penetrating agonist at $GABA_A$ receptors, but

ironically was found to be an effective antiepileptic drug, not by affecting GABA receptors or the transporter, but by acting on calcium channels (see below).

Inhibition of sodium channel function

[3]Absence seizures, paradoxically, are often exacerbated by drugs that enhance GABA activity (see Manning et al., 2003) and better treated by drugs acting by different mechanisms such as T-type calcium channel inhibition.

A large number of antiepileptic drugs (see Table 44.1) affect membrane excitability by an action on voltage-dependent sodium channels (see Chs 4 and 42), which carry the inward membrane current necessary for the generation of an action potential. Their blocking action shows the property of use-dependence; in other words, they block preferentially the excitation of cells that are firing repetitively, and the higher the frequency of firing, the greater the block produced. This characteristic, which is relevant to the ability of drugs to block the high-frequency discharge that occurs in an epileptic fit without unduly interfering with the low-frequency firing of neurons in the normal state, arises from the ability of blocking drugs to discriminate between sodium channels in their resting, open and inactivated states (see Chs 4 and 42). Depolarisation of a neuron (such as occurs in the PDS described above) increases the proportion of the sodium channels in the inactivated state. Antiepileptic drugs bind preferentially to channels in this state, preventing them from returning to the resting state, and thus reducing the number of functional channels available to generate action potentials.

Inhibition of calcium channels

Drugs that are effective against absence seizures (**ethosuximide**,

valproate, **clonazepam**) all appear to share the ability to block T-type low-voltage-activated calcium channels. T-type channel activity is important in determining the rhythmic discharge of thalamic neurons associated with absence seizures (Khosravani et al., 2004).

Gabapentin, though designed as a simple analogue of GABA that would be sufficiently lipid soluble to penetrate the blood–brain barrier, owes its antiepileptic effect mainly to an action on P/Q-type calcium channels. By binding to a particular channel subunit (α2δ1), it reduces the trafficking to the plasma membrane of calcium channels containing this subunit, thereby reducing calcium entry into the nerve terminals and reducing the release of various neurotransmitters and modulators.

Other mechanisms

Many of the newer antiepileptic drugs were developed empirically on the basis of activity in animal models. Their mechanism of action at the cellular level is not fully understood.[4]

[4]The highly complex actions of current antiepileptic drugs are apt to make discouraging reading for those engaged in trying to develop new drugs on simple rational principles. Serendipity, not science, appears to be the path to therapeutic success.

Levetiracetam appears to act in a manner different from all other antiepileptic drugs, its target being a synaptic vesicle protein involved in neurotransmitter release (see below).

While a drug may appear to work by one of the major mechanisms described above, close scrutiny often reveals other actions that may also be therapeutically relevant. For example, **phenytoin** not only causes use-dependent block of sodium channels (see above) but also affects other aspects of membrane function, including calcium channels and post-tetanic potentiation, as well as intracellular protein phosphorylation

by calmodulin-activated kinases, which could also interfere with membrane excitability and synaptic function.

One theme, which has become familiar in earlier chapters in the central nervous system section of this book, is that antagonists at ionotropic excitatory amino acid receptors have not, despite showing efficacy in animal models, proved useful in the clinic, because the margin between the desired anticonvulsant effect and unacceptable side effects, such as loss of motor coordination, is too narrow.

Mechanism of action of antiepileptic drugs 

- Current antiepileptic drugs are thought to act by three main mechanisms:
  - reducing electrical excitability of cell membranes, mainly through use-dependent block of sodium channels
  - enhancing GABA-mediated synaptic inhibition; this may be achieved by an enhanced postsynaptic action of GABA, by inhibiting GABA transaminase or by inhibiting GABA uptake into neurons and glial cells
  - inhibiting T-type calcium channels (important in controlling absence seizures).
- Newer drugs act by other mechanisms, largely yet to be elucidated.
- Drugs that block ionotropic glutamate receptors are effective in animal models but are unsuitable for clinical use.

Carbamazepine

Carbamazepine, one of the most widely used antiepileptic drugs, is chemically derived from the tricyclic antidepressant drugs (see Ch. 46) and was found in a routine screening test to inhibit electrically evoked seizures in mice. Pharmacologically and clinically, its actions resemble those of phenytoin, although it appears to be particularly effective in treating certain partial seizures (e.g. psychomotor epilepsy). It is also

used to treat other conditions, such as neuropathic pain (Ch. 41) and manic-depressive illness (Ch. 46).

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Carbamazepine is slowly but well absorbed after oral administration. Its plasma half-life is about 30 h when it is given as a single dose, but it is a strong inducer of hepatic enzymes, and the plasma half-life shortens to about 15 h when it is given repeatedly. Some of its metabolites have antiepileptic properties. A slow-release preparation is used for patients who experience transient side effects coinciding with plasma concentration peaks following oral dosing (see below).

Unwanted effects

Carbamazepine produces a variety of unwanted effects ranging from drowsiness, dizziness and ataxia to more severe mental and motor disturbances. It can also cause water retention (and hence hyponatraemia; Ch. 28) and a variety of gastrointestinal and cardiovascular side effects. The incidence and severity of these effects is relatively low, however, compared with other drugs. Treatment is usually started with a low dose, which is built up gradually to avoid dose-related toxicity. Severe bone marrow depression, causing neutropenia, and other severe forms of hypersensitivity reaction can occur, especially in people of Asian origin (see Ch. 11).

Carbamazepine is a powerful inducer of hepatic microsomal enzymes, and thus accelerates the metabolism of many other drugs, such as phenytoin, oral contraceptives, warfarin and corticosteroids. In general, it is inadvisable to combine it with other antiepileptic drugs. **Oxcarbazepine** is a prodrug that is metabolised to a compound closely resembling carbamazepine, with similar actions but less tendency to induce drug-metabolising enzymes. Another related drug,

eslicarbazepine, is in development and may also have less effect on metabolising enzymes.

Phenytoin

Phenytoin is the most important member of the hydantoin group of compounds, which are structurally related to the barbiturates. It is highly effective in reducing the intensity and duration of electrically induced convulsions in mice, although ineffective against PTZ-induced convulsions. Despite its many side effects and unpredictable pharmacokinetic behaviour, phenytoin is widely used, being effective against various forms of partial and generalised seizures, although not against absence seizures, which may even get worse.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Phenytoin has certain pharmacokinetic peculiarities that need to be taken into account when it is used clinically. It is well absorbed when given orally, and about 80–90% of the plasma content is bound to albumin. Other drugs, such as salicylates, phenylbutazone and valproate, inhibit this binding competitively (see Ch. 56). This increases the free phenytoin concentration but also increases hepatic clearance of phenytoin, so may enhance or reduce the effect of the phenytoin in an unpredictable way. Phenytoin is metabolised by the hepatic mixed function oxidase system and excreted mainly as glucuronide. It causes enzyme induction, and thus increases the rate of metabolism of other drugs (e.g. oral anticoagulants). The metabolism of phenytoin itself can be either enhanced or competitively inhibited by various other drugs that share the same hepatic enzymes. **Phenobarbital** produces both effects, and because competitive inhibition is immediate whereas induction takes time, it initially enhances and later reduces the pharmacological activity of phenytoin. **Ethanol** has a similar dual effect.

The metabolism of phenytoin shows the characteristic of saturation (see Ch. 10), which means that over the therapeutic plasma concentration range the rate of inactivation does not increase in proportion to the plasma concentration. The consequences of this are that:

• the plasma half-life (approximately 20 h) increases as the dose is increased

• the steady-state mean plasma concentration, achieved when a patient is given a constant daily dose, varies disproportionately with the dose. Figure 44.4 shows that, in one patient, increasing the dose by 50% caused the steady-state plasma concentration to increase more than four-fold.

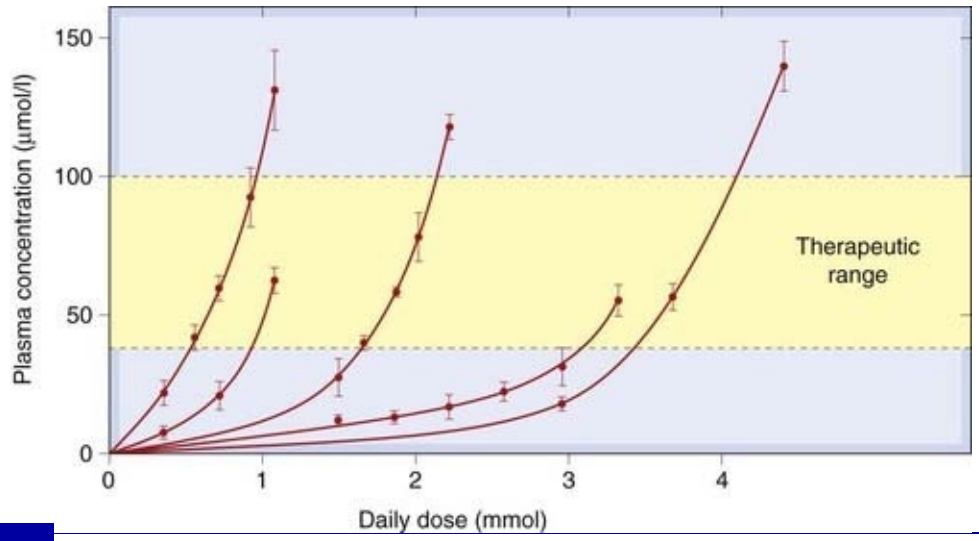


Fig. 44.4 Non-linear relationship between daily dose of phenytoin and steady-state plasma concentration in five individual human subjects.

The daily dose required to achieve the therapeutic range of plasma concentrations (40–100 μmol/l) varies greatly between individuals, and for any one individual the dose has to be adjusted rather precisely to keep within the acceptable plasma concentration range.

(Redrawn from Richens A, Dunlop A, 1975 Lancet 2: 247.)

The range of plasma concentration over which phenytoin is effective without causing excessive unwanted effects is quite narrow (approximately 40–100 μmol/l). The very steep relationship between dose and plasma concentration, and the many interacting factors, mean that there is considerable individual variation in the plasma concentration achieved with a given dose. A radioimmunoassay for phenytoin in plasma is available, and regular monitoring of plasma concentration has helped considerably in achieving an optimal therapeutic effect. The past tendency was to add further drugs in cases where a single drug failed to give adequate control. It is now recognised that much of the unpredictability can be ascribed to pharmacokinetic variability, and regular monitoring of plasma concentration has reduced the use of polypharmacy.

Unwanted effects

Side effects of phenytoin begin to appear at plasma concentrations exceeding 100 μmol/l and may be severe above about 150 μmol/l. The milder side effects include vertigo, ataxia, headache and nystagmus, but not sedation. At higher plasma concentrations, marked confusion with intellectual deterioration occurs; a paradoxical increase in seizure frequency is a particular trap for the unwary prescriber. These effects occur acutely and are quickly reversible. Hyperplasia of the gums often develops gradually, as does hirsutism and coarsening of the features, which probably result from increased androgen secretion. Megaloblastic anaemia, associated with a disorder of folate metabolism, sometimes occurs, and can be corrected by giving folic acid (Ch. 25). Hypersensitivity reactions, mainly rashes, are quite common. Phenytoin has also been implicated as a cause of the increased incidence of fetal malformations in children born to epileptic mothers, particularly the occurrence of cleft palate, associated with the formation of an epoxide

metabolite. Severe idiosyncratic reactions, including hepatitis, skin reactions and neoplastic lymphocyte disorders, occur in a small proportion of patients.

Valproate

Valproate is a simple monocarboxylic acid, chemically unrelated to any other class of antiepileptic drug, and in 1963 it was discovered quite accidentally to have anticonvulsant properties in mice. It inhibits most kinds of experimentally induced convulsions and is effective in many kinds of epilepsy, being particularly useful in certain types of infantile epilepsy, where its low toxicity and lack of sedative action are important, and in adolescents who exhibit both tonic–clonic or myoclonic seizures as well as absence seizures, because valproate (unlike most antiepileptic drugs) is effective against each. Like carbamazepine, valproate is also used in psychiatric conditions such as bipolar depressive illness (Ch. 46).

Valproate works by several mechanisms, the relative importance of which remains to be clarified. It causes a significant increase in the GABA content of the brain and is a weak inhibitor of two enzyme systems that inactivate GABA, namely GABA transaminase and succinic semialdehyde dehydrogenase, but in vitro studies suggest that these effects would be very slight at clinical dosage. Other more potent inhibitors of these enzymes (e.g. **vigabatrin**; see below) also increase GABA content and have an anticonvulsant effect in experimental animals. There is some evidence that it enhances the action of GABA by a postsynaptic action, but no clear evidence that it affects inhibitory synaptic responses. It inhibits sodium channels, but less so than phenytoin, and inhibits T-type calcium channels which might explain why it is effective against absence seizures.

Valproate is well absorbed orally and excreted, mainly as the glucuronide, in the urine, the plasma half-life being about 15 h.

Unwanted effects

Valproate causes thinning and curling of the hair in about 10% of patients. The most serious side effect is hepatotoxicity. An increase in plasma glutamic oxaloacetic transaminase, which signals liver damage of some degree, commonly occurs, but proven cases of valproate-induced hepatitis are rare. The few cases of fatal hepatitis in valproate-treated patients may well have been caused by other factors. Valproate is teratogenic, causing spina bifida and other neural tube defects.

Ethosuximide

Ethosuximide is another drug developed empirically by modifying the barbituric acid ring structure. Pharmacologically and clinically, however, it is different from the drugs so far discussed, in that it is active against PTZ-induced convulsions in animals and against absence seizures in humans, with little or no effect on other types of epilepsy. It supplanted **trimethadione**, the first drug found to be effective in absence seizures, which had major side effects. Ethosuximide is used clinically for its selective effect on absence seizures.

The mechanism of action of ethosuximide and trimethadione appears to differ from that of other antiepileptic drugs. The main effect is inhibition of T-type calcium channels, which may play a role in generating the 3/second firing rhythm in thalamic relay neurons that is characteristic of absence seizures.

Ethosuximide is well absorbed, and metabolised and excreted much like phenobarbital, with a plasma half-life of about 60 h. Its main side effects are nausea and anorexia, sometimes lethargy and dizziness, and it

is said to precipitate tonic–clonic seizures in susceptible patients. Very rarely, it can cause severe hypersensitivity reactions.

Phenobarbital

▼ Phenobarbital was one of the first barbiturates to be developed, and its antiepileptic properties were recognised in 1912. In its action against experimentally induced convulsions and clinical forms of epilepsy, it closely resembles phenytoin; it affects the duration and intensity of artificially induced seizures, rather than the seizure threshold, and is (like phenytoin) ineffective in treating absence seizures. **Primidone**, now rarely used, acts by being metabolised to phenobarbital. It often causes hypersensitivity reactions. The clinical uses of phenobarbital are virtually the same as those of phenytoin, although phenytoin is preferred because of the absence of sedation. It is now seldom used clinically because of sedation. For some years, it was widely used in children, including as prophylaxis following febrile convulsions in infancy, but it can cause behavioural disturbances and hyperkinesias. It is, however, widely used in veterinary practice.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

▼ Phenobarbital is well absorbed, and about 50% of the drug in the blood is bound to plasma albumin. It is eliminated slowly from the plasma (half-life 50–140 h). About 25% is excreted unchanged in the urine. Because phenobarbital is a weak acid, its ionisation and hence renal elimination are increased if the urine is made alkaline (see Ch. 9). The remaining 75% is metabolised, mainly by oxidation and conjugation, by hepatic microsomal enzymes. Phenobarbital is a powerful inducer of liver CYP enzymes, and it lowers the plasma concentration of several other drugs (e.g. steroids, oral contraceptives, warfarin, tricyclic antidepressants) to an extent that is clinically

important.

Unwanted effects

▼ The main unwanted effect of phenobarbital is sedation, which often occurs at plasma concentrations within the therapeutic range for seizure control. This is a serious drawback, because the drug may have to be used for years on end. Some degree of tolerance to the sedative effect seems to occur, but objective tests of cognition and motor performance show impairment even after long-term treatment. Other unwanted effects that may occur with clinical dosage include megaloblastic anaemia (similar to that caused by phenytoin), mild hypersensitivity reactions and osteomalacia. Like other barbiturates, it must not be given to patients with porphyria (see Ch. 56). In overdose, phenobarbital produces coma and respiratory and circulatory failure, as do all barbiturates.

Benzodiazepines

Benzodiazepines can be used to treat both acute seizures, especially in children—**diazepam** often being administered rectally and *status epilepticus* (a life-threatening condition in which epileptic seizures occur almost without a break) for which agents such as diazepam, lorazepam or clonazepam are administered intravenously. The advantage in *status epilepticus* is that they act very rapidly compared with other antiepileptic drugs. With most benzodiazepines (see Ch. 43), the sedative effect is too pronounced for them to be used for maintenance therapy and tolerance develops over 1–6 months. **Clonazepam** is unique among the benzodiazepines in that in addition to acting at the $GABA_A$ receptor, it also inhibits T-type calcium channels. Both it and the related compound **clobazam** are claimed to be relatively selective as antiepileptic drugs. Sedation is the main side effect of these compounds, and an added

problem may be the withdrawal syndrome, which results in an exacerbation of seizures if the drug is stopped abruptly.

Newer Antiepileptic Drugs

Vigabatrin

Vigabatrin, the first 'designer drug' in the epilepsy field, is a vinyl-substituted analogue of GABA that was designed as an inhibitor of the GABA-metabolising enzyme GABA transaminase. Vigabatrin is extremely specific for this enzyme and works by forming an irreversible covalent bond. In animal studies, vigabatrin increases the GABA content of the brain and also increases the stimulation-evoked release of GABA, implying that GABA transaminase inhibition can increase the releasable pool of GABA and effectively enhance inhibitory transmission. In humans, vigabatrin increases the content of GABA in the cerebrospinal fluid. Although its plasma half-life is short, it produces a long-lasting effect because the enzyme is blocked irreversibly, and the drug can be given by mouth once daily.

Vigabatrin has been reported to be effective in a substantial proportion of patients resistant to the established drugs. However, a drawback of vigabatrin is the development of peripheral visual field defect in a proportion of patients on long-term therapy. Therefore the benefit of using this drug in refractory epilepsy must be weighed against the potential risk of developing visual problems. Vigabatrin may cause depression, and occasionally psychotic disturbances and hallucinations, in a minority of patients.

Lamotrigine

Lamotrigine, although chemically unrelated, resembles phenytoin and carbamazepine in its pharmacological effects, acting on sodium channels

as well as possibly calcium channels and inhibiting the release of excitatory amino acids. It appears that, despite its similar mechanism of action, lamotrigine has a broader therapeutic profile than the earlier drugs, with significant efficacy against absence seizures (it is also used to treat unrelated psychiatric disorders). Its main side effects are nausea, dizziness and ataxia, and hypersensitivity reactions (mainly mild rashes, but occasionally more severe). Its plasma half-life is about 24 h, with no particular pharmacokinetic anomalies, and it is taken orally.

Felbamate

Felbamate is an analogue of an obsolete anxiolytic drug, **meprobamate**. It is active in many animal seizure models and has a broader clinical spectrum than earlier antiepileptic drugs, but its mechanism of action at the cellular level is uncertain. It has only a weak effect on sodium channels and some effect on GABA, but causes some block of the NMDA receptor channel (Ch. 37). Its acute side effects are mild, mainly nausea, irritability and insomnia, but it occasionally causes severe reactions resulting in aplastic anaemia or hepatitis. For this reason, its recommended use is limited to intractable epilepsy (e.g. in children with Lennox–Gastaut syndrome) that is unresponsive to other drugs. Its plasma half-life is about 24 h, and it can enhance the plasma concentration of other antiepileptic drugs given concomitantly. **Carisbamate**, a new drug currently in clinical trials, was designed with the intention of producing a drug similar to felbamate that does not cause aplastic anaemia.

Gabapentin and Pregabalin

Gabapentin is effective against partial seizures. Its side effects (mainly sedation and ataxia) are less severe than with many antiepileptic drugs. The absorption of gabapentin from the intestine depends on the L-amino

acid carrier system and shows the property of saturability, which means that increasing the dose does not proportionately increase the amount absorbed. This makes gabapentin relatively safe and free of side effects associated with overdosing. Its plasma half-life is about 6 h, requiring dosing two to three times daily. It is free of interactions with other drugs. It is also used as an analgesic to treat neuropathic pain (Ch. 41). Pregabalin, an analogue of gabapentin, is more potent but otherwise very similar. As these drugs are excreted unchanged in the urine they must be used with care in patients whose renal function is impaired.

Tiagabine

Tiagabine is an analogue of GABA that is able to penetrate the blood–brain barrier. It is an equipotent inhibitor of both neuronal and glial GABA transporter GAT1, thus inhibiting the removal of GABA from the synapse. It enhances the extracellular GABA concentration, as measured in microdialysis experiments, and also potentiates and prolongs GABA-mediated synaptic responses in the brain. It has a short plasma half-life, and its main side effects are drowsiness and confusion. Tiagabine is mainly used as an add-on therapy for partial seizures.

Topiramate

Topiramate is a recently introduced drug that, mechanistically, appears to do a little of everything, blocking sodium and calcium channels, enhancing the action of GABA, blocking AMPA receptors and, for good measure, weakly inhibiting carbonic anhydrase. Its spectrum of action resembles that of phenytoin, and it is claimed to produce less severe side effects, as well as being devoid of the pharmacokinetic properties that cause trouble with phenytoin. Its main drawback is that (like many antiepileptic drugs) it is teratogenic in animals, so it should not be used in women of child-bearing age (see below). Currently, it is mainly used

as add-on therapy in refractory cases of epilepsy.

Levetiracetam

Levetiracetam was developed as an analogue of **piracetam**, a drug used to improve cognitive function, and discovered by accident to have antiepileptic activity in animal models. Unusually, it lacks activity in conventional models such as electroshock and PTZ tests, but is effective in the audiogenic and kindling models. It is believed to interfere with neurotransmitter release by binding to synaptic vesicle protein 2A (SV2A), a protein thought to be involved in synaptic vesicle docking and fusion. **Brivaracetam**, a related antiepileptic agent, also binds to SV2A with ten-fold higher affinity. Levetiracetam is excreted unchanged in the urine.

Zonisamide

Zonisamide is a sulfonamide compound originally intended as an antibacterial drug and found accidentally to have antiepileptic properties. It is believed to act by blocking sodium channels and T-type calcium channels but may well have other effects such as enhancing GABA function. It is free of major unwanted effects, although it causes drowsiness, and of serious interaction with other drugs. It tends to suppress appetite and cause weight loss, and is sometimes used for this purpose. Zonisamide has a long plasma half-life of 60–80 h, and is partly excreted unchanged and partly converted to a glucuronide metabolite. It is licensed for use as an adjunct treatment of partial and generalised seizures but may be effective as a monotherapy.

Rufinamide

Rufinamide is a triazole derivative structurally unrelated to other antiepileptic drugs. It appears to act by enhancing sodium channel

inactivation and may also inhibit GABA reuptake. It is licensed for treating Lennox–Gastaut syndrome and may also be effective in partial seizures. It has low plasma protein binding and is not metabolised by CYP enzymes.

Stiripentol

Stiripentol has some efficacy as an adjunctive therapy in children. It enhances GABA release and prolongs GABA-mediated synaptic events in a manner similar to phenobarbital.

The major antiepileptic drugs

The main drugs in current use are carbamazepine, phenytoin, valproate, ethosuximide and benzodiazepines.

- **Carbamazepine**:
  - – acts mainly by use-dependent block of sodium channels
  - – effective in most forms of epilepsy (except absence seizures); particularly effective in psychomotor epilepsy
  - – also useful in neuropathic pain such as trigeminal neuralgia, and in bipolar disorder
  - – strong liver inducing agent, therefore many drug interactions
  - – low incidence of unwanted effects, principally sedation, ataxia, mental disturbances, water retention
  - – widely used in treatment of epilepsy.

- **Phenytoin**:
  - – acts mainly by use-dependent block of sodium channels
  - – effective in many forms of epilepsy, but not absence seizures
  - – metabolism shows saturation kinetics, so plasma concentration can vary widely; monitoring is therefore recommended
  - – drug interactions are common
  - – main unwanted effects are confusion, gum hyperplasia, skin rashes, anaemia,

teratogenesis.

• **Valproate**:

– chemically unrelated to other antiepileptic drugs

– effective in most forms of epilepsy including absence seizures

– multiple possible mechanisms of action including weak inhibition of GABA transaminase, some effect on sodium and T-type calcium channels

– relatively few unwanted effects: baldness, teratogenicity, liver damage (rare, but serious).

• **Ethosuximide**:

– the main drug used to treat absence seizures; may exacerbate other forms

– acts by blocking T-type calcium channels

– relatively few unwanted effects, mainly nausea and anorexia.

• **Benzodiazepines** (mainly clonazepam and diazepam):

– effective in the treatment of acute seizures

– diazepam used in treating *status epilepticus*.

• Other agents include **vigabatrin**, **lamotrigine**, **felbamate**, **gabapentin**, **pregabalin**, **tiagabine**, **topiramate**, **levetiracetam**, **zonisamide**, **rufinamide** and **stiripentol**.

Development of New Drugs

There are a number of new antiepileptic agents currently being evaluated in clinical trials (see Bialer et al., 2009). Several of these appear to act by novel mechanisms. **Retigabine** is an activator of neuronal KCNQ (K_v7) potassium channels that underlie the M current which controls membrane excitability. It also appears to be effective in treating some pain states. **Lacosamide** may enhance sodium channel inactivation, but unlike other antiepileptic drugs it appears to affect slow rather than rapid inactivation processes. **Ganaxolone**, structurally resembling endogenous neurosteroids (see Ch. 37), is a positive allosteric

modulator of $GABA_A$ receptors containing δ subunits (see Ch. 37). **Tonabersat** is a neuronal gap junction inhibitor.

Novel targets for new antiepileptic agents are discussed by Meldrum & Rogawski (2007). The identification of epileptogenic mutations of genes encoding specific ion channels and other functional proteins (see Weber & Lerche, 2008) is expected to lead to new drugs aimed at these potential targets—a field to watch.

Other Uses of Antiepileptic Drugs

Antiepileptic drugs have proved to have much wider clinical applications than was originally envisaged, and clinical trials have shown many of them to be effective in the following conditions:

- cardiac dysrhythmias (e.g. **phenytoin**—not used clinically, however; Ch. 21)
- bipolar disorder (**valproate**, **carbamazepine**, **oxcarbazepine**, **lamotrigine**, **topiramate**; Ch. 46)
- migraine prophylaxis (**valproate**, **gabapentin**, **topiramate**; Ch. 15)
- anxiety disorders (gabapentin; Ch. 43)
- neuropathic pain (gabapentin, carbamazepine, lamotrigine; Ch. 41).

This surprising multiplicity of clinical indications may reflect the fact that similar neurobiological mechanisms, involving synaptic plasticity and increased excitability of interconnected populations of neurons, underlie each of these disorders (see Rogawski & Löscher, 2004b).

Clinical uses of antiepileptic drugs

- Generalised tonic–clonic seizures:

– **carbamazepine** (preferred because of a relatively favourable effectiveness : risk ratio), **phenytoin**, **valproate**

– use of a single drug is preferred, when possible, to avoid pharmacokinetic interactions

– newer agents include **vigabatrin**, **lamotrigine**, **topiramate**, **levetiracetam**.

• Partial (focal) seizures: **carbamazepine**, **valproate**; alternatives include **clonazepam**, **phenytoin**, **gabapentin**, **pregabalin**, **lamotrigine**, **topiramate**, **levetircetam**, **zonisamide**.

• Absence seizures: **ethosuximide**, **valproate**, **lamotrigine**:

– valproate is useful when absence seizures coexist with tonic–clonic seizures, because most other drugs used for tonic–clonic seizures can worsen absence seizures.

• Myoclonic seizures and status epilepticus: **diazepam** intravenously or (in absence of accessible veins) rectally.

• Neuropathic pain: for example **carbamazepine**, **gabapentin** (see Ch. 41).

• To stabilise mood in mono-or bipolar affective disorder (as an alternative to **lithium**): for example **carbamazepine**, **valproate** (see Ch. 46).

Antiepileptic Drugs and Pregnancy

There are several important implications for women taking antiepileptic drugs. By inducing hepatic CYP3A4 enzymes, some antiepileptic drugs may increase oral contraceptive metabolism, thus reducing their effectiveness. Taken during pregnancy, drugs such as **phenytoin**, **carbamazepine**, **lamotrogine**, **topiramate** and **valproate** are thought to produce teratogenic effects. It remains to be clarified if newer agents also have this problem. Induction of CYP enzymes may result in vitamin K deficiency in the newborn (Ch. 24). Phenytoin, valproate and topiramate may also induce fetal abnormalities if taken during pregnancy.

Muscle Spasm and Muscle Relaxants

Many diseases of the brain and spinal cord produce an increase in muscle tone, which can be painful and disabling. Spasticity resulting from birth injury or cerebral vascular disease, and the paralysis produced by spinal cord lesions, are examples. Multiple sclerosis is a neurodegenerative disease that is triggered by inflammatory attack of the CNS. When the disease has progressed for some years it can cause muscle stiffness and spasms as well as other symptoms such as pain, fatigue, difficulty passing urine and tremors. Local injury or inflammation, as in arthritis, can also cause muscle spasm, and chronic back pain is also often associated with local muscle spasm.

Certain centrally acting drugs are available that have the effect of reducing the background tone of the muscle without seriously affecting its ability to contract transiently under voluntary control. The distinction between voluntary movements and 'background tone' is not clear-cut, and the selectivity of those drugs is not complete. Postural control, for example, is usually jeopardised by centrally acting muscle relaxants. Furthermore, drugs that affect motor control generally produce rather widespread effects on the central nervous system, and drowsiness and confusion turn out to be very common side effects of these agents. The main groups of drugs that have been used to control muscle tone are:

- **baclofen**
- **benzodiazepines** (see Ch. 43)
- **tizanidine**
- **botulinum toxin** (see Ch. 13): injected into a muscle, this neurotoxin causes long-lasting paralysis confined to the site of injection; its use to

treat local muscle spasm is increasing. Its non-medicinal use as a 'beauty' treatment has become widespread

• **dantrolene**: acts peripherally rather than centrally to produce muscle relaxation (see Ch. 4).

Baclofen (see Ch. 37) is a chlorophenyl derivative of GABA originally prepared as a lipophilic GABA-like agent in order to assist penetration of the blood–brain barrier, which is impermeable to GABA itself. Baclofen is a selective agonist at $GABA_B$ receptors (see Ch. 37). The antispastic action of baclofen is exerted mainly on the spinal cord, where it inhibits both monosynaptic and polysynaptic activation of motor neurons. It is effective when given by mouth, and is used in the treatment of spasticity associated with multiple sclerosis or spinal injury. However, it is ineffective in cerebral spasticity caused by birth injury.

Baclofen produces various unwanted effects, particularly drowsiness, motor incoordination and nausea, and it may also have behavioural effects. It is not useful in epilepsy.

Tizanidine is an α_2 adrenoceptor agonist that relieves spasticity associated with multiple sclerosis and spinal cord injury.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that smoking **cannabis** (Ch. 18) relieves the painful muscle spasms associated with multiple sclerosis. A full-scale controlled trial of Δ^9-tetrahydrocannabinol (also known as THC or **dronabinol**; see Ch. 18), however, showed no significant effect on muscle spasm, tremor, bladder control or disability, although the patients reported subjective improvements (Zajicek et al., 2003). More recently a number of different cannabinoids have been tested, including a 1 : 1 mixture of THC and cannabidiol (**sativex**), and **nabilone**. Such studies suggest that cannabinoids may be of limited use in some individuals suffering from multiple sclerosis.

References and Further Reading

General

rowne T.R., Holmes G.L. *Handbook of epilepsy*. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins; 2008. (*A compact textbook covering most areas of epilepsy and its treatment*)

ngel J.E., Pedley T.A., editors. Epilepsy: a comprehensive textbook, second ed, Vol. I–III. Philadelphia: Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott, Williams and Wilkins, 2007. (*At just over 3000 pages, this three-volume set provides a comprehensive coverage of all aspects of epilepsy*)

art Y.M., Sander J.W. *Epilepsy questions and answers*. Weybridge: Merit Publishing International; 2008. (*The question-and-answer format of this book makes obtaining specific information relatively easy*)

Pathogenesis and types of epilepsy

eblaere K., Achten E. Structural magnetic resonance imaging in epilepsy. *Eur. Radiol.*. 2008;18:119-129. (*Describes the use of brain imaging in the diagnosis of epilepsy*)

arrott B. Epileptogenesis: biochemical aspects. *Handb. Exp. Pharmacol.*. 1999;138:87-121. (*Review article describing possible neurochemical mechanisms underlying epilepsy—mostly speculative*)

hosravani H., Altier C., Simms B., *et al.* Gating effects of mutations in the Cav3.2 T-type calcium channel associated with childhood absence epilepsy. *J. Biol. Chem.*. 2004;279:9681-9684. (*Study showing that calcium channel mutations seen in childhood absence seizures cause abnormal neuronal discharges in transgenic mice*)

ulmann D.M., Asztely F., Walker M.C. The role of mammalian ionotropic receptors in synaptic plasticity: LTP, LTD and epilepsy. *Cell. Mol. Life. Sci.*. 2000;57:1551-1561. (*Draws parallels between epileptogenesis and other well-studied forms of synaptic plasticity*)

lanning J.-P.A., Richards D.A., Bowery N.G. Pharmacology of absence epilepsy. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2003;24:542-549. (*Short review emphasising the difference between absence seizures and other types of epilepsy*)

arkisian M.R. Overview of the current animal models for human seizure and epileptic disorders.

Epilepsy Behav.. 2001;2:201-216.

hin H.-S. T-type Ca^{2+} channels and absence epilepsy. *Cell Calcium*. 2006;40:191-196.

/eber Y.G., Lerche H. Genetic mechanisms in idiopathic epilepsies. *Dev. Med. Child Neurol.*. 2008;50:648-654. (*Reviews how mutations in voltage-and ligand-gated ion channels are associated with idiopathic epilepsy syndromes*)

Antiepileptic drugs

zar N.J., Abou-Khalil B.W. Considerations in the choice of an antiepileptic drug in the treatment of epilepsy. *Semin. Neurol.*. 2008;28:305-316. (*Describes the current Food and Drug Administration approval for antiepileptic drug use in the USA*)

ialer M., Johannessen S.I., Levy R.H., *et al.* Progress report on new antiepileptic drugs: a summary of the Ninth Eilat Conference (EILAT IX). *Epilepsy Res.*. 2009;83:1-43. (*Provides an update on new drugs currently in late stages of development*)

Iacleod S., Appleton R.E. The new antiepileptic drugs. *Arch. Dis. Child. Educ. Pract. Ed.*. 2007;92:182-188. (*Focuses on the clinical usefulness of newer antiepileptic drugs*)

Ieldrum B.S., Rogawski M.A. Molecular targets for antiepileptic drug development. *Neurotherapeutics*. 2007;4:18-61. (*Review of novel targets for antiepileptic drugs*)

ogawski M.A., Löscher W. The neurobiology of antiepileptic drugs. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2004;5:553-564. (*Good general review article covering basic pharmacology and mechanisms of action of the major antiepileptic drugs*)

ogawski M.A., Löscher W. The neurobiology of antiepileptic drugs for the treatment of nonepileptic conditions. *Nat. Med.*. 2004;10:685-692.

ajicek J., Fox P., Sanders H., *et al.* Cannabinoids for treatment of spasticity and other symptoms related to multiple sclerosis: multi-centre randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2003;362:1517-1526. (*Full-scale trial showing very limited efficacy of cannabinoids in multiple sclerosis*)

45

Antipsychotic drugs

Overview

In this chapter, we focus on schizophrenia and the drugs used to treat it. We start by describing the illness and what is known of its pathogenesis, including the various neurochemical hypotheses and their relation to the actions of the main types of antipsychotic drugs that are in use or in development.

Introduction

Psychotic illnesses include various disorders, but the term antipsychotic drugs—previously known as *neuroleptic drugs*, *antischizophrenic drugs* or *major tranquillisers*—conventionally refers to those used to treat schizophrenia, one of the most common and debilitating forms of mental illness. These same drugs are also used to treat mania (Ch. 46) and other acute behavioural disturbances (see clinical box on p. 562). Pharmacologically, most are dopamine receptor antagonists, although many of them also act on other targets, particularly 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) receptors, which may contribute to their clinical efficacy. Existing drugs have many drawbacks in terms of their efficacy and side effects. Gradual improvements have been achieved with the newer drugs, but radical new approaches will probably have to wait until we have a better understanding of the causes and underlying pathology of the disease, which are still poorly understood.[1]

The Nature of Schizophrenia

[1]In this respect, the study of schizophrenia lags some years behind that of Alzheimer's disease (Ch. 39), where understanding of the pathogenesis has progressed rapidly to the point where promising new drug targets can be identified. On the other hand, pragmatists can argue that drugs against Alzheimer's disease are so far only marginally effective, whereas current antipsychotic drugs deliver great benefits, even though we do not quite know how they work.

Schizophrenia[2] (see Stahl, 2008) affects about 1% of the population. It is one of the most important forms of psychiatric illness, because it affects young people, is often chronic and is usually highly disabling. There is a strong hereditary factor in its aetiology, and evidence suggestive of a fundamental biological disorder (see below). The main clinical features of the disease are as follow.

Positive symptoms

• Delusions (often paranoid in nature).

• Hallucinations (often in the form of voices which may be exhortatory in their message).

• Thought disorder (comprising wild trains of thought, delusions of grandeur, garbled sentences and irrational conclusions).

• Abnormal, disorganised behaviour (such as stereotyped movements, disorientation and occasionally aggressive behaviours).

• Catatonia (can be apparent as immobility or purposeless motor activity).

Negative symptoms

• Withdrawal from social contacts.

- Flattening of emotional responses.
- Anhedonia (an inability to experience pleasure).
- Reluctance to perform everyday tasks.

[2]Schizophrenia is a condition where the patient exhibits symptoms of psychosis (e.g. delusions, hallucinations and disorganised behaviour). Psychotic episodes may also occur as a result of taking certain recreational drugs (see Ch. 47); as an adverse effect of drug treatment, for example steroid-induced psychoses; or in disorders such as mania, depression (see Ch. 46) and Alzheimer's disease (see Ch. 39).

In addition, deficits in cognitive function (e.g. attention, memory) are often present,[3] together with anxiety, guilt, depression and self punishment, leading to suicide attempts in up to 50% of cases, about 10% of which are successful. The clinical phenotype varies greatly, particularly with respect to the balance between positive and negative symptoms, and this may have a bearing on the efficacy of antipsychotic drugs in individual cases. Schizophrenia can present dramatically, usually in young people, with predominantly positive features such as hallucinations, delusions and uncontrollable behaviour, or more insidiously in older patients with negative features such as flat mood and social withdrawal. The latter may be more debilitated than those with a florid presentation, and the prognosis is generally worse. Schizophrenia can follow a relapsing and remitting course, or be chronic and progressive, particularly in cases with a later onset. Chronic schizophrenia used to account for most of the patients in long-stay psychiatric hospitals; following the closure of many of these in the UK, it now accounts for many of society's outcasts.

[3]Kraepelin, who first described the condition, used the term *dementia praecox* (premature dementia) to describe the cognitive impairment

associated with schizophrenia.

A characteristic feature of schizophrenia is a defect in ‘selective attention’. Whereas a normal individual quickly accommodates to stimuli of a familiar or inconsequential nature, and responds only to stimuli that are unexpected or significant, the ability of schizophrenic patients to discriminate between significant and insignificant stimuli seems to be impaired. Thus, the ticking of a clock may command as much attention as the words of a companion; a chance thought, which a normal person would dismiss as inconsequential, may become an irresistible imperative.

Aetiology and Pathogenesis of Schizophrenia

Genetic and Environmental Factors

The cause of schizophrenia remains unclear but involves a combination of genetic and environmental factors (see Stahl, 2008). Thus a person may have a genetic makeup, probably an abnormality in more than just a single gene, that predisposes them to schizophrenia, but exposure to environmental factors may be required for schizophrenia to develop.

The disease shows a strong, but incomplete, hereditary tendency. In first-degree relatives, the risk is about 10%, but even in monozygotic (identical) twins, one of whom has schizophrenia, the probability of the other being affected is only about 50%, pointing towards the importance of environmental factors. Genetic linkage studies have identified more than 20 potential susceptibility genes (see Craddock et al., 2005; Harrison & Weinberger, 2005), but it is clear that no single gene is responsible. There are significant associations between polymorphisms in individual genes and the likelihood of an individual developing schizophrenia, but many are quite weak, and there appears to be no single gene that has an overriding influence.

▼ The most robust associations are with genes that control neuronal development, synaptic connectivity and glutamatergic neurotransmission. These include *neuregulin*, *dysbindin* and *DISC-1*. Transgenic mice that underexpress neuregulin-1, a protein involved in synaptic development and plasticity and which controls NMDA receptor expression, show a phenotype resembling human schizophrenia in certain respects. Malfunction of NMDA receptors is further implicated by genetic association with the genes for D-amino acid oxidase (DAAO), the enzyme responsible for making D-serine, an allosteric modulator of NMDA receptors (see Ch. 37), and for DAAO activator (G72). Dysbindin is located in postsynaptic density domains and may be involved in tethering receptors including NMDA receptors. DISC-1—which stands for **d**isrupted **i**n **sc**hizophrenia**-1**—is a protein that associates with cytoskeletal proteins and is involved with cell migration, neurite outgrowth and receptor trafficking. Among the other suggested susceptibility genes, some (such as the genes for monoamine oxidase A [MAO-A], tyrosine hydroxylase and the D_2 dopamine receptor) are involved in monoamine transmission in the CNS. However, the weight of current evidence seems to suggest that schizophrenia may result from abnormal glutamatergic transmission involving a decrease in NMDA receptor function (see below).

Some environmental influences early in development have been identified as possible predisposing factors, particularly maternal virus infections. This and other evidence suggests that schizophrenia is associated with a neurodevelopmental disorder affecting mainly the cerebral cortex and occurring in the first few months of prenatal development (see Harrison, 1997). This view is supported by brain-imaging studies showing cortical atrophy apparent in the early course of the disease which may increase with time and correlate with the

progression of the disorder (van Haren et al., 2007). Studies of postmortem schizophrenic brains show evidence of misplaced cortical neurons with abnormal morphology. Other environmental factors such as cannabis consumption in adolescence and early adulthood (see Ch. 18) may also reveal schizophrenia.

The Neuroanatomical and Neurochemical Basis of Schizophrenia

Different symptoms of schizophrenia appear to result from malfunctions in different neuronal circuits. Changes in the mesolimbic pathway (the neuronal projection from the ventral tegmental area (VTA) to the nucleus accumbens, amygdala and hippocampus) being associated with positive symptoms, whereas negative and cognitive impairment symptoms are associated with changes in the mesocortical pathway (the projection from the VTA to areas of the prefrontal cortex).

The main neurotransmitters involved in the pathogenesis of schizophrenia are dopamine and glutamate.

Dopamine

The original dopamine theory of schizophrenia was proposed by Carlson —awarded a Nobel Prize in 2000—on the basis of indirect pharmacological evidence in humans and experimental animals. **Amphetamine** releases dopamine in the brain and can produce in humans a behavioural syndrome indistinguishable from an acute schizophrenic episode—very familiar to doctors who treat drug users. Also, hallucinations are a side effect of L-dopa therapy for Parkinson's disease (see Ch. 39). In animals, dopamine release causes a specific pattern of stereotyped behaviour that resembles the repetitive behaviours sometimes seen in schizophrenic patients. Potent D_2 receptor agonists, such as **bromocriptine**, produce similar effects in animals, and

these drugs, like amphetamine, exacerbate the symptoms of schizophrenic patients. Furthermore, dopamine antagonists and drugs that block neuronal dopamine storage (e.g. **reserpine**) are effective in controlling the positive symptoms of schizophrenia, and in preventing amphetamine-induced behavioural changes.

▼ It is now realised that the role of dopamine in schizophrenia is quite complex in that positive symptoms are thought to result from *overactivity* in the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathway activating D_2 receptors (for a more detailed description of the dopamine pathways in the brain, see Ch. 38) whereas negative symptoms may result from a *decreased activity* in the mesocortical dopaminergic pathway where D_1 receptors predominate (see Toda & Abi-Dargham, 2007). Other dopaminergic pathways in the brain (i.e. nigrostriatal and tuberoinfundibular; see Ch. 38) appear to function normally in schizophrenics.

There is a strong correlation between antipsychotic potency in reducing positive symptoms and activity in blocking D_2 receptors (Fig. 45.1) and receptor-imaging studies have shown that clinical efficacy of antipsychotic drugs is consistently achieved when D_2 receptor occupancy reaches about 80%.[4] Furthermore, brain imaging studies have revealed an increased dopamine release in the striatum of schizophrenic patients (Laruelle et al., 1999).[5] Injection of amphetamine caused dopamine release that was greater by a factor of two or more in schizophrenic subjects compared with control subjects, implying a greater amphetamine-induced release of dopamine. The effect was greatest in schizophrenic individuals during acute attacks, and absent during spontaneous remissions—clear evidence linking dopamine release to the symptomatology.

Thus, therapeutically it might be desirable to *inhibit* dopaminergic transmission in the limbic system yet *enhance* dopaminergic transmission

in the prefrontal cortex (see below how this might be achieved).

Glutamate

[4]There are, however, exceptions to this simple rule. Up to one-third of schizophrenic patients fail to respond even when D_2 receptor blockade exceeds 90%, and **clozapine** (see Table 45.1) can be effective at much lower levels of block.

[5]An increase in dopamine receptor density in schizophrenia has been reported in some studies, but not consistently, and the interpretation is complicated by the fact that chronic antipsychotic drug treatment is known to increase dopamine receptor expression.

In humans, NMDA receptor antagonists such as **phencyclidine**, **ketamine** and **dizocilpine** (Ch. 37) can produce both positive and negative psychotic symptoms—in contrast to amphetamine which produces only positive symptoms. It has therefore been postulated that schizophrenia may result from disruption of glutamatergic neurotransmission (Moghaddam, 2003), evident as a reduction in the function of NMDA receptors (the NMDA hypofunction hypothesis; see Coyle, 2006). Although schizophrenia is difficult to diagnose in a mouse, transgenic mice in which NMDA receptor expression is reduced (not abolished, because this is fatal) show stereotypic behaviours and reduced social interaction that are suggestive of schizophrenia and that respond to antipsychotic drugs.

▼ Glutamatergic neurons and GABAergic neurons play complex roles in controlling the level of neuronal activity in both the mesocortical and the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathways. NMDA receptor hypofunction is thought to *reduce* the level of activity in mesocortical dopaminergic neurons. This would result in a decrease in dopamine release in the prefrontal cortex and thus give rise to negative symptoms of

schizophrenia. On the other hand, NMDA receptor hypofunction is thought to *enhance* activity in the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathway, perhaps because in this pathway the important NMDA receptors are those located on GABAergic interneurons. Thus NMDA receptor hypofunction would result in reduced GABAergic inhibition (disinhibition) of mesolimbic dopaminergic neurons and thus give rise to enhanced dopamine release in limbic areas such as the nucleus accumbens, resulting in the production of positive symptoms

Given the evidence that schizophrenic symptoms may be due to a reduction in NMDA receptor function, efforts have been made to develop new drugs to enhance NMDA receptor function but not to a level where it becomes neurotoxic (see Ch. 39). This could be achieved by activating the facilitatory glycine site on the NMDA receptor (see Ch. 37) with an agonist (Shim et al., 2008) or by raising extracellular glycine levels by inhibiting the GlyT1 transporter (Bridges et al., 2008). *AMPAkines*, agents that allosterically enhance the action of glutamate at the AMPA receptor, by enhancing glutamate-induced neuronal depolarisation, can potentiate NMDA responses. Paradoxically, reducing glutamate release by activating presynaptic mGluR2/3 autoreceptors may result in a compensatory upregulation of NMDA receptors which also might be beneficial. This provides a novel target for the development of new antipsychotic drugs (see below).

Other glutamate pathways thought to be involved in schizophrenia are the corticostriatal, thalamocortical, corticothalamic and cortico-brain stem pathways. The thalamus normally functions as a sensory filter to limit unnecessary sensory input to the cortex. Disruption of the normal inputs to the thalamus, for example from a reduction in glutamatergic or GABAergic transmission, disables this ‘sensory gate’ function, allowing uninhibited input to reach the cortex. The role of the thalamus in

schizophrenia is reviewed by Sim et al. (2006).

Neurodegeneration

Factors such as structural abnormalities in the brains of schizophrenics and progression of the disease—absence of symptoms in early childhood, the likelihood of positive symptoms becoming apparent before negative symptoms, progressive worsening, reduced responsiveness to drugs with time and the development of dementia—all indicate the involvement of ongoing neurodegeneration in the disease. The causes of such neurodegeneration are unclear at present but may involve glutamate-induced excitotoxicity (see Ch. 39).

The hope is that a fuller understanding of the altered function of glutamate transmission in schizophrenia will lead to the next generation of antipsychotic drugs (see Javitt, 2004).

The nature of schizophrenia 

• Psychotic illness characterised by delusions, hallucinations and thought disorder (positive symptoms), together with social withdrawal and flattening of emotional responses (negative symptoms), and cognitive impairment.

• Acute episodes (mainly positive symptoms) frequently recur and may develop into chronic schizophrenia, with predominantly negative symptoms.

• Incidence is about 1% of the population, with a significant hereditary component. Genetic linkage studies suggest involvement of various genes associated with dopaminergic and glutamatergic transmission, but no single ‘schizophrenia gene’.

• Pharmacological evidence is generally consistent with dopamine dysregulation and glutamate underactivity hypotheses, supported by biochemical findings, clinical efficacy and imaging studies.

Antipsychotic Drugs

Classification of Antipsychotic Drugs

More than 30 different antipsychotic drugs are available for clinical use. These can be divided into two groups—those drugs that were originally developed (e.g. **chlorpromazine**, **haloperidol** and many similar compounds), often referred to as *first-generation*, *typical* or *conventional* antipsychotic drugs, and more recently developed agents (e.g. **clozapine**, **risperidone**), which are termed *atypical antipsychotic drugs*. The term 'atypical' is widely used but not clearly defined (see Remington, 2003). In effect, it refers to the diminished tendency of the newer compounds to cause unwanted motor side effects (see below), but it is also used to describe compounds with a different pharmacological profile from first-generation compounds; several of these newer compounds improve the negative as well as the positive symptoms. In practice, however, it often serves—not very usefully—to distinguish the large group of similar first-generation dopamine antagonists from the more diverse group of newer compounds described below.

Table 45.1 summarises the main drugs that are in clinical use.

Table 45.1 Characteristics of antipsychotic drugs

Drug	Receptor affinity						Main side effects				Notes
	D_1	D_2	α_1	H_1	mACh	5-HT_{2A}	EPS	Sed	Hypo	Other	
Chlorpromazine	+	+++	+++	++	+	++	++	+++	++	Increased prolactin (gynaecomastia) Hypothermia Anticholinergic effects Hypersensitivity reactions Obstructive jaundice	Phenothiazine class Fluphenazine, trifluperazine are similar but: • do not cause jaundice • cause less hypotension • cause more EPS Fluphenazine available as depot preparation Pericyazine, pipotiazine cause less EPS probably due to their greater muscarinic antagonist actions
Haloperidol	+	+++	++	–	–	+	+++	–	+	As chlorpromazine but does not cause jaundice Fewer anticholinergic side effects	Butyrophenone class Widely used antipsychotic drug Strong EPS tendency Available as depot preparation
Flupentixol	++	+++		+++	–	+	++	+	+	Increased prolactin (gynaecomastia) Restlessness	Thioxanthine class Clopentixol is similar Available as depot preparation
Sulpiride	–	++	–	–	–	–	+	+	–	Increased prolactin (gynaecomastia)	Benzamide class Selective D_2/D_3 antagonist Less EPS than haloperidol (reason for this unclear, but could result from action at D_3 or very weak partial agonism at D_2) Increases alertness in apathetic patients Poorly absorbed Amisulpride and pimozide (long acting) are similar
Clozapine	+	+	++	++	++	++	–	++	++	Risk of agranulocytosis (~1%): regular blood counts required Seizures Salivation Anticholinergic side effects Weight gain	Dibenzodiazepine class No EPS (first atypical antipsychotic) Shows efficacy in 'treatment-resistant' patients and reduces incidence of suicide Effective against negative and positive symptoms Olanzapine is somewhat less sedative, without risk of agranulocytosis, but questionable efficacy in treatment-resistant patients
Risperidone	+	++	++	++	–	+++	+	++	++	Weight gain EPS at high doses Hypotension	Significant risk of EPS ?Effective against negative symptoms Potent on D_4 receptors Available as depot preparation Paliperidone is a metabolite of risperidone
Sertindole	+	++	++	+	–	+++	+	+	++	Ventricular arrhythmias (ECG checks advisable) Weight gain Nasal congestion	Long plasma half-life (~3 days) ?Effective against negative symptoms
Quetiapine	–	+	++	+	+	+	–	++	++	Tachycardia Drowsiness Dry mouth Constipation Weight gain	No EPS No increase in prolactin secretion 5-HT_{1A} partial agonist Short acting (plasma half-life ~6 h)
Aripiprazole	–	+++ (PA)	+	+	–	++	–	+	–	–	Long acting (plasma half-life ~3 days) Unusual D_2 PA profile may account for paucity of side effects Also a 5-HT_{1A} partial agonist No effect on prolactin secretion No weight gain Available as a depot preparation
Zotepine	+	++	++	++	–	++	–	+	–	Weight gain Hypotension Cardiac dysrhythmias	–
Ziprasidone	+	++	++	+	–	+++	+	–	+	Tiredness Nausea	Low incidence of EPS No weight gain ?Effective against negative symptoms Short acting (plasma half-life ~8 h) but a depot preparation is available

Table based on data contained at NIMH Psychoactive Drug Screening Program database (http://pdsp.med.unc.edu/). Where available, data obtained on human receptors are given. 5-HT_{1A}, 5-HT_{2A}, 5-hydroxytryptamine types 1A and 2A receptors; α_1, α_1-adrenoceptor; D_1, D_2, D_3, D_4, dopamine types 1, 2, 3 and 4 receptor, respectively; ECG, electrocardiograph; EPS, extrapyramidal side effects; H_1, histamine type 1 receptor; Hypo, hypotension; mACh, muscarinic acetylcholine receptor; PA, partial agonist; Sed, sedation.

▼ The therapeutic activity of the prototype drug, **chlorpromazine**, in schizophrenic patients was discovered through the acute observations of a French surgeon, Laborit, in 1947. He tested various substances, including **promethazine**, for their ability to alleviate signs of stress in patients undergoing surgery, and concluded that promethazine had a

calming effect that was different from mere sedation. Elaboration of the phenothiazine structure led to chlorpromazine, the antipsychotic effect of which was demonstrated, at Laborit's instigation, by Delay and Deniker in 1953. This drug was unique in controlling the symptoms of psychotic patients without excessively sedating them. The clinical efficacy of phenothiazines was discovered long before their mechanism was guessed at (let alone understood).

Pharmacological investigation showed that phenothiazines, the first-generation antipsychotic agents, block many different mediators, including histamine, catecholamines, acetylcholine and 5-HT, and this multiplicity of actions led to the trade name Largactil for chlorpromazine. It is now clear (see Fig. 45.1) that antagonism of dopamine is the main determinant of antipsychotic action.

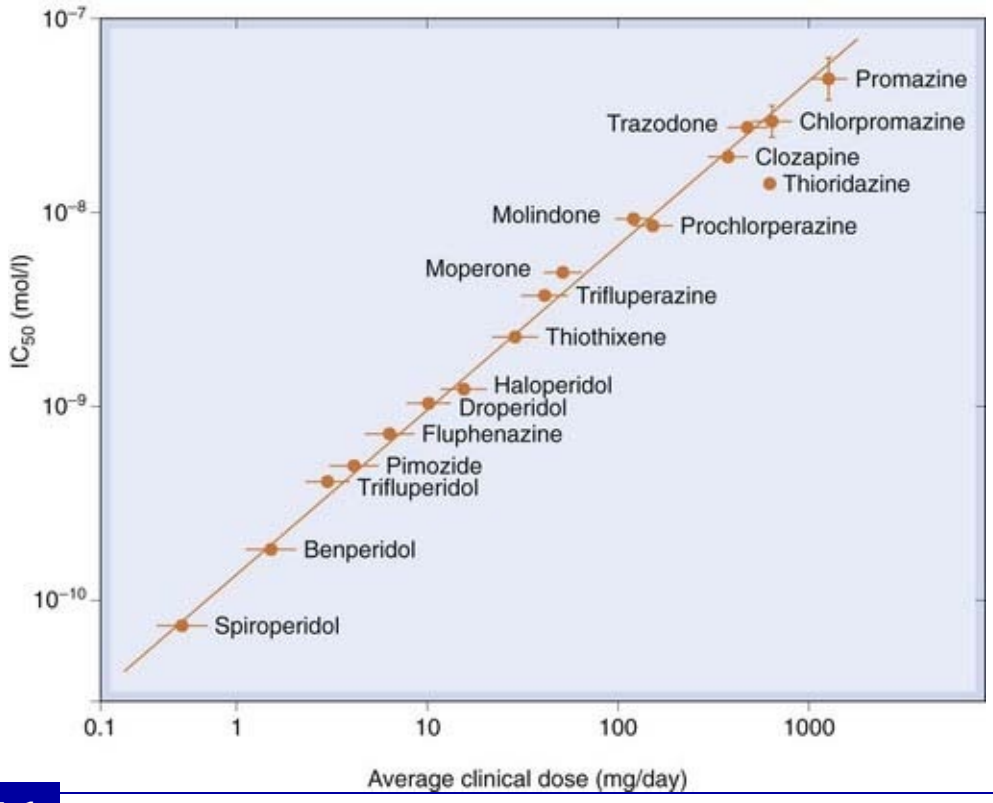


Fig. 45.1 Correlation between the clinical potency and affinity for dopamine D_2 receptors among antipsychotic drugs.

Clinical potency is expressed as the daily dose used in treating schizophrenia, and binding activity is expressed as the concentration needed to produce 50% inhibition of haloperidol binding.

(From Seeman P et al. 1976 Nature 361: 717.)

Classification of antipsychotic drugs

- Main categories are:
  - first-generation ('typical', 'classical' or 'conventional') antipsychotics (e.g. **chlorpromazine**, **haloperidol**, **fluphenazine**, **flupentixol**, **clopentixol**)
  - second-generation ('atypical') antipsychotics (e.g. **clozapine**, **risperidone**, **sertindole**, **quetiapine**, **amisulpride**, **aripiprazole**, **zotepine**, **ziprasidone**).
- Distinction between typical and atypical groups is not clearly defined but rests on:
  - receptor profile
  - incidence of extrapyramidal side effects (less in atypical group)
  - efficacy (specifically of clozapine) in 'treatment-resistant' group of patients
  - efficacy against negative symptoms.

Pharmacological Properties

Dopamine Receptors

The classification of dopamine receptors in the central nervous system is discussed in Chapter 38 (see Table 38.1). There are five subtypes, which fall into two functional classes: the D_1 type, comprising D_1 and D_5, and the D_2 type, comprising D_2, D_3 and D_4. Antipsychotic drugs owe their therapeutic effects mainly to blockade of D_2 receptors.[6] As stated above, antipsychotic effects require about 80% block of D_2 receptors. The first-generation compounds show some preference for D_2 over D_1 receptors, whereas some of the newer agents (e.g. **sulpiride**, **amisulpride**, **remoxipride**) are highly selective for D_2 receptors. More recently, D_2

antagonists that dissociate rapidly from the receptor and D_2 partial agonists have been introduced in an attempt to reduce extrapyramidal motor side effects (see below).

[6]The D_4 receptor attracted attention on account of the high degree of genetic polymorphism that it shows in human subjects, and because some of the newer antipsychotic drugs (e.g. clozapine) have a high affinity for this receptor subtype. However, a specific D_4-receptor antagonist proved ineffective in clinical trials.

It is the antagonism of D_2 receptors in the mesolimbic pathway that is believed to relieve the positive symptoms of schizophrenia. Unfortunately, systemically administered antipsychotic drugs do not discriminate between D_2 receptors in distinct brain regions and D_2 receptors in other brain pathways will also be blocked. Thus, antipsychotic drugs produce unwanted motor effects (block of D_2 receptors in the nigrostriatal pathway), enhance prolactin secretion (block of D_2 receptors in the tuberoinfundibular pathway), reduce pleasure (block of D_2 receptors in the reward component of the mesolimbic pathway) and perhaps even worsen the negative symptoms of schizophrenia (block of D_2 receptors in the prefrontal cortex, although these are only expressed at a low density—D_1 receptors being in greater abundance). While all antipsychotic drugs block D_2 receptors and should therefore in theory induce all of these unwanted effects, some have additional pharmacological activity (e.g. mACh receptor antagonism and 5-HT_{2A} receptor antagonism) that, to varying degrees, ameliorate unwanted effects (see below). 5-HT_{2A} antagonism may help to alleviate the negative and cognitive impairments of schizophrenia.

Antipsychotic drugs have classically been thought to have a delayed onset to their therapeutic actions, even though their dopamine receptor-

blocking action is immediate. This view has, however, been called into question (Kapur et al., 2005; Leucht et al., 2005). In animal studies, chronic antipsychotic drug administration does produce compensatory changes in the brain, for example a reduction in the activity of dopaminergic neurons and proliferation of dopamine receptors, detectable as an increase in haloperidol binding (see Seeman, 1987), with a pharmacological supersensitivity to dopamine reminiscent of the phenomenon of denervation supersensitivity (Ch. 12). The mechanism(s) of these delayed effects are poorly understood. They are likely to contribute to the development of unwanted *tardive dyskinesias* (see below). The sedating effect of antipsychotic drugs occurs extremely rapidly, allowing them to be used in acute behavioural emergencies.

Mechanism of action of antipsychotic drugs

• Antipsychotic drugs are antagonists or partial agonists at D_2 dopamine receptors, but most also block a variety of other receptors.

• Antipsychotic potency generally runs parallel to activity on D_2 receptors, but activities at other receptors (e.g. 5-HT_{2A} and muscarinic) may reduce extrapyramidal side effects.

• Activity at muscarininc, H_1 and α receptors may determine unwanted side effect profile.

• Imaging studies suggest that therapeutic effect requires about 80% occupancy of D_2 receptors.

5-Hydroxytryptamine Receptors

The idea that 5-HT dysfunction could be involved in schizophrenia has drifted in and out of favour many times (see Busatto & Kerwin, 1997). It was originally based on the fact that LSD, a partial agonist at 5-HT_{2A} receptors (see Chs 15 & 47) produces hallucinations. Nowadays, conventional wisdom is that 5-HT may not be directly involved in the

pathogenesis of schizophrenia. Nevertheless, pharmacological manipulation of 5-HT receptor activity, combined with D_2 receptor antagonism, has resulted in new drugs with improved therapeutic profiles.[7] There is a plethora of 5-HT receptors (see Chs 15 & 38) with disparate functions in the body (see also Chs 46 and 47). It is the 5-HT_{2A} receptor and, to a lesser extent, the 5-HT_{1A} receptor that are important in the treatment of schizophrenia.

[7]Early antipsychotic drugs (e.g. chlorpromazine) had actions at various receptors but also had unwanted side effects that resulted from activity at other receptors. Towards the end of the 20th century, drug development, not just of antipsychotic drugs, was focused largely on developing agents with a single action with the intention of reducing unwanted side effects. This philosophy drove the search for selective D_4 receptor antagonists, which proved ineffective. What is now apparent is that drugs with selected multiple actions (e.g. a combination of D_2 antagonism and 5-HT_{2A} antagonism) may have a better therapeutic profile.

5-HT_{2A} receptors are G_i/G_o-coupled receptors and their activation produces neuronal inhibition (through decreased neuronal excitability at the soma and decreased transmitter release at the nerve terminals; see Ch. 38). In this way, in the nigrostriatal pathway, 5-HT_{2A} receptors control the release of dopamine. Drugs with 5-HT_{2A} antagonist properties (e.g. **olanzapine** and **risperidone**) enhance dopamine release in the striatum by reducing the inhibitory effect of 5-HT. This will reduce extrapyramidal side effects (see below). In contrast, in the mesolimbic pathway, the combined effects of D_2 and 5-HT_{2A} antagonism are thought to counteract the increased dopamine function that gives rise to positive symptoms of schizophrenia. Further, enhancing both dopamine and glutamate release in the mesocortical circuit, 5-HT_{2A}

receptor antagonism may improve the negative symptoms of schizophrenia (Stahl, 2008).

5-HT_{1A} receptors are somatodendritic autoreceptors that inhibit 5-HT release (see Ch. 38). Antipsychotic drugs that are agonists or partial agonists at 5-HT_{1A} receptors (e.g. **quetiapine**; see Table 45.1) may work by decreasing 5-HT release thus enhancing dopamine release in the striatum and prefrontal cortex.

Muscarinic Acetylcholine Receptors

Some phenothiazine antipsychotic drugs (e.g. **pericyazine**) induce fewer extrapyramidal side effects than others, and this correlates with their affinity as muscarinic antagonists. Also, some newer, atypical drugs possess muscarinic antagonist properties (e.g. **olanzepine**). In the striatum, dopaminergic nerve terminals are thought to innervate cholinergic interneurons that express inhibitory D_2 receptors (Pisani et al., 2007). It is suggested that there is normally a balance between D_2 receptor activation and muscarinic receptor activation. Blocking D_2 receptors in the striatum with an antipsychotic agent will result in enhanced acetylcholine release on to muscarinic receptors, thus producing extrapyramidal side effects, which are counteracted if the D_2 antagonist also has muscarinic antagonist activity. Maintaining the dopamine/acetylcholine balance was also the rationale for the use of **benztropine** to reduce extrapyramidal effects of antipsychotic drugs (see Ch. 39). Muscarinic antagonist activity does, however, induce side effects such as constipation, dry mouth and blurred vision.

Behavioural Effects

Antipsychotic drugs produce many behavioural effects in experimental animals (see Ögren, 1996), but no single test distinguishes them clearly

from other types of psychotropic drug. There are no good animal models of schizophrenia. For this reason, some pharmaceutical companies have even considered bypassing animal models, taking novel compounds directly from in vitro receptor assays to toxicology and preliminary clinical trials.

Antipsychotic drugs reduce spontaneous motor activity and in larger doses cause *catalepsy*, a state in which the animal remains immobile even when placed in an unnatural position. Inhibition of the hyperactivity induced by **amphetamine** parallels antipsychotic actions of these drugs, whereas their tendency to induce catalepsy parallels extrapyramidal symptoms (see below). Other tests reveal effects distinct from motor inhibition. For example, animals respond to an unexpected acoustic stimulus with a jump. This 'startle' reflex can be reduced by a weak pre-stimulus (pre-pulse inhibition) such as a low-intensity tone or light. Schizophrenic patients exhibit less pre-pulse inhibition than control subjects. Drugs that mimic or release dopamine (e.g. apomorphine or amphetamine) as well as other drugs that induce schizophrenia-like behaviours (e.g. **cannabinoids** or **phencyclidine**) reduce pre-pulse inhibition in animals and antipsychotic drugs reverse this effect. Also, in a conditioned avoidance model, a rat may be trained to respond to a conditioned stimulus, such as a buzzer, by remaining immobile and thereby avoiding a painful shock; chlorpromazine impairs performance in this test, as well as in tests that demand active motor responses. In doses too small to reduce spontaneous motor activity, chlorpromazine reduces social interactions (grooming, mating, fighting, etc.) and also impairs performance in discriminant tests (e.g. requiring the animal to respond differently to red and green lights).

All first-generation antipsychotic drugs inhibit amphetamine-induced behavioural changes, reflecting their action on D_2 receptors. Some

atypical drugs have less activity on D_2 receptors and are less active in such models, and also in the catalepsy model. They are, however, as efficacious as the older drugs in pre-pulse inhibition and conditioned avoidance tests. Both classic and atypical drugs, moreover, reduce the hyperactivity caused by **phencyclidine** (a glutamate antagonist; Ch. 37) in rodents. In humans, phencyclidine causes a schizophrenia-like syndrome. Conditioned avoidance and phencyclidine tests in animals may therefore be more appropriate guides to antipsychotic activity in humans.

In humans, antipsychotic drugs produce a state of apathy and reduced initiative. The recipient displays few emotions, is slow to respond to external stimuli and tends to drowse off. The subject is, however, easily aroused and can respond to questions accurately, with no marked loss of intellectual function. Aggressive tendencies are strongly inhibited. Effects differ from those of sedative anxiolytic drugs, which also cause drowsiness and confusion but with euphoria rather than apathy.

Many antipsychotic drugs are antiemetic (see Ch. 29), reflecting antagonism at dopamine, muscarinic, histamine and possibly 5-HT receptors.

Unwanted Effects

Extrapyramidal Motor Disturbances

Antipsychotic drugs produce two main kinds of motor disturbance in humans: *acute dystonias* and *tardive dyskinesias*, collectively termed *extrapyramidal side effects*. These all result directly or indirectly from D_2 receptor blockade in the nigrostriatal pathway. Extrapyramidal side effects constitute one of the main disadvantages of first-generation antipsychotic drugs. The term *atypical* was originally applied to some of

the newer compounds that show much less tendency to produce extrapyramidal side effects.

Acute dystonias are involuntary movements (restlessness, muscle spasms, protruding tongue, fixed upward gaze, torticollis [involuntary spasm of neck muscles]), often accompanied by symptoms of Parkinson's disease (Ch. 39). They occur commonly in the first few weeks, often declining with time, and are reversible on stopping drug treatment. The timing is consistent with block of the dopaminergic nigrostriatal pathway. Concomitant block of muscarinic receptors and 5-HT_{2A} receptors mitigates the motor effects of dopamine receptor antagonists (see above).

Tardive dyskinesia (see Klawans et al., 1988) develops after months or years (hence 'tardive') in 20–40% of patients treated with first-generation antipsychotic drugs, and is one of the main problems of antipsychotic therapy. Its seriousness lies in the fact that it is a disabling and often irreversible condition, which often gets worse when antipsychotic therapy is stopped and is resistant to treatment. The syndrome consists of involuntary movements, often of the face and tongue, but also of the trunk and limbs, which can be severely disabling. It resembles that seen after prolonged treatment of Parkinson's disease with **levodopa** (see Ch. 39). The incidence depends greatly on drug, dose and age (being commonest in patients over 50).

▼ There are several theories about the mechanism of tardive dyskinesia (see Casey, 1995). One is that it is associated with a gradual increase in the number of D_2 receptors in the striatum, which is less marked during treatment with the atypical than with the first generation of antipsychotic drugs. Another possibility is that chronic block of inhibitory dopamine receptors enhances catecholamine and/or glutamate release in the striatum, leading to excitotoxic

neurodegeneration (Ch. 39).

Drugs that rapidly dissociate from D_2 receptors (e.g. **clozapine**, **olanzapine**, **sertindole**) induce less severe extrapyramidal side effects. A possible explanation for this (see Kapur & Seeman, 2001) is that with a rapidly dissociating compound, a brief surge of dopamine can effectively overcome the block by competition (see Ch. 2), whereas with a slowly dissociating compound, the level of block takes a long time to respond to the presence of endogenous dopamine, and is in practice non-competitive. Adverse motor effects may be avoided if fractional receptor occupation falls during physiological surges of dopamine. An extension of this idea is that perhaps a little D_2 receptor activation may be beneficial. This could be produced, for example, by drugs that are D_2 partial agonists (e.g. **aripiprazole**) in contrast to simple antagonists. It is thought that partial agonists reduce D_2 hyperactivation in the mesolimbic pathway, thus alleviating positive symptoms of schizophrenia, but provide enough D_2 receptor stimulation in the mesocortical pathway to prevent negative symptoms, and in the nigrostriatal pathway to prevent the development of extrapyramidal side effects. Newer D_2 partial agonists such as **bifeprunox** are being developed, although questions about their efficacy and safety have arisen.

Antipsychotic-induced motor disturbances



- Major problem of antipsychotic drug treatment.
- Two main types of disturbance occur:
  - acute, reversible dystonias and Parkinson-like symptoms (indeed, antipsychotic drugs generally worsen Parkinson's disease and block the actions of drugs used to treat the disorder)

– slowly developing tardive dyskinesia, often irreversible.

• Acute symptoms comprise involuntary movements, tremor and rigidity, and are probably the direct consequence of block of nigrostriatal dopamine receptors.

• Tardive dyskinesia comprises mainly involuntary movements of the face and limbs, appearing after months or years of antipsychotic treatment. It may be associated with proliferation of dopamine receptors in the corpus striatum. Treatment is generally unsuccessful.

• Incidence of acute dystonias and tardive dyskinesia is less with newer 'atypical' antipsychotics, and particularly low with clozapine, aripiprazole and zotepine.

Endocrine Effects

Dopamine, released in the median eminence by neurons of the tuberohypophyseal pathway (see Chs 32 and 38), acts physiologically via D_2 receptors to inhibit prolactin secretion. Blocking D_2 receptors by antipsychotic drugs can therefore increase the plasma prolactin concentration (Fig. 45.2), resulting in breast swelling, pain and lactation, which can occur in men as well as in women. As can be seen from Figure 45.2, the effect is maintained during chronic antipsychotic administration, without any habituation. Other less pronounced endocrine changes have also been reported, including a decrease of growth hormone secretion, but these, unlike the prolactin response, are believed to be relatively unimportant clinically.

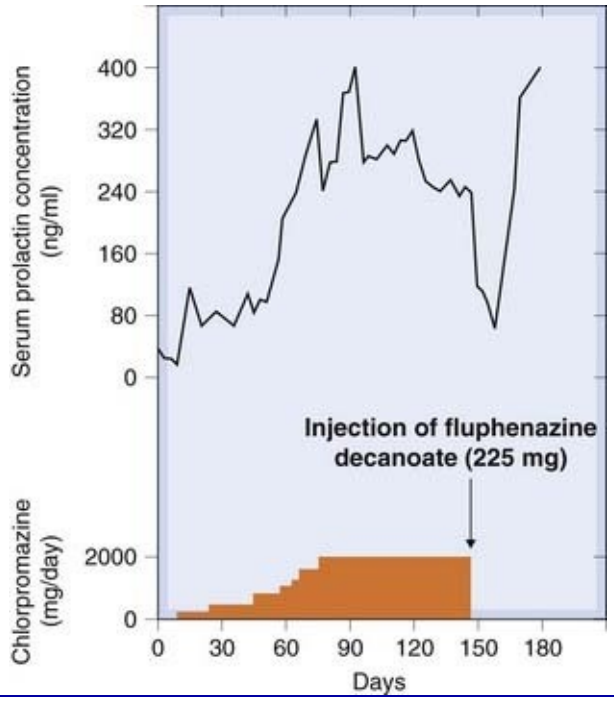


Fig. 45.2 Effects of antipsychotic drugs on prolactin secretion in a schizophrenic patient. When daily dosage with chlorpromazine was replaced with a depot injection of fluphenazine, the plasma prolactin initally dropped, because of the delay in absorption, and then returned to a high level.

(From Meltzer H Y et al. 1978 In: Lipton et al. (eds) Psychopharmacology. A generation in progress. Raven Press, New York.)

Other Unwanted Effects

Drowsiness and sedation, which tend to decrease with continued use, occur with many antipsychotic drugs. Antihistamine (H_1) activity is a property of some phenothiazine antipsychotics (e.g. **chlorpromazine** and **methotrimeprazine**) and contributes to their sedative and antiemetic properties (Ch. 38), but not to their antipsychotic action.

All antipsychotic drugs block a variety of receptors, particularly acetylcholine (muscarinic), histamine (H_1), noradrenaline (α) and 5-HT (Table 45.1).

While block of muscarinic receptors produces a variety of peripheral effects, including blurring of vision and increased intraocular pressure,

dry mouth and eyes, constipation and urinary retention (see Ch. 13), it may, however, also be beneficial in relation to extrapyramidal side effects (see above).

Blocking α-adrenoceptors causes *orthostatic hypotension* (see Ch. 14) but does not seem to be important for their antipsychotic action.

Weight gain is a common and troublesome side effect. Increased risk of diabetes and cardiovascular disease occurs with several atypical antipsychotic drugs. These effects are probably related to their antagonist actions at H_1, 5-HT and muscarinic receptors.

Various idiosyncratic and hypersensitivity reactions can occur, the most important being the following:

• *Jaundice*, which occurs with older phenothiazines such as **chlorpromazine**. The jaundice is usually mild, associated with elevated serum alkaline phosphatase activity (an 'obstructive' pattern), and disappears quickly when the drug is stopped or substituted by a chemically unrelated antipsychotic.

• *Leukopenia* and *agranulocytosis* are rare but potentially fatal, and occur in the first few weeks of treatment. The incidence of leukopenia (usually reversible) is less than 1 in 10 000 for most antipsychotic drugs, but much higher (1–2%) with **clozapine**, whose use therefore requires regular monitoring of blood cell counts. Provided the drug is stopped at the first sign of leukopenia or anaemia, the effect is reversible. **Olanzapine** appears to be free of this disadvantage.

• *Urticarial skin reactions* are common but usually mild. Excessive sensitivity to ultraviolet light may also occur.

• *Antipsychotic malignant syndrome* is a rare but serious complication similar to the malignant hyperthermia syndrome seen with certain

anaesthetics (see Ch. 40). Muscle rigidity is accompanied by a rapid rise in body temperature and mental confusion. It is usually reversible, but death from renal or cardiovascular failure occurs in 10–20% of cases.

Unwanted effects of antipsychotic drugs

• Important side effects common to many drugs are:

  – motor disturbances (see *Antipsychotic-induced motor disturbances* box)

  – endocrine disturbances (increased prolactin release)

  – these are secondary to dopamine receptor block.

• Sedation, hypotension and weight gain are common.

• Obstructive jaundice sometimes occurs with phenothiazines.

• Other side effects (dry mouth, blurred vision, hypotension, etc.) are due to block of other receptors, particularly muscarinic receptors and α-adrenoceptors.

• Some antipsychotic drugs cause agranulocytosis as a rare and serious idiosyncratic reaction. With clozapine, leukopenia is common and requires routine monitoring.

• Antipsychotic malignant syndrome is a rare but potentially dangerous idiosyncratic reaction.

Pharmacokinetic Aspects

Chlorpromazine, in common with other phenothiazines, is erratically absorbed after oral administration. Figure 45.3 shows the wide range of variation of the peak plasma concentration as a function of dosage in 14 patients. Among four patients treated at the high dosage level of 6–8 mg/kg, the variation in peak plasma concentration was nearly 90-fold; two showed marked side effects, one was well controlled and one showed no clinical response.

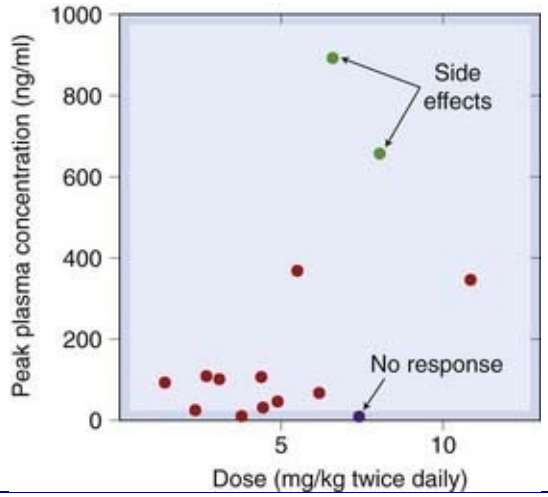


Fig. 45.3 Individual variation in the relation between dose and plasma concentration of chlorpromazine in a group of schizophrenic patients.

(Data from Curry S H et al. 1970 Arch Gen Psychiatry 22: 289.)

The relationship between the plasma concentration and the clinical effect of antipsychotic drugs is highly variable, and the dosage has to be adjusted on a trial-and-error basis. This is made even more difficult by the fact that at least 40% of schizophrenic patients fail to take drugs as prescribed. It is remarkably fortunate that the acute toxicity of antipsychotic drugs is slight, given the unpredictability of the clinical response.

The plasma half-life of most antipsychotic drugs is 15–30 h, clearance depending entirely on hepatic transformation by a combination of oxidative and conjugative reactions.

Most antipsychotic drugs can be given orally or in urgent situations by intramuscular injection. Slow-release (depot) preparations of many are available, in which the active drug is esterified with heptanoic or decanoic acid and dissolved in oil. Given as an intramuscular injection, the drug acts for 2–4 weeks, but initially may produce acute side effects. These preparations are widely used to minimise compliance problems.

Clinical Use and Clinical Efficacy

The major use of antipsychotic drugs is in the treatment of schizophrenia and acute behavioural emergencies, but they are also used to treat other conditions, such as deviant antisocial behaviour, motor tics and intractable hiccup. Their use to treat restlessness and agitation in the elderly is highly questionable. In addition, they are used as adjunct therapy in psychotic depression, bipolar disorder and mania. Some of the newer antipsychotic drugs (e.g. **sulpiride**) have been claimed to have specific antidepressant actions. Phenothiazines and related drugs are also useful as antiemetics (see Ch. 29). Minor uses include the treatment of Huntington's chorea (mainly **haloperidol**; see Ch. 39).

The clinical efficacy of antipsychotic drugs in enabling schizophrenic patients to lead more normal lives has been demonstrated in many controlled trials. The inpatient population (mainly chronic schizophrenics) of mental hospitals declined sharply in the 1950s and 1960s. The efficacy of the newly introduced antipsychotic drugs was a significant enabling factor, as well as the changing public and professional attitudes towards hospitalisation of the mentally ill.

Antipsychotic drugs, apart from their side effects, have two main shortcomings:

1 Not all schizophrenic patients respond to drug therapy. It is recommended to try **clozapine** in patients who are resistant to other antipsychotic drugs. The 30% of patients who do not respond are classed as 'treatment resistant' and present a major therapeutic problem. The reason for the difference between responsive and unresponsive patients is unknown at present, although there is some evidence (not conclusive) that polymorphisms within the family of dopamine and 5-HT receptors may be involved (see Basile et al., 2002).

2 While they control the positive symptoms (thought disorder, hallucinations, delusions, etc.) effectively, most are ineffective in relieving the negative symptoms (cognitive impairment, emotional flattening, social isolation).

The newer atypical antipsychotic drugs may overcome these shortcomings to some degree. However, a recent meta-analysis (Leucht et al., 2009) concluded that, of the atypical antipsychotic drugs examined, only **amisulpride**, **clozapine**, **olanzapine** and **risperidone** were better than first-generation antipsychotic drugs for overall efficacy. The other atypical drugs were not more efficacious than the first-generation drugs, even for negative symptoms.

Clinical uses of antipsychotic drugs

• *Behavioural emergencies* (e.g. violent patients with a range of psychopathologies including *mania*, *toxic delirium*, *schizophrenia* and others):

– antipsychotic drugs (e.g. **chlorpromazine**, **haloperidol**, **olanzepine**, **risperidone**) can rapidly control hyperactive psychotic states

– note that the intramuscular dose is lower than the oral dose of the same drug because of presystemic metabolism.

• *Schizophrenia*:

– many chronic schizophrenic patients are treated with first-generation antipsychotic drugs. Depot injections (e.g. **flupentixol decanoate**) may be useful for maintenance treatment when compliance with oral treatment is a problem

– **flupentixol** has antidepressant properties distinct from its antipsychotic action

– newer antipsychotic drugs (e.g. **amisulpride**, olanzapine, risperidone) are used if extrapyramidal symptoms are troublesome or if symptom control is inadequate

– **clozapine** can cause *agranocytosis* but is distinctively effective against 'negative' features of schizophrenia. It is reserved for patients whose condition remains inadequately

controlled despite previous use of two or more antipsychotic drugs, of which at least one is atypical. Blood count is monitored weekly for the first 18 weeks, and less frequently thereafter.

Future Developments

Preclinical and clinical studies have provided encouraging evidence that agonists of group II metabotropic glutamate receptors ($mGluR_2$ and $mGluR_3$; see Ch. 37) are effective in the treatment of the positive symptoms of schizophrenia (Patil et al., 2007). Furthermore, agonists at mGluR5 receptors may improve positive and negative symptoms as well as cognitive function. It may also be possible to enhance the action of endogenous glutamate at these receptors with positive allosteric modulator drugs. For more detailed information, see Conn et al. (2009).

References and Further Reading

General reading

tahl S.M. *Antipsychotics and mood stabilizers*, third ed. New York: Cambridge University Press; 2008. (*Highly readable, yet detailed, description of the biology of schizophrenia and of the mechanisms of action of the drugs used to treat the disorder*)

Pathogenesis of schizophrenia

raddock N., O'Donovan M.C., Owen M.J. The genetics of schizophrenia and bipolar disorder: dissecting psychosis. *J. Med. Genet.*. 2005;42:193-204.

arrison P.J. Schizophrenia: a disorder of development. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.*. 1997;7:285-289. (*Reviews persuasively the evidence favouring abnormal early brain development as the basis of schizophrenia*)

arrison P.J., Weinberger D.R. Schizophrenia genes, gene expression, and neuropathology: on the matter of their convergence. *Mol. Psychiatry*. 2005;10:40-68.

im K., Cullen T., Ongur D., Heckers S. Testing models of thalamic dysfunction in schizophrenia using neuroimaging. *J. Neural. Transm.*. 2006;113:907-928.

an Haren N.E., Hulshoff Pol H.E., Schnack H.G., *et al.* Focal gray matter changes in schizophrenia across the course of the illness: a 5-year follow-up study. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2007;32:2057-2066.

Dopamine, glutamate and 5-hydroxytryptamine

ridges T.M., Williams R., Lindsley C.W. Design of potent GlyT1 inhibitors: in vitro and in vivo profiles. *Curr. Opin. Mol. Ther.*. 2008;10:591-601. (*Discusses the potential of reducing glycine uptake as a means of enhancing activation of NMDA receptors*)

usatto G.F., Kerwin R.W. Perspectives on the role of serotonergic mechanisms in the pharmacology of schizophrenia. *J. Psychopharmacol.*. 1997;11:3-12. (*Assesses the evidence implicating 5-HT as well as dopamine in the action of antipsychotic drugs*)

onn P.J., Lindsley C.W., Jones C.K. Activation of metabotropic glutamate receptors as a novel approach for the treatment of schizophrenia. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2009;30:25-31. (*Describes an exciting new area in the development of novel antipsychotic drugs*)

oyle J.T. Glutamate and schizophrenia: beyond the dopamine hypothesis. *Cell. Mol. Neurobiol.*. 2006;26:365-384. (*Describes the emerging view of the importance of glutamate in schizophrenia*)

avitt D.C. Glutamate as a therapeutic target in psychiatric disorders. *Mol. Psychiatry*. 2004;9:984-997. (*Summarises the evidence favouring disturbed glutamate function in schizophrenia, including data from recent clinical trials*)

aruelle M., Abi-Dargham A., Gil R., *et al.* Increased dopamine transmission in schizophrenia: relationship to illness phases. *Biol. Psychiatry*. 1999;46:56-72. (*The first direct evidence for increased dopamine function as a cause of symptoms in schizophrenia*)

loghaddam B. Bringing order to the glutamate chaos in schizophrenia. *Neuron*. 2003;40:861-864. (*Reviews evidence from recent genetic findings, suggesting the abnormalities in glutamate transmission may play a key role in schizophrenia*)

atil S.T., Zhang L., Martenyi F., *et al.* Activation of mGlu2/3 receptors as a new approach to treat

schizophrenia: a randomized Phase 2 clinical trial. *Nat. Med.*. 2007;13:1102-1107.

eeman P. Dopamine receptors and the dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia. *Synapse*. 1987;1:133-152. (*Convincing and widely quoted review of role of dopamine receptors in schizophrenia*)

him S.S., Hammonds M.D., Kee B.S. Potentiation of the NMDA receptor in the treatment of schizophrenia: focused on the glycine site. *Eur. Arch. Psych. Clin. Neurosci.*. 2008;258:16-27. (*Review of recent clinical trials of agents that enhance the action of glycine at the NMDA receptor*)

oda M., Abi-Dargham A. Dopamine hypothesis of schizophrenia: making sense of it all. *Curr. Psychiatry Rep.*. 2007;9:329-336.

Antipsychotic drugs

asile V.S., Masellis M., Potkin S.G., Kennedy J.L. Pharmacogenomics in schizophrenia: the quest for individualized therapy. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*. 2002;11:2517-2530. (*Review of inconclusive evidence for association between clozapine responsiveness and gene polymorphisms*)

apur S., Seeman P. Does fast dissociation from the dopamine D_2 receptor explain the action of atypical antipsychotics? A new hypothesis. *Am. J. Psychiatry*. 2001;158:360-369. (*Suggests that differences in dissociation rates, rather than receptor selectivity profiles, may account for differing tendency of drugs to cause motor side effects*)

apur S., Arenovich T., Agid O., *et al.* Evidence for onset of antipsychotic effects within the first 24 hours of treatment. *Am. J. Psychiatry*. 2005;162:939-946.

eucht S., Busch R., Hamann J., Kissling W., Kane J.M. Early-onset hypothesis of antipsychotic drug action: a hypothesis tested, confirmed and extended. *Biol. Psychiatry*. 2005;57:1543-1549.

eucht S., Corves C., Arbter D., *et al.* Second-generation versus first-generation antipsychotic drugs for schizophrenia: a meta-analysis. *Lancet*. 2009;373:31-41. (*A comparison of the clinical effectivness of new and old antipsychotic drugs*)

gren S.O. The behavioural pharmacology of typical and atypical antipsychotic drugs. In: Csernasky J.G., editor. *Antipsychotics. Handbook of experimental pharmacology*, vol. 120. Berlin:

Springer; 1996.

emington G. Understanding antipsychotic ‘atypicality’: a clinical and pharmacological moving target. *J. Psychiatry Neurosci.*. 2003;28:275-284. (*An informative critique of the basis on which antipsychotic drugs are classified*)

Extrapyramidal side effects

asey D.E. Tardive dyskinesia: pathophysiology. In: Bloom F.E., Kupfer D.J., editors. *Psychopharmacology: a fourth generation of progress*. New York: Raven Press, 1995.

lawans H.L., Tanner C.M., Goetz C.G. Epidemiology and pathophysiology of tardive dyskinesias. *Adv. Neurol.*. 1988;49:185-197.

isani A., Bernardi G., Ding J., Surmeier D.J. Re-emergence of striatal cholinergic interneurons in movement disorders. *Trends Neurosci.*. 2007;30:545-553.

46

Antidepressant drugs

Overview

Depression is an extremely common psychiatric condition, about which a variety of neurochemical theories exist, and for which a corresponding variety of different types of drug are used in treatment. It is a field in which therapeutic empiricism has led the way, with mechanistic understanding tending to lag behind, part of the difficulty being that animal models cannot address the mood changes that define the human condition. In this chapter, we discuss the current understanding of the nature of the disorder, and describe the major drugs that are used to treat it.

The Nature of Depression

Depression is the most common of the *affective disorders* (defined as disorders of mood rather than disturbances of thought or cognition); it may range from a very mild condition, bordering on normality, to severe (psychotic) depression accompanied by hallucinations and delusions. Worldwide, depression is a major cause of disability and premature death. In addition to the significant suicide risk, depressed individuals are more likely to die from other causes, such as heart disease or cancer. Depression is a heterogeneous disorder with patients presenting with one or more core symptoms and depression is often associated with other psychiatric conditions including anxiety, eating disorders and drug addiction.

The symptoms of depression include emotional and biological components. Emotional symptoms include:

• low mood, excessive rumination of negative thought, misery, apathy and pessimism

• low self-esteem: feelings of guilt, inadequacy and ugliness

• indecisiveness, loss of motivation

• anhedonia, loss of reward.

Biological symptoms include:

• retardation of thought and action

• loss of libido

• sleep disturbance and loss of appetite.

There are two distinct types of depressive syndrome, namely *unipolar depression*, in which the mood changes are always in the same direction, and *bipolar affective disorder*, in which depression alternates with mania. Mania is in most respects exactly the opposite, with excessive exuberance, enthusiasm and self-confidence, accompanied by impulsive actions, these signs often being combined with irritability, impatience and aggression, and sometimes with grandiose delusions of the Napoleonic kind. As with depression, the mood and actions are inappropriate to the circumstances.

Unipolar depression is commonly (about 75% of cases) non-familial, clearly associated with stressful life events, and usually accompanied by symptoms of anxiety and agitation; this type is sometimes termed *reactive depression*. Other cases (about 25%, sometimes termed *endogenous depression*) show a familial pattern, unrelated to obvious external stresses, and with a somewhat different symptomatology. This

distinction is made clinically, but there is little evidence that antidepressant drugs show significant selectivity between these conditions.

Bipolar depression, which usually appears in early adult life, is less common and results in oscillating depression and mania over a period of a few weeks. It can be difficult to differentiate between mild bipolar depression and unipolar depression. Also, bipolar manic episodes can be confused with episodes of psychosis (see Ch. 45). There is a strong hereditary tendency, but no specific susceptibility genes have been identified either by genetic linkage studies of affected families, or by comparison of affected and non-affected individuals.

Depression cannot be attributed to altered neuronal activity within a single brain region. Brain imaging studies have indicated that the prefrontal cortex, amygdala and hippocampus may all be involved in different components of these disorders.

Theories of Depression

The Monoamine Theory

The main biochemical theory of depression is the monoamine hypothesis, first proposed by Schildkraut in 1965, which states that depression is caused by a functional deficit of the monoamine transmitters, noradrenaline and 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) at certain sites in the brain, while mania results from a functional excess. For reviews of the evolving status of the theory, see Maes & Meltzer (1995) and Manji et al. (2001).

The monoamine hypothesis grew originally out of associations between the clinical effects of various drugs that cause or alleviate symptoms of depression and their known neurochemical effects on monoaminergic

transmission in the brain. This pharmacological evidence, which is summarised in Table 46.1, gives general support to the monoamine hypothesis, although there are several anomalies. Attempts to obtain more direct evidence, by studying monoamine metabolism in depressed patients or by measuring changes in the number of monoamine receptors in postmortem brain tissue, have tended to give inconsistent and equivocal results, and the interpretation of these studies is often problematic, because the changes described are not specific to depression. Similarly, investigation by functional tests of the activity of known monoaminergic pathways (e.g. those controlling pituitary hormone release) in depressed patients have also given equivocal results.

Table 46.1 Pharmacological evidence supporting the monoamine hypothesis of depression

Drug(s)	Principal action	Effect in depressed patients
Tricyclic antidepressants	Block noradrenaline and 5-HT reuptake	Mood ↑
Monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors	Increase stores of noradrenaline and 5-HT	Mood ↑
Reserpine	Inhibits noradrenaline and 5-HT storage	Mood ↓
α-Methyltyrosine	Inhibits noradrenaline synthesis	Mood ↓ (calming of manic patients)
Methyldopa	Inhibits noradrenaline synthesis	Mood ↓
Electroconvulsive therapy	? Increases central nervous system responses to noradrenaline and 5-HT	Mood ↑
Tryptophan (5-hydroxytryptophan)	Increases 5-HT synthesis	Mood ? ↑ in some studies
Tryptophan depletion	Decreases brain 5-HT synthesis	Induces relapse in SSRI-treated patients

5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor.

The pharmacological evidence does not enable a clear distinction to be drawn between the noradrenaline and 5-HT theories of depression. Clinically, it seems that inhibitors of noradrenaline reuptake and of 5-HT reuptake are equally effective as antidepressants (see below), although individual patients may respond better to one or the other.

Other evidence in support of the monoamine theory is that agents known to block noradrenaline or 5-HT synthesis consistently reverse the therapeutic effects of antidepressant drugs that act selectively on these two transmitter systems (see Table 46.1).

Any theory of depression has to take account of the fact that the direct neurochemical effects of antidepressant drugs appear very rapidly (minutes to hours), whereas their antidepressant effects take weeks to develop. A similar situation exists in relation to antipsychotic drugs (Ch. 45) and some anxiolytic drugs (Ch. 43), suggesting that the secondary, adaptive changes in the brain, rather than the primary drug effect, are responsible for the clinical improvement. Rather than thinking of the monoamine deficiency as causing direct changes in the activity of putative 'happy' or 'sad' neurons in the brain, we should think of the monoamines as regulators of longer-term trophic effects, whose time course is paralleled by mood changes.

With improved neuroimaging methods for studying neurotransmitter function in the living human brain, as described in Chapter 36, our understanding of the causes of depression and how drugs can alleviate depression should improve.

Neuroendocrine Mechanisms

Various attempts have been made to test for a functional deficit of monoamine pathways in depression. Hypothalamic neurons controlling

pituitary function receive noradrenergic and 5-HT inputs, which control the discharge of these cells. Hypothalamic cells release corticotrophin-releasing hormone (CRH), which stimulates pituitary cells to secrete adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH), leading in turn to cortisol secretion. The plasma cortisol concentration is usually high in depressed patients, and it fails to respond with the normal fall when a synthetic steroid, such as **dexamethasone**, is given. This formed the basis of a clinical test, the *dexamethasone suppression test* (also used in the diagnosis of Cushing's syndrome; see Ch. 32). Other hormones in plasma are also affected, for example growth hormone concentration is reduced and prolactin is increased. While these changes are consistent with deficiencies in monoamine transmission, they are not specific to depressive syndromes.

Corticotrophin-releasing hormone is widely distributed in the brain and has behavioural effects that are distinct from its endocrine functions. Injected into the brain of experimental animals, CRH mimics some effects of depression in humans, such as diminished activity, loss of appetite and increased signs of anxiety. Furthermore, CRH concentrations in the brain and cerebrospinal fluid of depressed patients are increased. Therefore CRH hyperfunction, as well as monoamine hypofunction, may be associated with depression (see Holsboer, 1999). Raised CRH levels are associated with stress and, in many cases, depression is preceded by periods of chronic stress.

Trophic Effects and Neuroplasticity

It has been suggested that lowered levels of brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) or malfunction of its receptor, TrkB, plays a significant role in the pathology of this condition. Depressive behaviour is often associated with a reduction in BDNF expression and treatment with

antidepressants elevates BDNF levels.

Changes in glutamatergic neurotransmission may also be involved in depression. Sufferers from depression have been shown to have elevated cortical levels of glutamate. Antidepressant treatment may reduce glutamate release and depress NMDA receptor function. The effects of antidepressants on activity-induced long-term potentiation (LTP; see Ch. 37) at hippocampal glutamatergic synapses is complex—both depression and facilitation have been observed and may occur with acute antidepressant administration, thus calling into question the relevance to the therapeutic response.

Another view (see Charney & Manji, 2004; Duman, 2004; Racagni & Popoli, 2008) is that major depression is associated with neuronal loss in the hippocampus and prefrontal cortex, and that antidepressant therapies of different kinds act by inhibiting or actually reversing this loss by stimulating neurogenesis.[1] This surprising idea is supported by various lines of evidence:

• Brain imaging and postmortem studies show ventricular enlargement as well as shrinkage of the hippocampus and prefrontal cortex of depressed patients, with loss of neurons and glia. Functional imaging reveals reduced neuronal activity in these regions.

• In animals, the same effect is produced by chronic stress of various kinds, or by administration of glucocorticoids, mimicking the increased cortisol secretion in human depression. Excessive glucocorticoid secretion in humans (Cushing's syndrome; see Ch. 32) often causes depression.

• In experimental animals, antidepressant drugs, or other treatments such as electroconvulsions (see later section on Brain Stimulation

Therapies), promote neurogenesis in these regions, and (as in humans) restore functional activity. Preventing hippocampal neurogenesis prevents the behavioural effects of antidepressants in rats (Santarelli et al., 2003).

• 5-HT and noradrenaline, whose actions are enhanced by many antidepressants, promote neurogenesis probably through activation of 5-HT_{1A} receptors and α_2 adrenoceptors, respectively. This effect may be mediated by BDNF.

• Exercise has also been shown to promote neurogenesis in animals and to be effective in some patients with mild to moderate depression.

[1]Neurogenesis (see Ch. 39)—the formation of new neurons from stem cell precursors—occurs to a significant degree in the adult hippocampus, and possibly elsewhere in the brain, contradicting the old dogma that it occurs only during brain development.

Figure 46.1 summarises the possible mechanisms involved. It should be stressed that these hypotheses are far from proven, but the diagram emphasises the way in which the field has moved on since the formulation of the monoamine hypothesis, suggesting a range of possible targets for the next generation of antidepressant drugs.[2]

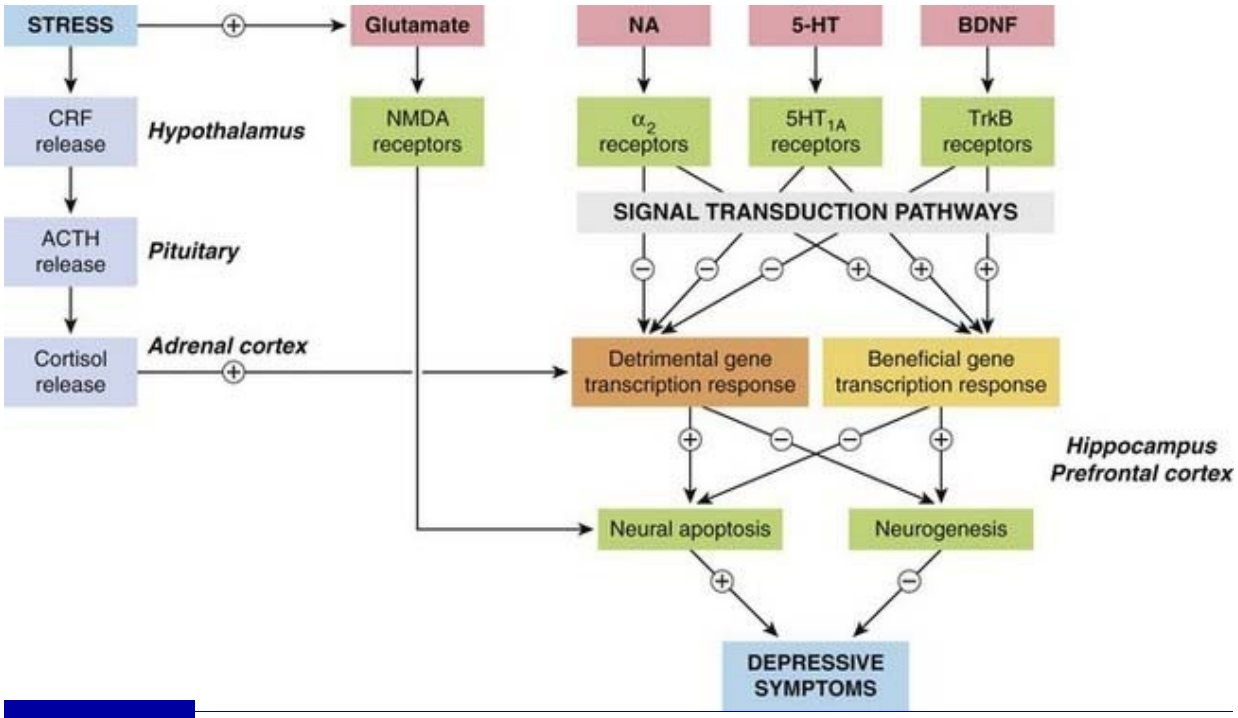


Fig. 46.1 Simplified diagram showing mechanisms believed to be involved in the pathophysiology of depression.

The main prodepressive pathways involve the hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal axis, which is activated by stress and in turn enhances the excitotoxic action of glutamate, mediated by NMDA receptors (see Ch. 37), and switches on the expression of genes that promote neural apoptosis in the hippocampus and prefrontal cortex. The antidepressive pathways involve the monoamines noradrenaline (NA) and 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT), which act on G-protein-coupled receptors, and the brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), which acts on a kinase-linked receptor (TrkB), switching on genes that protect neurons against apoptosis and also promote neurogenesis. For further detail, see Charney & Manji (2004). ACTH, adrenocorticotrophic hormone; CRF, corticotrophin-releasing factor.

Monoamine theory of depression

• The monoamine theory, first proposed in 1965, suggests that depression results from functionally deficient monoaminergic (noradrenaline and/or 5-hydroxytryptamine) transmission in the central nervous system.

• The theory is based on the ability of known antidepressant drugs (tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors) to facilitate monoaminergic transmission, and of drugs

such as **reserpine** to cause depression.

• Biochemical studies on depressed patients do not clearly support the monoamine hypothesis in its simple form.

• An abnormally weak response of plasma cortisol to exogenous steroid (dexamethasone suppression test) is common in depression and may reflect defective monoamine transmission in the hypothalamus.

• Recent evidence suggests that depression may be associated with neurodegeneration and reduced neurogenesis in the hippocampus.

• Although the monoamine hypothesis in its simple form is insufficient as an explanation of depression, pharmacological manipulation of monoamine transmission remains the most successful therapeutic approach.

• Current approaches focus on other mediators (e.g. corticotrophin-releasing hormone), signal transduction pathways, growth factors, etc., but theories remain imprecise.

Antidepressant Drugs

Types of Antidepressant Drug

[2]Cynics may feel that these mechanisms, in which glutamate, neurotrophic factors, monoamines and steroids all interact to control neuronal death, survival and plasticity, are being invoked just as enthusiastically to account for almost every neurological and psychiatric disorder that you can think of, from stroke and Parkinson's disease to schizophrenia. 'Are we missing something,' they may feel, 'or are all these diseases basically the same? If so, why are their effects so different? Is this just a scientific bandwagon, or does this mechanistic convergence point to some fundamental principles of neural organisation?' We do not have the answers, of course, but it is a field

worth watching.

Antidepressant drugs fall into the following categories.

Inhibitors of monoamine uptake

• Selective serotonin (5-HT) reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) (e.g. **fluoxetine**, **fluvoxamine**, **paroxetine**, **sertraline**, **citalopram**, **escitalopram**).

• Classical tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) (e.g. **imipramine**, **desipramine**, **amitriptyline**, **nortriptyline**, **clomipramine**). These vary in their ability to inhibit noradrenaline and 5-HT reuptake.

• Newer, mixed 5-HT and noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors (e.g. **venlafaxine** [somewhat selective for 5-HT, although less so than SSRIs], **desvenlafaxine**, **duloxetine**, **milnacipran**).

• Noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors (e.g. **bupropion**, **reboxetine**, **atomoxetine**).

• The herbal preparation St John's wort, whose main active ingredient is hyperforin: it has similar clinical efficacy to most of the prescribed antidepressants. It is a weak monoamine uptake inhibitor but also has other actions.[3]

Monoamine receptor antagonists

• Drugs such as **mirtazapine**, **trazodone**, **mianserin** are non-selective and inhibit a range of amine receptors including α_2 adrenoceptors and 5-HT_2 receptors. They may also have weak effects on monoamine uptake.

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs)

• Irreversible, non-competitive inhibitors (e.g. **phenelzine**,

tranylcypromine), which are non-selective with respect to the MAO-A and -B subtypes.

• Reversible, MAO-A-selective inhibitors (e.g. **moclobemide**).

[3]Although relatively free of acute side effects, hyperforin activates cytochrome P450, resulting in loss of efficacy, with serious consequences, of several important drugs, including ciclosporin, oral contraceptives, some anti-HIV and anticancer drugs, and oral anticoagulants—underlining the principle that herbal remedies need to be used with the same degree of informed caution as any other drug.

Table 46.2 summarises the main features of these types of drug. Recent updates (Bosker et al., 2004; Pacher & Kecsemeti, 2004; Stahl, 2008) provide more detail. Mention should also be made of electroconvulsive therapy (ECT), electromagnetic therapy, deep brain stimulation and vagus stimulation, which are effective and usually act more rapidly than antidepressant drugs (see later section).

Table 46.2 Types of antidepressant drugs and their characteristics

Type and examples	Action(s)	Unwanted effects	Risk of overdose	Pharmacokinetics	Notes
Monoamine uptake inhibitors					
(1) SSRIs	All highly selective for 5-HT	Nausea, diarrhoea, agitation, insomnia, anorgasmia Inhibit metabolism of other drugs, so risk of interactions	Low risk in overdose but must not be used in combination with MAO inhibitors	—	—
Fluoxetine	As above	As above	As above	Long $t_{1/2}$ (24–96 h)	—
Fluvoxamine	As above	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 18–24 h	Less nausea than with other SSRIs
Paroxetine	As above	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 18–24 h	Withdrawal reaction
Citalopram	As above	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 24–36 h	—
Escitalopram	As above	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 24–36 h	Active *S* isomer of citalopram Fewer side effects
Sertraline	As above	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 24–36 h	—
(2) Classical TCA group	Inhibition of NA and 5-HT reuptake	Sedation Anticholinergic effects (dry mouth, constipation, blurred vision, urinary retention, etc.) Postural hypotension Seizures Impotence Interaction with CNS depressants (especially alcohol, MAO inhibitors)	Ventricular dysrhythmias High risk in combination with CNS depressants	—	'First-generation' antidepressants, still very widely used, although newer compounds generally have fewer side effects and lower risk with overdose
Imipramine	Non-selective Converted to desipramine	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 4–18 h	—
Desipramine	NA selective	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 12–24 h	—
Amitriptyline	Non-selective	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 12–24 h; converted to nortriptyline	Widely used, also for neuropathic pain (Ch. 41)
Nortriptyline	NA selective (slight)	As above	As above	Long $t_{1/2}$ (24–96 h)	Long duration, less sedative
Clomipramine	Non-selective	As above	As above	$t_{1/2}$ 18–24 h	Also used for anxiety disorders
(3) Other 5-HT/NA uptake inhibitors					
Venlafaxine	Weak non-selective NA/5-HT uptake inhibitor Also non-selective receptor-blocking effects	As SSRIs Withdrawal effects common and troublesome if doses are missed	Safe in overdose	Short $t_{1/2}$ (~5 h) Converted to desvenlafaxine which inhibits NA uptake	Claimed to act more rapidly than other antidepressants, and to work better in 'treatment-resistant' patients Usually classed as non-selective NA/5-HT uptake blocker, although in vitro data show selectivity for 5-HT
Duloxetine	Potent non-selective NA/5-HT uptake inhibitor No action on monoamine receptors	Fewer side effects than venlafaxine Sedation, dizziness, nausea Sexual dysfunction	See SSRIs above	$t_{1/2}$ ~14 h	Also used to treat urinary incontinence (see Ch. 28) and for anxiety disorders
Milnacipran	NA-selective (slight)	Fewer than TCAs	See SSRIs above	$t_{1/2}$ ~8 h	Unlike SSRIs, does not depress sexual function
St John's wort (active principle: hyperforin)	Weak non-selective NA/5-HT uptake inhibitor Also non-selective receptor-blocking effects	Few side effects reported Risk of drug interactions due to enhanced drug metabolism (e.g. loss of efficacy of ciclosporin, antidiabetic drugs, etc.)		$t_{1/2}$ ~12 h	Freely available as crude herbal preparation Similar efficacy to other antidepressants, with fewer acute side effects but risk of serious drug interactions
NA-selective inhibitors					
Bupropion	Selective inhibitor of NA over 5-HT uptake but also inhibits dopamine uptake Converted to active metabolites (e.g. radafaxine)	Headache, dry mouth, agitation, insomnia	Seizures at high doses	$t_{1/2}$ ~12 h Plasma half-life ~20 h	Used mainly in depression associated with anxiety Slow-release formulation used to treat nicotine dependence (Ch. 48)
Maprotiline	Selective NA uptake inhibitor	As TCAs; no significant advantages	As TCAs	Long $t_{1/2}$ ~40 h	No significant advantages over TCAs
Reboxetine	Selective NA uptake inhibitor	Dizziness Insomnia Anticholinergic effects	Safe in overdose (low risk of cardiac dysrhythmia)	$t_{1/2}$ ~12 h	Less effective than TCAs The related drug atomoxetine now used mainly to treat ADHD (Ch. 47)
(4) Monoamine receptor antagonists					
Mirtazapine	Blocks α_2, 5-HT_{2C} and 5-HT_3 receptors	Dry mouth Sedation Weight gain	No serious drug interactions	$t_{1/2}$ 20–40 h	Claimed to have faster onset of action than other antidepressants
Trazodone	Blocks 5-HT_{2A} and 5-HT_{2C} receptors as well as H_1 receptors Weak 5-HT uptake inhibitor (enhances NA/5-HT release)	Sedation Hypotension Cardiac dysrhythmias	Safe in overdose	$t_{1/2}$ 6–12 h	Nefazodone is similar

Type and examples	Action(s)	Unwanted effects	Risk of overdose	Pharmacokinetics	Notes
Mianserin	Blocks α_1, α_2, 5-HT_{2A} and H_1 receptors	Milder antimuscarinic and cardiovascular effects than TCAs Agranulocytosis, aplastic anaemia	—	$t_{1/2}$ 10–35 h	Blood count advised in early stages of use
MAO inhibitors					
	Inhibit MAO-A and/or MAO-B Earlier compounds have long duration of action due to covalent binding to enzyme				
Phenelzine	Non-selective	'Cheese reaction' to tyramine-containing foods (see text) Anticholinergic side effects Hypotension Insomnia Weight gain Liver damage (rare)	Many interactions (TCAs, opioids, sympathomimetic drugs)—risk of severe hypertension due to cheese reaction	$t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h Long duration of action due to irreversible binding	—
Tranylcypromine	Non-selective	As phenelzine	As phenelzine	$t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h Long duration of action due to irreversible binding	—
Isocarboxazid	Non-selective	As phenelzine	As phenelzine	Long $t_{1/2}$ ~36 h	—
Moclobemide	MAO-A selective Short acting	Nausea, insomnia, agitation	Interactions less severe than with other MAO inhibitors; no cheese reactions reported	$t_{1/2}$ 1–2 h	Safer alternative to earlier MAO inhibitors

5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; ADHD, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder; CNS, central nervous system; MAO, monoamine oxidase; NA, noradrenaline; SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor; TCA, tricyclic antidepressant.

Types of antidepressant drugs

• Main types are:

– monoamine uptake inhibitors (tricyclic antidepressants, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, newer inhibitors of noradrenaline and 5-HT reuptake)

– monoamine receptor antagonists

– monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors.

• Monoamine uptake inhibitors act by inhibiting uptake of noradrenaline and/or 5-HT by monoaminergic nerve terminals.

• α_2 Adrenoceptor antagonists can indirectly elevate 5-HT release.

• MAO inhibitors inhibit one or both forms of brain MAO, thus increasing the cytosolic stores of noradrenaline and 5-HT in nerve terminals. Inhibition of type A MAO correlates with antidepressant activity. Most are non-selective; **moclobemide** is specific for MAO-A.

• All types of antidepressant drug appear to take at least 2 weeks to produce any beneficial effects, even though their pharmacological effects are produced immediately, indicating that

secondary adaptive changes are important.

• The most consistent adaptive change seen with different types of antidepressant drugs is downregulation of β-and α_2 adrenoceptors, as well as 5-HT_2 receptors. How this is related to therapeutic effect is not clear.

• Recent evidence suggests that antidepressants may act by increasing neurogenesis in the hippocampus and other brain areas.

Testing of Antidepressant Drugs

Animal Models

Progress in unravelling the neurochemical mechanisms is, as in so many areas of psychopharmacology, limited by the lack of good animal models of the clinical condition. There is no known animal condition corresponding to the inherited condition of depression in humans, but various procedures have been described that produce in animals behavioural states (withdrawal from social interaction, loss of appetite, reduced motor activity, etc.) typical of human depression (see Table 46.3 and review by Cryan & Slattery, 2007). The use of genetically modified mice to mimic various aspects of the disorder may provide interesting models (see Gardier, 2009). However, the similarity of these animal models to human depression is questionable.

Table 46.3 Animal models used to study depression

Model	Description
Forced swim test (Porsolt test)	Classical model for antidepressant efficacy. Rodents are placed in an inescapable container of water on two occasions. On the second test, acute antidepressant drugs increase the escape behaviour Provides good assessment of efficacy for monoaminergic antidepressant drugs. Effects are seen after acute treatment unlike the delayed effects seen in humans

	humans
Modified swim test	Same basic test as above but separates swimming versus climbing behaviour to dissociate between serotonergic and catecholaminergic activity
Tail suspension test	Primarily used for mice. The animal is suspended from the tail and the time to an immobile posture recorded
Learned helplessness	Rodents are exposed to repeated inescapable foot shock resulting in a failure to subsequently escape when able to Antidepressant drugs increase the number of escapes after conditioning. Acute effects with antidepressants are observed but not all animals develop the response
Olfactory bulbectomy	Removal of the olfactory bulbs in rats causes behavioural and neurochemical changes that reflect symptoms observed in depressed subjects. Responds to chronic antidepressant treatment
Maternal deprivation	Pups are removed from the dam for brief periods early postnatal which changes the maternal care of the offspring. The offspring go on to develop a phenotype that expresses behavioural, neurochemical and biochemical changes that reflect aspects of depression. Not all animals develop these changes
Chronic mild stress	Animals are subjected to a sequence of stressors over a period of ~14 days. The stressors differ each day forming a period of unpredictable chronic stress. The animals develop a range of behavioural, neurochemical and biochemical changes that reflect symptoms seen in depression. Responds to chronic antidepressant treatment

Tests on Humans

Clinically, the effect of antidepressant drugs is usually measured by a subjective rating scale such as the 17-item Hamilton Rating Scale. Clinical depression takes many forms, and the symptoms vary between patients and over time. Quantitation is therefore difficult, and the many clinical trials of antidepressants have generally shown rather weak effects, after allowance for quite large placebo responses. There is also a high degree of individual variation, with 30–40% of patients failing to

show any improvement, possibly due to genetic factors (see later section on Clinical Effectiveness).

Mechanism of Action of Antidepressant Drugs

Chronic Adaptive Changes

Given the discrepancy between the fast onset of the neurochemical effects of antidepressant drugs and the slow onset of their antidepressant effects, efforts have been made to determine whether the therapeutic benefits arise from slow adaptive changes induced by chronic exposure to these drugs (Racagni & Popoli, 2008).

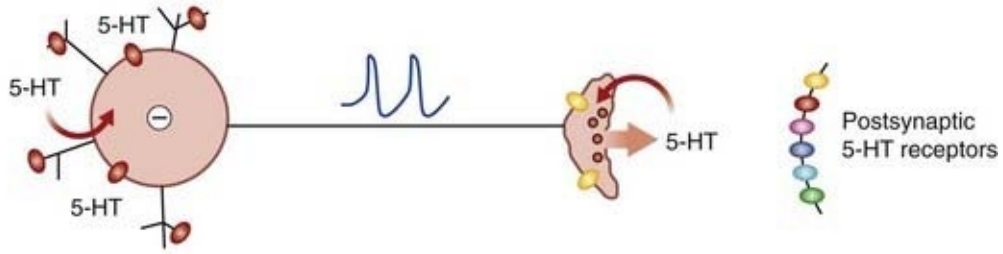
This approach led to the discovery that certain monoamine receptors, in particular β_1- and α_2 adrenoceptors, are consistently downregulated following chronic antidepressant treatment and, in some cases, by electroconvulsive therapy too. This can be demonstrated in experimental animals as a reduction in the number of binding sites, as well as by a reduction in the functional response to agonists (e.g. stimulation of cAMP formation by β-adrenoceptor agonists). Receptor downregulation probably also occurs in humans, because endocrine responses to **clonidine**, an α_2 adrenoceptor agonist, are reduced by long-term antidepressant treatment. However, the relevance of these findings to the antidepressant response is unclear. Loss of β-adrenoceptors as a factor in alleviating depression does not fit comfortably with theory, because β-adrenoceptor antagonists are not antidepressant.

On acute administration, one would expect inhibition of 5-HT uptake (e.g. by SSRIs) to increase the level of 5-HT in the synapse by inhibiting reuptake into the nerve terminals. However, the increase in synaptic 5-HT levels has been observed to be less than expected. This is because increased activation of 5-HT_{1A} receptors on the soma and dendrites of 5-

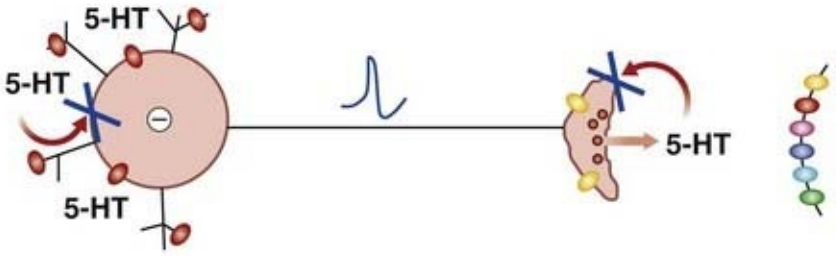
HT-containing raphe neurons (Fig. 46.2A) inhibits these neurons and thus reduces 5-HT release, thus cancelling out to some extent the effect of inhibiting reuptake into the terminals. On prolonged drug treatment, the elevated level of 5-HT in the somatodendritic region desensitises the 5-HT_{1A} receptors, reducing their inhibitory effect on 5-HT release from the nerve terminals.

Ⓐ

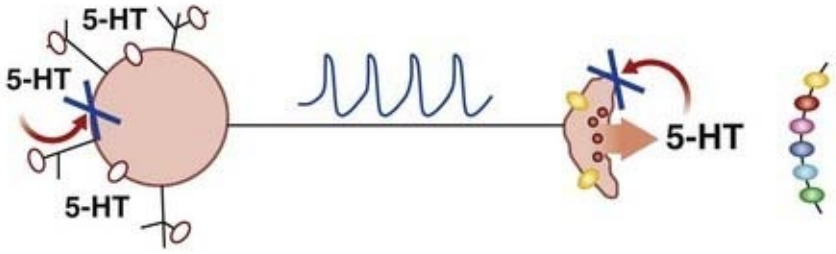
Absence



Acute 5-HT reuptake inhibition



Chronic 5-HT reuptake inhibition





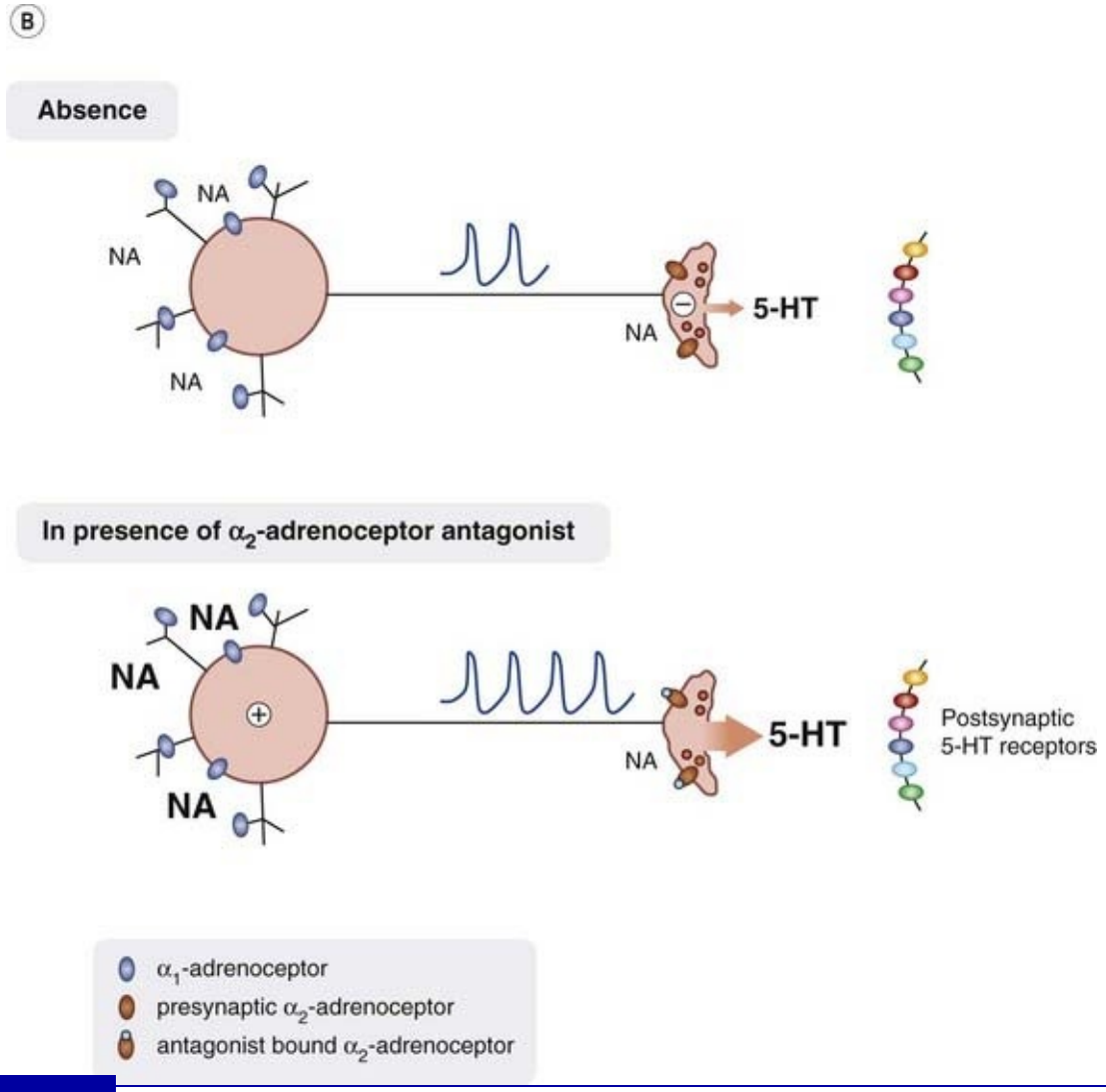


Fig. 46.2 Control of 5-HT release.

[**A**] 5-HT release is controlled by the inhibitory action of 5-HT on somatodendritic 5-HT$_{1A}$ receptors. Acute inhibition of 5-HT reuptake results in increased extracellular levels of 5-HT but this increases somatodendritic 5-HT$_{1A}$ receptor-mediated inhibition, hence synaptic 5-HT levels do not rise as much as expected. 5-HT$_{1A}$ receptors eventually desensitise, resulting in reduced inhibition and thus greater 5-HT release. [**B**] 5-HT release is controlled by both an excitatory action of noradrenaline (NA) on somatodendritic α_1-adrenoceptors and an inhibitory action on α_2 adrenoceptors on serotonergic nerve terminals. Block of α_2 adrenoceptors located on noradrenergic neurons (not shown) enhances noradrenaline release resulting in further excitation of serotonergic neurons, while block of α_2 adrenoceptors on serotonergic neurons removes presynaptic inhibition and thus 5-HT release is enhanced.

The need to desensitise somatodendritic 5-HT$_{1A}$ receptors could thus

explain the slow onset of antidepressant action of 5-HT uptake inhibitors. Rather than reduce receptor function by desensitisation, it should be possible to produce the same effect simply by blocking the receptors with an antagonist. **Pindolol**, a non-selective β-adrenoceptor blocker, which also has affinity for 5-HT_{1A} receptors, has been used in conjunction with 5-HT uptake inhibitors to speed up the onset of antidepressant action (see Ballasteros & Callado, 2004). However, drugs with combined 5-HT_{1A} antagonism and SSRI properties have been developed but have not been found to be effective in man, perhaps because they block both 5-HT_{1A} autoreceptors and postsynaptic 5-HT_{1A} receptors, the latter effect occluding the beneficial effect of the former.

Noradrenergic Control of 5-HT Release

Block of presynaptic α_2 autoreceptors on noradrenergic nerve terminals throughout the CNS will reduce the negative feedback from released noradrenaline and thus enhance further noradrenaline release (see Chs 14 and 36). In addition, α_2 adrenoceptor antagonists can indirectly enhance 5-HT release. This can occur in several ways (see Fig. 46.2B):

- block of inhibitory α_2 heteroreceptors on 5-HT-containing nerve terminals

- block of α_2 autoreceptors on noradrenergic nerve terminals innervating the cell bodies of 5-HT-containing neurons in the dorsal raphe. The enhanced noradrenaline release will activate excitatory postsynaptic α_1 receptors on the 5-HT-containing neurons, enhancing action potential firing and thus subsequently increasing 5-HT release.

The effect of α_2 adrenoceptor antagonists on synaptic noradrenaline and 5-HT levels would be rapid in onset and so these changes must somehow induce other, slower adaptive responses that give rise to the

slowly developing antidepressant effects.

Gene Expression and Neurogenesis

More recently, interest has centred on intracellular signalling pathways, changes in gene expression and neurogenesis. Much attention has been focused on how antidepressants may activate the transcription factor, CREB, a cAMP response element binding protein (see Ch. 48). The role of other transcription factors such as those of the Fos family and NF-κB have been less extensively studied. As described above, several antidepressant drugs appear to promote neurogenesis in the hippocampus, a mechanism that could account for the slow development of the therapeutic effect. The role of raised synaptic noradrenaline and 5-HT levels in inducing changes in gene expression and neurogenesis, and the mechanisms involved, await further elucidation.

Monoamine Uptake Inhibitors

Selective 5-Hydroxytryptamine Uptake Inhibitors

Drugs of this type (often termed *selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors* or SSRIs) include **fluoxetine**, **fluvoxamine**, **paroxetine**, **citalopram**, **escitalopram** and **sertraline** (see Table 46.2). They are the most commonly prescribed group of antidepressants. As well as showing selectivity with respect to 5-HT over noradrenaline uptake (Fig. 46.3), they are less likely than TCAs to cause anticholinergic side effects and are less dangerous in overdose. In contrast to MAOIs, they do not cause 'cheese reactions'. They are as effective as TCAs and MAOIs in treating depression of moderate degree, but probably less effective than TCAs in treating severe depression. They are also used to treat anxiety disorders (see Ch. 43).

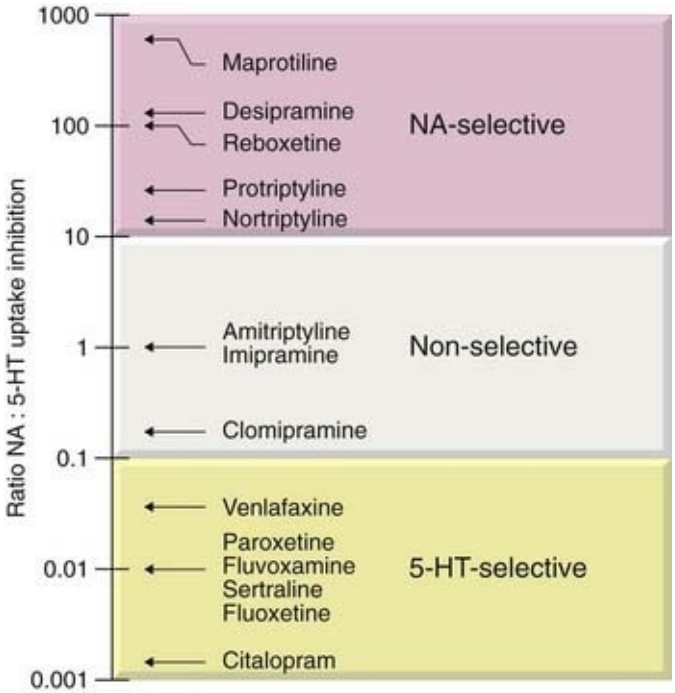


Fig. 46.3 Selectivity of inhibition of noradrenaline and 5-hydroxytryptamine uptake by various antidepressants.

Individual patients may respond more favourably to one SSRI than another. This may reflect other, pharmacological properties of each individual drug as none is devoid of other actions. Fluoxetine has 5-HT_{2C} antagonist activity, a property it shares with other non-SSRI antidepressants such as **mirtazapine**. This may also contribute to its therapeutic effect in the treatment of anorexia and bulimia. Sertraline is a weak inhibitor of dopamine uptake. Escitalopram is the *S* isomer of racemic citalopram. It lacks the antihistamine and CYP2D6 inhibitory properties of the *R* isomer.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

The SSRIs are well absorbed, and most have plasma half-lives of 18–24 h (fluoxetine is longer acting: 24–96 h). The delay of 2–4 weeks before the therapeutic effect develops is similar to that seen with other antidepressants. Paroxetine and fluoxetine are not used in combination

with TCAs, whose hepatic metabolism they inhibit through an interaction with CYP2D6, for fear of increasing TCA toxicity.

Unwanted effects

Common side effects include nausea, anorexia, insomnia, loss of libido and failure of orgasm.[4] Some of these unwanted effects result from the enhanced stimulation of postsynaptic 5-HT receptors as a result of the drugs increasing the levels of extracellular 5-HT. This can be either stimulation of the wrong type of 5-HT receptor (e.g. 5-HT_2, 5-HT_3 and 5-HT_4 receptors) or stimulation of the same receptor that gives therapeutic benefit (e.g. postsynaptic 5-HT_{1A} receptors) but in the wrong brain region (i.e. enhanced stimulation of 5-HT receptors can result in both therapeutic and adverse responses).

[4]Thus, conversely, SSRIs can be used to treat premature ejaculation.

In combination with MAOIs, SSRIs can cause a 'serotonin syndrome' characterised by tremor, hyperthermia and cardiovascular collapse, from which deaths have occurred.

There have been reports of increased aggression, and occasionally violence, in patients treated with fluoxetine, but these have not been confirmed by controlled studies. The use of SSRIs is not recommended for treating depression in children under 18, in whom efficacy is doubtful and adverse effects, including excitement, insomnia and aggression in the first few weeks of treatment, may occur. The possibility of increased suicidal ideation is a concern in this age group (see below).

Despite the apparent advantages of 5-HT uptake inhibitors over TCAs in terms of side effects, the combined results of many trials show little overall difference in terms of patient acceptability (Song et al., 1993; Cipriani et al., 2009).

5-HT uptake inhibitors are used in a variety of other psychiatric disorders, as well as in depression, including anxiety disorders and obsessive compulsive disorder (see Ch. 43).

Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs)

• Examples include **fluoxetine**, **fluvoxamine**, **paroxetine**, **sertraline**, **citalopram**, **escitalopram**.

• Antidepressant actions are similar in efficacy and time course to TCAs.

• Acute toxicity (especially cardiotoxicity) is less than that of MAOIs or TCAs, so overdose risk is reduced.

• Side effects include nausea, insomnia and sexual dysfunction. SSRIs are less sedating and have fewer antimuscarinic side effects than the older TCAs.

• No food reactions, but dangerous 'serotonin reaction' (hyperthermia, muscle rigidity, cardiovascular collapse) can occur if given with MAOIs.

• There is concern about the use of SSRIs in children and adolescents, due to reports of an increase in suicidal thoughts on starting treatment.

• Also used for some other psychiatric indications, *e.g.* anxiety.

Tricyclic Antidepressant Drugs

Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs; **imipramine**, **desipramine**, **amitriptyline**, **nortriptyline**, **clomipramine**) are still widely used. They are, however, far from ideal in practice, and it was the need for drugs that act more quickly and reliably, produce fewer side effects and are less hazardous in overdose that led to the introduction of newer 5-HT reuptake inhibitors and other antidepressants.

TCAs are closely related in structure to the phenothiazines (Ch. 45)

and were initially synthesised (in 1949) as potential antipsychotic drugs. Several are tertiary amines, with two methyl groups attached to the basic nitrogen atom. They are quite rapidly demethylated in vivo (Fig. 46.4) to the corresponding secondary amines (e.g. imipramine to desipramine, amitriptyline to nortriptyline), which are themselves active and may be administered as drugs in their own right. Other tricyclic derivatives with slightly modified bridge structures include **doxepin**. The pharmacological differences between these drugs are not very great and relate mainly to their side effects, which are discussed below.

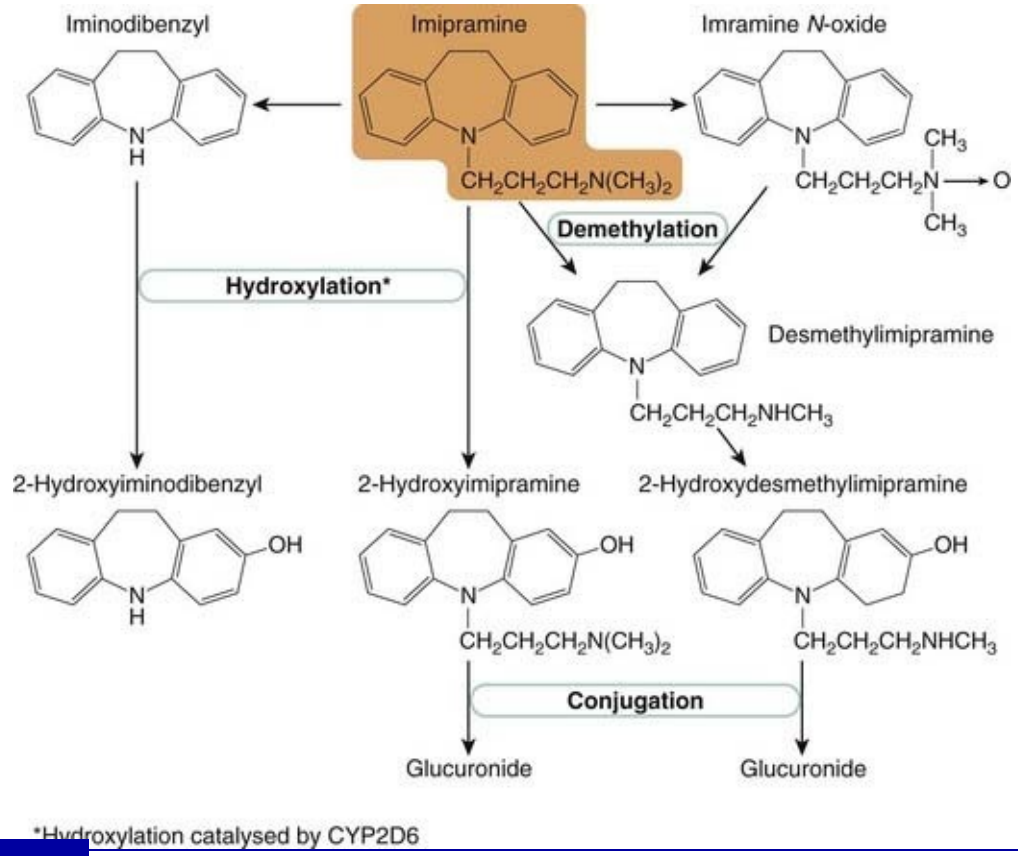


Fig. 46.4 Metabolism of imipramine, which is typical of that of other tricyclic antidepressants.

The hydroxylating enzyme, CYP2D6, is subject to genetic polymorphism, which may account for individual variation in response to tricyclic antidepressants (see Ch. 11).

TCAs are also used to treat neuropathic pain (see Ch. 41).

Mechanism of action

As discussed above, the main immediate effect of TCAs is to block the uptake of amines by nerve terminals, by competition for the binding site of the amine transporter (Ch. 14). Most TCAs inhibit noradrenaline and 5-HT uptake (Fig. 46.3) but have much less effect on dopamine uptake. It has been suggested that improvement of emotional symptoms reflects mainly an enhancement of 5-HT-mediated transmission, whereas relief of biological symptoms results from facilitation of noradrenergic transmission. Interpretation is made difficult by the fact that the major metabolites of TCAs have considerable pharmacological activity (in some cases greater than that of the parent drug) and often differ from the parent drug in respect of their noradrenaline/5-HT selectivity (Table 46.4).

Table 46.4 Inhibition of neuronal noradrenaline and 5-HT uptake by tricyclic antidepressants and their metabolites

Drug/metabolite	NA uptake	5-HT uptake
Imipramine	+ + +	+ +
Desmethylimipramine (DMI)	+ + + +	+
Hydroxy-DMI	+ + +	–
Clomipramine (CMI)	+ +	+ + +
Desmethyl-CMI	+ + +	+
Amitriptyline (AMI)	+ +	+ +
Nortriptyline (desmethyl-AMI)	+ + +	+ +
Hydroxynortriptyline	+ +	+ +

In addition to their effects on amine uptake, most TCAs affect other receptors, including muscarinic acetylcholine receptors, histamine

receptors and 5-HT receptors. The antimuscarinic effects of TCAs do not contribute to their antidepressant effects but are responsible for various side effects.

Unwanted effects

In non-depressed human subjects, TCAs cause sedation, confusion and motor incoordination. These effects occur also in depressed patients in the first few days of treatment, but tend to wear off in 1–2 weeks as the antidepressant effect develops.

Tricyclic antidepressants produce a number of troublesome side effects, mainly due to interference with autonomic control.

Atropine-like effects include dry mouth, blurred vision, constipation and urinary retention. These effects are strong with amitriptyline and much weaker with desipramine. Postural hypotension occurs with TCAs. This may seem anomalous for drugs that enhance noradrenergic transmission, and possibly results from an effect on adrenergic transmission in the medullary vasomotor centre. The other common side effect is sedation, and the long duration of action means that daytime performance is often affected by drowsiness and difficulty in concentrating.

TCAs, particularly in overdose, may cause ventricular dysrhythmias associated with prolongation of the QT interval (see Ch. 21). Usual therapeutic doses of TCAs increase, slightly but significantly, the risk of sudden cardiac death.

Interactions with other drugs

TCAs are particularly likely to cause adverse effects when given in conjunction with other drugs (see Ch. 56). They rely on hepatic metabolism by microsomal CYP enzymes for elimination, and this may

be inhibited by competing drugs (e.g. antipsychotic drugs and some steroids).

TCAs potentiate the effects of alcohol and anaesthetic agents, for reasons that are not well understood, and deaths have occurred as a result of this, when severe respiratory depression has followed a bout of drinking. TCAs also interfere with the action of various antihypertensive drugs (see Ch. 22), with potentially dangerous consequences, so their use in hypertensive patients requires close monitoring.

Acute toxicity

TCAs are dangerous in overdose, and were at one time commonly used for suicide attempts, which was an important factor prompting the introduction of safer antidepressants. The main effects are on the central nervous system and the heart. The initial effect of TCA overdosage is to cause excitement and delirium, which may be accompanied by convulsions. This is followed by coma and respiratory depression lasting for some days. Atropine-like effects are pronounced, including dry mouth and skin, mydriasis and inhibition of gut and bladder. Anticholinesterase drugs have been used to counter atropine-like effects but are no longer recommended. Cardiac dysrhythmias (see above) are common, and sudden death (rare) may occur from ventricular fibrillation.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

TCAs are all rapidly absorbed when given orally and bind strongly to plasma albumin, most being 90–95% bound at therapeutic plasma concentrations. They also bind to extravascular tissues, which accounts for their generally very large distribution volumes (usually 10–50 l/kg; see Ch. 8) and low rates of elimination. Extravascular sequestration, together with strong binding to plasma albumin, means that

haemodialysis is ineffective as a means of increasing drug elimination.

TCAs are metabolised in the liver by two main routes, N-*demethylation*, and *ring hydroxylation* (Fig. 46.4). Both the desmethyl and the hydroxylated metabolites commonly retain biological activity (see Table 46.4). During prolonged treatment with TCAs, the plasma concentration of these metabolites is usually comparable to that of the parent drug, although there is wide variation between individuals. Inactivation of the drugs occurs by glucuronide conjugation of the hydroxylated metabolites, the glucuronides being excreted in the urine.

The overall half-times for elimination of TCAs are generally long, ranging from 10–20 h for imipramine and desipramine to about 80 h for protriptyline. They are even longer in elderly patients. Therefore, gradual accumulation is possible, leading to slowly developing side effects. The relationship between plasma concentrations and the therapeutic effect is not simple. Indeed, a study on nortriptyline (Fig. 46.5) showed that too high a plasma concentration actually reduces the antidepressant effect, and there is a narrow 'therapeutic window'.

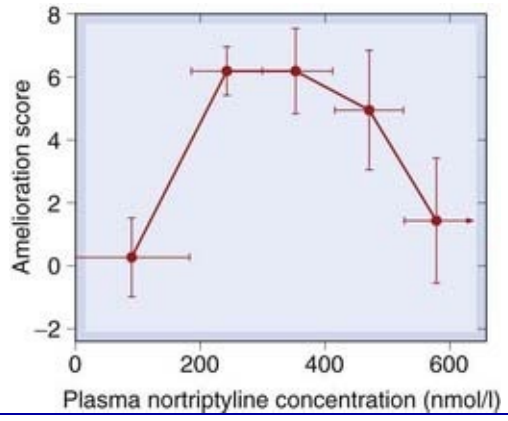


Fig. 46.5 'Therapeutic window' for nortriptyline.
The antidepressant effect, determined from subjective rating scales, is optimal at plasma concentrations between 200 nmol/l and 400 nmol/l, and declines at higher levels.

Tricyclic antidepressants

• Tricyclic antidepressants are chemically related to phenothiazines, and some have similar non-selective receptor-blocking actions.

• Important examples are **imipramine**, **amitriptyline** and **clomipramine**.

• Most are long acting, and they are often converted to active metabolites.

• Important side effects: sedation (H_1 block); postural hypotension (α-adrenoceptor block); dry mouth, blurred vision, constipation (muscarinic block); occasionally mania and convulsions. Risk of ventricular dysrhythmias.

• Dangerous in acute overdose: confusion and mania, cardiac dysrhythmias.

• Liable to interact with other drugs (e.g. alcohol, anaesthetics, hypotensive drugs and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs; should not be given with monoamine oxidase inhibitors).

• Also used to treat neuropathic pain.

Other Non-Selective Monoamine Uptake Inhibitors

Other relatively non-selective monoamine uptake inhibitors (often referred to as serotonin/noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors, or 'SNRIs') include **venlafaxine**, **desvenlafaxine**, **duloxetine** and **milnacipran** (see Table 46.2). These have become extensively used antidepressant drugs due to their perceived greater therapeutic efficacy and low side effect profiles.

Milnacipran has some selectivity for noradrenaline uptake over 5-HT uptake. As the dose of venlafaxine is increased, its efficacy also increases, which has been interpreted as demonstrating that its weak action to inhibit noradrenaline reuptake may add to its 5-HT uptake inhibition that occurs at lower doses, the combination providing

additional therapeutic benefit. They are all active orally; venlafaxine is available in a slow-release formulation that reduces the incidence of nausea. Venlafaxine, desvenlafaxine and duloxetine are effective in some anxiety disorders (see Ch. 43). Desvenlafaxine may be useful in treating some perimenopausal symptoms such as hot flushes and insomnia. Duloxetine and milnacipran are used in the treatment of neuropathic pain and fibromyalgia (see Ch. 41). Duloxetine is also used to treat urinary incontinence.

Venlafaxine and duloxetine are metabolised by CYP2D6. Venlafaxine is converted to **desvenlafaxine** which shows greater inhibition of noradrenaline reuptake. Unwanted effects of these drugs—largely due to enhanced activation of adrenoceptors—include headache, insomnia, sexual dysfunction, dry mouth, dizziness, sweating and decreased appetite. The most common symptoms in overdose are CNS depression, serotonin toxicity, seizure and cardiac conduction abnormalities. Duloxetine has been reported to cause hepatotoxicity and is contraindicated for patients with hepatic impairment.

Other monoamine uptake inhibitors



• **Venlafaxine** is a 5-HT uptake inhibitor, but less selective for 5-HT versus noradrenaline than SSRIs. It is metabolised to **desvenlafaxine** which is also antidepressant.

• **Duloxetine** inhibits NA and 5-HT uptake.

• **Bupropion** is a noradrenaline and dopamine uptake inhibitor.

• Generally similar to tricyclic antidepressants but lack major receptor-blocking actions, so fewer side effects.

• Less risk of cardiac effects, so safer in overdose than tricyclic antidepressants.

- Can be used to treat other disorders:
  - venlafaxine, desvenlafaxine and duloxetine—anxiety disorders
  - duloxetine and **milnacipran**—neuropathic pain and fibromyalgia
  - duloxetine—urinary incontinence.

Other Noradrenaline Uptake Inhibitors

Bupropion inhibits both noradrenaline and dopamine (but not 5-HT) uptake but, unlike cocaine and amphetamine (see Ch. 47), does not induce euphoria and has so far not been observed to have abuse potential. It is metabolised to active metabolites. It is also used to treat nicotine dependence (see Ch. 48). **Reboxetine** and **atomoxetine** are highly selective inhibitors of noradrenaline uptake but their efficacy in depression is less than that of TCAs. Atomoxetine is approved for the treatment of attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (see Ch. 47).

Monoamine Receptor Antagonists

Mirtazapine blocks not only α_2 adrenoreceptors but also other receptors, including 5-HT_{2C} receptors, which may contribute to its antidepressant actions. Block of α_2 adrenoceptors will not only increase noradrenaline release but will also enhance 5-HT release (see Fig 46.2B); however, by simultaneously blocking 5-HT_{2A} and 5-HT_3 receptors it will reduce unwanted effects mediated through these receptors (e.g. sexual dysfunction and nausea) but leave intact stimulation of postsynaptic 5-HT_{1A} receptors. It also blocks histamine H_1 receptors which may cause sedation. **Trazodone** combines 5-HT_{2A} and 5-HT_{2C} receptor antagonism with 5-HT reuptake inhibition.

Mianserin, another α_2 adrenoceptor antagonist that also blocks H_1, 5-HT_{2A} and α_1 adrenoreceptors, can cause bone marrow depression, requiring regular blood counts, so its use has declined in recent years.

Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitors

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) were among the first drugs to be introduced clinically as antidepressants but were largely superseded by other types of antidepressants, whose clinical efficacies were considered better and whose side effects are generally less than those of MAOIs. The main examples are **phenelzine**, **tranylcypromine** and **iproniazid**. These drugs cause irreversible inhibition of the enzyme and do not distinguish between the two main isozymes. The discovery of reversible inhibitors that show isozyme selectivity has rekindled interest in this class of drug. Although several studies have shown a reduction in platelet MAO activity in certain groups of depressed patients, there is no clear evidence that abnormal MAO activity is involved in the pathogenesis of depression.

Monoamine oxidase (see Ch. 14) is found in nearly all tissues, and exists in two similar molecular forms coded by separate genes (see Table 46.5). MAO-A has a substrate preference for 5-HT and is the main target for the antidepressant MAOIs. MAO-B has a substrate preference for phenylethylamine and dopamine. Type B is selectively inhibited by **selegiline**, which is used in the treatment of Parkinson's disease (see Ch. 39). Disruption of the MAO-A gene in mice causes increased brain accumulation of 5-HT and, to a lesser extent, noradrenaline, along with aggressive behaviour (Shih et al., 1999). A family has been reported with an inherited mutation leading to loss of MAO-A activity, whose members showed mental retardation and violent behaviour patterns. Most antidepressant MAOIs act on both forms of MAO, but clinical studies with subtype-specific inhibitors have shown clearly that antidepressant activity, as well as the main side effects of MAOIs, is associated with MAO-A inhibition. MAO is located intracellularly, mostly associated with mitochondria, and has two main functions:

1 Within nerve terminals, MAO regulates the free intraneuronal concentration of noradrenaline or 5-HT, and hence the releasable stores of these transmitters (see Ch. 14). It is not involved in the inactivation of released transmitter.

2 MAO is important in the inactivation of endogenous and ingested amines such as tyramine that would otherwise produce unwanted effects.

Table 46.5 Substrates and inhibitors for type A and type B monoamine oxidase

	Type A	Type B
Preferred substrates	Noradrenaline 5-Hydroxytryptamine	Phenylethylamine Benzylamine
Non-specific substrates	Dopamine Tyramine	Dopamine Tyramine
Specific inhibitors	Clorgyline Moclobemide	Selegiline
Non-specific inhibitors	Pargyline Tranylcypromine Isocarboxazid	Pargyline Tranylcypromine Isocarboxazid

Chemical aspects

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors are substrate analogues with a phenylethylamine-like structure, and most contain a reactive group (e.g. hydrazine, propargylamine, cyclopropylamine) that enables the inhibitor to bind covalently to the enzyme, resulting in a non-competitive and long-lasting inhibition. Recovery of MAO activity after inhibition takes several weeks with most drugs, but is quicker after **tranylcypromine**, which forms a less stable bond with the enzyme. **Moclobemide** acts as a reversible competitive inhibitor.

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors are not particularly specific in their actions, and inhibit a variety of other enzymes as well as MAO, including many enzymes involved in the metabolism of other drugs. This is responsible for some of the many clinically important drug interactions associated with MAOIs.

Pharmacological effects

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors cause a rapid and sustained increase in the 5-HT, noradrenaline and dopamine content of the brain, 5-HT being affected most and dopamine least. Similar changes occur in peripheral tissues such as heart, liver and intestine, and increases in the plasma concentrations of these amines are also detectable. Although these increases in tissue amine content are largely due to accumulation within neurons, transmitter release in response to nerve activity is not increased. In contrast to the effect of TCAs, MAOIs do not increase the response of peripheral organs, such as the heart and blood vessels, to sympathetic nerve stimulation. The main effect of MAOIs is to increase the cytoplasmic concentration of monoamines in nerve terminals, without greatly affecting the vesicular stores that form the pool that is releasable by nerve stimulation. The increased cytoplasmic pool results in an increased rate of spontaneous leakage of monoamines, and also an increased release by indirectly acting sympathomimetic amines such as amphetamine and tyramine (see Ch. 14 and Fig. 14.8). Inhibition of MAO increases the proportion that escapes and thus enhances the response. Tyramine thus causes a much greater rise in blood pressure in MAOI-treated animals than in controls. This mechanism is important in relation to the cheese reaction produced by MAOIs in humans (see later section).

In normal human subjects, MAOIs cause an immediate increase in

motor activity, and euphoria and excitement develop over the course of a few days. This is in contrast to TCAs, which cause only sedation and confusion when given to non-depressed subjects. The effects of MAOIs on amine metabolism develop rapidly, and the effect of a single dose lasts for several days. There is a clear discrepancy, as with SSRIs and TCAs, between the rapid biochemical response and the delayed antidepressant effect.

Unwanted effects and toxicity

Many of the unwanted effects of MAOIs result directly from MAO inhibition, but some are produced by other mechanisms.

Hypotension is a common side effect; indeed, pargyline was at one time used as an antihypertensive drug. One possible explanation for this effect—the opposite of what might have been expected—is that amines such as dopamine or octopamine accumulate within peripheral sympathetic nerve terminals and displace noradrenaline from the storage vesicles, thus reducing noradrenaline release associated with sympathetic activity.

Excessive central stimulation may cause tremors, excitement, insomnia and, in overdose, convulsions.

Increased appetite, leading to weight gain, can be so extreme as to require the drug to be discontinued.

Atropine-like side effects (dry mouth, blurred vision, urinary retention, etc.) are common with MAOIs, although they are less of a problem than with TCAs.

MAOIs of the hydrazine type (e.g. phenelzine and iproniazid) produce, very rarely (less than 1 in 10 000), severe hepatotoxicity, which seems to be due to the hydrazine moiety of the molecule. Their use in patients

with liver disease is therefore unwise.

Interaction with other drugs and foods

Interaction with other drugs and foods is the most serious problem with MAOIs and is the main factor that caused their clinical use to decline. The special advantage claimed for the new reversible MAOIs, such as moclobemide, is that these interactions are reduced.

The cheese reaction is a direct consequence of MAO inhibition and occurs when normally innocuous amines (mainly tyramine) produced during fermentation are ingested. Tyramine is normally metabolised by MAO in the gut wall and liver, and little dietary tyramine reaches the systemic circulation. MAO inhibition allows tyramine to be absorbed, and also enhances its sympathomimetic effect, as discussed above. The result is acute hypertension, giving rise to a severe throbbing headache and occasionally even to intracranial haemorrhage. Although many foods contain some tyramine, it appears that at least 10 mg of tyramine needs to be ingested to produce such a response, and the main danger is from ripe cheeses and from concentrated yeast products such as Marmite. Administration of indirectly acting sympathomimetic amines (e.g. **ephedrine**—a nasal decongestant—or amphetamine—a drug of abuse) also causes severe hypertension in patients receiving MAOIs; directly acting agents such as noradrenaline (used, for example, in conjunction with local anaesthetics; see Ch. 42) are not hazardous. Moclobemide, a specific MAO-A inhibitor, does not cause the cheese reaction, probably because tyramine can still be metabolised by MAO-B.

Hypertensive episodes have been reported in patients given TCAs and MAOIs simultaneously. The probable explanation is that inhibition of noradrenaline reuptake further enhances the cardiovascular response to dietary tyramine, thus accentuating the cheese reaction. This

combination of drugs can also produce excitement and hyperactivity.

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors can interact with **pethidine** (see Ch. 41) to cause severe hyperpyrexia, with restlessness, coma and hypotension. The mechanism is uncertain, but it is likely that an abnormal pethidine metabolite is produced because of inhibition of demethylation.

Other antidepressant drugs

• **Mirtazapine** blocks α_2 adrenoceptors and 5-HT_{2C} receptors, enhancing noradrenaline and 5-HT release.

• Mirtazapine may act more rapidly than other antidepressants, and causes less nausea and sexual dysfunction than SSRIs.

• **Trazodone** blocks 5-HT_{2A} and 5-HT_{2C} receptors and blocks 5-HT reuptake

• **Mianserin** blocks H_1, 5-HT_{2A} and α_1 receptors. Use is declining because of risk of bone marrow depression. Regular blood counts are advisable.

• Cardiovascular side effects of these drugs are fewer than those of tricyclic antidepressants

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs)

• Main examples are **phenelzine**, **tranylcypromine**, **isocarboxazid** (irreversible, long-acting, non-selective between MAO-A and B) and **moclobemide** (reversible, short-acting, MAO-A selective).

• Long-acting MAOIs:

– main side effects: postural hypotension (sympathetic block); atropine-like effects (as with TCAs); weight gain; CNS stimulation, causing restlessness, insomnia, hepatotoxicity and neurotoxicity (rare)

– acute overdose causes CNS stimulation, sometimes convulsions

– 'cheese reaction', *i.e.* severe hypertensive response to tyramine-containing foods (e.g.

cheese, beer, wine, well-hung game, yeast or soy extracts). Such reactions can occur up to 2 weeks after treatment is discontinued.

• Interaction with other amines (e.g. **ephedrine** in over-the-counter decongestants, **clomipramine** and other TCAs) and some other drugs (e.g. **pethidine**) are also potentially lethal.

• Moclobemide is used for major depression and social phobia. Cheese reaction and other drug interactions are less severe and shorter lasting than with irreversible MAOIs.

• MAOIs are used much less than other antidepressants because of their adverse effects and serious interactions.

• They are indicated for major depression in patients who have not responded to other drugs.

Miscellaneous Agents

Methylfolate, given as a dietary supplement, may be effective in depressed individuals who have lowered folate levels.

Oestrogen which is known to elevate mood in perimenopausal women may also be of value for the treatment of postpartum depression. Its effectiveness in treating other forms of depression is unclear. In addition to its well documented hormonal actions in the body (see Ch. 34), it also has actions on monoaminergic, GABAergic and glutamatergic systems in the brain (see Chs 37 and 38).

Future Antidepressant Drugs

After a fallow period, there are now several promising new drugs in development (see Lodge & Li, 2008; Mathew et al., 2008). These can be classified broadly into the following:

• Drugs affecting monamine transmission, including drugs with one or more of the following properties—β_3-adrenoreceptor agonism, D_2

dopamine receptor agonism or antagonism, 5-HT_{1A} receptor agonism or partial agonism and 5-HT_{2A} receptor antagonism as well as dopamine, noradrenaline and 5-HT uptake inhibition.

• Drugs acting on ion channels. Rather surprisingly, agonists, partial agonists and antagonists at nicotinic receptors all appear to have antidepressant properties. The explanation may be that what is required is reduced receptor activation and that agonists induce receptor desensitisation and partial agonists inhibit endogenous acetylcholine. Interest in drugs acting at the NMDA receptor has been stimulated by the observation that a single dose of **ketamine** (see Ch. 40) has been reported to rapidly alleviate depression, an effect that lasts for days. AMPAkines, drugs that potentiate responses at the AMPA receptor (see Ch. 37), show efficacy in animal models. Other putative targets are P2X receptors, 5-HT_3 receptors and various potassium channels.

• Drugs acting at novel receptor targets—such as GRII cortisol receptor antagonists, melanocyte inhibiting factor (MIF-1) analogues, melatonin M_1/M_2 receptor agonists, NK_1 and NK_2 receptor antagonists.

Other avenues of research are into the development of compounds that act on the signal transduction pathways responsible for neurogenesis, neural plasticity and apoptosis.

Clinical uses of drugs in depression

• Mild depression is often best treated initially with non-drug measures, with antidepressant drugs being used in addition if the response is poor.

• The use of antidepressant drugs is advisable in the treatment of moderate to severe depression.

• The clinical efficacy of antidepressant drugs is limited, and varies between individuals.

Clinical trials have produced inconsistent results, because of placebo responses and spontaneous fluctuations in the level of depression.

• Different classes of antidepressant drugs have similar efficacy but different side effects.

• Choice of drug is based on individual aspects including concomitant disease (TCAs in particular have several indications) and treatment (MAOIs and TCAs cause important interactions), suicide risk and previous response to treatment. Other things being equal, an SSRI is preferred as these are usually better tolerated and are less dangerous in overdose.

• Antidepressant drugs take several weeks before taking effect, so decisions on dose increment or switching to another class should not be made precipitately. Use of MAOIs is by specialists.

• An effective regimen should be continued for at least 2 years.

• In urgent situations, specialist consideration should be given to possible use of electroconvulsive therapy.

• Anxiolytic (e.g. benzodiazepine, Ch. 43), or antipsychotic drugs (Ch. 45) are useful adjuncts in some patients.

Brain Stimulation Therapies

There are now a number of brain stimulation techniques being used or developed to treat depression. The most established are electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) and repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS). Brain stimulation treatments are often used as the therapeutic approach of last resort on patients who have not responded to antidepressant drugs.

ECT involves stimulation through electrodes placed on either side of the head, with the patient lightly anaesthetised, paralysed with a short-acting neuromuscular-blocking drug (e.g. **suxamethonium**; Ch. 13) so as to avoid physical injury, and artificially ventilated. Controlled trials

have shown ECT to be at least as effective as antidepressant drugs, with response rates ranging between 60% and 80%; it appears to be an effective treatment for severe suicidal depression and has the advantage of producing a fast-onset response. The main disadvantage of ECT is that it often causes confusion and memory loss lasting for days or weeks. TMS gives electrical stimulation without anaesthesia or convulsion and does not produce cognitive impairment (see Kirkcaldie et al., 1997).

The effect of ECT on experimental animals has been carefully analysed to see if it provides clues as to the mode of action of antidepressant drugs, but the clues it gives are enigmatic. 5-HT synthesis and uptake are unaltered, and noradrenaline uptake is somewhat increased (in contrast to the effect of TCAs). Decreased β-adrenoceptor responsiveness, both biochemical and behavioural, occurs with both ECT and long-term administration of antidepressant drugs, but changes in 5-HT-mediated responses tend to go in opposite directions (see Maes & Meltzer, 1995).

There have been reports that deep brain stimulation, which has also been used in the treatment of Parkinson's disease (see Ch. 39), in which the activity in a specific brain region is altered through surgically implanted electrodes, is effective in patients not responding to other treatments (see Mayberg et al., 2005). The effectiveness of another technique, vagal stimulation, in producing long-term benefit in depression is still unclear (see Grimm & Bajbouj, 2010).

Clinical Effectiveness of Antidepressant Treatments

The overall clinical efficacy of antidepressants has been established in many well-controlled clinical trials, although the degree of improvement may be limited. In long-term therapy, however, the remission rate can be as low as 30%. Moreover, it is clear that some patients recover spontaneously, and that 30–40% of patients fail to improve with drug

treatments. Although antidepressants produce significant benefit in patients with moderate or severe depression, their efficacy in mild cases is unclear. Controlled trials show there is little to choose in terms of overall efficacy between any of the drugs currently in use, although clinical experience suggests that individual patients may, for unknown reasons, respond better to one drug than to another.

Pharmacogenetic factors

▼ The individual variation in response to antidepressants may be partly due to genetic factors, as well as to heterogeneity of the clinical condition. Two genetic factors have received particular attention, namely:

1 polymorphism of the cytochrome P450 gene, especially *CYP2D6* (see Kirchheiner et al., 2004) which is responsible for hydroxylation of TCAs

2 polymorphism of monoamine transporter genes (see Glatt & Reus, 2003).

Up to 10% of Caucasians possess a dysfunctional *CYP2D6* gene, and consequently may be susceptible to side effects of TCAs and various other drugs (see Ch. 11) that are metabolised by this route. The opposite effect, caused by duplication of the gene, is common in Eastern European and East African populations, and may account for a lack of clinical efficacy in some individuals. There is some evidence to suggest that responsiveness to SSRIs is related to polymorphism of one of the serotonin transporter genes (see Gerretsen & Pollock, 2008).

Although genotyping may prove to be a useful approach in the future to individualising antidepressant therapy, its practical realisation is still some way off.

Suicide and antidepressants

▼ Some years ago there were reports that antidepressants increased the risk of 'suicidality' in depressed patients, especially in children and adolescents (see Licinio & Wong, 2005). The term *suicidality* encompasses suicidal thoughts and planning as well as unsuccessful attempts; actual suicide, although one of the major causes of death in young people, is much rarer than suicidality. Clinical trials to determine the relationship between antidepressants and suicidality are difficult, because of the clear association between depression and suicide, and have given variable results, with some studies suggesting that suicidality may be increased during the first few weeks of antidepressant treatment, although not thereafter, and some showing a small increase in the risk of actual suicide (see Cipriani et al., 2005). Recent reviews of published data conclude that although antidepressants, including SSRIs, carry a small risk of inducing suicidal thoughts and suicide attempts in young people, the risk is less in older age groups (Hetrick et al., 2007; Möller et al., 2008; Barbui et al., 2009). There is no evidence to suggest that SSRIs carry any greater risk than other antidepressants. Furthermore, the risk has to be balanced against the beneficial effects of these drugs, not only on depression but also on anxiety, panic and obsessive-compulsive disorders (see Ch. 43).

Other Clinical Uses of Antidepressant Drugs

To some extent, the term 'antidepressant drug' is misleading as many of these drugs are now used to treat disorders other than depression. These include:

- neuropathic pain (e.g. **amytriptyline**, **nortryptyline**; Ch. 41)
- anxiety disorders (e.g. SSRIs, **venlafaxine**, **duloxetine**; Ch. 43)
- fibromyalgia (e.g. duloxetine, venlafaxine, SSRIs, TCAs; Ch. 41)

• bipolar depression (e.g. **fluoxetine** in conjunction with **olanzepine**; see below)

• obesity (e.g. **sibutramine**; Ch. 31)

• smoking cessation (e.g. **buproprion**; Ch. 48)

• attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (e.g. **atomoxetine**; Ch. 47).

Drug Treatment of Bipolar Depression

A range of drugs are now used to control the mood swings characteristic of manic-depressive (bipolar) illness. The major drugs are:

• **lithium**

• several antiepileptic drugs, *e.g.* **carbamazepine**, **valproate**, **lamotrogine**

• some atypical antipsychotic drugs, *e.g.* **olanzapine**, **risperidone**, **quetiapine**, **aripiprazole**.

When used to treat bipolar depression, lithium and antiepileptic agents are often referred to as *mood-stabilising* drugs.

Other agents that may have some beneficial effects in the treatment of bipolar depression are benzodiazepines (to calm, induce sleep and reduce anxiety), **memantine**, **amantadine**, and **ketamine**. The use of antidepressant drugs in bipolar depression is somewhat controversial. It is recommended that they are given in combination with an antimanic agent because, in some patients, they may induce or enhance mania.

Used prophylactically in bipolar depression, drugs prevent the swings of mood and thus can reduce both the depressive and the manic phases of the illness. They are given over long periods, and their beneficial effects take 3–4 weeks to develop. Given in an acute attack, they are

effective only in reducing mania, but not the depressive phase (although lithium is sometimes used as an adjunct to antidepressants in severe cases of unipolar depression).

Lithium

The psychotropic effect of lithium was discovered in 1949 by Cade, who had predicted that urate salts should prevent the induction by uraemia of a hyperexcitability state in guinea pigs. He found lithium urate to produce an effect, quickly discovered that it was due to lithium rather than urate, and went on to show that lithium produced a rapid improvement in a group of manic patients.

Antiepileptic and atypical antipsychotic drugs (see below) are equally effective in treating acute mania; they act more quickly and are considerably safer, so the clinical use of lithium is mainly confined to prophylactic control of manic-depressive illness. The use of lithium is declining.[5] It is relatively difficult to use, as plasma concentration monitoring is required, and there is the potential for problems in patients with renal impairment and for drug interactions, for example with diuretics (see Ch. 56). Lithium may have beneficial effects in neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease (see Ch. 39).

Pharmacological effects and mechanism of action

[5]The decline in lithium use may have been influenced by the imbalance in the marketing of this simple inorganic ion versus other pharmacological agents.

Lithium is clinically effective at a plasma concentration of 0.5–1 mmol/l, and above 1.5 mmol/l it produces a variety of toxic effects, so the therapeutic window is narrow. In normal subjects, 1 mmol/l lithium in plasma has no appreciable psychotropic effects. It does, however,

produce many detectable biochemical changes, and it is still unclear how these may be related to its therapeutic effect.

Lithium is a monovalent cation that can mimic the role of Na^+ in excitable tissues, being able to permeate the voltage-gated Na^+ channels that are responsible for action potential generation (see Ch. 4). It is, however, not pumped out by the Na^+-K^+-ATPase, and therefore tends to accumulate inside excitable cells, leading to a partial loss of intracellular K^+, and depolarisation of the cell.

The biochemical effects of lithium are complex, and it inhibits many enzymes that participate in signal transduction pathways. Those that are thought to be relevant to its therapeutic actions are as follows:

• Inhibition of inositol monophosphatase, which blocks the phosphatidyl inositol (PI) pathway (see Ch. 3) at the point where inositol phosphate is hydrolysed to free inositol, resulting in depletion of PI. This prevents agonist-stimulated inositol trisphosphate formation through various PI-linked receptors, and therefore blocks many receptor-mediated effects.

• Inhibition of glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3) isoforms, possibly by competing with magnesium for its association with these kinases. GSK3 isoforms phosphorylate a number of key enzymes involved in pathways leading to apoptosis and amyloid formation (see Phiel & Klein, 2001). Lithium can also affect GSK3 isoforms indirectly by interfering with their regulation by Akt, a closely related serine/threonine kinase regulated through PI-mediated signalling and by arrestins (see Ch. 3; Beaulieu et al., 2009).

Lithium also inhibits hormone-induced cAMP production and blocks other cellular responses (e.g. the response of renal tubular cells to antidiuretic hormone, and of the thyroid to thyroid-stimulating hormone; see Chs 28 and 33, respectively). This is not, however, a

pronounced effect in the brain.

The cellular selectivity of lithium appears to depend on its selective uptake, reflecting the activity of sodium channels in different cells. This could explain its relatively selective action in the brain and kidney, even though many other tissues use the same second messengers. Notwithstanding such insights, our ignorance of the nature of the disturbance underlying the mood swings in bipolar depression leaves us groping for links between the biochemical and prophylactic effects of lithium.

Pharmacokinetic aspects and toxicity

Lithium is given by mouth as the carbonate salt and is excreted by the kidney. About half of an oral dose is excreted within about 12 h—the remainder, which presumably represents lithium taken up by cells, is excreted over the next 1–2 weeks. This very slow phase means that, with regular dosage, lithium accumulates slowly over 2 weeks or more before a steady state is reached. The narrow therapeutic window (approximately 0.5–1.5 mmol/l) means that monitoring of the plasma concentration is essential. Na^+ depletion reduces the rate of excretion by increasing the reabsorption of lithium by the proximal tubule, and thus increases the likelihood of toxicity. Diuretics that act distal to the proximal tubule (Ch. 28) also have this effect, and renal disease also predisposes to lithium toxicity.

The main toxic effects that may occur during treatment are as follows:

- nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea
- tremor
- renal effects: polyuria (with resulting thirst) resulting from inhibition of the action of antidiuretic hormone. At the same time, there is some

Na^+ retention associated with increased aldosterone secretion. With prolonged treatment, serious renal tubular damage may occur, making it essential to monitor renal function regularly in lithium-treated patients

- thyroid enlargement, sometimes associated with hypothyroidism
- weight gain
- hair loss.

Acute lithium toxicity results in various neurological effects, progressing from confusion and motor impairment to coma, convulsions and death if the plasma concentration reaches 3–5 mmol/l.

Antiepileptic Drugs

Carbamazepine, **valproate** and **lamotrogine** have fewer side effects than lithium and have proved efficacious in the treatment of bipolar depression.

It is assumed that the mechanisms of action of anticonvulsant drugs in reducing bipolar depression are the same as for their anticonvulsant activity. While each drug has multiple actions (see Table 44.1), the antiepileptic drugs effective in bipolar depression share the property of sodium channel blockade, although there are subtle differences in their effectiveness against the different phases of bipolar depression. **Valproate** and **carbamazepine** are effective in treating acute attacks of mania and in the long-term treatment of the disorder, although carbamazepine may not be as effective in treating the depression phase. Valproate is sometimes given along with other drugs such as lithium. **Lamotrogine** is effective in preventing the recurrence of both mania and depression. **Riluzole**, which was developed to treat amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Ch. 39), has anticonvulsant activity in animal models. It may be useful in the treatment of bipolar disorders resistant to other agents.

The efficacy of **gabapentin** and **pregabalin** in bipolar depression has been questioned (see Stahl, 2008), but they may be useful as adjunct therapies to treat the chronic pain and anxiety that sufferers from bipolar depression may also experience. **Levetiracetam**, **topiramate** and **zonisamide** are sometimes used in the treatment of bipolar depression but their efficacy still remains to be established.

Atypical Antipsychotic Drugs

Atypical antipsychotic drugs (e.g. **olanzapine**, **risperidone**, **quetiapine**, **aripiprazole**) are second-generation drugs developed for the treatment of schizophrenia (see Ch. 45). These agents have D_2 dopamine and 5-HT_{2A} receptor antagonist properties as well as actions on other receptors and amine transporters that may contribute to their effectiveness in bipolar depression. All appear to be effective against mania while some may also be effective against bipolar depression. In bipolar depression, atypical antipsychotics are often used in combination with lithium or valproate. Olanzepine is given in combination with the antidepressant **fluoxetine**.

Treatment of bipolar depression

- **Lithium**, an inorganic ion, taken orally as lithium carbonate.
- Mechanism of action is not understood. The main biochemical possibilities are:
  - interference with inositol trisphosphate formation
  - inhibition of kinases.
- Antiepileptic drugs (e.g. **carbamazepine**, **valproate**, **lamotrogine**)
  - better side effect and safety profile.
- Atypical antipsychotic drugs (e.g. **olanzapine**, **risperidone**, **quetiapine**, **aripiprazole**).

Clinical uses of mood-stabilising drugs

• **Lithium** (as the carbonate) is the classical drug. It is used:

– in prophylaxis and treatment of *mania*, and in the prophylaxis of *bipolar* or *unipolar disorder* (manic depression or recurrent depression).

• Points to note include the following:

– there is a narrow therapeutic window and long duration of action

– acute toxic effects include cerebellar effects, nephrogenic *diabetes insipidus* (see Ch. 28) and *renal failure*

– dose must be adjusted according to the plasma concentration

– elimination is via the kidney and is reduced by proximal tubular reabsorption. Diuretics increase the activity of the reabsorptive mechanism and hence can precipitate lithium toxicity

– *thyroid disorders* and mild *cognitive impairment* occur during chronic use.

• **Carbamazepine valproate** and **lamotrogine** (sodium channel blockers with antiepileptic actions; Ch. 44) are used for:

– the prophylaxis and treatment of manic episodes in patients with *bipolar disorder*

– the treatment of *bipolar depression* (valproate, lamotrogine).

• **Olanzapine**, **risperidone**, **quetiapine**, **aripiprazole** (atypical antipsychotic drugs) are used to treat *mania*.

References and Further Reading

General

tahl S.M. *Depression and bipolar disorder*, third ed. New York: Cambridge University Press; 2008.

Pathogenesis of depressive illness

harney D.S., Manji M.K. Life stress, genes and depression: multiple pathways lead to increased

risk and new opportunities for intervention. *Sci. STKE.*. 2004. 2004: re5 http://www.stke.org (*Detailed review of current understanding of the pathophysiology of depression, emphasising the role of neural plasticity, neurogenesis and apoptosis*)

ryan J.F., Slattery D.A. Animal models of mood disorders: recent developments. *Curr. Opin. Psychiatry*. 2007;20:1-7. (*Useful review of animal models*)

uman R.S. Depression: a case of neuronal life and death? *Biol. Psychiatry*. 2004;56:140-145. (*Reviews evidence suggesting that neuronal loss in the hippocampus and prefrontal cortex results in depressive symptoms, and that antidepressants act indirectly to promote neurogenesis*)

ardier A.M. Mutant mouse models and antidepressant drug research: focus on serotonin and brain-derived neurotrophic factor. *Behav. Pharmacol.*. 2009;20:18-32.

laes M., Meltzer H.Y. The serotonin hypothesis of major depression. In: Bloom F.E., Kupfer D.J., editors. *Psychopharmacology: the fourth generation of progress*. New York: Raven Press, 1995. (*Review showing how emphasis has shifted towards the involvement of 5-HT, rather than noradrenaline, in the aetiology of depression*)

lanji H.K., Drevets W.C., Charney D.S. The cellular neurobiology of depression. *Nat. Med.*. 2001;7:541-547. (*Speculative review of the possible mechanisms and role of neurodegeneration and neuroplasticity in depressive disorders, attempting to move beyond the monoamine theory*)

antarelli L., Saxe M., Gross C., *et al.* Requirement of hippocampal neurogenesis for the behavioural effects of antidepressants. *Science*. 2003;301:805-809. (*Study in rats suggesting that growth of new hippocampal neurons is responsible for antidepressant effects; commentary in same issue, p. 757*)

hih J.C., Chen K., Ridd M.J. Monoamine oxidase: from genes to behaviour. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.*. 1999;22:197-217. (*Review of recent work on transgenic mice with MAO mutation or deletion*)

Antidepressant treatments

allasteros J., Callado L.F. Effectiveness of pindolol plus serotonin uptake inhibitors in depression: a meta-analysis of early and late outcomes from randomised controlled trials. *J. Affect. Disord.*. 2004;79:137-147.

arbui C., Esposito E., Cipriani A. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and risk of suicide: a systematic review of observational studies. *Can. Med. Assoc. J.*. 2009;180:291-297.

osker F.J., Westerink B.H., Cremers T.I., *et al.* Future antidepressants: what is in the pipeline and what is missing? *CNS Drugs*. 2004;18:705-732. (*Focuses on new approaches to development of antidepressants*)

ipriani A., Barbui C., Geddes J.R. Suicide, depression, and antidepressants. *Br. Med. J.*. 2005;330:373-374. (*Comment on detailed trials data in the same issue of the journal*)

ipriani, A., Santilli, C., Furukawa, T.A., et al., 2009. Escitalopram versus other antidepressive agents for depression. Cochrane Database Syst. Rev., Issue 2. Art. No.: CD006532. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD006532.pub2.

erretsen P., Pollock B.G. Pharmacogenetics and the serotonin transporter in late-life depression. *Exp. Opin. Drug Metab. Toxicol.*. 2008;4:1465-1478.

latt C.E., Reus V.I. Pharmacogenetics of monoamine transporters. *Pharmacogenomics*. 2003;4:583-596. (*Discusses prospects for correlating transporter gene polymorphism to variation in response to psychoactive drugs*)

rimm S., Bajbouj M. Efficacy of vagus nerve stimulation in the treatment of depression. *Expert. Rev. Neurother.*. 2010;10:87-92.

etrick, S.E., Merry, S.N., McKenzie, J., Sindahl, P., Proctor, M., 2007. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) for depressive disorders in children and adolescents. Cochrane Database Syst. Rev., Issue 3. Art. No.: CD004851. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD004851.pub2.

olsboer F. The rationale for corticotrophin-releasing hormone receptor (CRH-R) antagonists to treat depression and anxiety. *J. Psychiatr. Res.*. 1999;33:181-214. (*Reviews the evidence linking CRH with depressive illness*)

irchheiner J., Nickchen K., Bauer M., *et al.* Pharmacogenetics of antidepressants and antipsychotics: the contribution of allelic variations to the phenotype of drug response. *Mol. Psychiatry*. 2004;9:442-473. (*Discusses effect of gene polymorphisms on antidepressant actions; principles are not yet incorporated into clinical practice*)

irkcaldie M.T., Pridmore S.A., Pascual-Leone A. Transcranial magnetic stimulation as therapy for

depression and other disorders. *Aust. N. Z. J. Psychiatry*. 1997;31:264-272.

icinio J., Wong M.-L. Depression, antidepressants and suicidality: a critical appraisal. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2005;4:165-171. (*Review of the equivocal evidence linking antidepressant use to suicide*)

odge N.J., Li Y.-W. Ion channels as potential targets for the treatment of depression. *Curr. Opin. Drug Discov. Devel.*. 2008;11:633-641.

Iathew S.J., Manji H.K., Charney D.S. Novel drugs and therapeutic targets for severe mood disorders. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2008;33:2080-2092.

Iayberg H.S., Lozano A.M., Voon V., *et al.* Deep brain stimulation for treatment-resistant depression. *Neuron*. 2005;45:651-660.

Iöller H.-J., Baldwin D.S., Goodwin G., *et al.* Do SSRIs or antidepressants in general increase suicidality? *J. Clin. Invest.*. 2008;119:717-725.

acher P., Kecsemeti V. Trends in the development of new antidepressants. Is there light at the end of the tunnel? *Curr. Med. Chem.*. 2004;11:925-943. (*Discusses new developments from the starting point of the monoamine theory*)

acagni G., Popoli M. Cellular and molecular mechanisms in the long-term action of antidepressants. *Dialogues. Clin. Neurosci.*. 2008;10:385-400. (*An extensive review of long-term changes induced in the brain by antidepressant drugs that may be responsible for producing the therapeutic benefit*)

ong F., Freemantle N., Sheldon T.A., *et al.* Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors: meta-analysis of efficacy and acceptability. *Br. Med. J.*. 1993;306:683-687. (*Summary of clinical trials data, showing limitations as well as advantages of SSRIs*)

Lithium

eaulieu J.M., Gainetdinov R.R., Caron M.G. Akt/GSK3 signaling in the action of psychotropic drugs. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2009;49:327-347.

hiel C.J., Klein P.S. Molecular targets of lithium action. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2001;41:789-813. (*Review of a topic that is still little understood*)

47

CNS stimulants and psychotomimetic drugs

Overview

In this chapter, we describe drugs that have a predominantly stimulant effect on the central nervous system (CNS); these fall into two broad categories:

1 psychomotor stimulants

2 psychotomimetic (hallucinogenic) drugs

Drugs in the first category have a marked effect on mental function and behaviour, producing excitement and euphoria, reduced sensation of fatigue, and an increase in motor activity.

Drugs in the second category mainly affect thought patterns and perception, distorting cognition in a complex way.

Table 47.1 summarises the classification of the drugs that are discussed in this chapter.

Table 47.1 Central nervous system stimulants and ph psychotomimetic drugs

Category	Example(s)	Mode(s) of action	Clinical significance
Psychomotor stimulants	Amphetamine and related compounds (e.g. dexamphetamine, methylamphetamine, methylphenidate)	Release of catecholamines Inhibition of catecholamine uptake	Methylphenidate and dexamphetamine used to treat attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder in children; otherwise very limited clinical use Some agents used occasionally to treat narcolepsy and as appetite suppressants Risk of dependence, sympathomimetic side effects and pulmonary hypertension Mainly important as drugs of abuse
	Cocaine	Inhibition of catecholamine uptake Local anaesthetic	Important as drug of abuse Risk of fetal damage Occasionally used for nasopharyngeal and ophthalmic anaesthesia (see Ch. 42)
	Methylxanthines (e.g. caffeine, theophylline)	Inhibition of phosphodiesterase Antagonism of adenosine A_2 receptors	Clinical uses unrelated to stimulant activity, although caffeine is included in various 'tonics' Theophylline used for action on cardiac and bronchial muscle (see Chs 21, 27) Constituents of beverages
Psychotomimetic drugs (hallucinogens)	LSD	Agonist at 5-HT_{2A} receptors (see Chs 15 & 38)	No clinical use Important as drug of abuse
	MDMA (ecstasy)	Releases 5-HT and blocks reuptake	No clinical use Important as drug of abuse
	Mescaline	Not known Chemically similar to amphetamine	—
	Psilocybin	Chemically related to 5-HT; acts on 5-HT_{2A} receptors	—
	Ketamine	Phencyclidine (PCP) is chemically similar Blocks NMDA receptor-operated ion channels (see Ch. 37)	Dissociative anaesthetic drug of abuse PCP used as a model for schizophrenia
	Δ^9-tetrahydrocannabinol	Activates CB_1 and CB_2 receptors (see Ch. 18)	Has analgesic and antiemetic properties (see Ch. 18)
	Salvinorin A	κ-Opioid receptor agonist	No clinical use

5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; LSD, lysergic acid diethylamide; MDMA, Methylenedioxymethamphetamine.

Several of these drugs have no clinical uses but are used for recreational purposes and as such are recognised as drugs of abuse. This aspect is also discussed in Chapter 48.

Psychomotor Stimulants

Amphetamines and Related Drugs

Amphetamine (*speed* or *billy whizz*) and its active dextroisomer **dextroamphetamine** (*dexies*), together with **methamphetamine** (*crystal meth* or *ice*) and **methylphenidate** (better known to many by its trade name *Ritalin*), comprise a group of drugs with very similar chemical and pharmacological properties (see Fig. 47.1).These drugs act by releasing

monoamines, primarily dopamine and noradrenaline, from nerve terminals in the brain (see Seiden et al., 1993; Green et al., 2003). They are substrates for neuronal amine uptake transporters and cause release of these mediators (see Chs 14 and 38) thus producing the acute effects described below. With prolonged use, they are neurotoxic, causing degeneration of amine-containing nerve terminals and eventually cell death. This effect is probably due to the accumulation of reactive metabolites of the parent compounds within the nerve terminals. It has been well documented in experimental animals, and is believed to occur also in humans, possibly accounting for long-term adverse psychological effects in habitual users of amphetamine derivatives.

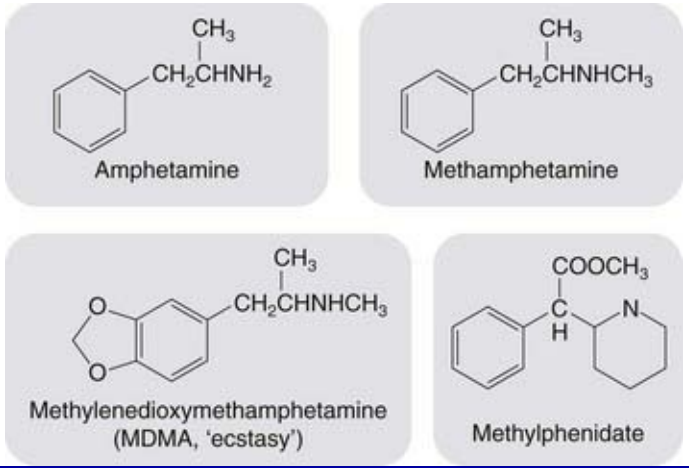


Fig. 47.1 Structures of amphetamine-like drugs.

Further information on the pharmacology, uses and dangers of amphetamines can be found in the monograph by Iversen (2006).

Pharmacological effects

The main central effects of amphetamine-like drugs are:

- locomotor stimulation
- euphoria and excitement

• insomnia

• increased stamina

• anorexia.

In addition, amphetamines have peripheral sympathomimetic actions, producing a rise in blood pressure and inhibition of gastrointestinal motility.

In humans, amphetamine causes euphoria; with intravenous injection, this can be so intense as to be described as ‘orgasmic’. Subjects become confident, hyperactive and talkative, and sex drive is said to be enhanced. Fatigue, both physical and mental, is reduced, and amphetamine-like drugs cause marked anorexia, but with continued administration this effect wears off and food intake returns to normal. Rats quickly learn to press a lever in order to obtain a dose of amphetamine—an indication that the drug is rewarding.

Many studies have shown improvement of both mental and physical performance in fatigued, although not in well-rested, subjects (the use of amphetamines in sport is described in Ch. 58). Mental performance is improved for simple tedious tasks much more than for difficult tasks—in animal studies using complex behavioural analysis paradigms, amphetamines are said to make the animals busier rather than brighter! Amphetamines have been used to improve the performance of soldiers, military pilots and others who need to remain alert under extremely fatiguing conditions. They have also been in vogue as a means of helping students to concentrate before and during examinations, but the improvement caused by reduction of fatigue can be offset by the mistakes of overconfidence and a decreased ability to deal with large amounts of information.[1]

[1]Pay heed to the awful warning of the medical student who, it is said,

having taken copious amounts of dextroamphetamine, left the examination hall in confident mood, having spent 3 hours writing his name over and over again.

Adverse effects of amphetamines include feelings of anxiety, irritability and restlessness as the body's energy stores are run down. At high doses, amphetamines may induce panic and paranoia.

In experimental animals, the behavioural effects of amphetamines are produced by the release of catecholamines in the brain. Thus pretreatment with 6-hydroxydopamine, which depletes the brain of both noradrenaline and dopamine, abolishes the effect of amphetamine, as does pretreatment with α-methyltyrosine, an inhibitor of catecholamine biosynthesis (see Ch. 14). Similarly, monoamine oxidase inhibitors (see Ch. 46) potentiate the effects of amphetamine, presumably by blocking metabolism. Interestingly, **reserpine**, which inhibits vesicular storage of catecholamines (see Ch. 14), does not block the behavioural effects of amphetamine. This is probably because amphetamine releases cytosolic rather than vesicular catecholamines (see Ch. 14). The behavioural effects of amphetamine are due mainly to release of dopamine rather than noradrenaline. The evidence for this is that destruction of the central noradrenergic bundle does not affect locomotor stimulation produced by amphetamine, whereas destruction of the dopamine-containing nucleus accumbens (see Ch. 38) or administration of antipsychotic drugs that antagonise dopamine (see Ch. 45) inhibit both locomotor and rewarding responses.

Chronic use, tolerance and dependence

If amphetamine is taken repeatedly over the course of a few days, which occurs when users seek to maintain the euphoric 'high' that a single dose produces, a state of 'amphetamine psychosis' can develop, which closely

resembles an acute schizophrenic attack (see Ch. 45), with hallucinations accompanied by paranoid symptoms and aggressive behaviour. At the same time, repetitive stereotyped behaviour may develop (e.g. polishing shoes or stringing beads). The close similarity of this condition to schizophrenia, and the effectiveness of antipsychotic drugs in controlling it, is consistent with the dopamine theory of schizophrenia (see Ch. 45). When the drug is stopped after a few days, there is usually a period of deep sleep and on awakening the subject feels lethargic, depressed, anxious (sometimes even suicidal) and hungry. Even a single dose of amphetamine, insufficient to cause psychotic symptoms, usually leaves the subject later feeling tired and depressed. These after-effects may be the result of depletion of the normal stores of dopamine and noradrenaline, but the evidence for this is not clear-cut.

Tolerance develops rapidly to euphoric and anorexic effects of amphetamine, but more slowly to the other effects (locomotor stimulation, stereotyped behaviour and peripheral sympathomimetic action).

Dependence on amphetamine appears to be a consequence of the unpleasant after-effects that it produces and to the insistent memory of euphoria, which leads to a desire for a repeat dose. There is no clear-cut physical withdrawal syndrome such as occurs with opioids. It is estimated that only about 5% of users progress to full dependence, the usual pattern being that the dose is increased as tolerance develops, and then uncontrolled ‘binges’ occur in which the user takes the drug repeatedly over a period of a day or more, remaining continuously intoxicated. Large doses may be consumed in such binges, with a high risk of acute toxicity, and the demand for the drug displaces all other considerations.

Experimental animals, given unlimited access to amphetamine, take it

in such large amounts that they die from the cardiovascular effects within a few days. Given limited amounts, they too develop a binge pattern of dependence.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Amphetamine is readily absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, but to increase the intensity of the hit it can be snorted or injected. In crystal form, the free base of methamphetamine can be ignited and smoked in a manner similar to crack cocaine (see below). Amphetamine freely penetrates the blood–brain barrier. It does this more readily than other indirectly acting sympathomimetic amines such as **ephedrine** or **tyramine** (Ch. 14), which probably explains why it produces more marked central effects than those drugs. Amphetamine is mainly excreted unchanged in the urine, and the rate of excretion is increased when the urine is made more acidic (see Ch. 9). The plasma half-life of amphetamine varies from about 5 h to 20–30 h, depending on urine flow and urinary pH.

Clinical use

Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)

The main use of amphetamines is in the treatment of ADHD, particularly in children. **Methylphenidate** is most commonly used, at doses lower than those causing euphoria and other undesired effects. ADHD is a common condition in children—estimated as occurring in up to 9% of youth—whose incessant overactivity and very limited attention span disrupt their education and social development. The efficacy of amphetamines has been confirmed in many controlled trials. Disorders of dopamine pathways are suspected to underlie ADHD symptomatology, but the mechanism of action of amphetamines is unclear.

Other drug treatments for ADHD include the noradrenaline reuptake inhibitor, **atomoxetine**, and α_2 adrenoceptor agonists such as **clonidine** and **guanfacine**. The amine uptake inhibitor, **modafinil**, is not approved for paediatric use but may be effective in adult ADHD.

Narcolepsy

This is a disabling condition, probably a form of epilepsy, in which the patient suddenly and unpredictably falls asleep at frequent intervals during the day. Amphetamine is helpful but not completely effective. Modafinil is also effective in reducing the need for sleep and is becoming increasingly popular as a lifestyle drug (see Ch. 58) with students and young professionals. **Sodium oxybate**, the sodium salt of γ-hydroxybutyrate (see Ch. 37), is a CNS depressant that paradoxically is licensed for the treatment of narcolepsy with cataplexy (abrupt onset of paralysis of variable extent often triggered by emotion, sometimes with 'frozen' posture). The drug is frequently abused and is taxing to take correctly (on retiring and 2–4 hours later—an alarm clock is obligatory!); it is prescribed by specialists in sleep disorders.

Appetite suppression

Amphetamine derivatives proved relatively ineffective in treating obesity in humans, and have been largely abandoned because of their tendency to cause pulmonary hypertension, which can be so severe as to necessitate heart–lung transplantation.

Unwanted effects

The limited clinical usefulness of amphetamine is offset by its many unwanted effects, including hypertension, insomnia, anorexia, tremors, risk of exacerbating schizophrenia and risk of dependence. Cerebral haemorrhage has also been reported after amphetamine use, possibly the

result of acutely raised blood pressure. There is evidence that habitual use of amphetamines is associated with long-term psychological effects of many kinds, including psychotic symptoms, anxiety, depression and cognitive impairment. The evidence in man is not conclusive, but taken in conjunction with animal data, it suggests that amphetamines can cause long-term damage.

Amphetamines

• The main effects are:

– increased motor activity

– euphoria and excitement

– insomnia

– anorexia

– with prolonged administration, stereotyped and psychotic behaviour.

• Effects are due mainly to release of catecholamines, especially dopamine and noradrenaline.

• Stimulant effect lasts for a few hours and is followed by depression and anxiety.

• Tolerance to the stimulant effects develops rapidly, although peripheral sympathomimetic effects may persist.

• Amphetamines induce strong psychological dependence.

• Amphetamine psychosis, which closely resembles schizophrenia, can develop after prolonged use.

• Amphetamines may be useful in treating narcolepsy, and also (paradoxically) to control hyperkinetic children. They are no longer used as appetite suppressants because of the risk of pulmonary hypertension.

• Their main importance is in drug abuse.

Cocaine

Cocaine (see Streatfeild, 2002) is found in the leaves of the South American shrub, coca. These leaves are used for their stimulant properties by natives of South America, particularly those in mountainous areas, who use it to reduce fatigue during work at high altitude.

Considerable mystical significance was attached to the powers of cocaine to boost the flagging human spirit, and Freud tested it extensively on his patients and his family, publishing an influential monograph in 1884 advocating its use as a psychostimulant.[2] Freud's ophthalmologist colleague, Köller, obtained supplies of the drug and discovered its local anaesthetic action (Ch. 42), but the psychostimulant effects of cocaine have not proved to be clinically useful. On the other hand, they led to it becoming a widespread drug of abuse in Western countries. The mechanisms and treatment of cocaine abuse are discussed in Chapter 48.

Pharmacological effects

[2]In the 1860s, a Corsican pharmacist, Mariani, devised cocaine-containing beverages, Vin Mariani and Thé Mariani, which were sold very successfully as tonics. Imitators soon moved in, and Thé Mariani became the forerunner of Coca-Cola. In 1903, cocaine was removed from Coca-Cola because of its growing association with addiction and criminality (see Courtwright, 2001, for a lively account).

Cocaine binds to and inhibits the transporters responsible for the uptake of dopamine and noradrenaline into nerve terminals (see Chs 14 and 38), thereby enhancing the peripheral effects of sympathetic nerve activity and producing a marked psychomotor stimulant effect.

In humans, cocaine produces euphoria, garrulousness, increased motor activity and a magnification of pleasure. Users feel alert, energetic and physically strong and believe they have enhanced mental capabilities. Its effects resemble those of amphetamines, although it has less tendency to produce stereotyped behaviour, delusions, hallucinations and paranoia. With excessive dosage, tremors and convulsions, followed by respiratory and vasomotor depression, may occur. The peripheral sympathomimetic actions lead to tachycardia, vasoconstriction and an increase in blood pressure. Body temperature may increase, owing to the increased motor activity coupled with reduced heat loss.

Experimental animals rapidly learn to press a lever to self-administer cocaine and will consume toxic amounts of the drug if access is not limited. In transgenic mice lacking the D_2 receptor, the enhanced locomotor effects of cocaine are reduced, but surprisingly self-administration of cocaine is increased, in contrast to what is found with other self-administered drugs such as ethanol and morphine (see De Mei et al., 2009).

Chronic use, dependence and tolerance

Cocaine undoubtedly causes strong psychological dependence (see Ch. 48), but there is some debate about whether or not its continued use induces tolerance and physical dependence. Users may increase their intake of the drug but this may reflect a desire for an increased effect rather than the development of tolerance. In experimental animals, sensitisation (the opposite of tolerance) can be observed but the relevance of this to the situation in humans is unclear (see Bradberry, 2007). Like amphetamine, cocaine produces no clear-cut withdrawal syndrome but depression, dysphoria and fatigue may be experienced following the initial stimulant effect. Withdrawal of cocaine after

administration for a few days causes a marked deterioration of motor performance and learned behaviour, which are restored by resuming dosage with the drug. Cocaine induces psychological dependence where users crave the drug's euphoric and stimulatory effects. The cellular mechanisms underlying craving and pharmacological approaches to reduce craving are discussed in Chapter 48. The pattern of dependence, evolving from occasional use through escalating dosage to compulsive binges, is similar to that seen with amphetamines.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Cocaine is readily absorbed by many routes. For many years, illicit supplies have consisted of the hydrochloride salt, which could be given by nasal inhalation or intravenously. The latter route produces an intense and immediate euphoria, whereas nasal inhalation produces a less dramatic sensation and also tends to cause atrophy and necrosis of the nasal mucosa and septum.

Cocaine use increased dramatically when the free-base form ('crack') became available as a street drug. When an aqueous solution of cocaine hydrochloride is heated with sodium bicarbonate, then free-base cocaine, water, CO_2 and NaCl are produced. The free-base cocaine is insoluble in water, precipitates out and can then be rolled into 'rocks' of crack. Free-base cocaine vaporises at around 90°C, much lower than the melting point of cocaine hydrochloride (190°C) which burns rather than vaporises. Thus crack can be smoked, with the uncharged free-base being rapidly absorbed across the large surface area of the alveolae, giving rise to a greater CNS effect than that obtained by snorting cocaine. Indeed, the effect is nearly as rapid as that of intravenous administration, with less inconvenience and social stigma. The social, economic and even political consequences of this small change in

formulation have been far-reaching.

The duration of its stimulant effect, about 30 min, is much shorter than that of amphetamine. It is rapidly metabolised in the liver.

A cocaine metabolite is deposited in hair, and analysis of its content along the hair shaft allows the pattern of cocaine consumption to be monitored, a technique that has revealed a much higher incidence of cocaine use than was voluntarily reported. Cocaine exposure in utero can be estimated from analysis of the hair of neonates.

Cocaine is still occasionally used topically as a local anaesthetic, mainly in ophthalmology and minor nose and throat surgery, but has no other clinical uses. It is a valuable pharmacological tool for the study of catecholamine release and reuptake, because of its relatively specific action in blocking noradrenaline and dopamine uptake.

Adverse effects

Toxic effects occur commonly in cocaine abusers. The main acute dangers are serious cardiovascular events (cardiac dysrhythmias, aortic dissection, and myocardial or cerebral infarction or haemorrhage). Progressive myocardial damage can lead to heart failure, even in the absence of a history of acute cardiac effects.

Cocaine can severely impair brain development in utero (see Volpe, 1992). The brain size is significantly reduced in babies exposed to cocaine in pregnancy, and neurological and limb malformations are increased. The incidence of ischaemic and haemorrhagic brain lesions, and of sudden infant death, is also higher in cocaine-exposed babies. Interpretation of the data is difficult because many cocaine abusers also take other illicit drugs that may affect fetal development, but the probability is that cocaine is highly detrimental.

Dependence, the main psychological adverse effect of amphetamines and cocaine, has potentially severe effects on quality of life (Ch. 48).

Cocaine

• Cocaine acts by inhibiting catecholamine uptake (especially dopamine) by nerve terminals.

• Behavioural effects of cocaine are very similar to those of amphetamines, although psychotomimetic effects are rarer. Duration of action is shorter.

• Cocaine used in pregnancy impairs fetal development and may produce fetal malformations.

• Cocaine produces strong psychological dependence.

Methylxanthines

Various beverages, particularly tea, coffee and cocoa, contain methylxanthines, to which they owe their mild central stimulant effects. The main compounds responsible are **caffeine** and **theophylline**. The nuts of the cola plant also contain caffeine, which is present in cola-flavoured soft drinks. However, the most important sources, by far, are coffee and tea, which account for more than 90% of caffeine consumption. A cup of instant coffee or strong tea contains 50–70 mg of caffeine, while filter coffee contains about twice as much. Among adults in tea-and coffee-drinking countries, the average daily caffeine consumption is about 200 mg. Further information on the pharmacology and toxicology of caffeine is presented by Fredholm et al. (1999).

Pharmacological effects

Methylxanthines have the following major pharmacological actions:

• CNS stimulation

• diuresis (see Ch. 28)

- stimulation of cardiac muscle (see Ch. 21)
- relaxation of smooth muscle, especially bronchial muscle (see Ch. 27).

The latter two effects resemble those of β-adrenoceptor stimulation (see Chs 14, 21 and 27). This is thought to be because methylxanthines (especially **theophylline**) inhibit phosphodiesterase, which is responsible for the intracellular metabolism of cAMP (Ch. 3). They thus increase intracellular cAMP and produce effects that mimic those of mediators that stimulate adenylyl cyclase. Methylxanthines also antagonise many of the effects of adenosine, acting on both A_1 and A_2 receptors (see Ch. 16). Transgenic mice lacking functional A_2 receptors are abnormally active and aggressive, and fail to show increased motor activity in response to caffeine (Ledent et al., 1997), suggesting that antagonism at A_2 receptors accounts for part, at least, of its CNS stimulant action. Caffeine also sensitises ryanodine receptors (see Ch. 4) but this effect occurs at higher concentrations ($>$ 10 mmol/l) than those achieved by recreational intake of caffeine. The concentration of caffeine reached in plasma and brain after two or three cups of strong coffee—about 100 μmol/l—is sufficient to produce appreciable adenosine receptor block and a small degree of phosphodiesterase inhibition. The diuretic effect probably results from vasodilatation of the afferent glomerular arteriole, causing an increased glomerular filtration rate.

Caffeine and theophylline have very similar stimulant effects on the CNS. Human subjects experience a reduction of fatigue, with improved concentration and a clearer flow of thought. This is confirmed by objective studies, which have shown that caffeine reduces reaction time and produces an increase in the speed at which simple calculations can be performed (although without much improvement in accuracy). Performance at motor tasks, such as typing and simulated driving, is also improved, particularly in fatigued subjects. Mental tasks, such as syllable

learning, association tests and so on, are also facilitated by moderate doses (up to about 200 mg of caffeine, or about two cups of coffee) but impaired by larger doses. Insomnia is common. By comparison with amphetamines, methylxanthines produce less locomotor stimulation and do not induce euphoria, stereotyped behaviour patterns or a psychotic state, but their effects on fatigue and mental function are similar.

Tolerance and habituation develop to a small extent, but much less than with amphetamines, and withdrawal effects are slight. Caffeine is not self-administered by animals, and it cannot be classified as a dependence-producing drug.

Clinical use and unwanted effects

There are few clinical uses for caffeine. It is included with aspirin in some preparations for treating headaches and other aches and pains, and with ergotamine in some antimigraine preparations, the object being to produce a mildly agreeable sense of alertness. Theophylline (formulated as **aminophylline**) is used mainly as a bronchodilator in treating severe asthmatic attacks (see Ch. 27). Caffeine has few unwanted side effects and is safe even in very large doses. In vitro tests show that it has mutagenic activity, and large doses are teratogenic in animals. However, epidemiological studies have shown no evidence of carcinogenic or teratogenic effects of tea or coffee drinking in humans.

Methylxanthines

- Caffeine and theophylline produce psychomotor stimulant effects.
- Average caffeine consumption from beverages is about 200 mg/day.
- Main psychological effects are reduced fatigue and improved mental performance, without euphoria. Even large doses do not cause stereotyped behaviour or psychotomimetic effects.

• Methylxanthines act mainly by antagonism at A_2 purine receptors, and partly by inhibiting phosphodiesterase, thus producing effects similar to those of β-adrenoceptor agonists.

• Peripheral actions are exerted mainly on heart, smooth muscle and kidney.

• Theophylline is used clinically as a bronchodilator; caffeine is not used clinically.

Other Stimulants

Arecoline, a cholinergic agonist, is a mild stimulant contained in the betel nut. Its use is widespread in India, Thailand, Indonesia and other Asian cultures. Arecoline improves learning and memory.

Cathinone and **cathine** are the active ingredients in the khat shrub. Chewing the leaves is popular in parts of Africa such as Ethiopia and Somalia and its use is spreading through immigrant populations in Western countries.

Nitrites such as **amyl nitrite** (see Ch. 21) produce a rush as heart rate increases and blood rushes to the head. Headache, dizziness, nausea and a feeling of light-headedness as well as a slowing of time are experienced. Sexual pleasure may be enhanced.

Psychotomimetic Drugs

Psychotomimetic drugs (also referred to as *psychedelic* or *hallucinogenic* drugs) affect thought, perception and mood, without causing marked psychomotor stimulation or depression (see Nichols, 2004). Thoughts and perceptions tend to become distorted and dream-like, rather than being merely sharpened or dulled, and the change in mood is likewise more complex than a simple shift in the direction of euphoria or depression. Importantly, psychotomimetic drugs do not cause dependence, even though their psychological effects overlap those of highly addictive major psychostimulants such as cocaine and

amphetamines.

Psychotomimetic drugs include the following:

• Drugs that act on 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) receptors and transporters. These include **lysergic acid diethylamide** (LSD), **psilocybin** and **mescaline**, which are agonists at 5-HT_2 receptors (see Chs 15 and 38), and **MDMA** (ecstasy) which acts mainly by inhibiting 5-HT uptake. MDMA also acts on several other receptors and transporters (see Green et al., 2003), and has powerful psychostimulant effects typical of amphetamines, as well as psychotomimetic effects.

• **Ketamine** and **phencyclidine**, antagonists at NMDA-type glutamate receptors.

• **Δ^9-Tetrahydrocannabinol** (THC), the active ingredient in cannabis, produces a mixture of psychotomimetic and depressant effects similar to, but less pronounced than, those of LSD. This drug is discussed in detail in Chapter 18.

• **Salvinorin A,** a κ-opioid receptor agonist.

LSD, Psilocybin and Mescaline

LSD is an exceptionally potent psychotomimetic drug capable of producing strong effects in humans in doses less than 1 μg/kg. It is a chemical derivative of lysergic acid, which occurs in the cereal fungus ergot (see Ch. 15), and was first synthesised by Hoffman in 1943. Hoffman deliberately swallowed about 250 μg of LSD (the threshold dose is now known to be around 20 μg) and wrote 30 years later of the experience: 'the faces of those around me appeared as grotesque coloured masks … marked motoric unrest, alternating with paralysis … heavy feeling in the head, limbs and entire body, as if they were filled

with lead … clear recognition of my condition, in which state I sometimes observed, in the manner of an independent observer, that I shouted half insanely.' These effects lasted for a few hours, after which Hoffman fell asleep, 'and awoke next morning feeling perfectly well'. Apart from these dramatic psychological effects, LSD has few physiological effects.

Mescaline, which is derived from a Mexican cactus and has been known as a hallucinogenic agent for many centuries, was made famous by Aldous Huxley in *The Doors of Perception*. It is chemically related to amphetamine.

Psilocybin is obtained from fungi (colloquially known as magic mushrooms). The effects of taking psilocybin are similar to those experienced with LSD.

Pharmacological effects

The main effects of these drugs are on mental function, most notably an alteration of perception in such a way that sights and sounds appear distorted and fantastic. Hallucinations—visual, auditory, tactile or olfactory—also occur, and sensory modalities may become confused, so that sounds are perceived as visions. Thought processes tend to become illogical and disconnected, but subjects retain insight into the fact that their disturbance is drug induced, and generally find the experience exhilarating. Occasionally, especially if the user is already anxious, LSD produces a syndrome that is extremely disturbing (the 'bad trip'), in which the hallucinatory experience takes on a menacing quality and may be accompanied by paranoid delusions. Furthermore, 'flashbacks' of the hallucinatory experience have been reported weeks or months later.

LSD acts on various 5-HT-receptor subtypes (see Chs 15 and 38); its psychotomimetic effects are thought to be mediated mainly by its 5-

HT_{2A} receptor agonist actions (see Nichols, 2004). It inhibits the firing of 5-HT-containing neurons in the raphe nuclei (see Ch. 38), apparently by acting as an agonist on the inhibitory autoreceptors of these cells. The significance of this response to its psychotomimetic effects is unclear. Psilocybin is dephosphorylated to psilocin which is an agonist at several 5-HT receptors including the 5-HT_{2A} receptor. The mechanism of action of mescaline is less well defined. There are contradictory reports about its activity at 5-HT_{2A} receptors. It has also been reported to act as an inhibitor of monoamine transport.

The main effects of psychotomimetic drugs are subjective, so it is not surprising that animal tests that reliably predict psychotomimetic activity in humans have not been devised.[3]

Dependence and adverse effects

[3]One of the more bizarre tests involves spiders, whose normal elegantly symmetrical webs become jumbled and erratic if the animals are treated with LSD. It is worth searching the web for ‘spiders LSD’ to see images.

Psychotomimetic agents are largely not self-administered by experimental animals. Indeed, in contrast to most of the drugs that are widely abused by humans, they have aversive rather than reinforcing properties in behavioural tests. Tolerance to their effects develops quite quickly, but there is no physical withdrawal syndrome in animals or humans.

There has been much concern over reports that LSD and other psychotomimetic drugs, as well as causing potentially dangerous bad trips, can lead to more persistent mental disorder (see Abraham & Aldridge, 1993). Unexpected flashbacks can be very disturbing. Also, there are recorded instances in which altered perception and hallucinations have lasted for up to 3 weeks following a single dose of

LSD, and of precipitation of attacks in schizophrenic patients.

MDMA (Ecstasy)

MDMA (3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine) is widely used as a 'party drug' because of the euphoria, loss of inhibitions and energy surge that it induces. It is a stimulant drug which also has mild hallucinogenic effects. The experience of taking the drug has been likened to taking amphetamine and weak LSD.

Pharmacological effects

Although it is an amphetamine derivative (Fig. 47.1), it affects monoamine function in a different manner from the amphetamines (see Green et al., 2003; Morton, 2005; Iversen, 2006). It inhibits monoamine transporters, principally the 5-HT transporter, and also releases 5-HT, the net effect being a large increase in free 5-HT in certain brain regions, followed by depletion. Similar but smaller changes occur in relation to dopamine and noradrenaline. Simplistically, the effects on 5-HT function determine the psychotomimetic effects, while dopamine and noradrenaline changes account for the initial euphoria and later rebound dysphoria. Although not addictive, MDMA carries serious risks, both acute and long term.

Sudden illness and death can occur even after small doses of MDMA. This can be due to several factors:

• Acute hyperthermia (see Fig. 47.2), resulting in damage to skeletal muscle and renal failure. It is still unclear how this effect is produced in humans. It may be mediated centrally through activation of 5-HT or dopamine receptors. It could also reflect an action of MDMA on mitochondrial function. It is exacerbated by energetic dancing and high ambient temperature and certain individuals may be particularly

susceptible to this danger.

• Excess water intake and water retention. MDMA causes inappropriate secretion of antidiuretic hormone, leading to thirst, over-hydration and hyponatraemia ('water intoxication'). Symptoms include dizziness and disorientation leading to collapse into coma.

• Heart failure in individuals with an undiagnosed heart condition.

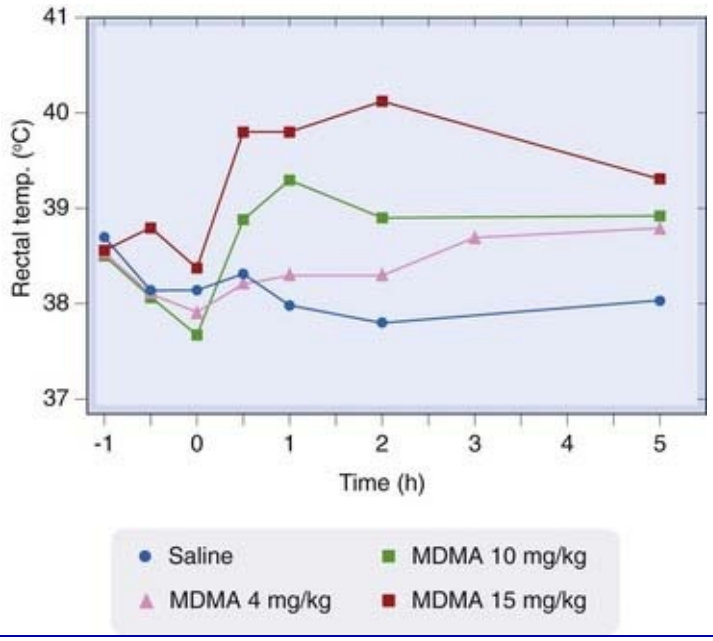


Fig. 47.2 A single injection of MDMA causes a dose-related increase in body temperature in rats.

Drug administered at time zero (Reproduced with permission from Green et al., 2004.)

The after-effects of MDMA persist for a few days and comprise depression, anxiety, irritability and increased aggression—the 'mid-week blues'. There is also evidence of long-term deleterious effects on memory and cognitive function in heavy MDMA users. In animal studies, MDMA can cause degeneration of 5-HT and dopamine neurons, but whether this occurs in humans is uncertain (see Morton, 2005).

Illicit 'ecstasy' tablets and powder are sometimes contaminated or

entirely substituted with ***para*-methoxyamphetamine** which produces similar behavioural effects but which may be more dangerous to the user. Another related drug is **4-bromo-2,5-dimethoxyphenethylamine** (2CB).

Ketamine and Phencyclidine

Ketamine (‘*Special K*’) is a dissociative anaesthetic (Ch. 40) now also used as a recreational drug. An analogue, **phencyclidine** (PCP, ‘*Angel dust*’), was a popular hallucinogen in the 1970s but its use has declined. These drugs produce a feeling of euphoria. At higher doses they cause hallucinations and a feeling of detachment, disorientation and numbness. PCP was reported to cause psychotic episodes and is used in experimental animals to produce a model of schizophrenia (see Ch. 45 and Morris et al., 2005).

Pharmacological effects

Their main pharmacological effect is block of the NMDA receptor channel (see Ch. 37). This was at one time mistakenly described as ‘acting at σ opioid receptors’. Long-term regular use of ketamine can result in severe bladder pain through an as yet unknown mechanism. Combination of ketamine with **depressant** drugs such as **alcohol**, **barbiturates** and **heroin** can result in dangerous overdose.

Other Psychotomimetic Drugs

Salvinorin A is a hallucinogenic agent contained in the American sage plant *Salvia divinorum*, a member of the mint family. It was originally used by the Mazatecs in Mexico; in recent years its use has spread and it has become known as ***herbal ecstasy***. It is a κ-opioid receptor agonist (see Ch. 41).[4] At high doses, delirium may be produced.

[4]In Phase 1 clinical trials of synthetic κ agonists as potential analgesic

agents, the drugs were reported to induce a feeling of dysphoria. Perhaps the 'normal' volunteers in those trials were disturbed by the hallucinations they probably experienced. Interesting then that a naturally occurring κ agonist has now become a recreational drug.

DMT (dimethyltryptamine) and **DOM** (2,5-dimethoxy-4-methylamphetamine) are synthetic hallucinogenic drugs that produce effects similar to **LSD**.

Muscarinic receptor antagonists (see Chs 13 and 36), **hyoscine**, **hyoscyamine** and **atropine** are contained in various plants, including henbane and mandrake. Consumption can cause hallucinations, drowsiness and disorientation.

Ibogaine is contained in the root bark of iboga shrubs in Africa, South America and Australia. At high doses, it is hallucinogenic. Users have reported experiencing a reduced desire to take other drugs such as cocaine and heroin leading to ibogaine being investigated as a potential treatment for drug craving (see Ch. 48).

Psychotomimetic drugs

• The main types are:

– **lysergic acid diethylamide** (LSD), **psilocybin** and **mescaline** (actions related to 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) and catecholamines)

– **methylenedioxymethamphetamine** (MDMA, 'ecstasy')

– **ketamine** and **phencyclidine**.

• Their main effect is to cause sensory distortion and hallucinatory experiences.

• LSD is exceptionally potent, producing a long-lasting sense of dissociation and disordered thought, sometimes with frightening hallucinations and delusions, which can lead to violence. Hallucinatory episodes can recur after a long interval.

• LSD and phencyclidine precipitate schizophrenic attacks in susceptible patients, and LSD may cause long-lasting psychopathological changes.

• LSD appears to act as an agonist at 5-HT_{2A} receptors.

• MDMA is an amphetamine analogue that has powerful psychostimulant as well as psychotomimetic effects.

• MDMA can cause an acute hyperthermic reaction as well as excess water intake and retention, sometimes fatal.

• Psychotomimetic drugs do not cause physical dependence and tend to be aversive, rather than reinforcing, in animal models.

• Ketamine and phencyclidine act by blocking the glutamate-activated NMDA receptor channel.

References and Further Reading

General reference

ourtwright D.T. *Forces of habit: drugs and the making of the modern world*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press; 2001. (*A lively historical account of habit-forming drugs*)

Psychostimulants

radberry C.W. Cocaine sensitization and dopamine mediation of cue effects in rodents, monkeys, and humans: areas of agreement, disagreement, and implications for addiction. *Psychopharmacology*. 2007;191:705-717.

e Mei C., Ramos M., Litaka C., Borrelli E. Getting specialized: presynaptic and postsynaptic dopamine D_2 receptors. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2009;9:53-58.

redholm B.B., Battig K., Holmes J., *et al.* Actions of caffeine in the brain with special reference to factors that contribute to its widespread use. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 1999;51:83-133. (*Comprehensive review article covering pharmacological, behavioural and social aspects*)

ersen L.L. *Speed, ecstasy, ritalin. The science of amfetamines*. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press; 2006. (*Authoritative book on all aspects of the properties, use and abuse of amfetamines*)

edent C., Vaugeois J.M., Schiffmann S.N., et al Aggressiveness, hypoalgesia and high blood pressure in mice lacking the adenosine A_{2a} receptor Nature 388:1997:674-678 (*Study of transgenic mice, showing loss of stimulant effects of caffeine in mice lacking A_2 receptors*)

eiden L.S., Sabol K.E., Ricaurte G.A. Amfetamine: effects on catecholamine systems and behavior. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol,*. 1993;33:639-677.

treatfeild D. *Cocaine: a definitive history*. Derby, PA: Diane Publishing Co.; 2002.

olpe J.J. Effect of cocaine on the fetus. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1992;327:399-407.

Psychotomimetics

braham H.D., Aldridge A.M. Adverse consequences of lysergic acid diethylamide. *Addiction*. 1993;88:1327-1334.

reen A.R., Mechan A.O., Elliott J.M., *et al.* The pharmacology and clinical pharmacology of 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA, 'ecstasy'). *Pharm. Rev.*. 2003;55:463-508.

reen A.R., O'Shea E., Colado I. A review of the mechanisms involved in the acute MDMA (ecstasy)-induced hyperthermic response. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*. 2004;500:3-13.

Iorris B.J., Cochran S.M., Pratt J.A. PCP: from pharmacology to modelling schizophrenia. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:101-106. (*Review arguing that NMDA channel block by phencyclidine closely models human schizophrenia*)

Iorton J. Ecstasy: pharmacology and neurotoxicity. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:79-86. (*Useful short review focusing on adverse effects of MDMA*)

ichols D.E. Hallucinogens Pharmacol. Ther. 101:2004:131-181 (*Comprehensive review article focusing on 5-HT_{2A} receptors as the target of psychotomimetic drugs*)

Convulsants and respiratory stimulants

ost C.S. A new look at the respiratory stimulant doxapram. *CNS Drug Rev.*. 2006;12:236-249.

48

Drug addiction, dependence and abuse

Overview

In this chapter we consider those drugs that are consumed because people choose to, and not because they are advised to by their doctor. Largely these drugs are taken because they are pleasurable (hedonic). A list of the more frequently used drugs is given in Table 48.1. It includes drugs that are also used for medicinal purposes (e.g. general anaesthetics, benzodiazepines, opioids and some psychostimulants), non-therapeutic drugs that are legal in many countries (e.g. nicotine and ethanol) and many other drugs that are widely used although their manufacture, sale and consumption have been declared illegal in most Western countries.

Table 48.1 The main drugs of abuse

Type	Examples	Dependence liability	See Chapter
Opioids	Morphine	Very strong	41
	Diamorphine (heroin)	Very strong	41
	Methadone	Very strong	41
	Oxycodone	Very strong	41
General central nervous system depressants	Ethanol	Strong	This chapter
	Barbiturates	Strong	43
	General anaesthetics (e.g. N_2O, propofol)	Moderate	40
	Ketamine	Moderate	40
	Solvents	Strong	—
Anxiolytic and hypnotic drugs	Benzodiazepines	Moderate	43
	GHB	Probably moderate	37
Psychomotor stimulants	Amphetamines	Strong	47
	Cocaine	Very strong	47
	MDMA (ecstasy)	Weak or absent	47
	Nicotine	Very strong	This chapter
Psychotomimetic agents	Lysergic acid diethylamide	Weak or absent	47
	Mescaline	Weak or absent	47
	Cannabis	Weak	18

The reasons why the use of a particular drug is viewed as a problem to society—and hence may be considered 'drug abuse'—are complex and largely outside the scope of this book. The drug and its pharmacological activity are only the starting point. For many, but not all, drugs of abuse, continued use leads to dependence. Here, we briefly review the classes of drug, the biological processes underlying drug dependence and describe in detail the pharmacology of two important drugs that have no place in therapeutics but are consumed in large amounts, namely nicotine and ethanol. Other drugs that are abused are described elsewhere in this book (see Table 48.1). 'Lifestyle' and 'sport' drugs are discussed in Chapter 58.

For further information on various aspects of drug abuse, see Winger et al. (2004), Karch (2006) and Koob & Le Moal (2006).

Drug Use and Abuse

A number of terms are used, sometimes interchangeably and sometimes incorrectly, to describe drug use and the consequences of administration

of drugs. Terms that are best avoided are described in Table 48.2. Other, more useful terms are defined in the text below.

Table 48.2 Glossary of frequently used and 'abused' terms

Addict	Person for whom the desire to experience a drug's effects overrides any consideration for the serious physical, social or psychological problems that the drug may cause to the individual or others. Often used in non-scientific circles to convey criminal intent and so has fallen out of favour with those involved in treating people with drug problems
Drug misuse	Non-medicinal drug use (although some would not consider taking drugs to alter mood/induce hallucinations as 'misuse' or 'abuse')
Junkie	Pejorative term for someone who is dependent upon a drug
Narcotics	Originally used as a term to describe opioids as they induce sleep (narcosis). Subsequently this term has been used by non-scientists to describe a wide range of drugs of abuse (including cocaine which is a stimulant!)
Recreational drug use	Originally used to describe all drug abuse, it is now sometimes used to describe drug use in the bar/club/dance scene
Self-medication	Taking a drug of abuse to offset some underlying medical condition, *e.g.* pain, depression
Substance use	Some governments do not consider ethanol to be a drug, hence 'substance use' (or 'substance abuse') is used to include ethanol

A vast and ever increasing array of drugs is used to alter mood and perception. These range from drugs that are also used as medicines, through non-medicinal synthetic drugs to herbal preparations (Table 48.1). The popularity of each varies between different societies across the world, and within societies popularity differs among different groups of individuals.[1] Frequently, users will take more than one drug concomitantly or sequentially. Polydrug use is a very under-researched area both in regard to why it is done and how different drugs may

interact, as well as in regard to the potential harm that may arise from such practices (e.g. ethanol alters cocaine metabolism resulting in the production of *cocaethylene* which is more potent than cocaine and has greater cardiovascular toxicity). Sequential use is often intended to reduce adverse effects when coming down off the first drug (e.g. use of benzodiazepines when coming down from stimulants).

[1]A recent survey in one UK city showed that among Friday-night clubbers the choice of drug was associated with the type of music the clubs played (Measham & Moore, 2009).

At first sight, the drugs listed in Table 48.1 form an extremely heterogeneous pharmacological group; we can find little in common at the molecular and cellular level between say, morphine, cocaine and LSD. What links them is that people find their effects pleasurable (hedonic) and tend to want to repeat the experience. The drug experience may take the form of intense euphoria, mood elevation, hallucinations, stimulation, sedation or calming depending upon the specific drug taken.

Drug use involves effects on the brain that can be both acute and chronic (Fig. 48.1). The immediate, acute effect on mood is the reason the drug is taken. For some drugs (e.g. amphetamines, Ch. 47), this may be followed by a rebound negative or depressed phase. Persistent use of a drug may lead to compulsive drug use (addiction/dependence—a complex state that involves both psychological and physiological dependence) and to the development of tolerance. Psychological dependence can give rise to intense craving even when the user has been drug-free for months or years.

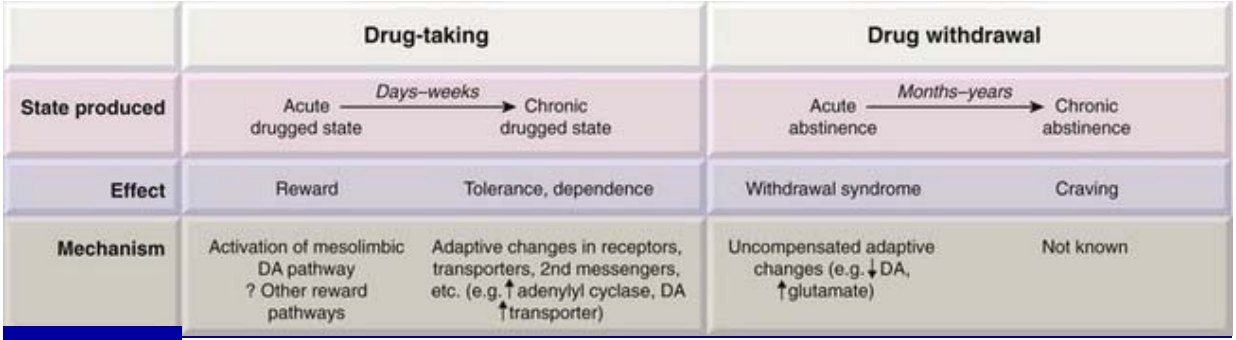


Fig. 48.1 Cellular and physiological mechanisms involved in drug dependence showing the relationship between the immediate and delayed effects of drug taking and drug withdrawal.

DA, dopamine.

Drug Administration

For drugs that induce strong feelings of euphoria, there are two components to the experience: an initial rapid effect (the *rush* or *buzz*) and a more prolonged pleasurable effect (the *high*). The intensity of the initial effect is determined by how fast the drug enters the brain and activates its effector mechanism. For many casual drug users, ease of administration defines how the drug is taken (e.g. smoking, swallowing or snorting a drug is relatively easy). However, for other drug users chasing a more intense experience, the route of administration and the choice of individual drug become important. Intravenous injection or smoking results in faster absorption of a drug than when it is taken orally. Heroin (official name diamorphine), cocaine, amphetamines, tobacco and cannabis are all taken by one or other of these routes. Heroin is more popular as a drug of abuse than morphine. This is because it enters the brain more rapidly than morphine. However, heroin itself does not interact with opioid receptors but is rapidly deacetylated to 6-acetylmorphine and morphine, μ-receptor agonists (see Ch. 41).

Drug Harm

All drugs of abuse are harmful to a varying extent. Adverse effects can be the result of drug overdose (e.g. respiratory depression produced by opioids), of effects on tissues other than the brain (e.g. necrosis of the nasal septum resulting from chronic cocaine use), of the route of administration (e.g. HIV and other infections in drug users who share needles), of effects unrelated to the specific actions of the drug (e.g. carcinogenicity of tobacco smoke, severe bladder pain in regular ketamine users) or of use for illegal purposes (e.g. flunitrazepam or γ-hydroxybutyrate as date-rape drugs). Many major harms relate to the ability of some drugs to induce dependence (e.g. psychostimulants, opioids, ethanol and tobacco) or to reveal a susceptibility to psychotic illness in some individuals (e.g. amphetamines and cannabis).

An attempt to produce a rational scale of harm, based on assessment by an expert panel of physical risk, dependence liability and social cost was reported by Nutt et al. (2010), who have argued that such ratings should influence how governments police and punish people for supplying and using particular drugs. As expected, ethanol, heroin and cocaine were judged to be the most harmful, with cannabis, LSD and ecstasy (MDMA, see Ch. 47) much less so—an order that is not reflected in the classification of these drugs under UK law.[2]

Drug Dependence

[2]In determining society's attitude towards drugs, the media play an influential role. In the UK, deaths following consumption of ecstasy (around 60 per year) are often widely reported in the press and on television but deaths due to heroin overdose (much more prevalent at around 700 per year) are largely ignored unless the victim is famous.

Drug dependence describes the human condition in which drug taking becomes compulsive, taking precedence over other needs, often with

serious adverse consequences. Dependence becomes a problem when:

- the want becomes so insistent that it dominates the lifestyle of the individual and damages his or her quality of life
- the habit itself causes actual harm to the individual or the community.

Examples of the latter are the mental incapacity and liver damage caused by ethanol, the many diseases associated with smoking tobacco, the high risk of infection when injecting intravenously (especially HIV), the serious risk of overdosage with most opioids and the criminal behaviour resorted to when drug users need to finance their habit.

Dependence may involve a state of psychological as well as physical dependence. Family studies show clearly that susceptibility to dependence is an inherited characteristic, and many candidate genes have been reported, with a particular focus on genes involved in transmitter metabolism, receptors, *etc.* (see Mayer & Höllt, 2005). The general conclusion is that variants of many different genes each make a small contribution to the overall susceptibility of an individual to addiction—a familiar scenario that provides few pointers for therapeutic intervention. Polymorphisms in ethanol-metabolising genes (see later section on ethanol) are the best example of genes that directly affect the tendency to abuse a drug.

Drug-Induced Reward

The common feature of the various types of psychoactive drugs that are addictive is that all produce a *rewarding* experience (e.g. an elevation of mood or a feeling of euphoria or calmness).

In animal studies, where the state of mood cannot be inferred directly, reward is manifest as *positive reinforcement*, *i.e.* an increase in the probability of occurrence of any behaviour that is associated with the

drug experience. In *conditioned place preference* studies, animals receive a drug or placebo and are then placed in different environments. Subsequently, when tested in a drug-free state, they will spend more time in the environment associated with a previous rewarding drug experience. Another way of determining if a drug is rewarding is to test whether or not animals will self-administer the drug by pressing a lever to obtain it. All dependence-producing drugs are self-administered by experimental animals. Hallucinogenic drugs are not, however, normally self-administered by animals, which may indicate that, unlike humans, they find the experience non-rewarding.

Humans, of course, self-administer drugs without necessarily becoming addicted. To model the compulsive nature of addiction more accurately, extensions to the self-administration paradigm may be employed (see Deroche-Gamonet et al., 2004). Rats treated for a short time with 'non-addictive' doses of cocaine will self-administer the drug by bar pressing, but stop bar pressing when a signal is shown to indicate that the drug injector is disconnected, or if the drug injection is accompanied by punishment in the form of a foot shock. With more intense 'addictive' pretreatment, bar pressing persists at a high rate under these conditions. Models of this sort are considered more likely to replicate the situation of addiction in humans as a basis for testing therapeutic approaches, but in humans, drug dependence represents a stable change in brain function sustained by processes that are more complex and long lasting than the neurobiological changes so far studied in experimental animals.

Humans also have a choice as to whether or not they wish to experiment with and continue taking drugs—there may therefore be an element of risk taking when experimenting with drugs. In behavioural tests, some rats are observed to be much more impulsive than others (Dalley et al., 2007). These impulsive rats also show a higher rate of

cocaine self-administration. Interestingly, the impulsive rats were also observed to have a lower level of expression of D_2 and D_3 dopamine receptors in the nucleus accumbens (see below for the importance of this brain region in drug use).

Reward pathways

▼ Virtually all dependence-producing drugs so far tested, including opioids, nicotine, amphetamines, ethanol and cocaine, activate the *reward pathway*—the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathway (see Ch. 38), that runs, via the medial forebrain bundle, from the ventral tegmental area (VTA) of the midbrain to the nucleus accumbens and limbic region (see Nestler, 2001). Even though for some of these drugs their primary sites of action may be elsewhere in the brain, they all increase the extracellular level of dopamine in the nucleus accumbens, as shown by microdialysis and other techniques (see Spanagel & Weiss, 1999). Opioids enhance the firing of VTA dopaminergic neurons by reducing the level of GABAergic inhibition (disinhibition) within the VTA, whereas amphetamine and cocaine act on dopaminergic nerve terminals in the nucleus accumbens to release dopamine or prevent its reuptake (see Ch. 14). Given that dopamine release in the nucleus accumbens is also enhanced by naturally rewarding stimuli, such as food, water, sex and nurturing, it would appear that drugs are simply activating, or overactivating, the body's own pleasure system.

Chemical or surgical interruption of the VTA–accumbens dopaminergic pathway impairs drug-seeking behaviours in many experimental situations. Deletion of D_2 receptors in a transgenic mouse strain eliminated the rewarding properties of morphine administration without eliminating other opioid effects, and it did not prevent the occurrence of physical withdrawal symptoms in morphine-dependent animals

(Maldonado et al., 1997), suggesting that the dopaminergic pathway is responsible for the positive reward but not for the negative withdrawal effects. However, D_2-receptor antagonists (antipsychotic drugs; see Ch. 45) have not been successful in treating addiction, and more recent evidence (see Heidbreder & Hagan, 2005) suggests that D_3 receptors play an important role. The development of D_3-receptor antagonists or partial agonists as treatments for drug abuse is awaited. Other mediators, particularly 5-hydroxytryptamine, glutamate and GABA, have also been implicated in the conditioning mechanisms that reinforce drug-seeking behaviour, and a variety of pharmacological strategies based on blocking these pathways are being explored (see Heidbreder & Hagan, 2005).

Psychological Dependence

Having experienced the rewarding effects of a drug, an individual may desire to repeat the experience. The memory of previous drug-induced experiences can be very intense and long lasting, giving rise to *craving*; it may drive an individual to take the drug again—referred to as *relapse* when someone is trying to come off a drug (see Weiss, 2005). Craving may be triggered by cues such as experiencing the environment that a person associates with previously taking the drug or the sight of drug administration paraphernalia (e.g. a crack pipe or syringe). Coupled with the direct rewarding effect of the drug, cessation of drug use may be associated with an aversive psychological effect from which the subject will attempt to escape by self-administering the drug.

The psychological factors in drug dependence are discussed in detail by Koob & Le Moal (2006) and summarised in Figure 48.2.

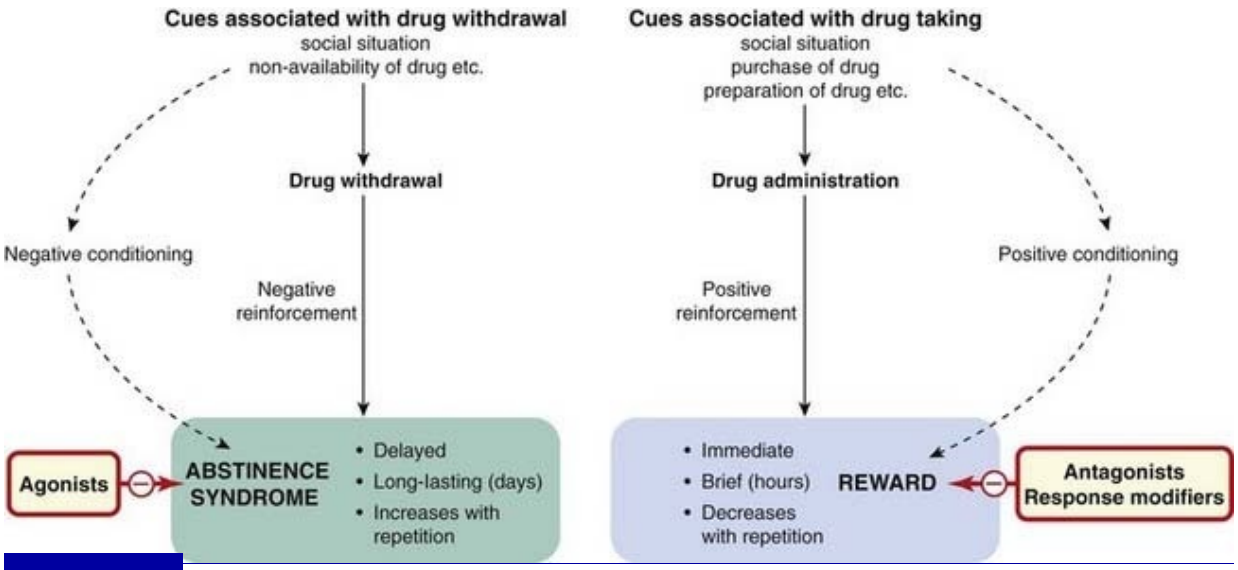


Fig. 48.2 Psychological factors involved in drug dependence.

Physical Dependence

This condition is characterised by a *withdrawal* or *abstinence syndrome* whereby on cessation of drug administration or on administering an antagonist, adverse physiological effects are experienced over a period of days or weeks, the precise withdrawal responses being characteristic of the type of drug taken. Withdrawal responses can be observed in animals after chronic drug administration. The intensity of the withdrawal syndrome also varies between drugs of the same type (e.g. withdrawal from methadone is less intense but more prolonged than that from heroin, one of the reasons behind methadone maintenance treatment of heroin users). Pharmacological intervention can be used to reduce the intensity of the withdrawal (see Table 48.3). Several types of therapeutic drug, including antidepressant and antipsychotic agents, also produce withdrawal symptoms on cessation of administration but it is important to distinguish this type of commonly observed ‘rebound’ phenomenon from the physical dependence associated with drugs of abuse.

Table 48.3 Pharmacological approaches to treating drug dependence

Mechanism	Example(s)
To alleviate withdrawal symptoms	Methadone (orally active) used short term to blunt opioid withdrawal Ibogaine (a naturally occurring psychoactive agent) used by some to reduce opioid withdrawal α2 Adrenoceptor agonists (e.g. clonidine, lofexidine) to diminish opioid, alcohol and nicotine withdrawal symptoms β Adrenoceptor antagonists (e.g. propranolol) to diminish excessive peripheral sympathetic activity Benzodiazepines, clomethiazole, topiramate and γ-hydroxybutyric acid (GHB) to blunt alcohol withdrawal
Long-term substitution	Methadone, buprenorphine or legal heroin to maintain opioid-dependent patients Nicotine patches or chewing gum Varenicline (α4β2 nicotinic receptor partial agonist)
Blocking response	Naltrexone to block opioid effects in drug-withdrawn patients Mecamylamine to block nicotine effects Immunisation against cocaine and nicotine to produce circulating antibody (still being developed)
Aversive therapies	Disulfiram to induce unpleasant response to ethanol
Reducing continued drug use (may act by reducing craving)	Bupropion (antidepressant with some nicotinic receptor antagonist activity) to reduce tobacco use Naltrexone to reduce ethanol use Clonidine (α2 adrenoceptor agonist) to reduce craving for nicotinea Acamprosate (NMDA receptor antagonist) to treat alcoholisma Topiramate and lamotrogine (antiepileptic agents) to treat alcoholism and cocaine usea γ-Hydroxybutyric acid (GHB) reported to reduce craving for alcohol and cocainea Baclofen reported to reduce opioid, alcohol and stimulant

	use[a] Ibogaine reported to reduce craving for stimulants and opioids[a]

Notes: Antidepressant, mood stabilising, anxiolytic and antipsychotic medications are useful when treating patients who, in addition to their drug use, also suffer from other mental disorders. The cannabinoid CB1-receptor antagonist rimonabant, in addition to its antiobesity effects, also reduces nicotine, ethanol, stimulant and opioid consumption. However, it also induces depression and its use has been discontinued.

[a] How effective these agents are at reducing the continued use of other drugs of abuse over and above the ones listed remains to be determined.

See Web links in the reference list for further information on treatments of drug dependence and Myrick & Anton (1998) for treatment of alcohol withdrawal.

Physical dependence is less important in sustaining drug-seeking behaviour than psychological dependence. A degree of physical dependence is common when patients receive opioid analgesics in hospital for several days, but this rarely leads to addiction. On the other hand, heroin users who are nursed through and recover fully from the physical abstinence syndrome are still extremely likely to revert to drug taking later. Therefore although physical dependence may influence the drive to retake a drug, it is not the major factor in long-term drug dependence.

Drug dependence

• Dependence occurs when, as a result of repeated administration of the drug, the desire to experience the effects of a drug again becomes compulsive.

• Dependence occurs with a wide range of psychotropic drugs, acting by many different mechanisms.

• Dependence can be subdivided into psychological dependence and physical dependence

• Psychological dependence (craving) is the major factor leading to relapse among treated addicts.

• The common feature of psychological dependence-inducing drugs is that they have a positive reinforcing action ('reward') associated with activation of the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathway.

• Physical dependence is characterised by an abstinence syndrome, which varies in type and intensity for different classes of drug.

• On repeated administration, tolerance may occur to the effects of the drug.

• Although genetic factors contribute to drug-seeking behaviour, no specific genes have yet been identified.

Tolerance

Tolerance (see Ch. 2) describes the decrease in pharmacological effect on repeated administration of a drug—it develops over time as does the state of dependence. It does not occur with all drugs of abuse.

Mechanisms of Dependence and Tolerance

▼ Drug users report that visual cues—such as the sight of a crack pipe or of a syringe—can evoke intense memories of the drug experience and induce strong craving for the drug which may precipitate relapse. This suggests that associative learning may be a major factor in psychological dependence (Robbins et al., 2008). It has been suggested that drugs alter memory formation to enhance the recollection of previous drug experience. In this regard, it is of interest that several drugs produce changes in synaptic plasticity, a cellular correlate of memory formation (see Ch. 37). While cocaine, morphine, nicotine and ethanol enhance

long-term potentiation (LTP) in the VTA by increasing the expression of AMPA receptors on the plasma membrane, cocaine also increases long-term depression (LTD) in the nucleus accumbens (Hyman et al., 2006).

It was for many years assumed that physical dependence and tolerance were produced by the same underlying adaptive mechanisms. This is now generally accepted to not be the case (see Bailey & Connor, 2005).

The mechanisms responsible for the withdrawal syndrome have been most fully characterised for opioid dependence but similar mechanisms may apply to cocaine and ethanol withdrawal. At the cellular level, withdrawal of opioids results in a rebound increase in cAMP production as a result of 'superactivation' of adenylyl cyclase as well as upregulation of the amount of this enzyme. This results in activation of protein kinase A (PKA), in an increase in adenosine as a consequence of the conversion of cAMP to adenosine and in activation of a transcription factor—cAMP response element binding protein (CREB). The rise in PKA activity increases the excitability of nerve terminals by phosphorylating neurotransmitter transporters thus increasing their ionic conductance (see Bagley et al., 2005) and in an increase in neurotransmitter release by a direct action on the secretory process (Williams et al., 2001). Withdrawal results in enhanced GABA release in various parts of the brain, probably through the mechanisms described above. The release of other neurotransmitters is also likely to be enhanced. On the other hand, the enhanced extracellular levels of adenosine, acting on presynaptic A_1 receptors (see Ch. 16), acts to inhibit glutamate release at excitatory synapses, and thus counteracts the neuronal hyperexcitability that occurs during drug withdrawal, suggesting the possibility—not yet clinically proven—that adenosine agonists might prove useful in treating drug dependence. CREB, which is upregulated in the nucleus accumbens by prolonged administration of opioids or cocaine, plays a key role in

regulating various components of cAMP signalling pathways, and transgenic animals lacking CREB show reduced withdrawal symptoms (see Chao & Nestler, 2004).

For drugs such as opioids that are agonists at specific receptors (see Ch. 41), cellular tolerance results from desensitisation of the receptor. On prolonged activation by an agonist, the μ opioid receptor (MOPr) is phosphorylated by various intracellular kinases—including G-protein-coupled receptor kinases (GRKs), protein kinase C (PKC), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and Ca^{2+}/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CamKII)—which either directly desensitises the receptor or causes the binding to the receptor of other proteins, such as arrestins, that uncouple the receptor from its G-protein (see Bailey & Connor, 2005). In the intact animal, inhibition or knockout of these kinases reduces the level of tolerance. It has also been reported that blockade of neurokinin, calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) and NMDA receptors reduces opioid tolerance in vivo. This may be because the activity of some of the kinases involved in MOPr desensitisation (e.g. PKC and CamKII) in neurons is enhanced when these other receptors are activated.

Clinical use of drugs in substance dependence

Tobacco dependence

• Short-term **nicotine** is an adjunct to behavioural therapy in smokers committed to giving up; **varenicline** is also used as an adjunct but has been linked to suicidal ideation.

• **Bupropion** is also effective but lowers seizure threshold, so is contraindicated in people with risk factors for seizures (and also if there is a history of eating disorder).

Alcohol dependence

• Long-acting benzodiazepines (e.g. **chlordiazepoxide**) can be used to reduce withdrawal symptoms and the risk of seizures; they should be tapered over 1–2 weeks and then discontinued because of their abuse potential.

• **Disulfiram** is used as an adjunct to behavioural therapy in suitably motivated alcoholics after detoxification; it is contraindicated for patients in whom hypotension would be dangerous (e.g. those with coronary or cerebral vascular disease).

• **Acamprosate** can help to maintain abstinence; it is started as soon as abstinence has been achieved and maintained if relapse occurs, and it is continued for 1 year.

Opioid dependence

• Opioid agonists or partial agonists (e.g., respectively, **methadone** or **buprenorphine**) administered orally or sublingually may be substituted for injectable narcotics, many of whose harmful effects are attributable to the route of administration.

• **Naltrexone**, a long-acting opioid antagonist, is used as an adjunct to help prevent relapse in detoxified addicts (opioid free for at least 1 week).

• **Lofexidine**, an $\alpha 2$ agonist (cf. **clonidine**; Ch. 14), is used short term (usually up to 10 days) to ameliorate symptoms of opioid withdrawal, and is then tapered over a further 2–4 days.

Pharmacological Approaches to Treating Drug Addiction

From the discussion above, it will be clear that drug abuse involves many psychosocial and some genetic factors, as well as neuropharmacological mechanisms, so drug treatment is only one component of the therapeutic approaches that are used. The main pharmacological approaches (see O'Brien, 1997; Heidbreder & Hagan, 2005) are summarised in Table 48.3. For information on other approaches to the treatment of drug addiction, readers are advised to follow the Web link given at the end of this chapter to the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA).

A new approach to the treatment of drug dependence, so far applied mainly to nicotine and cocaine, is the development of vaccines (see Bunce et al., 2003) consisting of the drug molecule complexed to a protein. Antibodies produced in response to injection of the complex also bind the free drug, thereby preventing it from reaching the brain. This strategy is effective in animal models involving self-administration, and clinical trials in humans are in progress.

Nicotine and Tobacco

Tobacco growing, chewing and smoking was indigenous throughout the American subcontinent and Australia at the time that European explorers first visited these places. Smoking spread through Europe during the 16th century, coming to England mainly as a result of its enthusiastic espousal by Raleigh at the court of Elizabeth I. James I strongly disapproved of both Raleigh and tobacco, and initiated the first antismoking campaign in the early 17th century with the support of the Royal College of Physicians. Parliament responded by imposing a substantial duty on tobacco, thereby setting up the dilemma (from which we show no sign of being able to escape) of giving the State an economic interest in the continuation of smoking at the same time that its official expert advisers were issuing emphatic warnings about its dangers.

Until the latter half of the 19th century, tobacco was smoked in pipes, and primarily by men. Cigarette manufacture began at the end of the 19th century, and now cigarettes account for 98% of tobacco consumption. Filter cigarettes (which give a somewhat lower delivery of tar and nicotine than standard cigarettes) and 'low-tar' cigarettes (which are also low in nicotine) constitute an increasing proportion of the total.[3] Cigarette consumption across the globe continues to rise (Fig. 48.3).[4] There are about 1.1 billion smokers in the world (18% of the

population), and the number in developing countries is increasing rapidly. Six trillion (6×10^{12}) cigarettes are sold each year, more than 900 cigarettes for every man, woman and child on the planet. In 2010, 12 million cigarettes per minute will be smoked around the world.

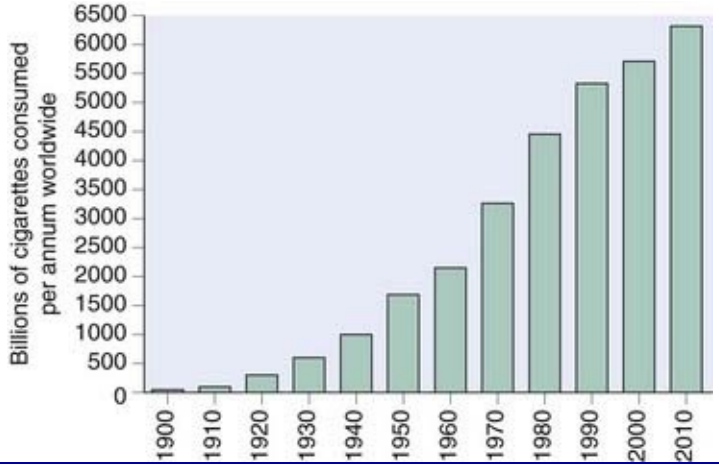


Fig. 48.3 Global cigarette consumption per annum 1900–2010.

(Data from http://www.tobaccoatlas.org/consumption.html.)

[3]Smokers, however, adapt by smoking more low-tar cigarettes and inhaling more deeply so as to maintain their nicotine consumption.

[4]In contrast to the global picture, in the UK consumption has dropped by over 50% from its peak in the 1970s, the main factors being increased price, adverse publicity, restrictions on advertising, the compulsory publication of health warnings and, most recently, a ban on smoking in public places. Still, however, around 9.4 million adults (just over 20% of the adult population) in the UK smoke, with little difference between men and women. About 10% of children aged 10–15 are regular smokers.

For reviews on nicotine and smoking, see Balfour & Fagerstrom (1996) and Benowitz (1996).

Tobacco smoking

• Cigarette consumption across the world continues to rise, although in the UK it is now declining after reaching a peak in the mid-1970s.

• The worldwide prevalence of smoking is now about 18% of the adult population, each smoker using on average 5000 cigarettes per year.

• Nicotine is the main pharmacologically active agent in tobacco, apart from carcinogenic tars and carbon monoxide.

• The amount of nicotine absorbed from an average cigarette is about 1–1.5 mg, which causes the plasma nicotine concentration to reach 130–200 nmol/l. These values depend greatly on the type of cigarette and on the extent of inhalation of the smoke.

Pharmacological Effects of Smoking

Nicotine[5] is the main pharmacologically active substance in tobacco smoke. The acute effects of smoking can be mimicked by injection of nicotine and are blocked by **mecamylamine**, an antagonist at neuronal nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs; see Ch. 13).

Effects on the central nervous system

[5]From the plant *Nicotiana*, named after Jean Nicot, French ambassador to Portugal, who presented seeds to the French king in 1560, having been persuaded by natives of South America of the medical value of smoking tobacco leaves. Smoking was believed to protect against illness, particularly the plague.

The central effects of nicotine are complex and cannot be summed up overall simply in terms of stimulation or inhibition. At the cellular level, nicotine acts on nAChRs (see Ch. 38), which are widely expressed in the brain, particularly in the cortex and hippocampus, and are believed to

play a role in cognitive function, as well as in the VTA, from which dopaminergic neurons project to the nucleus accumbens (the reward pathway, see above). nAChRs are ligand-gated cation channels located both pre-and postsynaptically, causing, respectively, enhanced transmitter release and neuronal excitation (see Wonnacott et al., 2005). Of the various subtypes of nAChR, the α4β2 and α7 subtypes (see Ch. 13) have received most attention, but other subtypes may also be involved in the rewarding effects of nicotine. As well as activating the receptors, nicotine also causes desensitisation, which may be an important component of its effects, because the effects of a dose of nicotine are diminished in animals after sustained exposure to the drug. Chronic nicotine administration leads to a substantial increase in the number of nAChRs (an effect opposite to that produced by sustained administration of most receptor agonists), which may represent an adaptive response to prolonged receptor desensitisation. It is likely that the overall effect of nicotine reflects a balance between activation of nAChRs, causing neuronal excitation, and desensitisation, causing synaptic block.

At the spinal level, nicotine inhibits spinal reflexes, causing skeletal muscle relaxation that can be measured by electromyography. This may be due to stimulation of the inhibitory Renshaw cells in the ventral horn of the spinal cord. The higher level functioning of the brain, as reflected in the subjective sense of alertness or by the electroencephalography (EEG) pattern, can be affected in either direction by nicotine, according to dose and circumstances. Smokers report that smoking wakes them up when they are drowsy and calms them down when they are tense, and EEG recordings broadly bear this out. It also seems that small doses of nicotine tend to cause arousal, whereas large doses do the reverse. Tests of motor and sensory performance (e.g. reaction time measurements or

vigilance tests) in humans generally show improvement after smoking, and nicotine enhances learning in rats.

Some elaborate tests have been conducted to see, for example, whether the effect of nicotine on performance and aggression varies according to the amount of stress. Some tests border on nasty-mindedness, such as one in which subjects played a complicated logical game with a computer that initially played fair and then began to cheat randomly, causing stress and aggression in the subjects and a decline in their performance. Smoking, it was reported, did not reduce the anger but did reduce the decline in performance.

Nicotine and other nicotinic agonists such as **epibatidine** (Ch. 41) have significant analgesic activity.

Peripheral effects

The peripheral effects of small doses of nicotine result from stimulation of autonomic ganglia (see Ch. 13) and of peripheral sensory receptors, mainly in the heart and lungs. Stimulation of these receptors elicits various autonomic reflex responses, causing tachycardia, increased cardiac output and increased arterial pressure, reduction of gastrointestinal motility and sweating. When people smoke for the first time, they usually experience nausea and sometimes vomit, probably because of stimulation of sensory receptors in the stomach. All these effects decline with repeated dosage, although the central effects remain. Secretion of adrenaline and noradrenaline from the adrenal medulla contributes to the cardiovascular effects, and release of antidiuretic hormone from the posterior pituitary causes a decrease in urine flow.[6] The plasma concentration of free fatty acids is increased, probably owing to sympathetic stimulation and adrenaline secretion.

[6]This may explain why, in years gone by, men smoked cigars while

chatting over drinks after dinner.

Smokers weigh, on average, about 4 kg less than non-smokers, mainly because of reduced food intake; giving up smoking usually causes weight gain associated with increased food intake.

Pharmacokinetic Aspects

An average cigarette contains about 0.8 g of tobacco and 9–17 mg of nicotine, of which about 10% is normally absorbed by the smoker. This fraction varies greatly with the habits of the smoker and the type of cigarette.

Nicotine in cigarette smoke is rapidly absorbed from the lungs but poorly from the mouth and nasopharynx. Therefore, inhalation is required to give appreciable absorption of nicotine, each puff delivering a distinct bolus of drug to the CNS. Pipe or cigar smoke is less acidic than cigarette smoke, and the nicotine tends to be absorbed from the mouth and nasopharynx rather than the lungs. Absorption is considerably slower than from inhaled cigarette smoke, resulting in a later and longer-lasting peak in the plasma nicotine concentration (Fig. 48.4). An average cigarette, smoked over 10 min, causes the plasma nicotine concentration to rise to 15–30 ng/ml (100–200 nmol/l), falling to about half within 10 min and then more slowly over the next 1–2 h. The rapid decline results mainly from redistribution between the blood and other tissues; the slower decline is due to hepatic metabolism, mainly by oxidation to an inactive ketone metabolite, *cotinine*. This has a long plasma half-life, and measurement of plasma nicotine concentration provides a useful measure of smoking behaviour. A nicotine patch applied for 24 h causes the plasma concentration to rise to 75–150 nmol/l over 6 h and to remain fairly constant for about 20 h. Administration by nasal spray or chewing gum results in a time course

intermediate between that of smoking and the nicotine patch.

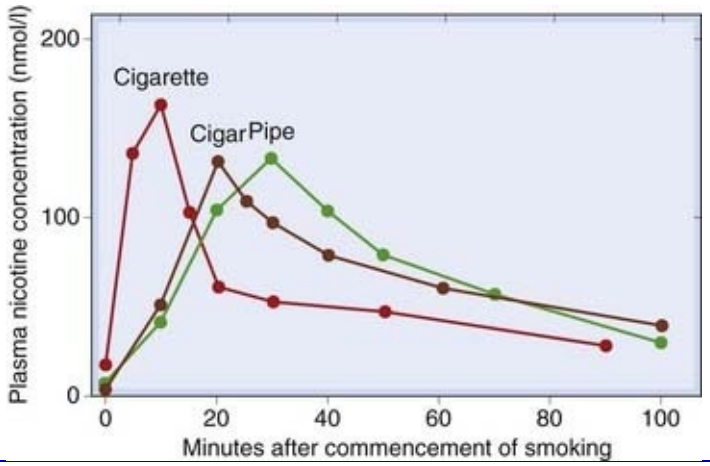


Fig. 48.4 Nicotine concentration in plasma during smoking.

The subjects were habitual smokers who smoked a cigarette, cigar or pipe according to their usual habit.

(From Bowman W C, Rand M 1980 Chapter 4. In: Textbook of pharmacology. Blackwell, Oxford.)

Tolerance and Dependence

As with other dependence-producing drugs, three separate processes—psychological dependence, physical dependence and tolerance—contribute to the overall state of dependence, in which taking the drug becomes compulsive.

The effects of nicotine associated with peripheral ganglionic stimulation show rapid tolerance, perhaps as a result of desensitisation of nAChRs by nicotine. With large doses of nicotine, this desensitisation produces a block of ganglionic transmission rather than stimulation (see Ch. 13). Tolerance to the central effects of nicotine (e.g. in the arousal response) is much less than in the periphery. The increase in the number of nAChRs in the brain produced by chronic nicotine administration in animals (see above) also occurs in heavy smokers. Because the cellular effects of nicotine are diminished, it is possible that the additional

binding sites represent desensitised rather than functional receptors.

The addictiveness of smoking is due to the effects of nicotine combined with the ritual of smoking (see Le Foll & Goldberg, 2005). Rats choose to drink dilute nicotine solution in preference to water if given a choice, and in a situation in which lever pressing causes an injection of nicotine to be delivered—admittedly at high doses—they quickly learn to self-administer it. Similarly, monkeys who have been trained to smoke, by providing a reward in response to smoking behaviour, will continue to do so spontaneously (i.e. unrewarded) if the smoking medium contains nicotine, but not if nicotine-free tobacco is offered instead. Humans, however, are unlikely to become addicted to nicotine delivered from patches suggesting that other factors are also involved, such as the controlled pulsatile delivery associated with smoking.

Like other addictive drugs (see above), nicotine causes excitation of the mesolimbic reward pathway and increased dopamine release in the nucleus accumbens. Transgenic mice lacking the β2 subunit of the acetylcholine receptor lose the rewarding effect of nicotine and its dopamine-releasing effect, confirming the importance of the α4β2 nAChR subtype and mesolimbic dopamine release in the response to nicotine. In contrast to normal mice, the mutant mice could not be induced to self-administer nicotine, even though they did so with cocaine.

A physical withdrawal syndrome occurs in humans on cessation of smoking. Its main features are increased irritability, impaired performance of psychomotor tasks, aggressiveness and sleep disturbance. The withdrawal syndrome is much less severe than that produced by opioids, and it can be alleviated not only by nicotine but also by amphetamine, a finding consistent with the postulated role of dopamine in the reward pathway. The withdrawal syndrome lasts for 2–3 weeks,

although the craving for cigarettes persists for much longer than this; relapses during attempts to give up cigarette smoking occur most commonly at a time when the physical withdrawal syndrome has long since subsided.

Pharmacology of nicotine

• At the cellular level, nicotine acts on nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs), mainly of the α4β2 subtype, to enhance neurotransmitter release and increase neuronal excitation. Its central effects are blocked by receptor antagonists such as **mecamylamine**.

• At the behavioural level, nicotine produces a mixture of inhibitory and excitatory effects.

• Nicotine shows reinforcing properties, associated with increased activity in the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathway, and self-administration can be elicited in animal studies.

• Electroencephalography changes show an arousal response, and subjects report increased alertness accompanied by a reduction of anxiety and tension.

• Learning, particularly under stress, is facilitated by nicotine.

• Peripheral effects of nicotine are due mainly to ganglionic stimulation: tachycardia, increased blood pressure and reduced gastrointestinal motility. Tolerance develops rapidly to these effects.

• Nicotine is metabolised, mainly in the liver, within 1–2 h.

• The inactive metabolite, cotinine, has a long plasma half-life and can be used as a measure of smoking habits.

• Nicotine gives rise to tolerance, physical dependence and psychological dependence (craving). Attempts at long-term cessation succeed in only about 20% of cases.

• Nicotine replacement therapy (chewing gum or skin patch preparations) improves the

chances of giving up smoking when combined with active counselling.

Harmful Effects of Smoking

The life expectancy of smokers is shorter than that of non-smokers. Smoking causes almost 90% of deaths from lung cancer, around 80% of deaths from bronchitis and emphysema, and around 17% of deaths from heart disease. About one-third of all cancer deaths can be attributed to smoking. Smoking is, by a large margin, the biggest preventable cause of death, responsible for about 1 in 10 adult deaths worldwide. Deaths from smoking are continuing to rise. In 1990, smoking was responsible for 10% (3 million out of 30 million) of deaths worldwide; by 2030, this is expected to increase to 17% (10 million out of 60 million), mainly due to the growth of smoking in Asia, Africa and Latin America (Peto et al., 1996).

The main health risks are as follows:

• *Cancer, particularly of the lung and upper respiratory tract but also of the oesophagus, pancreas and bladder*. Smoking 20 cigarettes per day is estimated to increase the risk of lung cancer about 10-fold. Pipe and cigar smoking carry much less risk than cigarette smoking, although the risk is still appreciable. Tar, rather than nicotine, is responsible for the cancer risk. Genetic variants of nicotinic receptor subunits have been associated with lung cancer although the mechanisms behind this association are unclear (see Hung et al., 2008).

• *Coronary heart disease and other forms of peripheral vascular disease*. The mortality among men aged 55–64 from coronary thrombosis is about 60% greater in men who smoke 20 cigarettes per day than in non-smokers. Although the increase in risk is less than it is for lung cancer, the actual number of excess deaths associated with smoking is larger,

because coronary heart disease is so common. Other kinds of vascular disease (e.g. stroke, intermittent claudication and diabetic gangrene) are also strongly smoking related. Many studies have suggested that nicotine is mainly responsible for the adverse effect of smoking on the incidence of cardiovascular disease. Another factor may be carbon monoxide (see below). Surprisingly, there is no clear increase in ischaemic heart disease in pipe and cigar smokers, even though similar blood nicotine and carboxyhaemoglobin concentrations are reached, suggesting that nicotine and carbon monoxide may not be the only causative factors.

• *Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease* (COPD; see Ch. 27) is a major global health problem. Cigarette smoking is the main cause. Stopping smoking slows the progression of the disease. Bronchitis, inflammation of the mucous membranes of the bronchi, is much more common in smokers than in non-smokers. These effects are probably due to tar and other irritants rather than nicotine.

• *Harmful effects in pregnancy*. Smoking, particularly during the latter half of pregnancy, significantly reduces birth weight (by about 8% in women who smoke 25 or more cigarettes per day during pregnancy) and increases perinatal mortality (by an estimated 28% in babies born to mothers who smoke in the last half of pregnancy). There is evidence that children born to smoking mothers remain behind, in both physical and mental development, for at least 7 years. By 11 years of age, the difference is no longer significant. These effects of smoking, although measurable, are much smaller than the effects of other factors, such as social class and birth order. Various other complications of pregnancy are also more common in women who smoke, including spontaneous abortion (increased 30–70% by smoking), premature delivery (increased

about 40%) and placenta praevia (increased 25–90%). Nicotine is excreted in breast milk in sufficient amounts to cause tachycardia in the infant.

The agents probably responsible for the harmful effects are as follows:

• Tar and irritants, such as nitrogen dioxide and formaldehyde. Cigarette smoke tar contains many known carcinogenic hydrocarbons, as well as tumour promoters, which account for the high cancer risk. It is likely that the various irritant substances are also responsible for the increase in bronchitis and emphysema.

• Nicotine probably accounts for retarded fetal development because of its vasoconstrictor properties.

• Carbon monoxide. Cigarette smoke contains about 3% carbon monoxide. Carbon monoxide has a high affinity for haemoglobin, and the average carboxyhaemoglobin content in the blood of cigarette smokers is about 2.5% (compared with 0.4% for non-smoking urban dwellers). In very heavy smokers, up to 15% of haemoglobin may be carboxylated, a level that affects fetal development in rats. This factor may also contribute to the increased incidence of heart and vascular disease. Fetal haemoglobin has a higher affinity for carbon monoxide than adult haemoglobin, and the proportion of carboxyhaemoglobin is higher in fetal than in maternal blood.

• Increased oxidative stress may be responsible for atherogenesis (Ch. 23) and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (Ch. 27).

Low-tar cigarettes give a lower yield of both tar and nicotine than standard cigarettes. However, it has been shown that smokers puff harder, inhale more and smoke more cigarettes when low-tar brands are substituted for standard brands. The end result may be a slightly reduced

intake of tar and nicotine but an increase in carbon monoxide intake, with no net gain in terms of safety.

Other Effects of Smoking

Parkinson's disease is approximately twice as common in non-smokers as in smokers. It is possible that this reflects a protective effect of nicotine, but it could be that common genetic or environmental factors underlie smoking behaviour and susceptibility to Parkinson's disease. Ulcerative colitis appears to be a disease of non-smokers. Former smokers are at high risk for developing ulcerative colitis, while current smokers have the least risk. This tendency indicates that smoking cigarettes may prevent the onset of ulcerative colitis. In contrast, smoking tends to worsen the effects of Crohn's disease. Earlier reports that Alzheimer's disease is less common in smokers have not been confirmed; indeed there is evidence that smoking may increase the occurrence of Alzheimer's disease in some genetic groups.

Effects of smoking 

• Smoking accounts for about 10% of deaths worldwide, mainly due to:

– cancer, especially lung cancer, of which about 90% of cases are smoking related; carcinogenic tars are responsible

– ischaemic heart disease; both nicotine and carbon monoxide may be responsible

– chronic bronchitis; tars are mainly responsible.

• Smoking in pregnancy reduces birth weight and retards childhood development. It also increases abortion rate and perinatal mortality. Nicotine and possibly carbon monoxide are responsible.

• The incidence of Parkinson's disease is lower in smokers than in non-smokers.

Pharmacological Approaches to Treating Nicotine

Dependence

Most smokers would like to quit, but few succeed.[7] The most successful smoking cure clinics, using a combination of psychological and pharmacological treatments, achieve a success rate of about 25%, measured as the percentage of patients still abstinent after 1 year. The two main pharmacological treatments (see George & O'Malley, 2004) are **nicotine replacement therapy** and **bupropion** (also used to treat depression; see Table 46.2). A nAChR partial agonist, **varenicline** has recently been introduced.

[7]Freud tried unsuccessfully to give up cigars for 45 years before dying of cancer of the mouth at the age of 83.

Nicotine replacement therapy is used mainly to assist smokers to quit by reducing craving and physical withdrawal symptoms. Because nicotine is relatively short acting and not well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, it is given either in the form of chewing gum, used several times daily, or as a transdermal patch that is replaced daily. These preparations cause various side effects, particularly nausea and gastrointestinal cramps, cough, insomnia and muscle pains. There is a risk that nicotine may cause coronary spasm in patients with heart disease. Transdermal patches may cause local irritation and itching. The conclusion of many double-blind trials of nicotine against placebo is that these preparations, combined with professional counselling and supportive therapy, roughly double the chances of successfully breaking the smoking habit, but the success rate measured as abstinence 1 year after ceasing treatment is still only about 25%. Nicotine on its own, without counselling and support, is no more effective than placebo, so its use as an over-the-counter smoking remedy has little justification. Although of limited value as an aid to abstinence, the long-term use of

nicotine can significantly reduce cigarette consumption by smokers. In Sweden, the use of ‘smokeless tobacco’ is encouraged and the smoking-related death rate is much lower than elsewhere in Europe or North America.

The identification of the α4β2 nAChR subtype as the main nAChR subtype in the brain involved in the rewarding properties of tobacco smoking may allow selective agonists to be developed as nicotine substitutes with fewer side effects. Varenicline is a partial agonist at the α4β2 nicotinic receptor subtype and has differing levels of efficacy at other subtypes. Being a partial agonist it may provide a level of substitution while at the same time blocking the rewarding effect of smoking. It is effective in preventing relapse but there has been some concern that it may induce suicidal thoughts, suicide attempts, aggression and homicide. However, a recent large retrospective study (Gunnell et al., 2009) found no evidence of increased suicide or suicidal thoughts with varenicline, compared with other antismoking treatments.

Bupropion (Ch. 46) appears to be as effective as nicotine replacement therapy, even in non-depressed patients, and has fewer side effects. However, bupropion lowers the seizure threshold so should not be prescribed if there are other risk factors for seizures (including other drugs that lower seizure threshold). It is also contraindicated if there is a history of eating disorders or of bipolar mood disorder, and is used only with caution in patients with liver or renal disease. Because of these problems, nicotine remains the pharmacological treatment of choice in most cases.

Bupropion may act by increasing dopamine activity in the nucleus accumbens. It is a weak blocker of dopamine and noradrenaline uptake, but it is not clear that this accounts for its efficacy in treating nicotine dependence. It is usually given as a slow-release formulation.

Many other drugs have been tested clinically and shown to be useful in some cases. They include the following:

• **Clonidine**, an α_2 adrenoceptor agonist (see Ch. 14), which reduces the withdrawal effects of several dependence-producing drugs, including opioids and cocaine, as well as nicotine.[8] Clonidine may be given orally or as a transdermal patch, and is about as effective as nicotine substitution in assisting abstinence. The side effects of clonidine (hypotension, dry mouth, drowsiness) are troublesome, however, and it is not widely used.

• **Tricyclic antidepressants**, **selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors** and **monoamine oxidase inhibitors**, used mainly as antidepressants (Ch. 46). The rationale may be that depressive episodes, which often lead to resumption of smoking, are prevented.

• **Mecamylamine**, which antagonises the effects of nicotine, is not promising. Small doses actually increase smoking, presumably because its action can be overcome by increasing the amount of nicotine. Larger doses of mecamylamine, which abolish the effects of nicotine more effectively, have many autonomic side effects (see Ch. 13), and compliance is poor. The rationale is questionable because, although mecamylamine reduces the reward effect of nicotine, it does not affect the craving associated with abstinence.

Ethanol

[8]It also reduces postmenopausal flushing, which may represent a physiological oestrogen withdrawal response.

Judged on a molar basis, the consumption of ethanol far exceeds that of any other drug. The ethanol content of various drinks ranges from about 2.5% (weak beer) to about 55% (strong spirits), and the size of the

normal measure is such that a single drink usually contains about 8–12 g (0.17–0.26 mol) of ethanol. Its low pharmacological potency is reflected in the range of plasma concentrations needed to produce pharmacological effects: minimal effects occur at about 10 mmol/l (46 mg/100 ml), and 10 times this concentration may be lethal. The average per capita ethanol consumption in the UK was 11.7 l/year (expressed as pure ethanol) in 2007, a figure that has doubled since 1970, the main changes having been a growing consumption of wine in preference to beer among adults and an increasing tendency for binge drinking, especially among young people.

For practical purposes, ethanol intake is often expressed in terms of units. One unit is equal to 8 g (10 ml) of ethanol, and is the amount contained in half a pint of normal strength beer, one measure of spirits or one small glass of wine. Based on the health risks described below, the current official recommendation is a maximum of 21 units/week for men and 14 units/week for women. It is estimated that in the UK, about 33% of men and 13% of women exceed these levels. The annual tax revenue from drink amounts to about £7 billion, whereas the health cost is estimated at £3 billion, and the social cost undoubtedly greater. Governments in most developed countries are attempting to curb alcohol consumption.

An excellent detailed review of all aspects of alcohol and alcoholism is provided by Spanagel (2009).

Pharmacological Effects of Ethanol

Effects on central nervous system neurons

The main effects of ethanol are on the central nervous system (CNS; see reviews by Charness et al., 1989; Spanagel, 2009), where its depressant actions resemble those of volatile anaesthetics (Ch. 40). At a cellular

level, the effect of ethanol is depressant, although it increases neuronal activity—presumably by disinhibition—in some parts of the CNS, notably in the mesolimbic dopaminergic pathway that is involved in reward. The main acute cellular effects of ethanol that occur at concentrations (5–100 mM) relevant to alcohol consumption by humans are:

- enhancement of both GABA-and glycine-mediated inhibition
- inhibition of Ca^{2+} entry through voltage-gated calcium channels
- activation of certain types of K^+ channel
- inhibition of ionotropic glutamate receptor function
- inhibition of adenosine transport.

For reviews see Tabakoff & Hoffman (1996), Lovinger (1997) and Harris et al. (2008).

Ethanol enhances the action of GABA on $GABA_A$ receptors in a similar way to benzodiazepines (see Ch. 43). Its effect is, however, smaller and less consistent than that of benzodiazepines, and no clear effect on inhibitory synaptic transmission in the CNS has been demonstrated for ethanol. This may be because the effect of ethanol is seen only on some subtypes of $GABA_A$ receptor (see Ch. 37). Exactly which $GABA_A$ receptor subtypes are sensitive to ethanol is still unclear but those containing α6 and δ subunits appear to be important. Ethanol may also act presynaptically to enhance GABA release. The benzodiazepine inverse agonist **flumazenil** (see Ch. 43) reverses the central depressant actions of ethanol by a non-competitive interaction on the $GABA_A$ receptor. The use of flumazenil to reverse ethanol intoxication and treat dependence has not found favour for several reasons. Because flumazenil is an inverse agonist (see Ch. 2) at benzodiazepine receptors, it carries a risk

of causing seizures, and it could cause an increase in ethanol consumption and thus increase long-term toxic manifestations.

Ethanol produces a consistent enhancement of glycine receptor function. This effect is likely to be due both to a direct interaction of ethanol with the α1 subunit of the glycine receptor and to indirect effects of ethanol mediated through PKC activation. Ethanol can also enhance glycine release from nerve terminals.

Ethanol reduces transmitter release in response to nerve terminal depolarisation by inhibiting the opening of voltage-sensitive calcium channels in neurons. It also reduces neuronal excitability by activating G-protein-activated inwardly rectifying K^+ (GIRK) channels as well as potentiating calcium-activated potassium (BK) channel activity.

The excitatory effects of glutamate are inhibited by ethanol at concentrations that produce CNS depressant effects in vivo. NMDA receptor activation is inhibited at lower ethanol concentrations than are required to affect AMPA receptors (see Ch. 37). Other effects produced by ethanol include an enhancement of the excitatory effects produced by activation of nAChRs and 5-HT_3 receptors. The relative importance of these various effects in the overall effects of ethanol on CNS function is not clear at present.

The depressant effects of ethanol on neuronal function resemble those of adenosine acting on A_1 receptors (see Ch. 16). Ethanol in cell culture systems increases extracellular adenosine by inhibiting adenosine uptake, and there is some evidence that inhibition of the adenosine transporter may account for some of its CNS effects (Melendez & Kalivas, 2004).

Endogenous opioids also play a role in the CNS effects of ethanol, because both human and animal studies show that the opioid receptor

antagonist **naltrexone** reduces the reward associated with ethanol.

Behavioural effects

The effects of acute ethanol intoxication in humans are well known and include slurred speech, motor incoordination, increased self-confidence and euphoria. The effect on mood varies among individuals, most becoming louder and more outgoing, but some becoming morose and withdrawn. At higher levels of intoxication, the mood tends to become highly labile, with euphoria and melancholy, aggression and submission, often occurring successively. The association between alcohol and violence is well documented.

Intellectual and motor performance and sensory discrimination show uniform impairment by ethanol, but subjects are generally unable to judge this for themselves. For example, bus drivers were asked to drive through a gap that they selected as the minimum for their bus to pass through; ethanol caused them not only to hit the barriers more often at any given gap setting, but also to set the gap to a narrower dimension, often narrower than the bus.

Much effort has gone into measuring the effect of ethanol on driving performance in real life, as opposed to artificial tests under experimental conditions. In an American study of city drivers, it was found that the probability of being involved in an accident was unaffected at blood ethanol concentrations up to 50 mg/100 ml (10.9 mmol/l); by 80 mg/100 ml (17.4 mmol/l), the probability was increased about four-fold, and by 150 mg/100 ml (32.6 mmol/l) about 25-fold. In the UK, driving with a blood ethanol concentration greater than 80 mg/100 ml is illegal.

The relationship between plasma ethanol concentration and effect is highly variable. A given concentration produces a larger effect when the

concentration is rising than when it is steady or falling. A substantial degree of cellular tolerance develops in habitual drinkers, with the result that a higher plasma ethanol concentration is needed to produce a given effect. In one study, 'gross intoxication' (assessed by a battery of tests that measured speech, gait and so on) occurred in 30% of subjects between 50 and 100 mg/100 ml and in 90% of subjects with more than 150 mg/100 ml. Coma generally occurs at about 400 mg/100 ml, and death from respiratory failure is likely at levels exceeding 500 mg/100 ml.

Ethanol significantly enhances—sometimes to a dangerous extent—the CNS depressant effects of many other drugs, including benzodiazepines, antidepressants, antipsychotic drugs and opioids. Combined use of ethanol and cocaine leads to the formation of cocaethylene, a toxic metabolite of cocaine.

Neurotoxicity

In addition to the acute effects of ethanol on the nervous system, chronic administration also causes irreversible neurological damage (see Harper & Matsumoto, 2005). This may be due to ethanol itself, or to metabolites such as acetaldehyde or fatty acid esters. Binge drinking is thought to produce greater damage; probably due to the high brain concentrations of ethanol achieved and to repeated phases of withdrawal between binges. Heavy drinkers often exhibit convulsions and may develop irreversible dementia and motor impairment associated with thinning of the cerebral cortex (apparent as ventricular enlargement) detectable by brain-imaging techniques. Degeneration in the cerebellum and other specific brain regions can also occur, as well as peripheral neuropathy. Some of these changes are not due to ethanol itself but to accompanying thiamine deficiency, which is common in alcoholics.

Effects on other systems

The main acute cardiovascular effect of ethanol is to produce cutaneous vasodilatation, central in origin, which causes a warm feeling but actually increases heat loss.[9] Paradoxically, there is a positive correlation between ethanol consumption and hypertension, possibly because ethanol withdrawal causes increased sympathetic activity. The beneficial effect of moderate drinking on cardiovascular function is discussed below.

[9]The image of a large St Bernard dog carrying a small keg of brandy around its neck to revive avalanche victims is an apocryphal one created by the English painter, Edwin Landseer, who in 1820 produced a painting called 'Alpine Mastiffs Reanimating a Distressed Traveller'. With their keen sense of smell, such dogs were useful in searching for people buried in the snow, but taking a tot of brandy would only have enhanced the victim's heat loss.

Ethanol increases salivary and gastric secretion, perhaps a reason in some cultures for the popularity of a glass of sherry before dinner. This is partly a reflex effect produced by the taste and irritant action of ethanol. However, heavy consumption of spirits causes damage directly to the gastric mucosa, causing chronic gastritis. Both this and the increased acid secretion are factors in the high incidence of gastric bleeding in alcoholics. CNS depression predisposes to aspiration pneumonia and lung abscess formation. Acute pancreatitis may become chronic with pseudocyst formation (collections of fluid in the peritoneal sac), fat malabsorption and ultimately loss of B-cell function and insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus.

Ethanol produces a variety of endocrine effects. In particular, it increases the output of adrenal steroid hormones by stimulating the

anterior pituitary gland to secrete adrenocorticotrophic hormone. However, the increase in plasma hydrocortisone usually seen in alcoholics (producing a 'pseudo-Cushing's syndrome'; Ch. 32) is due partly to inhibition by ethanol of hydrocortisone metabolism in the liver.

Diuresis is a familiar effect of ethanol. It is caused by inhibition of antidiuretic hormone secretion, and tolerance develops rapidly, so that the diuresis is not sustained. There is a similar inhibition of oxytocin secretion, which can delay parturition. Attempts have been made to use this effect in premature labour, but the dose needed is large enough to cause obvious drunkenness in the mother. If the baby is born prematurely despite the ethanol, it too may be intoxicated at birth, sufficiently for respiration to be depressed. The procedure evidently has serious disadvantages.

Acute toxic effects on muscle are exacerbated by seizures and prolonged immobility; severe myositis ('rhabdomyolysis') with myoglobinuria can cause acute renal failure. Chronic toxicity affects particularly cardiac striated muscle giving rise to alcoholic cardiomyopathy and chronic heart failure.

Chronic ethanol consumption may also result in immunosuppression, leading to increased incidence of infections such as pneumonia (immunisation with pneumococcal vaccine is important in chronic alcoholics); and increased cancer risk, particularly of the mouth, larynx and oesophagus.

Male alcoholics are often impotent and show signs of feminisation. This is associated with impaired testicular steroid synthesis, but induction of hepatic microsomal enzymes by ethanol, and hence an increased rate of testosterone inactivation, also contributes.

Effects of ethanol on the liver

Together with brain damage, liver damage is the most common serious long-term consequence of excessive ethanol consumption (see Lieber, 1995). Increased fat accumulation (fatty liver) progresses to hepatitis (i.e. inflammation of the liver) and eventually to irreversible hepatic necrosis and fibrosis. Cirrhosis is an end stage with extensive fibrosis and foci of regenerating hepatocytes that are not correctly 'plumbed in' to the blood and biliary systems. Diversion of portal blood flow around the cirrhotic liver often causes oesophageal varices to develop, which can bleed suddenly and catastrophically. Increased fat accumulation in the liver occurs, in rats or in humans, after a single large dose of ethanol. The mechanism is complex, the main factors being:

- increased release of fatty acids from adipose tissue, which is the result of increased stress, causing sympathetic discharge

- impaired fatty acid oxidation, because of the metabolic load imposed by the ethanol itself.

With chronic ethanol consumption, many other factors contribute to the liver damage. One is malnutrition, for alcoholic individuals may satisfy much of their calorie requirement from ethanol itself. Three hundred grams of ethanol (equivalent to one bottle of whisky) provides about 2000 kcal but, unlike a normal diet, it provides no vitamins, amino acids or fatty acids. Thiamine deficiency is an important factor in causing chronic neurological damage (see above). The hepatic changes occurring in alcoholics are partly due to chronic malnutrition but mainly to the cellular toxicity of ethanol, which promotes inflammatory changes in the liver.

The overall incidence of chronic liver disease is a function of cumulative ethanol consumption over many years. Therefore, overall consumption, expressed as g/kg of body weight per day multiplied by

years of drinking, provides an accurate predictor of the incidence of cirrhosis. An increase in the plasma concentration of the liver enzyme γ-glutamyl transpeptidase (a marker of CYP induction) often raises the suspicion of alcohol-related liver damage, although not specific to ethanol.

Effects on lipid metabolism, platelet function and atherosclerosis

Moderate drinking reduces mortality associated with coronary heart disease, the maximum effect—about 30% reduction of mortality overall—being achieved at a level of 2–3 units/day (see Groenbaek et al., 1994). The effect is much more pronounced (> 50% reduction) in men with high plasma concentrations of low-density-lipoprotein cholesterol (see Ch. 23).[10] Most evidence suggests that ethanol, rather than any specific beverage, such as red wine, is the essential factor.

[10]This beneficial effect of moderate drinking outweighs the risk of adverse effects (e.g. accidents, cancers, liver damage) only in men over 45 and women over 55.

Two mechanisms have been proposed. The first involves the effect of ethanol on the plasma lipoproteins that are the carrier molecules for cholesterol and other lipids in the bloodstream (see Ch. 23). Epidemiological studies, as well as studies on volunteers, have shown that ethanol, in daily doses too small to produce obvious CNS effects, can over the course of a few weeks increase plasma high-density-lipoprotein concentration, thus exerting a protective effect against atheroma formation.

Ethanol may also protect against ischaemic heart disease by inhibiting platelet aggregation. This effect occurs at ethanol concentrations in the range achieved by normal drinking in humans (10–20 mmol/l) and probably results from inhibition of arachidonic acid formation from

phospholipid. In humans, the magnitude of the effect depends critically on dietary fat intake, and it is not yet clear how important it is clinically.

The effect of ethanol on fetal development

The adverse effect of ethanol consumption during pregnancy on fetal development was demonstrated in the early 1970s, when the term *fetal alcohol syndrome (FAS)* was coined.

The features of full FAS include:

- abnormal facial development, with wide-set eyes, short palpebral fissures and small cheekbones
- reduced cranial circumference
- retarded growth
- mental retardation and behavioural abnormalities, often taking the form of hyperactivity and difficulty with social integration
- other anatomical abnormalities, which may be major or minor (e.g. congenital cardiac abnormalities, malformation of the eyes and ears).

A lesser degree of impairment, termed *alcohol-related neurodevelopmental disorder* (ARND), results in behavioural problems, and cognitive and motor deficits, often associated with reduced brain size. Full FAS occurs in about 3 per 1000 live births and affects about 30% of children born to alcoholic mothers. It is rare with mothers who drink less than about 5 units/day, and most common in binge drinkers who sporadically consume much larger amounts, resulting in high peak levels of ethanol. ARND is about three times as common. Although there is no clearly defined safe threshold, there is no evidence that amounts less than about 2 units/day are harmful. There is no critical period during pregnancy when ethanol consumption is likely to lead to FAS,

although one study suggests that FAS incidence correlates most strongly with ethanol consumption very early in pregnancy, even before pregnancy is recognised, implying that not only pregnant women, but also women who are likely to become pregnant, must be advised not to drink heavily. Experiments on rats and mice suggest that the effect on facial development may be produced very early in pregnancy (up to 4 weeks in humans), while the effect on brain development is produced rather later (up to 10 weeks).

Effects of ethanol

• Ethanol consumption is generally expressed in units of 10 ml (8 g) of pure ethanol. Per capita consumption in the UK is more than 10 l/year.

• Ethanol acts as a general central nervous system depressant, similar to volatile anaesthetic agents, producing the familiar effects of acute intoxication.

• Several cellular mechanisms are postulated: enhancement of GABA and glycine action, inhibition of calcium channel opening, activation of potassium channels and inhibition at NMDA-type glutamate receptors.

• Effective plasma concentrations:
  – threshold effects: about 40 mg/100 ml (5 mmol/l)
  – severe intoxication: about 150 mg/100 ml
  – death from respiratory failure: about 500 mg/100 ml.

• Main peripheral effects are self-limiting diuresis (reduced antidiuretic hormone secretion), cutaneous vasodilatation and delayed labour (reduced oxytocin secretion).

• Neurological degeneration occurs with heavy and binge drinking, causing dementia and peripheral neuropathies.

• Long-term ethanol consumption causes liver disease, progressing to cirrhosis and liver

failure.

• Moderate ethanol consumption has a protective effect against ischaemic heart disease.

• Excessive consumption in pregnancy causes impaired fetal development, associated with small size, abnormal facial development and other physical abnormalities, and mental retardation.

• Psychological dependence, physical dependence and tolerance all occur with ethanol.

• Drugs used to treat alcohol dependence include **disulfiram** (aldehyde dehydrogenase inhibitor), **naltrexone** (opiate antagonist) and **acamprosate** (NMDA receptor antagonist). **Topiramate** and **bupropion** are also used.

Pharmacokinetic Aspects

Metabolism of ethanol

Ethanol is rapidly absorbed, an appreciable amount being absorbed from the stomach. A substantial fraction is cleared by first-pass hepatic metabolism. Hepatic metabolism of ethanol shows saturation kinetics (see Chs 9 and 10) at quite low ethanol concentrations, so the fraction of ethanol removed decreases as the concentration reaching the liver increases. Thus, if ethanol absorption is rapid and portal vein concentration is high, most of the ethanol escapes into the systemic circulation, whereas with slow absorption more is removed by first-pass metabolism. This is one reason why drinking ethanol on an empty stomach produces a much greater pharmacological effect. Ethanol is quickly distributed throughout the body water, the rate of its redistribution depending mainly on the blood flow to individual tissues, as with volatile anaesthetics (see Ch. 40).

Ethanol is about 90% metabolised, 5–10% being excreted unchanged in expired air and in urine. This fraction is not pharmacokinetically

significant but provides the basis for estimating blood ethanol concentration from measurements on breath or urine. The ratio of ethanol concentrations in blood and alveolar air, measured at the end of deep expiration, is relatively constant, 80 mg/100 ml of ethanol in blood producing 35 μg/100 ml in expired air, this being the basis of the breathalyser test. The concentration in urine is more variable and provides a less accurate measure of blood concentration.

Ethanol metabolism occurs almost entirely in the liver, and mainly by a pathway involving successive oxidations, first to acetaldehyde and then to acetic acid (Fig. 48.5). Since ethanol is often consumed in large quantities (compared with most drugs), 1–2 mol daily being by no means unusual, it constitutes a substantial load on the hepatic oxidative systems. The oxidation of 2 mol of ethanol consumes about 1.5 kg of the co-factor nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+). Availability of NAD^+ limits the rate of ethanol oxidation to about 8 g/h in a normal adult, independently of ethanol concentration (Fig. 48.6), causing the process to show saturating kinetics (Ch. 10). It also leads to competition between the ethanol and other metabolic substrates for the available NAD^+ supplies, which may be a factor in ethanol-induced liver damage (see Ch. 57). The intermediate metabolite, acetaldehyde, is a reactive and toxic compound, and this may also contribute to the hepatotoxicity. A small degree of esterification of ethanol with various fatty acids also occurs in the tissues, and these esters may also contribute to long-term toxicity.

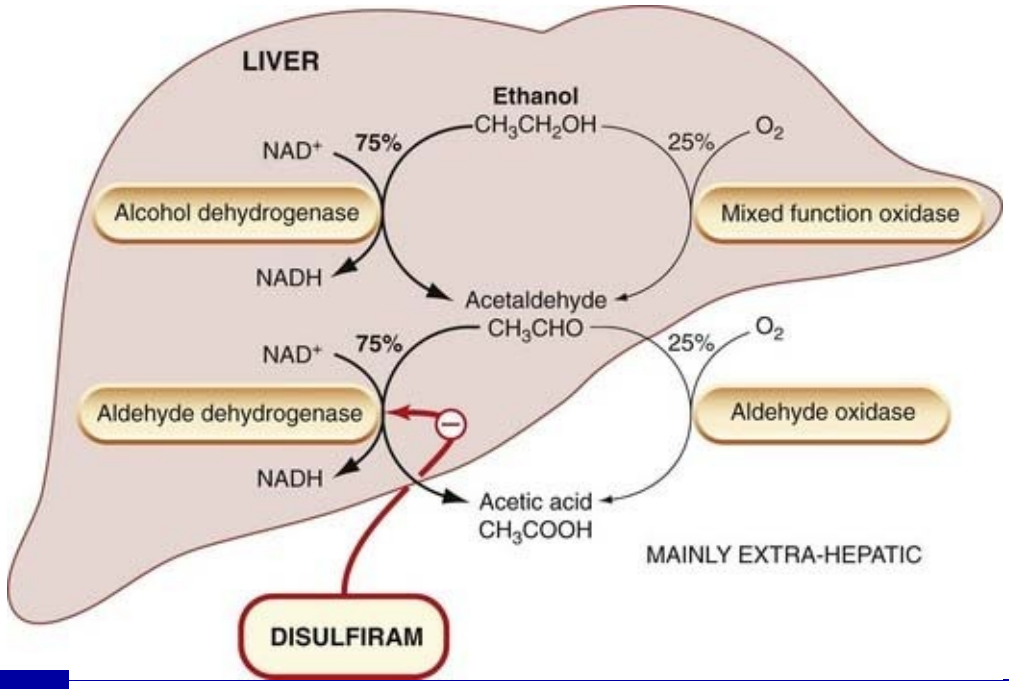


Fig. 48.5 Metabolism of ethanol.

NAD, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide.

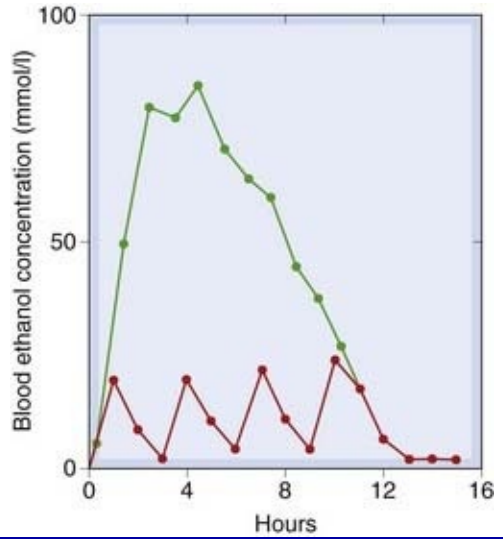


Fig. 48.6 Zero-order kinetics of ethanol elimination in rats.

Rats were given ethanol orally (104 mmol/kg) either as a single dose or as four divided doses. The single dose results in a much higher and more sustained blood ethanol concentration than the same quantity given as divided doses. Note that, after the single dose, ethanol concentration declines linearly, the rate of decline being similar after a small or large dose, because of the saturation phenomenon.

(From Kalant H et al. 1975 Biochem Pharmacol 24: 431.)

Alcohol dehydrogenase is a soluble cytoplasmic enzyme, confined mainly to liver cells, which oxidises ethanol at the same time as reducing NAD^+ to NADH (Fig. 48.5). Ethanol metabolism causes the ratio of NAD^+ to NADH to fall, and this has other metabolic consequences (e.g. increased lactate and slowing down of the Krebs cycle). The limitation on ethanol metabolism imposed by the limited rate of NAD^+ regeneration has led to attempts to find a 'sobering up' agent that works by regenerating NAD^+ from NADH. One such agent is fructose, which is reduced by an NADH-requiring enzyme. In large doses, it causes a measurable increase in the rate of ethanol metabolism, but not enough to have a useful effect on the rate of return to sobriety.

Normally, only a small amount of ethanol is metabolised by the microsomal mixed function oxidase system (see Ch. 9), but induction of this system occurs in alcoholics. Ethanol can affect the metabolism of other drugs that are metabolised by the mixed function oxidase system (e.g. **phenobarbitone**, **warfarin** and **steroids**), with an initial inhibitory effect produced by competition, followed by enhancement due to enzyme induction.

Nearly all the acetaldehyde produced is converted to acetate in the liver by *aldehyde dehydrogenase* (Fig. 48.5). Normally, only a little acetaldehyde escapes from the liver, giving a blood acetaldehyde concentration of 20–50 μmol/l after an intoxicating dose of ethanol in humans. The circulating acetaldehyde usually has little or no effect, but the concentration may become much larger under certain circumstances and produce toxic effects. This occurs if aldehyde dehydrogenase is inhibited by drugs such as **disulfiram**. In the presence of disulfiram, which produces no marked effect when given alone, ethanol consumption is followed by a severe reaction comprising flushing, tachycardia, hyperventilation, and considerable panic and distress,

which is due to excessive acetaldehyde accumulation in the bloodstream. This reaction is extremely unpleasant but not harmful, and disulfiram can be used as aversion therapy to discourage people from taking ethanol. Some other drugs (e.g. **metronidazole**; see Ch. 50) produce similar reactions to ethanol. Interestingly, a Chinese herbal medicine, used traditionally to cure alcoholics, contains **daidzin**, a specific inhibitor of aldehyde dehydrogenase. In hamsters (which spontaneously consume alcohol in amounts that would defeat even the hardest two-legged drinker, while remaining, as far as one can tell in a hamster, completely sober), daidzin markedly inhibits alcohol consumption.

Genetic factors

In 50% of Asian people, an inactive genetic variant of one of the aldehyde dehydrogenase isoforms (ALDH-2) is expressed; these individuals experience a disulfiram-like reaction after alcohol, and the incidence of alcoholism in this group is extremely low (see Tanaka et al., 1997; Tyndale, 2003).

Metabolism and toxicity of methanol and ethylene glycol

▼ Methanol is metabolised in the same way as ethanol but produces formaldehyde instead of acetaldehyde from the first oxidation step. Formaldehyde is more reactive than acetaldehyde and reacts rapidly with proteins, causing the inactivation of enzymes involved in the tricarboxylic acid cycle. It is converted to another toxic metabolite, formic acid. This, unlike acetic acid, cannot be utilised in the tricarboxylic acid cycle and is liable to cause tissue damage. Conversion of alcohols to aldehydes occurs not only in the liver but also in the retina, catalysed by the dehydrogenase responsible for retinol–retinal conversion. Formation of formaldehyde in the retina accounts for one of the main toxic effects of methanol, namely blindness, which can occur

after ingestion of as little as 10 g. Formic acid production and derangement of the tricarboxylic acid cycle also produce severe acidosis.

Methanol is used as an industrial solvent and also to adulterate industrial ethanol in order to make it unfit to drink. Methanol poisoning is quite common, and used to be treated by administration of large doses of ethanol, which acts to retard methanol metabolism by competition for alcohol dehydrogenase. **Fomepizole** inhibits alcohol dehydrogenase and is now preferred if available. Such treatment may be in conjunction with haemodialysis to remove unchanged methanol, which has a small volume of distribution.

Poisoning with ethylene glycol, used in automobile antifreeze and brake fluid, is a medical emergency. It is rapidly absorbed from the gut and metabolised to glycolate and then more slowly to oxalate. Glycolate interferes with metabolic processes and produces metabolic acidosis. It affects the brain, heart and kidneys. Treatment is with alkali such as sodium bicarbonate to reverse the acidosis, pyridoxine and thiamine to promote conversion to non-toxic metabolites and haemodialysis.

Metabolism of ethanol

• Ethanol is metabolised mainly by the liver, first by alcohol dehydrogenase to acetaldehyde, then by aldehyde dehydrogenase to acetate. About 25% of the acetaldehyde is metabolised extrahepatically.

• Small amounts of ethanol are excreted in urine and expired air.

• Hepatic metabolism shows saturation kinetics, mainly because of limited availability of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD^+). Maximal rate of ethanol metabolism is about 10 ml/h. Thus plasma concentration falls linearly rather than exponentially.

• Acetaldehyde may produce toxic effects. Inhibition of aldehyde dehydrogenase by disulfiram

accentuates nausea, etc., caused by acetaldehyde, and can be used in aversion therapy.

• Methanol is similarly metabolised to formic acid, which is toxic, especially to the retina.

• Asian people show a high rate of genetic polymorphism of alcohol and aldehyde dehydrogenase, associated with alcoholism and alcohol intolerance, respectively.

Tolerance and Dependence

Tolerance to the effects of ethanol can be demonstrated in both humans and experimental animals, to the extent of a two-to three-fold reduction in potency occurring over 1–3 weeks of continuing ethanol administration. A small component of this is due to the more rapid elimination of ethanol. The major component is cellular tolerance, which accounts for a roughly two-fold decrease in potency and which can be observed in vitro (e.g. by measuring the inhibitory effect of ethanol on transmitter release from synaptosomes) as well as in vivo. The mechanism of this tolerance is not known for certain (see Little, 1991). Ethanol tolerance is associated with tolerance to many anaesthetic agents, and alcoholics are often difficult to anaesthetise.

Chronic ethanol administration produces various changes in CNS neurons, which tend to oppose the acute cellular effects that it produces (see above). There is a small reduction in the density of $GABA_A$ receptors, and a proliferation of voltage-gated calcium channels and NMDA receptors.

A well-defined physical abstinence syndrome develops in response to ethanol withdrawal. As with most other dependence-producing drugs, this is probably important as a short-term factor in sustaining the drug habit, but other (mainly psychological) factors are more important in the longer term (see above). The physical abstinence syndrome usually subsides in a few days, but the craving for ethanol and the tendency to

relapse last for very much longer.

The physical abstinence syndrome in humans, in severe form, develops after about 8 h. In the first stage, the main symptoms are tremor, nausea, sweating, fever and sometimes hallucinations. These last for about 24 h. This phase may be followed by seizures ('rum fits'). Over the next few days, the condition of 'delirium tremens' develops, in which the patient becomes confused, agitated and often aggressive, and may suffer much more severe hallucinations. A similar syndrome of central and autonomic hyperactivity can be produced in experimental animals by ethanol withdrawal. Treatment of this medical emergency is by sedation with large doses of a benzodiazepine such as **chlordiazepoxide** (Ch. 43) together with large doses of thiamine.

Pharmacological Approaches to Treating Alcohol Dependence

Alcohol dependence ('alcoholism') is common (4–5% of the population) and, as with smoking, difficult to treat effectively. The main pharmacological approaches (see Garbutt, 2009; Table 48.3) are the following:

- To alleviate the acute abstinence syndrome during 'drying out', **benzodiazepines** (see Ch. 43) and **clomethiazole** are effective; **clonidine** and **propranolol** are also useful. Clonidine (α_2 adrenoceptor agonist) is believed to act by inhibiting the exaggerated transmitter release that occurs during withdrawal, while propranolol (β-adrenoceptor antagonist) blocks some of the effects of excessive sympathetic activity.

- To render alcohol consumption unpleasant, **disulfiram** (see above).

- To reduce alcohol-induced reward, **naltrexone** (see above) is effective.

• To reduce craving, **acamprosate** is used. This taurine analogue is a weak antagonist at NMDA receptors, and may work by interfering in some way with synaptic plasticity. Several clinical trials have shown it to improve the success rate in achieving alcohol abstinence, with few unwanted effects.

• To alleviate both withdrawal and craving, the antiepileptic agent, **topiramate**, which has multiple effects on the brain (see Ch. 44) shows promise as does **γ-hydroxybutyric acid** (GHB), a short-chain fatty acid structurally similar to the inhibitory neurotransmitter γ-aminobutyric acid (see Ch. 37).

References and Further Reading

General

agley E.E., Gerke M.B., Vaughan C.W., *et al.* GABA transporter currents activated by protein kinase A excite midbrain neurons during opioid withdrawal. *Neuron.* 2005;45:433-445.

ailey C.P., Connor M. Opioids: cellular mechanisms of tolerance and physical dependence. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:60-68.

unce C.J., Loudon P.T., Akers C., *et al.* Development of vaccines to help treat drug dependence. *Curr. Opin. Mol. Ther.*. 2003;5:58-63.

hao J., Nestler E.J. Molecular neurobiology of addiction. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 2004;55:113-132. (*Useful review article by leading scientists in addiction research*)

alley J.W., Fryer T.D., Brichard L., *et al.* Nucleus accumbens $D_{2/3}$ receptors predict trait impulsivity and cocaine reinforcement. *Science.* 2007;315:1267-1270. (*An exciting first description of the role of dopamine receptors and impulsivity in drug self-administration*)

eroche-Gamonet V., Belin D., Piazza P.V. Evidence for addiction-like behaviour in the rat. *Science.* 2004;305:1014-1017. (*See also commentary by T.E. Robinson in the same issue, pp. 951–953, Experimental strategy for distinguishing between self-administration and addiction-like behaviour in rats*)

eidbreder C.A., Hagan J.J. Novel pharmacological approaches for the treatment of drug addiction and craving. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:107-118. (*Describes the numerous theoretical strategies, based mainly on monoamine pharmacology, for treating addiction*)

yman S.E., Malenka R.C., Nestler E.J. Neural mechanisms of addiction: the role of reward-related learning and memory. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2006;29:565-598. (*Extensive review on how drugs of abuse can alter memory and learning processes*)

arch S.B., editor. Drug abuse handbook, second ed, Boca Raton: CRC Press, 2006.

oob G.F., Le Moal M. *Neurobiology of addiction*. London: Academic Press; 2006. (*A very extensive book covering many aspects of addiction from the neuroscientist's perspective*)

Ialdonado R., Saiardi A., Valverde O., *et al.* Absence of opiate rewarding effects in mice lacking dopamine D2 receptors. *Nature*. 1997;388:586-589. (*Use of transgenic animals to demonstrate role of dopamine receptors in reward properties of opiates*)

Iayer P., Höllt V. Genetic disposition to addictive disorders—current knowledge and future perspectives. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:4-8. (*Describes the current inconclusive understanding of the genetic basis of addiction*)

Ieasham F., Moore K. Repertoires of distinction. Exploring patterns of weekend polydrug use within local leisure scenes across the English night time economy. *Criminol. Crim. Justice*. 2009;9:437-464.

estler E.J. Molecular basis of long-term plasticity underlying addiction. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.*. 2001;2:119-128. (*Good review article focusing on long-term changes in gene expression associated with drug dependence*)

estler E.J. Molecular mechanisms of drug addiction. *Neuropharmacology*. 2004;47(Suppl. 1):24-32.

utt D., King L.A., Phillips L.D. Drug harms in the UK: a multicriteria decision analysis. *Lancet*. 2010;376:558-565.

'Brien C.P. A range of research-based pharmacotherapies for addiction. *Science*. 1997;278:66-70. (*Useful overview of pharmacological approaches to treatment*)

obbins T.W., Ersche K.D., Everitt B.J. Drug addiction and the memory systems of the brain. *Ann.*

N. Y. Acad. Sci.. 2008;1141:1-21. (*Review of how different forms of memory play important roles in drug dependence*)

panagel R., Weiss F. The dopamine hypothesis of reward: past and current research. *Trends Neurosci.*. 1999;22:521-527. (*Summarises evidence for activation of mesolimbic dopamine pathways as a factor in drug dependence*)

Weiss F. Neurobiology of craving, conditioned reward and relapse. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:9-19. (*Review of recent studies on the neurobiology of addiction, focusing mainly on animal models*)

Williams J.T., Christie M.J., Manzoni O. Cellular and synaptic adaptations mediating opioid dependence. *Physiol. Rev.*. 2001;81:299-343.

Winger G., Woods J.H., Hofmann F.G. *A handbook on drug and alcohol abuse*, fourth ed. New York: Oxford University Press; 2004. (*Short and informative textbook on biomedical aspects*)

Nicotine

alfour D.J.K., Fagerstrom K.O. Pharmacology of nicotine and its therapeutic use in smoking cessation and neurodegenerative disorders. *Pharmacol. Ther.*. 1996;72:51-81. (*Review of the pharmacology of nicotine and its usefulness as replacement therapy*)

enowitz N.L. Pharmacology of nicotine: addiction and therapeutics. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol.*. 1996;36:597-613. (*General review article including information on potential therapeutic uses of nicotine other than reduction of smoking*)

eorge T.P., O'Malley S.S. Current pharmacological treatments for nicotine dependence. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2004;25:42-48.

unnell D., Irvine D., Wise L., Davies C., Martin R.M. Varenicline and suicidal behaviour: a cohort study based on data from the General Practice Research Database. *BMJ*. 2009;339:b3805.

ung R.J., McKay J.D., Gaborieau V., *et al.* A susceptibility locus for lung cancer maps to nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subunit genes on 15q25. *Nature*. 2008;452:633-637. (*Original paper showing a genetic link between cancer and single nucleotide polymorphisms in the nicotinic receptor*)

e Foll B., Goldberg S.R. Control of the reinforcing effects of nicotine by associated environmental

stimuli in animals and humans. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2005;26:287-293.

eto R., Lopez A.D., Boreham J., *et al.* Mortality from smoking worldwide. *Br. Med. Bull.*. 1996;52:12-21.

/onnacott S., Sidhpura N., Balfour D.J.K. Nicotine: from molecular mechanisms to behaviour. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:53-59. (*Useful review on the acute and long-term CNS effects of nicotine*)

Ethanol

harness M.E., Simon R.P., Greenberg D.A. Ethanol and the nervous system. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1989;321:442-454.

arbutt J.C. The state of pharmacotherapy for the treatment of alcohol dependence. *J. Subst. Abuse Treat.*. 2009;36(Suppl.):S15-S21. (*Reviews current drugs and potential new approaches*)

roenbaek M., Deis A., Sørensen T.I., *et al.* Influence of sex, age, body mass index and smoking on alcohol intake and mortality. *BMJ*. 1994;308:302-306. (*Large-scale Danish study showing reduced coronary mortality at moderate levels of drinking, with increase at high levels*)

arper C., Matsumoto I. Ethanol and brain damage. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2005;5:73-78. (*Describes deleterious effects of long-term alcohol abuse on brain function*)

arris R.A., Trudell J.R., Mihic S.J. Ethanol's molecular targets. *Sci. Signal.*. 2008. 1, re7. (*Short review of potential molecular actions of alcohol relevant to its effects on the brain*)

ieber C.S. Medical disorders of alcoholism. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1995;333:1058-1065. (*Review focusing on ethanol-induced liver damage in relation to ethanol metabolism*)

ittle H.J. Mechanisms that may underlie the behavioural effects of ethanol. *Prog. Neurobiol.*. 1991;36:171-194.

ovinger D.M. Alcohols and neurotransmitter gated ion channels: past, present and future. *Naunyn-Schmiedebergs Arch. Pharmacol.*. 1997;356:267-282. (*Review article arguing that alcohol effects depend on interaction with synaptic ion channels*)

Melendez R.I., Kalivas P.W. Last call for adenosine transporters. *Nat. Neurosci.*. 2004;7:795-796. (*Commentary on a study supporting a role for adenosine in the CNS effects of ethanol*)

Tyrick H., Anton R.F. Treatment of alcohol withdrawal. Alcohol Health Res W. 22:1998:38-43 Available online at http://pubs.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/arh22-1/38-43.pdf.. http://pubs.niaaa.nih.gov/publications/arh22-1/38-43.pdf

panagel R. Alcoholism: a systems approach from molecular physiology to addictive behaviour. *Physiol. Rev.*. 2009;89:649-705. (*Comprehensive review article, very useful for reference*)

abakoff B., Hoffman P.L. Alcohol addiction: an enigma among us. *Neuron*. 1996;16:909-912. (*Review of alcohol actions at the cellular and molecular level—ignore the silly title*)

anaka F., Shiratori Y., Yokusuka O., *et al.* Polymorphism of alcohol-metabolizing genes affects drinking behaviour and alcoholic liver disease in Japanese men. *Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res.*. 1997;21:596-601. (*Describes polymorphism of aldehyde and alcohol dehydrogenases, and their effect on drinking behaviour*)

yndale R.F. Genetics of alcohol and tobacco use in humans. *Ann. Med.*. 2003;35:94-121. (*Detailed review of the many genetic factors implicated in alcohol and nicotine consumption habits*)

Useful Web resources

ttp://www.ash.org.uk/ (*ASH, an antismoking organisation*)

ttp://www.drugscope.org.uk/ (*DrugScope, an independent organisation providing advice on various aspects of drug abuse*)

ttp://www.nida.nih.gov/ (*National Institute on Drug Abuse [NIDA], US government organisation providing information to scientists and the general public on various aspects of drug abuse*)

ttp://www.drugabuse.gov/PODAT/PODATIndex.html (*Provides access to the NIDA publication Principles of Drug Addiction Treatment: A Research Based Guide, second ed.*)

ttp://www.ias.org.uk/resources/factsheets/factsheets.html (*An excellent range of factsheets relating to all aspects of alcohol consumption and its consequences from the Institute of Alcohol Studies [UK]*)

Section 5
Drugs used for the treatment of infections, cancer and immunologic disorders

49

Basic principles of antimicrobial chemotherapy

Overview

Chemotherapy is the term originally used to describe the use of drugs that are 'selectively toxic' to invading microorganisms while having minimal effects on the host. The term also embraces the use of drugs that target tumours and, in fact, has now come to be associated specifically with that branch of pharmacology. In this chapter, however, we intend the term to cover both usages, although, in the public mind at least, chemotherapy is usually associated with cytotoxic anticancer drugs that cause unwanted effects such as loss of hair, nausea and vomiting.

All living organisms are prey to infection. Humans, being no exception to this rule, are susceptible to diseases caused by viruses, bacteria, protozoa, fungi and helminths (collectively referred to as *pathogens*). The use of chemotherapeutic agents dates back to the work of Ehrlich and others and to the development of arsenical drugs such as salvarsan for the treatment of syphilis.[1] The successful development of such agents during the past 80 years, particularly the 'antibiotic revolution', which began in the 1940s with the advent of penicillin, constitutes one of the most important therapeutic advances in the entire history of medicine.

[1]Mercury-containing compounds were also once used for treating syphilis. 'One night with Venus, a lifetime with Mercury' was a saying of that time.

Clearly, the feasibility of selective toxicity depends on the ability to exploit such biochemical differences as may exist between the infecting organism (or indeed cancer cells, our internal 'invaders') and the host. Chapter 6 outlined our own 'host' defences against infection, while the bulk of the chapters in this section of the book describe the drugs used to combat such infections. In this introductory chapter we consider, very broadly, the nature of these biochemical differences and outline the molecular targets of drug action.

Background

The term *chemotherapy* was coined by Ehrlich himself at the beginning of the 20th century to describe the use of synthetic chemicals to destroy infective agents. In recent years, the definition of the term has been broadened to include *antibiotics*—substances produced by some microorganisms (or by pharmaceutical chemists) that kill or inhibit the growth of other microorganisms. Here, we broaden it still further to include agents that kill or inhibit the growth of cancer cells.

Unhappily, our success in developing drugs to attack these invaders has been paralleled by their own success in counteracting the effects of the drugs, resulting in the emergence of drug resistance. And at present, the invaders—particularly some bacteria—seem close to getting the upper hand. This is a very important problem, and we will devote some space to the mechanisms of resistance and the means by which it is spread.

The Molecular Basis of Chemotherapy

Chemotherapeutic agents, then, are chemicals that are intended to be toxic to the pathogenic organism (or cancer cells) but innocuous to the

host. It is important to remember that many microorganisms share our body spaces (e.g. the gut[2]) without causing disease (these are called *commensals*), although they may become pathogenic under adverse circumstances (i.e. if the host is immunocompromised).

[2]Humans harbour about 2 kg of bacteria in the gut, comprising a large 'forgotten organ' in the body with important metabolic functions.

Living organisms are classified as either *prokaryotes*, cells without nuclei (e.g. bacteria), or *eukaryotes*, cells with nuclei (e.g. protozoa, fungi, helminths). In a separate category are the viruses, which need to utilise the metabolic machinery of the host cell, and they thus present a particular kind of problem for chemotherapeutic attack. There remain those mysterious proteinaceous agents, the *prions* (see Ch. 39), which cause disease but resist all attempts at classification, and for which there is no known antidote at present.

In another category are cancer cells, which are clearly more similar to normal host cells than are any pathogenic invaders, and this makes the problem of implementing selective toxicity especially difficult. The principles of cancer chemotherapy are discussed in Chapter 55. Virtually all creatures, host and parasite alike, have the same basic DNA blueprint (an exception being the RNA viruses), so some biochemical processes are common to most, if not all, organisms. Finding agents that affect pathogens or cancers but not other human cells necessitates finding either qualitative or quantitative biochemical differences between them.

Bacteria cause most infectious diseases, and Figure 49.1 shows in simplified diagrammatic form the main structures and functions of a 'generalised' bacterial cell. Surrounding the cell is the *cell wall*, which characteristically contains *peptidoglycan* in all forms of bacteria except *Mycoplasma*. Peptidoglycan is unique to prokaryotic cells and has no

counterpart in eukaryotes. Within the cell wall is the *plasma membrane*, which, like that of eukaryotic cells, consists of a phospholipid bilayer and proteins. It functions as a selectively permeable membrane with specific transport mechanisms for various nutrients. However, in bacteria the plasma membrane does not contain any *sterols*, and this may alter the penetration of some chemicals.

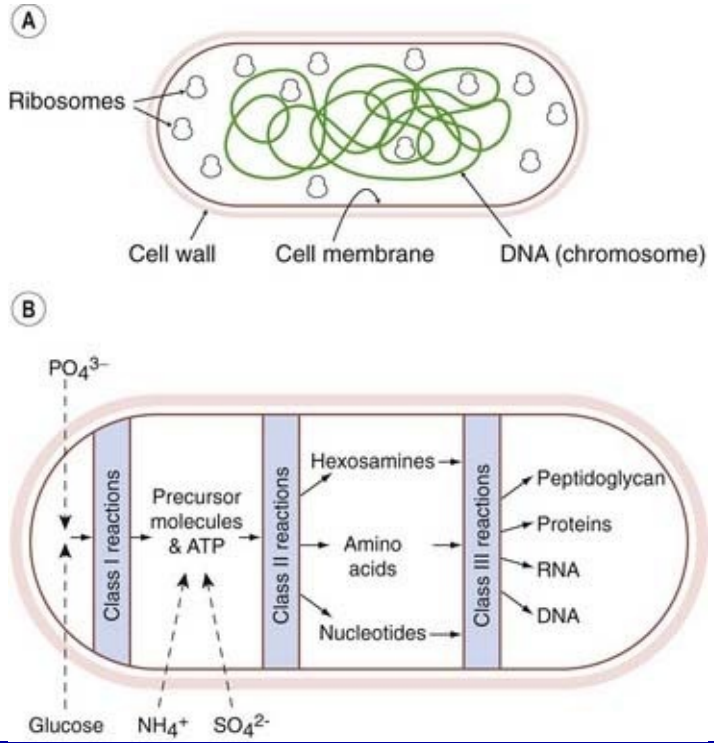


Fig. 49.1 Diagram of the structure and metabolism of a 'typical' bacterial cell.

[**A**] Schematic representation of a bacterial cell. [**B**] Flow diagram showing the synthesis of the main types of macromolecule of a bacterial cell. Class I reactions result in the synthesis of the precursor molecules necessary for class II reactions, which result in the synthesis of the constituent molecules; these are then assembled into macromolecules by class III reactions.

(Modified from Mandelstam J, McQuillen K, Dawes I (eds) 1982 Biochemistry of bacterial growth. Blackwell Scientific, Oxford.)

The function of the cell wall is to support the underlying plasma membrane, which is subject to an internal osmotic pressure of about 5 atmospheres in *Gram-negative* organisms, and about 20 atmospheres in

Gram-positive organisms (see below). The plasma membrane and cell wall together comprise the *bacterial envelope*.

Bounded by the plasma membrane is the *cytoplasm*. As in eukaryotic cells, this contains soluble enzymes and other proteins, the *ribosomes* involved in protein synthesis, the small-molecule intermediates involved in metabolism as well as inorganic ions. The bacterial cell has no nucleus; instead, the genetic material, in the form of a single *chromosome* containing all the genetic information, lies in the cytoplasm with no surrounding nuclear membrane. In further contrast to eukaryotic cells, there are no *mitochondria*—cellular energy is generated by enzyme systems located in the plasma membrane.

Some bacteria have additional components such as a *capsule* and/or *flagella*, but the only additional structure with relevance for chemotherapy is the *outer membrane* outside the cell wall. The nature of this membrane enables bacteria to be classified according to whether they take up *Gram's stain* ('Gram-positive') or not ('Gram-negative'; for more details, see Ch. 50). In Gram-negative bacteria, this membrane may prevent penetration of antibacterial agents, and it also prevents easy access of *lysozyme* (a microbiocidal enzyme found in white blood cells, tears and other tissue fluids that breaks down peptidoglycan).

The biochemical reactions that are potential targets for antibacterial drugs are shown in Figure 49.1. There are three groups:

• *Class I*: the utilisation of glucose or some alternative carbon source for the generation of energy (ATP) and synthesis of simple carbon compounds used as precursors in the next class of reactions.

• *Class II*: the utilisation of these precursors in an energy-dependent synthesis of all the amino acids, nucleotides, phospholipids, amino sugars, carbohydrates and growth factors required by the cell for

survival and growth.

• *Class III*: assembly of small molecules into macromolecules—proteins, RNA, DNA, polysaccharides and peptidoglycan.

Other potential targets are the *formed structures*, for example the cell membrane, or in higher organisms (e.g. fungi and cancer cells) the *microtubules* or other specific tissues (e.g. muscle tissue in helminths). In considering these targets, emphasis will be placed on bacteria, but reference will also be made to protozoa, helminths, fungi, cancer cells and viruses. The classification that follows is clearly not rigid; a drug may affect more than one class of reactions or more than one subgroup of reactions within a class.

The molecular basis of antibacterial chemotherapy

• Chemotherapeutic drugs should be toxic to invading organisms and innocuous to the host. Such selective toxicity depends on the discovery of biochemical differences between the pathogen and the host that can be appropriately exploited.

• Three general classes of biochemical reaction are potential targets for chemotherapy of bacteria:

– *class I*: reactions that utilise glucose and other carbon sources are used to produce ATP and simple carbon compounds

– *class II*: pathways utilising energy and class I compounds to make small molecules (e.g. amino acids and nucleotides)

– *class III*: pathways that convert small molecules into macromolecules such as proteins, nucleic acids and peptidoglycan.

Biochemical Reactions as Potential Targets

Class I Reactions

Class I reactions are not promising targets for two reasons. First,

bacterial and human cells use similar mechanisms to obtain energy from glucose (the *Embden–Meyerhof pathway* and the *tricarboxylic acid cycle*). Second, even if glucose oxidation is blocked, many other compounds (amino acids, lactate, etc.) can be utilised by bacteria as an alternative energy source.

Class II Reactions

Class II reactions are better targets because some pathways exist in pathogen, but not human, cells. For instance, human cells lack the ability, possessed by bacteria, to synthesise the so-called 'essential' amino acids as well as certain growth factors (termed *vitamins* in human physiology). Differences such as these represent potential targets. Another opportunity occurs when a pathway is identical in both bacteria and humans but exhibits a differential sensitivity to drugs. A prominent example is the *folic acid pathway*.

Folate

Folate biosynthesis is an example of a metabolic pathway found in bacteria but not in humans. Folate is required for DNA synthesis in both bacteria and in humans (see Chs 25 and 50). Humans cannot synthesise folate and must obtain it from the diet, and specific uptake mechanisms transport it into cells. By contrast, most species of bacteria, as well as the asexual forms of malarial protozoa, lack the necessary transport mechanisms and cannot make use of preformed folate but must synthesise their own de novo. This is a prime example of a difference that has proved to be extremely useful for chemotherapy. **Sulfonamides** contain the sulfanilamide moiety—a structural analogue of *p*-aminobenzoic acid (PABA), which is essential in the synthesis of folate (see Fig. 50.1). Sulfonamides compete with PABA for the enzyme involved in folate synthesis, and thus inhibit the metabolism of the

bacteria. They are consequently *bacteriostatic*, not *bactericidal*[3] (i.e. they suppress division of the cells but do not kill them), and are therefore only really effective in the presence of adequate host defences (see Chs 6 and 17).

[3]Whether a drug is bactericidal rather than bacteriostatic is determined according to a strict technical criterion, but in practice it can be difficult to differentiate the two actions during therapy.

The utilisation of folate, in the form of *tetrahydrofolate*, as a co-factor in thymidylate synthesis is a good example of a pathway where human and bacterial enzymes exhibit a differential sensitivity to chemicals (Table 49.1; see Volpato & Pelletier, 2009). Although the pathway is virtually identical in microorganisms and humans, one of the key enzymes, *dihydrofolate reductase*, which reduces dihydrofolate to tetrahydrofolate (Fig. 50.2), is many times more sensitive to the folate antagonist **trimethoprim** in bacteria than in humans. In some malarial protozoa, this enzyme is somewhat less sensitive than the bacterial enzyme to trimethoprim but more sensitive to **pyrimethamine** and **proguanil**, which are used as antimalarial agents (Ch. 53). The relative IC_{50} values (the concentration causing 50% inhibition) for bacterial, malarial, protozoal and mammalian enzymes are given in Table 49.1. The human enzyme, by comparison, is very sensitive to the effect of the folate analogue **methotrexate** (Table 49.1) which is used to treat rheumatoid arthritis (Ch. 26) and cancer (Ch. 55). Methotrexate is inactive in bacteria because, being very similar in structure to folate, it requires active uptake by cells. Trimethoprim and pyrimethamine enter the cells by diffusion.

Table 49.1 Specificity of inhibitors of dihydrofolate reductase

Inhibitor	IC_{50} (μmol/l) for dihydrofolate reductase		
	Human	Protozoal	Bacterial
Trimethoprim	260	0.07	0.005
Pyrimethamine	0.7	0.0005	2.5
Methotrexate	0.001	~0.1[a]	Inactive

[a]Tested on *Plasmodium berghei*, a rodent malaria.

▼ The use of sequential blockade with a combination of two drugs that affect the same pathway at different points, for example sulfonamides and the folate antagonists, may be more successful than the use of either alone (e.g. in the treatment of *Pneumocystis jirovecii* pneumonia), and lower concentrations are effective when the two are used together. Thus, pyrimethamine and a sulfonamide (**sulfadoxine**) are used to treat *falciparum* malaria. An antibacterial formulation that contains both a sulfonamide and trimethoprim is **co-trimoxazole**; once widely used, this combination has become progressively less effective because of the development of sulfonamide resistance.

Pyrimidine and purine analogues

Another example of a drug that interferes with a class II reaction is the pyrimidine analogue **fluorouracil**, which is used in cancer chemotherapy (Ch. 55). Fluorouracil is converted to a fraudulent nucleotide that interferes with thymidylate synthesis. Other cancer chemotherapy agents that give rise to fraudulent nucleotides are the purine analogues **mercaptopurine** and **thioguanine**. **Flucytosine**, an antifungal drug (Ch. 52), is deaminated to fluorouracil within fungal cells but to a much lesser extent in human cells, conferring a degree of selectivity.

Class III Reactions

As pathogen cells cannot take up their own unique macromolecules from the environment, class III reactions are particularly good targets for selective toxicity, and there are distinct differences between mammalian cells and parasitic cells in this respect.

The synthesis of peptidoglycan

The cell wall of bacteria contains peptidoglycan, a substance that does not occur in eukaryotes. It is the equivalent of a non-stretchable string bag enclosing the whole bacterium. In Gram-negative bacteria, this bag consists of a single thickness, but in Gram-positive bacteria there may be as many as 40 layers of peptidoglycan. Each layer consists of multiple backbones of amino sugars—alternating *N*-acetylglucosamine and *N*-acetylmuramic acid residues (Fig. 49.2)—the latter having short peptide side-chains that are crosslinked to form a polymeric lattice, which is strong enough to resist the high internal osmotic pressure and may constitute up to 10–15% of the dry weight of the cell. The crosslinks differ in different species. In staphylococci, they consist of five glycine residues.

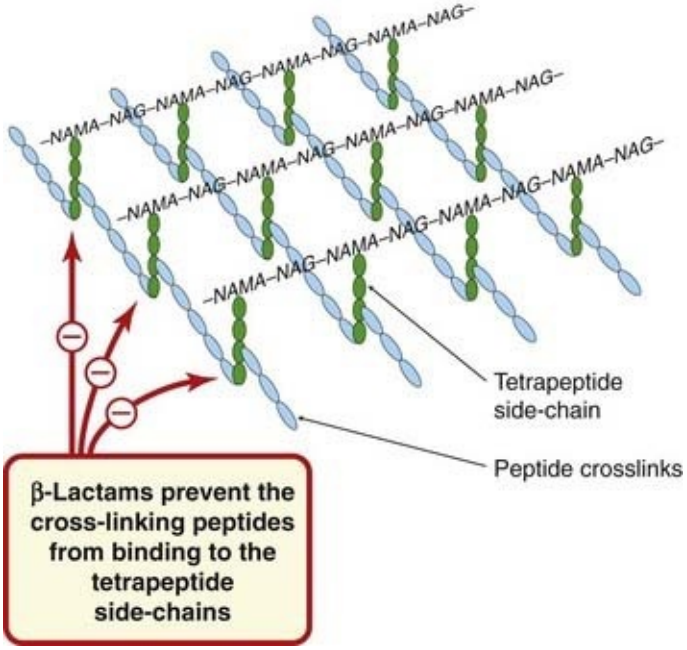


Fig. 49.2 Schematic diagram of a single layer of peptidoglycan from a bacterial cell (e.g. *Staphylococcus aureus*), showing the site of action of the β-lactam antibiotics.

In *S. aureus*, the peptide crosslinks consist of five glycine residues. Gram-positive bacteria have several layers of peptidoglycan. (NAG, *N*-acetylglucosamine; NAMA, *N*-acetylmuramic acid; more detail in Fig. 49.3.)

▼ To build up this very large insoluble peptidoglycan layer on the outside of the cell membrane, the bacterial cell has the problem of how to transport the hydrophilic cytoplasmic 'building blocks' through the hydrophobic cell membrane structure. This is accomplished by linking them to a very large lipid carrier, containing 55 carbon atoms, which 'tows' them across the membrane. The process of peptidoglycan synthesis is outlined in Figure 49.3. First, *N*-acetylmuramic acid, attached to uridine diphosphate (UDP) and a pentapeptide, is transferred to the C_{55} lipid carrier in the membrane, with the release of uridine monophosphate. This is followed by a reaction with UDP–*N*-acetylglucosamine, resulting in the formation of a disaccharide pentapeptide complex attached to the carrier. This complex is the basic building block of the peptidoglycan. In *Staphylococcus aureus*, the five glycine residues are attached to the peptide chain at this stage. The building block is now transported out of the cell and added to the growing end of the peptidoglycan, the 'acceptor', with the release of the C_{55} lipid, which still has two phosphates attached. The lipid carrier then loses one phosphate group and thus becomes available for another cycle. Crosslinking between the peptide side-chains of the sugar residues in the peptidoglycan layer then occurs, the hydrolytic removal of the terminal alanine supplying the requisite energy.

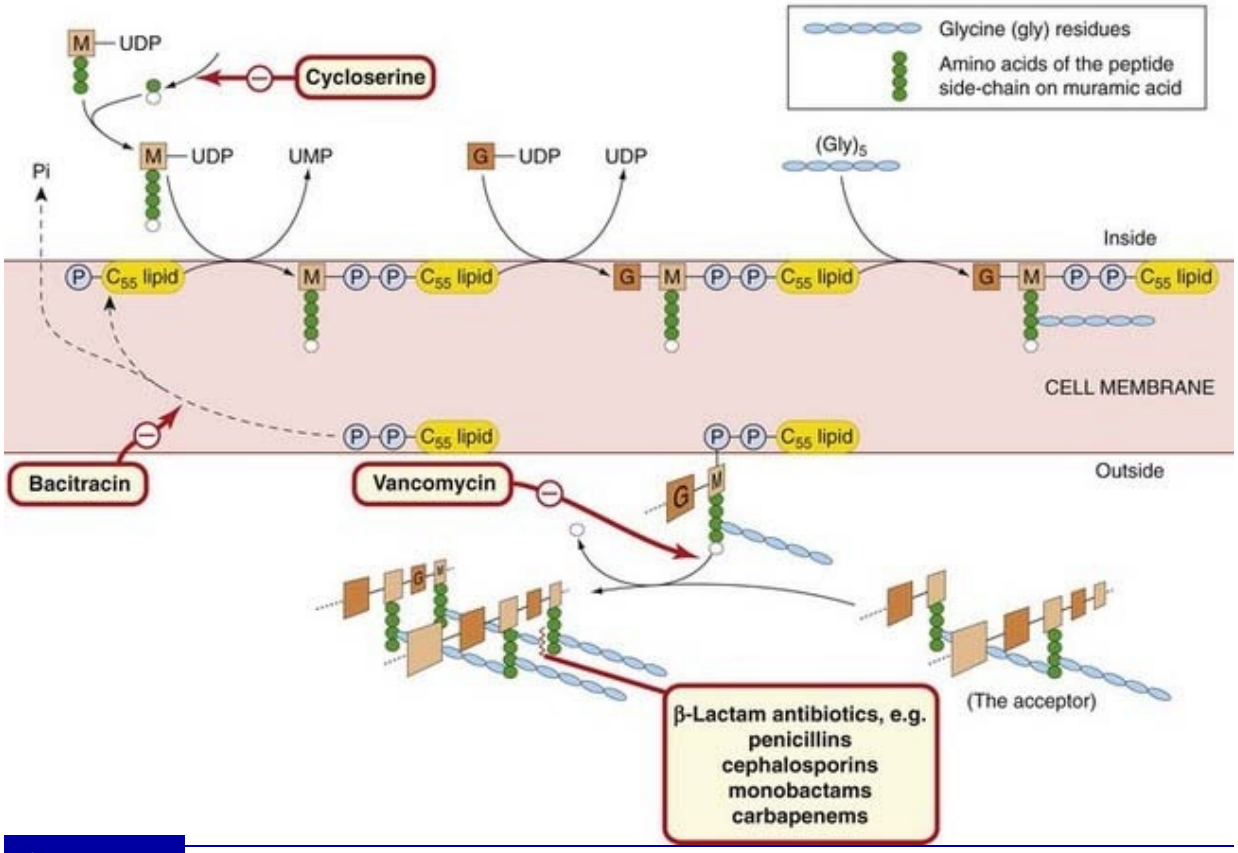


Fig. 49.3 Schematic diagram of the biosynthesis of peptidoglycan in a bacterial cell (e.g. *Staphylococcus aureus*), with the sites of action of various antibiotics.

The hydrophilic disaccharide–pentapeptide is transferred across the lipid cell membrane attached to a large lipid (C55 lipid) by a pyrophosphate bridge (–P–P–). On the outside, it is enzymically attached to the 'acceptor' (the growing peptidoglycan layer). The final reaction is a transpeptidation, in which the loose end of the (Gly) 5 chain is attached to a peptide side-chain of an M in the acceptor and during which the terminal amino acid (alanine) is lost. The lipid is regenerated by loss of a phosphate group (Pi) before functioning again as a carrier. G, N-acetylglucosamine; M, N-acetylmuramic acid; UDP, uridine diphosphate; UMP, uridine monophosphate.

This synthesis of peptidoglycan is a vulnerable step and can be blocked at several points by antibiotics (Fig. 49.3; Ch. 50). **Cycloserine**, which is a structural analogue of D-alanine, prevents the addition of the two terminal alanine residues to the initial tripeptide side-chain on *N*-acetylmuramic acid by competitive inhibition. **Vancomycin** inhibits the release of the building block unit from the carrier, thus preventing its

addition to the growing end of the peptidoglycan. **Bacitracin** interferes with the regeneration of the lipid carrier by blocking its dephosphorylation. **Penicillins**, **cephalosporins** and other **β-lactams** inhibit the final transpeptidation by forming covalent bonds with *penicillin-binding proteins* that have transpeptidase and carboxypeptidase activities, thus preventing formation of the crosslinks.

Protein synthesis

Protein synthesis takes place in the ribosomes. Eukaryotic and prokaryotic ribosomes are different, and this provides the basis for the selective antimicrobial action of some antibiotics. The bacterial ribosome consists of a 50S subunit and a 30S subunit (Fig. 49.4), whereas in the mammalian ribosome the subunits are 60S and 40S. The other elements involved in peptide synthesis are messenger RNA (mRNA), which forms the template for protein synthesis, and transfer RNA (tRNA), which specifically transfers the individual amino acids to the ribosome. The ribosome has three binding sites for tRNA, termed the A, P and E sites.

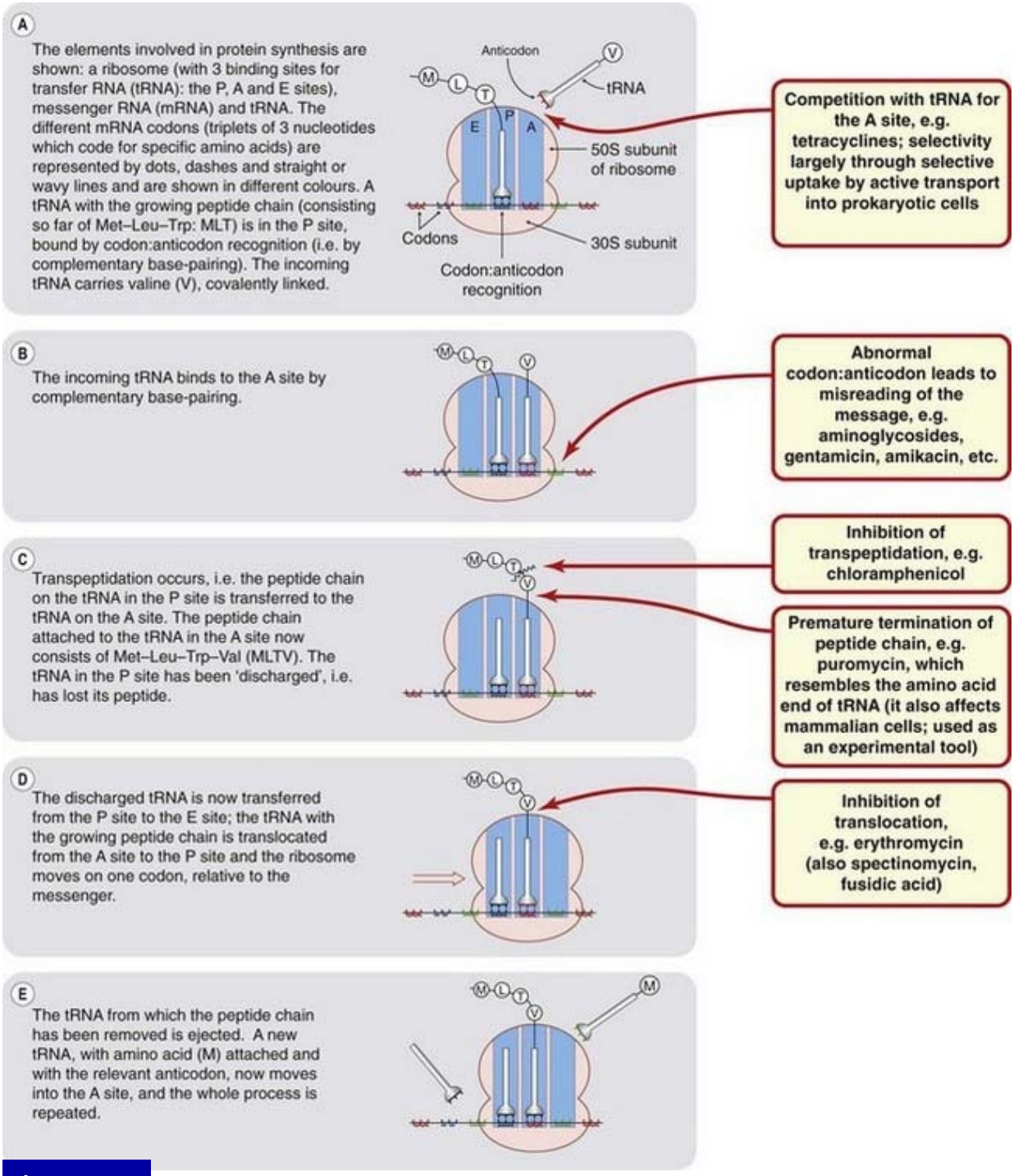


Fig. 49.4 Schematic diagram of bacterial protein synthesis, indicating the points at which antibiotics inhibit the process.

A simplified version of protein synthesis in bacteria is shown in Figure 49.4. To initiate translation, mRNA, transcribed from the DNA template

(see below), is attached to the 30S subunit of the ribosome. The 50S subunit then binds to the 30S subunit to form a 70S subunit,[4] which moves along the mRNA such that successive codons of the messenger pass along the ribosome from the A position to the P position. Antibiotics may affect protein synthesis at any one of these stages (Fig. 49.4; Ch. 50).

Nucleic acid synthesis

[4]You query whether 30S + 50S = 70S? Yes it does, because we are talking about *Svedberg units*, which measure sedimentation *rate*, not *mass*.

The nucleic acids of the cell are DNA and RNA. There are three types of RNA: mRNA, tRNA and ribosomal RNA (rRNA). The last of these is an integral part of the ribosome and is necessary for its assembly as well as for facilitating mRNA binding. The assembled ribosome also exhibits peptidyl transferase activity.

DNA is the template for the synthesis of both DNA and RNA. It exists in the cell as a double helix, each strand of which is a linear polymer of nucleotides. Each nucleotide consists of a base linked to a sugar (deoxyribose) and a phosphate. There are two purine bases, adenine (A) and guanine (G), and two pyrimidine bases, cytosine (C) and thymine (T). Single-strand DNA comprises alternating sugar and phosphate groups with the bases attached (Fig. 49.5). Specific hydrogen bonding between G and C and between A and T on each strand (i.e. complementary base pairing) is the basis of the double-stranded helical structure of DNA. The DNA helix is itself further coiled. In the test tube, the coil has 10 base pairs per turn. In vivo, the coil is unwound by about 1 turn in 20, forming a *negative supercoil*.

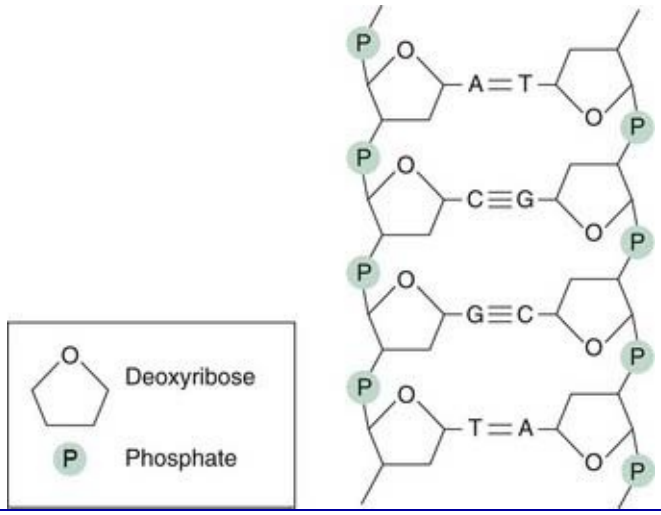


Fig. 49.5 Structure of DNA.

Each strand of DNA consists of a sugar–phosphate backbone with purine or pyrimidine bases attached. The purines are adenine (A) or guanine (G) and the pyrimidines are cytosine (C) or thymine (T). The sugar is deoxyribose. Complementarity between the two strands of DNA is maintained by hydrogen bonds (either two or three) between bases.

Initiation of DNA synthesis requires first the activity of a protein that causes separation of the strands. The replication process inserts a positive supercoil, which is relaxed by *DNA gyrase* (also called *topoisomerase II*; Fig. 49.6). During the synthesis of DNA, nucleotide units —each consisting of a base linked to a sugar and three phosphate groups —are added by base pairing with the complementary residues on the template. Condensation occurs by elimination of two phosphate groups, catalysed by *DNA polymerase*.

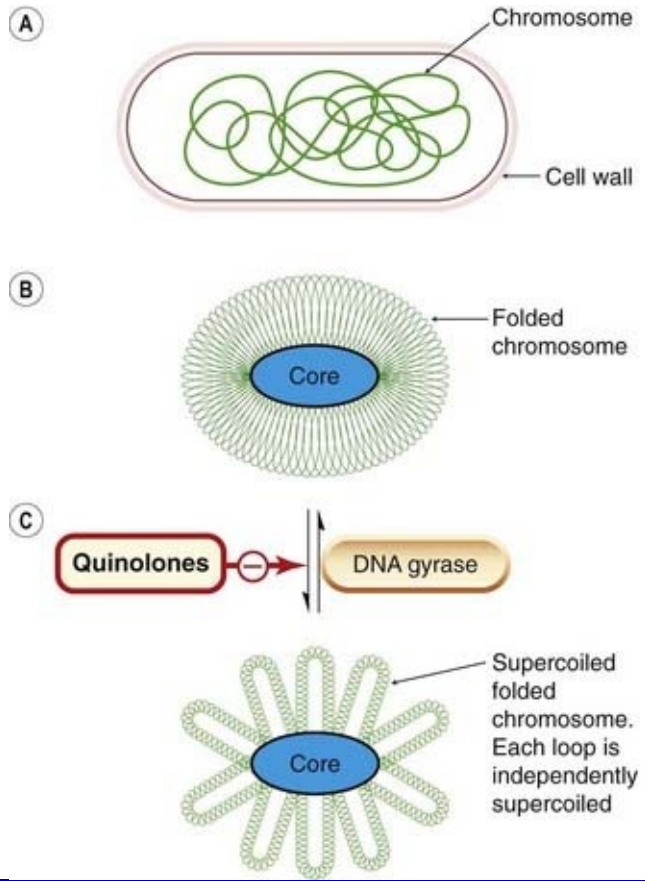


Fig. 49.6 Schematic diagram of the action of DNA gyrase: the site of action for quinolone antibacterials.

[**A**] Conventional diagram used to depict a bacterial cell and chromosome (e.g. *Escherichia coli*). Note that the *E. coli* chromosome is 1300 mm long and is contained in a cell envelope of 2 μm × 1 μm; this is approximately equivalent to a 50 m length of cotton folded into a matchbox. [**B**] Chromosome folded around RNA core, and then [**C**], supercoiled by DNA gyrase (topoisomerase II). Quinolone antibacterials interfere with the action of this enzyme.

(Modified from Smith J T 1985 In: Greenwood D, O'Grady F (eds) Scientific basis of antimicrobial therapy. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, p. 69.)

RNA exists only in single-stranded form. The sugar moiety here is ribose, and the ribonucleotides contain the bases adenine, guanine, cytosine and uracil (U).

It is possible to interfere with nucleic acid synthesis in five different ways:

• by inhibiting the synthesis of the nucleotides

• by altering the base-pairing properties of the template

• by inhibiting either DNA or RNA polymerase

• by inhibiting DNA gyrase

• by a direct effect on DNA itself.

Inhibition of the synthesis of the nucleotides

This can be accomplished by an effect on the metabolic pathways that generate nucleotide precursors. Examples of agents that have such an effect have been described under class II reactions.

Alteration of the base-pairing properties of the template

Agents that intercalate in the DNA have this effect. Examples include acridines (**proflavine** and **acriflavine**), which are used topically as antiseptics. The acridines double the distance between adjacent base pairs and cause a *frameshift mutation* (Fig. 49.7), whereas some purine and pyrimidine analogues cause base *mispairing*.

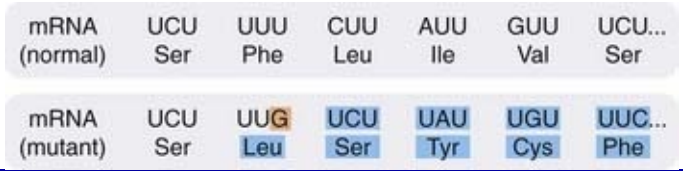


Fig. 49.7 An example of the effect on RNA and protein synthesis of a frameshift mutation in DNA.

A frameshift mutation is one that involves a deletion of a base or an insertion of an extra base. In the above example, an extra cytosine has been inserted in the DNA template, with the result that when mRNA is formed it has an additional guanine (G), as indicated in orange. The effect is to alter that codon and all the succeeding ones (shown in blue), so that a completely different protein is synthesised, as indicated by the different amino acids (Leu instead of Phe, Ser instead of Leu, etc.). A, adenine; C, cytosine; U, uracil.

Inhibition of either DNA or RNA polymerase

Dactinomycin (actinomycin D) binds to the guanine residues in DNA and blocks the movement of RNA polymerase, thus preventing transcription and inhibiting protein synthesis. The drug is used in cancer chemotherapy in humans (Ch. 55) and also as an experimental tool, but it is not useful as an antibacterial agent. Specific inhibitors of bacterial RNA polymerase that act by binding to this enzyme in prokaryotic but not in eukaryotic cells include **rifamycin** and **rifampicin**, which are particularly useful for treating tuberculosis (see Ch. 50). **Aciclovir** (an analogue of guanine) is phosphorylated in cells infected with herpes virus, the initial phosphorylation being by a virus-specific kinase to give the aciclovir trisphosphate, which has an inhibitory action on the DNA polymerase of the herpes virus (Ch. 51; Fig. 49.8).

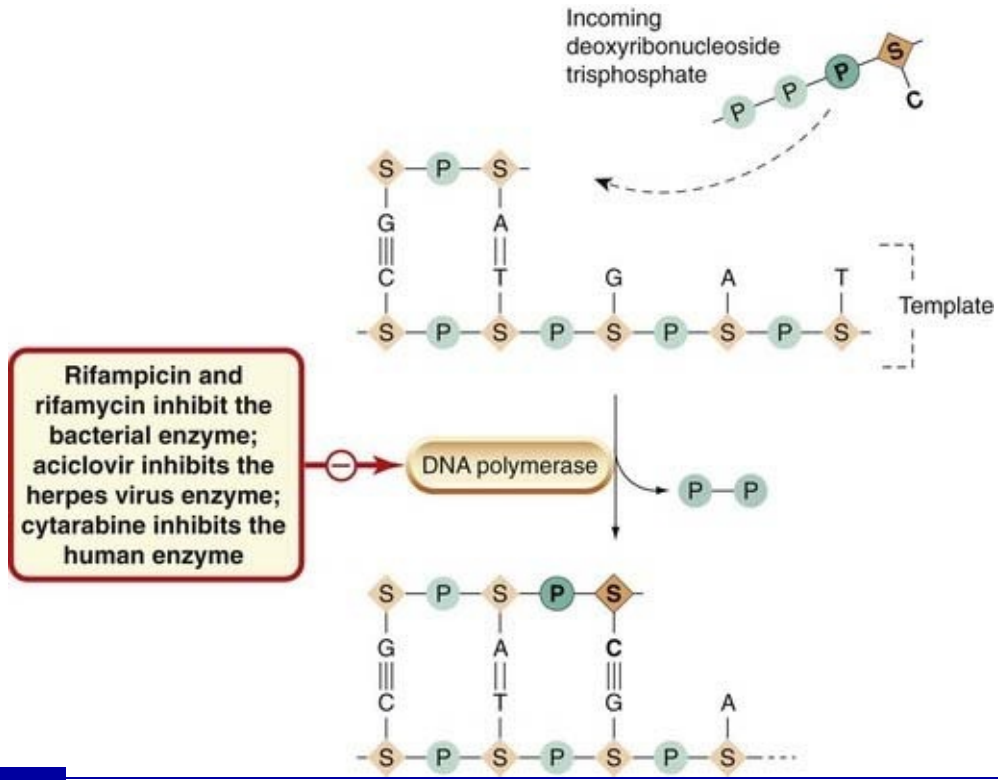


Fig. 49.8 Schematic diagram of DNA replication, showing some antibiotics that inhibit it by acting on DNA polymerase.

Nucleotides are added, one at a time, by base pairing to an exposed template strand, and are

then covalently joined together in a reaction catalysed by DNA polymerase. The units that pair with the complementary residues in the template consist of a base linked to a sugar and three phosphate groups. Condensation occurs with the elimination of two phosphates. The elements added to the template are shown in darker colours and bold type. A, adenine; C, cytosine; G, guanine; P, phosphate; S, sugar; T, thymine.

RNA retroviruses have a *reverse transcriptase* (*viral RNA-dependent DNA polymerase*) that copies the viral RNA into DNA that integrates into the host cell genome as a provirus. Various agents (**zidovudine**, **didanosine**) are phosphorylated by cellular enzymes to the trisphosphate forms, which compete with the host cell precursors essential for the formation by the viral reverse transcriptase of proviral DNA.

Cytarabine (cytosine arabinoside) is used in cancer chemotherapy (Ch. 55). Its trisphosphate derivative is a potent inhibitor of DNA polymerase in mammalian cells. **Foscarnet** inhibits viral RNA polymerase by attaching to the pyrophosphate-binding site.

Inhibition of DNA gyrase

Figure 49.6 is a simplified scheme showing the action of DNA gyrase. The *fluoroquinolones* (**cinoxacin**, **ciprofloxacin**, **nalidixic acid** and **norfloxacin**) act by inhibiting DNA gyrase, and these chemotherapeutic agents are used particularly in infections with Gram-negative organisms (Ch. 50). These drugs are selective for the bacterial enzyme because it is structurally different from the mammalian enzyme. Some anticancer agents, for example **doxorubicin**, act on the mammalian topoisomerase II.

Direct effects on DNA itself

Alkylating agents form covalent bonds with bases in DNA and prevent replication. Compounds with this action are used only in cancer

chemotherapy and include *nitrogen mustard* derivatives and *nitrosoureas* (Ch. 55). **Mitomycin** also binds covalently to DNA. No antibacterial agents work by these mechanisms. **Bleomycin**, an anticancer drug, causes fragmentation of the DNA strands following free radical formation (Ch. 55).

Biochemical reactions as potential targets for chemotherapy

• Class I reactions are poor targets.

• Class II reactions are better targets:

– *folate synthesis* in bacteria is inhibited by sulfonamides

– *folate utilisation* is inhibited by folate antagonists, for example **trimethoprim** (bacteria), **pyrimethamine** (malarial parasite), **methotrexate** (cancer cells)

– pyrimidine analogues (e.g. **fluorouracil**) and purine analogues (e.g. **mercaptopurine**) give rise to *fraudulent nucleotides* and are used to treat cancer.

• Class III reactions are important targets:

– *peptidoglycan synthesis* in bacteria can be selectively inhibited by β-lactam antibiotics (e.g. **penicillin**)

– *bacterial protein synthesis* can be selectively inhibited by antibiotics that prevent binding of tRNA (e.g. tetracyclines), promote misreading of mRNA (e.g. aminoglycosides), inhibit transpeptidation (e.g. **chloramphenicol**) or inhibit translocation of tRNA from A site to P site (e.g. **erythromycin**)

– *nucleic acid synthesis* can be inhibited by altering base pairing of DNA template (e.g. the antiviral **vidarabine**), by inhibiting DNA polymerase (e.g. the antivirals **aciclovir** and **foscarnet**) or by inhibiting DNA gyrase (e.g. the antibacterial **ciprofloxacin**).

The Formed Structures of the Cell as Potential Targets

The Membrane

The plasma membrane of bacterial cells is similar to that in mammalian

cells in that it consists of a phospholipid bilayer in which proteins are embedded, but it can be more easily disrupted in certain bacteria and fungi.

Polymixins are cationic peptide antibiotics, containing both hydrophilic and lipophilic groups, which have a selective effect on bacterial cell membranes. They act as detergents, disrupting the phospholipid components of the membrane structure, thus killing the cell.

Unlike mammalian and bacterial cells, fungal cell membranes comprise large amounts of *ergosterol*. This facilitates the attachment of *polyene antibiotics* (e.g. **nystatin** and **amphotericin**; Ch. 52), which act as ionophores and cause leakage of cations.

Azoles such as **itraconazole** kill fungal cells by inhibiting ergosterol synthesis, thereby disrupting the function of membrane-associated enzymes. The azoles also affect Gram-positive bacteria, their selectivity being associated with the presence of high levels of free fatty acids in the membrane of susceptible organisms (Ch. 52).

Intracellular Organelles

Microtubules and/or microfilaments

The benzimidazoles (e.g. **albendazole**) exert their anthelminthic action by binding selectively to parasite tubulin and preventing microtubule formation (Ch. 54). The vinca alkaloids **vinblastine** and **vincristine** are anticancer agents that disrupt the functioning of microtubules during cell division (Ch. 55).

Food vacuoles

The erythrocytic form of the malaria plasmodium feeds on host haemoglobin, which is digested by proteases in the parasite food vacuole, the final product, haem, being detoxified by polymerisation.

Chloroquine exerts its antimalarial action by inhibiting plasmodial haem polymerase (Ch. 53).

Muscle Fibres

Some anthelminthic drugs have a selective action on helminth muscle cells (Ch. 54). **Piperazine** acts as an agonist on parasite-specific chloride channels gated by GABA in nematode muscle, hyperpolarising the muscle fibre membrane and paralysing the worm; **avermectins** increase Cl^- permeability in helminth muscle—possibly by a similar mechanism. **Pyrantel** (now seldom used) and **levamisole** are agonists at nematode acetylcholine nicotinic receptors on muscle, causing contraction followed by paralysis (Ch. 54).

Formed structures of the cell that are targets for chemotherapy



- The plasma membrane is affected by:
  - **amphotericin**, which acts as an ionophore in fungal cells
  - azoles, which inhibit fungal membrane ergosterol synthesis.
- Microtubule function is disrupted by:
  - vinca alkaloids (anticancer drugs)
  - benzimidazoles (anthelminthics).
- Muscle fibres are affected by:
  - avermectins (anthelminthics), which increase Cl^- permeability
  - **pyrantel** (anthelminthic), which stimulates nematode nicotinic receptors, eventually causing muscle paralysis.

Resistance to Antibacterial Drugs

Since the 1940s, the development of effective and safe drugs to deal with

bacterial and other infections has revolutionised medical treatment, and the morbidity and mortality associated with these diseases has been dramatically reduced. Unfortunately, the development of effective antibacterial drugs has been accompanied by the emergence of drug-resistant organisms. This is not unexpected, because the short generation time of many bacterial species affords ample opportunity for evolutionary adaptation. The phenomenon of resistance imposes serious constraints on the options available for the medical treatment of many bacterial infections. Resistance to chemotherapeutic agents can also develop in protozoa, in multicellular parasites (see, for example, Martin & Robertson, 2000; St Georgiev, 2000) and in populations of malignant cells (discussed in Ch. 55). Here, however, we will confine our discussion mainly to the mechanisms of resistance in bacteria.

Antibiotic resistance in bacteria spreads in three ways:

1 by transfer of bacteria between people

2 by transfer of resistance genes between bacteria (usually on plasmids)

3 by transfer of resistance genes between genetic elements within bacteria, on transposons.

Understanding the mechanisms involved in antibiotic resistance is crucial for the sensible clinical use of existing medicines and in the design of new antibacterial drugs. One byproduct of the studies of resistance in bacteria was the development of plasmid-based techniques for DNA cloning, leading to the use of bacteria to produce recombinant proteins for therapeutic use (see Ch. 59).

Genetic Determinants of Antibiotic Resistance

Chromosomal Determinants: Mutations

▼ The spontaneous mutation rate in bacterial populations for any particular gene is very low, and the probability is that approximately only 1 cell in 10 million will, on division, give rise to a daughter cell containing a mutation in that gene. However, as there are likely to be very many more cells than this over the course of an infection, the probability of a mutation causing a change from drug sensitivity to drug resistance can be quite high with some species of bacteria and with some drugs. Fortunately, the presence of a few mutants is not generally sufficient to produce resistance: despite the selective advantage that the resistant mutants possess, the drastic reduction of the population by the antibiotic usually enables the host's natural defences (see Ch. 6) to prevail. However, the outcome may not be quite so happy if the primary infection is caused by a drug-resistant strain.

Resistance resulting from chromosomal mutation is important in some instances, notably infections with **meticillin**-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA; see below) and in tuberculosis, but apart from these examples this type of resistance is of limited clinical relevance, possibly because the mutants often have reduced pathogenicity.

Gene Amplification

▼ Recently it has been discovered that *gene duplication* and *amplification* are important mechanisms for resistance in some organisms (Sandegren & Andersson, 2009). According to this idea, treatment with antibiotics can induce an increased number of copies for pre-existing resistance genes such as antibiotic-destroying enzymes and efflux pumps.

Extrachromosomal Determinants: Plasmids

▼ In addition to the chromosome itself, many species of bacteria contain extrachromosomal genetic elements called *plasmids* that exist free in the cytoplasm. These are also genetic elements that can replicate

independently. Structurally, they are closed loops of DNA that may comprise a single gene or as many as 500 or even more. Only a few plasmid copies may exist in the cell but often multiple copies are present, and there may also be more than one type of plasmid in each bacterial cell. Plasmids that carry genes for resistance to antibiotics (*r genes*) are referred to as *R plasmids*. Much of the drug resistance encountered in clinical medicine is plasmid determined. It is not known how these genes arose.

The whole process can occur with frightening speed. *S. aureus*, for example, is a past master of the art of antibiotic resistance. Having become completely resistant to penicillin through plasmid-mediated mechanisms, this organism, within only 1–2 years, was able to adapt to its replacement, meticillin (de Lancastre et al., 2007).

The Transfer of Resistance Genes between Genetic Elements within the Bacterium

Transposons

▼ Some stretches of DNA are readily transferred (transposed) from one plasmid to another and also from plasmid to chromosome or vice versa. This is because integration of these segments of DNA, which are called *transposons*, into the acceptor DNA can occur independently of the normal mechanism of homologous genetic recombination. Unlike plasmids, transposons are not able to replicate independently, although some may replicate during the process of integration (Fig. 49.9), resulting in a copy in both the donor and the acceptor DNA molecules. Transposons may carry one or more resistance genes (see below) and can 'hitch-hike' on a plasmid to a new species of bacterium. Even if the plasmid is unable to replicate in the new host, the transposon may integrate into the new host's chromosome or into its indigenous

plasmids. This probably accounts for the widespread distribution of certain of the resistance genes on different R plasmids and among unrelated bacteria.

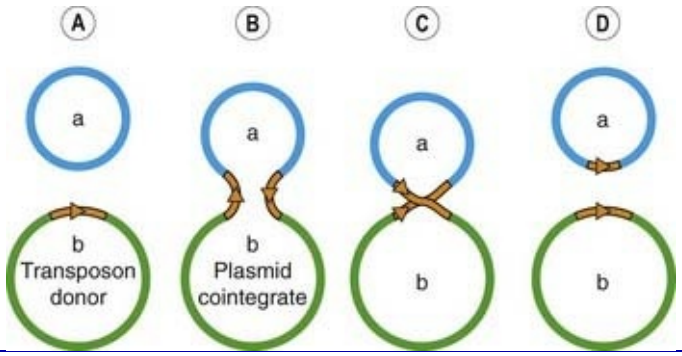


Fig. 49.9 An example of the transfer and replication of a transposon (which may carry genes coding for resistance to antibiotics).

[**A**] Two plasmids, a and b, with plasmid b containing a transposon (shown in brown). [**B**] An enzyme encoded by the transposon cuts DNA of both donor plasmid and target plasmid a to form a *cointegrate*. During this process, the transposon replicates. [**C**] An enzyme encoded by the transposon resolves the cointegrate. [**D**] Both plasmids now contain the transposon DNA.

Gene cassettes and integrons

▼ Plasmids and transposons do not complete the tally of mechanisms that natural selection has provided to confound the hopes of the microbiologist/chemotherapist. Resistance—in fact, *multidrug resistance*—can also be spread by another mobile element, the *gene cassette*, which consists of a resistance gene attached to a small recognition site. Several cassettes may be packaged together in a *multicassette array*, which can, in turn, be integrated into a larger mobile DNA unit termed an *integron*. The integron (which may be located on a transposon) contains a gene for an enzyme, *integrase* (*recombinase*), which inserts the cassette(s) at unique sites on the integron. This system—transposon/integron/multiresistance cassette array—allows particularly rapid and efficient transfer of multidrug resistance between genetic elements both within and between bacteria.

The Transfer of Resistance Genes between Bacteria

▼ The transfer of resistance genes between bacteria of the same and indeed of different species is of fundamental importance in the spread of antibiotic resistance. The most important mechanism in this context is *conjugation*. Other gene transfer mechanisms, *transduction* and *transformation*, are of little importance in spreading resistance genes.

Conjugation

▼ Conjugation involves cell-to-cell contact during which chromosomal or extrachromosomal DNA is transferred from one bacterium to another, and is the main mechanism for the spread of resistance. The ability to conjugate is encoded in *conjugative plasmids*; these are plasmids that contain transfer genes that, in coliform bacteria, code for the production by the host bacterium of proteinaceous surface tubules, termed *sex pili*, which connect the two cells. The conjugative plasmid then passes across from one bacterial cell to another (generally of the same species). Many Gram-negative and some Gram-positive bacteria can conjugate. Some *promiscuous plasmids* can cross the species barrier, accepting one host as readily as another. Many R plasmids are conjugative. Non-conjugative plasmids, if they co-exist in a 'donor' cell with conjugative plasmids, can hitch-hike from one bacterium to the other with the conjugative plasmids. The transfer of resistance by conjugation is significant in populations of bacteria that are normally found at high densities, as in the gut.

Transduction

▼ *Transduction* is a process by which plasmid DNA is enclosed in a bacterial virus (or *phage*) and transferred to another bacterium of the same species. It is a relatively ineffective means of transfer of genetic material but is clinically important in the transmission of resistance

genes between strains of staphylococci and of streptococci.

Transformation

▼ A few species of bacteria can, under natural conditions, undergo *transformation* by taking up DNA from the environment and incorporating it into the genome by normal homologous recombination. Transformation is probably not of importance clinically.

Resistance to antibiotics

• Drug resistance in bacterial populations can be spread from person to person by bacteria, from bacterium to bacterium by plasmids and from plasmid to plasmid (or chromosome) by transposons.

• Plasmids are extrachromosomal genetic elements that can replicate independently and can carry genes coding for resistance to antibiotics (r genes).

• The main method of transfer of r genes from one bacterium to another is by conjugative plasmids. The bacterium forms a connecting tube with other bacteria through which the plasmids pass.

• A less common method of transfer is by transduction, *i.e.* the transmission by a bacterial virus (phage) of a plasmid bearing an r gene into another bacterium.

• Transposons are stretches of DNA that can be transposed from one plasmid to another, from a plasmid to a chromosome or vice versa. A plasmid containing an r gene-bearing transposon may code for enzymes that cause the plasmid to be integrated with another. Following their separation, this transposon replicates so that both plasmids then contain the r gene.

Biochemical Mechanisms of Resistance to Antibiotics

The Production of an Enzyme That Inactivates the Drug

Inactivation of β-lactam antibiotics

The most important example of resistance caused by inactivation is that of the *β-lactam antibiotics*. The enzymes concerned are *β-lactamases*, which cleave the β-lactam ring of penicillins and **cephalosporins** (see Ch. 50). Cross-resistance between the two classes of antibiotic is not complete, because some β-lactamases have a preference for penicillins and some for cephalosporins.

▼ *Staphylococci* are the principal bacterial species producing β-lactamase, and the genes coding for the enzymes are on plasmids that can be transferred by transduction. In staphylococci, the enzyme is inducible (i.e. its synthesis is not expressed in the absence of the drug) and minute, subinhibitory, concentrations of antibiotics de-repress the gene and result in a 50-to 80-fold increase in expression. The enzyme passes through the bacterial envelope and inactivates antibiotic molecules in the surrounding medium. The grave clinical problem posed by resistant staphylococci secreting β-lactamase was tackled by developing semisynthetic penicillins (such as meticillin) and new β-lactam antibiotics (the **monobactams** and **carbapenems**), and cephalosporins (such as **cephamandole**), that are less susceptible to inactivation. The growing problem of MRSA is discussed below.

Gram-negative organisms can also produce β-lactamases, and this is a significant factor in their resistance to the semisynthetic broad-spectrum β-lactam antibiotics. In these organisms, the enzymes may be coded by either chromosomal or plasmid genes. In the former case, the enzymes may be inducible, but in the latter they are produced constitutively. When this occurs, the enzyme does not inactivate the drug in the surrounding medium but instead remains attached to the cell wall, preventing access of the drug to membrane-associated target sites. Many of these β-lactamases are encoded by transposons, some of which may also carry resistance determinants to several other antibiotics.

Inactivation of chloramphenicol

Chloramphenicol is inactivated by *chloramphenicol acetyltransferase*, an enzyme produced by resistant strains of both Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms, the resistance gene being plasmid borne. In Gram-negative bacteria, the enzyme is produced constitutively, resulting in levels of resistance five-fold higher than in Gram-positive bacteria, in which the enzyme is inducible.

Inactivation of aminoglycosides

Aminoglycosides are inactivated by phosphorylation, adenylation or acetylation, and the requisite enzymes are found in both Gram-negative and Gram-positive organisms. The resistance genes are carried on plasmids, and several are found on transposons.

Many other examples of this kind are given by Wright (2005).

Alteration of Drug-Sensitive or Drug-Binding Site

The aminoglycoside-binding site on the 30S subunit of the ribosome may be altered by chromosomal mutation. A plasmid-mediated alteration of the binding site protein on the 50S subunit also underlies resistance to **erythromycin**, and decreased binding of fluoroquinolones because of a point mutation in DNA gyrase A has recently been described. An altered DNA-dependent RNA polymerase determined by a chromosomal mutation is reported to be the basis for **rifampicin** resistance.

In addition to acquiring resistance to β-lactams susceptible to β-lactamase, some strains of *S. aureus* have even become resistant to some antibiotics that are not significantly inactivated by β-lactamase (e.g. meticillin), because they express an additional β-lactam-binding protein coded for by a mutated chromosomal gene.

See Lambert (2005) for other examples of this type of action.

Decreased Drug Accumulation in the Bacterium

An important example of decreased drug accumulation is the plasmid-mediated resistance to **tetracyclines** encountered in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. In this case, resistance genes in the plasmid code for inducible proteins in the bacterial membrane, which promote energy-dependent efflux of the tetracyclines, and hence resistance. This type of resistance is common and has greatly reduced the therapeutic value of the tetracyclines in human and veterinary medicine. Resistance of *S. aureus* to erythromycin and the other macrolides, and to fluoroquinolones, is also brought about by energy-dependent efflux. Inhibitors of such pumps may be useful adjuncts to antibiotics (Van Bambeke et al., 2006).

There is also recent evidence of plasmid-determined inhibition of *porin* synthesis, which could affect those hydrophilic antibiotics that enter the bacterium through these water-filled channels in the outer membrane. Altered permeability as a result of chromosomal mutations involving the polysaccharide components of the outer membrane of Gram-negative organisms may confer enhanced resistance to **ampicillin**. Mutations affecting envelope components have been reported to affect the accumulation of aminoglycosides, β-lactams, chloramphenicol, peptide antibiotics and tetracycline.

The Development of a Pathway That Bypasses the Reaction Inhibited By the Antibiotic

Resistance to trimethoprim is the result of plasmid-directed synthesis of a *dihydrofolate reductase* with low or zero affinity for trimethoprim. It is transferred by transduction and may be spread by transposons.

Sulfonamide resistance in many bacteria is plasmid mediated and results from the production of a form of *dihydropteroate synthetase* with a

low affinity for sulfonamides but no change in affinity for PABA. Bacteria causing serious infections have been found to carry plasmids with resistance genes to both sulfonamides and trimethoprim.

Biochemical mechanisms of resistance to antibiotics

The principal mechanisms are as follow:

• *Production of enzymes that inactivate the drug*: for example, β-lactamases, which inactivate **penicillin**; acetyltransferases, which inactivate **chloramphenicol**; kinases and other enzymes, which inactivate aminoglycosides.

• *Alteration of the drug-binding sites*: this occurs with aminoglycosides, **erythromycin**, penicillin.

• *Reduction of drug uptake by the bacterium*: for example, tetracyclines.

• *Alteration of enzyme pathways*: for example, dihydrofolate reductase becomes insensitive to **trimethoprim**.

Current Status of Antibiotic Resistance in Bacteria

The most disturbing development of resistance has been in staphylococci, one of the commonest causes of hospital bloodstream infections, many strains of which are now resistant to almost all currently available antibiotics (de Lencastre et al., 2007). In addition to resistance to some β-lactams through production of β-lactamase and the production of an additional β-lactam-binding protein that also renders them resistant to meticillin, *S. aureus* may also manifest resistance to other antibiotics as follows:

• to **streptomycin** (because of chromosomally determined alterations of target site)

• to aminoglycosides in general (because of altered target site and

plasmid-determined inactivating enzymes)

• to **chloramphenicol** and the macrolides (because of plasmid-determined enzymes)

• to **trimethoprim** (because of transposon-encoded drug-resistant dihydrofolate reductase)

• to sulfonamides (because of chromosomally determined increased production of PABA)

• to **rifampicin** (because of chromosomally and plasmid determined increases in efflux of the drug)

• to **fusidic acid** (because of chromosomally determined decreased affinity of the target site or a plasmid-encoded decreased permeability to the drug)

• to quinolones, for example **ciprofloxacin** and **norfloxacin** (because of chromosomally determined reduced uptake).

Infections with MRSA have become a major problem, particularly in hospitals, where they can spread rapidly among elderly and/or seriously ill patients, and patients with burns or wounds. Until recently, the glycopeptide **vancomycin** was the antibiotic of last resort against MRSA but, ominously, strains of MRSA showing decreased susceptibility to this drug were isolated from hospitalised patients in the USA and Japan in 1997[5] and, more recently, in the community. MRSA infections are rising; Bax *et al.* (2000) report prevalence in US hospitals as rising from 11–13% in 1985/6 to 26% in 1998.

[5]Noble *et al.* (1992) have reported transfer of vancomycin resistance from enterococci to staphylococci. If this occurred in a clinical environment, it would be disastrous. Some microbiologists have

suggested that Noble and his team should be autoclaved.

The fact that vancomycin resistance seems to have developed spontaneously could have major clinical implications—and not only for *nosocomial* (those contracted in hospital) MRSA infections. It had been thought that antibiotic-resistant bacteria were dangerous only to seriously ill, hospitalised patients, in that the genetic burden of multiple resistance genes would lead to reduced virulence. Distressingly, however, there is now evidence that the spectrum and frequency of disease produced by meticillin-susceptible and meticillin-resistant staphylococci are similar.

▼ In the past few years, *enterococci* have been rapidly developing resistance to many chemotherapeutic agents and have emerged as the second most common nosocomial pathogen. Non-pathogenic enterococci are ubiquitous in the intestine, have intrinsic resistance to many antibacterial drugs, and can readily become resistant to other agents by taking up plasmids and transposons carrying the relevant resistance genes. Such resistance is easily transferred to invading pathogenic enterococci.

Enterococci, already multiresistant, have recently developed resistance to vancomycin. This is apparently achieved by substitution of D-Ala-D-Ala with D-Ala-D-lactate in the peptide chain attached to *N*-acetylglucosamine-*N*-acetylmuramic acid (G-M) during the first steps of peptidoglycan synthesis (see Fig. 49.3; Ch. 50). This is becoming a major problem in hospitalised patients, and in the USA vancomycin resisitance has increased from 0.5% to 18% in less than a decade (Bax et al., 2000). A particular concern is the possibility of transfer of vancomycin resistance from enterococci to staphylococci, because they can co-exist in the same patient.

Many other pathogens are developing or have developed resistance to commonly used drugs. This list includes *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Neisseria meningitidis*, *N. gonorrhoeae*, *Haemophilius influenzae* and *H. ducreyi*, as well as *Mycobacterium*, *Campylobacter* and *Bacteroides* species. Some strains of *M. tuberculosis* are now able to evade every antibiotic in the clinician's armamentarium, and tuberculosis, once easily treatable, is now reported to be causing more deaths worldwide than malaria and AIDS together. Fortunately, some glycopeptide and other antibiotics (e.g. **teicoplanin**, **daptomycin** and **linezolide** see Ch. 50) that are used to treat resistant Gram-positive strains have largely maintained their potency. Even so, there is a danger of resistance arising if they are wrongly utilised.

Prescribers and consumers must also bear a responsibility for the burgeoning problem of resistance. Indiscriminate use of antibiotics in human and veterinary medicine, and their use in animal foodstuffs, has undoubtedly encouraged the growth of resistant strains. Some governmental and regulatory bodies (e.g. the European Union) have devised political and social measures to curb such excesses, and these have been at least partly successful.

The issue around declining antibiotic efficacy is, however, not solely to do with bacterial countermeasures. There has been a declining interest in the pharmaceutical industry in researching novel antibiotics. Historically, the area has been one of the mainstays of the industry, but most of the drugs available today are the result of incremental changes in the structures of a relatively small number of basic molecular structures, such as the β-lactam nucleus. By common consent, the days when it was possible to discover new and effective drugs in this way are long gone.

Hubris has also played a part. In 1967, the US Surgeon General

effectively announced that infectious diseases had been vanquished, and that the researchers should turn their attention to chronic diseases instead. As a result, many pharmaceutical companies scaled down their efforts in the area, and only in the past few years has activity been resumed as the pressing need for novel compounds has been recognised (Barrett & Barrett, 2003).

However, nature has endowed microorganisms with fiendishly effective adaptive mechanisms for outwitting our best therapeutic strategies, and so far several have been effortlessly keeping pace with our attempts to eradicate them. This challenging situation has been reviewed in depth by Shlaes (2003) and Barrett & Barrett (2003).

Multidrug resistance

Many pathogenic bacteria have developed resistance to the commonly used antibiotics. Examples include the following:

- Some strains of staphylococci and enterococci that are resistant to virtually all current antibiotics, the resistance being transferred by transposons and/or plasmids; such organisms can cause serious and virtually untreatable nosocomial infections.
- Some strains of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* that have become resistant to most antituberculosis agents.

References and Further Reading

General reading

myes S.G.B. *Magic bullets, lost horizons: the rise and fall of antibiotics*. London: Taylor & Francis; 2001. (*Thought-provoking book by a bacteriologist with wide experience in bacterial resistance and genetics; he opines that unless the problem of antibiotic resistance is solved in the next 5 years, 'we are going to slip further into the abyss of uncontrollable infection'*)

nodler L.A., Celli J., Finlay B.B. Pathogenic trickery: deception of host cell processes. *Mol. Cell. Biol.*. 2001;2:578-588. (*Discusses bacterial ploys to subvert or block normal host cellular processes: mimicking the ligands for host cell receptors or signalling pathways. Useful list of examples*)

lartin R.J., Robertson A.P. Electrophysiological investigation of anthelmintic resistance. *Parasitology*. 2000;120(Suppl.):S87-S94. (*Uses patch clamp technique to study ion channels in resistant and non-resistant nematode tissue*)

ecchia G.D., Hall R.M. Gene cassettes: a new class of mobile element. *Microbiology*. 1995;141:3015-3027. (*Detailed coverage of this unusual mechanism*)

hlaes D.M. The abandonment of antibacterials: why and wherefore? *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2003;3:470-473. (*A good review that explains the reasons underlying the resistance problem and the regulatory and other hurdles that must be overcome before new antibacterials appear on to the market; almost apocalyptic in tone*)

an Y.T., Tillett D.J., McKay I.A. Molecular strategies for overcoming antibiotic resistance in bacteria. *Mol. Med. Today*. 2000;6:309-314. (*Succinct article reviewing strategies to exploit advances in molecular biology to develop new antibiotics that overcome resistance; useful glossary of relevant terms*)

olpato J.P., Pelletier J.N. Mutational 'hot-spots' in mammalian, bacterial and protozoal dihydrofolate reductases associated with antifolate resistance: sequence and structural comparison. *Drug. Resist. Updat.*. 2009;12:28-41.

asloff M. Antimicrobial peptides of multicellular organisms. *Nature*. 2002;415:389-395. (*Thought-provoking article about the potent broad-spectrum antimicrobial peptides possessed by both animals and plants, which are used to fend off a wide range of microbes; it is suggested that exploiting these might be one answer to the problem of antibiotic resistance*)

Drug resistance

arrett C.T., Barrett J.F. Antibacterials: are the new entries enough to deal with the emerging resistance problem? *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*. 2003;14:621-626. (*Good general review with some compelling examples and a round-up of new drug candidates*)

ax R., Mullan N., Verhoef J. The millennium bugs—the need for and development of new

antibacterials. *Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents*. 2000;16:51-59. (*Excellent review of the problem of resistance and some of the new agents in the pipeline*)

ourvalin P., Trieu-Cuot P. Minimizing potential resistance: the molecular view. *Clin. Infect. Dis.*. 2001;33:S138-S146. (*Reviews the potential contribution of molecular biology to preventing the spread of resistant bacteria*)

e Lencastre H., Oliveira D., Tomasz A. Antibiotic resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*: a paradigm of adaptive power. *Curr. Opin. Microbiol.*. 2007;10:428-435. (*A little specialised but worth reading. It details the extraordinary ability of this organism to survive attack by virtually all the drugs in our antibiotic arsenal*)

awkey P.M. The origins and molecular basis of antibiotic resistance. *Br. Med. J.*. 1998;7159:657-659. (*Succinct overview of resistance; useful, simple diagrams; this is one of 12 papers on resistance in this issue of the journal*)

ones M.E., Peters E., Weersink A.M., *et al.* Widespread occurrence of integrons causing multiple antibiotic resistance in bacteria. *Lancet*. 1997;349:1742-1743.

ambert P.A. Bacterial resistance to antibiotics: modified target sites. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.*. 2005;57:1471-1485. (*Excellent review dealing with this important topic. Numerous examples drawn from studies with many different bacterial species*)

evy S.B. The challenge of antibiotic resistance. *Sci. Am.*. 1998;March:32-39. (*Simple, clear review by an expert in the field; excellent diagrams*)

Iichel M., Gutman L. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and vancomycin-resistant enterococci: therapeutic realities and possibilities. *Lancet*. 1997;349:1901-1906. (*Good review article; useful diagram; suggests schemes for medical management of infections caused by resistant organisms*)

oble W.C., Virani Z., Cree R.G. Co-transfer of vancomycin and other resistance genes from *Enterococcus faecalis* NCTC 12201 to *Staphylococcus aureus*. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*. 1992;72:195-198.

t Georgiev V. Membrane transporters and antifungal drug resistance. *Curr. Drug Targets*. 2000;1:184-261. (*Discusses various aspects of multidrug resistance in disease-causing fungi in the*

context of targeted drug development)

Andegren L., Andersson D.I. Bacterial gene amplification: implications for the evolution of antibiotic resistance. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.*. 2009;7:578-588.

an Bambeke F., Pages J.M., Lee V.J. Inhibitors of bacterial efflux pumps as adjuvants in antibiotic treatments and diagnostic tools for detection of resistance by efflux. *Recent. Pat. Antiinfect. Drug Discov.*. 2006;1:157-175.

an Belkum A. Molecular epidemiology of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strains: state of affairs and tomorrow's possibilities. *Microb. Drug Resist.*. 2000;6:173-187.

Walsh C. Molecular mechanisms that confer antibacterial drug resistance. *Nature*. 2000;406:775-781. (*Excellent review outlining the mechanisms of action of antibiotics and the resistance ploys of bacteria; very good diagrams*)

Woodford N. Biological counterstrike: antibiotic resistance mechanisms of Gram-positive cocci. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.*. 2005;3:2-21. (*A useful reference that classifies antibiotic resistance as one of the major public health concerns of the 21st century and discusses drug treatment for resistant strains*)

Wright G.D. Bacterial resistance to antibiotics: enzymatic degradation and modification. *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.*. 2005;57:1451-1470. (*This comprehensive review gives details of the many pathways that have evolved in bacteria to destroy antibiotics. A little complex but fascinating reading*)

50

Antibacterial drugs

Overview

In this chapter, we continue to develop the ideas we introduced in the previous chapter. A detailed discussion of the bacteria of medical importance is beyond the scope of this book and the reader is referred to more specialist texts. However, information about some clinically significant pathogens is provided in Table 50.1 and an overview of the principal antibiotic 'families', together with their mechanisms of action, is given in Table 50.2. The major classes of antibacterial drugs are described, along with their mechanism of action, relevant pharmacokinetic properties and side effects.

Table 50.1 Some clinically significant pathogenic bacteria

Genus	Morphology	Species	Disease
Gram-negative			
Bordetella	Cocci	*B. pertussis*	Whooping cough
Brucella	Curved rods	*B. abortus*	Brucellosis (cattle and humans)
Campylobacter	Spiral rods	*C. jejuni*	Food poisoning
Escherichia	Rods	*E. coli*	Septicaemia, wound infections, UTIs
Haemophilus	Rods	*H. influenzae*	Acute respiratory tract infection, meningitis
Helicobacter	Motile rods	*H. pylori*	Peptic ulcers, gastric cancer
Klebsiella	Capsulated rods	*K. pneumoniae*	Pneumonia, septicaemia
Legionella	Flagellated rods	*L. pneumophila*	Legionnaires' disease
Neisseria	Cocci, paired	*N. gonorrhea*	Gonorrhoea
Pseudomonas	Flagellated rods	*P. aeruginosa*	Septicaemia, respiratory infections, UTIs
Rickettsiae	Cocci or threads	*Several spp.*	Tick- and insect-borne infections
Salmonella	Motile rods	*S. typhimurium*	Food poisoning
Shigella	Rods	*S. dysenteriae*	Bacillary dysentry
Yersinia	Rods	*Y. pestis*	Bubonic plague
Vibrio	Flagellated rods	*V. cholerae*	Cholera
Gram-positive			
Bacillus	Rods, chains	*B. anthrax*	Anthrax
Clostridium	Rods	*Cl. tetani*	Tetanus
Corynebacterium	Rod	*C. diphtheriae*	Diphtheria
Mycobacterium	Rods	*M. tuberculosis* *M. leprae*	Tuberculosis Leprosy
Staphylococcus	Cocci, clusters	*Staph. aureus*	Wound infections, boils, septicaemia
Streptococcus	Cocci, pairs Cocci, chains	*Strept. pneumoniae* *Strept. pyogenes*	Pneumonia, meningitis Scarlet fever, rheumatic fever, cellulitis
Other			
Chlamydia	Gram 'uncertain'	*C. trachomatis*	Eye disease, infertility
Treponema	Flagellated spiral rods	*T. pallidum*	Syphillis

UTI, urinary tract infection.

Table 50.2 A general overview of antibacterials and their mechanism of action

Family/class	Examples	Main organisms	Major cellular target
Sulphonamides	Sulfadiazine, sulfamethoxazole, trimethoprim	*T. gondii, P. jirovecii*	Bacterial folate synthesis or action
β-Lactams			
Penicillins	Benzylpenicillin, phenoxymethylpenicillin	Overall, mainly Gram-positive spp.; some Gram-negative spp.	
Penicillinase resistant	Flucloxacillin, temocillin	Used for staphylococcal infections	
Broad-spectrum penicillins	Amoxicillin, ampicillin	A wide range of Gram-positive and Gram-negative spp.	
Antipseudomonal penicillins	Piperacillin, ticarcillin	Selected Gram-negative spp., especially *P. aeruginosa*	
Mecillinams	Pivmecillinam	Mainly Gram-negative spp.	
Cephalosporins	Cefalcor, cefadroxil, cefalexin, cefixime, cefotaxime, cefpodoxime, cefradine, ceftazidime, ceftriaxone, cefuroxime	Broad spectrum of activity against Gram-negative and positive spp.	Bacterial cell wall peptidoglycan synthesis
Carbapenems and monobactams	Ertapenem, impenem, meropenem Aztreonam	Many Gram-negative and positive spp. Gram-negative rods	
Glycopeptides	Vancomycin, teicoplanin, (daptomycin)	Gram-positive spp.	
Polymixins	Colistin, polymixin B	Gram-negative spp.	Bacterial outer cell membrane structure
Tetracyclines	Tetracycline, demeclocycline, doycycline, lymecycline, minocycline, oxytetracycline (tigecycline)	Many Gram-negative and Gram-positive spp.	
Aminogycosides	Gentamicin, amikacin, neomycin, tobramycin	Many Gram-negative, some Gram-positive spp.	Bacterial protein synthesis (multiple mechanisms inhibited including initiation, transpeptidation and translocation; see text)
Macrolides	Erythromycin, azithromycin, clarithromycin, telithromycin	Similar to penicillin	
Oxazolidinones	Linezolid	Gram-positive spp.	
Lincosamides	Clindamycin	Gram-positive spp.	
Amphenicols	Chloramphenicol	Gram-negative and Gram-positive spp.	
Streptogramins	Quinupristin, dalfopristin	Gram-positive spp.	
Antimycobacterials	Capreomycin, cycloserine, ethambutol, isoniazid, pyrazinamide, rifabutin, rifampicin, dapsone, clofazimine	Most used for mycobacterial infections only	Various unrelated mechanisms (see text)
Quinolones	Ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin, moxifloxacin, nalidixic acid, norfloxacin, ofloxacin	Gram-negative and Gram-positive spp.	Bacterial DNA synthesis
Miscellaneous	Fusidic acid Nitrofurantoin Methenamine	Gram-positive spp. Gram-negative UTIs Gram-negative UTIs	Bacterial protein synthesis Damages bacterial DNA Formaldehyde prodrug

Introduction

In 1928, Alexander Fleming, working at St Mary's Hospital in London, observed that a culture plate on which staphylococci were being grown had become contaminated with a mould of the genus *Penicillium*, and

that bacterial growth in the vicinity of the mould had been inhibited. He isolated the mould in pure culture and demonstrated that it produced an antibacterial substance, which he called **penicillin**. This substance was subsequently prepared in bulk, extracted and its antibacterial effects analysed by Florey, Chain and their colleagues at Oxford in 1940. They showed that it had powerful chemotherapeutic properties in infected mice, and that it was non-toxic, thus ushering in the 'antibiotic era'. Seventy years later, the number of different types of antibiotics has grown 10-fold and the practice of medicine would be unthinkable without them.

Many organisms can be classified as being either *Gram-positive* or *Gram-negative* depending on whether or not they stain with *Gram's stain*.[1] This is not merely a taxonomic device, as it reflects several fundamental differences in (for example) the structure of their cell walls, and this in turn has implications for the action of antibiotics.

[1]Named after the Danish physician who devised the technique.

The cell wall of Gram-positive organisms is a relatively simple structure, 15–50 nm thick. It comprises about 50% peptidoglycan (see Ch. 49), 40–45% acidic polymer (which results in the cell surface being highly polar and carrying a negative charge) and 5–10% proteins and polysaccharides. The strongly polar polymer layer influences the penetration of ionised molecules and favours the penetration into the cell of positively charged compounds such as **streptomycin**.

The cell wall of Gram-negative organisms is much more complex. From the plasma membrane outwards, it consists of the following:

- A *periplasmic space* containing enzymes and other components.
- A *peptidoglycan layer* 2 nm in thickness, forming 5% of the cell wall

mass, that is often linked to outwardly projecting lipoprotein molecules.

• An *outer membrane* consisting of a lipid bilayer, similar in some respects to the plasma membrane, that contains protein molecules and (on its inner aspect) lipoproteins linked to the peptidoglycan. Other proteins form transmembrane water-filled channels, termed *porins*, through which hydrophilic antibiotics can move freely.

• *Complex polysaccharides* forming important components of the outer surface. These differ between strains of bacteria and are the main determinants of their antigenicity. They are the source of *endotoxin*, which, in vivo, triggers various aspects of the inflammatory reaction by activating complement, causing fever, *etc.* (see Ch. 17).

Difficulty in penetrating this complex outer layer is probably the reason why some antibiotics are less active against Gram-negative than Gram-positive bacteria. This is one reason for the extraordinary antibiotic resistance exhibited by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, a pathogen that can cause life-threatening infections in neutropenic patients and those with burns and wounds.

The cell wall lipopolysaccharide is also a major barrier to penetration. Antibiotics affected include **benzylpenicillin** (**penicillin G**), **meticillin**, the macrolides, **rifampicin** (**rifampin**), **fusidic acid**, **vancomycin**, **bacitracin** and **novobiocin**.

Antimicrobial Agents That Interfere With Folate Synthesis or Action

Sulfonamides

In a landmark discovery in the 1930s, Domagk demonstrated that it was possible for a drug to influence the course of a bacterial infection. The agent was **prontosil**, a dye that proved to be an inactive prodrug but

which is metabolised in vivo to give the active product, **sulfanilamide** (Fig. 50.1). Many sulfonamides have been developed since, but their importance has declined in the face of increasing resistance. The only drugs still commonly used are **sulfamethoxazole** (usually in combination with **trimethoprim** as **co-trimoxazole**), **sulfasalazine** (poorly absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract, used to treat ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease; see Chs 26 and 29) and occasionally **sufadiazine**.

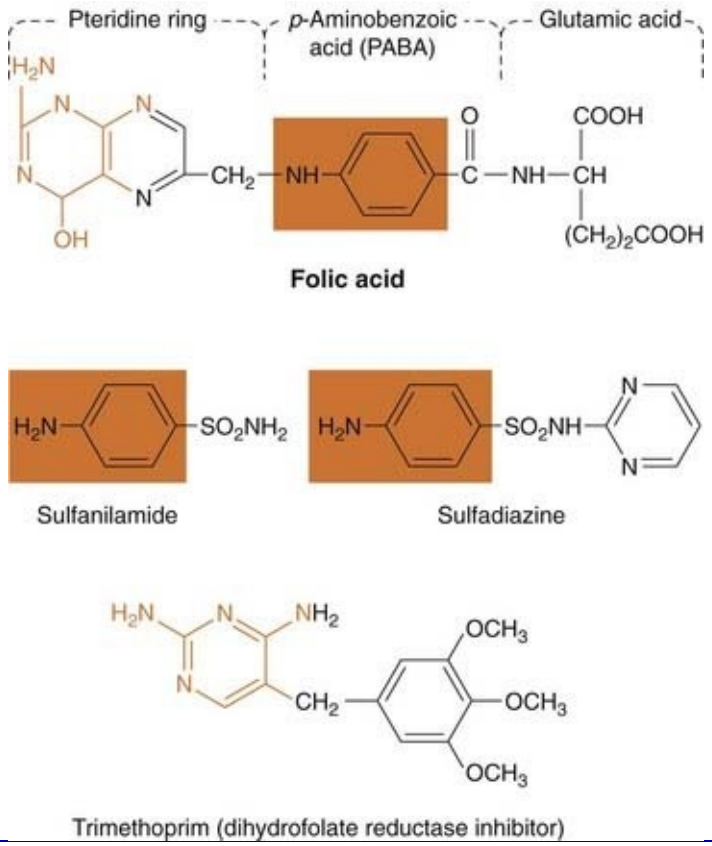


Fig. 50.1 Structures of two representative sulfonamides and trimethoprim.

The structures illustrate the relationship between the sulfonamides and the *p*-aminobenzoic acid moiety in folic acid (orange box), as well as the possible relationship between the antifolate drugs and the pteridine moiety (orange). Co-trimoxazole is a mixture of sulfamethoxazole and trimethoprim.

Mechanism of action

Sulfanilamide is a structural analogue of *p*-aminobenzoic acid (PABA; see Fig. 50.1), which is an essential precursor in the synthesis of folic acid, required for the synthesis of DNA and RNA in bacteria (see Ch. 49). Sulfonamides compete with PABA for the enzyme *dihydropteroate synthetase*, and the effect of the sulfonamide may be overcome by adding excess PABA. This is why some local anaesthetics, which are PABA esters (such as **procaine**; see Ch. 42), can antagonise the antibacterial effect of these agents.

▼ While not necessarily clinically relevant, the action of a sulfonamide is to inhibit *growth* of the bacteria, not to kill them; that is to say, it is *bacteriostatic* rather than *bactericidal*. The action is vitiated in the presence of pus or products of tissue breakdown, because these contain thymidine and purines, which bacteria utilise directly, bypassing the requirement for folic acid. Resistance to the drugs, which is common, is plasmid mediated (see Ch. 49) and results from the synthesis of a bacterial enzyme insensitive to the drug.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Most sulfonamides are given orally and, apart from sulfasalazine, are well absorbed and widely distributed in the body. There is a risk of sensitisation or allergic reactions when these drugs are given topically.

The drugs pass into inflammatory exudates and cross both placental and blood–brain barriers. They are metabolised mainly in the liver, the major product being an acetylated derivative that lacks antibacterial action.

Unwanted effects

Serious adverse effects necessitating cessation of therapy include hepatitis, hypersensitivity reactions (rashes including Stevens–Johnson

syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis, fever, anaphylactoid reactions —see Ch. 57), bone marrow depression and acute renal failure due to interstitial nephritis or crystalluria. This last effect results from the precipitation of acetylated metabolites in the urine (Ch. 28). Cyanosis caused by methaemoglobinaemia may occur but is a lot less alarming than it looks. Mild to moderate side effects include nausea and vomiting, headache and mental depression.

Clinical uses of sulfonamides

• Combined with **trimethoprim** (**co-trimoxazole**) for *Pneumocystis carinii* (now known as *P. jirovecii*).

• Combined with **pyrimethamine** for drug-resistant *malaria* (Table 53.1) and for *toxoplasmosis*.

• In *inflammatory bowel disease*: **sulfasalazine** (sulfapyridine–aminosalicylate combination) is used (see Ch. 26).

• For infected *burns* (**silver sulfadiazine** given topically).

• For some sexually transmitted infections (e.g. *trachoma*, *chlamydia*, *chancroid*).

• For *respiratory infections*: use now confined to a few special problems (e.g. infection with *Nocardia*).

• For acute *urinary tract infection* (now seldom used).

Trimethoprim

Mechanism of action

Trimethoprim is chemically related to the antimalarial drug **pyrimethamine** (Fig. 53.3), both being folate antagonists. Structurally (Fig. 50.1), it resembles the pteridine moiety of folate and the similarity

is close enough to fool the bacterial dihydrofolate reductase, which is many times more sensitive to trimethoprim than the equivalent enzyme in humans.

Trimethoprim is active against most common bacterial pathogens as well as protozoa, and it too is bacteriostatic. It is sometimes given as a mixture with sulfamethoxazole as co-trimoxazole (Fig. 50.1). Because sulfonamides inhibit the same bacterial metabolic pathway, but upstream from dihydrofolate reductase, they can potentiate the action of trimethoprim (see Fig. 50.2). In the UK, its use is generally restricted to the treatment of *Pneumocystis carinii* (now known as *P. jirovecii*) pneumonia (a fungal infection), toxoplasmosis (a protozoan infection) as well as nocardiasis (a bacterial infection).

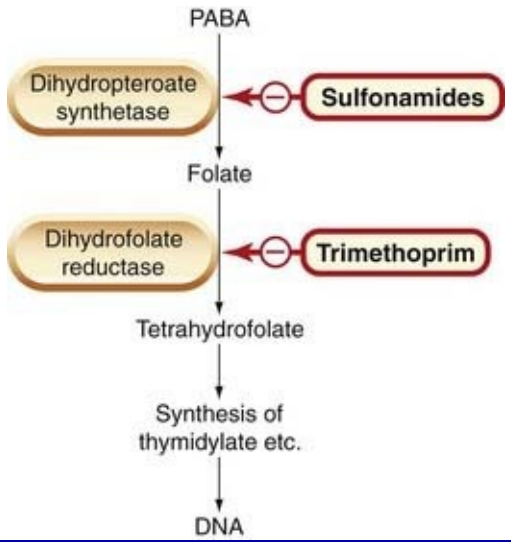


Fig. 50.2 The action of sulfonamides and trimethoprim on bacterial folate synthesis.

See Figure 25.2 for more detail of tetrahydrofolate synthesis, and Table 49.1 for comparisons of antifolate drugs. PABA, *p*-aminobenzoic acid.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Trimethoprim is well absorbed orally, and widely distributed throughout the tissues and body fluids. It reaches high concentrations in the lungs

and kidneys, and fairly high concentrations in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). When given with sulfamethoxazole, about half the dose of each is excreted within 24 h. Because trimethoprim is a weak base, its elimination by the kidney increases with decreasing urinary pH.

Unwanted effects

Folate deficiency, with resultant *megaloblastic anaemia* (see Ch. 25)—a toxic effect related to the pharmacological action of trimethoprim, can be prevented by giving folinic acid. Other unwanted effects include nausea, vomiting, blood disorders and rashes.

Antimicrobial agents that interfere with the synthesis or action of folate



• Sulfonamides are bacteriostatic; they act by interfering with folate synthesis and thus with nucleotide synthesis. Unwanted effects include crystalluria and hypersensitivities.

• **Trimethoprim** is bacteriostatic. It acts by antagonising folate.

• **Co-trimoxazole** is a mixture of trimethoprim with **sulfamethoxazole**, which affects bacterial nucleotide synthesis at two points in the pathway.

• Pyrimethamine and proguanil are antimalarial agents (see Ch. 53).

Clinical uses of trimethoprim/co-trimoxazole



• For *urinary tract* and *respiratory infections*: **trimethoprim**, used on its own, is usually preferred.

• For infection with *Pneumocystis carinii* (now known as *P. jirovecii*), which causes *pneumonia* in patients with *AIDS*: **co-trimoxazole** is used in high dose.

β-Lactam Antibiotics

Penicillins

The remarkable antibacterial effects of penicillin in humans were clearly demonstrated in 1941. A small amount of penicillin, extracted laboriously from crude cultures in the laboratories of the Dunn School of Pathology in Oxford, was given to a desperately ill policeman who had septicaemia with multiple abscesses. Although sulfonamides were available, they would have had no effect in the presence of pus. Intravenous injections of penicillin were given every 3 h. All the patient's urine was collected, and each day the bulk of the excreted penicillin was extracted and reused. After 5 days, the patient's condition was vastly improved, and there was obvious resolution of the abscesses. Furthermore, there seemed to be no toxic effects of the drug.[2] Unfortunately, when the supply of penicillin was finally exhausted his condition gradually deteriorated and he died a month later.

[2]Although this was the first evidence of the dramatic antibacterial effect of penicillin when given systemically in humans, topical penicillin had actually been used with success in five patients with eye infections 10 years previously by Paine, a graduate of St Mary's who had obtained some penicillin mould from Fleming.

While the penicillins are extremely effective antibiotics and are very widely used, they can be destroyed by bacterial *amidases* and *β-lactamases* (*penicillinases*; see Fig. 50.3). This forms the basis of one of the principal types of antibiotic resistance. Penicillins, often combined with other antibiotics, remain crucially important in antibacterial chemotherapy, and are the drugs of choice for many infections. A list of clinical uses is given in the clinical box.

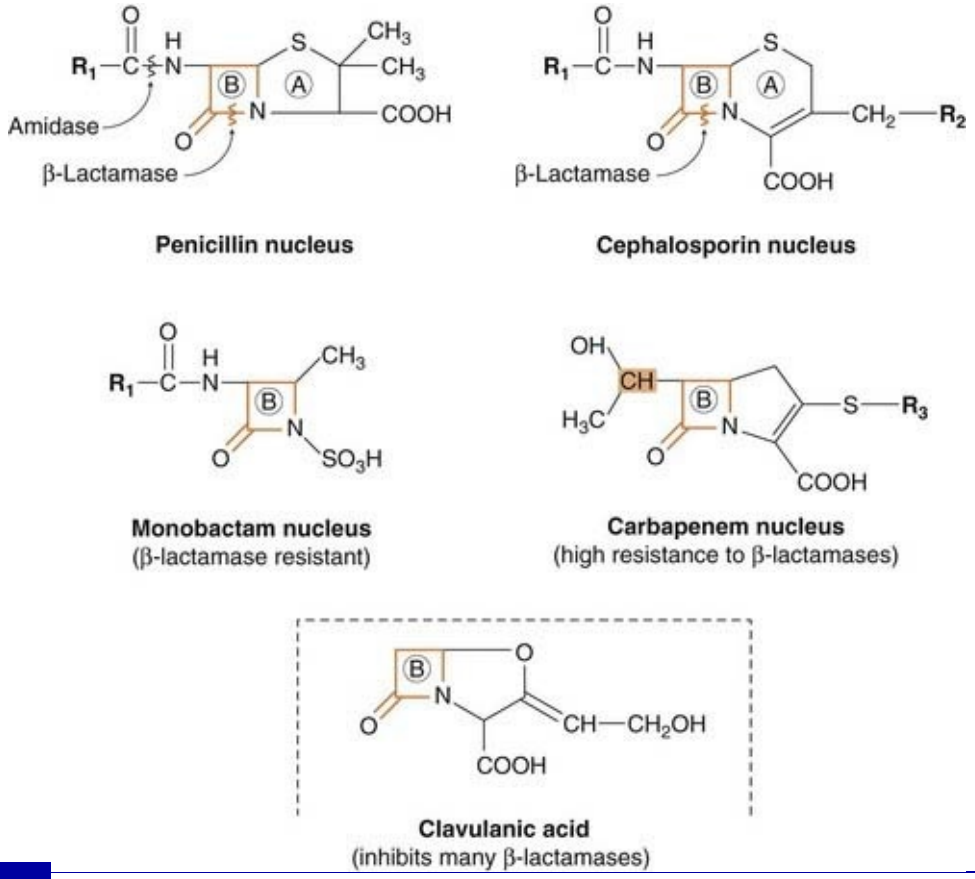


Fig. 50.3 Basic structures of four groups of β-lactam antibiotics and clavulanic acid.

The structures illustrate the β-lactam ring (marked B) and the sites of action of bacterial enzymes that inactivate these antibiotics (A, thiazolidine ring). Various substituents are added at R1, R2 and R3 to produce agents with different properties. In carbapenems, the stereochemical configuration of the part of the β-lactam ring shown shaded in orange here is different from the corresponding part of the penicillin and cephalosporin molecules; this is probably the basis of the β-lactamase resistance of the carbapenems. The β-lactam ring of clavulanic acid is thought to bind strongly to β-lactamase, meanwhile protecting other β-lactams from the enzyme.

Mechanisms of action

All β-lactam antibiotics interfere with the synthesis of the bacterial cell wall peptidoglycan (see Ch. 49, Fig. 49.3). After attachment to *penicillin-binding proteins* on bacteria (there may be seven or more types in different organisms), they inhibit the transpeptidation enzyme that crosslinks the peptide chains attached to the backbone of the

peptidoglycan.

The final bactericidal event is the inactivation of an inhibitor of autolytic enzymes in the cell wall, leading to lysis of the bacterium. Some organisms, referred to as 'tolerant', have defective autolytic enzymes and are inhibited but not lysed in the presence of the drug. Resistance to penicillin may result from a number of different causes and is discussed in detail in Chapter 49.

Types of penicillin and their antimicrobial activity

The first penicillins were the naturally occurring benzylpenicillin (**penicillin G**) and its congeners, including **phenoxymethylpenicillin** (**penicillin V**). Benzylpenicillin is active against a wide range of organisms and is the drug of first choice for many infections (see clinical box). Its main drawbacks are poor absorption in the gastrointestinal tract (which means it must be given by injection) and its susceptibility to bacterial β-lactamases.

Semisynthetic penicillins, incorporating different side-chains attached to the penicillin nucleus (at R_1 in Fig. 50.3), include *β-lactamase-resistant* penicillins (e.g. **meticillin**,[3] **flucloxacillin**, **temocillin**) and *broad-spectrum* penicillins (e.g. **ampicillin**, **amoxicillin**). *Extended-spectrum* penicillins (e.g. **ticarcillin**, **piperacillin**) with antipseudomonal activity have gone some way to overcoming the problem of serious infections caused by *P. aeruginosa*. Amoxicillin and ticarcillin are sometimes given in combination with the β-lactamase inhibitor **clavulanic acid** (e.g. **co-amoxiclav**). **Pivmecillinam** is a prodrug of **mecillinam**, which also has a wide spectrum of action.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

[3]Meticillin (previous name: methicillin) was the first β-lactamase-

resistant penicillin; it is now not used clinically because it was particularly associated with interstitial nephritis but is remembered in the acronym 'MRSA'—meticillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Oral absorption of penicillins varies, depending on their stability in acid and their adsorption to foodstuffs in the gut. Penicillins can also be given by intravenous injection. Preparations for intramuscular injection are also available, including slow-release preparations such as benzathine penicillin (cf. long-lived preparations of insulin, Ch. 30). Benzathine penicillin may be useful in treating syphilis since *Treponema pallidum* is a very slowly dividing organism. Intrathecal administration (used historically to treat meningitis) is no longer used, as it can cause convulsions.[4]

[4]Indeed, penicillins applied topically to the cortex are used to induce convulsions in an experimental setting.

The penicillins are widely distributed in body fluids, passing into joints; into pleural and pericardial cavities; into bile, saliva and milk; and across the placenta. Being lipid insoluble, they do not enter mammalian cells, and cross the blood–brain barrier only if the meninges are inflamed, when they reach therapeutically effective concentrations in the CSF.

Elimination of most penicillins occurs rapidly and is mainly renal, 90% being through tubular secretion. The relatively short plasma half-life is a potential problem in the clinical use of benzylpenicillin, although because penicillin works by preventing cell wall synthesis in dividing organisms, intermittent rather than continuous exposure to the drug can be an advantage.

Unwanted effects

Penicillins are relatively free from direct toxic effects (other than their

proconvulsant effect when given intrathecally). The main unwanted effects are hypersensitivity reactions caused by the degradation products of penicillin, which combine with host protein and become antigenic. Skin rashes and fever are common; a delayed type of serum sickness occurs infrequently. Much more serious is acute anaphylactic shock which, although rare, may be fatal. When given orally, penicillins, particularly the broad-spectrum type, alter the bacterial flora in the gut. This can be associated with gastrointestinal disturbances and in some cases with suprainfection by other, penicillin-insensitive, microorganisms leading to problems such as pseudomembranous colitis (caused by *C. difficile*, see below).

Clinical uses of the penicillins

• Penicillins are given by mouth or, in more severe infections, intravenously, and often in combination with other antibiotics.

• Uses are for sensitive organisms and may (but may not: individual sensitivity testing is often appropriate depending on local conditions—see below) include:

– *bacterial meningitis* (e.g. caused by *Neisseria meningitidis*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*): **benzylpenicillin**, high doses intravenously

– *bone* and *joint infections* (e.g. with *Staphylococcus aureus*): **flucloxacillin**

– *skin* and *soft tissue infections* (e.g. with *Strep. pyogenes* or *Staph. aureus*): **benzylpenicillin**, **flucloxacillin**; animal bites: **co-amoxiclav**

– *pharyngitis* (from *Strep. pyogenes*): **phenoxylmethylpenicillin**

– *otitis media* (organisms commonly include *Strep. pyogenes*, *Haemophilus influenzae*): **amoxicillin**

– *bronchitis* (mixed infections common): **amoxicillin**

– *pneumonia*: **amoxicillin**

– *urinary tract infections* (e.g. with *Escherichia coli*): **amoxicillin**

– *gonorrhea*: **amoxicillin** (plus **probenecid**)

– *syphilis*: **procaine benzylpenicillin**

– *endocarditis* (e.g. with *Strep. viridans* or *Enterococcus faecalis*): high-dose intravenous **benzylpenicillin** sometimes with an aminoglycoside

– serious infections with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: **ticarcillin**, **piperacillin**.

• This list is not exhaustive. Treatment with penicillins is sometimes started empirically, if the likely causative organism is one thought to be susceptible to penicillin, while awaiting the results of laboratory tests to identify the organism and determine its antibiotic susceptibility.

Cephalosporins and Cephamycins

Cephalosporins N and C, which are chemically related to penicillin, and cephalosporin P, a steroidal antibiotic that resembles **fusidic acid** (see below), were first isolated from *Cephalosporium* fungus. The cephamycins are β-lactam antibiotics produced by *Streptomyces* organisms, and they are closely related to the cephalosporins. They have the same mechanism of action as penicillins (see above).

Semisynthetic broad-spectrum cephalosporins have been produced by addition, to the cephalosporin C nucleus, of different side-chains at R_1 and/or R_2 (see Fig. 50.3). These agents are water soluble and relatively acid stable. They vary in susceptibility to β-lactamases. There are now a very large number of cephalosporins and cephamycins available for clinical use. Original members of the group such as **cefradine**, **cefalexin** and **cefadroxil** have largely been replaced with 'second-generation' drugs such as **cefuroxime** and **cefaclor**, or 'third-generation' drugs such as **cefotaxime**, **ceftazidime**, **cefixime**, **cefpodoxime** and **ceftriaxone**.

Resistance to this group of drugs has increased because of plasmid-encoded or chromosomal β-lactamase. Nearly all Gram-negative bacteria have a chromosomal gene coding for a β-lactamase that is more active in hydrolysing cephalosporins than penicillins, and in several organisms a

single mutation can result in high-level constitutive production of this enzyme. Resistance also occurs when there is decreased penetration of the drug as a result of alterations to outer membrane proteins, or mutations of the binding-site proteins.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Some cephalosporins may be given orally, but most are given parenterally, intramuscularly (which may be painful) or intravenously. After absorption, they are widely distributed in the body and some, such as cefotaxime, cefuroxime and ceftriaxone, cross the blood–brain barrier. Excretion is mostly via the kidney, largely by tubular secretion, but 40% of ceftriaxone is eliminated in the bile.

Unwanted effects

Hypersensitivity reactions, very similar to those seen with penicillin, may occur, and there may be some cross-sensitivity; about 10% of penicillin-sensitive individuals will have allergic reactions to cephalosporins. Nephrotoxicity has been reported (especially with cefradine), as has drug-induced alcohol intolerance. Diarrhoea is common and can be due to *C. difficile*.

Clinical uses of the cephalosporins

• Cephalosporins are used to treat infections caused by sensitive organisms. As with other antibiotics, patterns of sensitivity vary geographically, and treatment is often started empirically. Many different kinds of infection may be treated, including:

– *septicaemia* (e.g. **cefuroxime**, **cefotaxime**)

– *pneumonia* caused by susceptible organisms

– *meningitis* (e.g. **ceftriaxone**, **cefotaxime**)

– *biliary tract infection*

– *urinary tract infection* (especially in pregnancy or in patients unresponsive to other drugs)

– *sinusitis* (e.g. **cefadroxil**).

Other β-Lactam Antibiotics

Carbapenems and monobactams (see Fig. 50.3) were developed to deal with β-lactamase-producing Gram-negative organisms resistant to penicillins.

Carbapenems

Imipenem, an example of a carbapenem, acts in the same way as the other β-lactams (see Fig. 50.3). It has a very broad spectrum of antimicrobial activity, being active against many aerobic and anaerobic Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms. However, many of the 'meticillin-resistant' staphylococci are less susceptible, and resistant strains of *P. aeruginosa* have emerged during therapy. Imipenem was originally resistant to all β-lactamases, but some organisms now have chromosomal genes that code for imipenem-hydrolysing β-lactamases. It is sometimes given together with **cilastatin**, which inhibits its inactivation by renal enzymes. **Meropenem** is similar but is not metabolised by the kidney. **Ertapenem** has a broad spectrum of antibacterial actions but is licensed only for a limited range of indications. Most carbapenems are not orally active, and are used only in special situations.

Unwanted effects are generally similar to those seen with other β-lactams, nausea and vomiting being the most frequently seen. Neurotoxicity can occur with high plasma concentrations.

Monobactams

The main monobactam is **aztreonam** (see Fig. 50.3), which is resistant to most β-lactamases. It is given by injection and has a plasma half-life

of 2 h. Aztreonam has an unusual spectrum of activity and is effective only against Gram-negative aerobic bacilli such as pseudomonads, *Neisseria meningitidis* and *Haemophilus influenzae*. It has no action against Gram-positive organisms or anaerobes.

Unwanted effects are, in general, similar to those of other β-lactam antibiotics, but this agent does not necessarily cross-react immunologically with penicillin and its products, and so does not usually cause allergic reactions in penicillin-sensitive individuals.

β-Lactam antibiotics

• Bactericidal by interference with peptidoglycan synthesis.

Penicillins

• The first choice for many infections.

• Benzylpenicillin:

– given by injection, short half-life and is destroyed by β-lactamases

– spectrum: Gram-positive and Gram-negative cocci and some Gram-negative bacteria

– many staphylococci are now resistant.

• β-Lactamase-resistant penicillins (e.g. flucloxacillin):

– given orally

– spectrum: as for benzylpenicillin

– many staphylococci are now resistant.

• Broad-spectrum penicillins (e.g. amoxicillin):

– given orally; they are destroyed by β-lactamases

– spectrum: as for benzylpenicillin (although less potent); they are also active against Gram-negative bacteria.

• Extended-spectrum penicillins (e.g. ticarcillin):

– given orally; they are susceptible to β-lactamases

– spectrum: as for broad-spectrum penicillins; they are also active against pseudomonads.

• Unwanted effects of penicillins: mainly hypersensitivities.

• A combination of clavulanic acid plus amoxicillin or ticarcillin is effective against many β-lactamase-producing organisms.

Cephalosporins and cephamycins

• Second choice for many infections.

• Oral drugs (e.g. cefaclor) are used in urinary infections.

• Parenteral drugs (e.g. cefuroxime, which is active against *S. aureus*, *H. influenzae*, Enterobacteriaceae).

• Unwanted effects: mainly hypersensitivities.

Carbapenems

• Imipenem is a broad-spectrum antibiotic.

• Imipenem is used with cilastin, which blocks its breakdown in the kidney.

Monobactams

• Aztreonam is active only against Gram-negative aerobic bacteria and is resistant to most β-lactamases.

Glycopeptides

Vancomycin is a glycopeptide antibiotic, and **teicoplanin** is similar but longer lasting. Vancomycin acts by inhibiting cell wall synthesis (see Fig. 49.3). It is effective mainly against Gram-positive bacteria and has been used against MRSA. Vancomycin is not absorbed from the gut and is only given by the oral route for treatment of gastrointestinal infection

with *C. difficile*. For parenteral use, it is given intravenously and has a plasma half-life of about 8 h.

The clinical use of vancomycin is limited mainly to *pseudomembranous colitis* (a clostridial infection sometimes associated with antibiotic therapy) and the treatment of some multiresistant staphylococcal infections. It is also valuable in severe staphylococcal infections in patients allergic to both penicillins and cephalosporins, and in some forms of endocarditis.

Unwanted effects include fever, rashes and local phlebitis at the site of injection. Ototoxicity and nephrotoxicity can occur, and hypersensitivity reactions are occasionally seen.

Daptomycin is a new lipopeptide antibacterial with a similar spectrum of actions to vancomycin. It is usually used, in combination with other drugs, for the treatment of MRSA.

Antimicrobial Agents Affecting Bacterial Protein Synthesis

Tetracyclines

Tetracyclines are broad-spectrum antibiotics. The group includes **tetracycline**, **oxytetracycline**, **demeclocycline**, **lymecycline**, **doxycycline** and **minocycline**. **Tigelcycline** is structurally related to the tetracycline family and has similar therapeutic and unwanted effects.

Mechanism of action

Following uptake into susceptible organisms by active transport, tetracyclines act by inhibiting protein synthesis (see Ch. 49, Fig. 49.4). The tetracyclines are regarded as bacteriostatic, not bactericidal.

Antibacterial spectrum

The spectrum of antimicrobial activity of the tetracyclines is very wide

and includes Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, *Mycoplasma*, *Rickettsia*, *Chlamydia* spp., spirochaetes and some protozoa (e.g. amoebae). Minocycline is also effective against *N. meningitidis* and has been used to eradicate this organism from the nasopharynx of carriers. However, widespread resistance to these agents has decreased their usefulness. Resistance is transmitted mainly by plasmids and, because the genes controlling resistance to tetracyclines are closely associated with genes for resistance to other antibiotics, organisms may develop resistance to many drugs simultaneously. The clinical use of the tetracyclines is given in the clinical box.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

The tetracyclines are generally given orally but can also be administered parenterally. Minocycline and doxycycline are virtually completely absorbed. The absorption of most other tetracyclines is irregular and incomplete but is improved in the absence of food. Because tetracyclines chelate metal ions (calcium, magnesium, iron, aluminium), forming non-absorbable complexes, absorption is decreased in the presence of milk, certain antacids and iron preparations.

Unwanted effects

The commonest unwanted effects are gastrointestinal disturbances caused initially by direct irritation and later by modification of the gut flora. Vitamin B complex deficiency can occur, as can suprainfection. Because they chelate Ca^{2+}, tetracyclines are deposited in growing bones and teeth, causing staining and sometimes dental hypoplasia and bone deformities. They should therefore not be given to children, pregnant women or nursing mothers. Another hazard to pregnant women is hepatotoxicity. Phototoxicity (sensitisation to sunlight) has also been seen, particularly with demeclocycline. Minocycline can produce

vestibular disturbances (dizziness and nausea). High doses of tetracyclines can decrease protein synthesis in host cells, an antianabolic effect that may result in renal damage. Long-term therapy can cause disturbances of the bone marrow.

Clinical uses of tetracyclines

• The use of tetracyclines declined because of widespread drug resistance, but has staged something of a comeback, *e.g.* for respiratory infections, as resistance has receded with reduced use. Most members of the group are microbiologically similar; **doxycycline** is given once daily and may be used in patients with renal impairment. Uses (sometimes in combination with other antibiotics) include:

– *rickettsial* and *chlamydial infections*, *brucellosis*, *anthrax* and *Lyme disease*

– as useful second choice, for example in patients with *allergies*, for several infections (see Table 50.1), including *mycoplasma* and *leptospira*

– respiratory tract infections (e.g. exacerbations of *chronic bronchitis*, *community-aquired pneumonia*)

– *acne*

– inappropriate secretion of antidiuretic hormone (e.g. by some *malignant lung tumours*), causing hyponatraemia: **demeclocycline** inhibits the action of this hormone by an entirely distinct action from its antibacterial effect (Ch. 32).

Amphenicols

The principal agent is **chloramphenicol** which was originally isolated from cultures of *Streptomyces*. It inhibits bacterial protein synthesis by binding to the 50S ribosomal subunit (see Ch. 49, Fig. 49.4). The clinical uses of chloramphenicol are given in the box.

Antibacterial spectrum

Chloramphenicol has a wide spectrum of antimicrobial activity,

including Gram-negative and Gram-positive organisms and rickettsiae. It is bacteriostatic for most organisms but kills *H. influenzae*. Resistance, caused by the production of *chloramphenicol acetyltransferase*, is plasmid mediated.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Given orally, chloramphenicol is rapidly and completely absorbed and reaches its maximum concentration in the plasma within 2 h; it can also be given parenterally. The drug is widely distributed throughout the tissues and body fluids including the CSF. Its half-life is approximately 2 h. About 10% is excreted unchanged in the urine, and the remainder is inactivated in the liver.

Unwanted effects

The most important unwanted effect of chloramphenicol is severe, idiosyncratic depression of the bone marrow, resulting in *pancytopenia* (a decrease in all blood cell elements)—an effect that, although rare, can occur even with low doses in some individuals. Chloramphenicol must be used with great care in newborns, with monitoring of plasma concentrations, because inadequate inactivation and excretion of the drug (see Ch. 56) can result in the 'grey baby syndrome'—vomiting, diarrhoea, flaccidity, low temperature and an ashen-grey colour—which carries 40% mortality. Hypersensitivity reactions can occur, as can gastrointestinal disturbances secondary to alteration of the intestinal microbial flora.

Clinical uses of chloramphenicol

• Chloramphenicol should be reserved for serious infections in which the benefit of the drug outweighs its uncommon but serious haematological toxicity. Such uses may include:

– infections caused by *Haemophilus influenzae* resistant to other drugs

– *meningitis* in patients in whom penicillin cannot be used.

• It is also safe and effective in bacterial *conjunctivitis* (given topically).

• It is effective in *typhoid fever*, but **ciprofloxacin** or **amoxicillin** and **co-trimoxazole** are similarly effective and less toxic.

Aminoglycosides

The aminoglycosides are a group of antibiotics of complex chemical structure, resembling each other in antimicrobial activity, pharmacokinetic characteristics and toxicity. The main agents are **gentamicin**, **streptomycin**, **amikacin**, **tobramycin** and **neomycin**.

Mechanism of action

Aminoglycosides inhibit bacterial protein synthesis by blocking initiation (see Ch. 49). Their penetration through the cell membrane of the bacterium depends partly on oxygen-dependent active transport by a polyamine carrier system, and they have minimal action against anaerobic organisms. Chloramphenicol blocks this transport system. The effect of the aminoglycosides is bactericidal and is enhanced by agents that interfere with cell wall synthesis.

Resistance

Resistance to aminoglycosides is becoming a problem. It occurs through several different mechanisms, the most important being inactivation by microbial enzymes, of which nine or more are known. Amikacin was purposefully designed as a poor substrate for these enzymes, but some organisms have acquired enzymes that inactivate this agent as well. Resistance as a result of failure of penetration can be largely overcome by the concomitant use of penicillin and/or vancomycin.

Antibacterial spectrum

The aminoglycosides are effective against many aerobic Gram-negative and some Gram-positive organisms. They are most widely used against Gram-negative enteric organisms and in sepsis. They may be given together with a penicillin in streptococcocal infections and those caused by *Listeria* spp. and *P. aeruginosa* (see Table 50.1). Gentamicin is the aminoglycoside most commonly used, although tobramycin is the preferred member of this group for *P. aeruginosa* infections. Amikacin has the widest antimicrobial spectrum and can be effective in infections with organisms resistant to gentamicin and tobramycin.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

The aminoglycosides are polycations and therefore highly polar. They are not absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and are usually given intramuscularly or intravenously. They cross the placenta but do not cross the blood–brain barrier, although high concentrations can be attained in joint and pleural fluids. The plasma half-life is 2–3 h. Elimination is virtually entirely by glomerular filtration in the kidney, 50–60% of a dose being excreted unchanged within 24 h. If renal function is impaired, accumulation occurs rapidly, with a resultant increase in those toxic effects (such as ototoxicity and nephrotoxicity; see below) that are dose related.

Unwanted effects

Serious, dose-related toxic effects, which may increase as treatment proceeds, can occur with the aminoglycosides, the main hazards being ototoxicity and nephrotoxicity.

The ototoxicity involves progressive damage to, and eventually destruction of, the sensory cells in the cochlea and vestibular organ of

the ear. The result, usually irreversible, may manifest as vertigo, ataxia and loss of balance in the case of vestibular damage, and auditory disturbances or deafness in the case of cochlear damage. Any aminoglycoside may produce both types of effect, but streptomycin and gentamicin are more likely to interfere with vestibular function, whereas neomycin and amikacin mostly affect hearing. Ototoxicity is potentiated by the concomitant use of other ototoxic drugs (e.g. loop diuretics; Ch. 28) and susceptibility is genetically determined via mitochondrial DNA (see Ch. 11).

The nephrotoxicity consists of damage to the kidney tubules, and function recovers if the use of the drugs is stopped. Nephrotoxicity is more likely to occur in patients with pre-existing renal disease or in conditions in which urine volume is reduced, and concomitant use of other nephrotoxic agents (e.g. first-generation cephalosporins) increases the risk. As the elimination of these drugs is almost entirely renal, their nephrotoxic action can impair their own excretion, and a vicious cycle may develop. Plasma concentrations should be monitored regularly and the dose adjusted accordingly.

A rare but serious toxic reaction is paralysis caused by neuromuscular blockade. This is usually seen only if the agents are given concurrently with neuromuscular-blocking agents. It results from inhibition of the Ca^{2+} uptake necessary for the exocytotic release of acetylcholine (see Ch. 13).

Macrolides

The term *macrolide* relates to the structure—a many-membered lactone ring to which one or more deoxy sugars are attached. The main macrolide and related antibiotics are **erythromycin**, **clarithromycin** and **azithromycin**. **Spiramycin** and **telithromycin** are of minor utility.

Mechanism of action

The macrolides inhibit bacterial protein synthesis by an effect on translocation (Fig. 49.4). The drugs bind to the same 50S subunit of the bacterial ribosome as chloramphenicol and clindamycin, and any of these drugs may compete if given concurrently.

Antimicrobial spectrum

The antimicrobial spectrum of erythromycin is very similar to that of penicillin, and it is a safe and effective alternative for penicillin-sensitive patients. Erythromycin is effective against Gram-positive bacteria and spirochaetes but not against most Gram-negative organisms, exceptions being *N. gonorrhoeae* and, to a lesser extent, *H. influenzae*. *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, *Legionella* spp. and some chlamydial organisms are also susceptible (see Table 50.1). Resistance can occur and results from a plasmid-controlled alteration of the binding site for erythromycin on the bacterial ribosome (Fig. 49.4).

Azithromycin is less active against Gram-positive bacteria than erythromycin but is considerably more effective against *H. influenzae* and may be more active against *Legionella*. It has excellent action against *Toxoplasma gondii*, killing the cysts. Clarithromycin is as active, and its metabolite is twice as active, against *H. influenzae* as erythromycin. It is also effective against *Mycobacterium avium-intracellulare* (which can infect immunologically compromised individuals and elderly patients with chronic lung disease), and it may also be useful in leprosy and against *Helicobacter pylori* (see Ch. 29). Both these macrolides are also effective in Lyme disease.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

The macrolides are administered orally. Erythromycin can also be given

parenterally, although intravenous injections can be followed by local thrombophlebitis. All three diffuse readily into most tissues but do not cross the blood–brain barrier, and there is poor penetration into synovial fluid. The plasma half-life of erythromycin is about 90 min; that of clarithromycin is three times longer, and that of azithromycin 8–16 times longer. Macrolides enter and indeed are concentrated within phagocytes—azithromycin concentrations in phagocyte lysosomes can be 40 times higher than in the blood—and they can enhance intracellular phagocyte killing of bacteria.

Erythromycin is partly inactivated in the liver; azithromycin is more resistant to inactivation, and clarithromycin is converted to an active metabolite. Their inhibition of the P450 cytochrome system can affect the bioavailability of other drugs leading to clinically important interactions, for example with **theophylline** (see Ch. 56). The major route of elimination is in the bile.

Unwanted effects

Gastrointestinal disturbances are common and unpleasant but not serious. With erythromycin, the following have also been reported: hypersensitivity reactions such as rashes and fever, transient hearing disturbances and, rarely, following treatment for longer than 2 weeks, cholestatic jaundice. Opportunistic infections of the gastrointestinal tract or vagina can occur.

Antimicrobial agents affecting bacterial protein synthesis

• *Tetracyclines* (e.g. minocycline). These are orally active, bacteriostatic, broad-spectrum antibiotics. Resistance is increasing. Gastrointestinal disorders are common. They chelate calcium and are deposited in growing bone. They are contraindicated in children and pregnant women.

• *Chloramphenicol*. This is an orally active, bacteriostatic, broad-spectrum antibiotic. Serious toxic effects are possible, including bone marrow depression and 'grey baby syndrome'. It should be reserved for life-threatening infections.

• *Aminoglycosides* (e.g. gentamicin). These are given by injection. They are bactericidal, broad-spectrum antibiotics (but with low activity against anaerobes, streptococci and pneumococci). Resistance is increasing. The main unwanted effects are dose-related nephrotoxicity and ototoxicity. Serum levels should be monitored. (Streptomycin is an antituberculosis aminoglycoside.)

• *Macrolides* (e.g. erythromycin). Can be given orally and parenterally. They are bactericidal/bacteriostatic. The antibacterial spectrum is the same as for penicillin. Erythromycin can cause jaundice. Newer agents are clarithromycin and azithromycin.

• *Clindamycin*. Can be given orally and parenterally. It can cause pseudomembranous colitis.

• *Quinupristin/dalfopristin*. Given by intravenous infusion as a combination. Considerably less active when administered separately. Active against several strains of drug-resistant bacteria.

• *Fusidic acid*. This is a narrow-spectrum antibiotic that acts by inhibiting protein synthesis. It penetrates bone. Unwanted effects include gastrointestinal disorders.

• *Linezolid*. Given orally or by intravenous injection. Active against several strains of drug-resistant bacteria.

Antimicrobial Agents Affecting Topoisomerase

Quinolones

The **quinolones** include the broad-spectrum agents **ciprofloxacin**, **levofloxacin**, **ofloxacin**, **norfloxacin** and **moxifloxacin** as well as a narrow-spectrum drug used in urinary tract infections—**nalidixic acid**. These agents inhibit topoisomerase II (a bacterial DNA gyrase), the enzyme that produces a negative supercoil in DNA and thus permits

transcription or replication (see Fig. 50.4).

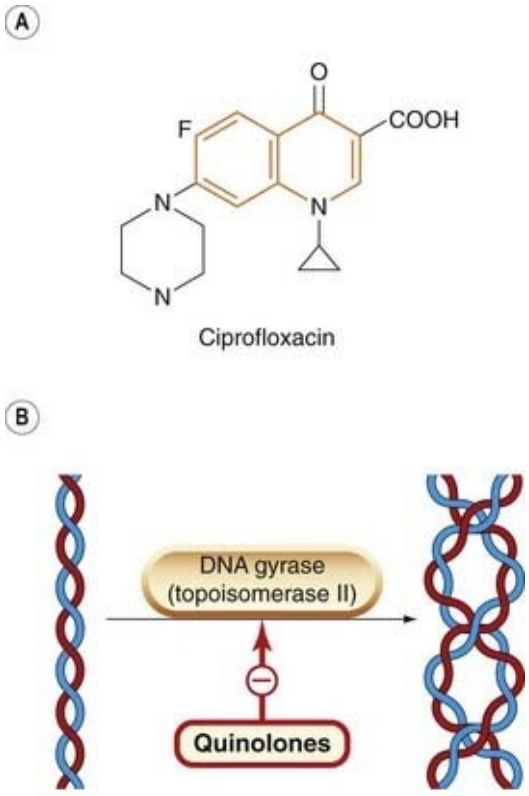


Fig. 50.4 A simplified diagram of the mechanism of action of the fluoroquinolones.
[**A**] An example of a quinolone (the quinolone moiety is shown in orange). [**B**] Schematic diagram of (left) the double helix and (right) the double helix in supercoiled form (see also Fig. 49.6). In essence, the DNA gyrase unwinds the RNA-induced positive supercoil (not shown) and introduces a negative supercoil.

Antibacterial spectrum and clinical use

The fluoroquinolone ciprofloxacin is the most commonly used and typical of the group. It is a broad-spectrum antibiotic effective against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms, and also against the Enterobacteriaceae (the enteric Gram-negative bacilli), including many organisms resistant to penicillins, cephalosporins and aminoglycosides, and against *H. influenzae*, penicillinase-producing *N. gonorrhoeae*, *Campylobacter* spp. and pseudomonads. Of the Gram-positive organisms, streptococci and pneumococci are only weakly inhibited, and there is a

high incidence of staphylococcal resistance. Ciprofloxacin should be avoided in MRSA infections. Clinically, the fluoroquinolones are best reserved for infections with facultative and aerobic Gram-negative bacilli and cocci.[5] Resistant strains of *S. aureus* and *P. aeruginosa* have emerged. Further details of the clinical use of the fluoroquinolones are given in the box.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

[5]When ciprofloxacin was introduced, clinical pharmacologists and microbiologists sensibly suggested that it should be reserved for organisms already resistant to other drugs so as to prevent emergence of resistance. However, by 1989 it was already estimated that it was prescribed for 1 in 44 of Americans, so it would seem that the horse had not only left the stable but had bolted into the blue!

Fluoroquinolones are well absorbed orally. The drugs accumulate in several tissues, particularly in the kidney, prostate and lung. All quinolones are concentrated in phagocytes. Most fail to cross the blood–brain barrier, but ofloxacin does so. Aluminium and magnesium antacids interfere with the absorption of the quinolones. Elimination of ciprofloxacin and norfloxacin is partly by hepatic metabolism by P450 enzymes (which they can inhibit, giving rise to interactions with other drugs; see below) and partly by renal excretion. Ofloxacin is excreted in the urine.

Unwanted effects

In hospitals, infection with *C. difficile* may prove hazardous (see below) but otherwise unwanted effects are infrequent, usually mild and reversible. The most frequent manifestations are gastrointestinal disorders and skin rashes. Arthropathy has been reported in young individuals. Central nervous system symptoms—headache and dizziness

—have occurred, as have, less frequently, convulsions associated with central nervous system pathology or concurrent use of **theophylline** or a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug.

There is a clinically important interaction between ciprofloxacin and theophylline (through inhibition of P450 enzymes), which can lead to theophylline toxicity in asthmatics treated with the fluoroquinolones. The topic is discussed further in Chapter 27.

Antimicrobial agents affecting DNA topoisomerase II



• The quinolones interfere with the supercoiling of DNA.

• **Ciprofloxacin** has a wide antibacterial spectrum, being especially active against Gram-negative enteric coliform organisms, including many organisms resistant to penicillins, cephalosporins and aminoglycosides; it is also effective against *H. influenzae*, penicillinase-producing *N. gonorrhoeae*, *Campylobacter* spp. and pseudomonads. There is a high incidence of staphylococcal resistance.

• Unwanted effects include gastrointestinal tract upsets, hypersensitivity reactions and, rarely, central nervous system disturbances.

Clinical uses of the fluoroquinolones



• Complicated *urinary tract infections* (**norfloxacin**, **ofloxacin**).

• *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* respiratory infections in patients with cystic fibrosis.

• Invasive external otitis (‘malignant otitis’) caused by *P. aeruginosa*.

• Chronic Gram-negative bacillary osteomyelitis.

• Eradication of *Salmonella typhi* in carriers.

• *Gonorrhoea* (**norfloxacin**, **ofloxacin**).

• Bacterial *prostatitis* (**norfloxacin**).

• *Cervicitis* (**ofloxacin**).

• *Anthrax*.

Miscellaneous and Less Common Antibacterial Agents

Metronidazole

▼ **Metronidazole** was introduced as an antiprotozoal agent (see Ch. 53), but it is also active against anaerobic bacteria such as *Bacteroides*, *Clostridia* spp. and some streptococci. It is effective in the therapy of pseudomembranous colitis (see below), and is important in the treatment of serious anaerobic infections (e.g. sepsis secondary to bowel disease). It has a disulfiram-like action (see Ch. 48), so patients must avoid alcohol while taking metronidazole.

Streptogramins

▼ **Quinupristin** and **dalfopristin** are cyclic peptides, which inhibit bacterial protein synthesis by binding to the 50S subunit of the bacterial ribosome. Dalfopristin changes the structure of the ribosome so as to promote the binding of quinupristin. Individually, they exhibit only very modest bacteriostatic activity, but combined together as an intravenous injection they are active against many Gram-positive bacteria.

The combination is used to treat serious infections, usually where no other antibacterial is suitable. For example, the combination is effective against MRSA and is also active against vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium*.

Both drugs undergo extensive first-pass hepatic metabolism and must therefore be given as an intravenous infusion. The half-life of each compound is 1–2 h.

Unwanted effects include inflammation and pain at the infusion site, arthralgia, myalgia and nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea. To date, resistance to quinupristin and dalfopristine does not seem to be a major problem.

Clindamycin

▼ The lincosamide, **clindamycin**, is active against Gram-positive cocci, including many penicillin-resistant staphylococci and many anaerobic bacteria such as *Bacteroides* spp. It acts in the same way as macrolides and chloramphenicol (Fig. 49.4). In addition to its use in infections caused by *Bacteroides* organisms, it is used to treat staphylococcal infections of bones and joints. It is also given topically, as eye drops, for staphylococcal conjunctivitis.

Unwanted effects consist mainly of gastrointestinal disturbances, and a potentially lethal condition, *pseudomembranous colitis*, may develop. This is an acute inflammation of the colon caused by a necrotising toxin produced by a clindamycin-resistant organism, *Clostridium difficile*, which may form part of the normal faecal flora.[6] Metronidazole (see above) is usually effective in the treatment of this condition; vancomycin, given orally, is an alternative.

Oxazolidinones

[6]This may also occur with some penicillins and cephalosporins.

▼ Hailed as the 'first truly new class of antibacterial agents to reach the marketplace in several decades' (Zurenko et al., 2001), the oxazolidinones inhibit bacterial protein synthesis by a novel mechanism: inhibition of *N*-formylmethionyl-tRNA binding to the 70S ribosome. **Linezolid** is the first member of this new antibiotic family to be introduced. It is active against a wide variety of Gram-positive bacteria

and is particularly useful for the treatment of drug-resistant bacteria such as MRSA, penicillin-resistant *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and vancomycin-resistant enterococci. The drug is also effective against some anaerobes, such as *Clostridium difficile*. Most common Gram-negative organisms are not susceptible to the drug. Linezolid can be used to treat pneumonia, septicaemia, and skin and soft tissue infections. Its use is restricted to serious bacterial infections where other antibiotics have failed, and there have so far been few reports of linezolid resistance.

Unwanted effects include thrombocytopenia, diarrhoea, nausea and, rarely, rash and dizziness. Linezolid is a non-selective inhibitor of monoamine oxidase, and appropriate precautions need to be observed (see Ch. 46).

Fusidic Acid

▼ Fusidic acid is a narrow-spectrum steroid antibiotic active mainly against Gram-positive bacteria. It acts by inhibiting bacterial protein synthesis (Fig. 49.4). As the sodium salt, the drug is well absorbed from the gut and is distributed widely in the tissues. Some is excreted in the bile and some metabolised. It is used in combination with other antistaphylococcal agents in staphylococcal sepsis, and topically for staphylococcal infections (e.g. as eye drops).

Unwanted effects such as gastrointestinal disturbances are fairly common. Skin eruptions and jaundice can occur. Resistance occurs if it is used systemically as a single agent.

Nitrofurantoin

▼ **Nitrofurantoin** is a synthetic compound active against a range of Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms. The development of resistance in susceptible organisms is rare, and there is no cross-

resistance. Its mechanism of action is not known. It is given orally and is rapidly and totally absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and just as rapidly excreted by the kidney. Its use is confined to the treatment of urinary tract infections.

Unwanted effects such as gastrointestinal disturbances are relatively common, and hypersensitivity reactions involving the skin and the bone marrow (e.g. leukopenia) can occur. Hepatotoxicity and peripheral neuropathy have also been reported.

Methanamine has a similar clinical utility to nitrofurantoin and shares several of its unwanted effects. It exerts its effects by conversion (in acidic urine) to formaldehyde.

Polymixins

▼ The polymixin antibiotics in use are **polymixin B** and **colistin** (polymixin E). They have cationic detergent properties and exert their antibacterial action by disrupting the outer cell membrane (Ch. 49). They have a selective, rapidly bactericidal action on Gram-negative bacilli, especially pseudomonads and coliform organisms. They are not absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. Clinical use of these drugs is limited by their toxicity and is confined largely to gut sterilisation and topical treatment of ear, eye or skin infections caused by susceptible organisms.

Unwanted effects may be serious and include neurotoxicity and nephrotoxicity.

Miscellaneous antibacterial agents

• *Glycopeptide antibiotics* (e.g. **vancomycin**). Vancomycin is bactericidal, acting by inhibiting cell wall synthesis. It is used intravenously for multiresistant staphylococcal infections and

orally for pseudomembranous colitis. Unwanted effects include ototoxicity and nephrotoxicity.

• *Polymixins* (e.g. **colistin**). They are bactericidal, acting by disrupting bacterial cell membranes. They are highly neurotoxic and nephrotoxic, and are only used topically.

Antimycobacterial Agents

The main mycobacterial infections in humans are tuberculosis and leprosy, chronic infections caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *M. leprae*, respectively. A particular problem with both these organisms is that they can survive inside macrophages after phagocytosis, unless these cells are 'activated' by cytokines produced by T-helper (Th)1 lymphocytes (see Ch. 17).

Drugs Used To Treat Tuberculosis

For centuries, tuberculosis was a major killer disease, but the introduction of **streptomycin** in the late 1940s followed by **isoniazid** and, in the 1960s, of **rifampicin** and **ethambutol** revolutionised therapy, and tuberculosis came to be regarded as an easily treatable condition. Regrettably, this is so no longer; strains with increased virulence or exhibiting multidrug resistance are now common (Bloom & Small, 1998). Tuberculosis is again a major threat; the World Health Organization estimates that one-third of the world's population (2 billion people) are currently infected with the bacillus, 10% of whom will develop the disease at some point in their lifetime. Infection rates are falling very slowly, but in 2008 there were over 9 million new cases and the disease killed about 1.8 million people. Poverty-stricken countries in Africa and Asia bear the brunt of the disease, partly because of an ominous synergy between mycobacteria (e.g. *M. tuberculosis*, *M. avium-intercellulare*) and HIV. About one-third of HIV-associated deaths are

caused by tuberculosis. The disease is out of control in many countries, and it is now the world's leading cause of death from a single agent.

Our counterattack is led by the first-line drugs **isoniazid**, **rifampicin**, **rifabutin**, **ethambutol** and **pyrazinamide**. Some second-line drugs available are **capreomycin**, **cycloserine**, **streptomycin** (rarely used now in the UK), **clarithromycin** and **ciprofloxacin**. These are used to treat infections likely to be resistant to first-line drugs, or when the first-line agents have to be abandoned because of unwanted reactions.

To decrease the probability of the emergence of resistant organisms, compound drug therapy is a frequent strategy. This commonly involves:

- an initial phase of treatment (about 2 months) with a combination of isoniazid, rifampicin and pyrazinamide (plus ethambutol if the organism is suspected to be resistant)

- a second, continuation phase (about 4 months) of therapy, with isoniazid and rifampicin; longer-term treatment is needed for patients with meningitis, bone/joint involvement or drug-resistant infection.

Isoniazid

The antibacterial activity of isoniazid is limited to mycobacteria. It halts the growth of resting organisms (i.e. is bacteriostatic) but can kill dividing bacteria. It passes freely into mammalian cells and is thus effective against intracellular organisms. Isoniazid is a prodrug that must be activated by bacterial enzymes before it can exert its inhibitory activity on the synthesis of *mycolic acids*, important constituents of the cell wall peculiar to mycobacteria. Resistance to the drug, caused by reduced penetration into the bacterium, may be encountered, but cross-resistance with other tuberculostatic drugs does not occur.

Isoniazid is readily absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract and is

widely distributed throughout the tissues and body fluids, including the CSF. An important point is that it penetrates well into 'caseous' tuberculous lesions (i.e. necrotic lesions with a cheese-like consistency). Metabolism, which involves acetylation, depends on genetic factors that determine whether a person is a slow or rapid acetylator of the drug (see Chs 11 and 56), with slow inactivators enjoying a better therapeutic response. The half-life in slow inactivators is 3 h and in rapid inactivators, 1 h. Isoniazid is excreted in the urine partly as unchanged drug and partly in the acetylated or otherwise inactivated form.

Unwanted effects depend on the dosage and occur in about 5% of individuals, the commonest being allergic skin eruptions. A variety of other adverse reactions have been reported, including fever, hepatotoxicity, haematological changes, arthritic symptoms and vasculitis. Adverse effects involving the central or peripheral nervous systems are largely consequences of pyridoxine deficiency and are common in malnourished patients unless prevented by administration of this substance. Isoniazid may cause haemolytic anaemia in individuals with glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency, and it decreases the metabolism of the antiepileptic agents **phenytoin**, **ethosuximide** and **carbamazepine**, resulting in an increase in the plasma concentration and toxicity of these drugs (Ch. 57).

Rifampicin

Rifampicin acts by binding to, and inhibiting, DNA-dependent RNA polymerase in prokaryotic but not in eukaryotic cells (Ch. 49). It is one of the most active antituberculosis agents known, and is also effective against leprosy (see below) and most Gram-positive bacteria as well as many Gram-negative species. It enters phagocytic cells and can therefore kill intracellular microorganisms including the tubercle bacillus.

Resistance can develop rapidly in a one-step process and is thought to be caused by chemical modification of microbial DNA-dependent RNA polymerase, resulting from a chromosomal mutation (see Ch. 49).

Rifampicin is given orally and is widely distributed in the tissues and body fluids (including CSF), giving an orange tinge to saliva, sputum, tears and sweat. It is excreted partly in the urine and partly in the bile, some of it undergoing enterohepatic cycling. The metabolite retains antibacterial activity but is less well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. The half-life is 1–5 h, becoming shorter during treatment because of induction of hepatic microsomal enzymes.

Unwanted effects are relatively infrequent. The commonest are skin eruptions, fever and gastrointestinal disturbances. Liver damage with jaundice has been reported and has proved fatal in a very small proportion of patients, and liver function should be assessed before treatment is started. Rifampicin causes induction of hepatic metabolising enzymes (Ch. 10), resulting in an increase in the degradation of **warfarin**, **glucocorticoids**, narcotic analgesics, oral antidiabetic drugs, **dapsone** and **oestrogens**, the last effect leading to failure of oral contraceptives.

Ethambutol

Ethambutol has no effect on organisms other than mycobacteria. It is taken up by the bacteria and exerts a bacteriostatic effect after a period of 24 h, although the mechanism by which this occurs is unknown. Resistance emerges rapidly if the drug is used alone. Ethambutol is given orally and is well absorbed. It can reach therapeutic concentrations in the CSF in tuberculous meningitis. In the blood, it is taken up by erythrocytes and slowly released. Ethambutol is partly metabolised and is excreted in the urine.

Unwanted effects are uncommon, the most important being optic neuritis, which is dose related and is more likely to occur if renal function is decreased. It results in visual disturbances manifesting initially as red–green colour blindness progressing to a decreased visual acuity. Colour vision should be monitored during prolonged treatment.

Pyrazinamide

Pyrazinamide is inactive at neutral pH but tuberculostatic at acid pH. It is effective against the intracellular organisms in macrophages because, after phagocytosis, the organisms are contained in phagolysosomes where the pH is low. Resistance develops rather readily, but cross-resistance with isoniazid does not occur. The drug is well absorbed after oral administration and is widely distributed, penetrating well into the meninges. It is excreted through the kidney, mainly by glomerular filtration.

Unwanted effects include gout, which is associated with high concentrations of plasma urates. Gastrointestinal upsets, malaise and fever have also been reported. Serious hepatic damage due to high doses was once a problem but is less likely with lower dose/shorter course regimens now used; nevertheless, liver function should be assessed before treatment.

Capreomycin

▼ Capreomycin is a peptide antibiotic given by intramuscular injection. *Unwanted effects* include kidney damage and injury to the auditory nerve, with consequent deafness and ataxia. The drug should not be given at the same time as streptomycin or other drugs that may cause deafness.

Cycloserine

▼ Cycloserine is a broad-spectrum antibiotic that inhibits the growth of many bacteria, including coliforms and mycobacteria. It is water soluble and destroyed at acid pH. It acts by competitively inhibiting bacterial cell wall synthesis. It does this by preventing the formation of D-alanine and the D-Ala-D-Ala dipeptide that is added to the initial tripeptide side-chain on *N*-acetylmuramic acid, *i.e.* it prevents completion of the major building block of peptidoglycan (see Fig. 49.3). It is absorbed orally and distributed throughout the tissues and body fluids, including CSF. Most of the drug is eliminated in active form in the urine, but approximately 35% is metabolised.

Cycloserine has unwanted effects mainly on the central nervous system. A wide variety of disturbances may occur, ranging from headache and irritability to depression, convulsions and psychotic states. Its use is limited to tuberculosis that is resistant to other drugs.

Antituberculosis drugs

• To avoid the emergence of resistant organisms, compound therapy is used (e.g. three drugs initially, followed by a two-drug regimen later).

First-line drugs

• **Isoniazid** kills actively growing mycobacteria within host cells; mechanism of action unknown. Given orally, it penetrates necrotic lesions, also the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). 'Slow acetylators' (genetically determined) respond well. It has low toxicity. Pyridoxine deficiency increases risk of neurotoxicity. No cross-resistance with other agents.

• **Rifampicin** (rifampin) is a potent, orally active drug that inhibits mycobacterial RNA polymerase. It penetrates CSF. Unwanted effects are infrequent (but serious liver damage has occurred). It induces hepatic drug-metabolising enzymes. Resistance can develop rapidly.

• **Ethambutol** inhibits growth of mycobacteria by an unknown mechanism. It is given orally

and can penetrate CSF. Unwanted effects are uncommon, but optic neuritis can occur. Resistance can emerge rapidly.

• **Pyrazinamide** is tuberculostatic against intracellular mycobacteria by an unknown mechanism. Given orally, it penetrates CSF. Resistance can develop rapidly. Unwanted effects include increased plasma urate and liver toxicity with high doses.

Second-line drugs

• **Capreomycin** is given intramuscularly. Unwanted effects include damage to the kidney and to the eighth nerve.

• **Cycloserine** is a broad-spectrum agent. It inhibits an early stage of peptidoglycan synthesis. Given orally, it penetrates the CSF. Unwanted effects affect mostly the central nervous system.

• **Streptomycin**, an aminoglycoside antibiotic, acts by inhibiting bacterial protein synthesis. It is given intramuscularly. Unwanted effects are ototoxicity (mainly vestibular) and nephrotoxicity.

Drugs Used To Treat Leprosy

Leprosy is one of the most ancient diseases known to mankind and has been mentioned in texts dating back to 600 BC. It is a chronic disfiguring illness with a long latency, and historically sufferers have been ostracised and forced to live apart from their communities although, in fact, the disease is not particularly contagious. Once viewed as incurable, the introduction in the 1940s of **dapsone**, and subsequently **rifampicin** (see above) and **clofazimine** in the 1960s, completely changed our perspective on leprosy. It is now generally curable, and the global figures show that the prevalence rates for the disease have dropped by 90% since 1985 and there has been a 20% annual decrease in the number of new cases detected since 2001. The disease has been eliminated from 113 out of 122 countries where it was considered to be

a major health problem. In 2009, some 200 000 new cases were reported. The bulk of these (75%) are in the Indian subcontinent, Brazil or Mozambique.

Multidrug treatment regimens (which fortunately seem to defy drug resistance) initiated by the World Health Organization in 1982 are now the mainstay of treatment. *Paucibacillary leprosy*, leprosy characterised by one to five numb patches, is mainly *tuberculoid*[7] in type and is treated for 6 months with dapsone and rifampicin. *Multibacillary leprosy*, characterised by more than five numb skin patches, is mainly *lepromatous* in type and is treated for at least 2 years with rifampicin, dapsone and clofazimine. The effect of therapy with minocycline or the fluoroquinolones is being investigated.

Dapsone

[7]The basis of the difference between *tuberculoid* and *lepromatous* disease appears to be that the T cells from patients with the former vigorously produce interferon-γ, which enables macrophages to kill intracellular microbes, whereas in the latter case the immune response is dominated by interleukin-4, which blocks the action of interferon-γ (see Ch. 17).

Dapsone is chemically related to the sulfonamides and, because its action is antagonised by PABA, probably acts through inhibition of bacterial folate synthesis. Resistance to the drug has steadily increased since its introduction and treatment in combination with other drugs is now recommended.

Dapsone is given orally; it is well absorbed and widely distributed through the body water and in all tissues. The plasma half-life is 24–48 h, but some dapsone persists in certain tissues (liver, kidney and, to some extent, skin and muscle) for much longer periods. There is enterohepatic recycling of the drug, but some is acetylated and excreted

in the urine. Dapsone is also used to treat *dermatitis herpetiformis*, a chronic blistering skin condition associated with coeliac disease.

Unwanted effects occur fairly frequently and include haemolysis of red cells (usually not severe enough to lead to frank anaemia), methaemoglobinaemia, anorexia, nausea and vomiting, fever, allergic dermatitis and neuropathy. *Lepra reactions* (an exacerbation of lepromatous lesions) can occur, and a potentially fatal syndrome resembling infectious mononucleosis has occasionally been seen.

Clofazimine

Clofazimine is a dye of complex structure. Its mechanism of action against leprosy bacilli may involve an action on DNA. It also has anti-inflammatory activity and is useful in patients in whom dapsone causes inflammatory side effects.

Clofazimine is given orally and accumulates in the body, being sequestered in the mononuclear phagocyte system. The plasma half-life may be as long as 8 weeks. The antileprotic effect is delayed and is usually not evident for 6–7 weeks.

Unwanted effects may be related to the fact that clofazimine is a dye. The skin and urine can develop a reddish colour and the lesions a blue–black discoloration. Dose-related nausea, giddiness, headache and gastrointestinal disturbances can also occur.

Antileprosy drugs

• For *tuberculoid leprosy*: **dapsone** and **rifampicin** (rifampin).

• Dapsone is sulfonamide-like and may inhibit folate synthesis. It is given orally. Unwanted effects are fairly frequent; a few are serious. Resistance is increasing.

• Rifampicin (see *Antituberculosis drugs* box).

• For lepromatous leprosy: dapsone, rifampicin and **clofazimine**.

• Clofazimine is a dye that is given orally and can accumulate by sequestering in macrophages. Action is delayed for 6–7 weeks, and its half-life is 8 weeks. Unwanted effects include red skin and urine, sometimes gastrointesinal disturbances.

Possible New Antibacterial Drugs

In contrast to the rapid discoveries and developments that characterised the 'heroic' years of antibiotic research spanning approximately 1950–1980, and which produced virtually all our existing drugs, the flow has since dried up, with only two totally novel antibiotics introduced during this period (Jagusztyn-Krynicka & Wysznska, 2008). However, the problem of resistance is now acute and a major worry. Novel antibiotic candidates continue to be discovered in plants (Limsuwan et al., 2009) and bacteria (Sit & Vederas, 2008) as well as through traditional medicinal chemistry. In addition, researchers in the front line of this important field are pressing all the latest conceptual technologies into the fray: bioinformatics, utilising information derived from pathogen genome sequencing, is one such approach (Bansal, 2008). The hunt for, and targeting of, bacterial *virulence factors* is showing some promise (Escaich, 2008). New types of screening procedures have been devised (Falconer & Brown, 2009) which would reveal novel types of targets, and sophisticated pharmacodynamic profiling brought to bear on the problem (Lister, 2006). The world awaits developments with bated breath.

References and Further Reading

Antibacterial drugs

llington D.R., Rivey M.P. Quinupristine/dalfopristin: a therapeutic review. *Clin. Ther.*. 2001;23:24-44.

all P. Future of the quinolones. *Semin. Resp. Infect.*. 2001;16:215-224. (*Good overview of this class of drugs*)

londeau J.M. Expanded activity and utility of the new fluoroquinolones: a review. *Clin. Ther.*. 1999;21:3-15. (*Good overview*)

lumer J.L. Meropenem: evaluation of a new generation carbapenem. *Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents*. 1997;8:73-92.

ryskier A. Ketolides—telithromycin, an example of a new class of antibacterial agents. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.*. 2000;6:661-669.

uran J.M., Amsden G.W. Azithromycin: indications for the future? *Expert. Opin. Pharmacother.*. 2000;1:489-505.

reenwood D., editor. Antimicrobial chemotherapy, third ed, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995. (*Good all-round textbook*)

owy F.D. *Staphylococcus aureus* infections N. Engl. J. Med. 339:1998:520-541 (*Basis of* Staph. aureus *pathogenesis of infection, resistance; extensive references; impressive diagrams*)

loellering R.C. Principles of anti-infective therapy. In: Mandell G.L., Douglas R.G., Bennett J.E., editors. *Principles and practice of infectious disease*. New York: John Wiley, 1985.

erry C.M., Jarvis B. Linezolid: a review of its use in the management of serious gram-positive infections. *Drugs*. 2001;61:525-551.

uagliarello V.J., Scheld W.M. Treatment of bacterial meningitis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1997;336:708-716.

aoult D., Drancourt M. Antimicrobial therapy of rickettsial diseases. *Antimicrob. Agents. Chemother.*. 1994;35:2457-2462.

ato K., Hoshino K., Mitsuhashi S. Mode of action of the new quinolones: the inhibitory action on DNA gyrase. *Prog. Drug Res.*. 1992;38:121-132.

himada J., Hori S. Adverse effects of fluoroquinolones. *Prog. Drug Res.*. 1992;38:133-143.

tojiljkovic I., Evavold B.D., Kumar V. Antimicrobial properties of porphyrins. *Expert. Opin.*

Investig. Drugs. 2001;10:309-320.

illotson G.S. Quinolones: structure–activity relationships and future predictions. *J. Med. Microbiol.*. 1996;44:320-324.

urenko G.E., Gibson J.K., Shinabarger D.L., *et al.* Oxazolidinones: a new class of antibacterials. *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.*. 2001;1:470-476. (*Easy-to-assimilate review that discusses this relatively new group of antibacterials*)

Resistance (see also reading list in Ch. 49)

ax R., Mullan N., Verhoef J. The millennium bugs—the need for and development of new antibacterials. *Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents*. 2000;16:51-59. (*Good review that includes an account of the development of 'resistance' and a round-up of potential new drugs*)

ourvalin P. Evasion of antibiotic action by bacteria. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.*. 1996;37:855-869. (*Covers developments in the understanding of the genetics and biochemical mechanisms of resistance*)

old H.S., Moellering R.C. Antimicrobial drug resistance. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1996;335:1445-1453. (*Excellent well-referenced review; covers mechanisms of resistance of important organisms to the main drugs; has useful table of therapeutic and preventive strategies, culled from the literature*)

eym B., Honoré N., Truffot-Pernot C., *et al.* Implications of multidrug resistance for the future of short-course chemotherapy of tuberculosis: a molecular study. *Lancet*. 1994;344:293-298.

eman M.D. Treatment of multidrug-resistant tuberculosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1993;329:784-791.

ivermore D.M. Antibiotic resistance in staphylococci. *J. Antimicrob. Agents*. 2000;16:S3-S10. (*Overview of problems of bacterial resistance*)

lichel M., Gutman L. Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and vancomycin-resistant enterococci: therapeutic realities and possibilities. *Lancet*. 1997;349:1901-1906. (*Excellent review article; good diagrams*)

icas T.I., Zeckel M.L., Braun D.K. Beyond vancomycin: new therapies to meet the challenge of glycopeptide resistance. *Trends Microbiol.*. 1997;5:240-249.

Woodford N., Johnson A.P., Morrison D., Speller D.C. Current perspectives on glycopeptide

resistance. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.*. 1995;8:585-615. (*Comprehensive review*)

Bacterial evasion of host defences and miscellaneous

loom B.R., Small P.M. The evolving relation between humans and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Lancet*. 1998;338:677-678. (*Editorial comment*)

oferer H. Mining bacterial genomes for antimicrobial targets. *Mol. Med. Today*. 2000;6:470-474. (*An interesting article focusing on the way in which a better understanding of the bacterial genome may lead to new drugs*)

New approaches to antibacterial drug discovery

hese papers have been provided for those who want to learn more about the work underway to develop novel antibacterials (*These papers have been provided for those who want to learn more about the work underway to develop novel antibacterials. Some are quite technical in nature*)

ansal A.K. Role of bioinformatics in the development of new antibacterial therapy. *Expert. Rev. Anti. Infect. Ther.*. 2008;6:51-65.

scaich S. Antivirulence as a new antibacterial approach for chemotherapy. *Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol.*. 2008;12:400-408.

alconer S.B., Brown E.D. New screens and targets in antibacterial drug discovery. *Curr. Opin. Microbiol.*. 2009;12:497-504.

agusztyn-Krynicka E.K., Wyszynska A. The decline of antibiotic era—new approaches for antibacterial drug discovery. *Pol. J. Microbiol.*. 2008;57:91-98.

imsuwan S., Trip E.N., Kouwen T.R., *et al.* Rhodomyrtone: a new candidate as natural antibacterial drug from *Rhodomyrtus tomentosa*. *Phytomedicine*. 2009;16:645-651.

ister P.D. The role of pharmacodynamic research in the assessment and development of new antibacterial drugs. *Biochem. Pharmacol.*. 2006;71:1057-1065.

'Neill A.J. New antibacterial agents for treating infections caused by multidrug resistant Gram-negative bacteria. *Expert. Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2008;17:297-302.

it C.S., Vederas J.C. Approaches to the discovery of new antibacterial agents based on

bacteriocins. *Biochem. Cell Biol.*. 2008;86:116-123.

Useful Web site

ttp://www.who.int (*Once again, the World Health Organization Web site is a mine of information about the demographics and treatment of infectious diseases. The sections on leprosy and tuberculosis are especially worthwhile studying. The site includes photographs, maps and much statistical information, as well as information on drug resistance. Highly recommended*)

51

Antiviral drugs

Overview

This chapter deals with drugs used to treat infections caused by viruses. We give first some necessary information about viruses: a simple outline of virus structure, a list of the main pathogenic viruses and a brief summary of the life history of an infectious virus. We then continue with a consideration of the host–virus interaction: the defences deployed by the human host against viruses and the strategies employed by viruses to evade these measures. We then describe the various types of antiviral drugs and their mechanisms of action, with particular reference to the treatment of AIDS, an infection caused by the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV).

Background Information about Viruses

An Outline of Virus Structure

Viruses are small (usually in the range 20–30 nm) infective agents that are incapable of reproduction outside their host cells. The free-living (e.g. outside its host) virus particle is termed a *virion*, and consists of segments of nucleic acid (either RNA or DNA) enclosed in a protein coat comprised of symmetrical repeating structural units and called a *capsid* (Fig. 51.1). The viral coat, together with the nucleic acid core, is termed the *nucleocapsid*. Some viruses have, in addition, a further external lipoprotein envelope, which may be decorated with antigenic viral

glycoproteins or phospholipids acquired from its host when the nucleocapsid buds through the membranes of the infected cell. Certain viruses also contain enzymes that initiate their replication in the host cell.

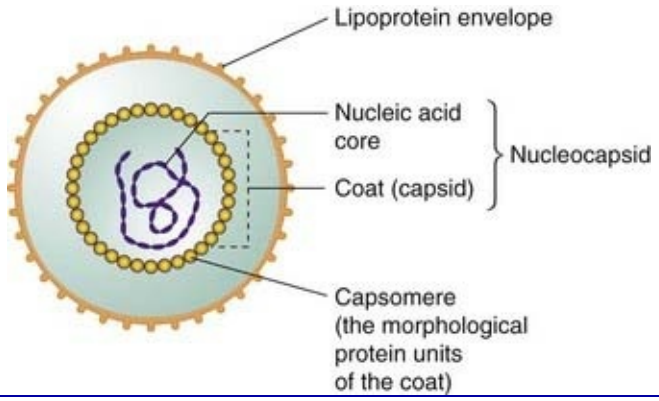


Fig. 51.1 Schematic diagram of the components of a virus particle or virion.

Viruses are generally characterised either as *DNA* or *RNA viruses* depending on the nature of their nucleic acid content. These two broad categories are conventionally subdivided into some six subgroups, which classify viruses according to whether they contain single-or double-stranded nucleic acids and how this functions during replication.

Examples of Pathogenic Viruses

Viruses can infect virtually all living organisms, and commonly cause disease in humans.

▼ Some important examples of the diseases they cause are as follow:

• *DNA viruses*: poxviruses (smallpox), herpesviruses (chickenpox, shingles, cold sores, glandular fever), adenoviruses (sore throat, conjunctivitis) and papillomaviruses (warts).

• *RNA viruses*: orthomyxoviruses (influenza), paramyxoviruses (measles, mumps, respiratory tract infections), rubella virus (German measles),

rhabdoviruses (rabies), picornaviruses (colds, meningitis, poliomyelitis), retroviruses (acquired immunodeficiency syndrome [AIDS], T-cell leukaemia), arenaviruses (meningitis, Lassa fever), hepadnaviruses (serum hepatitis) and arboviruses (arthropod-borne encephalitis and various febrile illnesses, *e.g.* yellow fever).

Virus Function and Life History

As viruses have no metabolic machinery of their own, they have to attach to and penetrate a living host cell—animal, plant or bacterial—and hijack the victim's own metabolic processes to replicate. The first step in this process is facilitated by polypeptide binding sites on the envelope or *capsid*, interacting with receptors on the host cell. These 'receptors' are normal membrane constituents, for example receptors for cytokines, neurotransmitters or hormones, ion channels, integral membrane glycoproteins, *etc.* Some examples of host cell receptors utilised by particular viruses are listed in Table 51.1.

Table 51.1 Some host cell structures that can function as receptors for viruses

Host cell structure[a]	Virus(es)
Helper T lymphocytes CD4 glycoprotein	HIV (causing AIDS)
CCR5 receptor for chemokines MCP-1 and RANTES	HIV (causing AIDS)
CXCR4 chemokine receptor for cytokine SDF-1	HIV (causing AIDS)
Acetylcholine receptor on skeletal muscle	Rabies virus
B-lymphocyte complement C3d receptor	Glandular fever virus
T-lymphocyte interleukin-2 receptor	T-cell leukaemia viruses

β-Adrenoceptors	Infantile diarrhoea virus
MHC molecules	Adenovirus (causing sore throat and conjunctivitis) T-cell leukaemia viruses

MCP-1, monocyte chemoattractant protein-1; MHC, major histocompatibility complex; RANTES, regulated on activation normal T-cell expressed and secreted; SDF-1, stromal cell-derived factor-1.

[a] For more detail on complement, interleukin-2, the CD4 glycoprotein on helper T lymphocytes, MHC molecules, etc., see Chapter 6. For SDF-1, see Chapter 25.

Following attachment, the receptor–virus complex enters the cell (often by receptor-mediated endocytosis), during which time the virus coat may be removed by host cell enzymes (often lysosomal in nature). Some bypass this route. Once in the host cell, the nucleic acid of the virus then uses the host cell's machinery to synthesise nucleic acids and proteins that are assembled into new virus particles. The actual way in which this occurs differs between DNA and RNA viruses.

Replication in DNA viruses

Viral DNA enters the host cell nucleus, where transcription into mRNA occurs catalysed by the host cell *RNA polymerase*. Translation of the mRNA into virus-specific proteins then takes place. Some of these proteins are enzymes that then synthesise more viral DNA, as well as structural proteins comprising the viral coat and envelope. After assembly of coat proteins around the viral DNA, complete *virions* are released by budding or after host cell lysis.

Replication in RNA viruses

Enzymes within the virion synthesise its mRNA from the viral RNA template, or sometimes the viral RNA serves as its own mRNA. This is translated by the host cell into various enzymes, including RNA

polymerase (which directs the synthesis of more viral RNA), and also into structural proteins of the virion. Assembly and release of virions occurs as explained above. With these viruses, the host cell nucleus is usually not involved in viral replication, although some RNA viruses (e.g. *orthomyxoviruses*) replicate exclusively within the host nuclear compartment.

Replication in retroviruses

The virion in *retroviruses*[1] contains a *reverse transcriptase enzyme* (virus RNA-dependent DNA polymerase), which makes a DNA copy of the viral RNA. This DNA copy is integrated into the genome of the host cell, and it is then termed a *provirus*. The provirus DNA is transcribed into both new viral genome RNA as well as mRNA for translation in the host into viral proteins, and the completed viruses are released by budding. Many retroviruses can replicate without killing the host cell.

[1]A virus that can synthesise DNA from an RNA template—the reverse of the normal situation.

The ability of several viruses to remain dormant within, and be replicated together with, the host genome is responsible for the periodic nature of some viral diseases, such as those caused by *herpes labialis* (cold sores) or the *varicella zoster* (chickenpox and shingles) virus, which recur when viral replication is reactivated by some factor (or when the immune system is compromised in some way). Some RNA retroviruses can transform normal cells into malignant cells.

The Host–Virus Interaction

Host Defences against Viruses

The first defence is the simple barrier function of intact skin, which most viruses are unable to penetrate. However, broken skin (e.g. at sites of

wounds or insect bites) and mucous membranes are more vulnerable to viral attack. Should the virus gain entry to the body, then the host will deploy both the innate and subsequently the adaptive immune response (Ch. 6) to limit the incursion. The infected cell presents, on its surface, viral peptides complexed with major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I molecules. This complex is recognised by T lymphocytes, which then kill the infected cell (Fig. 51.2). This may be accomplished by the release of lytic proteins (such as *perforins*, *granzymes*) or by triggering the apoptotic pathway in the infected cell by activation of its Fas receptor ('death receptor'). The latter may also be triggered indirectly through the release of a cytokine such as tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α. If the virus escapes immune detection by cytotoxic lymphocytes by modifying the expression of the peptide–MHC complex (see below), it may still fall victim to natural killer (NK) cells. This reaction to the absence of normal MHC molecules might be called the 'mother turkey' strategy (kill everything that does not sound exactly like a baby turkey). But some viruses also have a device for evading NK cells as well (see below).

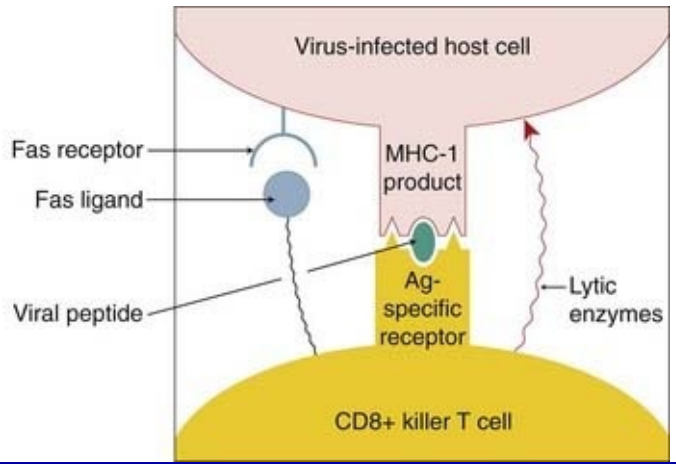


Fig. 51.2 The mechanisms whereby a $CD8^+$ T cell kills a virus-infected host cell.

The virus-infected host cell expresses a complex of virus peptides plus major histocompatibility complex class I product (MHC-I) on its surface. This is recognised by the $CD8^+$ T cell, which then releases lytic enzymes into the virus-infected cell and also expresses a Fas ligand. This

triggers apoptosis in the infected cell by stimulating its Fas 'death receptor'.

Within the cell itself, *gene silencing* may also provide a further level of protection (see Schutze, 2004). Short double-stranded fragments of RNA, such as those that could arise as a result of the virus's attempts to recruit the host's transcription/translational machinery, actually cause the gene coding for the RNA to be 'silenced'—to be switched off, probably by DNA phosphorylation. This means that the gene is no longer able to direct further viral protein synthesis, thus interrupting the replication cycle. This mechanism can be exploited for experimental purposes in many areas of biology, and tailored siRNA (*small-or short-interfering RNA*) is a cheap and useful technique to suppress temporarily the expression of a particular gene of interest. Attempts to harness the technique for viricidal purposes have met with some success (see Barik, 2004).

Viral Ploys to Circumvent Host Defences

Viruses have evolved a variety of strategies to ensure successful infection, some entailing redirection of the host's response for the advantage of the virus (discussed by Tortorella et al., 2000).

Subversion of the immune response

Viruses can inhibit the synthesis or action of the cytokines, such as interleukin-1, TNF-α and the antiviral interferons (IFNs), that normally coordinate the innate and adaptive immune responses. Following infection, for example, some poxviruses express proteins that mimic the extracellular ligand-binding domains of cytokine receptors. These *pseudoreceptors* bind cytokines, preventing them from reaching their natural receptors on cells of the immune system and thus moderating the normal immune response to virus-infected cells. Other viruses that can interfere with cytokine signalling include human cytomegalovirus,

Epstein–Barr virus, herpesvirus and adenovirus.

Evasion of immune detection and attack by killer cells

Once within host cells, viruses may also escape immune detection and evade lethal attack by cytotoxic lymphocytes and NK cells in various ways, such as the following:

• *Interference with the surface protein markers on the infected cells essential for killer cell attack*. Some viruses inhibit generation of the antigenic peptide and/or the presentation of MHC–peptide molecules. This turns off the signal that the cells are infected, enabling the viruses to remain undetected. Examples of viruses that can do this are adenovirus, herpes simplex virus, human cytomegalovirus, Epstein–Barr virus and influenza virus.

• *Interference with the apoptotic pathway*. Some viruses (e.g. adenovirus, human cytomegalovirus, Epstein–Barr virus) can subvert this pathway to ensure their own survival.

• *Adopting the 'baby turkey' ploy*. Some viruses (e.g. cytomegalovirus) get round the mother turkey approach of NK cells by expressing a homologue of MHC class I (the equivalent of a turkey chick's chirping) that is close enough to the real thing to hoodwink NK cells.

It is evident that evolution has equipped pathogenic viruses with many efficacious tactics for circumventing host defences, and understanding these in more detail is likely to suggest new types of antiviral therapy. Fortunately, the biological arms race is not one sided, and evolution has also equipped the host with sophisticated countermeasures. In most cases these prevail, and most viral infections eventually resolve spontaneously, except in an immunocompromised host. The situation does not always end happily though; some viral infections, such as Lassa

fever and Ebola virus infection, have a high mortality, and we now discuss a further, grave example of this group: the HIV virus. This is appropriate because HIV exhibits many of the features common to other viral infections, and the sheer scale of the global AIDS problem has pushed HIV to the top of the list of antiviral targets.

Viruses

• Viruses are small infective agents consisting of nucleic acid (RNA or DNA) enclosed in a protein coat.

• They are not cells and, having no metabolic machinery of their own, are obligate intracellular parasites, utilising the metabolic processes of the host cell they infect to replicate.

• *DNA viruses* usually enter the host cell nucleus and direct the generation of new viruses.

• *RNA viruses* direct the generation of new viruses usually without involving the host cell nucleus (the influenza virus is an exception in that it does involve the host cell nucleus).

• *RNA retroviruses* (e.g. HIV, T-cell leukaemia virus) contain an enzyme, reverse transcriptase, which makes a DNA copy of the viral RNA. This DNA copy is integrated into the host cell genome and directs the generation of new virus particles.

HIV and AIDS

HIV is an RNA retrovirus. Two forms are known. *HIV-1* is the organism responsible for human AIDS. The *HIV-2* organism is similar to the HIV-1 virus in that it also causes immune suppression, but it is less virulent. HIV-1 is distributed around the world, whereas the HIV-2 virus is confined to parts of Africa.

▼ The global situation is improving but even so, in 2007, the World Health Organization estimated that almost 33 million people were living

with AIDS, and that women and children constituted approximately half that total number. During the same year, some 2 million people died of the disease (including 0.27 million children under 15 years), and there were a further 2.7 million new cases of AIDS infection reported. The epidemic is overwhelmingly centred on sub-Saharan Africa, which accounts for two-thirds of the total global number of infected persons, and where the adult prevalence is over 20 times greater than in Europe. For a review of the pathogenesis of AIDS, see Mindel & Tenant-Flowers (2001).

The interaction of HIV with the host's immune system is complex, and although it involves mainly cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs, $CD8^+$ T cells) and $CD4^+$ helper T lymphocytes ($CD4^+$ cells), other immune cells, such as macrophages, dendritic cells and NK cells, also play a part. Antibodies are produced by the host to various HIV components, but it is the action of the CTLs and $CD4^+$ cells that initially prevents the spread of HIV.

Cytotoxic T lymphocytes directly kill virally infected cells and produce and release antiviral cytokines (Fig. 51.2). The lethal event is lysis of the target cell, but induction of apoptosis by interaction of Fas ligand (see Fig. 5.5) on the CTL with Fas receptors on the virally infected cell can also play a part. **$CD4^+$ cells** have an important role as helper cells, and it is the progressive loss of these cells that is the defining characteristic of HIV infection (see Fig. 51.4). Recent work suggests that $CD4^+$ cells may themselves have a direct role (e.g. lysis of target cells) in the control of HIV replication (Norris et al., 2004).

The priming of naive T cells to become CTLs during the induction phase involves interaction of the T-cell receptor complex with antigenic HIV peptide in association with MHC class I molecules on the surface of antigen-presenting cells (APCs; see Figs 6.3 and 6.4). Priming also

requires the presence and participation of $CD4^+$ cells. It is thought that both types of cell need to recognise antigen on the surface of the same APC (Fig. 6.3).

The CTLs thus generated are effective during the initial stages of the infection but are not able to stop the progression of the disease. It is believed that this is because the CTLs have become 'exhausted' and dysfunctional, thus losing their protective function. Different mechanisms may be involved (see Jansen et al., 2004, and Barber et al., 2006, for further details).

▼ The HIV virion cannily attaches to proteins on the host cell surface to gain entry to the cells. The main targets are CD4 (the glycoprotein marker of a particular group of helper T lymphocytes) and CCR5 (a co-receptor for certain chemokines, including monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 and RANTES [**r**egulated on **a**ctivation **n**ormal **T**-cell **e**xpressed and **s**ecreted]). $CD4^+$ cells normally orchestrate the immune response to viruses, but by entering these cells and using them as virion factories, HIV virtually cripples this aspect of the immune response. Figure 51.3 shows an HIV virion infecting a $CD4^+$ T cell. Infected activated CD4 T cells in lymphoid tissue form the major source of HIV production in HIV-infected individuals; infected macrophages are another source.

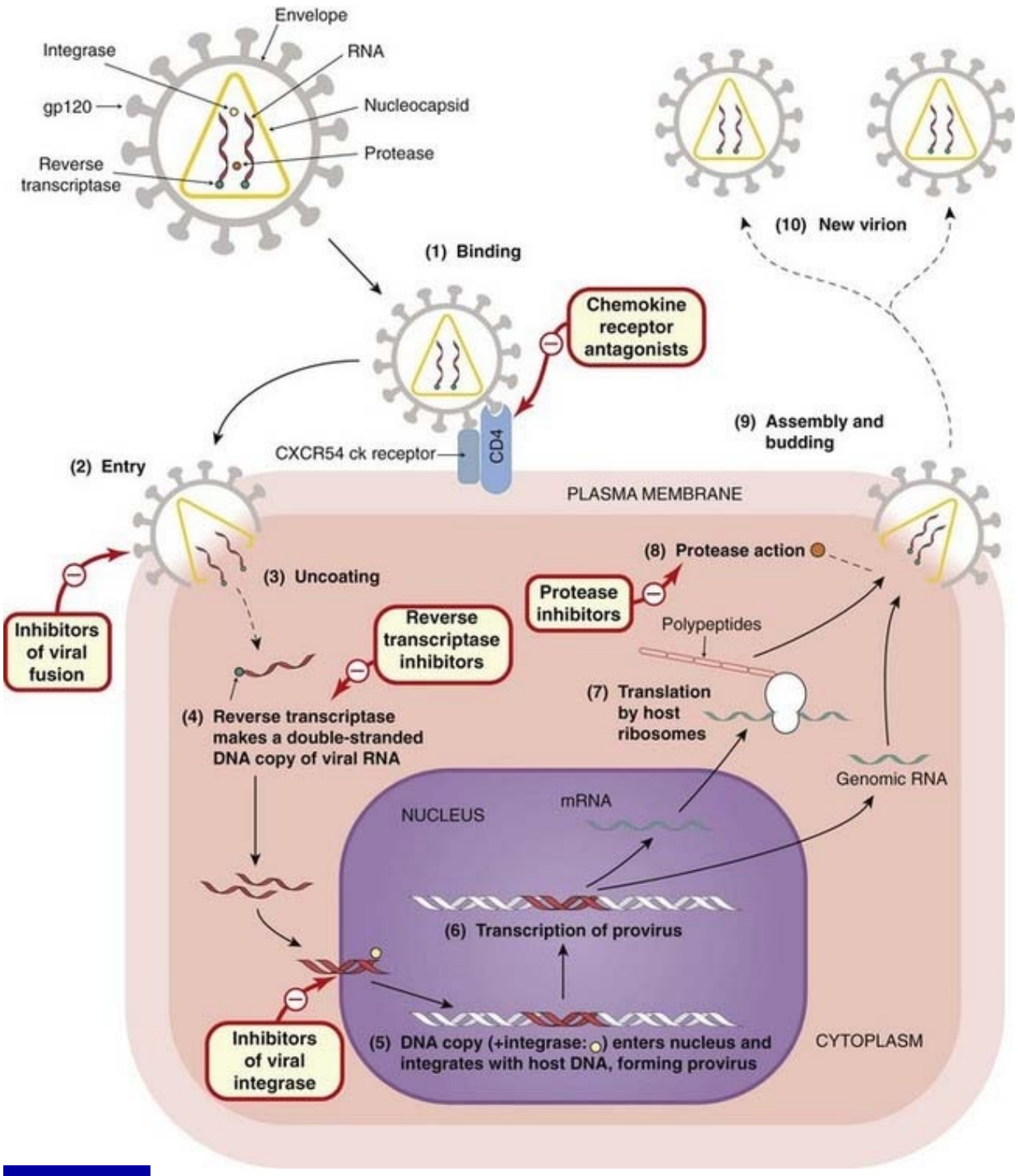


Fig. 51.3 Schematic diagram of infection of a CD4$^+$ T cell by an HIV virion, with the sites of action of the two main classes of anti-HIV drugs.

The 10 steps of HIV infection, from attachment to the cell to release of new virions, are shown. The virus uses the CD4 co-receptor and the chemokine (ck) receptors CCR5/CXCR4 as binding sites to facilitate entry into the cell, where it becomes incorporated into host DNA (steps 1–5). When transcription occurs (step 6), the T cell itself is activated and the transcription factor

nuclear factor κB initiates transcription of both host cell and provirus DNA. A viral protease cleaves the nascent viral polypeptides (steps 7 and 8) into structural proteins and enzymes (integrase, reverse transcriptase, protease) for the new virion. The new virions are assembled and released from the cells, initiating a fresh round of infection (steps 9 and 10). The sites of action of the currently used anti-HIV drugs are shown.

As for CCR5, evidence from exposed individuals who somehow evade infection indicates that this surface protein has a central role in HIV pathogenesis. Compounds that inhibit the entry of HIV into cells by blocking CCR5 are now available (see below).

When immune surveillance breaks down, other strains of HIV arise that recognise other host cell surface molecules such as CD4 and CXCR4. A surface glycoprotein, gp120, on the HIV envelope binds to CD4 and also to the T-cell chemokine co-receptor CXCR4. Another viral glycoprotein, gp41, then causes fusion of the viral envelope with the plasma membrane of the cell (Fig. 51.3).

Once within the cell, HIV is integrated with the host DNA (the provirus form), undergoing transcription and generating new virions when the cell is activated (Fig. 51.3). In an untreated subject, a staggering 10^{10} new virus particles may be produced each day. Intracellular HIV can remain silent (latent) for a long time.

Viral replication is error prone, and there are a large number of mutations daily at each site in the HIV genome, so HIV soon escapes recognition by the original cytotoxic lymphocytes. Although other cytotoxic lymphocytes arise that recognise the altered virus protein(s), further mutations, in turn, allow escape from surveillance by these cells too. It is suggested that wave after wave of cytotoxic lymphocytes act against new mutants as they arise, gradually depleting a T-cell repertoire already seriously compromised by the loss of $CD4^+$ helper T cells, until eventually the immune response fails.

There is considerable variability in the progress of the disease, but the usual clinical course of an untreated HIV infection is shown in Figure 51.4. An initial acute influenza-like illness is associated with an increase in the number of virus particles in the blood, their widespread dissemination through the tissues and the seeding of lymphoid tissue with the virion particles. Within a few weeks, the *viraemia* is reduced by the action of cytotoxic lymphocytes as specified above.

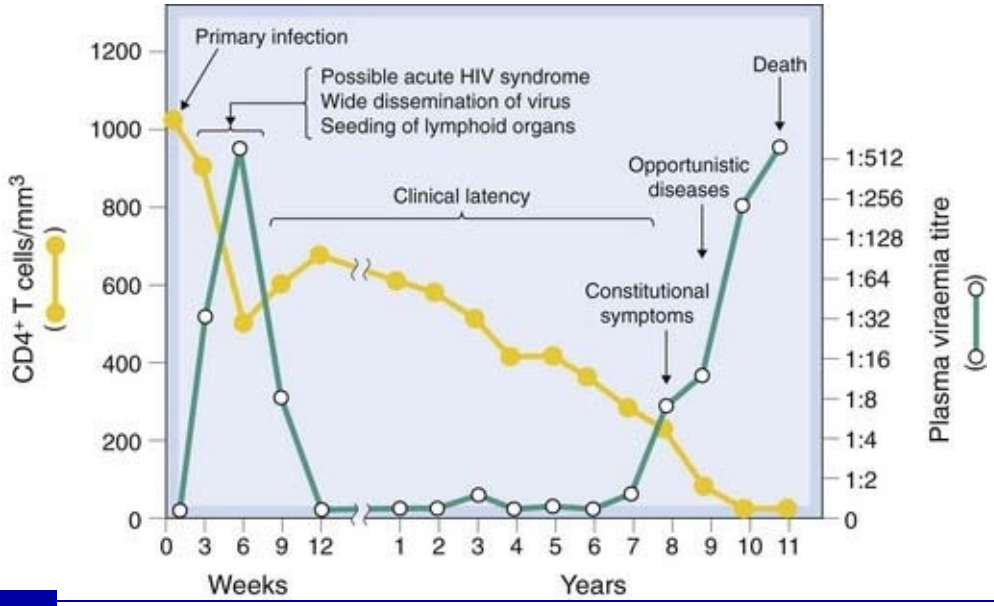


Fig. 51.4 Schematic outline of the course of HIV infection.

The CD4$^+$ T-cell titre is often expressed as cells/mm^3.

(Adapted from Pantaleo et al. 1993 N Engl J Med 328: 327–335.)

The acute initial illness is followed by a symptom-free period during which there is reduction in the viraemia accompanied by silent virus replication in the lymph nodes, associated with damage to lymph node architecture and the loss of CD4$^+$ lymphocytes and dendritic cells. Clinical latency (median duration 10 years) comes to an end when the immune response finally fails and the signs and symptoms of AIDS appear—opportunistic infections (e.g. *Pneumocystis* pneumonia or

tuberculosis), neurological disease (e.g. confusion, paralysis, dementia), bone marrow depression and cancers. Chronic gastrointestinal infections contribute to the severe weight loss. Cardiovascular damage and kidney damage can also occur. In an untreated patient, death usually follows within 2 years. The advent of effective drug regimens has greatly improved the prognosis in countries that are able to deploy them.

There is evidence that genetic factors play an important role in determining the susceptibility—or resistance—to HIV (see Flores-Villanueva et al., 2003).

Antiviral Drugs

Because viruses hijack many of the metabolic processes of the host cell itself, it is difficult to find drugs that are selective for the pathogen. However, there are some enzymes that are virus specific, and these have proved to be useful drug targets. Most currently available antiviral agents are effective only while the virus is replicating. Because the initial phases of viral infection are often asymptomatic, treatment is often delayed until the infection is well established. As is often the case with infectious diseases, an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure.

Antiviral drugs, of which many are available, fall into a few groups with similar mechanisms of action and side effects. Table 51.2 shows the commonest antiviral drugs, classified according to their mechanisms of action, some of the diseases they are used to treat and common side effects.

Table 51.2 Antiviral drugs

Type	Drug	Common therapeutic indication	Principal unwanted effects
Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors	Abacavir, didanosine, emtricitabine, lamivudine, stavudine, tenofovir, zidovudine	Mainly HIV, generally in combination with other retrovirals Lamivudine is also used in the treatment of hepatitis B	Multiple effects including: GI disturbances; CNS and related effects; musculoskeletal and dermatological effects; blood disorders; metabolic effects including pancreatitis, liver damage, lactic acidosis and lipodystrophy
	Adefovir dipivoxil, entecavir, telbivudine	Hepatitis B	
Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors	Efavirenz, nevirapine	HIV, generally in combination with other retrovirals	Multiple effects including: dermatological effects; GI disturbances; CNS and related effects; musculoskeletal and blood disorders; metabolic effects including pancreatitis, liver damage and lipodystrophy Efavirenz is teratogenic
Protease inhibitors	Amprenavir, atazanavir, darunavir, fosamprenavir, indinavir, lopinavir, nelfinavir, ritonavir, saquinavir, timpranavir	HIV, generally in combination with other retrovirals	Multiple effects including: GI disturbances; CNS and related effects; musculoskeletal and dermatological effects; blood disorders; metabolic effects including pancreatitis, liver damage and lipodystrophy
Viral DNA polymerase inhibitors	Cidofovir, foscarnet, ganciclovir, valganciclovir	Cytomegalovirus	Nephrotoxicity, blood disorders, ocular problems
	Aciclovir, famciclovir, idoxuridine, penciclovir, valaciclovir	Herpes	Mainly GI and dermatological disorders
Inhibitor of HIV fusion with host cells	Enfurvitide	HIV, generally in combination with other retrovirals	CNS, metabolic and GI effects
Inhibitors of viral coat disassembly and neuraminidase inhibitors	Amantadine	Influenza A	GI disturbances, CNS effects
	Oseltamivir	Influenza A and B	GI disturbances, headache
	Zanamivir		Brochospasm (unusual)
Integrase inhibitor	Ratelgravir	HIV (refractory to other treatments)	Mainly GI and metabolic disturbances
Chemokine receptor antagonist (CCR5)	Maraviroc	HIV (CCR5 dependent)	Mainly GI and CNS disturbances
Biopharmaceuticals and immunomodulators	Interferon-α, pegylated interferon-α	Hepatitis B and C	Flu-like symptoms, anorexia and fatigue
	Ribavirin, palivizumab	Respiratory syncytial virus	Fever, some GI effects
	Inosine prabonex	Herpes	Hyperuricaemia, GI effects

CNS, central nervous system; GI, gastrointestinal.

Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors

The main group are *nucleoside analogues*, typified by **zidovudine**, all of which are phosphorylated by host cell enzymes to give the 5′-trisphosphate derivative. This moiety competes with the equivalent host cellular trisphosphate substrates for proviral DNA synthesis by viral reverse transcriptase (viral RNA-dependent DNA polymerase). Eventually, the incorporation of the 5′-trisphosphate moiety into the growing viral DNA chain results in chain termination. Mammalian α-

DNA polymerase is relatively resistant to the effect. However, γ-DNA polymerase in the host cell mitochondria is more susceptible, and this may be the basis of some unwanted effects. The main utility of these drugs is the treatment of HIV, but a number of them have useful activity against other viruses also (e.g. hepatitis B).

Zidovudine

Zidovudine (AZT) was the first drug to be introduced for the treatment of HIV and retains an important place. It can prolong life in HIV-infected individuals and diminish HIV-associated dementia. Given to the parturient mother and then to the newborn infant, it can reduce mother-to-baby transmission by more than 20%. It is generally administered orally 2–3 times each day but can also be given by intravenous infusion. Its plasma half-life is 1 h, but the intracellular half-life of the active trisphosphate is 3 h. The concentration in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is 65% of the plasma level. Chemically, zidovudine is an analogue of thymidine. Most of the drug is metabolised to the inactive glucuronide in the liver, only 20% of the active form being excreted in the urine.

Because of rapid mutation, the virus is a constantly moving target, and resistance develops with long-term use of zidovudine, particularly in late-stage disease. Furthermore, resistant strains can be transferred between individuals. Other factors that underlie the loss of efficacy of the drug are decreased activation of zidovudine to the trisphosphate and increased virus load as the host immune response fails.

Unwanted effects include gastrointestinal disturbances (e.g. nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain), blood disorders (sometimes anaemia or neutropenia) and CNS effects (e.g. insomnia, dizziness, headache) as well as the risk of lactic acidosis in some patients, which are shared by this entire group of drugs to a greater or lesser extent.

Other, currently approved, drugs in this group include **abacavir**, **adefovir dipivoxil**, **didanosine**, **emtricitabine**, **entecavir**, **lamivudine**, **stavudine**, **telbivudine** and **tenofovir**.

Non-Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors

Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors are chemically diverse compounds that bind to the reverse transcriptase enzyme near the catalytic site and inactivate it. Most non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors are also inducers, substrates or inhibitors, to varying degrees, of the liver cytochrome P450 enzymes (Ch. 9). Currently available drugs are **nevirapine** and **efavirenz.**

Nevirapine has good oral bioavailability, and penetrates into the CSF. It is metabolised in the liver, and the metabolite is excreted in the urine. Nevirapine can prevent mother-to-baby transmission of HIV if given to the parturient mother and the neonate.

Efavirenz is given orally, once daily, because of its plasma half-life (~50 h). It is 99% bound to plasma albumin, and its CSF concentration is ~1% of that in the plasma. Nevertheless, its major adverse effects are insomnia, bad dreams and sometimes psychotic symptoms. It is also teratogenic if used in early pregnancy.

Unwanted effects common to both of these drugs include rash (common) as well as a cluster of other effects (see Table 51.2).

Protease Inhibitors

In HIV and many other viral infections, the mRNA transcribed from the provirus is translated into two biochemically inert *polyproteins*. A virus-specific protease then converts the polyproteins into various structural and functional proteins by cleavage at the appropriate positions (see Fig. 51.3). Because this protease does not occur in the host, it is a useful

target for chemotherapeutic intervention. HIV-specific protease inhibitors bind to the site where cleavage occurs, and their use, in combination with reverse transcriptase inhibitors, has transformed the therapy of AIDS. Examples of current protease inhibitors are shown in Table 51.2 and are exemplified by drugs such as **amprenavir**, **atazanavir**, **darunavir**, **fosamprenavir** (prodrug of amprenavir), **indinavir**, **lopinavir**, **nelfinavir**, **ritonavir**, **saquinavir** and **timpranavir**.

Ritonavir, a typical example, binds to and thus inactivates proteases from HIV-1 or HIV-2. It is often given in combination with other protease inhibitors (e.g. **lopinavir**) as it potentiates their action. Ritonavir is given orally, usually twice a day. It is usual to start at a low dose and increase gradually to a maximum over a period of a few days.

The plasma half-life of ritonavir is 3–5 h but oral absorption may be delayed in the presence of food. The drug is mainly (> 80%) excreted in the faeces with some 10% excreted in the urine. A major metabolite accounts for approximately one-third of all excreted drug.

Unwanted effects that are shared among this group include gastrointestinal disturbances (e.g. nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain), blood disorders (sometimes anaemia or neutropenia) and CNS effects (e.g. insomnia, dizziness, headache) as well as the risk of hyperglycaemia.

DNA Polymerase Inhibitors

Aciclovir

The era of effective selective antiviral therapy began with **aciclovir**, a guanosine derivative that is typical of drugs of this type.

Aciclovir is converted to the monophosphate by viral thymidine kinase,

which is very much more effective in carrying out the phosphorylation than the enzyme of the host cell; it is therefore only activated adequately in infected cells. The host cell kinases then convert the monophosphate to the trisphosphate, the active form that inhibits viral DNA polymerase, terminating the nucleotide chain. It is 30 times more potent against the herpesvirus enzyme than the host enzyme. Aciclovir trisphosphate is fairly rapidly broken down within the host cells, presumably by cellular phosphatases. Resistance caused by changes in the viral genes coding for thymidine kinase or DNA polymerase has been reported, and aciclovir-resistant herpes simplex virus has been the cause of pneumonia, encephalitis and mucocutaneous infections in immunocompromised patients.

Aciclovir can be given orally, intravenously or topically. When it is given orally, only 20% of the dose is absorbed. The drug is widely distributed, and reaches effective concentrations in the CSF. It is excreted by the kidneys, partly by glomerular filtration and partly by tubular secretion.

Unwanted effects are minimal. Local inflammation can occur during intravenous injection if there is extravasation of the solution. Renal dysfunction has been reported when aciclovir is given intravenously; slow infusion reduces the risk. Nausea and headache can occur and, rarely, encephalopathy.

There are now many other drugs with a similar action to aciclovir including **cidofovir**, **famciclovir** (prodrug of penciclovir), **ganciclovir**, **idoxuridine**, **penciclovir**, **valaciclovir** (prodrug of aciclovir) and **valganciclovir** (prodrug of ganciclovir). **Foscarnet** achieves the same effect through a slightly different mechanism as does idoxuridine, which is sometimes used topically to treat herpes infections of the skin.

Clinical uses of drugs for herpes viruses (e.g. aciclovir, famciclovir, valaciclovir) 

• *Varicella zoster* infections (chickenpox, shingles):

– orally in immunocompetent patients

– intravenously in immunocompromised patients.

• *Herpes simplex* infections (*genital* herpes, *mucocutaneous* herpes and herpes *encephalitis*).

• Prophylactically:

– patients who are to be treated with immunosuppressant drugs or radiotherapy and who are at risk of herpesvirus infection owing to reactivation of a latent virus

– in individuals who suffer from frequent recurrences of genital infection with herpes simplex virus.

Neuraminidase Inhibitors and Inhibitors of Viral Coat Disassembly

Viral neuraminidase is one of three transmembrane proteins coded by the influenza genome. Infection with these RNA viruses begins with the attachment of the viral haemaglutinin to neuraminic (sialic) acid residues on host cells. The viral particle then enters the cell by an endocytic process. The endosome is acidified following influx of H^+ through another viral protein, the *M2 ion channel*. This facilitates the disassembly of the viral structure, allowing the RNA to enter the host nucleus, thus initiating a round of viral replication. Newly replicated virions escape from the host cell by budding from the cell membrane. Viral neuraminidase promotes this by severing the bonds linking the particle coat and host sialic acid.

The neuraminidase inhibitors **zanamivir** and **oseltamivir** are active against both influenza A and B viruses, and are licensed for use at early

stages in the infection or when use of the vaccine is impossible. Zanamivir is available as a powder for inhalation, and oseltamivir as an oral preparation. At the time of writing, governments around the world are stockpiling this latter drug in the expectation that it will mitigate the effects of the anticipated 'swine' (H1N1) flu pandemic.

Unwanted effects of both include gastrointestinal symptoms (nausea, vomiting, dyspepsia and diarrhoea), but these are less frequent and severe in the inhaled preparation.

Amantadine,[2] quite an old drug (1966) and seldom recommended today, effectively blocks viral M2 ion channels, thus inhibiting disassembly. It is active against influenza A virus (an RNA virus) but has no action against influenza B virus. The closely related **rimantadine** is similar in its effects.

[2]Also used for its mildly beneficial effects in Parkinson's disease (see Ch. 39).

Given orally, amantadine is well absorbed, reaches high levels in secretions (e.g. saliva) and most is excreted unchanged via the kidney. Aerosol administration is feasible.

Unwanted effects are relatively infrequent, occurring in 5–10% of patients, and are not serious. Dizziness, insomnia and slurred speech are the most common adverse effects.

Drugs Acting By Other Mechanisms

Enfurvirtide inhibits the fusion of HIV with host cells. The drug is generally given by subcutaneous injection in combination with others to treat HIV when resistance becomes a problem or when the patient is intolerant of other antiretroviral drugs.

Unwanted effects include flu-like symptoms, central effects such as

headache, dizziness, alterations in mood, gastrointestinal effects and sometimes hypersensitivity reactions.

Ratelgravir acts by inhibiting HIV DNA integrase, the enzyme that splices viral DNA into the host genome when forming the provirus. It is used for the treatment of HIV as part of combination therapy, and is generally reserved for cases that are resistant to other antiretroviral agents.

Maraviroc is a chemokine receptor antagonist—a novel concept in HIV therapy (see Dhami et al., 2009) and is the only such drug currently available.

CCR5, together with CXCR4, are cell surface chemokine receptors that have been hijacked by some strains of HIV to gain entry to the cell. In patients who are demonstrated to harbour 'R5' strains, maraviroc may be used, in combination with more conventional antiretroviral drugs. Its use in the UK is currently restricted. A similar compound, **vicriviroc**, is in clinical development.

Biopharmaceutical Antiviral Drugs

Biopharmaceuticals that have been recruited in the fight against virus infections include immunoglobulin preparations, interferons (IFNs) and monoclonal antibodies.

Immunoglobulin

Pooled immunoglobulin contains antibodies against various viruses present in the population. The antibodies are directed against the virus envelope and can 'neutralise' some viruses and prevent their attachment to host cells. If used before the onset of signs and symptoms, it may attenuate or prevent measles, German measles, infectious hepatitis, rabies or poliomyelitis. *Hyperimmune* globulin, specific against particular

viruses, is used against hepatitis B, varicella zoster and rabies.

Palivisumab

Related in terms of its mechanism of action to immunoglobulins is **palivisumab**, a monoclonal antibody (see Chs 17 and 59) directed against a glycoprotein on the surface of respiratory syncytial virus. It is used (as an intramuscular injection) in infants to prevent infection by this organism.

Interferons

IFNs are a family of inducible proteins synthesised by mammalian cells and now generally produced commercially using recombinant DNA technology. There are at least three types, α, β, and γ, constituting a family of hormones involved in cell growth and regulation and the modulation of immune reactions. IFN-γ, termed *immune interferon*, is produced mainly by T lymphocytes as part of an immunological response to both viral and non-viral antigens, the latter including bacteria and their products, rickettsiae, protozoa, fungal polysaccharides and a range of polymeric chemicals and other cytokines. IFN-α and IFN-β are produced by B and T lymphocytes, macrophages and fibroblasts in response to the presence of viruses and cytokines. The general actions of the IFNs are described briefly in Chapter 17.

The IFNs bind to specific ganglioside receptors on host cell membranes. They induce, in host cell ribosomes, the production of enzymes that inhibit the translation of viral mRNA into viral proteins, thus halting viral replication. They have a broad spectrum of action and inhibit the replication of most viruses in vitro.

Given intravenously, IFNs have a half-life of 2–4 h. They do not cross the blood–brain barrier.

IFN-α-2a is used for treatment of hepatitis B infections and AIDS-related Kaposi sarcomas; **IFN-α-2b** is used for hepatitis C. There are reports that IFNs can prevent reactivation of herpes simplex after trigeminal root section in animals and can prevent spread of herpes zoster in cancer patients. Preparations of IFNs conjugated with polyethylene glycol (pegylated IFNs) have a longer lifetime in the circulation.

Unwanted effects are common and include fever, lassitude, headache and myalgia. Repeated injections cause chronic malaise. Bone marrow depression, rashes, alopecia and disturbances in cardiovascular, thyroid and hepatic function can also occur.

Other Agents

Immunomodulators are drugs that act by moderating the immune response to viruses or use an immune mechanism to target a virus or other organism. **Inosine pranobex** may interfere with viral nucleic acid synthesis but also has immunopotentiating actions on the host. It is sometimes used to treat herpes infections in mucosal tissues or on the skin.

Tribavirin is a synthetic nucleoside, similar in structure to guanosine. It is thought to act either by altering virus nucleotide pools or by interfering with the synthesis of viral mRNA. While it inhibits a wide range of DNA and RNA viruses, including many that affect the lower airways, it is mainly used in aerosol or tablet form to treat infections with *respiratory syncytial virus* (an RNA paramyxovirus). It has also been shown to be effective in hepatitis C as well as Lassa fever, an extremely serious *arenavirus* infection. When given promptly to victims of the latter disease, it has been shown to reduce to 9% a case fatality rate previously 76%.

Antiviral drugs

Most antiviral drugs generally fall into the following groups:

• *Nucleoside analogues* that inhibit the viral reverse transcriptase enzyme, preventing replication (e.g. **lamivudine**, **zidovudine**).

• *Non-nucleoside analogues* that have the same effect (e.g. **efavirenz**).

• *Inhibitors of proteases* that prevent viral protein processing (e.g. **saquinavir**, **indinavir**).

• *Inhibitors of viral DNA polymerase* that prevent replication (e.g. **aciclovir**, **famciclovir**).

• *Inhibitors of viral capsule disassembly* (e.g. **amantidine**).

• *Inhibitors of neuraminidase* that prevent viral escape from infected cells (e.g. **oseltamivir**).

• *Inhibitors of HIV integrase* that prevent the incorporation of viral DNA into the host genome (**ratelgravir**).

• *Inhibitors of viral entry* block the use of host cell surface receptors that are used as entry points by viruses (**maraviroc**).

• *Immunomodulators* that enhance host defences (e.g. interferons and **inosine pranobex**).

• *Immunoglobulin and related preparations* that contain neutralising antibodies to various viruses.

Combination Therapy for HIV

Two main classes of antiviral drugs are used to treat HIV: reverse transcriptase inhibitors and protease inhibitors. As they have different mechanisms of action (Fig. 51.3), they can usefully be deployed in combinations and this technique has dramatically improved the prognosis of the disease. The combination treatment is known as **h**ighly **a**ctive **a**nti**r**etroviral **t**herapy (HAART). A typical HAART 3-or 4-drug

combination would involve two nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors with either a non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor or one or two protease inhibitors.

Using a HAART protocol, HIV replication is inhibited, the presence in the plasma of HIV RNA is reduced to undetectable levels and patient survival is greatly prolonged. But the regimen is complex and has many unwanted effects. Compliance is difficult and lifelong treatment is necessary. The virus is not eradicated but lies latent in the host genome of memory T cells, ready to reactivate if therapy is stopped.

Unwelcome interactions can occur between the component drugs of HAART combinations, and there may be interindividual variations in absorption. Some drugs penetrate poorly into the brain, and this could lead to local proliferation of the virus. So far, there is no cross-resistance between the three groups of drugs, but it needs to be borne in mind that the virus has a high mutation rate—so resistance could be a problem in the future. The AIDS virus has certainly not yet been outsmarted. Even with full compliance—which is often not achieved for long periods, given the complexity of the regimen and side effects—the virus can only be kept in check, not eliminated.

The choice of drugs to treat pregnant or breastfeeding women is difficult. The main aims are to avoid damage to the fetus and to prevent transmission of the disease to the neonate. Therapy with zidovudine alone is often used in these cases. Another area that requires special consideration is prophylaxis for individuals who may have been exposed to the virus accidentally. Specific guidelines have been developed for such cases, but they are beyond the scope of this chapter.

Other drugs such as **enfurvitide**, **maraviroc** and **ratelgravir** are used in combination therapy regimens and are seldom deployed alone.

Drugs for HIV infections

• Reverse transcriptase inhibitors (RTIs):

– *nucleoside RTIs* are phosphorylated by host cell enzymes to give the 5′-trisphosphate, which competes with the equivalent host cellular trisphosphates that are essential substrates for the formation of proviral DNA by viral reverse transcriptase (examples are **zidovudine** and **abacavir**); they are used in combination with protease inhibitors

– *non-nucleoside RTIs* are chemically diverse compounds that bind to the reverse transcriptase near the catalytic site and denature it; an example is **nevirapine**.

• Protease inhibitors inhibit cleavage of the nascent viral protein into functional and structural proteins. They are often used in combination with reverse transcriptase inhibitors. An example is **saquinavir**.

• Combination therapy is essential in treating HIV; this characteristically comprises two nucleoside RTIs with either a non-nucleoside RTI or one or two protease inhibitors. Other drugs such as the HIV integrase inhibitor **ratelgravir**, the chemokine receptor antagonist **maraviroc** and the HIV fusion inhibitor **enfurvitide** may also be used in such combination therapy regimens.

Treatment of HIV/AIDS

A consensus on the use of retroviral therapy in AIDS has emerged based on the following principles:

• Monitor plasma viral load and $CD4^+$ cell count.

• Start treatment before immunodeficiency becomes evident.

• Aim to reduce plasma viral concentration as much as possible for as long as possible.

• Use combinations of at least three drugs (e.g. two reverse transcriptase inhibitors and one protease inhibitor).

• Change to a new regimen if plasma viral concentration increases.

Prospects for New Antiviral Drugs

At the beginning of the 1990s, there were only five drugs available to treat viral infections; 20 years later, this number has increased some 10-fold. New strategies—based on the growing understanding of the biology of pathogenic viruses and their action on, and in, host cells—could well, if vigorously implemented, have the potential to target the viruses causing most viral diseases (see de Clercq, 2002). One such example has been the recent introduction of drugs that prevent CCR5 from serving as an entry portal for HIV. Work is underway to develop CXCR4 inhibitors for similar purposes, as are other approaches to disrupting this function of CCR5 (reviewed by Dhami et al., 2009).

However, the ultimate weapon in the fight against the virus is vaccination. This has proved to be highly effective in the past against diseases such as polio and smallpox, and more recently against influenza (both types) and hepatitis B. However, while there has been no shortage of candidate vaccines (some 40 have been trialled in thousands of volunteers), the prospect of a vaccine against HIV (and sadly many other viruses) still seems rather remote. Part of the problem is *antigenic drift*, a process whereby the virus mutates, thus presenting different antigenic structures and minimising the chance of an effective and long-lasting immune response or the production of a vaccine. The way forward is not totally clear, but the issue has stimulated research into the interface between the innate and adaptive immune systems in a quest to boost the effectiveness of vaccine design. The whole problem of HIV vaccines is the subject of numerous reviews (see Girard et al., 2006; Kaufman & Barouch, 2009; Rhee & Barouch, 2009).

References and Further Reading

Viral infections in general

anazaki K. Antiviral therapy for chronic hepatitis B: a review. *Curr. Drug Targets Inflamm. Allergy*. 2004;3:63-70. (*Reviews the use of IFN and lamivudine, alone or in combination, in the treatment of this viral infection*)

auer G.M., Walker B.D. Hepatitis C virus infection. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;345:41-52. (*Comprehensive review of pathogenesis, clinical characteristics, natural history and treatment of hepatitis C infection*)

ee W.M. Hepatitis B virus infection. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1997;337:1733-1746. (*Detailed coverage of the epidemiology and pathogenesis of hepatitis B, the life cycle of the virus in the human host and the treatment of the disease*)

chmidt A.C. Antiviral therapy for influenza: a clinical and economic comparative review. *Drugs*. 2004;64:2031-2046. (*A useful review of influenza biology, together with a comprehensive evaluation of drug treatments, their mechanisms of action and relative economic costs*)

/hitley R.J., Roizman B. Herpes simplex virus infections. *Lancet*. 2001;357:1513-1518. (*A concise review of the viral replication cycle and the pathogenesis and treatment of herpes simplex virus infections*)

HIV infections

arber D.L., Wherry E.J., Masopust D., *et al.* Restoring function in exhausted CD8 T cells during chronic viral infection. *Nature*. 2006;439:682-687. (*Deals with a potential mechanism whereby the exhaustion of T cells may be reversed*)

ansen C.A., Piriou E., Bronke C., *et al.* Characterisation of virus-specific CD8(+) effector T cells in the course of HIV-1 infection: longitudinal analyses in slow and rapid progressors. *Clin. Immunol.*. 2004;11:299-309.

lindel A., Tenant-Flowers M. Natural history and management of early HIV infection. *Br. Med. J.*. 2001;322:1290-1293. (*A clinical review covering the current classification of HIV disease, clinical manifestations of primary HIV infection and general treatment of HIV patients*)

orris P.J., Moffett H.F., Brander C., *et al.* Fine specificity and cross-clade reactivity of HIV type 1

Gag-specific CD4$^+$ T cells. *AIDS Res. Hum. Retroviruses*. 2004;20:315-325.

Mechanisms of immune evasion by viruses and drug resistance

lurphy P.M. Viral exploitation and subversion of the immune system through chemokine mimicry. *Nat. Immunol.*. 2001;2:116-122. (*Excellent description of virus–immune system interaction*)

ortorella D., Gewurz B.E., Furman M.H., *et al.* Viral subversion of the immune system. *Annu. Rev. Immunol.*. 2000;18:861-926. (*A comprehensive and clearly written review of the various mechanisms by which viruses elude detection and destruction by the host immune system*)

Immune defences against viral attack

evy J.A. The importance of the innate immune system in controlling HIV infection and disease Trends Immunol. 22:2001:312-316 (*Stresses the role of innate immunity in the response to HIV; clear exposition of the various components of the innate and adaptive immune systems, as well as the role of non-cytotoxic CD8$^+$ cell response to HIV*)

chutze N. siRNA technology. *Mol. Cell. Endocrinol.*. 2004;213:115-119. (*An article explaining the siRNA concept*)

Mechanisms of antiviral drug action

alfour H.H. Antiviral drugs. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1999;340:1255-1268. (*An excellent and comprehensive review of antiviral agents other than those used for HIV therapy; describes their mechanisms of action, adverse effects and clinical use*)

e Clercq E. Strategies in the design of antiviral drugs. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2002;1:13-24. (*Outstanding article describing the rationale behind current and future strategies for antiviral drug development*)

lexner C. HIV-protease inhibitors. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1998;338:1281-1292. (*Excellent and comprehensive review covering mechanisms of action, clinical and pharmacokinetic properties, potential drug resistance and possible treatment failure*)

ubareva L., Kaiser L., Hayden F.G. Influenza virus neuraminidase inhibitors. *Lancet.* 2000;355:827-835. (*Admirable coverage of this topic; lucid summary and clear diagrams of the influenza virus and its replication cycle; description of the structure and the action of, and resistance to, zanamivir and oseltamivir, and the relevant pharmacokinetic aspects and clinical efficacy*)

Combination treatment for HIV

lexner C. Dual protease inhibitor therapy in HIV-infected patients: pharmacologic rationale and clinical benefits. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2000;40:649-674. (*Review emphasising interactions between individual protease inhibitors and the potential benefits and disadvantages of dual therapy*)

ichman D.D. HIV chemotherapy. *Nature*. 2001;410:995-1001. (*Outstanding article; covers pathogenesis and natural history of HIV infection and the impact on viral dynamics and immune function of antiretroviral therapy; discusses the main antiretroviral drugs, drug resistance of HIV and targets for new drugs; excellent figures and comprehensive references*)

/eller I.V.D., Williams I.G. Antiretroviral drugs. *Br. Med. J.*. 2001;322:1410-1412. (*Part of a British Medical Journal series on the ABC of AIDS; clear, succinct coverage of antiretroviral regimens, and a list of potential targets for new drug development*)

New leads in antiviral drug therapy

arik S. Control of nonsegmented negative-strand RNA virus replication by siRNA. *Virus Res.*. 2004;102:27-35. (*Interesting article explaining how siRNA technology might be used to inhibit viral replication*)

hami H., Fritz C.E., Gankin B., *et al.* The chemokine system and CCR5 antagonists: potential in HIV treatment and other novel therapies. *J. Clin. Pharm. Ther.*. 2009;34:147-160. (*Excellent and easy-to-read review of this area. Helpful diagrams*)

lores-Villanueva P.O., Hendel H., Caillat-Zucman S., *et al.* Associations of MHC ancestral haplotypes with resistance/susceptibility to AIDS disease development. *J. Immunol.*. 2003;170:1925-1929. (*A paper that deals with the hereditary component of HIV susceptibility/resistance; a bit complex for the non-geneticist but worth the effort*)

irard M.P., Osmanov S.K., Kieny M.P. A review of vaccine research and development: the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV). *Vaccine*. 2006;24:4062-4081. (*First-class review of HIV/AIDS, the difficulties of producing a vaccine and many other related issues. Easy to read*)

aufman D.R., Barouch D.H. Translational mini-review series on vaccines for HIV: T lymphocyte trafficking and vaccine-elicited mucosal immunity. *Clin. Exp. Immunol.*. 2009;157:165-173. (*This paper, together with the paper by Rhee et al. below, review new research that seeks to design better HIV vaccines through an increased understanding of the innate and adaptive immune systems. They are fairly advanced but worthwhile if you are interested in the topic*)

ilby J.M., Eron J.J. Novel therapies based on mechanisms of HIV-1 cell entry. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2003;348:2228-2238. (*Excellent review on this innovative strategy*)

itabwalla M., Ruprecht R.M. RNA interference: a new weapon against HIV and beyond. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2002;347:1364-1368. (*An article in the series* Clinical implications of basic research)

loore J.P., Stevenson M. New targets for inhibitors of HIV-1 replication. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.*. 2000;1:40-49. (*Excellent coverage of stages of the viral life cycle that might be susceptible to new drugs: attachment to host cell, membrane fusion, integration, accessory gene function and assembly. Introduces various potentially promising chemical compounds*)

hee E.G., Barouch D.H. Translational mini-review series on vaccines for HIV: Harnessing innate immunity for HIV vaccine development. *Clin. Exp. Immunol.*. 2009;157:174-180. (*See review of Kaufman & Barouch above*)

Books

isani E. The wisdom of whores. 2008 Granta Books London. (*It is not enough to design and manufacture anti-HIV drugs—they have to be made available to those who need them. It is a sad fact that the most needy countries in this respect are those with the most poorly developed infrastructures for delivery of health care. This book is one of a kind: it is at once entertaining and informative. It chronicles the efforts made by an epidemiologist to pioneer HIV programmes in developing countries and the many bureaucratic and other obstacles that had to be overcome. Her portraits of the victims of the AIDS pandemic, many of whom work in the 'sex industry', are both amusing and poignant. There is also a Web site at* http://www.wisdomofwhores.com/*with an*

alternative view of much HIV/AIDS-related news. Highly recommended). http://www.wisdomofwhores.com/

Useful Web resources

ttp://www.aidsinfo.nih.gov/ (*The official HIV/AIDS site of the US National Institutes of Health. This comprehensive Web site carries authoritative and completely up-to-date information on every aspect of this disease and its treatment, including data on drugs and drug action as well as the results of recent clinical trials and the latest progress in developing a vaccine. Superb*)

ttp://www.unaids.org/en/default.asp (*This is the official site of the United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. It deals with a wide range of issues but focuses on the demographics of the epidemic. It carries photographs, maps, slides, movies and statistics, as well as other resources that bring home the enormous problems faced by the international community in dealing with this disease. Prepare to be appalled*)

52

Antifungal drugs

Overview

Fungal infections (*mycoses*) are widespread in the population; they are generally associated with the skin (e.g. 'athlete's foot') or mucous membranes (e.g. 'thrush').[1] In temperate climates such as the UK, and in otherwise healthy people, they are mainly benign, being more of a nuisance than a threat. However, they become a more serious problem when the immune system is compromised or when they gain access to the systemic circulation. When this occurs, fungal infections can be fatal. In this chapter, we will briefly review the main types of fungal infections and discuss the drugs that can be used to treat them.

Fungi and Fungal Infections

[1]However, they may also 'infect' buildings too and may contribute to the 'sick building syndrome'.

Fungi are non-motile eukaryotic cells. Unlike plants, they cannot photosynthesise and many are parasitic in nature. Many thousands of species have been characterised. Many are of economic importance, either because they are edible (e.g. mushrooms), useful in manufacturing other products (e.g. yeast in brewing and in the production of antibiotics) or because of the damage they cause to other animals, crops or to foodstuffs. Approximately 50 are pathogenic in humans. These organisms are present in the environment or may co-exist with humans

as *commensals* without causing any overt risks to health. However, since the 1970s there has been a steady increase in the incidence of serious secondary systemic fungal infections. One of the contributory factors has been the widespread use of broad-spectrum antibiotics, which eradicate the non-pathogenic bacterial populations that normally compete with fungi. Other causes include the spread of AIDS and the use of immunosuppressant or cancer chemotherapy agents. The result has been an increased prevalence of *opportunistic infections*, *i.e.* infections that rarely cause disease in healthy individuals. Older people, diabetics, pregnant women and burn wound victims are particularly at risk of fungal infections such as *candidiasis*. Primary fungal infections, rare in many parts of the temperate world, are also now encountered more often because of the increase in international travel.

Clinically important fungi may be classified into four main types on the basis of their morphological and other characteristics. Of particular taxonomic significance is the presence of *hyphae*—filamentous projections that may knit together to form a complex *mycelium*, a mat-like structure giving the characteristic appearance of moulds. Fungi are remarkably specific in their choice of preferred location. The main groups are:

• yeasts (e.g. *Cryptococcus neoformans*)

• yeast-like fungi that produce a structure resembling a mycelium (e.g. *Candida albicans*)

• filamentous fungi with a true mycelium (e.g. *Aspergillus fumigatus*)

• 'dimorphic' fungi that, depending on nutritional constraints, may grow as either yeasts or filamentous fungi (e.g. *Histoplasma capsulatum*).

Another organism, *Pneumocystis carinii* (also kown as *P. jirovecii*),

shares characteristics of both protozoa (see Ch. 53) and fungi; however, it is not susceptible to antifungal drugs and will not be considered here even though it is an important opportunistic pathogen in patients with compromised immune systems (e.g. those suffering from AIDS).

Drugs vary in their efficacy between the different fungal groups. Table 52.1 gives examples of each type of organism and lists some of the diseases caused by these agents and the most common choice of drug classes.

Table 52.1 Some common fungal infections and their sensitivity to various classes of antifungal drugs

Organism	Principal disease(s)	Most common treatment					
		Polyenes	Echinocandins	Azoles/triazoles	Flucytosine[a]	Griseofulvin	Terbinafine
Yeasts							
Cryptococcus neoformans	Meningitis	+++	–	+	+	–	–
Yeast-like fungus							
Candida albicans	Thrush, systemic candidiasis	++	Rarely	++	–	–	–
Filamentous fungi							
Trichophyton spp. *Epidermophyton floccosum* *Microsporum* spp.	All these organisms cause skin and nail infections and are referred to as tinea or 'ringworm'	–	–	+++	–	+++	+++
Aspergillus fumigatus	Pulmonary aspergillosis	++	+	+	–	–	–
Dimorphic fungi							
Histoplasma capsulatum	Histoplasmosis	++	–	++	–	–	–
Coccidioides immitis	Coccidiomycosis	++	–	++	–	–	–
Blastomyces dermatides	Blastomycosis	++	–	+	–	–	–

[a]Generally used as an adjunct to amphotericin.

Superficial fungal infections can be classified into the *dermatomycoses* and *candidiasis*. Dermatomycoses include infections of the skin, hair and

nails (*onychomycosis*). They are most commonly caused by *Trichophyton*, *Microsporum* or *Epidermophyton*, giving rise to various types of 'ringworm' (not to be confused with genuine helminth infections; see Ch. 54) or tinea. *Tinea capitis* affects the scalp; *Tinea cruris*, the groin ('Dhobie itch'); *Tinea pedis*, the feet (athlete's foot); and *Tinea corporis*, the body. In superficial candidiasis, the yeast-like organism may infect the mucous membranes of the mouth or vagina (thrush), or the skin. Secondary bacterial infections may complicate the course and treatment of these conditions.

In the UK, the commonest *systemic* (or 'disseminated') fungal disease is candidiasis. Other more serious conditions are cryptococcal meningitis, endocarditis, pulmonary aspergillosis, and rhinocerebral mucormycosis. Invasive pulmonary aspergillosis is now a leading cause of death in recipients of bone marrow transplants or those with neutropenia. Colonisation by *Aspergillus* of the lungs of patients with asthma or cystic fibrosis can lead to a similar condition termed *allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis*.

In other parts of the world, the commonest systemic fungal infections include blastomycosis, histoplasmosis, coccidiomycosis and paracoccidiomycosis; these are often primary infections, *i.e.* they are not secondary to reduced immunological function or altered commensal microorganisms.

Drugs Used To Treat Fungal Infections

The current therapeutic agents can be broadly classified into two groups: first, the naturally occurring antifungal antibiotics such as the *polyenes* and *echinocandins*, and second, synthetic drugs including *azoles* and *fluorinated pyrimidines*. Because many infections are superficial, there are many topical preparations. Many antifungal agents are quite toxic, and

when systemic therapy is required these agents must often be used under strict medical supervision.

Figure 52.1 shows sites of action of common antifungal drugs.

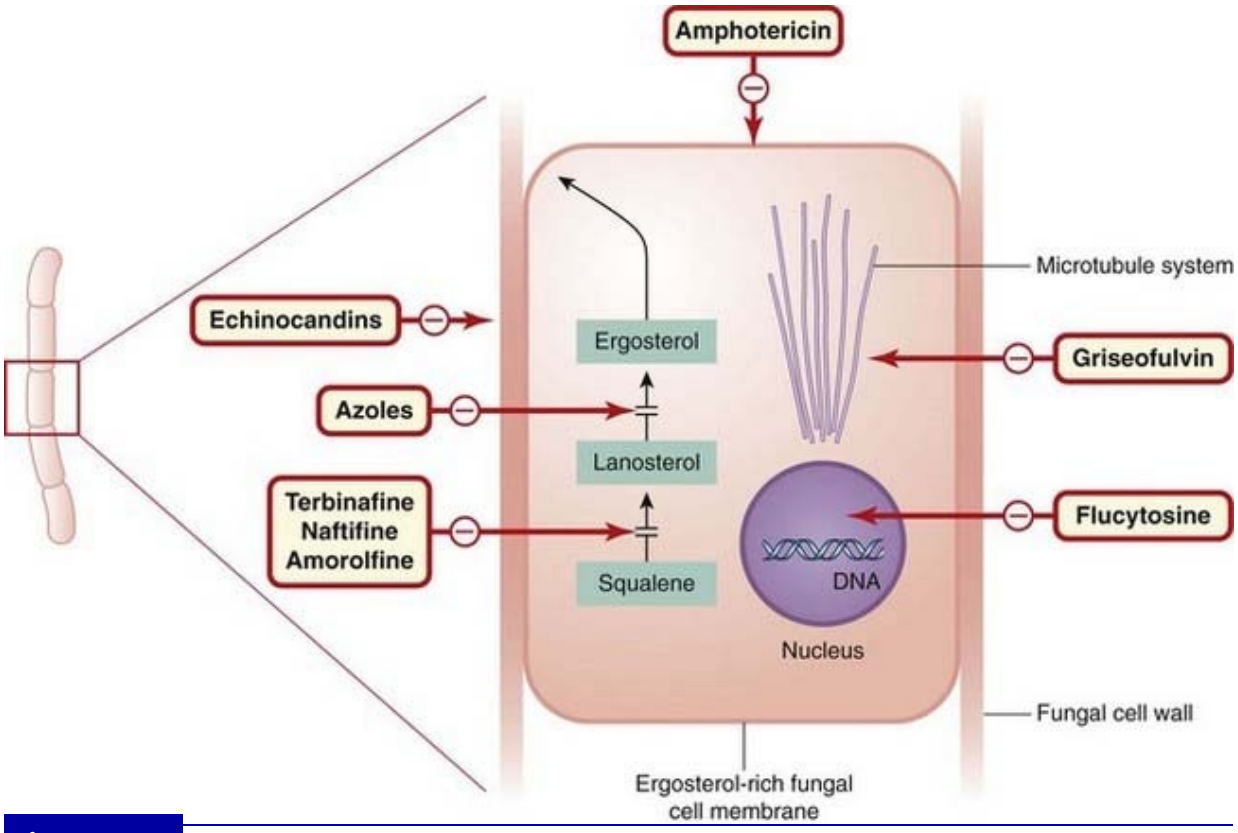


Fig. 52.1 Sites of action of common antifungal drugs.

Fungi are morphologically very diverse organisms, and this diagram of a 'typical' fungus is not intended to be technically accurate. The principal sites of action of the main antifungal agents mentioned in this chapter (in red-bordered boxes) are indicated as shown.

Antifungal Antibiotics

Amphotericin

Amphotericin (also called **amphotericin B**) is a mixture of antifungal substances derived from cultures of *Streptomyces*. Structurally, these are very large ('macrolide') molecules belonging to the polyene group of antifungal agents.

Like other polyene antibiotics (see Ch. 50), the site of amphotericin action is the fungal cell membranes, where it interferes with permeability and with transport functions. Its most important property is probably its ability to form large pores in the membrane. The hydrophilic core of the doughnut-shaped molecule creates a transmembrane ion channel, causing gross disturbances in ion balance including the loss of intracellular K^+. Amphotericin has a selective action, binding avidly to the membranes of fungi and some protozoa, less avidly to mammalian cells and not at all to bacteria. The basis of this relative specificity is the drug's greater avidity for *ergosterol*, a fungal membrane sterol that is not found in animal cells (where cholesterol is the principal sterol). Amphotericin is active against most fungi and yeasts, and is the gold standard for treating disseminated infections caused by several organisms including *Aspergillus* and *Candida*. Amphotericin also enhances the antifungal effect of **flucytosine** (see below), providing a useful synergistic combination.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Amphotericin is very poorly absorbed when given orally, and this route is used only for treating fungal infections of the upper gastrointestinal tract. It can be used topically, but for systemic infections it is generally administered by slow intravenous injection complexed with liposomes or other lipid-containing preparations. This improves the pharmacokinetics and reduces the considerable burden of side effects. Long-circulating or so-called 'stealth' liposomes containing amphotericin have been used to good effect.

Amphotericin is very highly protein bound. It penetrates tissues and membranes (such as the blood–brain barrier) poorly, although it is found in fairly high concentrations in inflammatory exudates and may cross the

blood–brain barrier more readily when the meninges are inflamed, and intravenous amphotericin is used with flucytosine to treat cryptococcal meningitis. It is excreted very slowly via the kidney, traces being found in the urine for 2 months or more after administration has ceased.

Unwanted effects

The commonest and most serious unwanted effect of amphotericin is renal toxicity. Some degree of reduction of renal function occurs in more than 80% of patients receiving the drug; although this generally recovers after treatment is stopped, some impairment of glomerular filtration may remain. Hypokalaemia occurs in 25% of patients, requiring potassium chloride supplementation. Hypomagnesaemia also occurs, and anaemia can be a further problem. Other unwanted effects include impaired hepatic function, thrombocytopenia and anaphylactic reactions. Injection frequently results initially in chills, fever, tinnitus and headache, and about one in five patients vomits. The drug is irritant to the endothelium of the veins, and local thrombophlebitis is sometimes seen after intravenous injection. Intrathecal injections can cause neurotoxicity, and topical applications cause a skin rash. The (considerably more expensive) liposome-encapsulated and lipid-complexed preparations have no greater efficacy than the native drug but cause fewer adverse reactions.

Nystatin (also called **fungicidin**) is a polyene macrolide antibiotic similar in structure to amphotericin and with the same mechanism of action. It is not absorbed through mucous membranes or skin, and its use is mainly limited to *Candida* infections of the skin, mucous membranes and the gastrointestinal tract. *Unwanted effects* may include nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea.

Griseofulvin

Griseofulvin is a narrow-spectrum antifungal agent isolated from cultures of *Penicillium griseofulvum*. It interferes with mitosis by binding to fungal microtubules. It can be used to treat dermatophyte infections of skin or nails when local treatment is ineffective, but treatment needs to be very prolonged. It has largely been superseded by other drugs.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Griseofulvin is given orally. It is poorly soluble in water, and absorption varies with the type of preparation, in particular with particle size. It is taken up selectively by newly formed skin and concentrated in the keratin. The plasma half-life is 24 h, but it is retained in the skin for much longer. It potently induces cytochrome P450 enzymes and causes several clinically important drug interactions.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects with griseofulvin use are infrequent, but the drug can cause gastrointestinal upsets, headache and photosensitivity. Allergic reactions (rashes, fever) may also occur. The drug should not be given to pregnant women.

Echinocandins

Echinocandins comprise a ring of six amino acids linked to a lipophilic side-chain. All drugs in this group are based on the structure of **echinocandin B**, which is found naturally in *A. nidulans*. The echinocandins inhibit the synthesis of 1,3-β-glucan, a glucose polymer that is necessary for maintaining the structure of fungal cell walls. In the absence of this polymer, fungal cells lose integrity and lyse.

Caspofungin is active in vitro against a wide variety of fungi, and it has proved effective in the treatment of candidiasis and forms of invasive aspergillosis that are refractory to amphotericin. Oral

absorption is poor, and it is given intravenously, once daily. **Anidulafungin** is used mainly for invasive candidiasis; again it is given intravenously. The principal side effects of both drugs include nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea, and skin rash.

Synthetic Antifungal Drugs

Azoles

The azoles are a group of synthetic fungistatic agents with a broad spectrum of activity based on the imidazole (**clotrimazole**, **econazole**, **fenticonazole**, **ketoconazole**, **miconazole**, **tioconazole** and **sulconazole**) or triazole nucleus (**itraconazole**, **voriconazole** and **fluconazole**).

The azoles inhibit the fungal cytochrome P450 3A enzyme, lanosine 14α-demethylase, which is responsible for converting lanosterol to ergosterol, the main sterol in the fungal cell membrane. The resulting depletion of ergosterol alters the fluidity of the membrane, and this interferes with the action of membrane-associated enzymes. The net effect is an inhibition of replication. Azoles also inhibit the transformation of candidal yeast cells into hyphae—the invasive and pathogenic form of the parasite. Depletion of membrane ergosterol reduces the binding of amphotericin.

Ketoconazole

Ketoconazole was the first azole that could be given orally to treat systemic fungal infections. It is effective against several different types of organism (see Table 52.1). It is, however, toxic (see below), and relapse is common after apparently successful treatment. It is well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract. It is distributed widely throughout the tissues and tissue fluids but does not reach therapeutic concentrations in

the central nervous system unless high doses are given. It is inactivated in the liver and excreted in bile and in urine. Its half-life in the plasma is 8 h.

Unwanted effects

The main hazard of ketoconazole is liver toxicity, which is rare but can prove fatal. Liver function is monitored before and during treatment. Other side effects that occur are gastrointestinal disturbances and pruritus. Inhibition of adrenocortical steroid and testosterone synthesis has been recorded with high doses, the latter resulting in gynaecomastia in some male patients. There may be adverse interactions with other drugs. **Ciclosporin** and **astemizole** all interfere with cytochrome P450 drug-metabolising enzymes, causing increased plasma concentrations of ketoconazole or the interacting drug or both. **Rifampicin**, histamine H_2 receptor antagonists and antacids decrease the absorption of ketoconazole.

Fluconazole

Fluconazole is well absorbed and can be given orally or intravenously. It reaches high concentrations in the cerebrospinal fluid and ocular fluids, and is used to treat most types of fungal meningitis. Fungicidal concentrations are also achieved in vaginal tissue, saliva, skin and nails. It has a half-life of ~25 h, and is mainly excreted unchanged in the urine.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects, which are generally mild, include nausea, headache and abdominal pain. However, exfoliative skin lesions (including, on occasion, Stevens–Johnson syndrome[2]) have been seen in some individuals—primarily in AIDS patients who are being treated with

multiple drugs. Hepatitis has been reported, although this is rare, and fluconazole, in the doses usually used, does not produce the inhibition of hepatic drug metabolism and of steroidogenesis that occurs with ketoconazole.

Itraconazole

[2]This is a severe and usually fatal condition involving blistering of the skin, mouth, eyes and genitalia, often accompanied by fever, polyarthritis and kidney failure.

Itraconazole is active against a range of dermatophytes. It may be given orally but, after absorption (which is variable), undergoes extensive hepatic metabolism. It is highly lipid soluble (and water insoluble), and a formulation in which the drug is retained within pockets of β-cyclodextrin is available. In this form, itraconazole can be administered intravenously, thereby overcoming the problem of variable absorption from the gastrointestinal tract. Administered orally, its half-life is about 36 h, and it is excreted in the urine. It does not penetrate the cerebrospinal fluid.

Unwanted effects

Though rare, the most serious are hepatoxicity and Stevens–Johnson syndrome (see above). Gastrointestinal disturbances, headache and allergic skin reactions can occur. Inhibition of steroidogenesis has not been reported. Drug interactions as a result of inhibition of cytochrome P450 enzymes occur (similar to those described above for ketoconazole).

Miconazole

Miconazole is given topically for oral and other infections of the gastrointestinal tract. It has a short plasma half-life and needs to be given every 8 h. It reaches therapeutic concentrations in bone, joints and

lung tissue but not in the central nervous system, and it is inactivated in the liver.

Unwanted effects

Unwanted effects are relatively infrequent, those most commonly seen being gastrointestinal disturbances, but pruritus, blood dyscrasias and hyponatraemia are also reported. There are isolated reports of liver damage, and it should not be given to patients with impaired hepatic function.

Other azoles

Clotrimazole, **econazole**, **tioconazole** and **sulconazole** are used only for topical application. Clotrimazole interferes with amino acid transport into the fungus by an action on the cell membrane. It is active against a wide range of fungi, including candidal organisms. These drugs are sometimes combined with anti-inflammatory glucocorticoids (see Ch. 26). **Poscanazole** and **voriconazole** are used mainly for the treatment of invasive life-threatening infections such as aspergillosis.

Other Antifungal Drugs

Flucytosine is a synthetic, orally active antifungal agent that is effective against a limited range (mainly yeasts) of systemic fungal infections. If given alone, drug resistance commonly arises during treatment, so it is usually combined with amphotericin for severe systemic infections such as candidiasis and cryptococcal meningitis.

Flucytosine is converted to the antimetabolite 5-fluorouracil in fungal but not human cells. 5-Fluorouracil inhibits thymidylate synthetase and thus DNA synthesis (see Chs 5 and 55). Resistant mutants may emerge rapidly, so this drug should not be used alone.

Flucytosine is usually given by intravenous infusion but can also be

given orally. It is widely distributed throughout the body fluids, including the cerebrospinal fluid. About 90% is excreted unchanged via the kidneys, and the plasma half-life is 3–5 h. The dosage should be reduced if renal function is impaired.

Unwanted effects are infrequent. Gastrointestinal disturbances, anaemia, neutropenia, thrombocytopenia and alopecia have occurred (possibly due to formation of fluorouracil by gut bacteria), but these are usually mild (but may be more significant in AIDS patients) and are easily reversed when therapy ceases. Uracil is reported to decrease the toxic effects on the bone marrow without impairing the antimycotic action. Hepatitis has been reported but is rare.

Terbinafine is a highly lipophilic, keratinophilic fungicidal compound active against a wide range of skin pathogens. It is particularly useful against nail infections. It acts by selectively inhibiting the enzyme *squalene epoxidase*, which is involved in the synthesis of ergosterol from squalene in the fungal cell wall. The accumulation of squalene within the cell is toxic to the organism.

When used to treat ringworm or fungal infections of the nails, it is given orally. The drug is rapidly absorbed and is taken up by skin, nails and adipose tissue. Given topically, it penetrates skin and mucous membranes. It is metabolised in the liver by the cytochrome P450 system, and the metabolites are excreted in the urine.

Unwanted effects occur in about 10% of individuals and are usually mild and self-limiting. They include gastrointestinal disturbances, rashes, pruritus, headache and dizziness. Joint and muscle pains have been reported and, more rarely, hepatitis.

Naftifine is similar in action to terbinafine. Among other developments, a morpholine derivative, **amorolfine**, which interferes

with fungal sterol synthesis, is available as a nail lacquer, being effective against onchomycoses.

Future Developments

Increasing numbers of fungal strains are becoming resistant to the current antifungal drugs (fortunately, drug resistance is not transferable in fungi), and toxicity and low efficacy also contribute to the need for better antifungal drugs. An additional problem is that new strains of commensal-turned-pathogenic fungi have emerged. Fungal infections are also on the rise because of the prevalence of cancer chemotherapy and transplant-associated immunosuppression. Encouragingly, new compounds are in development, some with novel mechanisms of action and the prospect of using combination therapies has been explored in more depth (see Lupetti et al., 2003).

At the time of writing, a new echinocandin, **micafungin**, has just been introduced into the UK for treating invasive candidiasis. Unwanted effects are mild, and their incidence less than that seen with amphotericin. Several 'new-generation' triazoles are also in prospect (see Boucher et al., 2004).

Because fungal infections are often secondary to compromised host defence, attempts have been made to boost this by administration of the cytokine *granulocyte macrophage colony stimulating factor* (GMCSF, see Ch. 17) and other factors that increase host leukocyte numbers or function (see also Lupetti et al., 2003). Finally, the possibility of developing an antifungal vaccine, first mooted in the 1960s, has recently met with limited success in animals (see Torosantucci et al., 2005 for an account of a *Candida* vaccine). It is hoped that such advances will soon find their way into clinical practice.

References and Further Reading

oucher H.W., Groll A.H., Chiou C.C., Walsh T.J. Newer systemic antifungal agents: pharmacokinetics, safety and efficacy. *Drugs*. 2004;64:1997-2020. (*A useful review of the newer echinocandins and triazoles*)

omo J.A., Dismukes W.E. Oral azole drugs as systemic antifungal therapy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1994;330:263-272. (*A bit dated now but still worth reading for the review of ketoconazole, fluconazole and itraconazole*)

an J.M., Levitz S.M. Prospects for development of vaccines against fungal diseases. *Drug Resist. Updat.*. 2006;9:105-110. (*A short review of some recent attempts to develop antifungal vaccines*)

eepe G.S.Jr. Preventative and therapeutic vaccines for fungal infections: from concept to implementation. *Expert. Rev. Vaccines*. 2004;3:701-709. (*An interesting, and optimistic, overview of the quest for antifungal vaccines*)

enning D.W. Echinocandin antifungal drugs. *Lancet*. 2003;362:1142-1151. (*General review on the echinocandins, focusing on their clinical use*)

odds E.S., Drew R.H., Perfect J.R. Antifungal pharmacodynamics: review of the literature and clinical applications. *Pharmacotherapy*. 2000;20:1335-1355. (*Good review of antifungals used to treat systemic infections; somewhat clinical in tone*)

upta A.K., Tomas E. New antifungal agents. *Dermatol. Clin.*. 2003;21:565-576. (*Quite a comprehensive review that deals mainly with the newer antifungals, their mechanisms of action and resistance*)

odgson M.J., Morey P., Leung W.Y., *et al.* Building-associated pulmonary disease from exposure to *Stachybotrys chartarum* and *Aspergillus versicolor*. *J. Occup. Environ. Med.*. 1998;40:241-249. (*Strictly for those of you who want to delve into this fascinating branch of fungal biology*)

oeprich P.D. Antifungal chemotherapy. *Prog. Drug Res.*. 1995;44:88-127. (*A bit dated now but contains very detailed coverage of the main classes of drug: chemical formulae, mode of action, pharmacokinetics, adverse effects*)

auffman C.A. Fungal infections in older adults. *Clin. Infect. Dis.*. 2001;33:550-555. (*Interesting account of fungal infections and their treatment*)

upetti A., Nibbering P.H., Campa M., *et al.* Molecular targeted treatments for fungal infections: the role of drug combinations. *Trends Mol. Med.*. 2003;9:269-276. (*Interesting and accessible article that deals with the use of combination antifungal therapy. Some good diagrams*)

orosantucci A., Bromuro C., Chiani P., et al A novel glyco-conjugate vaccine against fungal pathogens J. Exp. Med. 202:2005:597-606 (*An experimental paper demonstrating the development of a novel type of vaccine effective against* Candida *infections in mice*)

an Spriel A.B. Novel immunotherapeutic strategies for invasive fungal disease. *Curr. Drug Targets Cardiovasc. Haematol. Disord.*. 2003;3:209-217. (*A paper that discusses the role of the host immune response in fungal infection and examines novel strategies for antifungal therapy drawing on these data*)

ermes A., Guchelaar H.J., Dankert J. Flucytosine: a review of its pharmacology, clinical indications, pharmacokinetics, toxicity and drug interactions. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.*. 2000;46:171-179. (*The title is self-explanatory!*)

Useful Web resources

ttp://www.doctorfungus.org (*This is an excellent site sponsored by a consortium of pharmaceutical companies. It covers all aspects of fungal infections and drug therapy, and has many compelling images and some video clips. Highly recommended—and fun!*)

53

Antiprotozoal drugs

Overview

Protozoa are motile, unicellular eukaryotic organisms that have colonised virtually every habitat and ecological niche. They may be conveniently classified, on the basis of their method of locomotion, into four main groups: *amoebas*, *flagellates* and *sporozoa* together with a further group comprising *ciliates* and other organisms of uncertain affiliation, such as the *Pneumocystis jirovecii* mentioned in the last chapter. The protozoa have diverse feeding behaviour, with some being parasitic. Many have extremely complex life cycles, sometimes involving several hosts, reminiscent of the helminths discussed in Chapter 54.

As a group, the protozoa are responsible for an enormous burden of disease among humans as well as domestic and wild animal populations. Table 53.1 lists some of these clinically important organisms, together with the diseases that they cause and an overview of anti-infective drugs. In this chapter, we will first discuss some general features of protozoa–host interactions and then discuss the therapy of each group of diseases in turn. In view of its global importance, a discussion of malaria will occupy much of the chapter.

Table 53.1 Principal protozoal infections and common drug treatments

Organism	Disease	Common drug treatment
Amoeba		
Entamoeba histolytica	Amoebic dysentery	Metronidazole, tinidazole, diloxanide
Flagellates		
Trypanosoma rhodesiense *Trypanosoma gambiense*	Sleeping sickness	Suramin, pentamidine, melarpasol, eflornithine, nifurtimox
Trypanosoma cruzi	Chagas' disease	Nifurtimox, benzindazole
Leishmania tropica *Leishmania donovani* *Leishmania mexicana* *Leishmania braziliensis*	Kala-azar Chiclero's ulcer Espundia Oriental sore	Sodium stibogluconate, amphotericin, pentamidine isetionate
Trichomonas vaginalis	Vaginitis	Metronidazole, tinidazole
Giardia lamblia	Diarrhoea, steatorrhoea	Metronidazole, tinidazole, mepacrine
Sporozoa		
Plasmodium falciparum[b] *Plasmodium vivax* *Plasmodium ovale* *Plasmodium malariae* *Toxoplasma gondii*	Malignant tertian malaria Benign tertian malaria Benign tertian malaria Quartan malaria Encephalitis, congenital malformations, eye disease	Amodiaquine, artemisinin and derivatives, atovaquone, chloroquine, clindamycin, dapsone, doxycycline, lumefantrine, mefloquine, primaquine, proguanil, pyrimethamine, quinine, sulfadoxine, tafenoquine and tetracycline Pyrimethamine-sulfadiazine
Ciliates and others		
Pneumocystis carinii[a]	Pneumonia	Co-trimoxazole, atovaquone, pentamidine isetionate

[a] This organism is of uncertain classification. See text for details and Chapter 52 for further comments. [b] See also Table 53.2.

Host–Parasite Interactions

Mammals have developed very efficient mechanisms for dealing with invading parasites but many parasites have, in turn, evolved clever tactics to evade these defensive responses. One common parasite ploy is to take refuge within the cells of the host, where antibodies cannot reach them. Most protozoa do this, for example *Plasmodia* species take up residence in red cells, *Leishmania* species infect macrophages exclusively, while *Trypanosoma* species invade many other cell types. The host deals with these intracellular fugitives by deploying cytotoxic $CD8^+$ T cells and T helper (Th)1 pathway cytokines, such as interleukin (IL)-2, tumour necrosis factor-α and interferon-γ. These cytokines (see Ch. 17) activate macrophages, which can then kill intracellular parasites.

The Th1 pathway responses can be downregulated by Th2 pathway cytokines (e.g. transforming growth factor-β, IL-4 and IL-10). Some

intracellular parasites have evolved mechanisms for manipulating the Th1/Th2 balance to their own advantage by stimulating the production of Th2 cytokines. For example, the invasion of macrophages by *Leishmania* species induces transforming growth factor-β, while the invasion of T cells, B cells and macrophages by trypanosomes induces IL-10 (see Handman & Bullen, 2002, and Sacks & Toben-Trauth, 2002, for further details). Similar mechanisms operate during worm infestations (see Ch. 54).

Toxoplasma gondii has evolved a different ploy: upregulation of some host responses. The definitive (i.e. where sexual recombination occurs) host of this protozoon is the cat, but humans can inadvertently become intermediate hosts, harbouring the asexual form of the parasite. In humans, *T. gondii* infects numerous cell types and has a highly virulent replicative stage. To ensure that its host survives, it stimulates production of interferon-γ, modulating the host's cell-mediated responses to promote encystment of the parasite in the tissues.

Improved understanding of host–protozoon relationships has opened up new vistas for the development of antiprotozoal agents. The possibility of using cytokine analogues and/or antagonists to treat disease caused by protozoa is already being investigated (for review, see Odeh, 2001).

Malaria and Antimalarial Drugs

Malaria[1] is caused by parasites belonging to the genus *Plasmodium*. Four main species of plasmodia infect humans: *Plasmodium vivax, Plasmodium falciparum, Plasmodium ovale* and *Plasmodium malariae*. The insect vector is the female *Anopheles* mosquito, which breeds in stagnant water, and the disease it spreads is one of the major killers on our planet.

[1]The disease was once considered to arise from marshy land, hence the

Latin name ‘mal aria’, meaning bad or poisonous air.

The statistics are staggering. According to the (2008) World Health Organization (WHO) report, malaria is a significant public health problem in more than 90 countries inhabited by about 50% of the world’s population. In 2006, the disease caused an estimated 880 million acute illnesses each year and nearly 1 million deaths. More than 90% of these occur in sub-Saharan Africa, and it is estimated that the disease kills an African child every 30 seconds. Those who survive may suffer from lasting mental impairment. Other high-risk groups include pregnant women, refugees and labourers entering endemic regions. Malaria also imposes a huge economic burden on countries where the disease is rife.

The symptoms of malaria include fever, shivering, pain in the joints, headache, repeated vomiting, generalised convulsions and coma. Symptoms become apparent only 7–9 days after being bitten by an infected mosquito. By far the most dangerous parasite is *P. falciparum*.

Malaria was eradicated from most temperate countries in the 20th century, and the WHO attempted to eradicate malaria elsewhere using the powerful ‘residual’ insecticides and the highly effective antimalarial drugs, such as **chloroquine**, that had become available. By the end of the 1950s, the incidence of malaria had dropped dramatically. However, during the 1970s it became clear that the attempt at eradication had failed, largely owing to the increasing resistance of the mosquito to the insecticides and of the parasite to the drugs. Sadly, malaria has now re-emerged in several countries where it was previously under control or eradicated. International air travel is responsible for sporadic cases in Western Europe and the USA, where the actual risk of transmission is negligible.[2] 1999 saw the initiation of the *Roll Back Malaria* programme sponsored by a partnership of transnational organisations including the

WHO. While it is unlikely that this programme will achieve all its goals, one encouraging trend has been that the disease has actually begun to decline in some parts of the world following aggressive public health campaigns.

The Life Cycle of the Malaria Parasite

[2]WHO reported 87 cases of ‘airport malaria’ in 12 countries between 1969 and 1999. ‘Weekend malaria’, which occurs when city dwellers in Africa spend weekends in the countryside, is becoming more of a problem.

The mosquito, not the human, is the definitive host for plasmodia, and it has been said that the only function of humans is to enable the parasite to infect more mosquitoes so that further sexual recombination can occur. The life cycle of the parasites consists of a sexual cycle, which takes place in the female *Anopheles* mosquito, and an asexual cycle, which occurs in humans (Fig. 53.1 and the *Malaria* box).

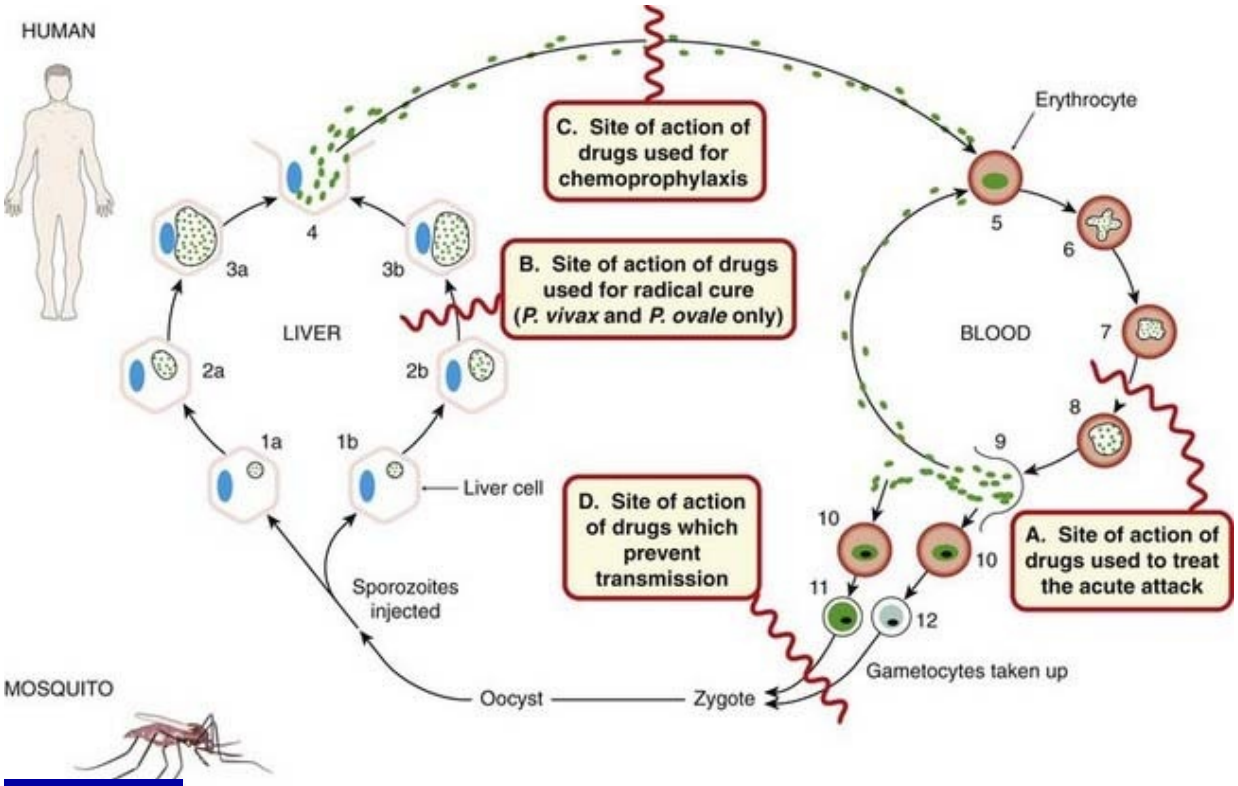


Fig. 53.1 The life cycle of the malarial parasite and the site of action of antimalarial drugs. The pre-or exoerythrocytic cycle in the liver and the erythrocytic cycle in the blood are shown: **1a** Entry of sporozoite into liver cell (the parasite is shown as a small circle containing dots, and the liver cell nucleus as a blue oval). **2a** and **3a** Development of the schizont in liver cell. **4** Rupture of liver cell with release of merozoites (some may enter liver cells to give resting forms of the parasite, hypnozoites). **5** Entry of merozoites into a red cell. **6** Trophozoite in red cell. **7** and **8** Development of schizont in red cell. **9** Rupture of red cell with release of merozoites, most of which parasitise other red cells. **10–12** Entry of merozoites into red cells and development of male and female gametocytes. **1b** Resting form of parasite in liver (hypnozoite). **2b** and **3b** Growth and multiplication of hypnozoites. Sites of drug action are as follow. **A** Drugs used to treat the acute attack (also called 'blood schizonticidal agents' or 'drugs for suppressive or clinical cure'). **B** Drugs that affect the exoerythrocytic hypnozoites and result in a 'radical' cure of *P. vivax* and *P. ovale*. **C** Drugs that block the link between the exoerythrocytic stage and the erythrocytic stage; they are used for chemoprophylaxis (also termed *causal prophylactics*) and prevent the development of malarial attacks. **D** Drugs that prevent transmission and thus prevent increase of the human reservoir of the disease.

Malaria

• Malaria is caused by various species of plasmodia, which are carried by the female *Anopheles*

mosquito. Sporozoites (the asexual form of the parasite) are introduced into the host following insect bite and these develop in the liver into:

– schizonts (the pre-erythrocytic stage), which liberate merozoites—these infect red blood cells, forming motile trophozoites, which, after development, release another batch of erythrocyte-infecting merozoites, causing fever; this constitutes the erythrocytic cycle

– dormant hypnozoites, which may liberate merozoites later (the exoerythrocytic stage).

• The main malarial parasites causing tertian ('every third day') malaria are:

– *P. vivax*, which causes benign tertian malaria

– *P. falciparum*, which causes malignant tertian malaria; unlike *P. vivax*, this plasmodium has no exoerythrocytic stage.

• Some merozoites develop into gametocytes, the sexual forms of the parasite. When ingested by the mosquito, these give rise to further stages of the parasite's life cycle within the insect.

▼ The cycle in the mosquito involves fertilisation of the female gametocyte by the male gametocyte, with the formation of a *zygote*, which develops into an *oocyst* (*sporocyst*). A further stage of division and multiplication takes place, leading to rupture of the sporocyst with release of *sporozoites*, which then migrate to the mosquito's salivary glands and a few enter the human host with the mosquito's bite.

The sporozoites are thus inoculated into the bloodstream. Within 30 min, they disappear from the blood and enter the parenchymal cells of the liver where, during the next 10–14 days, they undergo a *pre-erythrocytic* stage of development and multiplication. At the end of this stage, the parasitised liver cells rupture, and a host of fresh *merozoites* are released. These bind to and enter the red cells of the blood and form motile intracellular parasites termed *trophozoites*. The development and multiplication of the plasmodia within these cells constitutes the *erythrocytic* stage. During maturation within the red cell, the parasite remodels the host cell, inserting parasite proteins and phospholipids into

the red cell membrane. The host's haemoglobin is transported to the parasite's food vacuole, where it is digested providing a source of amino acids. Free haem, which would be toxic to the plasmodium, is rendered harmless by polymerisation to *haemozoin*. Some antimalarial drugs act by inhibiting the haem polymerase enzyme responsible for this step (see below).

▼ Following mitotic replication of its nucleus, the parasite in the red cell is termed a *schizont*, and its rapid growth and division, *schizogony*. Another phase of multiplication results in the production of further merozoites, which are released when the red cell ruptures. These merozoites then bind to and enter fresh red cells, and the erythrocytic cycle begins again. In certain forms of malaria, some sporozoites entering the liver cells form *hypnozoites*, or 'sleeping' forms of the parasite, which can be reactivated months or years later to continue an *exoerythrocytic* cycle of multiplication.

Malaria parasites can multiply in the body at a phenomenal rate—a single parasite of *P. vivax* can give rise to 250 million merozoites in 14 days. To appreciate the action required of an antimalarial drug, note that destruction of 94% of the parasites every 48 h will serve only to maintain equilibrium and will not further reduce their number or their propensity for proliferation. Some merozoites, on entering red cells, differentiate into male and female forms of the parasite, called *gametocytes*. These can complete their cycle only when taken up by the mosquito, when it sucks the blood of the infected host.

The periodic episodes of fever that characterise malaria result from the synchronised rupture of red cells with release of merozoites and cell debris. The rise in temperature is associated with a rise in the concentration of tumour necrosis factor-α in the plasma. Relapses of malaria are likely to occur with those forms of malaria that have an

exoerythrocytic cycle, because the dormant hypnozoite form in the liver may emerge after an interval of weeks or months to start the infection again.

▼ The characteristic presentations of the different forms of human malaria are as follows (see Fig. 53.1 for details):

• *P. falciparum*, which has an erythrocytic cycle of 48 h in humans, produces *malignant tertian malaria*—'tertian' because the fever was believed to recur every third day (actually it varies), 'malignant' because it is the most severe form of malaria and can be fatal. The plasmodium induces adhesion molecules on the infected cells. These parasitised red cells then stick to uninfected red cells, forming clusters (rosettes), and also adhere to and pack the vessels of the microcirculation, interfering with tissue blood flow and causing organ dysfunction including renal failure and encephalopathy (cerebral malaria). *P. falciparum* does not have an exoerythrocytic stage, so if the erythrocytic stage is eradicated, relapses do not occur.

• *P. vivax* produces *benign tertian malaria*—'benign' because it is less severe than falciparum malaria and is rarely fatal. Exoerythrocytic forms may persist for years and cause relapses.

• *P. ovale*, which has a 48 h cycle and an exoerythrocytic stage, is the cause of a rare form of malaria.

• *P. malariae* has a 72 h cycle, causes *quartan malaria* and has no exoerythrocytic cycle.

Individuals living in areas where malaria is endemic may acquire a natural immunity, but this may be lost if the individual is absent from the area for more than 6 months.

The best way to deal with malaria is to prevent mosquito bites and

travellers to infected areas are advised to wear clothes that cover much of the skin and use insect repellents in living, and especially sleeping, areas, because mosquitoes tend to bite between dusk and dawn. Bed nets sprayed with insecticides such as **permethrin** can be very effective.

Antimalarial therapy and the parasite life cycle

Drugs used in the treatment of malaria may have several sites of action:

• Drugs used to treat the acute attack of malaria act on the parasites in the blood; they can cure infections with parasites (e.g. *P. falciparum*) that have no exoerythrocytic stage.

• Drugs used for prophylaxis act on merozoites emerging from liver cells.

• Drugs used for radical cure are active against parasites in the liver.

• Some drugs act on gametocytes and prevent transmission by the mosquito.

Antimalarial Drugs

Some drugs can be used prophylactically to prevent malaria (see Table 53.2), while others are directed towards treating acute attacks. In general, antimalarial drugs are classified in terms of the action against the different stages of the life cycle of the parasite (Fig. 53.1).

Table 53.2 Summary of drugs used for treatment and chemoprophylaxis of malaria[a]

Infections	Typical drug choices for acute attacks	Typical drug choices for chemoprophylaxis
Infection with chloroquine-resistant *Plasmodium falciparum* or with unknown or mixed organisms	Oral quinine plus: proguanil + atovoquone;[b] or artemether + lumefantrine[c]	**Short term (weeks):** atovoquone + proguanil or doxycycline

		Long term (months/years): chloroquine + proguanil or atovoquone + proguanil

[a] It must be appreciated that this is only a summary, not a definitive guide to prescription, as the recommended drug combinations vary depending on the patient, the area visited, the overall risk of infection, the presence of resistant forms of the disease and so on. This information is based on current UK recommendations (source: British National Formulary 2008).

[b] *Malarone* is a proprietary combination of atovoquone and proguanil hydrochloride.

[c] *Riamet* is a proprietary combination of artemether and lumefantrine.

The use of drugs for the treatment of malaria has changed considerably during the last half-century mainly because resistance developed to chloroquine and other successful early drug combinations. Today monotherapy has been abandoned in favour of **artemisinin**-based combination therapy (ACT; see Table 53.3). Only antimalarial drugs in common use are described in this chapter. For a brief summary of currently recommended treatment regimens, see the *Antimalarial drugs* box and Table 53.1. Newton & White (1999) and Baird (2005) give a more detailed coverage of the treatment of malaria around the world.

Table 53.3 Drug targets of antimalarial drugs

Parasite organelle	Target	Chemical class	Drugs
Cytosolic compartment	Inhibit or antagonise folic acid metabolism	Diaminopyridines Biguanides Sulfones Sulfonamides	Pyrimethamine Proguanil Dapsone Sulphadoxine
Mitochondrion	Block electron transport energy production	Hydroxynapthoquinones	Atovaquone, tafenoquine, pyridones
Apicoplast	Block protein synthetic machinery	Tetracyclines and others	Azithromycin, doxycycline, clindamycin other antibiotics
Digestive vacuole	Inhibit the detoxification of haem	Quinolones Aryl amino alcohols	Chloroquine, amodiaquine, mefloquine, quinine Lumefantrine
Membranes ?	Inhibition of Ca^{+}-dependent ATPase	Sesquiterpene lactones	Artemisinin derivatives

After Fidock et al., 2004.

Drugs used to treat the acute attack

Blood schizonticidal agents (Fig. 53.1, site A) are used to treat the acute attack but also produce a 'suppressive' or 'clinical' cure. They act on the erythrocytic forms of the plasmodium. In the case of *P. falciparum* or *P. malariae*, which have no exoerythrocytic stage, these drugs effect a cure; however, with *P. vivax* or *P. ovale*, the drugs suppress the actual attack but exoerythrocytic forms can re-emerge later to cause relapses.

This group of drugs includes:

- **artemesinin** and related compounds derived from the Chinese herb *qing hao*, which are usually used in combination with other drugs
- the *quinoline–methanols* (e.g. **quinine** and **mefloquine**) and various *4-aminoquinolines* (e.g. **chloroquine**)
- agents that interfere either with the synthesis of folate (e.g. **dapsone**) or with its action (e.g. **pyrimethamine** and **proguanil**)
- **atovaquone**, which affects mitochondrial function.

Combinations of these agents are frequently used. Some antibiotics, such as the tetracycline **doxycycline** and **clindamycin** (see Ch. 50), have proved useful when combined with the above agents. They have an

antiparasite effect in their own right but also control other concomitant infections.

Drugs that effect a radical cure

Tissue schizonticidal agents effect a 'radical' cure by eradicating *P. vivax* and *P. ovale* parasites in the liver (Fig. 53.1, site B). Only the 8-aminoquinolines (e.g. **primaquine** and **tafenoquine**) have this action. These drugs also destroy gametocytes and thus reduce the spread of infection.

Drugs used for chemoprophylaxis

Drugs used for chemoprophylaxis (also known as *causal prophylactic* drugs: see Table 53.2) block the link between the exoerythrocytic stage and the erythrocytic stage, and thus prevent the development of malarial attacks. True causal prophylaxis—the prevention of infection by the killing of the sporozoites on entry into the host—is not feasible with present drugs, although it may be feasible in the future with vaccines. Clinical attacks can be prevented by chemoprophylactic drugs that kill the parasites when they emerge from the liver after the pre-erythrocytic stage (Fig. 53.1, site C). The drugs used for this purpose are mainly artemisinin derivatives, chloroquine, **lumefantrine**, mefloquine, proguanil, pyrimethamine, dapsone and doxycycline. They are often used in combinations.

▼ Chemoprophylactic agents are given to individuals who intend travelling to an area where malaria is endemic. Administration should start at least 1 week before entering the area and should be continued throughout the stay and for at least a month afterwards. No chemoprophylactic regimen is 100% effective, and unwanted effects may occur. A further problem is the complexity of the regimens, which require different drugs to be taken at different times, and the fact that

different agents may be required for different travel destinations. For a brief summary of currently recommended regimens of chemoprophylaxis, see Table 53.2.

Drugs used to prevent transmission

Some drugs (e.g. primaquine, proguanil and pyrimethamine) can also destroy gametocytes (Fig. 53.1, site D), preventing transmission by the mosquito and thus diminishing the human reservoir of the disease, although they are rarely used for this action alone.

Table 53.3 summarises what is known about the molecular targets of these drugs and Figure 53.2 shows chemical structures of some significant drugs.

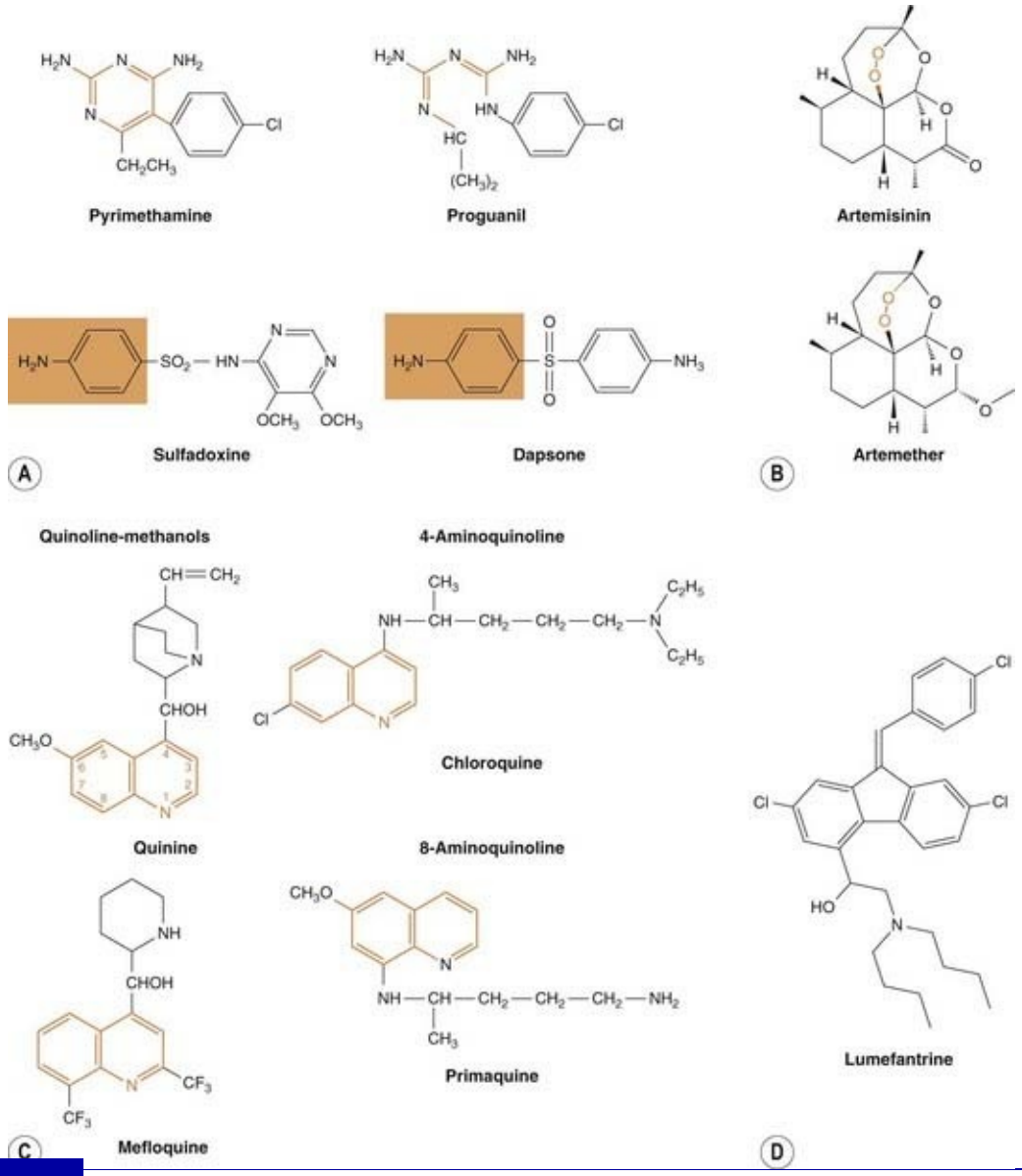


Fig. 53.2 Structures of some significant antimalarial drugs.

[**A**] Drugs that act on the folic acid pathway of the plasmodia. Folate antagonists (pyrimethamine, proguanil) inhibit dihydrofolate reductase; the relationship between these drugs and the pteridine moiety is shown in orange. Sulfones (e.g. dapsone) and sulfonamides (e.g. sulfadoxine) compete with *p*-aminobenzoic acid for dihydropteroate synthetase (relationship shown in orange box; see also Ch. 49). [**B**] Artemisinin and a derivative artemether. Note the endoperoxide bridge structure (in orange box) that is crucial to their action. [**C**] Some quinolone antimalarials. The quinoline moiety is shown in orange. [**D**] The aryl amino alcohol lumefantrine.

Chloroquine

The 4-aminoquinoline chloroquine dates from the 1940s but is still widely used as a blood schizonticidal agent (Fig. 53.1, site A), effective against the erythrocytic forms of all four plasmodial species (where resistance is not an issue), but it does not have any effect on sporozoites, hypnozoites or gametocytes. It is uncharged at neutral pH and can therefore diffuse freely into the parasite lysosome. At the acid pH of the lysosome, it is converted to a protonated, membrane-impermeable form and is 'trapped' inside the parasite. Its chief antimalarial action derives from an inhibition of haem polymerase, the enzyme that polymerises toxic free haem to haemozoin. This poisons the parasite and prevents it from utilising the amino acids from haemoglobin proteolysis. Chloroquine is also used as a disease-modifying antirheumatoid drug (Ch. 26) and also has some quinidine-like actions on the heart. The clinical use of chloroquine is summarised in Tables 53.2 and the *Antimalarial drugs* box.

Resistance

P. falciparum is now resistant to chloroquine in most parts of the world. Resistance appears to result from enhanced efflux of the drug from parasitic vesicles as a result of mutations in plasmodia transporter genes (Baird, 2005). Resistance of *P. vivax* to chloroquine is also a growing problem in many parts of the world.

Administration and pharmacokinetic aspects

Chloroquine is generally administered orally, but severe falciparum malaria may be treated by frequent intramuscular or subcutaneous injection of small doses, or by slow continuous intravenous infusion. Following oral dosing, it is completely absorbed, extensively distributed throughout the tissues and concentrated in parasitised red cells. The free base form of the drug is trapped in the acidic environment in the food

vacuole of the malaria parasites where it disrupts the haemoglobin digestion pathway (Ch. 8). Release from tissues and infected erythrocytes is slow. The drug is metabolised in the liver and excreted in the urine, 70% as unchanged drug and 30% as metabolites. Elimination is slow, the major phase having a half-life of 50 h, and a residue persists for weeks or months.

Unwanted effects

Chloroquine has few adverse effects when given for chemoprophylaxis. However, unwanted effects, including nausea and vomiting, dizziness and blurring of vision, headache and urticarial symptoms, can occur when larger doses are administered to treat acute attacks of malaria. Large doses have also sometimes resulted in retinopathies and hearing loss. Bolus intravenous injections of chloroquine may cause hypotension and, if high doses are used, fatal dysrhythmias. Chloroquine is considered to be safe for use by pregnant women.

Amodiaquine has very similar action to chloroquine. It was withdrawn several years ago because of the risk of agranulocytosis, but has now been reintroduced in several areas of the world where chloroquine resistance is endemic.

Quinine

The methanol quinolone, quinine, is derived from *cinchona* bark. It has been used for the treatment of 'fevers' since the 16th century, when Jesuit missionaries bought the bark to Europe from Peru. It is a blood schizonticidal drug effective against the erythrocytic forms of all four species of plasmodium (Fig. 53.1, site A), but it has no effect on exoerythrocytic forms or on the gametocytes of *P. falciparum*. Its mechanism of action is the same as that of chloroquine, but quinine is not so extensively concentrated in the plasmodium as chloroquine, so

other mechanisms could also be involved. With the emergence and spread of chloroquine resistance, quinine is now the main chemotherapeutic agent for *P. falciparum*. Pharmacological actions on host tissue include a depressant action on the heart, a mild oxytocic effect on the uterus in pregnancy, a slight blocking action on the neuromuscular junction and a weak antipyretic effect. The clinical uses of quinine are given in Table 53.2 and in the *Antimalarial Drugs* box.

Some degree of resistance to quinine is developing because of increased expression of plasmodial drug efflux transporters.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Quinine is well absorbed and is usually administered orally as a 7-day course, but it can also be given by slow intravenous infusion for severe *P. falciparum* infections and in patients who are vomiting. A loading dose may be required, but bolus intravenous administration is contraindicated because of the risk of cardiac dysrhythmias. The half-life of the drug is 10 h; it is metabolised in the liver and the metabolites are excreted in the urine within about 24 h.

Unwanted effects

Quinine has a bitter taste, and oral compliance is often poor.[3] It is irritant to the gastric mucosa and can cause nausea and vomiting. 'Cinchonism'—characterised by nausea, dizziness, tinnitus, headache and blurring of vision—is likely to occur if the plasma concentration exceeds 30–60 μmol/l. Excessive plasma levels may also cause hypotension, cardiac dysrhythmias and severe CNS disturbances such as delirium and coma.

[3]Hence the invention of palatable drinks containing the drug, including, of course, the famous 'tonic' drunk together with gin and

other beverages.

Other, infrequent, unwanted reactions that have been reported are bone marrow depression (mainly thrombocytopenia) and hypersensitivity reactions. Quinine can stimulate insulin release. Patients with marked falciparum parasitaemia can have low blood sugar for this reason and also because of glucose consumption by the parasite. This can make a differential diagnosis between a coma caused by cerebral malaria and hypoglycaemia difficult. A rare result of treating malaria with quinine, or of erratic and inappropriate use of quinine, is *Blackwater fever*, a severe and often fatal condition in which acute haemolytic anaemia is associated with renal failure.

Mefloquine

Mefloquine (Fig. 53.2) is a blood schizonticidal compound active against *P. falciparum* and *P. vivax* (Fig. 53.1, site A); however, it has no effect on hepatic forms of the parasites, so treatment of *P. vivax* infections should be followed by a course of primaquine (see below) to eradicate the hypnozoites. Mefloquine acts in the same way as quinine, and is frequently combined with pyrimethamine.

Resistance has occurred in *P. falciparum* in some areas—particularly in South-east Asia—and is thought to be caused, as with quinine, by increased expression in the parasite of drug efflux transporters. The clinical use of mefloquine is given in Table 53.2 and the *Antimalarial drugs* box.

Pharmacokinetic aspects and unwanted effects

Mefloquine is given orally and is rapidly absorbed. It has a slow onset of action and a very long plasma half-life (up to 30 days), which may be the result of enterohepatic cycling or tissue storage.

When mefloquine is used for treatment of the acute attack, about 50% of subjects complain of gastrointestinal disturbances. Transient CNS side effects—giddiness, confusion, dysphoria and insomnia—can occur, and there have been a few reports of aberrant atrioventricular conduction and serious, but rare, skin diseases. Rarely, mefloquine may provoke severe neuropsychiatric reactions. Mefloquine is contraindicated in pregnant women or in those liable to become pregnant within 3 months of stopping the drug, because of its long half-life and uncertainty about its teratogenic potential. When used for chemoprophylaxis, the unwanted actions are usually milder, but the drug should not be used in this way unless there is a high risk of acquiring chloroquine-resistant malaria.

Lumefantrine

This aryl amino alcohol drug is related to an older compound, **halofantrine**, which is now seldom used. Lumefantrine is never used alone but in combination with **artemether**. Its mode of action is probably to prevent parasite detoxification of haem. The pharmacokinetics of the combination is complex and the reader is referred to Ezzet et al., 1998, for more details. *Unwanted effects* of the combination may include gastrointestinal and CNS symptoms.

Drugs Affecting Folate Metabolism

Sulfonamides and sulfones, used as antibacterial drugs (see Ch. 50) inhibit the synthesis of folate by competing with *p*-aminobenzoic acid. **Pyrimethamine** and **proguanil** inhibit *dihydrofolate reductase,* which prevents the utilisation of folate in DNA synthesis. Used together, they block the folate pathway at different points, and thus act synergistically.

The main sulfonamide used in malaria treatment is **sulfadoxine**, and the only sulfone used is **dapsone** (see Fig. 53.3). Details of these drugs

are given in Chapter 50. The sulfonamides and sulfones are active against the erythrocytic forms of *P. falciparum* but are less active against those of *P. vivax*; they have no activity against the sporozoite or hypnozoite forms of the plasmodia. Pyrimethamine–sulfadoxine has been extensively used for chloroquine-resistant malaria, but resistance to this combination has developed in many areas.

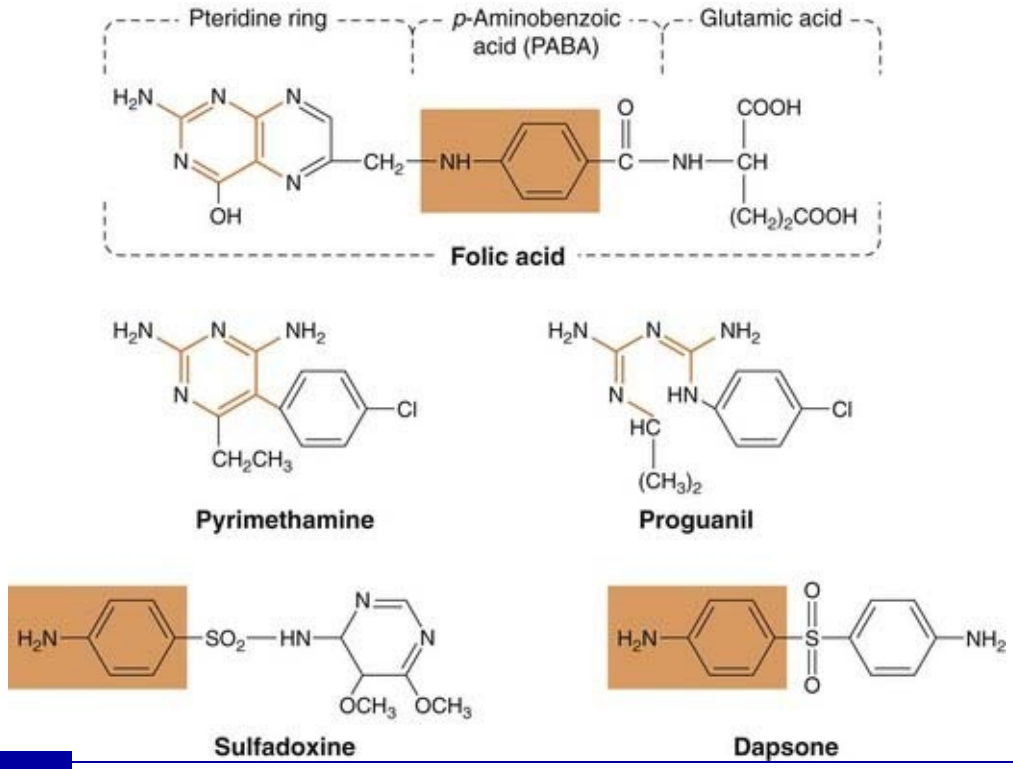


Fig. 53.3 Structures of some antimalarial drugs that act on the folic acid pathway of the plasmodia.

Folate antagonists (pyrimethamine, proguanil) inhibit dihydrofolate reductase; the relationship between these drugs and the pteridine moiety is shown in orange. Sulfones (e.g. dapsone) and sulfonamides (e.g. sulfadoxine) compete with *p*-aminobenzoic acid for dihydropteroate synthetase (relationship shown in orange box).

Pyrimethamine (see Fig. 53.3) is similar in structure to the antibacterial drug **trimethoprim** (see Ch. 50). Proguanil has a slightly different structure (see Fig. 53.3) but its metabolite can assume a similar configuration. Both drugs have a greater affinity for the plasmodial

enzyme than for the human enzyme. They have a slow action against the erythrocytic forms of the parasite (Fig. 53.1, site A), and proguanil is believed to have an additional effect on the initial hepatic stage (1a to 3a in Fig. 53.1) but not on the hypnozoites of *P. vivax* (Fig. 53.1, site B). Pyrimethamine is used only in combination with either a sulfone or a sulfonamide.

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Both pyrimethamine and proguanil are given orally and are well, although slowly, absorbed. Pyrimethamine has a plasma half-life of 4 days, and effective 'suppressive' plasma concentrations may last for 14 days; it is taken once a week. The half-life of proguanil is 16 h. It is a prodrug and is metabolised in the liver to its active form, cycloguanil, which is excreted mainly in the urine. It must be taken daily.

Unwanted effects

These drugs have few untoward effects in therapeutic doses. Larger doses of the pyrimethamine–dapsone combination can cause serious reactions such as haemolytic anaemia, agranulocytosis and lung inflammation. The pyrimethamine–sulfadoxine combination can cause serious skin reactions, blood dyscrasias and allergic alveolitis; it is no longer recommended for chemoprophylaxis. In high doses, pyrimethamine may inhibit mammalian dihydrofolate reductase and cause a megaloblastic anaemia (see Ch. 25) and folic acid supplements should be given if this drug is used during pregnancy. Resistance to antifolate drugs arises from single-point mutations in the genes encoding parasite dihydrofolate reductase.

Primaquine

Primaquine is an 8-aminoquinoline drug, which is (almost uniquely

among clinically available antimalarial drugs) active against liver hypnozoites (see Fig. 53.2). **Etaquine** and **tafenoquine** are more active and slowly metabolised analogues of primaquine. These drugs can effect a radical cure of *P. vivax* and *P. ovale* malaria in which the parasites have a dormant stage in the liver. Primaquine does not affect sporozoites and has little if any action against the erythrocytic stage of the parasite. However, it has a gametocidal action and is the most effective antimalarial drug for *preventing transmission* of the disease in all four species of plasmodia. It is almost invariably used in combination with another drug, usually chloroquine. Resistance to primaquine is rare, although evidence of a decreased sensitivity of some *P. vivax* strains has been reported. The pharmacology of primaquine and similar drugs has been reviewed by Shanks *et al.* (2001).

Pharmacokinetic aspects

Primaquine is given orally and is well absorbed. Its metabolism is rapid, and very little drug is present in the body after 10–12 h. The half-life is 3–6 h. Tafenoquine is metabolised much more slowly and therefore has the advantage that it can be given on a weekly basis.

Unwanted effects

Primaquine has few unwanted effects in most patients when used in normal therapeutic dosage. Dose-related gastrointestinal symptoms can occur, and large doses may cause methaemoglobinaemia with cyanosis.

Primaquine can cause haemolysis in individuals with the X chromosome-linked genetic metabolic condition, *glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency*, in red cells (Ch. 11). When this deficiency is present, the red cells are not able to regenerate NADPH, which is depleted by the oxidant metabolic derivatives of primaquine. As a consequence, the metabolic functions of the red cells are impaired and

haemolysis occurs. The deficiency of the enzyme occurs in up to 15% of black males and is also fairly common in some other ethnic groups. Glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase activity should be estimated before giving primaquine.

Artemesinin and Related Compounds

These sesquiterpene lactones are derived from the herb *qing hao*, a traditional Chinese remedy for malaria. The scientific name, conferred on the herb by Linnaeus, is *Artemisia*.[4] Artemisinin, a poorly soluble chemical extract from *Artemisia*, is a fast-acting blood schizonticide effective in treating the acute attack of malaria (including chloroquine-resistant and cerebral malaria). **Artesunate**, a water-soluble derivative, and the synthetic analogues **artemether** and **artether**, have higher activity and are better absorbed. The compounds are concentrated in parasitised red cells. The mechanism of action is probably through inhibition of a parasite Ca^+-dependent ATPase (Eckstein-Ludwig et al., 2003) and it is likely that the 'endoperoxide bridge' of this drug (see Fig. 53.2) has to be 'activated' in the presence of intracellular iron before it can exert its effects. These drugs are without effect on liver hypnozoites. Artemisinin can be given orally, intramuscularly or by suppository, artemether orally or intramuscularly, and artesunate intramuscularly or intravenously. They are rapidly absorbed and widely distributed, and are converted in the liver to the active metabolite dihydroartemisinin. The half-life of artemisinin is about 4 h, of artesunate 45 min and of artemether 4–11 h.

[4]Having been used for thousands of years in China as a herbal extract for treating 'fevers', the active compound artemsinin was isolated by Chinese chemists in 1972. This was ignored in the West for more than 10 years, until the WHO recognised its importance, and in 2002 placed it on

the WHO ‘essential drugs’ list for malaria treatment. The herbs are noted for their extreme bitterness, and their name derives from *Artemisia*, wife and sister of the fourth century king of Halicarnassus; her sorrow on his death led her to mix his ashes with whatever she drank to make it bitter.

There have been few unwanted effects reported to date. Transient heart block, decrease in blood neutrophil count and brief episodes of fever have been reported. In animal studies, artemisinin causes an unusual injury to some brain stem nuclei, particularly those involved in auditory function; however, there have been no reported incidences of neurotoxicity in humans. So far, resistance has not been a problem, but recent reports suggest that it is developing in some countries.

In rodent studies, artemisinin potentiated the effects of mefloquine, primaquine and tetracycline, was additive with chloroquine and antagonised the sulfonamides and the folate antagonists. For this reason, artemisinin derivatives are frequently used in combination with other antimalarial drugs; for example, artemether is often given in combination with lumefantrine.

In randomised trials, the *qinghaosu* compounds have cured attacks of malaria, including cerebral malaria, more rapidly and with fewer unwanted effects than other antimalarial agents. Artemisinin and derivatives are effective against multidrug-resistant *P. falciparum* in sub-Saharan Africa and, combined with mefloquine, against multidrug-resistant *P. falciparum* in South-east Asia.

Atavoquone

Atavoquone is a hydroxynaphthoquinone drug used prophylactically to prevent malaria, and to treat cases resistant to other drugs. It acts primarily to inhibit the parasite’s mitochondrial electron transport chain, possibly by mimicking the natural substrate *ubiquinone*. Atavoquone is

usually used in combination with the antifolate drug proguanil, because they act synergistically. The mechanism underlying this synergism is not known, but it is specific for this particular pair of drugs, because other antifolate drugs or electron transport inhibitors have no such synergistic effect. When combined with proguanil, atavoquone is highly effective and well tolerated. Few unwanted effects of such combination treatment have been reported, but abdominal pain, nausea and vomiting can occur. Pregnant or breastfeeding women should not take atavoquone. Resistance to atavoquone alone is rapid and results from a single point mutation in the gene for cytochrome b. Resistance to combined treatment with atavoquone and proguanil is less common.

Potential New Antimalarial Drugs

Several new drugs are currently under test for antimalarial activity, with positive results in animals and in preliminary trials in humans. One of these, **pyronaridine**, has shown encouraging results. It is active against *P. falciparum* and *P. vivax*, and is also active in chloroquine-resistant *P. falciparum*. It is effective orally and has low toxicity. The mechanism of action is unknown. Other novel agents are reviewed by Lanteri *et al.* (2007).

In 2002, the results from the malaria genome sequencing project were published and it is highly likely that this information will eventually yield new candidate drugs with novel actions. A group of cysteine proteases used by the parasite to digest haem seems to be one attractive target that is currently receiving attention.

Given the extraordinary lifestyle of the malarial parasite with its many forms both inside and outside cells, the challenges facing vaccine developers are enormous. Nevertheless, there is cause for optimism, and a large-scale trial of the first candidate vaccine began in 2009.

Discussion of this topic is beyond this chapter but further details may be found in Greenwood *et al.* (2008).

Antimalarial drugs

• **Chloroquine** is a blood schizonticide that is concentrated in the parasite and inhibits the haem polymerase. Orally active; half-life 50 h. Unwanted effects: gastrointestinal disturbances, dizziness and urticaria. Bolus intravenous injections can cause dysrhythmias. Resistance is now common.

• **Quinine** is a blood schizonticide. It may be given orally or intravenously; half-life 10 h. Unwanted effects: gastrointestinal tract disturbances, tinnitus, blurred vision and, in large doses, dysrhythmias and central nervous system disturbances. It is usually given in combination therapy with:

– **pyrimethamine**, a folate antagonist that acts as a slow blood schizonticide (orally active; half-life 4 days), and either

– **dapsone**, a sulfone (orally active; half-life 24–48 h), or

– **sulfadoxine**, a long-acting sulfonamide (orally active; half-life 7–9 days).

• **Proguanil**, a folate antagonist, is a slow blood schizonticide with some action on the primary liver forms of *P. vivax*. Orally active; half-life 16 h.

• **Mefloquine** is a blood schizonticidal agent active against *P. falciparum* and *P. vivax*, and acts by inhibiting the parasite haem polymerase. Orally active; half-life 30 days. The onset of action is slow. Unwanted effects: gastrointestinal disturbances, neurotoxicity and psychiatric problems.

• **Primaquine** is effective against the liver hypnozoites and is also active against gametocytes. Orally active; half-life 36 h. Unwanted effects: gastrointestinal tract disturbances and, with large doses, methaemoglobinaemia. Erythrocyte haemolysis in individuals with genetic deficiency of glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase.

• **Artemisinin** derivatives are now widely used particularly in combination with other drugs such as **lumefantrine**. They are fast-acting blood schizonticidal agents that are effective against both *P. falciparum* and *P. vivax*.

• **Artesunate** is water soluble and can be given orally or by intravenous, intramuscular or rectal administration. Side effects are rare. Resistance is so far uncommon.

• **Atavoquone** (in combination with proguanil) is used for prevention, and for the treatment of, acute uncomplicated *P. falciparum* malaria. The drug combination is effective orally. It is given at regular intervals over 3 to 4 days. Unwanted effects: diarrhoea, nausea and vomiting. Resistance to atavoquone develops rapidly if it is given alone.

Amoebiasis and Amoebicidal Drugs

The main organism in this group to concern us here is *Entamoeba histolytica*, the causative agent of *amoebiasis*, which may manifest as a severe colitis (*dysentery*) and, sometimes, liver abscesses.

▼ The infection is encountered around the world, but more often in warmer climates. Approximately 500 million people are thought to harbour the disease, with 40 000–100 000 deaths occurring each year as a result (Stanley, 2003). It is considered to be the second leading cause of death from parasitic diseases worldwide.

The organism has a simple life cycle, and humans are the chief hosts. Infection, generally spread by poor hygiene, follows the ingestion of the mature cysts in water or food that is contaminated with human faeces. The infectious cysts pass into the colon, where they develop into *trophozoites*. These motile organisms adhere to colonic epithelial cells, utilising a galactose-containing lectin on the host cell membrane. Here, the trophozoites feed, multiply, encyst and eventually pass out in the faeces, thus completing their life cycle. Some individuals are symptomless ‘carriers’ and harbour the parasite without developing

overt disease, but cysts are present in their faeces and they can infect other individuals. The cysts can survive outside the body for at least a week in a moist and cool environment.

The trophozoite lyses the colonic mucosal cells (hence 'histolytica') using *amoebapores* (peptides that form pores in cell membranes) and proteases or by inducing host cell apoptosis. The organism then invades the submucosa, where it secretes factors that modify the host response, which would otherwise prove lethal to the parasite. It is this process that produces the characteristic bloody diarrhoea and abdominal pain, although in many subjects a chronic intestinal infection may be present in the absence of dysentery. In some subjects, an amoebic granuloma (*amoeboma*) may be present in the intestinal wall. The trophozoites may also migrate through the damaged intestinal tissue into the portal blood and hence the liver, giving rise to the most common extraintestinal symptom of the disease—amoebic liver abscesses.

The use of drugs to treat this condition (see *Drugs used in amoebiasis* box) depends largely on the site and type of infection. The drugs of choice for the various forms of amoebiasis are:

- **metronidazole** (or **tinidazole**) followed by **diloxanide** for acute invasive intestinal amoebiasis resulting in acute severe amoebic dysentery
- diloxanide for chronic intestinal amoebiasis
- metronidazole followed by diloxanide for hepatic amoebiasis
- diloxanide for the carrier state.

These agents are often used in combination.

Metronidazole

Metronidazole kills the trophozoites of *E. histolytica* but has no effect on the cysts. It is the drug of choice for invasive amoebiasis of the intestine or the liver, but it is less effective against organisms in the lumen of the gut. Metronidazole is activated by anaerobic organisms to a compound that damages parasite DNA, leading to parasite apoptosis.

Metronidazole is usually given orally and is rapidly and completely absorbed. Rectal and intravenous preparations are also available. It is distributed rapidly throughout the tissues, reaching high concentrations in the body fluids, including the cerebrospinal fluid. Some is metabolised, but most is excreted in urine.

Unwanted effects are mild. The drug has a metallic, bitter taste in the mouth but causes few unwanted effects in therapeutic doses. Minor gastrointestinal disturbances have been reported, as have central nervous system (CNS) symptoms (dizziness, headache, sensory neuropathies). Metronidazole causes a disulfiram-like reaction to alcohol (see Ch. 48), which should be strictly avoided. Metronidazole should not be used in pregnancy.

Tinidazole is similar to metronidazole in its mechanism of action and unwanted effects, but is eliminated more slowly, having a half-life of 12–14 h.

Diloxanide

Diloxanide or, more commonly an insoluble ester, **diloxanide furoate**, are the drugs of choice for the asymptomatic infected patient, and are often given as a follow-up after the disease has been reversed with metronidazole. Both drugs have a direct amoebicidal action, affecting the parasites before encystment. Diloxanide furoate is given orally, and acts without being absorbed. Unwanted gastrointestinal or other effects may be seen but it has an excellent safety profile.

Other drugs that are sometimes used include the antibiotic **paromomycin**.

Drugs used in amoebiasis

Amoebiasis is caused by infection with *E. histolytica*, which causes dysentery and liver abscesses. The organism may be present in motile invasive form or as a cyst. The main drugs are:

• **Metronidazole** given orally (half-life 7 h). Active against the invasive form in gut and liver but not the cysts. Unwanted effects (rare); gastrointestinal disturbances and central nervous system symptoms. **Tinidazole** is similar.

• **Diloxanide** is given orally with no serious unwanted effects. It is active, while unabsorbed, against the non-invasive form in the gastrointestinal tract.

Trypanosomiasis and TRYPANOCIDAL Drugs

Trypanosomes belong to the group of pathogenic flagellate protozoa. The three main species that cause disease in humans are *Trypanosoma gambiense* and *Trypanosoma rhodesiense*, which cause sleeping sickness in Africa, and *Trypanosoma cruzi*, which causes Chagas' disease in South America. About 50–60 million people are thought by the WHO to be at risk of contracting sleeping sickness each year. The disease caused by *T. rhodesiense* is the more aggressive form. Civil unrest, famine and AIDS encourage the spread of the disease by reducing the chances of distributing medication or because patients are immunocompromised, but despite this, improved surveillance has resulted in a recent reduction in the total number of new cases reported. Related trypanosome infections also pose a major risk to livestock and thus have a secondary impact on human health and well-being.

▼ The vector is the tsetse fly. In both types of disease, there is an

initial local lesion at the site of entry, which may (in the case of *T. rhodesiense*) develop into a painful chancre (ulcer or sore). This is followed by bouts of parasitaemia and fever as the parasite enters the haemolymphatic system. The parasites and the toxins they release during the second phase of the disease cause organ damage. This manifests as 'sleeping sickness' when parasites reach the CNS causing somnolence and progressive neurological breakdown, or 'Chagas' disease' when parasites damage the heart, muscles and sometimes liver, spleen, bone and intestine. Left untreated, such infections are fatal.

The main drugs used for African sleeping sickness are **suramin**, with **pentamidine** as an alternative, in the haemolymphatic stage of the disease, and the arsenical **melarsoprol** for the late stage with CNS involvement and **eflornithine** (see Burchmore et al., 2002; Burri & Brun, 2003). All are toxic. **Nifurtimox**, eflornithine and **benznidazole** are used in Chagas' disease: however, there is no totally effective treatment for this form of trypanosomiasis.

Suramin

Suramin was introduced into the therapy of trypanosomiasis in 1920. The drug binds firmly to host plasma proteins, and the complex enters the trypanosome by endocytosis from where it is liberated by lysosomal proteases. It inhibits key parasite enzymes inducing gradual destruction of organelles, such that the organisms are cleared from the circulation after a short interval.

The drug is given by slow intravenous injection. The blood concentration drops rapidly during the first few hours and then more slowly over the succeeding days. A residual concentration remains for 3–4 months. Suramin tends to accumulate in mononuclear phagocytes, and in the cells of the proximal tubule in the kidney.

Unwanted effects are common. Suramin is relatively toxic, particularly in a malnourished patient, the main organ affected being the kidney. Many other slowly developing adverse effects have been reported including optic atrophy, adrenal insufficiency, skin rashes, haemolytic anaemia and agranulocytosis. A small proportion of individuals have an immediate idiosyncratic reaction to suramin injection that may include nausea, vomiting, shock, seizures and loss of consciousness.

Pentamidine

Pentamidine has a direct trypanocidal action in vitro. It is rapidly taken up in the parasites by a high-affinity energy-dependent carrier and is thought to interact with their DNA. The drug is administered intravenously or by deep intramuscular injection, usually daily for 10–15 days. After absorption from the injection site, it binds strongly to tissues (especially the kidney) and is eliminated slowly, only 50% of a dose being excreted over 5 days. Fairly high concentrations of the drug persist in the kidney, the liver and the spleen for several months, but it does not penetrate the blood–brain barrier. It is also active in *Pneumocystis* pneumonia (Ch. 50). Its usefulness is limited by its unwanted effects—an immediate decrease in blood pressure, with tachycardia, breathlessness and vomiting, and later serious toxicity, such as kidney damage, hepatic impairment, blood dyscrasias and hypoglycaemia.

Melarprosol

This is an organic arsenical compound that is used mainly when the CNS is involved. It is given intravenously and enters the CNS in high concentrations where it is able to kill the parasite. It is a highly toxic drug that produces many unwanted effects including encephalopathy and, sometimes, immediate fatality. As such, it is only administered under strict supervision.

Eflornithine

A relatively new drug, eflornithine inhibits the parasite *ornithine decarboxylase* enzyme. It shows good activity against *T. gambiense* and is used as a back-up for melarsoprol, although unfortunately it has limited activity against *T. rhodesiense*. Side effects are common and may be severe, but are readily reversed when treatment is discontinued.

There is an urgent need for new agents to treat trypanasome infections, partly because of the toxicity of existing drugs and partly because of developing drug resistance. The recent publication of the complete genome sequence of some trypanasome species has led to optimism that new agents may be forthcoming in the medium term. The interested reader is referred to Gehrig & Efferth, 2008; Kennedy, 2008; and Myler, 2008 for recent accounts of these opportunities.

Other Protozoal Infections and Drugs Used To Treat Them

Leishmaniasis

Leishmania organisms are flagellate protozoa that cause disease (sometimes fatal). Some 350 million people in 90 countries are at risk, mainly in tropical and subtropical regions. The disease afflicts about 12 million people: there are about 2 million new cases each year of which some 60 000 die. With increasing international travel, leishmaniasis is being imported into new areas and opportunistic infections are now being reported (particularly in AIDS patients).

▼ The vector in this case is the sandfly, and the parasite exists in two forms, a flagellated form (*promastigote*) found in the gut of the infected insect, and a non-flagellated intracellular form (*amastigote*) that occurs in the infected mammalian host, where it is harboured by mononuclear phagocytes. Within this cell, the parasites thrive in modified

phagolysosomes and protect themselves from the usual intracellular killing mechanisms by modifying the macrophage's microbiocidal systems, apparently by deploying a lipophosphoglycan on their surface (Handman & Bullen, 2002). The amastigotes multiply, and eventually the infected cell releases a new crop of parasites into the haemolymphatic system, where they can infect further macrophages and possibly other cells.

The different species of Leishmania occur in different geographical zones and cause different clinical manifestations (see Table 53.1). Typical presentations include:

- a simple skin infection giving rise to an unpleasant chancre ('oriental sore', 'Chiclero's ulcer' and other names) that may heal spontaneously
- a mucocutaneous form ('espundia' and other names), in which there may be large ulcers of the mucous membranes
- a serious visceral form ('kala-azar' and other names), where the parasite spreads through the bloodstream and causes hepatomegaly, splenomegaly, anaemia and intermittent fever.

The main drugs used in visceral leishmaniasis are pentavalent antimony compounds such as **sodium stibogluconate**, pentamidine (see above) and amphotericin (see Ch. 52), which is sometimes used as a follow-up treatment. **Miltefosine**, an antitumour drug, which has been used with success to treat the disease, is also used in some countries (not UK), as is **meglumine antimoniate**.

Sodium stibogluconate is given intramuscularly or by slow intravenous injection in a 10-day course. It is rapidly eliminated in the urine, 70% being excreted within 6 h. More than one course of treatment may be required.

Unwanted effects include anorexia, vomiting, bradycardia and hypotension. Coughing and substernal pain may occur during intravenous infusion. Treatment may also be associated with increased incidence of herpes zoster. The mechanism of action of sodium stibogluconate is not clear, but the drug may increase production of toxic oxygen free radicals in the parasite.

Miltefosine (hexadecylphosphocholine) is also effective in the treatment of both cutaneous and visceral leishmaniasis. The drug may be given orally and is well tolerated. Side effects are mild and include nausea and vomiting. In vitro, the drug induces DNA fragmentation and apoptosis in the parasites (Verma & Dey, 2004).

Other drugs such as antibiotics and antifungals may be given concomitantly with the above agents. They may have some action on the parasite in their own right, but their main utility is to control the spread of secondary infections. Current drug usage and possible future approaches to the treatment of leishmaniasis are discussed by Mishra *et al.* (2007). The publication of complete leishmania genomes will initiate a major effort to discover novel parasite-specific pathways that could serve as useful drug targets (see Kumari et al., 2008).

There is no effective vaccine for leishmaniasis.

Trichomoniasis

The principal *Trichomonas* organism that produces disease in humans is *T. vaginalis*. Virulent strains cause inflammation of the vagina and sometimes of the urethra in males. The main drug used in therapy is **metronidazole** (Ch. 50), although resistance to this drug is on the increase. High doses of **tinidazole** are also effective, with few side effects.

Giardiasis

Giardia lamblia colonises the upper gastrointestinal tract in its trophozoite form, and the cysts pass out in the faeces. Infection is then spread by ingestion of food or water contaminated with faecal matter containing the cysts. It is encountered worldwide, and epidemics caused by bad sanitation are not uncommon. **Metronidazole** is the drug of choice, and treatment is usually very effective. **Tinidazole** or **mepacrine** may be used as an alternative.

Toxoplasmosis

Toxoplasma organisms belong to the group of pathogenic Sporozoa. The cat is the definitive host of *Toxoplasma gondii* (i.e. it is the only host in which the sexual cycle can occur), and expels the infectious cysts in its faeces; humans can inadvertently become intermediate hosts, harbouring the asexual form of the parasite. Ingested oocysts develop into sporozoites, then to trophozoites, and finally encyst in the tissues. In most individuals, the disease is asymptomatic or self-limiting, although intrauterine infections can severely damage the developing fetus and it may cause fatal generalised infection in immunosuppressed patients or those with AIDS, in whom toxoplasmic encephalitis may occur. In humans, *T. gondii* infects numerous cell types and has a highly virulent replicative stage.

The treatment of choice is **pyrimethamine–sulfadiazine** (to be avoided in pregnant patients); **trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole** (co-trimoxazole, see Ch. 50) or combinations of **pyrimethamine** with **clindamycin**, **clarithromycin** or **azithromycin** (see Ch. 50) have shown promise.

Pneumocystis

First recognised in 1909, *Pneumocystis carinii* (now known as *P. jirovecii*; see also Ch. 52) was presumed to belong to the protozoa, but recent studies have shown that it shares structural features with both protozoa and fungi, leaving its precise classification uncertain. Previously considered to be a widely distributed but largely innocuous microorganism, it is now recognised as a cause of opportunistic infections in immunocompromised patients. It is common in AIDS, where *P. carinii* pneumonia is often the presenting symptom as well as a leading cause of death.

High-dose **co-trimoxazole** (Ch. 49) is the drug of choice in serious cases, with parenteral pentamidine (see above) as an alternative. Treatment of milder forms of the disease (or prophylaxis) can be effected with atovaquone, trimethoprim–dapsone, or clindamycin–primaquine combinations.

Future Developments

This field is a huge challenge, with each protozoa species posing its own distinct problems to the would-be designer of new antiprotozoal drugs. Where appropriate in this chapter, we have indicated possible future avenues for research and development, but the interested reader is referred to the reading list and Web sites listed below for further information.

It is abundantly clear that the diseases caused by the protozoa constitute a major global challenge, but the problems of provision and distribution of new drugs are daunting. Managing the costs of research and development in this area is complex. Transnational initiatives (e.g. *Medicines for Malaria Venture* and *Institute for OneWorld Health*) are now major players in the development of new medicines for protozoal diseases. But it is not simply a lack of new drugs that is the problem: for

economic reasons, the countries and populations most affected often lack an efficient infrastructure for the distribution and safe administration of the drugs that we already possess. Cultural attitudes, civil wars, famine, the circulation of counterfeit or defective drugs, drought and natural disasters also exacerbate this problem.

References and Further Reading

Host–parasite interactions

renier-Pinchart M.-P., Pelloux H., Derouich-Guergour D., *et al.* Chemokines in host–parasite interactions. *Trends Parasitol.*. 2001;17:292-296. (*Good review of role of immune system*)

Malaria

shley E.A., White N.J. Artemisinin based combinations. *Curr. Opin. Infect. Dis.*. 2005;18:531-536. (*This review details the results of successful clinical trials of artemisinin combinations in South-east Asia*)

aird J.K. Effectiveness of antimalarial drugs. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;352:1565-1577. (*An excellent overview covering many aspects of drug therapy, drug resistance and the socioeconomic factors affecting the treatment of this disease—thoroughly recommended*)

ckstein-Ludwig U., Webb R.J., Van Goethem I.D., *et al.* Artemisinins target the SERCA of *Plasmodium falciparum*. *Nature*. 2003;424:957-961. (*Research paper that elucidates the site of action of artemisinin drugs*)

zzet F., Mull R., Karbwang J. Population pharmacokinetics and therapeutic response of CGP 56697 (artemether + benflumetol) in malaria patients. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 1998;46:553-561. (*Deals with the pharmacokinetics of this increasingly important combination therapy*)

idock D.A., Rosenthal P.J., Croft S.L., *et al.* Antimalarial drug discovery: efficacy models for compound screening. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.*. 2004;3:509-520. (*Useful review dealing with mechanisms of antimalarial drug action and new concepts for screening future candidates*)

oley M., Tilley L. Quinoline antimalarials: mechanisms of action and resistance. *Int. J. Parasitol.*.

1997;27:231-240. (*Good, short review; useful diagrams*)

reenwood B.M., Fidock D.A., Kyle D.E., *et al.* Malaria: progress, perils, and prospects for eradication. *J. Clin. Invest.*. 2008;118:1266-1276. (*Good overview of the disease, its current and future treatment*)

anteri C.A., Johnson J.D., Waters N.C. Recent advances in malaria drug discovery. *Recent. Pat. Antiinfect. Drug Discov.*. 2007;2:95-114. (*This comprehensive review focuses mainly upon chemical leads but also has a good section on drug targets and ways of optimising existing therapies*)

ewton P., White N. Malaria: new developments in treatment and prevention. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 1999;50:179-192. (*Excellent review of drug treatment and management of malaria*)

'Brien C. Beating the malaria parasite at its own game. *Lancet*. 1997;350:192. (*Clear, succinct coverage of mechanisms of action and resistance of current antimalarials and potential new drugs; useful diagram*)

deh M. The role of tumour necrosis factor-alpha in the pathogenesis of complicated falciparum malaria. *Cytokine*. 2001;14:11-18.

hanks G.D., Kain K.C., Keystone J.S. Malaria chemoprophylaxis in the age of drug resistance. II. Drugs that may be available in the future. *Clin. Infect. Dis.*. 2001;33:381-385. (*A useful look ahead to new drugs*)

Amoebiasis

aque R., Huston C.D., Hughes M., *et al.* Amebiasis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2003;348:1565-1573. (*Good review; concentrates on the pathogenesis of the disease but has a useful table of drugs and their side effects*)

tanley S.L. Pathophysiology of amoebiasis. *Trends. Parasitol.*. 2001;17:280-285. (*A good account of the human disease that incorporates some results from animal models also*)

tanley S.L. Amoebiasis. *Lancet*. 2003;361:1025-1034. (*Comprehensive and easy-to-read account of this disease, covering all aspects from diagnosis to treatment. Excellent*)

Trypanosomiasis

ksoy S., Gibson W.C., Lehane M.J. Interactions between tsetse and trypanosomes with implications for the control of trypanosomiasis. *Adv. Parasitol.*. 2003;53:1-83. (*A very substantial and comprehensive article covering the biology of the tsetse fly, which also discusses alternative methods from controlling the insect population. Less good on drug therapy, but if you are interested in the biology of the insect vector of trypanosomiasis, then this is for you*)

urchmore R.J., Ogbunude P.O., Enanga B., Barrett M.P. Chemotherapy of human African trypanosomiasis. *Curr. Pharm. Des.*. 2002;8:256-267. (*Very good concise article; nice discussion of future therapeutic possibilities*)

urri C., Brun R. Eflornithine for the treatment of human African trypanosomiasis. *Parasitol. Res.*. 2003;90(Suppl. 1):S49-S52. (*The title is self-explanatory*)

enise H., Barrett M.P. Uptake and mode of action of drugs used against sleeping sickness. *Biochem. Pharmacol.*. 2001;61:1-5. (*Good coverage of drug therapy*)

ehrig S., Efferth T. Development of drug resistance in *Trypanosoma brucei rhodesiense* and *Trypanosoma brucei gambiense*. Treatment of human African trypanosomiasis with natural products (Review). *Int. J. Mol. Med.*. 2008;22:411-419. (*Good overview of drug therapy including sections on mechanisms of drug resistance*)

eiser J., Stich A., Burri C. New drugs for the treatment of human African trypanosomiasis: research and development. *Trends. Parasitol.*. 2001;17:42-49. (*Excellent review on an increasingly threatening disease*)

ennedy P.G. The continuing problem of human African trypanosomiasis (sleeping sickness). *Ann. Neurol.*. 2008;64:116-126. (*Reviews the disease and also the problems with current drug therapies*)

egros D., Ollivier G., Gastellu-Etchegorry M., *et al.* Treatment of human African trypanosomiasis—present situation and needs for research and development. *Lancet Infect. Dis.*. 2002;2:437-440.

Tyler P.J. Searching the Tritryp genomes for drug targets. *Adv. Exp. Med. Biol.*. 2008;625:133-140. (*A review of the use of bioinformatics to search the published sequences of some protozoan genomes to identify novel drug targets*)

Leishmaniasis

erman J. Current treatment approaches to leishmaniasis. *Curr. Opin. Infect. Dis.*. 2003;16:397-401. (*Good general review that includes some data on new clinical trials*)

:andman E., Bullen D.V.R. Interaction of *Leishmania* with the host macrophage. *Trends. Parasitol.*. 2002;18:332-334. (*Very good article describing how this parasite colonises macrophages and evades intracellular killing; easy to read*)

ayanarayan K.G., Dey C.S. Microtubules: dynamics, drug interaction and drug resistance in *Leishmania*. *J. Clin. Pharm. Ther.*. 2002;27:313-320. (*Deals with the action on parasite microtubules of antileishmanial drugs—very specialised*)

umari S., Kumar A., Samant M., *et al.* Discovery of novel vaccine candidates and drug targets against visceral leishmaniasis using proteomics and transcriptomics. *Curr. Drug. Targets.*. 2008;9:938-947. (*Reviews the use of sophisticated bioinformatic tools to facilitate the development of new vaccines*)

lishra J., Saxena A., Singh S. Chemotherapy of leishmaniasis: past, present and future. *Curr. Med. Chem.*. 2007;14:1153-1169. (*Self-explanatory title!*)

acks D., Toben-Trauth N. The immunology of susceptibility and resistance to *Leishmania major* in mice Nat. Rev. Immunol. 2:2002:845-858 (*A lengthy article that explores the host response to* Leishmania *parasite infection using mouse models of the disease; fascinating and authoritative—but only attempt it if your immunology is up to scratch!*)

erma N.K., Dey C.S. Possible mechanism of miltefosine-mediated death of *Leishmania donovani*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.*. 2004;48:3010-3015.

Pneumocystis pneumonia

/arren E., George S., You J., Kazanjian P. Advances in the treatment and prophylaxis of *Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia. *Pharmacotherapy*. 1997;17:900-916.

Useful Web resources

ttp://malaria.who.int/ (*The WHO home page dealing with the global malaria programme contains links to all the major information on the site dealing with malaria—a terrific starting point for further investigation*)

ttp://www.oneworldhealth.org (*The Web page of the visionary 'non-profit pharmaceutical company', with details of their current programmes dealing with global health issues*)

ttp://www.mmv.org/ (*The Web page of the Medicines for Malaria Venture, the first private–public partnership established to bring together funding and expertise from a number of sources to tackle malaria*)

54

Anthelminthic drugs

Overview

Among the most widespread of all chronic infections are those caused by various species of parasitic *helminths* (worms). It is estimated that over half the world's population is infected with gastrointestinal helminths. Inhabitants of tropical or subtropical low-income countries are most at risk; children often become infected with one or more species at birth and may remain so throughout their lives. In some cases (e.g. *threadworms*), these infections result mainly in discomfort and do not cause substantial ill health, but others, such as *schistosomiasis* (*bilharzia*) and *hookworm* disease, are associated with serious morbidity. Because of its prevalence, the treatment of helminthiasis is therefore of great practical therapeutic importance. Worm infections are also a major cause for concern in veterinary medicine, affecting both domestic pets and farm animals. In some parts of the world, *fascioliasis* is associated with significant loss of livestock.

Helminth Infections

The helminths comprise two major groups: the *nemathelminths* (nematodes, roundworms) and the *platyhelminths* (flatworms). The latter group is subdivided into the *trematodes* (flukes) and the *cestodes* (tapeworms). Almost 350 species of helminths have been found in humans, and most colonise the gastrointestinal tract.

Helminths have a complex life cycle, often involving several host species. Infection by helminths may occur in many ways, with poor hygiene a major contributory factor. Many enter by the mouth in unpurified drinking water or in undercooked flesh from infected animals or fish. However, other types can enter through the skin following a cut, an insect bite or even after swimming or walking on infected soil. Humans are generally the *primary* (or *definitive*) host for helminth infections, in the sense that they harbour the sexually mature form that reproduces. Eggs or larvae then pass out of the body and infect the *secondary* (*intermediate*) host. In some cases, the eggs or larvae may persist in the human host and become *encysted*, covered with granulation tissue, giving rise to *cysticercosis*. Encysted larvae may lodge in the muscles and viscera or, more seriously, in the eye or the brain. Approximately 20 helminth species are considered to be clinically significant, and these fall into two main categories—those in which the worm lives in the host's alimentary canal, and those in which the worm lives in other tissues of the host's body.

The main examples of intestinal worms are:

• *Tapeworms*: *Taenia saginata*, *Taenia solium*, *Hymenolepis nana* and *Diphyllobothrium latum*. Some 85 million people in Asia, Africa and parts of America harbour one or other of these tapeworm species. Only the first two are likely to be seen in the UK. The usual intermediate hosts of the two most common tapeworms (*T. saginata* and *T. solium*) are cattle and pigs, respectively. Humans become infected by eating raw or undercooked meat containing the larvae, which have encysted in the animals' muscle tissue. *H. nana* may exist as both the adult (the intestinal worm) and the larval stage in the same host, which may be human or rodent, although some insects (fleas, grain beetles) can also serve as intermediate hosts. The infection is usually asymptomatic. *D.*

latum has two sequential intermediate hosts: a freshwater crustacean and a freshwater fish. Humans become infected by eating raw or incompletely cooked fish containing the larvae.

• *Intestinal roundworms*: *Ascaris lumbricoides* (common roundworm), *Enterobius vermicularis* (threadworm, called pinworm in the USA), *Trichuris trichiura* (whipworm), *Strongyloides stercoralis* (threadworm in the USA), *Necator americanus* and *Ankylostoma duodenale* (hookworms). Again, undercooked meat or contaminated food is an important cause of infection by roundworm, threadworm and whipworm, whereas hookworm is generally acquired when their larvae penetrate the skin. Blood loss caused by intestinal hookworms is a common cause of anaemia in regions where hookworm is endemic.

The main examples of worms that live elsewhere in host tissues are:

• *Flukes*: *Schistosoma haematobium*, *Schistosoma mansoni* and *Schistosoma japonicum*. These cause *schistosomiasis* (bilharzia). The adult worms of both sexes live and mate in the veins or venules of the bladder or the gut wall. The female lays eggs that pass into the bladder or gut and produce inflammation of these organs, resulting in haematuria in the former case and, occasionally, loss of blood in the faeces in the latter. The eggs hatch in water after discharge from the body and thus enter the secondary host—a particular species of snail. After a period of development in this host, free-swimming *cercariae* emerge. These are capable of infecting humans by penetration of the skin. About 200 million people are infected with one or other of the schistosomes.

• *Tissue roundworms*: *Trichinella spiralis*, *Dracunculus medinensis* (guinea worm) and the filariae, which include *Wuchereria bancrofti*, *Loa loa*, *Onchocerca volvulus* and *Brugia malayi*. The adult filariae live in the lymphatics, connective tissues or mesentery of the host and produce live

embryos or microfilariae, which find their way into the bloodstream. They may be ingested by mosquitoes or similar biting insects when they feed. After a period of development within this secondary host, the larvae pass to the mouth parts of the insect and are reinjected into humans. Major filarial diseases are caused by *Wuchereria* or *Brugia*, which cause obstruction of lymphatic vessels, producing elephantiasis—hugely swollen legs. Other related diseases are onchocerciasis (in which the presence of microfilariae in the eye causes 'river blindness'—a leading preventable cause of blindness in Africa and Latin America) and loiasis (in which the microfilariae cause inflammation in the skin and other tissues). *Trichinella spiralis* causes trichinosis; the larvae from the viviparous female worms in the intestine migrate to skeletal muscle, where they become encysted. In guinea worm infection, larvae released from crustaceans in wells and waterholes are ingested and migrate from the intestinal tract to mature and mate in the tissues; the gravid female then migrates to the subcutaneous tissues of the leg or the foot, and may protrude through an ulcer in the skin. The worm may be up to a metre in length and has to be removed surgically or by slow mechanical winding of the worm on to a stick over a period of days.

• *Hydatid tapeworm*. These are cestodes of the *Echinococcus* species for which dogs are the primary hosts, and sheep the intermediate hosts. The primary, intestinal stage does not occur in humans, but under certain circumstances humans can function as the intermediate host, in which case the larvae develop into hydatid cysts within the tissues, sometimes with fatal consequences.

Some nematodes that usually live in the gastrointestinal tract of animals may infect humans and penetrate tissues. A skin infestation, termed *creeping eruption* or *cutaneous larva migrans*, is caused by the larvae of dog and cat hookworms often entering through the foot.

Toxocariasis or visceral larva migrans is caused by larvae of cat and dog roundworms of the *Toxocara* genus.

Anthelminthic Drugs

Mankind has attempted to treat helminth infections since antiquity. Extracts of herbs or plants such as male fern formed the basis of many early 'cures', but the 20th century saw the advent of a new group of drugs based on toxic metals such as arsenic (atoxyl) or antimony (tartar emetic), which were effective in trypanosome and schistosome infestations.

Current anthelminthic drugs act either by paralysing the parasite (e.g. by preventing muscular contraction), or by damaging the worm such that the immune system can eliminate it, or by altering its metabolism (e.g. by affecting microtubule function). Because the metabolic requirements of these parasites vary greatly from one species to another, drugs that are highly effective against one type of worm may be ineffective against others. To be effective, a drug must be able to penetrate the tough exterior cuticle of the worm or gain access to its alimentary tract. This may present difficulties, because some worms are exclusively *haemophagous* (blood eating), while others are best described as 'tissue grazers'. A further complication is that many helminths possess active drug efflux pumps that reduce the concentration of the drug in the parasite. The route of administration and dose of anthelminthic drugs are therefore important.

Some individual anthelminthic drugs are described briefly below, and indications for their use are given in Table 54.1. Several of these drugs (i.e. **albendazole**, **ivermectin**, **levamisole**, **niclosamide**, **praziquantel** and **tiabendazole**) are available in the UK only on a 'named patient' basis.[1] For a more comprehensive coverage of antiparasitic drugs and

their use in humans and animals, you are directed to the literature cited in the bibliography.

Table 54.1 Principal drugs used in helminth infections

Helminth(s)	Drug(s) used
Threadworm (pinworm)	
Enterobius vermicularis	Mebendazole, albendazole, piperazine
Strongyloides stercoralis (threadworm in the USA)	Albendazole, ivermectin
Common roundworm	
Ascaris lumbricoides	Levamisole, mebendazole, piperazine
Other roundworm (filariae)	
Wuchereria bancrofti, Loa loa	Diethylcarbamazine, ivermectin
Onchocerca volvulus	Ivermectin
Guinea worm (*Dracunculus medinensis*)	Praziquantel, mebendazole
Trichiniasis (*Trichinella spiralis*)	Tiabendazole, mebendazole
Cysticercosis (infection with larval *Taenia solium*)	Praziquantel, albendazole
Tapeworm (*Taenia saginata*, *Taenia solium*)	Praziquantel, niclosamide
Hydatid disease (*Echinococcus granulosus*)	Albendazole
Hookworm (*Ankylostoma duodenale*, *Necator americanus*)	Mebendazole, albendazole
Whipworm (*Trichuris trichiura*)	Mebendazole, albendazole, diethylcarbamazine
Blood flukes (*Schistosoma* spp.)	
S. haematobium	Praziquantel
S. mansoni	Praziquantel
S. japonicum	Praziquantel
Cutaneous larva migrans	
Ankylostoma caninum	Albendazole, ivermectin, tiabendazole
Visceral larva migrans	
Toxocara canis	Albendazole, tiabendazole, diethylcarbamazine

(Sourced mainly from the British National Formulary 2008.)

Benzimidazoles

[1]A relatively rare situation in which the physician seeks approval from a pharmaceutical company to use one of their drugs in a named individual. The drug is either a 'newcomer' that has shown particular promise in clinical trials but has not yet been licensed or, as in these instances, an established drug that has not been licensed because the company has not applied for a product licence (possibly for commercial reasons).

One of the principal groups of anthelminthics used clinically are the substituted benzimidazoles. This group of broad-spectrum agents includes **mebendazole**, **tiabendazole** and **albendazole**. They are thought to act by inhibiting the polymerisation of helminth β-tubulin, thus interfering with microtubule-dependent functions such as glucose uptake. They have a selective inhibitory action, being 250–400 times more effective in producing this effect in helminth than in mammalian tissue. However, the effect takes time to develop and the worms may not be expelled for several days. Cure rates are generally between 60% and 100% with most parasites.

Only 10% of mebendazole is absorbed after oral administration, but a fatty meal increases absorption. It is rapidly metabolised, the products being excreted in the urine and the bile within 24–48 h. It is generally given as a single dose for threadworm, and twice daily for 3 days for hookworm and roundworm infestations. Tiabendazole is rapidly absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract, very rapidly metabolised and excreted in the urine in conjugated form. It is given twice daily for 3 days for guinea worm and *Strongyloides* infestations, and for up to 5 days for hookworm and roundworm infestations. Albendazole is also poorly

absorbed but, like mebendazole, this may be increased by food, especially fats. It is metabolised extensively by first-pass metabolism to the sulfoxide and sulfone metabolites. The former is likely to be the pharmacologically active species.

Unwanted effects are few with albendazole or mebendazole, although gastrointestinal disturbances can occasionally occur. Unwanted effects with tiabendazole are more frequent but usually transient, the commonest being gastrointestinal disturbances, although headache, dizziness and drowsiness have been reported and allergic reactions (fever, rashes) may also occur. Mebendazole is unsuitable for pregnant women or children less than 2 years old.

Praziquantel

Praziquantel is a highly effective broad-spectrum anthelminthic drug that was introduced over 20 years ago. It is the drug of choice for all forms of schistosomiasis and is the agent generally used in large-scale schistosome eradication programmes. It is also effective in cysticercosis. The drug affects not only the adult schistosomes but also the immature forms and the cercariae—the form of the parasite that infects humans by penetrating the skin.

The drug apparently disrupts Ca^{2+} homeostasis in the parasite by binding to consensus protein kinase C-binding sites in a β subunit of schistosome voltage-gated calcium channels (Greenberg, 2005). This induces an influx of the ion, a rapid and prolonged contraction of the musculature, and eventual paralysis and death of the worm. Praziquantel also disrupts the tegument of the parasite, unmasking novel antigens, and as a result it may become more susceptible to the host's normal immune responses.

Given orally, praziquantel is well absorbed; much of the drug is rapidly

metabolised to inactive metabolites on first passage through the liver, and the metabolites are excreted in the urine. The plasma half-life of the parent compound is 60–90 min.

Praziquantel is considered to be a very safe drug with minimal side effects in therapeutic dosage. Such unwanted effects as do occur are usually transitory and rarely of clinical importance. Effects may be more marked in patients with a heavy worm load because of products released from the dead worms. Praziquantel is considered safe for pregnant and lactating women, an important property for a drug that is commonly used in national disease control programmes. Some resistance has developed to the drug (see below).

Piperazine

Piperazine can be used to treat infections with the common roundworm (*A. lumbricoides*) and the threadworm (*E. vermicularis*). It reversibly inhibits neuromuscular transmission in the worm, probably by mimicking GABA (Ch. 37), at GABA-gated chloride channels in nematode muscle. The paralysed worms are expelled alive by normal intestinal peristaltic movements. It is administered with a stimulant laxative such as **senna** (Ch. 29) to facilitate expulsion of the worms.

Piperazine is given orally and some, but not all, is absorbed. It is partly metabolised, and the remainder is eliminated, unchanged, via the kidney. The drug has little pharmacological action in the host. When used to treat roundworm, piperazine is effective in a single dose. For threadworm, a longer course (7 days) at lower dosage is necessary.

Unwanted effects may include gastrointestinal disturbances, urticaria and bronchospasm. Some patients experience dizziness, paraesthesias, vertigo and incoordination. The drug should not be given to pregnant patients or to those with compromised renal or hepatic function.

Niclosamide

Niclosamide is widely used for the treatment of tapeworm infections together with praziquantel. The *scolex* (the head of the worm that attaches to the host intestine) and a proximal segment are irreversibly damaged by the drug, such that the worm separates from the intestinal wall and is expelled. For *T. solium*, the drug is given in a single dose after a light meal, usually followed by a purgative 2 h later in case the damaged tapeworm segments release ova, which are not affected by the drug. For other tapeworm infections, this precaution is not necessary. There is negligible absorption of the drug from the gastrointestinal tract.

Unwanted effects: nausea, vomiting, pruritus and lightheadeness may occur but generally such effects are few, infrequent and transient.

Diethylcarbamazine

Diethylcarbamazine is a piperazine derivative that is active in filarial infections caused by *B. malayi*, *W. bancrofti* and *L. loa*. Diethylcarbamazine rapidly removes the microfilariae from the blood circulation and has a limited effect on the adult worms in the lymphatics, but it has little action on microfilariae in vitro. It may act by changing the parasite such that it becomes susceptible to the host's normal immune responses. It may also interfere with helminth arachidonate metabolism.

The drug is absorbed following oral administration and is distributed throughout the cells and tissues of the body, excepting adipose tissue. It is partly metabolised, and both the parent drug and its metabolites are excreted in the urine, being cleared from the body within about 48 h.

Unwanted effects are common but transient, subsiding within a day or so even if the drug is continued. Side effects from the drug itself include gastrointestinal disturbances, arthralgias, headache and a general feeling

of weakness. Allergic side effects referable to the products of the dying filariae are common and vary with the species of worm. In general, these start during the first day's treatment and last 3–7 days; they include skin reactions, enlargement of lymph glands, dizziness, tachycardia, and gastrointestinal and respiratory disturbances. When these symptoms disappear, larger doses of the drug can be given without further problem. The drug is not used in patients with onchocerciasis, in whom it can have serious unwanted effects.

Levamisole

Levamisole is effective in infections with the common roundworm (*A. lumbricoides*). It has a nicotine-like action (Ch. 13), stimulating and subsequently blocking the neuromuscular junctions. The paralysed worms are then expelled in the faeces. Ova are not killed. The drug is given orally, is rapidly absorbed and is widely distributed. It crosses the blood–brain barrier. It is metabolised in the liver to inactive metabolites, which are excreted via the kidney. Its plasma half-life is 4 h.

When single-dose therapy is used, *unwanted effects* such as mild gastrointestinal disturbances are generally few and soon subside.

Ivermectin

First introduced in 1981 as a veterinary drug, ivermectin is a safe and highly effective broad-spectrum antiparasitic in humans; it is frequently used in global public health campaigns,[2] and is the first choice of drug for the treatment of filarial infections. It has also given good results against *W. bancrofti*, which causes elephantiasis. A single dose kills the immature microfilariae of *O. volvulus* but not the adult worms. Ivermectin is the drug of choice for onchocerciasis, which causes river blindness and reduces the incidence of this by up to 80%. It is also active against some roundworms: common roundworms, whipworms, and

threadworms of both the UK (*E. vermicularis*) and the US variety (*S. stercoralis*), but not hookworms.

[2]Ivermectin is supplied by the manufacturers free of charge in countries where river blindness is endemic. Because the worms develop slowly, a single annual dose of ivermectin is sufficient to prevent the disease.

Chemically, ivermectin is a semisynthetic agent derived from a group of natural substances, the *avermectins*, obtained from an actinomycete organism. The drug is given orally and has a half-life of 11 h. It is thought to kill the worm either by opening glutamate-gated chloride channels (found only in invertebrates) and increasing Cl^- conductance; by binding to a novel allosteric site on the acetylcholine nicotinic receptor to cause an increase in transmission, leading to motor paralysis; or by binding to GABA receptors.

Unwanted effects include skin rashes and itching but in general the drug is very well tolerated. One interesting exception in veterinary medicine is the CNS toxicity seen in collie dogs (Ch. 8).

Resistance to Anthelminthic Drugs

Resistance to anthelminthic drugs is a widespread and growing problem affecting not only humans but also the animal health market. During the 1990s, helminth infections in sheep (and to a lesser extent cattle) developed varying degrees of resistance to a number of different anthelminthic drugs. Parasites that develop such resistance pass this ability on to their offspring, leading to treatment failure. The widespread use of anthelminthic agents in farming has been blamed for the spread of resistant species.

There are probably several molecular mechanisms that contribute to

drug resistance. The presence of the P-glycoprotein transporter (Ch. 8) in some species of nematode has already been mentioned, and agents such as **verapamil** that block the transporter in trypanosomes can partially reverse resistance to the benzimidazoles. However, some aspects of benzimidazole resistance may be attributed to alterations in their high-affinity binding to parasite β-tubulin. Likewise, resistance to levamisole is associated with changes in the structure of the target acetylcholine nicotinic receptor.

Of great significance is the way in which helminths evade the host's immune system. Even though they may thrive in immunologically exposed sites such as the lymphatics or the bloodstream, many are long-lived and may co-exist with their hosts for many years without seriously affecting their health, or in some cases without even being noticed. It is striking that the two major families of helminths, while evolving separately, deploy similar strategies to evade destruction by the immune system. Clearly, this must be of major survival value for the species.

▼ In Chapter 6, we discussed the two main types of adaptive immune strategy, termed the *Th1* and the *Th2* responses, the latter being characterised by the development of an antibody-mediated response rather than the development of a cell-mediated immune response. It appears that many helminths can actually exploit this mechanism by steering the immune system away from a local Th1 response, which would be potentially more damaging to the parasite, and promoting instead a modified systemic Th2 type of response. This is associated with the production of 'anti-inflammatory' cytokines such as interleukin-10 favourable to, or at least better tolerated by, the parasites. The immunology underlying this is complex (see Pearce & MacDonald, 2002; Maizels et al., 2004).

Ironically, the ability of helminths to modify the host immune response

in this way may confer some survival value on the hosts themselves. For example, in addition to the local anti-inflammatory effect exerted by helminth infections, rapid wound healing is also seen. Clearly, this is of advantage to parasites that must penetrate tissues without killing the host but may also be beneficial to the host as well. It has been proposed that helminth infections may mitigate some forms of malaria and other diseases, possibly conferring survival advantages in populations where these diseases are endemic. Indeed, the deliberate infestation of Crohn's disease patients with helminths has been evaluated as a strategy to induce remission of the disease (see Hunter & McKay, 2004; Reddy & Fried, 2007). On the negative side, however, they may also undermine the efficacy of tuberculosis vaccination programmes that depend upon a vigorous Th1 response (Elias et al., 2006).

On the basis that Th2 responses reciprocally inhibit the development of Th1 diseases, it has also been hypothesised that the comparative absence of Crohn's disease, as well as some other autoimmune diseases, in the developing world may be associated with the high incidence of parasite infection, and that the rise of these disorders in the West is associated with superior sanitation and reduced helminth infection! This type of argument is generally known as the 'hygiene hypothesis'.

Vaccines and Other Novel Approaches

Despite the enormity of the clinical problem, there have been few new anthelminthic drugs recently. On a more positive note, the sequencing of the transcriptomes of several helminths may make it possible to create a transgenic species that expresses mutations found in resistant parasitic worms, thus providing insights into the mechanisms underlying resistance. In addition, such databases may reveal new drug targets, as well as opening the way for other types of anthelmithic agent, such as

those based on antisense DNA or small interfering RNA (see Boyle & Yoshino, 2003).

More progress has been made in the field of anthelminthic vaccines through the use of recombinant DNA technology. Protein antigens on the surface of the (highly infectious) larval stage have been cloned and used as immunogens. Considerable success has been achieved in the veterinary field with vaccines to organisms such as *T. ovis* and *E. granulosus* (in sheep) as well as *T. saginata* (in cattle) and *T. solium* (in pigs), with cure rates of 90–100% often reported (see Dalton & Mulcahy, 2001; Lightowlers et al., 2003). Qualified success has also been obtained with vaccines to other helminth species (see Capron et al., 2005; McManus & Loukas, 2008).

Efficacious helminth vaccines would revolutionise the treatment of these widespread infections, minimise the problem of drug resistance as well as reducing the environmental burden of residual pesticide residues, which sometimes occurs as a consequence of overenthusiastic anthelminth control campaigns. Looking further into the future, it may be possible to develop DNA vaccines against these organisms without having to produce any protein-based immunogen at all.

References and Further Reading

General papers on helminths and their diseases

rake L.J., Bundy D.A. Multiple helminth infections in children: impact and control. *Parasitology*. 2001;122(Suppl.):S73-S81. (*The title is self-explanantory*)

orton J. Human gastrointestinal helminth infections: are they now neglected diseases? *Trends Parasitol.*. 2003;19:527-531. (*Accessible review on helminth infections and their treatments*)

Anthelminthic drugs

oyle J.P., Yoshino T.P. Gene manipulation in parasitic helminths. *Int. J. Parasitol.*. 2003;33:1259-1268. (*Deals with approaches such as antisense therapy; for the interested reader only*)

urkhart C.N. Ivermectin: an assessment of its pharmacology, microbiology and safety. *Vet. Hum. Toxicol.*. 2000;42:30-35. (*Useful paper that focuses on ivermectin pharmacology*)

roft S.L. The current status of antiparasite chemotherapy. *Parasitology*. 1997;114:S3-S15. (*Comprehensive coverage of current drugs and outline of approaches to possible future agents*)

ayan A.D. Albendazole, mebendazole and praziquantel. Review of non-clinical toxicity and pharmacokinetics. *Acta Trop.*. 2003;86:141-159. (*Comprehensive review of the pharmacokinetics and toxicity of these important drugs*)

eary T.G., Sangster N.C., Thompson D.P. Frontiers in anthelmintic pharmacology. *Vet. Parasitol.*. 1999;84:275-295. (*Thoughtful account of the difficulties associated with drug treatment*)

reenberg R.M. Are Ca^{2+} channels targets of praziquantel action? *Int. J. Parasitol.*. 2005;35:1-9. (*Interesting review on praziquantel action for those who wish to go into it in depth*)

iu L.X., Weller P.F. Antiparasitic drugs. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 1996;334:1178-1184. (*Excellent general coverage of antiparasitic drugs and their clinical use*)

richard R., Tait A. The role of molecular biology in veterinary parasitology. *Vet. Parasitol.*. 2001;98:169-194. (*Excellent review of the application of molecular biology to understanding the problem of drug resistance and to the development of new anthelminthic agents*)

obertson A.P., Bjorn H.E., Martin R.J. Pyrantel resistance alters nematode nicotinic acetylcholine receptor single channel properties. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.*. 2000;394:1-8. (*A research paper that deals with the interactions of praziquantel and levamisole with the nematode nicotinic receptor and a proposed mechanism of drug resistance. Interesting but maybe a little technical for the general reader*)

Anthelminth vaccines

apron A., Riveau G., Capron M., Trottein F. Schistosomes: the road from host–parasite interactions to vaccines in clinical trials. *Trends Parasitol.*. 2005;21:143-149. (*Good general review dealing with the immune response to parasite infection and vaccine development*)

alton J.P., Mulcahy G. Parasite vaccines—a reality? *Vet. Parasitol.*. 2001;98:149-167. (*Interesting discussion of the promise and pitfalls of vaccines*)

alton J.P., Brindley P.J., Knox D.P., *et al.* Helminth vaccines: from mining genomic information for vaccine targets to systems used for protein expression. *Int. J. Parasitol.*. 2003;33:621-640. (*Very comprehensive but may be overcomplicated in parts for the non-specialist*)

ightowlers M.W., Colebrook A.L., Gauci C.G., *et al.* Vaccination against cestode parasites: anti-helminth vaccines that work and why. *Vet. Parasitol.*. 2003;115:83-123. (*Very comprehensive review for the dedicated reader!*)

IcManus D.P., Loukas A. Current status of vaccines for schistosomiasis. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.*. 2008;21:225-242. (*Very comprehensive survey of the theory and development of vaccines for schsistosomiasis. Good for the serious enquirer*)

Immune evasion by helminths and its potential therapeutic uses

lias D., Akuffo H., Britton S. Helminthes could influence the outcome of vaccines against TB in the tropics. *Parasite Immunol.*. 2006;28:507-513. (*Easy-to-read introduction to this phenomenon for those who want to follow up this topic*)

unter M.M., McKay D.M. Review article: helminths as therapeutic agents for inflammatory bowel disease. *Aliment. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2004;19:167-177. (*Fascinating review on potential therapeutic uses of helminths and why they work*)

laizels R.M., Balic A., Gomez-Escobar N., *et al.* Helminth parasites—masters of regulation. *Immunol. Rev.*. 2004;201:89-116. (*Excellent and very comprehensive review dealing with mechanisms of immune evasion; complicated in parts for the non-specialist*)

earce E.J., MacDonald A.S. The immunobiology of schistosomiasis. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.*. 2002;2:499-512. (*Deals mainly with the immunology of schistosome infections in mice*)

eddy A., Fried B. The use of *Trichuris suis* and other helminth therapies to treat Crohn's disease. *Parasitol. Res.*. 2007;100:921-927. (*Excellent review of this interesting therapeutic area*)

55

Anticancer drugs

Overview

In this chapter, we deal with cancer and anticancer therapy, emphasising first the pathogenesis of cancer before proceeding to describe the drugs that can be used therapeutically. Finally, we consider the extent to which our new knowledge of cancer biology is leading to new treatments. The use of radioactive isotopes in cancer treatment is beyond the scope of this book.

Introduction

Cancer is a disease characterised by uncontrolled multiplication and spread of abnormal forms of the body's own cells. It is the second most common cause of death in the developed nations (cardiovascular disease has the dubious distinction of heading that table) and one in three people will be diagnosed with cancer during their lifetime. In the UK, over 365 000 new cases were reported and mortality in 2006 was in excess of 154 000 (Cancer Research UK). Cancer is responsible for approximately one-quarter of all deaths in the UK, with lung and bowel cancer comprising the largest category, closely followed by breast and prostate cancer. Statistics from most other countries in the developed world tell much the same story. At first sight, incidence figures for the past 100 years or so give the impression that the disease is increasing in developed countries, but cancer is largely a disease of later life, and with advances in public health and medical science, many more people now

live to an age where they are more liable to contract cancer.

The terms *cancer*, *malignant neoplasm* (neoplasm simply means 'new growth') and *malignant tumour* are synonymous. Both benign and malignant tumours manifest uncontrolled proliferation, but the latter are distinguished by their capacity for *dedifferentiation*, their invasiveness and their ability to *metastasise* (spread to other parts of the body). In this chapter, we shall be concerned only with the therapy of malignant neoplasia or cancer. The appearance of these abnormal characteristics reflects altered patterns of gene expression in the cancer cells, resulting from inherited or acquired genetic mutations.

There are three main approaches to treating established cancer —*surgical excision*, *irradiation* and *drug therapy* (often called *chemotherapy*)—and the relative value of each of these approaches depends on the type of tumour and the stage of its development. Chemotherapy may be used on its own or as an adjunct to other forms of therapy.

Compared with that of bacterial diseases, cancer chemotherapy presents a difficult problem. In biochemical terms, microorganisms are both quantitatively and qualitatively different from human cells (see Ch. 49), but cancer cells and normal cells are so similar in most respects that it is more difficult to find general, exploitable, biochemical differences between them. In recent years, the focus of cancer chemotherapy has broadened to include, as well as conventional *cytotoxic drugs* (which act on all cells, and rely on a small margin of selectivity to be useful as anticancer agents), several drugs that affect either the hormonal regulation of tumour growth, or the defective cell cycle controls that underlie malignancy (see below and Ch. 5). Overall, this has been one of the most fruitful fields of drug development in recent years, in which genomics and biopharmaceuticals have played a major role. The flow of

innovation seems set to continue.

The Pathogenesis of Cancer

To understand the action and drawbacks of current anticancer agents and to appreciate the therapeutic hurdles that must be surmounted by putative new drugs, it is important to consider in more detail the pathobiology of this disease.

Cancer cells manifest, to varying degrees, four characteristics that distinguish them from normal cells. These are:

- uncontrolled *proliferation*
- *dedifferentiation* and loss of function
- *invasiveness*
- *metastasis*.

The Genesis of a Cancer Cell

A normal cell turns into a cancer cell because of one or more mutations in its DNA, which can be inherited or acquired, usually through exposure to viruses or *carcinogens* (e.g. tobacco products, asbestos). A good example is breast cancer; women who inherit a single defective copy of either of the tumour suppressor genes *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* (see below) have a significantly increased risk of developing breast cancer. However, carcinogenesis is a complex multistage process, usually involving more than one genetic change as well as other, *epigenetic* factors (hormonal, co-carcinogen and tumour promoter effects, etc.) that do not themselves produce cancer but which increase the likelihood that the genetic mutation(s) will eventually result in cancer.

There are two main categories of genetic change that are important:

1 The activation of *proto-oncogenes* to *oncogenes*. Proto-oncogenes are genes that normally control cell division, apoptosis and differentiation (see Ch. 5), but which can be converted to oncogenes that induce malignant change by viral or carcinogen action.

2 The inactivation of *tumour suppressor genes*. Normal cells contain genes that have the ability to suppress malignant change—termed tumour suppressor genes (antioncogenes)—and mutations of these genes are involved in many different cancers. The loss of function of tumour suppressor genes can be the critical event in carcinogenesis.

About 30 tumour suppressor genes and 100 dominant oncogenes have been identified. The changes that lead to malignancy are a result of point mutations, gene amplification or chromosomal translocation, often caused by viruses or chemical carcinogens.

The Special Characteristics of Cancer Cells

Uncontrolled Proliferation

Many healthy cells, in the bone marrow and the epithelium of the gastrointestinal tract for example, have the property of continuous rapid division, and it is not generally true that cancer cells proliferate faster than normal cells. Some cancer cells multiply slowly (e.g. those in plasma cell tumours) and some much more rapidly (e.g. the cells of *Burkitt's lymphoma*). The significant issue is that cancer cells *have escaped from the mechanisms that normally regulate cell division and tissue growth*. It is this, rather than their rate of proliferation, that distinguishes them from normal cells.

What are the changes that lead to the uncontrolled proliferation of tumour cells? Inactivation of tumour suppressor genes or transformation of proto-oncogenes into oncogenes can confer autonomy of growth on a

cell and thus result in uncontrolled proliferation by producing changes in several cellular systems (see Fig. 55.1), including:

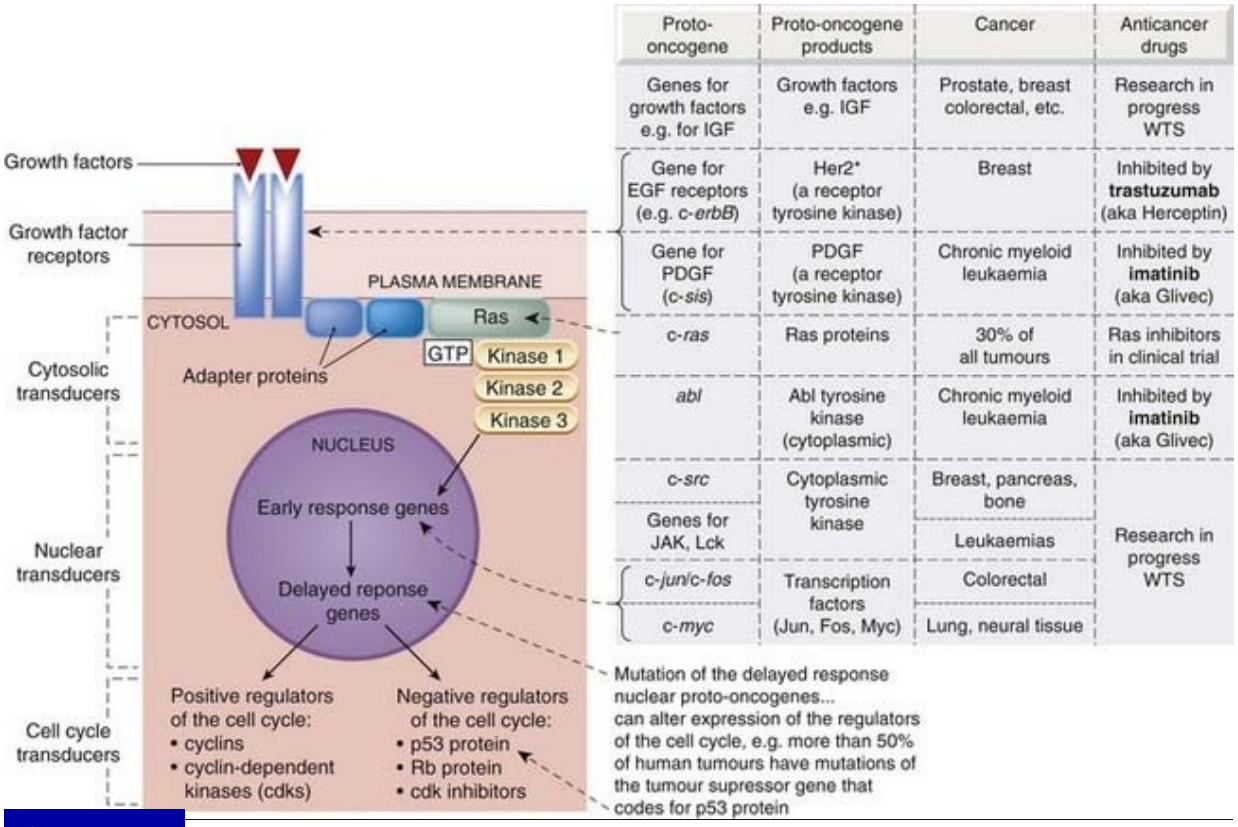
• *growth factors*, their receptors and signalling pathways

• the *cell cycle transducers*, for example cyclins, cyclin-dependent kinases (cdks) or the cdk inhibitors

• the *apoptotic machinery* that normally disposes of abnormal cells

• *telomerase expression*

• *local blood vessels*, resulting from tumour-directed angiogenesis.



Proto-oncogene	Proto-oncogene products	Cancer	Anticancer drugs
Genes for growth factors e.g. for IGF	Growth factors e.g. IGF	Prostate, breast colorectal, etc.	Research in progress WTS
Gene for EGF receptors (e.g. *c-erbB*)	Her2* (a receptor tyrosine kinase)	Breast	Inhibited by **trastuzumab** (aka Herceptin)
Gene for PDGF (*c-sis*)	PDGF (a receptor tyrosine kinase)	Chronic myeloid leukaemia	Inhibited by **imatinib** (aka Glivec)
c-ras	Ras proteins	30% of all tumours	Ras inhibitors in clinical trial
abl	Abl tyrosine kinase (cytoplasmic)	Chronic myeloid leukaemia	Inhibited by **imatinib** (aka Glivec)
c-src	Cytoplasmic tyrosine kinase	Breast, pancreas, bone	Research in progress WTS
Genes for JAK, Lck		Leukaemias	
c-jun/*c-fos*	Transcription factors (Jun, Fos, Myc)	Colorectal	
c-myc		Lung, neural tissue	

Fig. 55.1 Signal transduction pathways initiated by growth factors and their relationship to cancer development.

A few examples of proto-oncogenes and the products they code for are given in the table, with examples of the cancers that are associated with their conversion to oncogenes. Many growth factor receptors are receptor tyrosine kinases, the cytosolic transducers including adapter

proteins that bind to phosphorylated tyrosine residues in the receptors. Ras proteins are guanine nucleotide-binding proteins and have GTPase action; decreased GTPase action means that Ras remains activated. EGF, epidermal growth factor; IGF, insulin-like growth factor; PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; WTS, watch this space. **Her2* is also termed *her2/neu*.

Potentially all the genes coding for the above components could be regarded as oncogenes or tumour suppressor genes (see Fig. 55.2), although not all are equally prone to malignant transformation. It should be understood that malignant transformation of several components is needed for the development of cancer.

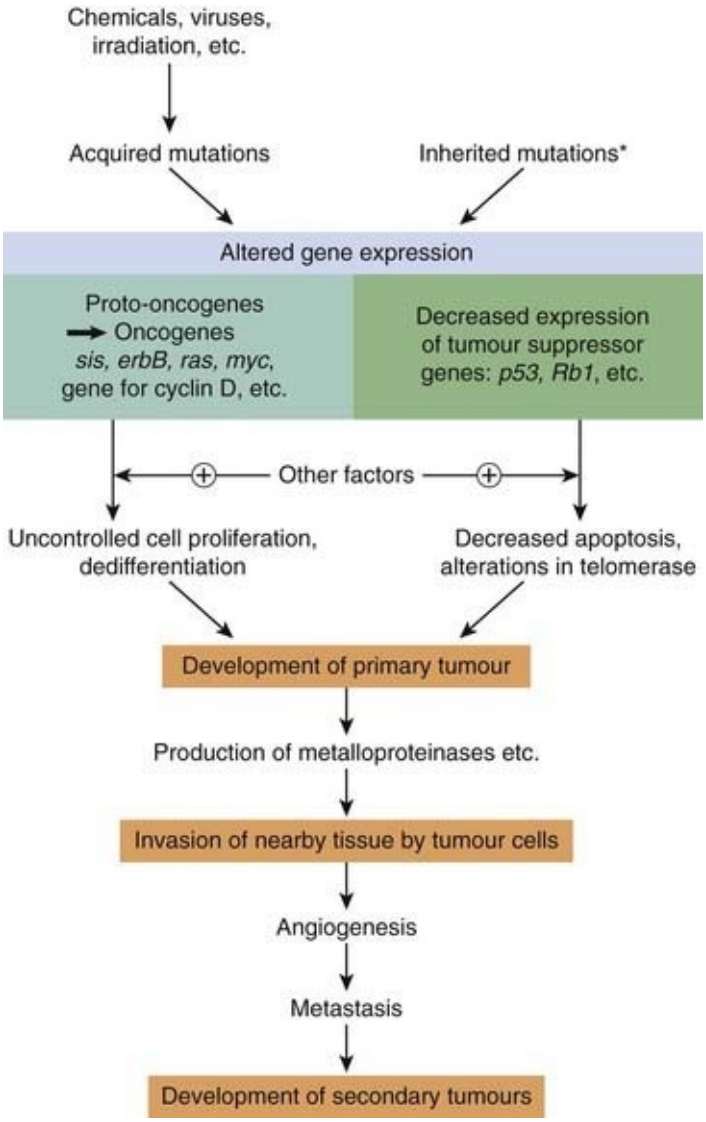


Fig. 55.2 Simplified outline of the genesis of cancer.

The diagram summarises the information given in the text. The genesis of cancer is usually multifactorial, involving more than one genetic change. 'Other factors', as specified above, may involve the actions of promoters, co-carcinogens, hormones, *etc.* which, while not themselves carcinogenic, increase the likelihood that genetic mutation(s) will result in cancer.

Resistance to apoptosis

Apoptosis is programmed cell death (Ch.5), and genetic mutations in the antiapoptotic genes are usually a prerequisite for cancer; indeed, resistance to apoptosis is a hallmark of the disease. It can be brought about by inactivation of proapoptotic factors or by activation of antiapoptotic factors.

Telomerase expression

Telomeres are specialised structures that cap the ends of chromosomes—like the small metal tubes on the end of shoelaces—protecting them from degradation, rearrangement and fusion with other chromosomes. Furthermore, DNA polymerase cannot easily duplicate the last few nucleotides at the ends of DNA, and telomeres prevent loss of the 'end' genes. With each round of cell division, a portion of the telomere is eroded, so that eventually it becomes non-functional. At this point, DNA replication ceases and the cell becomes senescent.

Rapidly dividing cells, such as stem cells and those of the bone marrow, the germline and the epithelium of the gastrointestinal tract, express *telomerase*, an enzyme that maintains and stabilises telomeres. While it is absent from most fully differentiated somatic cells, about 95% of late-stage malignant tumours do express the enzyme, and it is this that may confer 'immortality' on cancer cells.

The control of tumour-related blood vessels

The factors described above lead to the uncontrolled proliferation of

individual cancer cells, but other factors, particularly blood supply, determine the actual growth of a solid tumour. Tumours 1–2 mm in diameter can obtain nutrients by diffusion, but any further expansion requires *angiogenesis*, the development of new blood vessels. Angiogenesis occurs in response to growth factors produced by the growing tumour (see Griffioen & Molema, 2000).

Dedifferentiation and Loss of Function

The multiplication of normal cells in a tissue begins with division of the undifferentiated stem cells giving rise to *daughter cells*. These daughter cells eventually differentiate to become the mature cells of the relevant tissue, ready to perform their programmed functions. For example, when fibroblasts mature, they secrete and organise extracellular matrix; mature muscle cells are capable of contraction. One of the main characteristics of cancer cells is that they dedifferentiate to varying degrees. In general, poorly differentiated cancers multiply faster and carry a worse prognosis than well-differentiated cancers.

Invasiveness

Normal cells are not generally found outside their 'designated' tissue of origin. This is because, during differentiation and tissue or organ growth, normal cells develop certain spatial relationships with respect to each other. These relationships are maintained by various tissue-specific survival factors that prevent apoptosis (see Ch. 5). In this way, any cells that escape accidentally lose these survival signals and die.

Consequently, although the cells of the normal mucosal epithelium of the rectum proliferate continuously as the lining is shed, they remain as a lining epithelium. A cancer of the rectal mucosa, by comparison, invades other tissues forming the rectum and often the tissues of other pelvic organs. Cancer cells have not only lost, through mutation, the

restraints that act on normal cells, but they also secrete enzymes (e.g. metalloproteinases; see Ch. 5) that break down the extracellular matrix, enabling them to move around.

Metastasis

Metastases are secondary tumours ('secondaries') formed by cells that have been released from the initial or *primary tumour* and which have reached other sites through blood vessels or lymphatics, by transportation on other cells or as a result of being shed into body cavities. Metastases are the principal cause of mortality and morbidity in most cancers and constitute a major problem for cancer therapy.

As discussed above, dislodgment or aberrant migration of normal cells would lead to programmed cell death as a result of withdrawal of the necessary antiapoptotic factors. Cancer cells that metastasise have undergone a series of genetic changes that alter their responses to the regulatory factors that control the cellular architecture of normal tissues, enabling them to establish themselves 'extraterritorially'. Tumour-induced growth of new blood vessels locally (see above) favours metastasis.

Secondary tumours occur more frequently in some tissues than in others. For example, metastases of mammary cancers are often found in lung, bone and brain. The reason for this is that breast cancer cells express chemokine receptors such as CXR4 (see Ch. 17) on their surfaces, and chemokines that recognise these receptors are expressed at high level in these tissues but not in others (e.g. kidney), facilitating the selective accumulation of cells at these sites.

General Principles of Cytotoxic Anticancer Drugs

In experiments with rapidly growing transplantable leukaemias in mice,

it has been found that a given therapeutic dose of a cytotoxic drug[1] destroys a constant fraction of the malignant cells. Thus a dose that kills 99.99% of cells, if used to treat a tumour with 10^{11} cells, will still leave 10 million (10^7) viable malignant cells. As the same principle holds for fast-growing tumours in humans, schedules for chemotherapy are aimed at producing as near a total cell kill as possible because, in contrast to the situation that occurs in microorganisms, little reliance can be placed on the host's immunological defence mechanisms against the remaining cancer cells.

[1]The term *cytotoxic* drug applies to any drug that can damage or kill cells. In practice, it is used more restrictively to refer to drugs that inhibit cell division and are therefore potentially useful in cancer chemotherapy.

One of the major difficulties in treating cancer is that tumour growth is usually far advanced before cancer is diagnosed. Let us suppose that a tumour arises from a single cell and that the growth is exponential, as it may well be during the initial stages. 'Doubling' times vary, being, for example, approximately 24 h with Burkitt's lymphoma, 2 weeks in the case of some leukaemias, and 3 months with mammary cancers. Approximately 30 doublings would be required to produce a cell mass with a diameter of 2 cm, containing 10^9 cells. Such a tumour is within the limits of diagnostic procedures, although it could easily go unnoticed. A further 10 doublings would produce 10^{12} cells, a tumour mass that is likely to be lethal, and which would measure about 20 cm in diameter if it were one solid mass.

However, continuous exponential growth of this sort does not usually occur. In the case of most solid tumours (for example of lung, stomach, uterus and so on), as opposed to *leukaemias* (tumours of white blood cells), the growth rate falls as the neoplasm grows. This is partly because

the tumour outgrows its blood supply, and partly because not all the cells proliferate continuously. The cells of a solid tumour can be considered as belonging to three compartments:

1 *Compartment A* consists of dividing cells, possibly being continuously in cell cycle.

2 *Compartment B* consists of resting cells (G_0 phase) which, although not dividing, are potentially able to do so.

3 *Compartment C* consists of cells that are no longer able to divide but which contribute to the tumour volume.

Essentially, only cells in *compartment A*, which may form as little as 5% of some solid tumours, are susceptible to the main current cytotoxic drugs, as is explained below. The cells in *compartment C* do not constitute a problem, but it is the existence of *compartment B* that makes cancer chemotherapy difficult, because these cells are not very sensitive to cytotoxic drugs and are liable to re-enter *compartment A* following chemotherapy.

Most current anticancer drugs, particularly cytotoxic agents, affect only one characteristic aspect of cancer cell biology—cell division—but have no specific inhibitory effect on invasiveness, the loss of differentiation or the tendency to metastasise. In many cases, the antiproliferative action results from an action during S phase of the cell cycle, and the resultant damage to DNA initiates apoptosis (see above). Furthermore, because their main target is cell division, they will affect all rapidly dividing normal tissues, and thus they are likely to produce, to a greater or lesser extent, the following general toxic effects:

• *bone marrow toxicity* (myelosuppression) with decreased leukocyte production and thus decreased resistance to infection

• *impaired wound healing*

• *loss of hair* (alopecia)

• damage to *gastrointestinal epithelium* (including oral mucous membranes)

• *depression of growth* in children

• *sterility*

• *teratogenicity*.

They can also, in certain circumstances, be themselves carcinogenic. Rapid cell destruction also entails extensive purine catabolism, and urates may precipitate in the renal tubules and cause kidney damage. Finally, in addition to specific toxic effects associated with individual drugs, virtually all cytotoxic drugs produce severe nausea and vomiting, which has been called the 'inbuilt deterrent' to patient compliance in completing a course of treatment with these agents.

Cancer pathogenesis and cancer chemotherapy: general principles



• Cancer arises as a result of a series of genetic and epigenetic changes, the main genetic lesions being:

– inactivation of tumour suppressor genes

– the activation of oncogenes (mutation of the normal genes controlling cell division and other processes).

• Cancer cells have four characteristics that distinguish them from normal cells:

– uncontrolled proliferation

– loss of function because of lack of capacity to differentiate

– invasiveness
– the ability to metastasise.

• Cancer cells have uncontrolled proliferation often because of changes in:
– growth factors and/or their receptors
– intracellular signalling pathways, particularly those controlling the cell cycle and apoptosis
– telomerase expression.

• This may be supported by tumour-related angiogenesis.

• Most anticancer drugs are antiproliferative—most damage DNA and thereby initiate apoptosis. They also affect rapidly dividing normal cells and are thus likely to depress bone marrow, impair healing and depress growth. Most cause nausea, vomiting, sterility, hair loss and teratogenicity.

Anticancer Drugs

The main anticancer drugs can be divided into the following general categories:

• *Cytotoxic drugs*. The mechanism of action of these drugs is discussed more fully below and summarised in Table 55.1; they include:
– *alkylating agents* and related compounds, which act by forming covalent bonds with DNA and thus impeding replication
– *antimetabolites*, which block or subvert one or more of the metabolic pathways involved in DNA synthesis
– *cytotoxic antibiotics*, *i.e.* substances of microbial origin that prevent mammalian cell division

– *plant derivatives* (vinca alkaloids, taxanes, campothecins): most of these specifically affect microtubule function and hence the formation of the mitotic spindle.

• *Hormones*, of which the most important are steroids (e.g. glucocorticoids, oestrogens and androgens) as well as drugs that suppress hormone secretion or antagonise hormone action.

• *Monoclonal antibodies*: these are generally only of use in particular types of cancer.

• *Protein kinase inhibitors*: these drugs inhibit protein (usually tyrosine) kinases that transduce growth signals in rapidly dividing cells. They have a rather restricted use.

• *Miscellaneous agents* that do not easily fit into the above categories.

Table 55.1 An overview of anticancer drugs

Type	Group	Examples	Main mechanism
Alkylating and related agents	Nitrogen mustards	Cyclophosphamide, ifosfamide, chlorambucil, melphalan, estramustine,	Intrastrand cross-linking of DNA
	Nitrosoureas	Lomustine, carmustine,	
	Platinum compounds	Carboplatin, cisplatin, oxaliplatin	
	Other	Busulfan, treosulfan, thiotepa, dacarbazine, procarbazine, temozolimide	
Antimetabolites	Folate antagonists	Methotrexate, raltitrexed, pemetrexed	Blocking the synthesis of DNA and/or RNA
	Pyrimdine pathway	Fluorouracil, capecitabine, cytarabine, gemcitabine, tegafur	
	Purine pathway	Fludarabine, cladibrine, mercaptopurine, tioguanine, pentostatin, clofarabrine, nelarabine	
Cytotoxic antibiotics	Anthracyclines	Daunorubicin, doxorubicin, epirubicin, idarubicin, (mitoxantrine), (amascrine)	Multiple effects on DNA/ RNA synthesis and topisomerase action
	Other	Bleomycin, dactinomycin, mitomycin	
Plant derivatives	Taxanes	Paclitaxel, docetaxel	Microtubule assembly; prevents spindle formation
	Vinca alkaloids	Vinblastine, vincristine, vindesine, vinorelbine	
	Campothecins	Irinotecan, topotecan, trabectedin	Inhibition of topoisomerase
	Other	Etoposide	
Hormones/antagonists	Hormones/analogues	Diethylstilbestrol, ethinyloestradiol, medroxyprogesterone, megesterol, norhisterone, goserelin, leuporelin, triptorelin, lanreotide, octreotide	Act as physiological antagonists, antagonists or hormone synthesis inhibitors to disrupt hormone-dependent tumour growth
	Antagonists	Tamoxifen, toremifine, fulvestrant, cyproterone, flutamide, bicalutamide	
	Aromatase inhibitors	Anastrozole, letrozole, exemastine	
Protein kinase inhibitors	Tyrosine kinase inhibitors	Dasatinib, erlotinib, imatinib, nilotinib, sunitinib	Inhibition of kinases involved in growth factor receptor transduction
	Pan kinase inhibitors	Sorafenib	
Monoclonal antibodies	Anti-EGF, EGF-2	Panitumumab, trastuzumab	Blocks cell proliferation
	Anti-CD20/CD52	Rituximab, alemtuzumab	Inhibition of lymphocyte proliferation
	Anti-VEGF	Bevacizumab	Prevents angiogenesis

Drugs in parentheses have similar pharmacological actions but are not necessarily chemically related.

The clinical use of anticancer drugs is the province of the specialist, who selects treatment regimens appropriate to the patient with the objective of curing, prolonging life or providing palliative therapy.[2] There are over 80 drugs available in the UK, which are often used in combination. Here we discuss mechanisms of action and the main unwanted effects of commonly used anticancer agents. A recent textbook (Airley, 2009) provides detailed information.

Alkylating Agents and Related Compounds

[2]You will have gathered that many anticancer drugs are toxic. ‘To be an oncologist,’ one practitioner quipped, ‘one has to hate cancer more than

one loves life.'

Alkylating agents and related compounds contain chemical groups that can form covalent bonds with particular nucleophilic substances in the cell. With alkylating agents themselves, the main step is the formation of a *carbonium ion*—a carbon atom with only six electrons in its outer shell. Such ions are highly reactive and react instantaneously with an electron donor such as an amine, hydroxyl or sulfhydryl group. Most of the cytotoxic anticancer alkylating agents are *bifunctional, i.e.* they have two alkylating groups (Fig. 55.3).

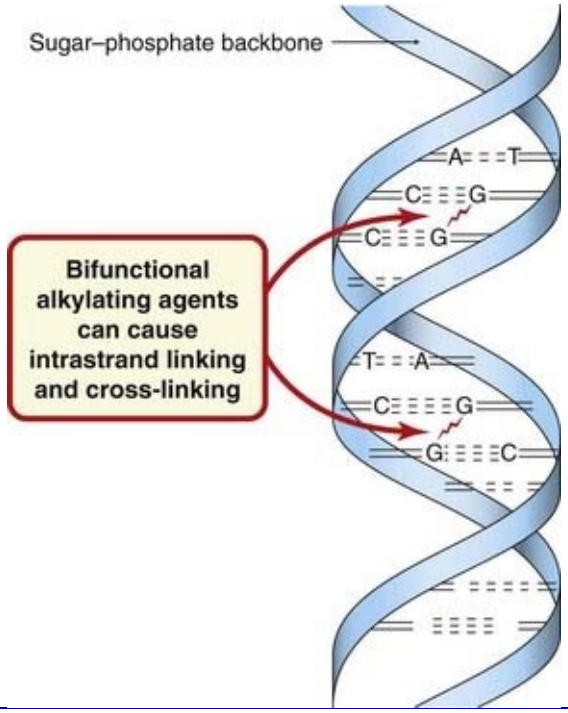


Fig. 55.3 The effects of bifunctional alkylating agents on DNA.
Note the cross-linking of two guanines. A, adenine; C, cytosine; G, guanine; T, thymine.

The nitrogen at position 7 (N7) of guanine, being strongly nucleophilic, is probably the main molecular target for alkylation in DNA (Fig. 55.3), although N1 and N3 of adenine and N3 of cytosine may

also be affected. A bifunctional agent, by reacting with two groups, can cause intra-or interchain cross-linking (Fig. 55.3). This interferes not only with transcription, but also with replication, which is probably the critical effect of anticancer alkylating agents. Other effects of alkylation at guanine N7 are excision of the guanine base with main chain scission, or pairing of the alkylated guanine with thymine instead of cytosine, and eventual substitution of the GC pair by an AT pair. Their main impact is seen during replication (S phase), when some zones of the DNA are unpaired and more susceptible to alkylation. This results in a block at G_2 (see Fig. 55.3) and subsequent apoptotic cell death.

All alkylating agents depress bone marrow function and cause gastrointestinal disturbances. With prolonged use, two further unwanted effects occur: depression of *gametogenesis* (particularly in men), leading to sterility, and an increased risk of acute *non-lymphocytic leukaemia* and other malignancies.

Alkylating agents are among the most commonly employed of all anticancer drugs. A large number are available for use in cancer chemotherapy (some dozen are approved in the UK at the time of writing). Only a few commonly used ones will be dealt with here.

Nitrogen mustards

Nitrogen mustards are related to the 'mustard gas' used during the First World War; their basic formula (R-*N*-*bis*-(2-chloroethyl)) is shown in Figure 55.4. In the body, each 2-chloroethyl side-chain undergoes an intramolecular cyclisation with the release of a Cl^-. The highly reactive *ethylene immonium* derivative so formed can interact with DNA (see Figs 55.3 and 55.4) and other molecules.

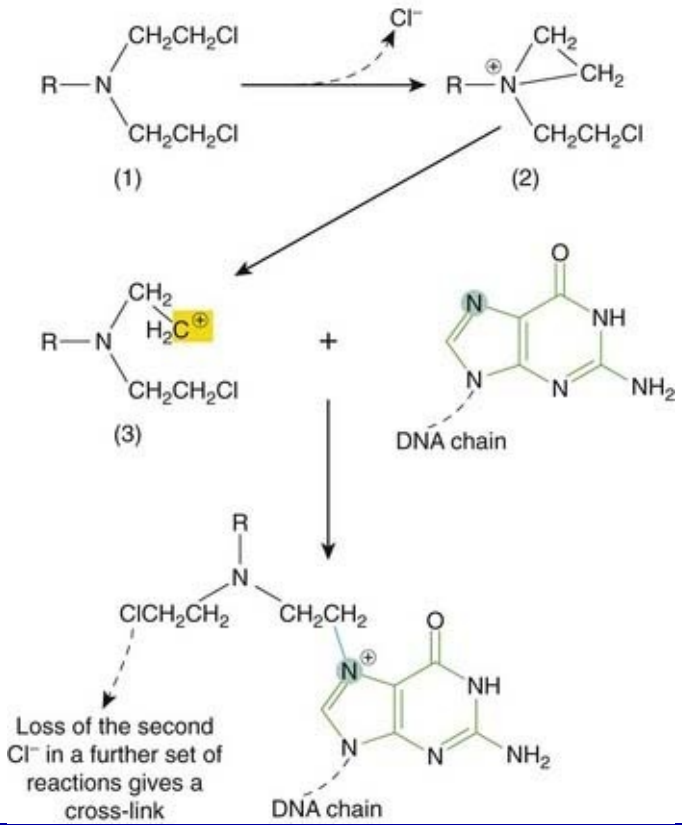


Fig. 55.4 An example of alkylation and cross-linking of DNA by a nitrogen mustard.

A bis(chloroethyl)amine (1) undergoes intramolecular cyclisation, forming an unstable ethylene immonium cation (2) and releasing Cl^-, the tertiary amine being transformed to a quaternary ammonium compound. The strained ring of the ethylene immonium intermediate opens to form a reactive carbonium ion (in yellow box) (3), which reacts immediately with N7 of guanine (in green circle) to give 7-alkylguanine (bond shown in blue), the N7 being converted to a quaternary ammonium nitrogen. These reactions can then be repeated with the other $-CH_2CH_2Cl$ to give a cross-link.

Cyclophosphamide is probably the most commonly used alkylating agent. It is inactive until metabolised in the liver by the P450 mixed function oxidases (see Ch. 9). It has a pronounced effect on lymphocytes and can also be used as an immunosuppressant (see Ch. 26). It is usually given orally or by intravenous injection but may also be given intramuscularly. Important toxic effects are nausea and vomiting, bone marrow depression and haemorrhagic cystitis. This last effect (which

also occurs with the related drug **ifosfamide**) is caused by the metabolite *acrolein* and can be ameliorated by increasing fluid intake and administering compounds that are sulfhydryl donors, such as ***N*-acetylcysteine** or **mesna** (sodium-2-mercaptoethane sulfonate). These agents interact specifically with acrolein, forming a non-toxic compound. See also Chapters 9 and 57. Other nitrogen mustards used include **melphalan** and **chlorambucil**.

Estramustine is a combination of chlormethine (mustine) with an oestrogen. It has both cytotoxic and hormonal action, and is generally used for the treatment of prostate cancer.

Nitrosoureas

Examples include **lomustine** and **carmustine**. As they are lipid soluble and cross the blood–brain barrier, they may be used against tumours of the brain and meninges. However, most nitrosoureas have a severe cumulative depressive effect on the bone marrow that starts 3–6 weeks after initiation of treatment.

Other alkylating agents

Busulfan has a selective effect on the bone marrow, depressing the formation of granulocytes and platelets in low dosage and of red cells in higher dosage. It has little or no effect on lymphoid tissue or the gastrointestinal tract. It is used in chronic granulocytic leukaemia.

Dacarbazine, a prodrug, is activated in the liver, and the resulting compound is subsequently cleaved in the target cell to release an alkylating derivative. Unwanted effects include myelotoxicity and severe nausea and vomiting. **Temozolomide** is a related compound with a

restricted usage (malignant glioma).

Procarbazine inhibits DNA and RNA synthesis and interferes with mitosis at interphase. Its effects may be mediated by the production of active metabolites. It is given orally, and its main use is in Hodgkin's disease. It causes **disulfiram**-like actions with alcohol (see Ch. 56), exacerbates the effects of central nervous system depressants and, because it is a weak monoamine oxidase inhibitor, can produce hypertension if given with certain sympathomimetic agents (see Ch. 46). It causes the usual unwanted effects, and can be leukaemogenic, carcinogenic and teratogenic. Allergic skin reactions may necessitate cessation of treatment.

Other alkylating agents in clinical use include **thiotepa** and **treosulfan**.

Platinum compounds

Cisplatin is a water-soluble planar coordination complex containing a central platinum atom surrounded by two chlorine atoms and two ammonia groups. Its action is analogous to that of the alkylating agents. When it enters the cell, Cl^- dissociates, leaving a reactive complex that reacts with water and then interacts with DNA. It causes intrastrand cross-linking, probably between N7 and O6 of adjacent guanine molecules, which results in local denaturation of DNA.

Cisplatin has revolutionised the treatment of solid tumours of the testes and ovary. Therapeutically, it is given by slow intravenous injection or infusion. It is seriously nephrotoxic, and strict regimens of hydration and diuresis must be instituted. It has low myelotoxicity but causes very severe nausea and vomiting. The 5-HT_3 receptor antagonists

(e.g. **ondansetron**; see Chs 15, 29 and 38) are very effective in preventing this and have transformed cisplatin-based chemotherapy. Tinnitus and hearing loss in the high-frequency range may occur, as may peripheral neuropathies, hyperuricaemia and anaphylactic reactions.

Carboplatin is a derivative of cisplatin. Because it causes less nephrotoxicity, neurotoxicity, ototoxicity, nausea and vomiting than cisplatin (although it is more myelotoxic), it is sometimes given on an outpatient basis. **Oxaliplatin** is another platinum-containing compound with a restricted application.

Anticancer drugs Alkylating agents and related compounds 

• Alkylating agents have groups that form covalent bonds with cell substituents; a carbonium ion is the reactive intermediate. Most have two alkylating groups and can cross-link two nucleophilic sites such as the N7 of guanine in DNA. Cross-linking can cause defective replication through pairing of alkylguanine and thymine, leading to substitution of AT for GC, or it can cause excision of guanine and chain breakage.

• Their principal effect occurs during DNA synthesis and the resulting damage triggers apoptosis.

• Unwanted effects include myelosuppression, sterility and risk of non-lymphocytic leukaemia.

• The main alkylating agents are:

– nitrogen mustards, for example **cyclophosphamide**, which is activated to give aldophosphamide, then converted to phosphoramide mustard (the cytotoxic molecule) and acrolein (which causes bladder

damage that can be ameliorated by mesna). Cyclophosphamide myelosuppression affects particularly the lymphocytes

– nitrosoureas, for example **lomustine**, may act on non-dividing cells, can cross the blood–brain barrier and cause delayed, cumulative myelotoxicity.

• Platinum compounds (e.g. **cisplatin**) cause intrastrand linking in DNA. Cisplatin has low myelotoxicity but causes severe nausea and vomiting, and can be nephrotoxic. It has revolutionised the treatment of germ cell tumours.

Antimetabolites

Folate antagonists

The main folate antagonist is **methotrexate**, one of the most widely used antimetabolites in cancer chemotherapy. Folates are essential for the synthesis of purine nucleotides and thymidylate, which in turn are essential for DNA synthesis and cell division. (This topic is also dealt with in Chs 25, 49 and 53.) The main action of the folate antagonists is to interfere with thymidylate synthesis.

In structure, folates consist of three elements: a *pteridine ring*, p-*aminobenzoic acid* and *glutamic acid* (Fig. 55.5). Folates are actively taken up into cells, where they are converted to polyglutamates. In order to act as coenzymes, folates must be reduced to tetrahydrofolate (FH_4). This two-step reaction is catalysed by *dihydrofolate reductase*, which converts the substrate first to dihydrofolate (FH_2), then to FH_4 (Fig. 55.6). FH_4 functions as an essential co-factor carrying the methyl groups necessary for the transformation of 2′-deoxyuridylate (DUMP) to the 2′-

deoxythymidylate (DTMP) required for the synthesis of DNA and purines. During the formation of DTMP from DUMP, FH_4 is converted back to FH_2, enabling the cycle to repeat. Methotrexate has a higher affinity than FH_2 for dihydrofolate reductase and thus inhibits the enzyme (Fig. 55.6), depleting intracellular FH_4. The binding of methotrexate to dihydrofolate reductase involves an additional bond not present when FH_2 binds. The reaction most sensitive to FH_4 depletion is DTMP formation.

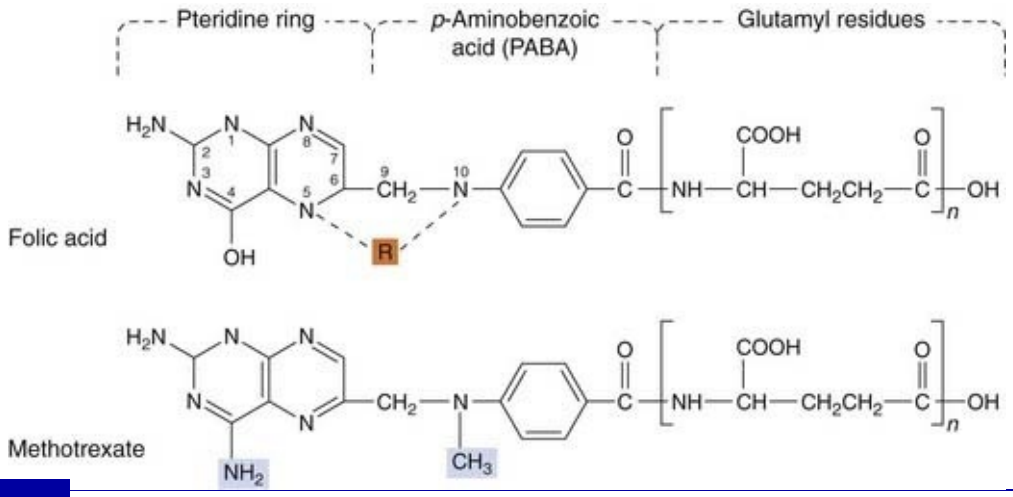


Fig. 55.5 Structure of folic acid and methotrexate.

Both compounds are shown as polyglutamates. In tetrahydrofolate, one-carbon groups (R, in orange box) are transported on N5 or N10 or both (shown dotted). The points at which methotrexate differs from endogenous folic acid are shown in the blue boxes.

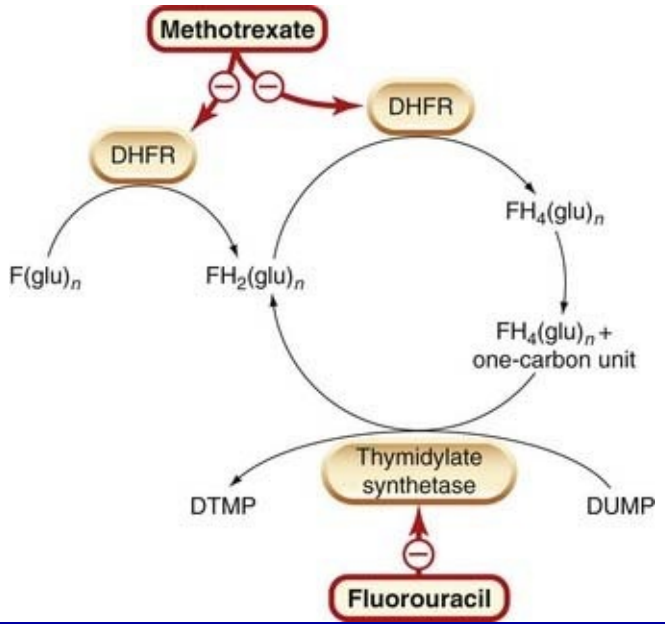


Fig. 55.6 Simplified diagram of action of methotrexate and fluorouracil on thymidylate synthesis.

Tetrahydrofolate polyglutamate $FH4(glu)_n$ functions as a carrier of a one-carbon unit, providing the methyl group necessary for the conversion of 2′-deoxyuridylate (DUMP) to 2′-deoxythymidylate (DTMP) by thymidylate synthetase. This one-carbon transfer results in the oxidation of $FH4(glu)_n$ to $FH_2(glu)_n$. Fluorouracil is converted to FDUMP, which inhibits thymidylate synthetase. DHFR, dihydrofolate reductase.

Methotrexate is usually given orally but can also be given intramuscularly, intravenously or intrathecally. The drug has low lipid solubility and thus does not readily cross the blood–brain barrier. It is, however, actively taken up into cells by the folate transport system and is metabolised to polyglutamate derivatives, which are retained in the cell for weeks (or even months in some cases) in the absence of extracellular drug. Resistance to methotrexate may develop in tumour cells by a variety of mechanisms (see below). Methotrexate is also used as an immunosuppressant drug to treat rheumatoid arthritis and other autoimmune conditions (see Ch. 26).

Unwanted effects include depression of the bone marrow and damage

to the epithelium of the gastrointestinal tract. Pneumonitis can occur. In addition, high-dose regimens—doses 10 times greater than the standard doses, sometimes used in patients with methotrexate resistance—can lead to nephrotoxicity, caused by precipitation of the drug or a metabolite in the renal tubules. High-dose regimens must be followed by 'rescue' with *folinic acid* (a form of FH_4).

Chemically related to folate, **raltitrexed** also inhibits thymidylate synthetase and **pemetrexed**, thymidylate transferase.

Pyrimidine analogues

Fluorouracil, an analogue of uracil, also interferes with DTMP synthesis (Fig. 55.6). It is converted into a 'fraudulent' nucleotide, *fluorodeoxyuridine monophosphate* (FDUMP). This interacts with thymidylate synthetase but cannot be converted into DTMP. The result is inhibition of DNA but not RNA or protein synthesis.

Fluorouracil is usually given parenterally. The main *unwanted effects* are gastrointestinal epithelial damage and myelotoxicity. Cerebellar disturbances can also occur. Another drug, **capecitabine**, is metabolised to fluorouracil as is **tegafur**.

Cytarabine (cytosine arabinoside) is an analogue of the naturally occurring nucleoside 2′-deoxycytidine. The drug enters the target cell and undergoes the same phosphorylation reactions as the endogenous nucleoside to give *cytosine arabinoside trisphosphate*, which inhibits DNA polymerase (see Fig. 55.7). The main *unwanted effects* are on the bone marrow and the gastrointestinal tract. It also causes nausea and vomiting.

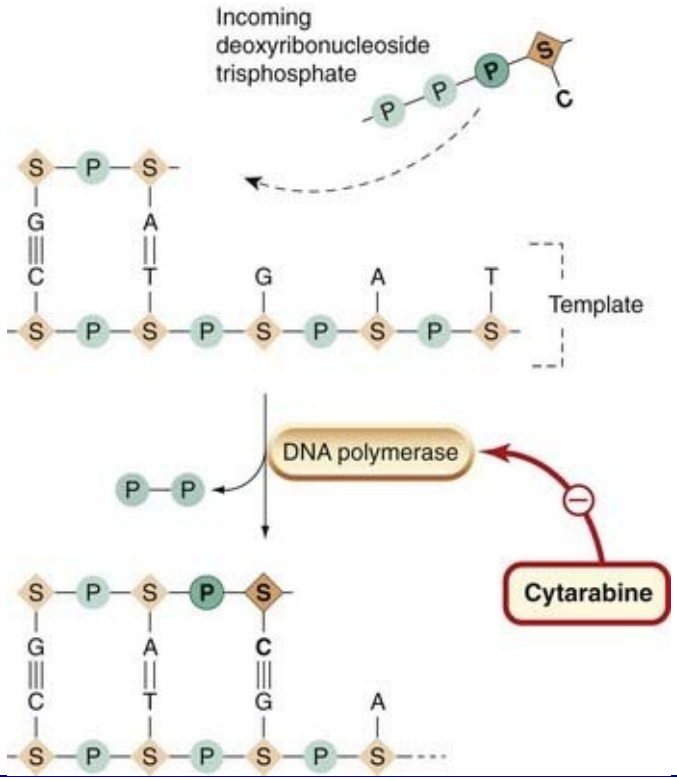


Fig. 55.7 The mechanism of action of cytarabine (cytosine arabinoside).
For details of DNA polymerase action, see Figure 49.8. Cytarabine is an analogue of cytosine.

Gemcitabine, an analogue of cytarabine, has fewer *unwanted actions*, mainly an influenza-like syndrome and mild myelotoxicity. It is often given in combination with other drugs such as cisplatin.

Purine analogues

The main anticancer purine analogues include **fludarabine**, **pentostatin**, **cladribine**, **clofarabrine**, **nelarabrine**, **mercaptopurine** and **tioguanine**.

Fludarabine is metabolised to the trisphosphate and inhibits DNA synthesis by actions similar to those of cytarabine. It is myelosuppressive. Pentostatin has a different mechanism of action. It inhibits *adenosine deaminase*, the enzyme that transforms adenosine to

inosine. This action interferes with critical pathways in purine metabolism and can have significant effects on cell proliferation. Cladribine, mercaptopurine and tioguanine are used mainly in the treatment of leukaemia.

Anticancer drugs Antimetabolites

• Antimetabolites block or subvert pathways of DNA synthesis.

• *Folate antagonists*. **Methotrexate** inhibits dihydrofolate reductase, preventing generation of tetrahydrofolate interfering with thymidylate synthesis. Methotrexate is taken up into cells by the folate carrier and, like folate, is converted to the polyglutamate form. Normal cells affected by high doses can be 'rescued' by folinic acid. Unwanted effects are myelosuppression and possible nephrotoxicity.

• *Pyrimidine analogues*. **Fluorouracil** is converted to a 'fraudulent' nucleotide and inhibits thymidylate synthesis. **Cytarabine** in its trisphosphate form inhibits DNA polymerase. They are potent myelosuppressives.

• *Purine analogues*. **Mercaptopurine** is converted into fraudulent nucleotide. **Fludarabine** in its trisphosphate form inhibits DNA polymerase and is myelosuppressive. **Pentostatin** inhibits adenosine deaminase—a critical pathway in purine metabolism.

Cytotoxic Antibiotics

This is a widely used group of drugs that mainly produce their effects through direct action on DNA. As a rule, they should not be given

together with radiotherapy, as the cumulative burden of toxicity is very high.

Doxorubicin and the anthracyclines

The main anticancer anthracycline antibiotic is **doxorubicin**. Other related compounds include **idarubicin**, **daunorubicin**, **epirubicin** and **mitoxantrone** (**mitozantrone**). **Amascrine** has a similar action to this group.

Doxorubicin has several cytotoxic actions. It binds to DNA and inhibits both DNA and RNA synthesis, but its main cytotoxic action appears to be mediated through an effect on topoisomerase II (a DNA gyrase; see Ch. 49), the activity of which is markedly increased in proliferating cells. The significance of the enzyme lies in the fact that, during replication of the DNA helix, reversible swivelling needs to take place around the replication fork in order to prevent the daughter DNA molecule becoming inextricably entangled during mitotic segregation. The 'swivel' is produced by topoisomerase II, which nicks both DNA strands and subsequently reseals the breaks. Doxorubicin intercalates in the DNA, and its effect is, in essence, to stabilise the DNA–topoisomerase II complex after the strands have been nicked, thus halting the process at this point.

Doxorubicin is given by intravenous infusion. Extravasation at the injection site can cause local necrosis. In addition to the general unwanted effects, the drug can cause cumulative, dose-related cardiac damage, leading to dysrhythmias and heart failure. This action may be the result of generation of free radicals. Marked hair loss frequently occurs.

Dactinomycin

Dactinomycin intercalates in the minor groove of DNA between adjacent guanosine–cytosine pairs, interfering with the movement of RNA polymerase along the gene and thus preventing transcription. There is also evidence that it has a similar action to that of the anthracyclines on topoisomerase II. It produces most of the toxic effects outlined above, except cardiotoxicity. It is mainly used for treating paediatric cancers.

Bleomycins

The bleomycins are a group of metal-chelating glycopeptide antibiotics that degrade preformed DNA, causing chain fragmentation and release of free bases. This action is thought to involve chelation of ferrous iron and interaction with oxygen, resulting in the oxidation of the iron and generation of superoxide and/or hydroxyl radicals. Bleomycin is most effective in the G_2 phase of the cell cycle and mitosis, but it is also active against non-dividing cells (i.e. cells in the G_0 phase; Fig. 5.4). It is often used to treat germline cancer. In contrast to most anticancer drugs, bleomycin causes little myelosuppression: its most serious toxic effect is pulmonary fibrosis, which occurs in 10% of patients treated and is reported to be fatal in 1%. Allergic reactions can also occur. About half the patients manifest mucocutaneous reactions (the palms are frequently affected), and many develop hyperpyrexia.

Mitomycin

Following enzymic activation, **mitomycin** functions as a bifunctional alkylating agent, binding preferentially at O6 of the guanine nucleus. It cross-links DNA and may also degrade DNA through the generation of

free radicals. It causes marked delayed myelosuppression and can also cause kidney damage and fibrosis of lung tissue.

Anticancer drugs Cytotoxic antibiotics 

• **Doxorubicin** inhibits DNA and RNA synthesis; the DNA effect is mainly through interference with topoisomerase II action. Unwanted effects include nausea, vomiting, myelosuppression and hair loss. It is cardiotoxic in high doses.

• **Bleomycin** causes fragmentation of DNA chains. It acts on non-dividing cells. Unwanted effects include fever, allergies, mucocutaneous reactions and pulmonary fibrosis. There is virtually no myelosuppression.

• **Dactinomycin** intercalates in DNA, interfering with RNA polymerase and inhibiting transcription. It also interferes with the action of topoisomerase II. Unwanted effects include nausea, vomiting and myelosuppression.

• **Mitomycin** is activated to give an alkylating metabolite.

Plant Derivatives

Several naturally occurring plant products exert potent cytotoxic effects and have earned a place in the arsenal of anticancer drugs on that basis.

Vinca alkaloids

The vinca alkaloids are derived from the *Madagascar periwinkle (Catharanthus roseus)*. The principal members of the group are

vincristine, **vinblastine** and **vindesine**. **Vinorelbine** is a semisynthetic vinca alkaloid with similar properties that is mainly used in breast cancer. The drugs bind to tubulin and inhibit its polymerisation into microtubules, preventing spindle formation in dividing cells and causing arrest at metaphase. Their effects become manifest only during mitosis. They also inhibit other cellular activities that involve the microtubules, such as leukocyte phagocytosis and chemotaxis, as well as axonal transport in neurons.

The vinca alkaloids are relatively non-toxic. Vincristine has very mild myelosuppressive activity but causes paraesthesias (sensory changes), abdominal pain and muscle weakness fairly frequently. Vinblastine is less neurotoxic but causes leukopenia, while vindesine has both moderate myelotoxicity and neurotoxicity. All members of the group can cause reversible alopecia.

Paclitaxel and docetaxel

These *taxanes* are derived from a naturally occurring compound found in the bark of the yew tree (*Taxus* spp.). They act on microtubules, stabilising them (in effect 'freezing' them) in the polymerised state, achieving a similar effect to that of the vinca alkaloids. Paclitaxel is given by intravenous infusion and docetaxel by mouth. Both have a place in the treatment of breast cancer, and paclitaxel, given with carboplatin, is the treatment of choice for ovarian cancer.

Unwanted effects, which can be serious, include bone marrow suppression and cumulative neurotoxicity. Resistant fluid retention (particularly oedema of the legs) can occur with docetaxel. Hypersensitivity to both compounds is liable to occur and requires

pretreatment with corticosteroids and antihistamines.

Camptothecins

The camptothecins **irinotecan** and **topotecan**, isolated from the stem of the tree *Camptotheca acuminata*, bind to and inhibit topoisomerase I, high levels of which occur throughout the cell cycle. Diarrhoea and reversible bone marrow depression occur but, in general, these alkaloids have fewer unwanted effects than most other anticancer agents.

Etoposide

Etoposide is derived from mandrake root (*Podophyllum peltatum*). Its mode of action is not clearly known, but it may act by inhibiting mitochondrial function and nucleoside transport, as well as having an effect on topoisomerase II similar to doxorubicin (see above). *Unwanted effects* include nausea and vomiting, myelosuppression and hair loss.

Anticancer drugs Plant derivatives 

• **Vincristine** inhibits mitosis at metaphase by binding to tubulin. It is relatively non-toxic but can cause unwanted neuromuscular effects.

• **Etoposide** inhibits DNA synthesis by an action on topoisomerase II and also inhibits mitochondrial function. Common unwanted effects include vomiting, myelosuppression and alopecia.

• **Paclitaxel** stabilises microtubules, inhibiting mitosis; it is relatively toxic and hypersensitivity reactions occur.

• **Irinotecan** inhibits topoisomerase I; it has relatively few toxic effects.

Hormones

Tumours arising in hormone-sensitive tissues (e.g. breast, uterus, prostate gland) may be *hormone dependent*, an effect related to the presence of hormone receptors in the malignant cells. Their growth can be inhibited by hormones with opposing actions, by hormone antagonists or by agents that inhibit the endogenous hormone synthesis. Hormones or their analogues that have inhibitory actions on target tissues can be used in treatment of tumours of those tissues. Such procedures alone rarely effect a cure but do retard tumour growth and mitigate the symptoms of the cancer, and thus play an important part in the clinical management of sex hormone-dependent tumours.

Glucocorticoids

Glucocorticoids such as **prednisolone** and **dexamethasone** have marked inhibitory effects on lymphocyte proliferation (see Ch. 26) and are used in the treatment of leukaemias and lymphomas. Their ability to lower raised intracranial pressure, and to mitigate some of the side effects of anticancer drugs, such as nausea and vomiting, makes them useful as supportive therapy when treating other cancers, as well as in palliative care.

Oestrogens

Diethylstilbestrol and **ethinyloestradiol** are two oestrogens used clinically as physiological antagonists in the palliative treatment of androgen-dependent prostatic tumours. The latter compound has fewer side effects. These tumours are also treated with gonadotrophin-releasing hormone analogues (see below).

Oestrogens can also be used to recruit resting mammary cancer cells (i.e. cells in compartment B; see above) into the proliferating pool of cells (i.e. into compartment A), thus facilitating killing by other, cytotoxic drugs.

Progestogens

Progestogens such as **megestrol**, **norehisterone** and **medroxyprogesterone** have been useful in endometrial neoplasms and in renal tumours.

Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone analogues

As explained in Chapter 34, analogues of the gonadotrophin-releasing hormones, such as **goserelin**, **buserelin**, **leuprorelin** and **triptorelin**, can, under certain circumstances, inhibit gonadotrophin release. These agents are therefore used to treat advanced breast cancer in premenopausal women and prostate cancer. The effect of the transient surge of testosterone secretion that can occur in patients treated in this way for prostate cancer must be prevented by an antiandrogen such as **cyproterone**.

Somatostatin analogues

Analogues of somatostatin such as **octreotide** and **lanreotide** (see Ch. 32) are used to relieve the symptoms of neuroendocrine tumours, including hormone-secreting tumours of the gastrointestinal tract such as VIPomas, glucagonomas, carcinoid tumours and gastrinomas. These tumours express somatostatin receptors, activation of which inhibits cell proliferation as well as hormone secretion.

Hormone Antagonists

In addition to the hormones themselves, hormone antagonists can also be effective in the treatment of several types of hormone-sensitive tumours.

Antioestrogens

An antioestrogen, **tamoxifen**, is remarkably effective in some cases of hormone-dependent breast cancer and may have a role in preventing these cancers. In breast tissue, tamoxifen competes with endogenous oestrogens for the oestrogen receptors and therefore inhibits the transcription of oestrogen-responsive genes. Tamoxifen is also reported to have cardioprotective effects, partly by virtue of its ability to protect low-density-lipoproteins against oxidative damage.

Unwanted effects are similar to those experienced by women following the menopause. Potentially more serious are hyperplastic events in the endometrium, which may progress to malignant changes, and the risk of thromboembolism.

Other oestrogen receptor antagonists include **toremifene** and **fulvestrant**. Aromatase inhibitors such as **anastrozole**, **letrozole** and **exemestane**, which suppress the synthesis of oestrogen from androgens, are also effective in the treatment of breast cancer. **Aminoglutethimide**, which blocks the generation of all steroids, has been largely replaced by the aromatase inhibitors.

Antiandrogens

The androgen antagonists, **flutamide**, **cyproterone** and **bicalutamide**, may be used either alone or in combination with other agents to treat

tumours of the prostate. They are also used to control the testosterone surge ('flare') that is seen when treating patients with gonadorelin analogues (see above).

Adrenal hormone synthesis inhibitors

Several agents that inhibit synthesis of adrenal hormones have effects in postmenopausal breast cancer. The drugs used are **trilostane** and (rarely today) aminoglutethimide, which inhibit the early stages of sex hormone synthesis. Replacement of corticosteroids is necessary with these agents.

Anticancer agents Hormones 

Hormones or their antagonists are used in hormone-sensitive tumours:

- **Glucocorticoids** for leukaemias and lymphomas.
- **Tamoxifen** for breast tumours.
- **Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone analogues** for prostate and breast tumours.
- **Antiandrogens** for prostate cancer.
- **Inhibitors of sex hormone synthesis** for postmenopausal breast cancer.

Monoclonal Antibodies

Monoclonal antibodies are immunoglobulins, of one molecular type,[3] produced by hybridoma cells in culture, that react with defined target proteins expressed on cancer cells. Some are *humanised*, meaning that

they are hybrids or *chimeras* of human antibodies with a murine or primate backbone[4] (and hence are less likely to be immunogenic in their own right; see Ch. 59 for more details). In some cases, binding of the antibody to its target activates the host's immune mechanisms and the cancer cell is killed by complement-mediated lysis or by killer T cells (see Ch. 6). Other monoclonal antibodies attach to and inactivate growth factor receptors on cancer cells, thus inhibiting the survival pathway and promoting apoptosis (Fig. 5.5).

[3]As opposed to the 'polyclonal' antibodies produced by the body in response to a foreign antigen, which comprise a complex (and variable) molecular species.

[4]The nomenclature can be confusing: by convention the suffix '-mab' denotes a 'monoclonal antibody'; '-momab' a mouse; '-ximab' a chimeric; '-zumab' a humanised; and '-umab' a human antibody.

Monoclonal antibodies are relatively recent additions to the anticancer armamentarium. Unlike most of the cytotoxic drugs described above, they offer the prospect of highly targeted therapy without many of the side effects of conventional chemotherapy. This advantage is offset in most instances as they are often given in combination with more traditional drugs. Several monoclonals are in current clinical use. Their high cost is a significant problem.

Rituximab

Rituximab is a monoclonal antibody that is licensed (in combination with other chemotherapeutic agents) for treatment of certain types of *lymphoma*. It lyses B lymphocytes by binding to the calcium channel-forming CD20 protein and activating complement. It also sensitises

resistant cells (see below) to other chemotherapeutic drugs. It is effective in 40–50% of cases when combined with standard chemotherapy.

The drug is given by infusion, and its plasma half-life is approximately 3 days when first given, increasing with each administration to about 8 days by the fourth administration.

Unwanted effects include hypotension, chills and fever during the initial infusions and subsequent hypersensitivity reactions. A cytokine release reaction can occur and has been fatal. The drug may exacerbate cardiovascular disorders.

Alemtuzumab is another monoclonal antibody that lyses B lymphocytes, and is used in the treatment of resistant chronic lymphocytic leukaemia. It may also cause a similar cytokine release reaction to that with rituximab.

Trastuzumab

Trastuzumab (Herceptin) is a humanised murine monoclonal antibody that binds to an oncogenic protein termed *HER2* (the human epidermal growth factor receptor 2), a member of the wider family of receptors with integral tyrosine kinase activity (Fig. 55.1). There is some evidence that, in addition to inducing host immune responses, trastuzumab induces cell cycle inhibitors p21 and p27 (Fig. 5.2). Tumour cells, in about 25% of breast cancer patients, overexpress this receptor and the cancer proliferates rapidly. Early results show that trastuzumab given with standard chemotherapy has resulted in a 79% 1-year survival rate in treatment-naive patients with this aggressive form of breast cancer. The drug is often given with a taxane such as docetaxel.

Two mechanistically related compounds are **panitumumab** and

cetuximab, which bind to epidermal growth factor (EGF) receptors (also overexpressed in a high proportion of tumours). They are used for the treatment of colorectal cancer usually in combination with other agents.

Unwanted effects are similar to those with rituximab.

Bevacizumab

Bevacizumab is a humanised monoclonal antibody that is also used for the treatment of colorectal cancer but would be expected to be useful for treating other cancers too. It neutralises *VEGF* (vascular endothelial growth factor), thereby preventing the angiogenesis that is crucial to tumour survival. It is administered by intravenous infusion and is generally combined with other agents. It is also given by direct injection into the eye to retard the progress of *acute macular degeneration* (AMD), a common cause of blindness associated with increased retinal vascularisation.

Protein Kinase Inhibitors

Imatinib

Hailed as a conceptual breakthrough in targeted chemotherapy, **imatinib** is a small-molecule inhibitor of signalling pathway kinases. It inhibits an oncogenic cytoplasmic kinase (Bcr/Abl, see Fig. 55.1 and Fig. 55.8) considered to be a unique factor in the pathogenesis of chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML), and also inhibits platelet-derived growth factor (a receptor tyrosine kinase; Fig. 55.1). It has greatly improved the hitherto poor prognosis of patients with CML, and is also used for the treatment of some gastrointestinal tumours not susceptible to surgery.

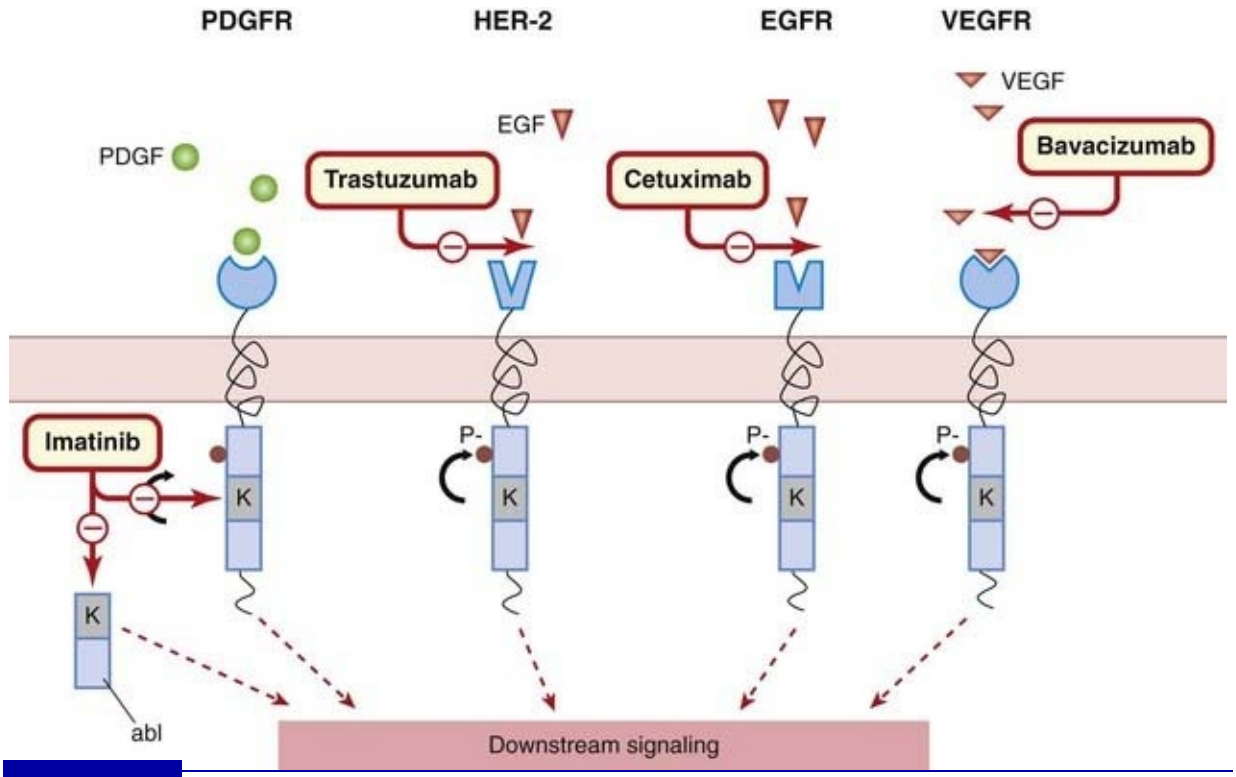


Fig. 55.8 The mechanism of action of anticancer monoclonal antibodies and protein kinase inhibitors.

Many tumours overexpress growth factor receptors such as EGFR, the proto-oncogene HER2 or VEGFR. Therapeutic monoclonals can prevent this by interacting directly with the receptor itself (e.g. trastuzumab, cetuximab) or with the ligand (e.g. bevacizumab). An alternate way of reducing this drive on cell proliferation is by inhibiting the downstream signalling cascade. The receptor tyrosine kinases are good targets as are some oncongenic kinases such as bcr/abl.

The drug is given orally. The half-life is long, about 18 h, and the main site of metabolism is in the liver, where approximately 75% of the drug is converted to a metabolite that is also biologically active. The bulk (81%) of the metabolised drug is excreted in the faeces.

Unwanted effects include gastrointestinal symptoms (pain, diarrhoea, nausea), fatigue, headaches and sometimes rashes. Resistance to imatinib, resulting from mutation of the kinase gene, is a growing problem. It results in little or no cross-resistance to other kinase inhibitors (see below).

Other mechanistically similar drugs which inhibit the bcr-abl kinase include **dasatinib** and **nilotinib** while **erlotinib** targets the EGFR kinase and **sunitinib** another tyrosine kinase. **Sorafenib** inhibits all these kinases. Several kinase inhibitors are currently in development, and are expected to make a significant contribution to cancer therapy in the foreseeable future.

Anticancer drugs Monoclonal antibodies and protein kinase inhibitors

• Many tumours overexpress growth factor receptors that therefore stimulate cell proliferation and tumour growth. This can be inhibited by:

– monoclonal antibodies which bind to the extracellular domain of EGF (e.g. **panitumumab**) the oncogenic receptor HER2 (e.g. **trastuzumab**) or which neutralise the growth factors themselves (e.g. VEGF; **bevacizumab**)

– protein kinase inhibitors which prevent downstream signalling triggered by growth factors by inhibiting specific oncogenic kinases (e.g. **imatinib**; bcr/abl) or by inhibiting specific receptor tyrosine kinases (e.g. EGF receptor; **erlotinib**) or several receptor-associated kinases (e.g. **sorefenib**).

• Some monoclonals act directly on lymphocyte cell surface proteins to cause lysis (e.g. **rituximab**), thereby preventing proliferation.

Miscellaneous Agents

Crisantaspase

▼ Crisantaspase is a preparation of the enzyme *asparaginase*, given intramuscularly or intravenously. It converts asparagine to aspartic acid and ammonia, and is active against tumour cells, such as those of acute lymphoblastic leukaemia, that have lost the capacity to synthesise asparagine and therefore require an exogenous source. As most normal body cells are able to synthesise asparagine, the drug has a fairly selective action and has very little suppressive effect on the bone marrow, the mucosa of the gastrointestinal tract or hair follicles. It may cause nausea and vomiting, central nervous system depression, anaphylactic reactions and liver damage.

Hydroxycarbamide

▼ Hydroxycarbamide (hydroxyurea) is a urea analogue that inhibits ribonucleotide reductase, thus interfering with the conversion of ribonucleotides to deoxyribonucleotides. It is mainly used to treat polycythaemia rubra vera (a myeloproliferative disorder of the red cell lineage) and (in the past) chronic myelogenous leukaemia. Its use (in somewhat lower dose) in sickle cell anaemia is described in Chapter 25. It has the familiar spectrum of unwanted effects, bone marrow depression being significant.

Bortezomib

▼ Bortezomib is a boron-containing tripeptide that inhibits cellular proteasome function. For some reason, rapidly dividing cells are more sensitive than normal cells to this drug, making it a useful anticancer agent. It is generally used for the treatment of myeloma (a malignant bone marrow tumour).

Thalidomide

▼ Investigations of the notorious teratogenic effect of thalidomide showed that it has multiple effects on gene transcription, angiogenesis and proteasome function, leading to trials of its efficacy as an anticancer drug. In the event, it proved efficacious in myeloma, for which it is now widely used. The main adverse effect of thalidomide, apart from teratogenesis (irrelevant in myeloma treatment), is peripheral neuropathy, leading to irreversible weakness and sensory loss. It also increases the incidence of thrombosis and stroke.

A thalidomide derivative **lenalidomide** is thought to have fewer adverse effects, but unlike thalidomide, can cause bone marrow depression and neutropenia.

Biological response modifiers

▼ Agents that enhance the host's response are referred to as *biological response modifiers*. Some, for example **interferon-α** (and its pegylated derivative), are used in treating some solid tumours and lymphomas, and **aldesleukin** (recombinant interleukin-2) is used in some cases of renal tumours. **Tretinoin** (a form of vitamin A) is a powerful inducer of differentiation in leukaemic cells and is used as an adjunct to chemotherapy to induce remission.

Resistance to Anticancer Drugs

The resistance that neoplastic cells manifest to cytotoxic drugs is said to be *primary* (present when the drug is first given) or *acquired* (developing during treatment with the drug). Acquired resistance may result from either *adaptation* of the tumour cells or *mutation*, with the emergence of

cells that are less susceptible or resistant to the drug and consequently have a selective advantage over the sensitive cells. The following are examples of various mechanisms of resistance. See Mimeault *et al.* (2008) for an up-to-date appraisal of this issue.

• *Decreased accumulation of cytotoxic drugs* in cells as a result of the increased expression of cell surface, energy-dependent drug transport proteins. These are responsible for multidrug resistance to many structurally dissimilar anticancer drugs (e.g. doxorubicin, vinblastine and dactinomycin; see Gottesman et al., 2002). An important member of this group is *P-glycoprotein* (P-gp/MDR1; see Ch. 8). The physiological role of P-glycoprotein is thought to be the protection of cells against environmental toxins. It functions as a hydrophobic 'vacuum cleaner', picking up foreign chemicals, such as drugs, as they enter the cell membrane and expelling them. Non-cytotoxic agents that reverse multidrug resistance are being investigated as potential adjuncts to treatment.

• *A decrease in the amount of drug taken up by the cell* (e.g. in the case of methotrexate).

• *Insufficient activation of the drug*. Some drugs require metabolic activation to manifest their antitumour activity. If this fails, they may no longer be effective. Examples include conversion of fluorouracil to FDUMP, phosphorylation of cytarabine and conversion of mercaptopurine to a fraudulent nucleotide.

• *Increase in inactivation* (e.g. cytarabine and mercaptopurine).

• *Increased concentration of target enzyme* (methotrexate).

• *Decreased requirement for substrate* (crisantaspase).

• *Increased utilisation of alternative metabolic pathways* (antimetabolites).

• *Rapid repair of drug-induced lesions* (alkylating agents).

• *Altered activity of target*, for example modified topoisomerase II (doxorubicin).

• *Mutations in various genes*, giving rise to resistant target molecules. For example, the p53 gene and overexpression of the *Bcl-2* gene family (several cytotoxic drugs).

Treatment Schedules

Treatment with combinations of several anticancer agents increases the cytotoxicity against cancer cells without necessarily increasing the general toxicity. For example, methotrexate, with mainly myelosuppressive toxicity, may be used in a regimen with vincristine, which has mainly neurotoxicity. The few drugs we possess with low myelotoxicity, such as cisplatin and bleomycin, are good candidates for combination regimens. Treatment with combinations of drugs also decreases the possibility of the development of resistance to individual agents. Drugs are often given in large doses intermittently in several courses, with intervals of 2–3 weeks between courses, rather than in small doses continuously, because this permits the bone marrow to regenerate during the intervals. Furthermore, it has been shown that the same total dose of an agent is more effective when given in one or two large doses than in multiple small doses.

Drug action during the cell cycle

▼ Cells that are constantly replicating constitute the 'growth fraction' of the tumour. Some anticancer drugs act at particular phases on the cell cycle, as shown below, and in principle this information could be of value in selecting individual agents or combinations for clinical use. However, not all authorities agree that treatment schedules based on these principles are better than purely empirical schedules.

• *Phase-specific agents*. Many cytotoxic drugs act at different points in the cycle. For example, the vinca alkaloids act in mitosis, whereas cytarabine, hydroxycarbamide, fluorouracil, methotrexate and mercaptopurine act in S phase. Some of these compounds also have some action during G_1 phase and thus may slow the entry of a cell into S phase, where it would be more susceptible to the drug.

• *Cycle-specific agents*. These act at all stages of the cell cycle but do not have much effect on cells out of cycle (e.g. alkylating agents, dactinomycin, doxorubicin and cisplatin).

• *Cycle non-specific agents*. These act on cells whether in cycle or not (e.g. bleomycin and nitrosoureas).

Control of Emesis and Myelosuppression

Emesis

The nausea and vomiting induced by many cancer chemotherapy agents constitute an inbuilt deterrent to patient compliance (see also Ch. 29). It is a particular problem with cisplatin but also complicates therapy with many other compounds, such as the alkylating agents. 5-

hydroxytryptamine $(HT)_3$ receptor antagonists such as **ondansetron** or **granisetron** (see Chs 15 and 29) are effective against cytotoxic drug-induced vomiting and have revolutionised cisplatin chemotherapy. Of the other antiemetic agents available, **metoclopramide**, given intravenously in high dose, has proved useful and is often combined with dexamethasone (Ch. 32) or **lorazepam** (Ch. 43), both of which further mitigate the unwanted effects of chemotherapy. As metoclopramide commonly causes extrapyramidal side effects in children and young adults, **diphenhydramine** (Ch. 26) can be used instead.

Myelosuppression

Myelosuppression limits the use of many anticancer agents. Regimens contrived to surmount the problem have included removal of some of the patient's own bone marrow prior to treatment, purging it of cancer cells (using specific monoclonal antibodies; see below) and replacing it after cytotoxic therapy is finished. A protocol in which aliquots of stem cells, harvested from the blood following administration of the growth factor **molgramostim**, are expanded in vitro using further haemopoietic growth factors (Ch. 25) is now frequently used. The use of such growth factors after replacement of the marrow has been successful in some cases. A further possibility is the introduction, into the extracted bone marrow, of the mutated gene that confers multidrug resistance, so that when replaced, the marrow cells (but not the cancer cells) will be resistant to the cytotoxic action of the anticancer drugs.

Future Developments

As the reader will have judged by now, our current approach to cancer chemotherapy embraces an eclectic mixture of drugs and techniques, all designed to target selectively cancer cells. Real therapeutic progress has been achieved, although 'cancer' as a disease (actually many different diseases with a similar outcome) has not been defeated and remains a massive challenge for future generations of researchers. In this therapeutic area, probably more than in any other, the debate about the risk–benefit of treatment and the patient quality of life issues has taken centre stage and remains a major area of concern. These sensitive issues have been explored by Duric & Stockler (2001) and Klastersky & Paesmans (2001).

The quest for less toxic forms of therapy is, of course, central to anticancer initiatives, and many new drugs or novel combination regimens are in clinical trial or at earlier stages of development (see, for example, Kurtz et al., 2003). What follows is a selection of new and different approaches to the treatment of cancer that may bear fruit over the next decade.

Angiogenesis and metalloproteinase inhibitors

Tumour cells produce metalloproteinases and angiogenic factors that facilitate tumour growth, invasion of normal tissue and metastases. Targeting the mechanisms involved could provide us with drugs that block metastases. Several existing drugs already target this process (e.g. bevacizumab) and it is likely that this area will see further development (see Griffioen & Molema, 2000; Thijssen et al., 2007).

Cyclo-oxygenase inhibitors

There is strong epidemiological and experimental evidence suggesting that chronic use of cyclo-oxygenase (COX) inhibitors (see Ch. 26) protects against cancer of the gastrointestinal tract and possibly other sites as well. The COX-2 isoform is overexpressed in about 85% of cancers, and prostanoids originating from this source may activate signalling pathways that enable cells to escape from apoptotic death. The COX-2 inhibitor **celecoxib** reduces mammary and gastrointestinal cancer incidence in animal models and causes regression of existing tumours. It is in trial in humans as an inhibitor of a familial type of colon tumour. Overall, COX-2 is now considered to be a potentially important target for anticancer drug development although, ironically, some argue that the mechanism of action is unrelated to COX inhibition. The literature is daunting and often controversial; see Karamouzis & Papavassiliou (2004) for recent comment.

Antisense oligonucleotides

Genetic approaches are seen by many experts as the hope for the future. *Antisense oligonucleotides* (see Ch. 59) are synthetic sequences of single-stranded DNA complementary to specific coding regions of mRNA, which can inhibit gene expression. An antisense drug, **augmerosen**, downregulates the antiapoptotic factor Bcl-2. In an early clinical trial, it sensitised malignant melanoma to standard anticancer drugs.

Gene therapy

The introduction of engineered genes, antisense oligonucleotides or siRNA by *gene therapy* (see Ch. 59) offers, in principle, enormous advantages over conventional approaches in terms of selective toxicity to

cancer cells. There are many technical problems yet to be solved with the delivery of the genes, (e.g. p53 or growth factor antisense DNA) into the target cells. There have been clinical trials, some of which showed modest success (see, for example, Wolf & Dwayne Jenkins, 2002, on ovarian cancer trials), but progress has been disappointingly slow.

Reversal of multidrug resistance

Several non-cytotoxic drugs (e.g. **verapamil**) that inhibit P-glycoprotein can reverse multidrug resistance. Other drugs with this action are being investigated. In addition, the use of antibodies, immunotoxins, antisense oligonucleotides (see above) or liposome-encapsulated agents may be useful in the elimination of cells with multidrug resistance (reviewed by Gottesman & Pastan, 1993).

Telomerase is known to be important in maintaining cancer cell viability. Several strategies for controlling its activity have been reviewed by Keith *et al.* (2004).

References and Further Reading

General textbook

irley R. *Anticancer drugs*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell; 2009. (*Recent textbook covering all aspects from basic pharmacology to clinical use*)

Mechanisms of carcinogenesis

uys C.H.C.M. Telomeres, telomerase and cancer. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2000;342:1282-1283. (*Clear, concise coverage*)

hambers A.F., Groom A.C., MacDonald I.C. Dissemination and growth of cancer cells in metastatic sites. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2, 2002. 563-557. (*Review; stresses the importance of metastases in most cancer deaths, discusses the mechanisms involved in metastasis and raises the*

possibility of targeting these in anticancer drug development)

riffioen A., Molema G. Angiogenesis: potentials for pharmacologic intervention in the treatment of cancer, cardiovascular diseases and chronic inflammation. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2000;52:237-268. (*Comprehensive review covering virtually all aspects of angiogenesis and the potential methods of modifying it to produce an antineoplastic effect*)

aber D.A., Fearon E.R. The promise of cancer genetics. *Lancet*. 1998;351:1-8. (*Excellent coverage; detailed tables of mutations in proto-oncogenes and tumour suppressor genes in human cancers*)

limeault M., Hauke R., Batra S.K. Recent advances on the molecular mechanisms involved in the drug resistance of cancer cells and novel targeting therapies. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2008;83:673-691. (*Comprehensive review covering all aspects of this field*)

alapatra S., Thompson C.B. Growth factor signalling in cell survival: implications for cancer treatment. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.*. 2001;298:873-878. (*Succinct overview of death receptor-induced apoptosis, the role of growth factors in preventing it and potential drugs that could be used to promote cell death*)

/einberg R.A. How cancer arises. *Sci. Am.*. 1996;Sept:42-48. (*Simple, clear overview, listing main oncogenes, tumour suppressor genes and the cell cycle; excellent diagrams*)

örnig M., Hueber A.-O., Baum W., Evan G. Apoptosis regulators and their role in tumorigenesis. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*. 2001;1551:F1-F37. (*Extensive review describing the genes and mechanisms involved in apoptosis, and summarising the evidence that impaired apoptosis is a prerequisite for cancer development*)

Anticancer therapy

ottesman M.M., Fojo T., Bates S.E. Multidrug resistance in cancer: role of ATP-dependent transporters. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2002;2:48-56. (*Outlines cellular mechanisms of resistance; describes ATP-dependent transporters, emphasising those in human cancer; considers resistance reversal strategies*)

oughton A.N., Scheinberg D. Monoclonal antibody therapies—a ‘constant’ threat to cancer. *Nat. Med.*. 2000;6:373-374. (*Lucid article; very useful diagram*)

rause D.S., Van Etten R. Tyrosine kinases as targets for cancer therapy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2005;353:172-187. (*Excellent review on tyrosine kinases as targets; good diagrams and tables as well as a highly readable style*)

urtz J.-E., Emmanuel A., Natarajan-Ame S., *et al.* Oral chemotherapy in colorectal cancer treatment: review of the literature. *Eur. J. Int. Med.*. 2003;14:18-25. (*Discusses potential new leads in colorectal cancer; good tables summarising recent advances and clinical trials*)

orman K.L., Farassati F., Lee P.W.K. Oncolytic viruses and cancer therapy. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev.*. 2001;12:271-282. (*Describes mechanisms of action and efficacy of three oncolytic viruses in clinical trial*)

verall C.M., López-Otin C. Strategies for MMO inhibition in cancer: innovations for the post-trial era. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2002;2:6577-7672. (*Review of matrix metalloproteinases and their role in tumour metastasis; also discusses various approaches that could be used to target metalloproteinases, thus producing new anticancer drugs*)

eed J.C. Apoptosis-based therapies. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2002;1:111-121. (*Excellent coverage, useful tables, good diagrams*)

avage D.G., Antman K.H. Imatinib mesylate—a new oral targeted therapy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2002;346:683-693. (*Review with detailed coverage of this drug for chronic myelogenous leukaemia; very good diagrams*)

/hite C.A., Weaver R.L., Grillo-López. Antibody-targeted immunotherapy for treatment of malignancy. *Annu. Rev. Med.*. 2001;52:125-145. (*Clear, comprehensive review; includes tables of monoclonals and radiolabelled monoclonals in clinical trial*)

New directions and miscellaneous

djei A.A. Blocking oncogenic Ras signaling for cancer therapy. *J. Natl. Cancer Inst.*. 2001;93:1062-1074. (*Gives details of Ras processing, activation, mutations, cytoplamsic targets and physiological role, and outlines therapeutic implications*)

nderson W.F. Gene therapy scores against cancer. *Nat. Med.*. 2000;6:862-863. (*Short crisp article*)

rmstrong A.C., Eaton D., Ewing J.C. Cellular immunotherapy for cancer. *Br. Med. J.*. 2001;323:1289-1293. (*Brief discussion of rationale and possible future exploitation of tumour cell and dendritic cell vaccines and T cell therapy*)

arter P. Improving the efficacy of antibody-based cancer therapies. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2001;1:118-128. (*Review considering the possible future use of monoclonal antibodies to treat cancer; lists antibodies in advanced clinical trials*)

uric V., Stockler M. Patients' preferences for adjuvant chemotherapy in early breast cancer. *Lancet Oncol.*. 2001;2:691-697. (*The title is self-explanatory; deals with patients' assessment of quality of life issues*)

nglish J.M., Cobb M.H. Pharmacological inhibitors of MAPK pathways. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2002;23:40-45. (*Lists mitogen-activated protein kinases and discusses small-molecule inhibitors under investigation*)

avoni R.E., de Cupis A. The role of polypeptide growth factors in human carcinomas: new targets for a novel pharmacological approach. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2000;52:179-206. (*Thorough review that describes 14 growth factor families, their signalling pathways and their possible role in cancer; it also deals with drug action on signalling pathways*)

ottesman M.M., Pastan I. Biochemistry of multidrug resistance mediated by the multidrug transporter. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.*. 1993;62:385-427.

aramouzis M.V., Papavassiliou A.G. COX-2 inhibition in cancer therapeutics: a field of controversy or a magic bullet? *Expert Opin. Investig. Drugs*. 2004;13:359-372. (*Good review of the field of COX inhibitors in cancer therapy*)

eith W.N., Bilsland A., Hardie M., Evans T.R. Drug insight: cancer cell immortality—telomerase as a target for novel cancer gene therapies. *Nat. Clin. Pract. Oncol.*. 2004;1:88-96.

lastersky J., Paesmans M. Response to chemotherapy, quality of life benefits and survival in advanced non-small lung cancer: review of literature results. *Lung Cancer*. 2001;34:S95-S101. (*Another paper that addresses quality of life issues surrounding chemotherapy*)

mith I.E. New drugs for breast cancer. *Lancet*. 2002;360:790-792. (*Succinct coverage*)

hijssen V.L., van Beijnum J.R., Mayo K.H., Griffioen A.W. Identification of novel drug targets for angiostatic cancer therapy; it takes two to tango. *Curr. Pharm. Des.*. 2007;13:3576-3583.

Volf J.K., Dwayne Jenkins A. Gene therapy for ovarian cancer (review). *Int. J. Oncol.*. 2002;21:461-468. (*Very readable review of ovarian cancer and basic concepts in gene therapy, coupled with a round-up of data on compounds in clinical trial*)

Useful Web resources

ttp://www.cancer.org/ (*The US equivalent of the Web site below. The best sections for you are those marked* Health Information Seekers *and* Professionals)

ttp://www.cancerresearchuk.org (*The Web site of Cancer Research UK, the largest cancer charity in the UK. Contains valuable data on the epidemiology and treatment of cancer, including links to clinical trials. An excellent resource*)

Section 6
Special topics

56

Individual variation and drug interaction

Overview

This chapter addresses sources of variation between individuals (interindividual variation) in their responses to drugs. Genetic variation in pharmacokinetic processes and pharmacodynamic response has been discussed in Chapter 11. In this chapter, we mention briefly some other important factors responsible for pharmacological variation, including age, pregnancy and disease, and describe in more detail the mechanisms underlying drug interaction (i.e. modfication of the action of one drug by another).

Introduction

Therapeutics would be a great deal easier if responses to the same dose of drug were always the same. In reality, inter-and even intraindividual variation is often substantial. Physicians need to be aware of the sources of such variation to prescribe drugs safely and effectively. Variation can be caused by different concentrations at sites of drug action or by different responses to the same drug concentration. The first kind is called pharmacokinetic variation and can occur because of differences in absorption, distribution, metabolism or excretion (Chs 8 and 9). The second kind is called pharmacodynamic variation.

Variation is usually quantitative in the sense that the drug produces a larger or smaller effect, or acts for a longer or shorter time, while still exerting qualitatively the same effect. In other cases, the action is

qualitatively different. These are known as ‘idiosyncratic’ reactions (the *Oxford English Dictionary* defines idiosyncrasy as ‘the physical constitution peculiar to an individual or class’) and are often caused by genetic or immunological differences between individuals.

Individual variation

- Variability is a serious problem; if not taken into account, it can result in:
  - lack of efficacy
  - unexpected side effects.
- Types of variability may be classified as:
  - pharmacokinetic
  - pharmacodynamic
  - idiosyncratic.
- The main causes of variability are:
  - age
  - genetic factors
  - immunological factors (Ch. 57)
  - pathological states (e.g. kidney or liver disease)
  - drug interactions.

Factors Responsible For Quantitative Individual Variation

Ethnicity

Ethnic means ‘pertaining to race’, and many anthropologists are sceptical as to the value of this concept (see, for example, Cooper et al., 2003). Citizens of several modern societies are asked to define their race or ethnicity from a list of options (e.g. ‘white’, ‘black’, ‘mixed’, ‘Chinese’, ‘Asian’ or ‘other’ were the options provided by the UK Office of National

Statistics for the 2001 National Census). Members of such self-defined groups share some characteristics on the basis of common genetic and cultural heritage, but there is obviously also enormous diversity within each group.

Despite the crudeness of such categorisation, it can give some pointers to drug responsiveness (Wood, 2001). One example is the evidence discussed in Chapter 22 that African-Americans with heart failure gain a mortality benefit from treatment with a combination of hydralazine plus a nitrate, whereas white Americans may not.

Some adverse effects may also be predicted on the basis of race; for example, many Chinese subjects differ from Europeans in the way that they metabolise ethanol, producing a higher plasma concentration of acetaldehyde, which can cause flushing and palpitations (Chs 48 and 57). Chinese subjects are considerably more sensitive to the cardiovascular effects of **propranolol** (Ch. 14) than white Europeans, whereas Afro-Caribbean individuals are less sensitive. Despite their increased sensitivity to β-adrenoceptor antagonists, Chinese subjects metabolise propranolol faster than white people, implying that the difference relates to pharmacodynamic differences in sensitivity at or beyond the β-adrenoceptors.

Overall effectiveness of **gefitinib** (Ch. 55) in treating patients with advanced lung tumours has been disappointing, but in about 10% of patients lung tumours shrink rapidly in response to this drug. Japanese patients are three times as likely as whites to respond in this way. The underlying difference is that patients who respond well have specific mutations in the receptor for epidermal growth factor (see Wadman, 2005). It is probable that many such ethnic differences are genetic in origin, but environmental factors, for example relating to distinctive dietary habits, may also contribute. It is important not to abandon the

much more sophisticated search for ways to individualise medicine on the basis of pharmacogenomics (Ch. 11) just because the much simpler and cheaper process of asking patients to define their ethnic group has had some success: this should rather act as a spur. If such a crude and imperfect approach has had some success, think how much better we ought to be able to do with genomic testing!

Age

The main reason that age affects drug action is that drug elimination is less efficient in newborn babies and in old people, so that drugs commonly produce greater and more prolonged effects at the extremes of life. Other age-related factors, such as variations in pharmacodynamic sensitivity, are also important with some drugs. Physiological factors (e.g. altered cardiovascular reflexes) and pathological factors (e.g. hypothermia), which are common in elderly people, also influence drug effects. Body composition changes with age, fat contributing a greater proportion to body mass in the elderly, with consequent changes in distribution volume of drugs. Elderly people consume more drugs than do younger adults, so the potential for drug interactions (see below) is also increased. For fuller accounts of drug therapy in paediatrics and in the elderly, see, respectively, Fox & Balis (Ch. 23) and Abernethie (Ch. 24) in Atkinson et al., 2006.

Effect of Age on Renal Excretion of Drugs

Glomerular filtration rate (GFR) in the newborn, normalised to body surface area, is only about 20% of the adult value, and tubular function is also less. Accordingly, plasma elimination half-lives of renally eliminated drugs are longer in neonates than in adults (Table 56.1). In babies born at term, renal function increases to values similar to those in young adults in less than a week, and continues to increase to a

maximum of approximately twice the adult value at 6 months of age. Improvement in renal function occurs more slowly in premature infants. Renal immaturity in premature infants can have a substantial effect on drug elimination. For example, in premature newborn babies, the antibiotic **gentamicin** has a plasma half-life of ≥ 18 h, compared with 1–4 h for adults and approximately 10 h for babies born at term. It is therefore necessary to reduce and/or space out doses to avoid toxicity in premature babies.

Table 56.1 Effect of age on plasma elimination half-lives of various drugs

Drug	Mean or range of half-life (h)		
	Term neonate[a]	Adult	Elderly person
Drugs that are mainly excreted unchanged in the urine			
Gentamicin	10	2	4
Lithium	120	24	48
Digoxin	200	40	80
Drugs that are mainly metabolised			
Diazepam	25–100	15–25	50–150
Phenytoin	10–30	10–30	10–30
Sulfamethoxypyridazine	140	60	100

[a]Even greater differences from mean adult values occur in premature babies.
(Data from Reidenberg 1971 Renal function and drug action. Saunders, Philadelphia; and Dollery 1991 Therapeutic drugs. Churchill Livingstone, Edinburgh.)

Glomerular filtration rate declines slowly from about 20 years of age, falling by about 25% at 50 years and by 50% at 75 years. Figure 56.1 shows that the renal clearance of **digoxin** in young and old subjects is closely correlated with creatinine clearance, a measure of GFR. Consequently, chronic administration over the years of the same daily

dose of digoxin to an individual as he or she ages leads to a progressive increase in plasma concentration, and this is a common cause of glycoside toxicity in elderly people (see Ch. 21).

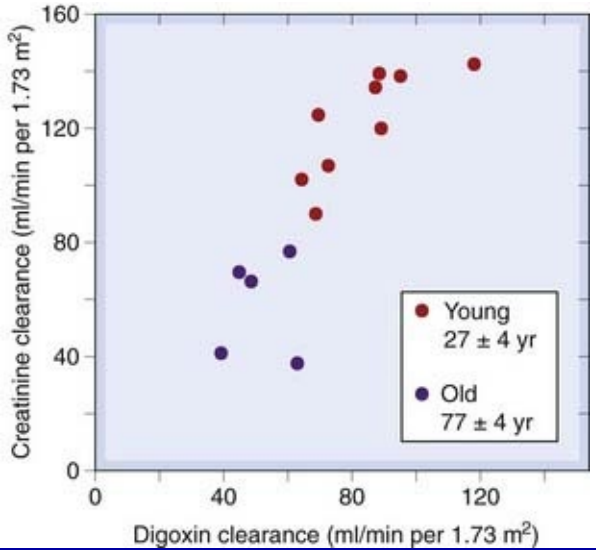


Fig. 56.1 Relationship between renal function (measured as creatinine clearance) and digoxin clearance in young and old subjects.

(From Ewy G A et al. 1969 Circulation 34: 452.)

▼ The age-related decline in GFR is not reflected by an increase in plasma creatinine concentration, as distinct from creatinine clearance. Plasma creatinine typically remains within the normal adult range in elderly persons despite substantially diminished GFR. This is because creatinine synthesis is reduced in elderly persons because of their reduced muscle mass. Consequently, a 'normal' plasma creatinine in an elderly person does not indicate that they have a normal GFR. Failure to recognise this and reduce the dose of drugs that are eliminated by renal excretion can lead to drug toxicity.

Effect of Age on Drug Metabolism

Several important enzymes, including hepatic microsomal oxidase, glucuronyltransferase, acetyltransferase and plasma esterases, have low

activity in neonates, especially if premature. These enzymes take 8 weeks or longer to reach the adult level of activity. The relative lack of conjugating activity in the newborn can have serious consequences, as in *kernicterus* caused by drug displacement of bilirubin from its binding sites on albumin (see below) and in the 'grey baby' syndrome caused by the antibiotic **chloramphenicol** (see Ch. 50). This sometimes fatal condition, at first thought to be a specific biochemical sensitivity to the drug in young babies, actually results simply from accumulation of very high tissue concentrations of chloramphenicol because of slow hepatic conjugation. Chloramphenicol is no more toxic to babies than to adults provided the dose is reduced to make allowance for this. Slow conjugation is also one reason why **morphine** (which is excreted mainly as the glucuronide, see Ch. 41) is not used as an analgesic in labour, because drug transferred via the placenta has a long half-life in the newborn baby and can cause prolonged respiratory depression.

The activity of hepatic microsomal enzymes declines slowly (and very variably) with age, and the distribution volume of lipid-soluble drugs increases, because the proportion of the body that is fat increases with advancing age. The increasing half-life of the anxiolytic drug **diazepam** with advancing age (Fig. 56.2) is one consequence of this. Some other benzodiazepines and their active metabolites show even greater age-related increases in half-life. Because half-life determines the time course of drug accumulation during repeated dosing (Ch. 10), insidious effects, developing over days or weeks, can occur in elderly people and may be misattributed to age-related memory impairment rather than to drug accumulation. The effect of age is less marked for many other drugs, but even though the mean half-life may not change much, there is often a striking increase in the variability of half-life between individuals with increasing age. This is important, because a population of old people will

contain some individuals with grossly reduced rates of drug metabolism, whereas such extremes do not occur so commonly in young adult populations. Drug regulatory authorities therefore usually require studies in elderly patients as part of drug evaluation.

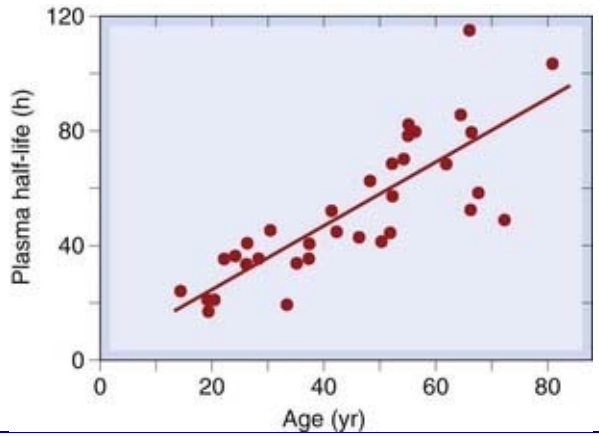


Fig. 56.2 Increasing plasma half-life for diazepam with age in 33 normal subjects. Note the increased variability as well as increased half-life with ageing.

(From Klotz U et al. 1975 J Clin lnvest 55: 347.)

Age-Related Variation in Sensitivity to Drugs

The same plasma concentration of a drug can cause different effects in young and old subjects. Benzodiazepines (Ch. 43) exemplify this, producing more confusion and less sedation in elderly than in young subjects; similarly, hypotensive drugs (Ch. 22) cause postural hypotension more commonly in elderly than in younger adult patients.

Pregnancy

Pregnancy causes physiological changes that influence drug disposition (Ch. 8) in mother and fetus. Maternal plasma albumin concentration is reduced, influencing drug protein binding. Cardiac output is increased, leading to increased renal blood flow and GFR, and increased renal elimination of drugs. Lipophilic molecules rapidly traverse the placental

barrier, whereas transfer of hydrophobic drugs is slow, limiting fetal drug exposure following a single maternal dose. The placental barrier excludes some drugs (e.g. low-molecular-weight heparins; Ch. 24) so effectively that they can be administered chronically to the mother without causing effects in the fetus. However, drugs that are transferred to the fetus are eliminated more slowly than from the mother. The activity of most drug-metabolising enzymes in fetal liver is much less than in the adult. Furthermore, the fetal kidney is not an efficient route of elimination because excreted drug enters the amniotic fluid, which is swallowed by the fetus. For a fuller account, see Striker & Frederiksen (Ch. 22) in Atkinson et al., 2006.

Disease

Therapeutic drugs are prescribed to patients, so effects of disease on drug response are very important in clinical pharmacology. Detailed consideration is beyond the scope of this book, and interested readers should refer to a clinical text such as the chapters on renal and hepatic disease in Atkinson et al., 2006. Disease can cause pharmacokinetic or pharmacodynamic variation. Common disorders such as impaired renal or hepatic function predispose to toxicity by causing unexpectedly intense or prolonged drug effects as a result of increased drug concentration following a standard dose. Drug absorption is slowed in conditions causing gastric stasis (e.g. *migraine*, *diabetic neuropathy*) and may be incomplete in patients with malabsorption owing to ileal or pancreatic disease or to oedema of the ileal mucosa caused by heart failure or nephrotic syndrome. *Nephrotic syndrome* (characterised by heavy proteinuria, oedema and a reduced concentration of albumin in plasma) alters drug absorption because of oedema of intestinal mucosa; alters drug disposition through changes in binding to plasma albumin; and causes insensitivity to diuretics such as **furosemide** that act on ion

transport mechanisms on the lumenal surface of tubular epithelium (Ch. 28), through binding to albumin in tubular fluid. *Hypothyroidism* is associated with increased sensitivity to several widely used drugs (e.g. **pethidine**), for reasons that are poorly understood. *Hypothermia* (to which elderly persons, in particular, are predisposed) markedly reduces the clearance of many drugs.

Other disorders affecting receptors and signal transduction mechanisms (see Ch. 3), although uncommon, illustrate mechanisms that may prove to be of more general applicability. Examples include:

- diseases that influence receptors:
  - *myasthenia gravis*, an autoimmune disease characterised by antibodies to nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (Ch. 13) and increased sensitivity to neuromuscular blocking agents (e.g. **vecuronium**) and other drugs that may influence neuromuscular transmission (e.g. *aminoglycoside antibiotics*, Ch. 50)
  - *X-linked nephrogenic diabetes insipidus*, characterised by abnormal antidiuretic hormone (ADH, vasopressin) receptors (Ch. 28) and insensitivity to ADH
  - *familial hypercholesterolaemia*, an inherited disease of low-density-lipoprotein receptors (Ch. 23); the (very rare) homozygous form is relatively resistant to treatment with statins (which work mainly by increasing expression of these receptors), whereas the much commoner heterozygous form responds well to statins.

- diseases that influence signal transduction mechanisms:
  - *pseudohypoparathyroidism*, which stems from impaired coupling of receptors with adenylyl cyclase
  - *familial precocious puberty* and *hyperthyroidism* caused by functioning thyroid adenomas, which are each caused by mutations in G-protein-

coupled receptors that result in the receptors remaining 'turned on' even in the absence of the hormones that are their natural agonists.

Genetic factors (see Ch. 11)

• Genetic variation is an important source of pharmacokinetic variability.

• There are several clear examples where genetic variation influences drug response, including:

– fast/slow acetylators (**hydralazine**, **procainamide**, **isoniazid**)

– plasma cholinesterase variants (**suxamethonium**)

– hydroxylase polymorphism (**debrisoquine**).

• In future, profiling an individual's DNA (e.g. for combinations of single nucleotide polymorphisms) could provide a way to anticipate drug responsiveness.

Variation due to disease

Pharmacokinetic alterations in:

• Absorption:

– gastric stasis (e.g. migraine)

– malabsorption (e.g. steatorrhoea from pancreatic insufficiency)

– oedema of ileal mucosa (e.g. heart failure, nephrotic syndrome).

• Distribution:

– altered plasma protein binding (e.g. of **phenytoin** in chronic renal failure)

– impaired blood–brain barrier (e.g. to **penicillin** in meningitis).

• Metabolism:

– chronic liver disease

– hypothermia.

• Excretion:

– acute and/or chronic renal failure.

Pharmacodynamic alterations in:

• Receptors (e.g. myasthenia gravis, familial hypercholesterolaemia).

• Signal transduction (e.g. pseudohypoparathyroidism, familial precocious puberty).

• Unknown mechanisms (e.g. increased sensitivity to **pethidine** in hypothyroidism).

Idiosyncratic Reactions

An idiosyncratic reaction is a qualitatively abnormal, and usually harmful, drug effect that occurs in a small proportion of individuals. For example, **chloramphenicol** causes aplastic anaemia in approximately 1 in 50 000 patients (Ch. 50). In many cases, genetic anomalies are responsible. Glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) deficiency and the hepatic porphyrias are well-understood examples of this (Ch. 11). Malignant hyperthermia is a metabolic reaction to drugs including **suxamethonium** and various *inhalational anaesthetics* and *antipsychotic drugs*. Susceptibility to these drugs in affected individuals is caused by an inherited abnormality in the Ca^{2+} release channel known as the *ryanodine receptor* located in the sarcoplasmic reticulum of striated muscle (Ch. 4).

Immunological mechanisms underlie many idiosyncratic reactions. Propensity to these is genetically determined (Ch. 11).They are considered further in Chapter 57.

Idiosyncratic reactions

• Harmful, sometimes fatal, reactions that occur in a small minority of individuals.

• Reactions may occur with low doses.

• Genetic factors may be responsible (e.g. **primaquine** sensitivity, malignant hyperthermia), although often the cause is poorly understood (e.g. bone marrow depression with **chloramphenicol**).

• Immunological factors are also important (see Ch. 57).

Drug Interactions

Many patients, especially elderly ones, are treated continuously with one or more drugs for chronic diseases such as hypertension, heart failure, osteoarthritis and so on. Acute events (e.g. infections, myocardial infarction) are treated with additional drugs. The potential for drug interactions is therefore substantial, and drug interactions account for 5–20% of adverse drug reaction. These may be serious (approximately 30% of fatal adverse drug reactions are estimated to be the consequence of drug interaction) and may be misattributed to the natural history of disease (e.g. rejection of a transplanted kidney may be attributed to this when it was actually caused by loss of effectiveness of immunosuppressant medication as a result of drug interaction; see below). Drugs can also interact with chemical entities in other dietary constituents (e.g. grapefruit juice, which downregulates expression of CYP3A4 in the gut) and herbal remedies (such as St John's wort; Ch. 46). The administration of one chemical entity (A) can alter the action of another (B) by one of two general mechanisms:[1]

1 Modifying the pharmacological effect of B without altering its concentration in the tissue fluid (pharmacodynamic interaction).

2 Altering the concentration of B at its site of action (pharmacokinetic interaction).

[1]A third category of pharmaceutical interactions should be mentioned, in which drugs interact in vitro so that one or both are inactivated. No pharmacological principles are involved, just chemistry. An example is the formation of a complex between **thiopental** and **suxamethonium**, which must not be mixed in the same syringe. **Heparin** is highly charged and interacts in this way with many basic drugs; it is sometimes used to keep intravenous lines or cannulae open and can inactivate basic drugs if they are injected without first clearing the line with saline.

For such interactions to be important clinically, it is necessary that the therapeutic range of drug B is narrow (i.e. that a small reduction in effect will lead to loss of efficacy and/or a small increase in effect will lead to toxicity). For pharmacokinetic interactions to be clinically important, it is also necessary that the concentration–response curve of drug B is steep (so that a small change in plasma concentration leads to a substantial change in effect). For many drugs, these conditions are not met: even quite large changes in plasma concentrations of relatively non-toxic drugs such as **penicillin** are unlikely to give rise to clinical problems, because there is usually a comfortable safety margin between plasma concentrations produced by usual doses and those resulting either in toxicity or in loss of efficacy. Several drugs do have steep concentration–response relationships and a narrow therapeutic margin and, for these, drug interactions can cause major problems, for example with *antithrombotic*, *antidysrhythmic*, *antiviral* and *antiepileptic* drugs; **lithium**; and several *antineoplastic* and *immunosuppressant* drugs.

Pharmacodynamic Interaction

Pharmacodynamic interaction can occur in many different ways (including those discussed under *Drug antagonism* in Ch. 2). There are many mechanisms, and some examples of practical importance are

probably more useful than attempts at classification:

• β-Adrenoceptor antagonists diminish the effectiveness of β-adrenoceptor agonists such as **salbutamol** (Ch. 14).

• Many diuretics lower plasma K^+ concentration (see Ch. 28), and thereby predispose to **digoxin** toxicity and to toxicity with *type III antidysrhythmic drugs* (Ch. 21).

• **Sildenafil** inhibits the isoform of phosphodiesterase (type V) that inactivates cGMP (Chs 20 and 34); consequently, it potentiates organic nitrates, which activate guanylyl cyclase, and can cause severe hypotension in patients taking these drugs.

• *Monoamine oxidase inhibitors* increase the amount of noradrenaline stored in noradrenergic nerve terminals and interact dangerously with drugs, such as **ephedrine** or **tyramine**, that release stored noradrenaline. This can also occur with tyramine-rich foods—particularly fermented cheeses such as Camembert (see Ch. 46).

• **Warfarin** competes with vitamin K, preventing hepatic synthesis of various coagulation factors (see Ch. 24). If vitamin K production in the intestine is inhibited (e.g. by antibiotics), the anticoagulant action of warfarin is increased.

• The risk of bleeding, especially from the stomach, caused by warfarin is increased by drugs that cause bleeding by different mechanisms (e.g. **aspirin**, which inhibits platelet thromboxane A_2 biosynthesis and which can damage the stomach; Ch. 26).

• *Sulfonamides* prevent the synthesis of folic acid by bacteria and other microorganisms; **trimethoprim** inhibits its reduction to tetrahydrofolate. Given together, the drugs have a synergistic action of

value in treating *Pneumocystis* infection (Ch. 53).

• *Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs* (NSAIDs; Ch. 26), such as **ibuprofen** or **indometacin**, inhibit biosynthesis of prostaglandins, including renal vasodilator/natriuretic prostaglandins (prostaglandin E_2, prostaglandin I_2). If administered to patients receiving treatment for hypertension, they increase the blood pressure. If given to patients being treated with diuretics for chronic heart failure, they cause salt and water retention and hence cardiac decompensation.[2]

• Histamine H_1 receptor antagonists, such as **promethazine**, commonly cause drowsiness as an unwanted effect. This is more troublesome if such drugs are taken with alcohol, leading to accidents at work or on the road.

Pharmacokinetic Interaction

[2]The interaction with diuretics may involve a pharmacokinetic interaction in addition to the pharmacodynamic effect described here, because NSAIDs compete with weak acids, including diuretics, for renal tubular secretion; see below.

All the four major processes that determine pharmacokinetics—absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion—can be affected by drugs. Some of the more important mechanisms are given here, with examples.

Absorption

Gastrointestinal absorption is slowed by drugs that inhibit gastric emptying, such as **atropine** or *opiates*, or accelerated by drugs that hasten gastric emptying (e.g. **metoclopramide**; see Ch. 29). Alternatively, drug A may interact with drug B in the gut in such a way

as to inhibit absorption of B (cf. pharmaceutical interactions; see footnote 1). For example, Ca^{2+} or Fe^{2+} each form insoluble complexes with **tetracycline** that retard its absorption; **colestyramine**, a bile acid-binding resin, binds several drugs (e.g. **warfarin**, **digoxin**), preventing their absorption if administered simultaneously. Another example is the addition of adrenaline (epinephrine) to local anaesthetic injections; the resulting vasoconstriction slows the absorption of the anaesthetic, thus prolonging its local effect (Ch. 42).

Drug Distribution

One drug may alter the distribution of another, by competing for a common binding site on plasma albumen or tissue protein, but such interactions are seldom clinically important unless accompanied by a separate effect on drug elimination (see below). Displacement of a drug from binding sites in plasma or tissues transiently increases the concentration of free (unbound) drug, but this is followed by increased elimination, so a new steady state results in which total drug concentration in plasma is reduced but the free drug concentration is similar to that before introduction of the second 'displacing' drug. Consequences of potential clinical importance are as follow:

- Toxicity from the transient increase in concentration of free drug before the new steady state is reached.

- If dose is being adjusted according to measurements of total plasma concentration, it must be appreciated that the target therapeutic concentration range will be altered by co-administration of a displacing drug.

- When the displacing drug additionally reduces elimination of the first, so that the free concentration is increased not only acutely but also

chronically at the new steady state, severe toxicity may ensue.

Although many drugs have appreciable affinity for plasma albumin (Ch. 8), and therefore might potentially be expected to interact in these ways, there are rather few instances of clinically important interactions of this type. Protein-bound drugs that are given in large enough dosage to act as displacing agents include various *sulfonamides* and **chloral hydrate**; trichloracetic acid, a metabolite of chloral hydrate, binds very strongly to plasma albumin. Displacement of bilirubin from albumin by such drugs in jaundiced premature neonates can have clinically disastrous consequences: bilirubin metabolism is undeveloped in the premature liver, and unbound bilirubin can cross the immature blood–brain barrier and cause kernicterus (staining of the basal ganglia by bilirubin). This causes a distressing and permanent disturbance of movement known as choreoathetosis, characterised by involuntary writhing and twisting movements in the child.

Phenytoin dose is adjusted according to measurement of its concentration in plasma, and such measurements do not routinely distinguish bound from free phenytoin (that is, they reflect the total concentration of drug). Introduction of a displacing drug in an epileptic patient whose condition is stabilised on phenytoin (Ch. 44) reduces the total plasma phenytoin concentration owing to increased elimination of free drug, but there is no loss of efficacy because the concentration of unbound (active) phenytoin at the new steady state is unaltered. If it is not appreciated that the therapeutic range of plasma concentrations has been reduced in this way, an increased dose may be prescribed, resulting in toxicity.

There are several instances where drugs that alter protein binding additionally reduce elimination of the displaced drug, causing clinically important interactions. **Phenylbutazone** displaces **warfarin** from

binding sites on albumin, and more importantly selectively inhibits metabolism of the pharmacologically active (*S*) isomer (see below), prolonging prothrombin time and resulting in increased bleeding (Ch. 24). *Salicylates* displace **methotrexate** from binding sites on albumin and reduce its secretion into the nephron by competition with the organic anion transporter (OAT; Ch. 9). **Quinidine** and several other antidysrhythmic drugs including **verapamil** and **amiodarone** (Ch. 21) displace **digoxin** from tissue-binding sites while simultaneously reducing its renal excretion; they consequently can cause severe dysrhythmias through digoxin toxicity.

Drug Metabolism

Drugs can either induce (Table 56.2) or inhibit (Table 56.3) drug-metabolising enzymes.

Table 56.2 Examples of drugs that induce drug-metabolising enzymes

Drugs inducing enzyme action	Drugs with metabolism affected
Phenobarbital	Warfarin
Rifampicin	Oral contraceptives
Griseofulvin	Corticosteroids
Phenytoin	Ciclosporin
Ethanol Carbamazepine	Drugs listed in left-hand column will also be affected

Table 56.3 Examples of drugs that inhibit drug-metabolising enzymes

Drugs inhibiting enzyme action	Drugs with metabolism affected

Allopurinol	Mercaptopurine, azathioprine
Chloramphenicol	Phenytoin
Cimetidine	Amiodarone, phenytoin, pethidine
Ciprofloxacin	Theophylline
Corticosteroids	Tricyclic antidepressants, cyclophosphamide
Disulfiram	Warfarin
Erythromycin	Ciclosporin, theophylline
Monoamine oxidase inhibitors	Pethidine
Ritonavir	Saquinavir

Enzyme induction

Enzyme induction (e.g. by anticonvulsants, ethanol or **rifampicin**; see Ch. 9) is an important cause of drug interaction. The slow onset of induction and slow recovery after withdrawal of the inducing agent together with the potential for selective induction of one or more CYP isoenzymes contributes to the insidious nature of the clinical problems that induction presents. Adverse clinical outcomes from such interactions are very diverse including graft rejection as a result of loss of effectiveness of immunosuppressive treatment, seizures due to loss of anticonvulsant effectiveness, unwanted pregnancy and thrombosis (from loss of effectiveness of warfarin) or bleeding (from failure to recognise the need to reduce warfarin dose when induction wanes). Over 200 drugs cause enzyme induction and thereby decrease the pharmacological activity of a range of other drugs. Some examples are given in Table 56.2. Because the inducing agent is often itself a substrate for the induced enzymes, the process can result in slowly developing tolerance. This pharmacokinetic kind of tolerance is generally less marked than pharmacodynamic tolerance, for example to opioids (Ch. 41), but it is clinically important when starting treatment with **carbamazepine** (Ch.

44). This is initiated at a low dose to avoid toxicity (because liver enzymes are not induced initially) and gradually increased over a period of a few weeks, during which it induces its own metabolism.

Figure 56.3 shows how the antibiotic **rifampicin**, given for 3 days, reduces the effectiveness of **warfarin** as an anticoagulant. Conversely, enzyme induction can increase toxicity of a second drug if the toxic effects are mediated via an active metabolite. **Paracetamol** (**acetaminophen**) toxicity is a case in point (see Fig. 57.1): this is caused by its CYP metabolite *N*-acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine. Consequently, the risk of serious hepatic injury following paracetamol overdose is increased in patients in whom CYP has been induced, for example by chronic alcohol consumption. Variability in rates of drug metabolism between individuals results partly from varying exposure to environmental chemicals, some of which are powerful enzyme inducers.

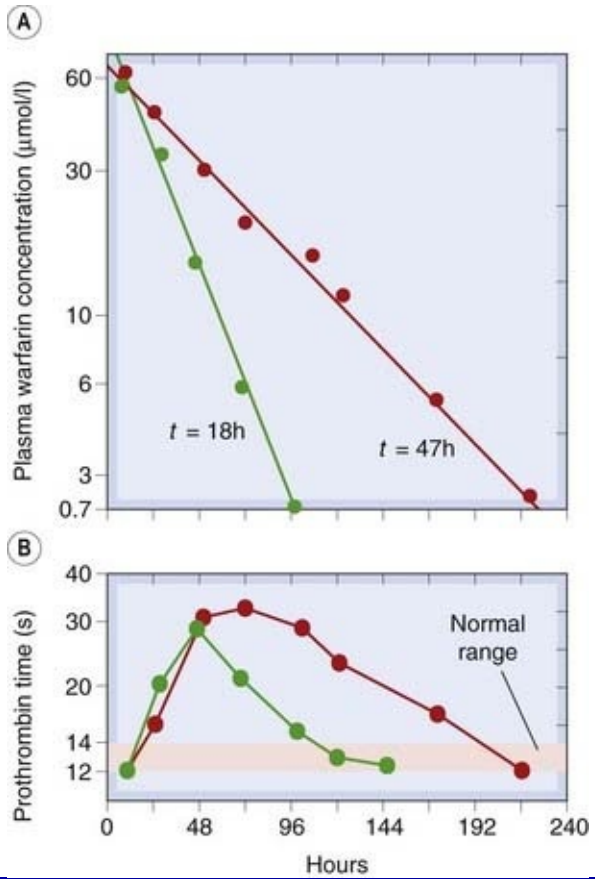


Fig. 56.3 Effect of rifampicin on the metabolism and anticoagulant action of warfarin.

[**A**] Plasma concentration of warfarin (log scale) as a function of time following a single oral dose of 5 µmol/kg body weight. After the subject was given rifampicin (600 mg daily for a few days), the plasma half-life of warfarin decreased from 47 h (red curve) to 18 h (green curve). [**B**] The effect of a single dose of warfarin on prothrombin time under normal conditions (red curve) and after rifampicin administration (green curve).

(Redrawn from O'Reilly 1974 Ann Intern Med 81: 337.)

Enzyme induction is exploited therapeutically by administering **phenobarbital** to premature babies to induce glucuronyltransferase, thereby increasing bilirubin conjugation and reducing the risk of kernicterus (see above).

Enzyme inhibition

Enzyme inhibition, particularly of CYP enzymes, slows the metabolism and hence increases the action of other drugs inactivated by the enzyme.

Such effects can be clinically important and are major considerations in the treatment of patients with HIV infection with triple and quadruple therapy, because several protease inhibitors are potent CYP inhibitors (Ch. 51). Other examples of drugs that are enzyme inhibitors are shown in Table 56.3. To make life even more difficult, several inhibitors of drug metabolism influence the metabolism of different stereoisomers selectively. Examples of drugs that inhibit the metabolism of the active (*S*) and less active (*R*) isomers of warfarin in this way are shown in Table 56.4.

Table 56.4 Stereoselective and non-stereoselective inhibition of warfarin metabolism

Inhibition of metabolism	Drug(s)
Stereoselective for (*S*) isomer	Phenylbutazone Metronidazole Sulfinpyrazone Trimethoprim–sulfamethoxazole Disulfiram
Stereoselective for (*R*) isomer	Cimetidine[a] Omeprazole[a]
Non-stereoselective effect on both isomers	Amiodarone

[a] Minor effect only on prothrombin time.

From Hirsh 1991 N Engl J Med 324: 1865–1875.

The therapeutic effects of some drugs are a direct consequence of enzyme inhibition (e.g. the xanthine oxidase inhibitor **allopurinol**, used to prevent gout; Ch. 26). Xanthine oxidase metabolises several cytotoxic and immunosuppressant drugs, including **mercaptopurine** (the active metabolite of **azathioprine**), the action of which is thus potentiated and prolonged by allopurinol. **Disulfiram**, an inhibitor of aldehyde

dehydrogenase used to produce an aversive reaction to ethanol (see Ch. 48), also inhibits metabolism of other drugs, including **warfarin**, which it potentiates. **Metronidazole**, an antimicrobial used to treat anaerobic bacterial infections and several protozoal diseases (Chs 50 and 53), also inhibits this enzyme, and patients prescribed it are advised to avoid alcohol for this reason.

In other instances, inhibition of drug metabolism is less expected because enzyme inhibition is not the main mechanism of action of the offending agents. Thus, *glucocorticosteroids* and **cimetidine** enhance the actions of a range of drugs including some antidepressant and cytotoxic drugs.

When a drug works through an active metabolite, inhibition of its metabolism can result in *loss* of activity. An example of topical concern is an interaction between proton pump inhibitors (such as **omeprazole**, Ch. 29) and the antiplatelet drug **clopidogrel** (Ch. 24). These have been widely co-prescribed (because clopidogrel is often used with other antithrombotic drugs so there is a high risk of bleeding from the stomach —omeprazole reduces this). Clopidogrel works through an active metabolite formed by CYP2C19 (people who carry a genetic variant where CYP2C19 is less active have an increased risk of thrombosis during treatment with clopidogrel). Omeprazole inhibits CYP2C19, and also reduces the antiplatelet action of clopidogrel. It is not yet clear how clinically important this may be, but the Food and Drug Administration has warned against concomitant use of these drugs (http://www.fda.gov/Safety/MedWatch/SafetyInformation/SafetyAlertsf
It is anticipated that other enzyme inhibitors will have a similar deleterious effect.

As with induction, interactions caused by enzyme inhibition are hard to anticipate from first principles. If in doubt about the possibility of an

interaction, it is best to look it up (e.g. in the *British National Formulary*, which has an invaluable appendix on drug interactions indicating which are of known clinical importance).

Haemodynamic effects

Variations in hepatic blood flow influence the rate of inactivation of drugs that are subject to extensive presystemic hepatic metabolism (e.g. **lidocaine**, **propranolol**). A reduced cardiac output reduces hepatic blood flow, so drugs that reduce cardiac output (e.g. propranolol) reduce the rate of metabolism of lidocaine by this mechanism. Extraction of lidocaine by liver approaches 100% and measurement of lidocaine clearance has been used to estimate hepatic blood flow in the same way as clearance of *p*-aminohippuric acid (PAH) has been used to estimate renal blood flow (Ch. 9).

Drug Excretion

The main mechanisms by which one drug can affect the rate of renal excretion of another are by:

- altering protein binding, and hence filtration
- inhibiting tubular secretion
- altering urine flow and/or urine pH.

Inhibition of tubular secretion

Probenecid (Ch. 28) was developed to inhibit **penicillin** secretion and thus prolong its action. It also inhibits the excretion of other drugs, including **zidovudine** (see Ch. 51). Other drugs have an incidental probenecid-like effect and can enhance the actions of substances that rely on tubular secretion for their elimination. Table 56.5 gives some examples. Because diuretics act from within the tubular lumen, drugs

that inhibit their secretion into the tubular fluid, such as NSAIDs, reduce their effect.

Table 56.5 Examples of drugs that inhibit renal tubular secretion

Drug(s) causing inhibition	Drug(s) affected
Probenecid Sulfinpyrazone Phenylbutazone Sulfonamides Aspirin Thiazide diuretics Indometacin	Penicillin Azidothymidine Indometacin
Verapamil Amiodarone Quinidine	Digoxin
Indometacin	Furosemide (frusemide)
Aspirin Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs	Methotrexate

Alteration of urine flow and pH

Diuretics tend to increase the urinary excretion of other drugs and their metabolites, but this is seldom immediately clinically important. Conversely, loop and thiazide diuretics indirectly increase the proximal tubular reabsorption of **lithium** (which is handled in a similar way as Na^+), and this can cause lithium toxicity in patients treated with lithium carbonate for mood disorders (Ch. 46). The effect of urinary pH on the excretion of weak acids and bases is put to use in the treatment of poisoning with *salicylate* (see Ch. 8), but is not a cause of accidental

interactions.

Drug interactions

• These are many and varied: if in doubt, look it up.

• Interactions may be pharmacodynamic or pharmacokinetic.

• Pharmacodynamic interactions are often predictable from the actions of the interacting drugs.

• Pharmacokinetic interactions can involve effects on:

– absorption

– distribution (e.g. competition for protein binding)

– hepatic metabolism (induction or inhibition)

– renal excretion.

References and Further Reading

Further reading

arry M., Mulcahy F., Merry C., *et al.* Pharmacokinetics and potential interactions amongst antiretroviral agents used to treat patients with HIV infection. *Clin. Pharmacokinet.*. 1999;36:289-304. (*Multidrug combinations have transformed the outlook for patients with HIV infection; drug interactions are one of the main problems associated with these*)

armichael D.J.S. Handling of drugs in kidney disease. In: Davison A.M., Cameron J.S., Grunfeld J.P., et al, editors. *Oxford textbook of clinical nephrology*. third ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2005:2599-2618. (*Principles and practice of dose adjustment in patients with renal failure*)

ooper R.S., Kaufman J.S., Ward R. Race and genomics. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2003;348:1166-1170. (*Scholarly and appropriately sceptical analysis*)

ugh-Berman A., Ernst E. Herb–drug interactions: review and assessment of report reliability. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2001;52:587-595. (*Warfarin the most common drug, St John's wort the most*

common herb; more data needed! See also Fugh-Berman, A., 2000. Lancet 355, 134–138)

anratty C.G., McGlinchey P., Johnston G.D., Passmore A.P. Differential pharmacokinetics of digoxin in elderly patients. *Drugs Aging*. 2000;17:353-362. (*Reviews pharmacokinetics of digoxin in relation to age, concomitant disease and interacting drugs*)

in J.H., Liu A.Y.H. Interindividual variability in inhibition and induction of cytochrome P450 enzymes. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2001;41:535-567. (*Examines sources of interindividual variability in inhibition and induction of P450 enzymes*)

owland M., Tozer T.N. *Clinical pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. Concepts and applications*. Baltimore: Wolters Kluwer/ Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins; 2010. (*Online simulations by H Derendorf and G Hochhaus*)

proule B.A., Hardy B.G., Shulman K.I. Differential pharmacokinetics in elderly patients. *Drugs Aging*. 2000;16:165-177. (*Reviews age-related changes in pharmacodynamics as well as pharmacokinetics and drug interactions, all of which are clinically important*)

/estphal J.F. Macrolide-induced clinically relevant drug interactions with cytochrome P450A (CYP) 3A4: an update focused on clarithromycin, azithromycin and dirithromycin. *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*. 2000;50:285-295. (*Review: theophylline, ciclosporine, warfarin, involvement of P-glycoprotein as well as metabolism*)

ie H.-G., Kim R.B., Wood A.J.J., Stein C.M. Molecular basis of ethnic differences in drug disposition and response. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2001;41:815-850. (*Recent developments in understanding genetic variations that may underlie ethnic differences in drug-metabolising enzymes, transporters, receptors and second messenger systems*)

evin S., Benowitz N.L. Drug interactions with tobacco smoking—an update. *Clin. Pharmacokinet.*. 1999;36:425-438. (*Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in tobacco smoke induce various P450 enzymes. 'Cigarette smoking should be specifically studied in clinical trials of new drugs'*)

References

tkinson A.J.Jr, Abernethie D.R., Daniels C.E., *et al. Principles of clinical pharmacology*, second ed. San Diego: Academic Press; 2006. (*Includes detailed accounts of clinical aspects including effects of renal and liver disease on pharmacokinetics, of effects of age and on drug therapy in pregnant*

and nursing women)

Jadman M. Drug targeting: is race enough? *Nature*. 2005;435:1008-1009. (*No!*)

Jood A.J.J. Racial differences in response to drugs—pointers to genetic differences. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2001;344:1393-1396.

57

Harmful effects of drugs

Overview

This chapter addresses *harmful* effects of drugs, both in the context of therapeutic use—so-called *adverse drug reactions*, and of deliberate *overdose*. The classification of adverse drug reactions is considered, followed by aspects of drug toxicity: toxicity testing in drug development, mechanisms of toxin-induced cell damage, mutagenesis and carcinogenicity, teratogenesis and allergic reactions.

Introduction

Paracelsus, a 16th-century alchemist, is credited with the aphorism that all drugs are poisons: '… the dosage makes it either a poison or a remedy'. Today, toxic effects of drugs remain clinically important in the context of deliberate overdose (self-poisoning accounts for approximately 10% of the workload of emergency medicine departments in the UK; by contrast, homicidal poisoning, while obviously important, is extremely uncommon). Some susceptible individuals may experience dose-related toxicity even during therapeutic dosing; some of this susceptibility is genetically determined, and genomic testing as a means of avoiding such harms is beginning to make its way into the clinic (Ch. 11).

Rigorous toxicity testing in animals (see below), including tests for carcinogenicity, teratogenicity and organ-specific toxicities, is carried

out on potential new drugs during development (see Ch. 60), and in many cases leads to abandonment of the compound before it is tested in humans. Such animal toxicity studies form part of the package of information routinely submitted to drug regulatory agencies when seeking approval to market a new drug. Such studies do sometimes usefully focus attention on a particular organ, the function of which can be monitored prospectively during human studies. Nevertheless, harmful effects are often encountered during therapeutic use, often the result of misprescribing, but also due to the emergence of toxic effects not detected in animals. These harms are usually referred to as 'adverse drug reactions' (ADRs) and are of great concern to drug regulatory authorities, which are charged with establishing the safety as well as the efficacy of drugs. Unpredictable events are of particular concern. Some ADRs are a consequence of the main pharmacological effect of the drug but some (e.g. immunological reactions), are not. *Safety* (as distinct from *toxicity*) of new drugs can only be established during drug development and therapeutic use in humans (Walker, 2004).

Clinically important ADRs are common, costly and avoidable (see Pirmohamed et al., 2004).[1] Any organ can be the principal target, and several systems can be involved simultaneously. The time course helps to recognise a clinical event as an ADR. Several patterns are recognised. The symptoms sometimes closely shadow drug administration and discontinuation, but in other cases adverse effects only occur during prolonged use (*osteoporosis* during continued high-dose glucocorticoid therapy [Ch. 32], or *tardive dyskinesia* during continuous use of antipsychotic drugs [Ch. 45], for example). Some adverse effects occur on ending treatment, either within a few days (e.g. tachycardia on abrupt discontinuation of β-adrenoceptor blockade) or after a delay, first appearing months or years after treatment is discontinued, as in the case

of some second malignancies following successful chemotherapy. Consequently, anticipating, avoiding, recognising and responding to adverse drug reactions are among the most challenging and important parts of clinical practice.

Classification of Adverse Drug Reactions

[1]6.5% of hospital admissions were due to ADRs at a projected annual cost of £466 million in the UK. Antiplatelet drugs, diuretics, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and anticoagulants between them accounted for 50% of the ADRs. Most events were avoidable and 2.3% of the patients died.

Harmful effects of drugs are either related or unrelated to the principal pharmacological action of the drug. Aronson & Ferner (2003) have suggested that ADRs be described according to the **do**se, **t**ime course and **s**usceptibility (DoTS).

Adverse Effects Related to the Main Pharmacological Action of the Drug

Many adverse effects related to the main pharmacological action of the drug are predictable, at least if this action is well understood. They are sometimes referred to as type A ('augmented') adverse reactions (Rawlins & Thomson, 1985) and are related to dose and susceptibility. Many such reactions have been described in previous chapters. For example, postural hypotension occurs with α_1-adrenoceptor antagonists, bleeding with anticoagulants, sedation with anxiolytics and so on. In many instances, this type of unwanted effect is reversible, and the problem can often be dealt with by reducing the dose. Such effects are sometimes serious (e.g. intracerebral bleeding caused by anticoagulants, hypoglycaemic coma from insulin), and occasionally they are not easily

reversible, for example drug dependence produced by opioid analgesics (see Ch. 48).

Some adverse effects related to the main action of a drug result in discrete events rather than graded symptoms, and can be difficult to detect. For example, drugs that block cyclooxygenase (COX)-2 (including 'coxibs', for example **rofecoxib**, **celecoxib**, **valdecoxib**, as well as some conventional nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, NSAIDs) increase the risk of myocardial infarction in a dose-dependent manner (Ch. 26). This potential was apparent from the pharmacology of these drugs, in particular their ability to inhibit prostacyclin biosynthesis as well as to increase arterial blood pressure, and early studies gave a hint of such problems. The effect was difficult to prove because of the high background incidence of coronary thrombosis, and it was only when placebo-controlled trials were performed for another indication (in the hope that COX-2 inhibitors could prevent bowel cancer) that this effect was confirmed unequivocally.

Adverse Effects Unrelated to the Main Pharmacological Action of the Drug

Adverse effects unrelated to the main pharmacological effect may be predictable when a drug is taken in excessive dose, for example **paracetamol** hepatotoxicity (see below) or **aspirin**-induced tinnitus; or when susceptibility is increased, for example during pregnancy or by a predisposing disorder such as glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency or a mutation in the mitochondrial DNA that predisposes to aminoglycoside ototoxicity (Ch. 11).

Unpredictable idiosyncratic reactions are often initiated by a chemically reactive metabolite rather than the parent drug. Examples of such ADRs, which are often immunological in nature, include drug-

induced hepatic or renal necrosis, bone marrow suppression, carcinogenesis and disordered fetal development. Uncommon but severe unpredictable adverse effects that have been mentioned in earlier chapters include aplastic anaemia from **chloramphenicol** and anaphylaxis in response to **penicillin**. These idiosyncratic reactions are termed type B ('bizarre') in the Rawlins & Thomson (1985) classification. They are usually severe—otherwise they would go unrecognised—and their existence is important in establishing the safety of medicines.

▼ If the incidence of an adverse reaction is 1 in 6000 patients exposed, approximately 18 000 patients would have to be exposed to the drug for three events to occur, and approximately double that number for three events to be detected and their possible relationship to the drug recognised and reported, even if there were no background incidence of the event in question. Consequently, such reactions cannot be excluded by preapproval clinical trials (which might typically expose only a few thousand individuals to the drug), and the association may come to light only after years of use, so there is a need for continued monitoring by regulatory authorities after drugs have been licensed and marketed. An example is the association between pulmonary hypertension and valvular heart disease with **fenfluramine**, an appetite suppressant that had been used for several years, and with **dexfenfluramine**, its pharmacologically active isomer. Such experiences call for a balanced approach to prescribing new drugs if there are adequate existing alternatives.[2] This conflicts with the culture of drug marketing, especially when this involves advertising the product direct to the consumer.

Drug Toxicity

Toxicity Testing

[2]Hesitation in prescribing a newly licensed drug may delay recognition of an ADR without reducing the total number of patients harmed, so a 'cautious physician' is one who prefers to let others take the risk. Grant of a product licence to a company to market a new drug does not require evidence of superiority over existing treatments, so from the patient's perspective a physician who is neither at the forefront of fashion nor the last to adopt a genuine advance may be the best bet in an uncertain world.

Toxicity testing in animals is carried out on new drugs to identify potential hazards before administering them to humans. It involves the use of a wide range of tests in different species, with long-term administration of the drug, regular monitoring for physiological or biochemical abnormalities, and a detailed postmortem examination at the end of the trial to detect any gross or histological abnormalities. Recently, use of non-mammalian species, notably the transparent zebra fish, has shown promise as an intermediate stage between toxicity studies on cells and tissues in vitro and mammalian toxicity testing (see Parng, 2005, for a review). Toxicity testing is performed with doses well above the expected therapeutic range, and establishes which tissues or organs are likely 'targets' of toxic effects of the drug. Recovery studies are performed to assess whether toxic effects are reversible, and particular attention is paid to irreversible changes such as carcinogenesis or neurodegeneration. The basic premise is that toxic effects caused by a drug are similar in humans and other animals. This is inherently reasonable in view of the similarities between higher organisms at the cellular and molecular levels. There are, nevertheless, wide interspecies variations, especially in metabolising enzymes; consequently, a toxic metabolite formed in one species may not be formed in another, and so toxicity testing in animals is not always a reliable guide. **Pronethalol**,

the first β-adrenoceptor antagonist synthesised (by James Black) at ICI, was not developed because it caused carcinogenicity in mice; it subsequently emerged that carcinogenicity occurred only in the ICI strain—but by then other β-blockers were already in development.

Toxic effects can range from negligible to so severe as to preclude further development of the compound. Intermediate levels of toxicity are more acceptable in drugs intended for severe illnesses (e.g. AIDS or cancers), and decisions on whether or not to continue development are often difficult. If development does proceed, safety monitoring can be concentrated on the system 'flagged' as a potential target of toxicity by the animal studies.[3] *Safety* of a drug (as distinct from toxicity) can be established only during use in humans.

Types of drug toxicity

• Toxic effects of drugs can be:

– related to the principal pharmacological action (e.g. bleeding with anticoagulants)

– unrelated to the principal pharmacological action (e.g. liver damage with **paracetamol**).

• Some adverse reactions that occur with ordinary therapeutic dosage are unpredictable, serious and uncommon (e.g. agranulocytosis with **carbimazole**). Such idiosyncratic reactions are almost inevitably detected only after widespread use of a new drug.

• Adverse effects unrelated to the main action of a drug are often caused by reactive metabolites and/or immunological reactions.

General Mechanisms of Toxin-Induced Cell Damage and Cell Death

[3]The value of toxicity testing is illustrated by experience with **triparanol**, a cholesterol-lowering drug marketed in the USA in 1959. Three years later, a team from the Food and Drug Administration, acting

on a tip-off, paid the manufacturer a surprise visit that revealed falsification of toxicology data demonstrating cataracts in rats and dogs. The drug was withdrawn, but some patients who had been taking it for a year or more also developed cataracts. Regulatory authorities now require that toxicity testing is performed under a tightly defined code of practice (Good Laboratory Practice), which incorporates many safeguards to minimise the risk of error or fraud.

Toxic concentrations of drugs or drug metabolites can cause necrosis; however, programmed cell death (apoptosis; see Ch. 5) is increasingly recognised to be of paramount importance, especially in chronic toxicity (see, for example, Pirmohamed, 2003).

Chemically reactive drug metabolites can form covalent bonds with target molecules as well as damage tissue by non-covalent mechanisms. The liver is of great importance in drug metabolism (Ch. 9), and hepatocytes are exposed to high concentrations of nascent metabolites. Drugs and their polar metabolites are concentrated in renal tubular fluid as water is reabsorbed, so renal tubules are exposed to higher concentrations than are other tissues. Several hepatotoxic drugs (e.g. **paracetamol**) are also nephrotoxic. Consequently, hepatic or renal damage are common reasons for abandoning development of drugs during toxicity testing.

Non-Covalent Interactions

▼ Reactive metabolites of drugs are implicated in several potentially cytotoxic, non-covalent processes, including:

- lipid peroxidation
- generation of toxic reactive oxygen species
- depletion of reduced glutathione (GSH)

• modification of sulfhydryl groups.

Lipid peroxidation

▼ Peroxidation of unsaturated lipids can be initiated either by reactive metabolites or by reactive oxygen species (see below). Lipid peroxyradicals ($ROO^{\bullet}$) can produce lipid hydroperoxides (ROOH), which produce further lipid peroxyradicals. This chain reaction—a peroxidative cascade—may eventually affect much of the membrane lipid. Defence mechanisms, for example GSH peroxidase and vitamin E, protect against this. Cell damage results from alteration of membrane permeability or from reactions of the products of lipid peroxidation with proteins.

Reactive oxygen species

▼ Reduction of molecular oxygen to superoxide anion ($O_2^{-\bullet}$) may be followed by enzymic conversion to hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), hydroperoxy ($HOO^{\bullet}$) and hydroxyl ($OH^{\bullet}$) radicals or singlet oxygen. These reactive oxygen species are cytotoxic, both directly and through lipid peroxidation (see above), and are important in excitotoxicity and neurodegeneration (Ch. 39, Fig. 39.1).

Depletion of glutathione

▼ The GSH redox cycle protects cells from oxidative stress. GSH can be depleted by accumulation of normal oxidative products of cell metabolism, or by the action of toxic chemicals. GSH is normally maintained in a redox couple with its disulfide, GSSG. Oxidising species convert GSH to GSSG, GSH being regenerated by NADPH-dependent GSSG reductase. When cellular GSH falls to about 20–30% of normal, cellular defence against toxic compounds is impaired and cell death can result.

Modification of sulfhydryl groups

▼ Modification of sulfhydryl groups can be produced either by oxidising species that alter sulfhydryl groups reversibly or by covalent interaction. Free sulfhydryl groups have a critical role in the catalytic activity of many enzymes. Important targets for sulfhydryl modification by reactive metabolites include the cytoskeletal protein actin, GSH reductase (see above) and Ca^{2+}-transporting ATPases in the plasma membrane and endoplasmic reticulum. These maintain cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} concentration at approximately 0.1 μmol/l in the face of an extracellular Ca^{2+} concentration of more than 1 mmol/l. A sustained rise in cell Ca^{2+} occurs with inactivation of these enzymes (or with increased membrane permeability; see above), and this compromises cell viability. Lethal processes leading to cell death after acute Ca^{2+} overload include activation of degradative enzymes (neutral proteases, phospholipases, endonucleases) and protein kinases, mitochondrial damage and cytoskeletal alterations (e.g. modification of association between actin and actin-binding proteins).

Covalent Interactions

Targets for covalent interactions include DNA, proteins/peptides, lipids and carbohydrates. Covalent bonding to DNA is a basic mechanism of mutagenic chemicals; this is dealt with below. Several non-mutagenic chemicals also form covalent bonds with macromolecules, but the relationship between this and cell damage is incompletely understood. For example, the cholinesterase inhibitor paraoxon (the active metabolite of the insecticide parathion) binds acetylcholinesterase at the neuromuscular junction (Ch. 13) and causes necrosis of skeletal muscle. One toxin from an exceptionally poisonous toadstool, *Amanita phalloides*, binds actin, and another binds RNA polymerase, interfering with actin depolymerisation and protein synthesis, respectively.

General mechanisms of cell damage and cell death

• Drug-induced cell damage/death is usually caused by reactive metabolites of the drug, involving non-covalent and/or covalent interactions with target molecules. Cell death is often 'self-inflicted', via triggering apoptosis.

• Non-covalent interactions include:

– lipid peroxidation via a chain reaction

– generation of cytotoxic reactive oxygen species

– depletion of reduced glutathione

– modification of sulfhydryl groups on key enzymes (e.g. Ca^{2+}-ATPase) and structural proteins.

• Covalent interactions, for example adduct formation between a metabolite of paracetamol (NAPBQI: *N*-acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine) and cellular macromolecules (Fig. 57.1). Covalent binding to protein can produce an immunogen; binding to DNA can cause carcinogenesis and teratogenesis.

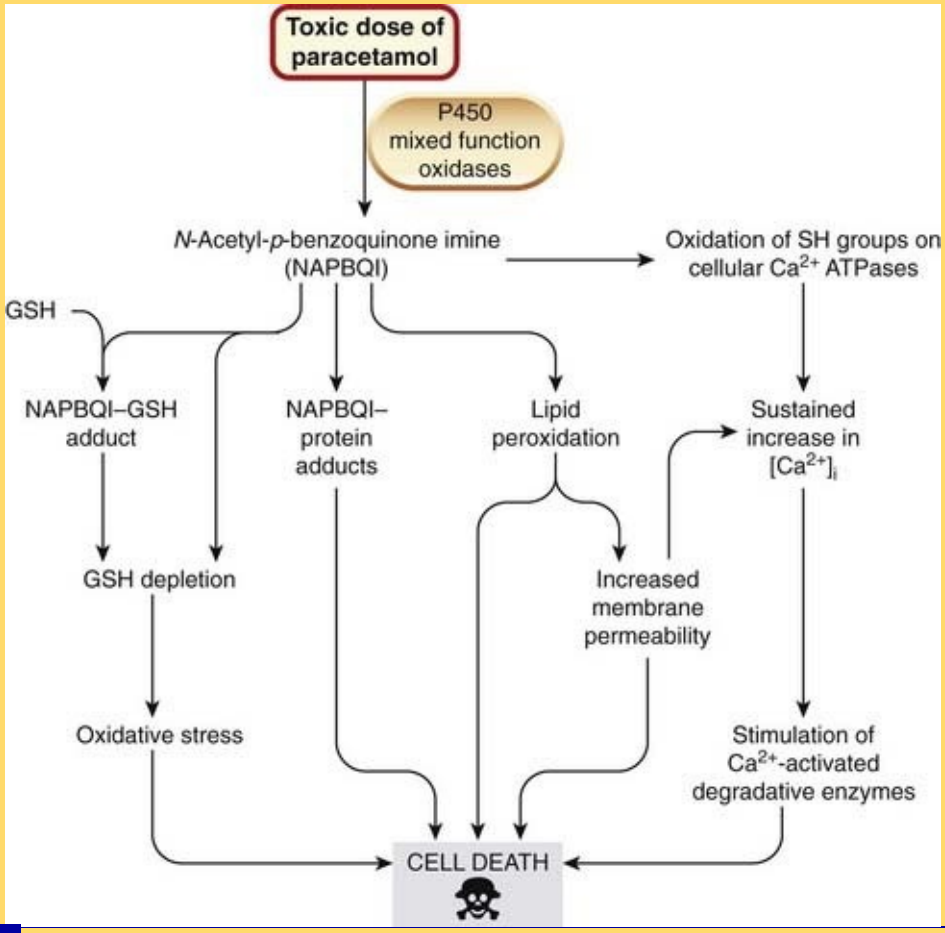


Fig. 57.1 Potential mechanisms of liver cell death resulting from the metabolism of paracetamol to *N*-acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine (NAPBQI).

GSH, glutathione.

(Based on data from Boobis A R et al. 1989 Trends Pharmacol Sci 10: 275–280 and Nelson S D, Pearson P G 1990 Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 30: 169.)

Hepatotoxicity

Many therapeutic drugs cause liver damage, manifested clinically as hepatitis or (in less severe cases) only as laboratory abnormalities (e.g. increased activity of plasma aspartate transaminase, an enzyme released from damaged liver cells). **Paracetamol**, **iproniazid** and **halothane** cause hepatotoxicity by the mechanisms of cell damage outlined above. Genetic differences in drug metabolism (see Ch. 11) have been

implicated in some instances (e.g. **isoniazid**, **phenytoin**). Mild drug-induced abnormalities of liver function are not uncommon, but the mechanism of liver injury is often uncertain (e.g. *statins*; Ch. 23). It is not always necessary to discontinue a drug when such mild laboratory abnormalities occur, but the occurrence of cirrhosis as a result of long-term low-dose **methotrexate** treatment for arthritis or psoriasis (a chronic scaling skin disease of unknown cause that is usually mild, if tiresome, but can rarely be very severe[4]) argues for caution. Hepatotoxicity of a different kind, namely reversible obstructive jaundice, occurs with **chlorpromazine** (Ch. 45) and androgens (Ch. 34).

[4]Aficionados of Dennis Potter will recall the protagonist in the television drama *The Singing Detective*; Potter was himself afflicted by the most severe form of the disease.

Hepatotoxicity caused by **paracetamol** overdose remains a common cause of death following self-poisoning. An outline is given in Chapter 26. Because the body's handling of this drug exemplifies many of the general mechanisms of cell damage outlined above, the story is taken up again here. With toxic doses of paracetamol, the enzymes catalysing the normal conjugation reactions are saturated, and mixed-function oxidases convert the drug to the reactive metabolite *N*-acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine (NAPBQI). As explained in Chapters 9 and 56, paracetamol toxicity is increased in patients in whom P450 enzymes have been induced, for instance by chronic excessive consumption of alcohol. NAPBQI initiates several of the covalent and non-covalent interactions described above and illustrated in Figure 57.1. Oxidative stress from GSH depletion is important in leading to cell death. Regeneration of GSH from GSSG depends on the availability of cysteine, the intracellular availability of which can be limiting. *Acetylcysteine* or *methionine* can substitute for cysteine, increasing GSH availability and reducing

mortality in patients with paracetamol poisoning.

Liver damage can also be produced by immunological mechanisms (see below), which have been particularly implicated in **halothane** hepatitis (see Ch. 40).

Hepatotoxicity

• Hepatocytes are exposed to reactive metabolites of drugs as these are formed by P450 enzymes.

• Liver damage is produced by several mechanisms of cell injury; **paracetamol** exemplifies many of these (see Fig. 57.1).

• Some drugs (e.g. **chlorpromazine**) can cause reversible cholestatic jaundice.

• Immunological mechanisms are sometimes implicated (e.g. **halothane**).

Nephrotoxicity

Drug-induced nephrotoxicity is a common clinical problem: NSAIDs (Table 57.1) and angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors are among the commoner precipitants of acute renal failure. This is usually caused by the principal pharmacological actions of these drugs, which, although well tolerated in healthy people, cause renal failure in patients with diseases that jeopardise glomerular filtration. In patients with heart or liver disease, glomerular filtration rate (GFR) depends critically on vasodilator prostaglandin biosynthesis. This is inhibited by NSAIDs (Ch. 26), and hence these drugs reduce renal perfusion in such patients. Similarly, in patients with bilateral renal artery stenosis (i.e. narrowings of the renal arteries, most often caused by fibromuscular tissue in young women or by atheromatous disease in older people), GFR depends on angiotensin II-mediated efferent arteriolar vasoconstriction (which is

inhibited by ACE inhibitors; Ch. 22); acute renal impairment occurs on starting treatment with an ACE inhibitor and is reversible if the drug is discontinued promptly. Additionally, NSAIDs indirectly depress renin and aldosterone secretion by inhibiting renal prostaglandin I_2 biosynthesis, and ACE inhibitors depress angiotensin II-stimulated aldosterone secretion, leading to low renin/low aldosterone states ('hyporeninaemic hypoaldosteronism') that are particularly notable in diabetic patients. Reduced aldosterone can cause hyperkalaemia, especially if GFR is also reduced.

Table 57.1 Adverse effects of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs on the kidney

Cause	Adverse effects
Principal pharmacological action (i.e. inhibition of prostaglandin biosynthesis)	Acute ischaemic renal failure Sodium retention (leading to or exacerbating hypertension and/or heart failure) Water retention Hyporeninaemic hypoaldosteronism (leading to hyperkalaemia)
Unrelated to principal pharmacological action (allergic-type interstitial nephritis)	Renal failure Proteinuria
Unknown whether or not related to principal pharmacological action (analgesic nephropathy)	Papillary necrosis Chronic renal failure

Adapted from Murray & Brater 1993.

In addition to effects related to their main pharmacological action, NSAIDs can also cause interstitial nephritis through an immunological mechanism. This presents several months to 1 year after starting treatment as acute renal failure, often accompanied by eosinophil leukocytes in the urine and proteinuria, or as nephrotic syndrome (heavy

proteinuria, hypoalbuminuria and oedema). **Fenoprofen** is particularly liable to cause this type of renal damage, possibly because its metabolites bind irreversibly to albumin. Penicillins (Ch. 50), especially **meticillin**, also cause interstitial nephritis.

Analgesic nephropathy is a third kind of renal damage in which NSAIDs are implicated (see also Ch. 26). This consists of renal papillary necrosis[5] and chronic interstitial nephritis. The clinical course is typically insidious but leads ultimately to end-stage chronic renal failure. It is associated with prolonged and massive overuse of analgesics. **Phenacetin** has been incriminated, but other NSAIDs have not been exonerated. The role of **caffeine** (often included with analgesics and NSAIDs in combined preparations for migraine) is uncertain but could be important. It is possible that such analgesic-associated nephropathy is causally related to inhibition of renal prostaglandin synthesis, but its pathogenesis is not understood.

[5]The renal papilla is the part of the kidney exposed to the highest concentration of solutes, including drug metabolites; it also has a lower effective blood flow than other parts as a result of counter-current exchange in the vasa recta.

Captopril, in higher doses than are currently recommended, can cause heavy proteinuria (Ch. 22). This is the result of glomerular injury, which is also caused by some other drugs that, like captopril, contain a sulfhydryl group (e.g. **penicillamine**; Ch. 26). It is therefore believed that it is this chemical feature rather than ACE inhibition per se that is responsible for this adverse effect.

Ciclosporin, used to prevent transplant rejection (Ch. 26), causes renal damage via renal vasoconstriction, which reduces GFR and causes hypertension.

Nephrotoxicity

• Renal tubular cells are exposed to high concentrations of drugs and metabolites as urine is concentrated.

• Renal damage can cause papillary and/or tubular necrosis.

• Inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis by nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs causes vasoconstriction and lowers glomerular filtration rate.

Mutagenesis and Carcinogenicity

Chemical agents cause mutation by covalent modification of DNA. Certain kinds of mutation result in carcinogenesis, because the affected DNA sequence codes for a protein that regulates cell growth. It usually requires more than one mutation in a cell to initiate the changes that result in malignancy, mutations in proto-oncogenes (which regulate cell growth) and tumour suppressor genes (which code for products that inhibit the transcription of oncogenes) being particularly implicated (see Chs 5 and 55).

Biochemical Mechanisms of Mutagenesis

▼ Most chemical carcinogens act by modifying bases in DNA, particularly guanine, the O6 and N7 positions of which readily combine covalently with reactive metabolites of chemical carcinogens. Substitution at the O6 position is the more likely to produce a permanent mutagenic effect, because N7 substitutions are usually quickly repaired.

▼The accessibility of bases in DNA to chemical attack is greatest when DNA is in the process of replication (i.e. during cell division). The likelihood of genetic damage by many mutagens is therefore related to the frequency of cell division. The developing fetus is particularly

susceptible, and mutagens are also potentially teratogenic (see below). This is also important in relation to mutagenesis of germ cells, particularly in girls, because in humans the production of primary oocytes occurs by a rapid succession of mitotic divisions very early in embryogenesis. Each primary oocyte then undergoes only two further divisions much later in life, at the time of ovulation. It is consequently during early pregnancy that germ cells of the developing female embryo are most likely to undergo mutagenesis, the mutations being transmitted to progeny conceived many years after exposure to the mutagen. In the male, germ cell divisions occur throughout life, and sensitivity of germ cells to mutagens is continuously present.

Mutagenesis and carcinogenicity

• Mutagenesis involves modification of DNA.

• Mutation of proto-oncogenes or tumour suppressor genes leads to carcinogenesis. More than one mutation is usually required.

• Drugs are relatively uncommon (but not unimportant) causes of birth defects and cancers.

Carcinogenesis

Alteration of DNA is the first step in the complex, multistage process of carcinogenesis (see Ch. 5). Carcinogens are chemical substances that cause cancer, and can interact directly with DNA (genotoxic carcinogens) or act at a later stage to increase the likelihood that mutation will result in a tumour (epigenetic carcinogens; Fig. 57.2).

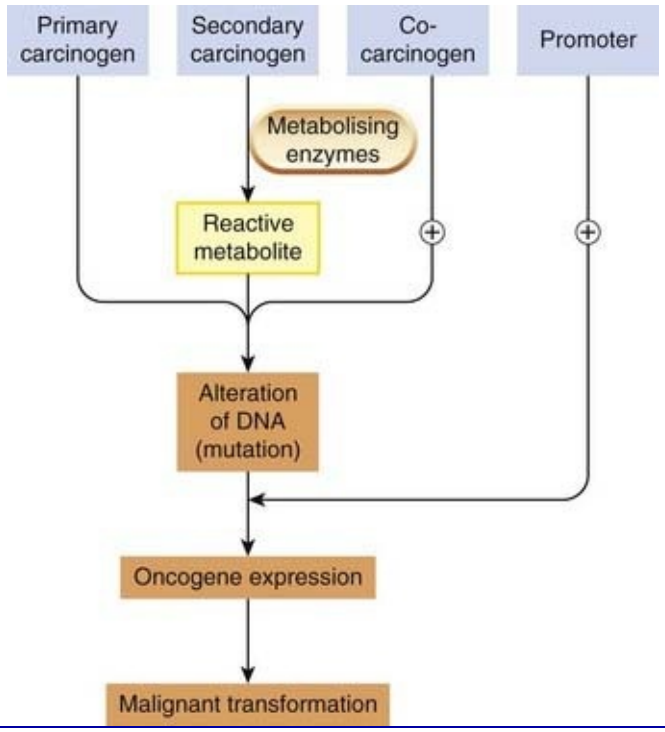


Fig. 57.2 Sequence of events in mutagenesis and carcinogenesis.

Measurement of Mutagenicity and Carcinogenicity

Much effort has gone into developing assays to detect mutagenicity and carcinogenicity. In vitro tests for *mutagenicity* are used for screening large numbers of compounds but as predictors of carcinogenicity can give false positive or false negative results. Whole-animal tests for carcinogenicity tests are expensive and time-consuming but are usually required by regulatory authorities before a new drug is licensed for use in humans. The main limitation of this kind of study is that there are important species differences, mainly to do with the metabolism of the foreign compound and the formation of reactive products.

The most widely used in vitro tests are variations on the *Ames test* for mutagenicity, which measures the rate of back-mutation (i.e. reversion from mutant to wild-type form) in *Salmonella typhimurium*.

▼ The wild-type strain can grow in a medium containing no added

amino acids, because it can synthesise all the amino acids it needs from simple carbon and nitrogen sources. The test makes use of the fact that a mutant form of the organism cannot make histidine in this way and therefore grows only on a medium containing this amino acid. The test involves growing the mutant form on a medium containing a small amount of histidine, the drug to be tested being added to the culture. After several divisions, the histidine becomes depleted, and the only cells that continue dividing are those that have back-mutated to the wild type. A count of colonies following subculture on plates deficient in histidine gives a measure of the mutation rate.

▼Primary carcinogens cause mutation by a direct action on bacterial DNA, but most carcinogens have to be converted to an active metabolite (see above). Therefore it is necessary to include, in the culture, enzymes that catalyse the necessary conversion. An extract of liver from a rat treated with **phenobarbital** to induce liver enzymes is usually employed. There are many variations based on the same principle.

▼Other short-term in vitro tests for genotoxic chemicals include measurements of mutagenesis in mouse lymphoma cells, and assays for chromosome aberrations and sister chromatid exchanges in Chinese hamster ovary cells. However, all the in vitro tests give some false positive and some false negative results.

In vivo tests for carcinogenicity entail detection of tumours in groups of test animals. Carcinogenicity tests are inevitably slow, because there is usually a latency of months or years before tumours develop. Furthermore, tumours can develop spontaneously in control animals, and the results often provide only equivocal evidence of carcinogenicity of the test drug, making it difficult for industry and regulatory authorities to decide on further development and possible licensing of a product. None of the tests so far described can reliably detect epigenetic

carcinogens. To do this, it is necessary to measure the effect of the test substance on tumour production with a threshold dose of a genotoxic agent. Such tests are being evaluated.

Few therapeutic drugs are known to increase the risk of cancer, the most important groups being drugs that act on DNA, *i.e.* cytotoxic and immunosuppressant drugs (Chs 55 and 26, respectively), and sex hormones (e.g. *oestrogens*, Ch. 34). **Pyrimethamine** (Ch. 53) is mutagenic in high concentrations, and carcinogenicity testing in strain A mice (but not other strains or species) was positive for a three-fold increase in lung tumours. **Methoxsalen** (a psoralen used together with ultraviolet light, PUVA, in specialist skin disease centres for treatment of psoriasis) is both mutagenic and carcinogenic in animal models and may increase the incidence of skin cancer in humans.

Carcinogens

• Carcinogens can be:

– genotoxic, *i.e.* causing mutations directly (primary carcinogens) or after conversion to reactive metabolites (secondary carcinogens)

– epigenetic, *i.e.* increasing the possibility that a mutagen will cause cancer, although not themselves mutagenic.

• New drugs are tested for mutagenicity and carcinogenicity.

• The main test for mutagenicity measures back-mutation, in histidine-free medium, of a mutant *Salmonella typhimurium* (which, unlike the wild-type, cannot grow without histidine) in the presence of:

– the chemical to be tested

– a liver microsomal enzyme preparation for generating reactive metabolites.

• Colony growth indicates that mutagenesis has occurred. The test is rapid and inexpensive,

but some false positives and false negatives occur.

• Carcinogenicity testing:

– involves chronic dosing of groups of animals

– is expensive and time-consuming

– does not readily detect epigenetic carcinogens.

Teratogenesis and Drug-Induced Fetal Damage

Teratogenesis signifies the production of gross structural malformations during fetal development, in distinction from other kinds of drug-induced fetal damage such as growth retardation, dysplasia (e.g. iodide-associated goitre) or the asymmetrical limb reduction resulting from vasoconstriction caused by **cocaine** (see Ch. 48) in an otherwise normally developing limb. Examples of drugs that affect fetal development adversely are given in Table 57.2.

Table 57.2 Some drugs reported to have adverse effects on human fetal development

Agent	Effect(s)	Teratogenicity[a]	See Chapter
Thalidomide	Phocomelia, heart defects, gut atresia, etc.	K	This chapter
Penicillamine	Loose skin etc.	K	26
Warfarin	Saddle nose; retarded growth; defects of limbs, eyes, central nervous system	K	24
Corticosteroids	Cleft palate and congenital cataract—rare	–	32
Androgens	Masculinisation in female	–	34
Oestrogens	Testicular atrophy in male	–	34
Stilbestrol	Vaginal adenosis in female fetus, also vaginal or cervical cancer	20+ years later	34
Phenytoin	Cleft lip/palate, microcephaly, mental retardation	K	44
Valproate	Neural tube defects (e.g. spina bifida)	K	44
Carbamazepine	Retardation of fetal head growth	S	44
Cytotoxic drugs (especially folate antagonists)	Hydrocephalus, cleft palate, neural tube defects, etc.	K	55
Aminoglycosides	Deafness	–	50
Tetracycline	Staining of bones and teeth, thin tooth enamel, impaired bone growth	S	50
Ethanol	Fetal alcohol syndrome	K	48
Retinoids	Hydrocephalus etc.	K	56
Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors	Oligohydramnios, renal failure	K	22

[a]K, known teratogen (in experimental animals and/or humans); S, suspected teratogen (in experimental animals and/or humans).
Adapted from Juchau 1989 Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 29: 165.

It has been known that external agents can affect fetal development since the 1920s, when it was discovered that X irradiation during pregnancy causes fetal malformation. The importance of rubella infection was recognised two decades later, but it was not until 1960 that drugs were implicated as causative agents in teratogenesis: the shocking experience with **thalidomide** led to a widespread reappraisal of many other drugs in clinical use, and to the setting up of drug regulatory bodies in many countries. Most birth defects (about 70%) occur with no recognisable causative factor. Drug or chemical exposure during pregnancy is estimated to account for only approximately 1% of all fetal malformations. Fetal malformations are common, so the absolute numbers of children affected are substantial.

Mechanism of Teratogenesis

The timing of the teratogenic insult in relation to fetal development is

critical in determining the type and extent of damage. Mammalian fetal development passes through three phases (Table 57.3):

1 blastocyst formation

2 organogenesis

3 histogenesis and maturation of function.

Table 57.3 The nature of drug effects on fetal development

Stage	Gestation period in humans	Main cellular process(es)	Affected by
Blastocyst formation	0–16 days	Cell division	Cytotoxic drugs, ?alcohol
Organogenesis	17–60 days approximately	Division Migration Differentiation Death	Teratogens Teratogens Teratogens Teratogens
Histogenesis and functional maturation	60 days to term	As above	Miscellaneous drugs (e.g. alcohol, nicotine, antithyroid drugs, steroids)

Cell division is the main process occurring during blastocyst formation. During this phase, drugs can kill the embryo by inhibiting cell division, but provided the embryo survives, its subsequent development does not generally seem to be compromised. Ethanol is an exception, affecting development at this very early stage (Ch. 48).

Drugs can cause gross malformations if administered during organogenesis (days 17–60 in humans). The structural organisation of the embryo occurs in a well-defined sequence: eye and brain, skeleton and limbs, heart and major vessels, palate, genitourinary system. The type of malformation produced thus depends on the time of exposure to the teratogen.

The cellular mechanisms by which teratogenic substances produce their effects are not at all well understood. There is a considerable overlap between mutagenicity and teratogenicity. In one large survey,

among 78 compounds, 34 were both teratogenic and mutagenic, 19 were negative in both tests and 25 (among them thalidomide) were positive in one but not the other. Damage to DNA is important but, as with carcinogenesis, is not the only factor. The control of morphogenesis is poorly understood; vitamin A derivatives (retinoids) are involved and are potent teratogens (see below). Known teratogens also include several drugs (e.g. **methotrexate** and **phenytoin**) that do not react directly with DNA but which inhibit its synthesis by their effects on folate metabolism (see Ch. 25). Administration of **folate** during pregnancy reduces the frequency of both spontaneous and drug-induced malformations, especially neural tube defects.

The fetus depends on an adequate supply of nutrients during the final stage of histogenesis and functional maturation, and development is regulated by a variety of hormones. Gross structural malformations do not arise from exposure to mutagens at this stage, but drugs that interfere with the supply of nutrients or with the hormonal milieu may have deleterious effects on growth and development. Exposure of a female fetus to androgens at this stage can cause masculinisation. **Stilbestrol** was commonly given to pregnant women with a history of recurrent miscarriage during the 1950s (for unsound reasons) and causes dysplasia of the vagina of the infant and an increased incidence of carcinoma of the vagina in the teens and twenties. Angiotensin II plays an important part in the later stages of fetal development and in renal function in the fetus, and ACE inhibitors and angiotensin receptor antagonists ('sartans') cause oligohydramnios and renal failure if administered during later stages of pregnancy and fetal malformations if given earlier.

Testing for Teratogenicity

The thalidomide disaster dramatically brought home the need for routine teratogenicity studies on new therapeutic drugs. Assessment of teratogenicity in humans is a particularly difficult problem for various reasons. One is that the 'spontaneous' malformation rate is high (3–10% depending on the definition of a significant malformation) and highly variable between different regions, age groups and social classes. Large-scale studies are required, which take many years and much money to perform, and they usually give suggestive, rather than conclusive, results.

▼ Studies using embryonic stem cells in assessing developmental toxicity are showing some promise (see Bremer & Hartung, 2004, for a review from a regulatory perspective). In vitro methods, based on the culture of cells, organs or whole embryos, have, however, not so far been developed to a level where they satisfactorily predict teratogenesis in vivo, and most regulatory authorities require teratogenicity testing in a rodent plus in one non-rodent species (e.g. rabbit). The visceral yolk sac and development of the chorioallantoic placenta of the rabbit resemble those of humans more so than do those of rodents, in some respects (Foote & Carney, 2000). Pregnant females are dosed at various levels during the critical period of organogenesis, and the fetuses are examined for structural abnormalities. However, poor cross-species correlation means that tests of this kind are not reliably predictive in humans, and it is usually recommended that new drugs are not used in pregnancy unless it is essential.

Some Definite and Probable Human Teratogens

Although many drugs have been found to be teratogenic in varying degrees in experimental animals, relatively few are known to be teratogenic in humans (see Table 57.2). Some of the more important are

discussed below.

Thalidomide

Thalidomide is virtually unique in producing, at therapeutic dosage, virtually 100% malformed infants when taken in the first 3–6 weeks of gestation. It was introduced in 1957 as a hypnotic and sedative with the special feature that it was much less hazardous in overdosage than barbiturates, and it was even recommended specifically for use in pregnancy (with the advertising slogan ‘the safe hypnotic’). It had been subjected to toxicity testing only in mice, which are resistant to thalidomide teratogenicity (probably because mouse embryonic cells have higher glutathione levels than humans; Knobloch et al., 2008). Thalidomide was marketed energetically and successfully, and the first suspicion of its teratogenicity arose early in 1961 with reports of a sudden increase in the incidence of phocomelia. This abnormality (‘seal limbs’) consists of an absence of development of the long bones of the arms and legs, and had hitherto been virtually unknown. At this time, approximately 1 000 000 tablets were being sold daily in West Germany. Reports of phocomelia came simultaneously from Hamburg and Sydney, and the connection with thalidomide was made.[6] The drug was withdrawn late in 1961, by which time an estimated 10 000 malformed babies had been born (Fig. 57.3 illustrates the use of data linkage in detecting delayed ADRs). Despite intensive study, its mechanism remains poorly understood, although epidemiological investigation showed very clearly the correlation between the time of exposure and the type of malfunction produced (Table 57.4).

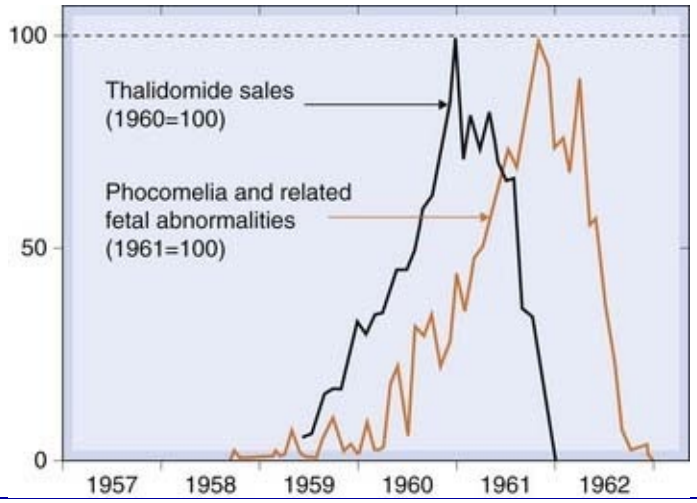


Fig. 57.3 Incidence of major fetal abnormalities in Western Europe following the introduction and withdrawal of thalidomide linked to sales data for thalidomide.

Table 57.4 Thalidomide teratogenesis

Day of gestation	Type of deformity
21–22	Malformation of ears Cranial nerve defects
24–27	Phocomelia of arms
28–29	Phocomelia of arms and legs
30–36	Malformation of hands Anorectal stenosis

Cytotoxic drugs

[6]A severe peripheral neuropathy, leading to irreversible paralysis and sensory loss, was reported within a year of the drug's introduction and subsequently confirmed in many reports. The drug company responsible was less than punctilious in acting on these reports (see Sjöström & Nilsson, 1972), which were soon eclipsed by the discovery of teratogenic effects, but the neurotoxic effect was severe enough in its own right to have necessitated withdrawal of the drug from general use. Today, use

of thalidomide has had a resurgence related to several highly specialised applications. It is prescribed by specialists (in dermatology, oncology and in HIV infection, among others) under tightly controlled and restricted conditions.

Many alkylating agents (e.g. **chlorambucil** and **cyclophosphamide**) and antimetabolites (e.g. **azathioprine** and **mercaptopurine**) cause malformations when used in early pregnancy but more often lead to abortion (see Ch. 55). Folate antagonists (e.g. **methotrexate**) produce a much higher incidence of major malformations, evident in both live-born and stillborn fetuses.

Retinoids

Etretinate, a retinoid (i.e. vitamin A derivative) with marked effects on epidermal differentiation, is a known teratogen and causes a high proportion of serious abnormalities (notably skeletal deformities) in exposed fetuses. Dermatologists use retinoids to treat skin diseases including several, such as acne and psoriasis, that are common in young women. Etretinate accumulates in subcutaneous fat and is eliminated extremely slowly, detectable amounts persisting for many months after chronic dosing is discontinued. Because of this, women should avoid pregnancy for at least 2 years after treatment. **Acitretin** is an active metabolite of etretinate. It is equally teratogenic, but tissue accumulation is less pronounced and elimination may be more rapid.

Heavy metals

Lead, *cadmium* and *mercury* all cause fetal malformation in humans. The main evidence comes from Minamata disease, named after the locality in Japan where an epidemic occurred when the local population ate fish contaminated with methylmercury that had been used as an agricultural fungicide. This impaired brain development in exposed fetuses, resulting

in cerebral palsy and mental retardation, often with microcephaly. Mercury, like other heavy metals, inactivates many enzymes by forming covalent bonds with sulfhydryl and other groups, and this is believed to be responsible for these developmental abnormalities.

Antiepileptic drugs

Congenital malformations are increased two-to three-fold in babies of epileptic mothers. Interestingly, all existing antiepileptic drugs have been implicated, including **phenytoin** (particularly cleft lip/palate), **valproate** (neural tube defects) and **carbamazepine** (spina bifida and hypospadias, a malformation of the male urethra), as well as newer agents including **lamotrigine** (Ch. 44).

Warfarin

Administration of **warfarin** (Ch. 24) in the first trimester is associated with nasal hypoplasia and various central nervous system abnormalities, affecting roughly 25% of exposed babies. In the last trimester, it must not be used because of the risk of intracranial haemorrhage in the baby during delivery.

Assessment of Genotoxic Potential

Registration of pharmaceuticals requires a comprehensive assessment of their genotoxic potential. Because no single test is adequate, the usual approach recommended by the International Conference on Harmonisation (ESRA Rapporteur 1997 4: 5–7) is to carry out a battery of in vitro and in vivo tests for genotoxicity. The following battery is often used:

- a test for gene mutation in bacteria
- an in vitro test with cytogenetic evaluation of chromosomal damage

• an in vivo test for chromosomal damage using rodent haemopoietic cells

• reproductive toxicity testing

• carcinogenicity testing.

Teratogenesis and drug-induced fetal damage

• Teratogenesis means production of gross structural malformations of the fetus (e.g. the absence of limbs after thalidomide). Less comprehensive damage can be produced by several drugs (see Table 57.2). Less than 1% of congenital fetal defects are attributed to drugs given to the mother.

• Gross malformations are produced only if teratogens act during organogenesis. This occurs during the first 3 months of pregnancy but after blastocyst formation. Drug-induced fetal damage is rare during blastocyst formation (exception: fetal alcohol syndrome) and after the first 3 months (exception: angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors and sartans).

• The mechanisms of action of teratogens are not clearly understood, although DNA damage is a factor.

• New drugs are usually tested in pregnant females of at least one rodent and one non-rodent (e.g. rabbit) species.

Allergic Reactions to Drugs

Allergic reactions of various kinds are a common form of adverse response to drugs. Most drugs, being low-molecular-weight substances, are not immunogenic in themselves. A drug or its metabolites can, however, act as a *hapten* by interacting with protein to form a stable conjugate that is immunogenic (Ch. 6). The immunological basis of some allergic drug reactions has been well worked out, but often it is inferred

from the clinical characteristics of the reaction, and direct evidence of an immunological mechanism is lacking. Suggestive features are as follow:

• The time course differs from the main action of the drug; it is either delayed in onset or occurs only with repeated exposure to the drug.

• Allergy may result from doses that are too small to elicit pharmacodynamic effects.

• The reaction conforms to one of the clinical syndromes associated with allergy—types I, II, III and IV of the Gell and Coombs classification (see below and Ch. 6)—and is unrelated to the main action of the drug.

The overall incidence of allergic drug reactions is variously reported as being between 2% and 25%. Most are minor skin eruptions. Serious reactions (e.g. anaphylaxis, haemolysis and bone marrow depression) are rare. Penicillins, which are the commonest cause of drug-induced anaphylaxis, produce this response in an estimated 1 in 50 000 patients exposed. Rashes can be severe, and fatalities occur with Stevens–Johnson syndrome (provoked, for example, by sulfonamides) and toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN, which can be caused by **allopurinol**). The association between **cabamazepine**-induced TEN and the gene for a particular HLA allele *HLAB*1502* in people of Asian ancestry is mentioned in Chapter 11. Susceptibility to severe rashes in response to **abacavir** is closely linked to the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) variant *HLAB*5701* and this forms the basis of a clinically useful genomic test (Ch. 11).

Immunological Mechanisms

The formation of an immunogenic conjugate between a small molecule and an endogenous protein requires covalent bonding. In most cases, reactive metabolites, rather than the drug itself, are responsible. Such

reactive metabolites can be produced during drug oxidation or by photoactivation in the skin. They may also be produced by the action of toxic oxygen metabolites generated by activated leukocytes. Rarely (e.g. in drug-induced lupus erythematosus), the reactive moiety interacts to form an immunogen with nuclear components (DNA, histone) rather than proteins (see below). Conjugation with a macromolecule is usually essential, although penicillin is an exception because it can form sufficiently large polymers in solution to elicit an anaphylactic reaction in a sensitised individual even without conjugation to protein, although penicillin–protein conjugates can also act as the immunogen.

Clinical Types of Allergic Response to Drugs

In the Gell and Coombs classification of hypersensitivity reactions (Ch. 6), types I, II and III are antibody-mediated reactions and type IV is cell mediated. Unwanted reactions to drugs involve both antibody-and cell-mediated reactions. The more important clinical manifestations of hypersensitivity include anaphylactic shock, haematological reactions, allergic liver damage and other hypersensitivity reactions.

Anaphylactic Shock

Anaphylactic shock—see also Chapter 27—is a type I hypersensitivity response. It is a sudden and life-threatening reaction that results from the release of histamine, leukotrienes and other mediators. The main features include urticarial rash, swelling of soft tissues, bronchoconstriction and hypotension.

Penicillins account for about 75% of anaphylactic deaths, reflecting the frequency with which they are used in clinical practice. Other drugs that can cause anaphylaxis include various enzymes, for example **asparaginase** (Ch. 55); therapeutic monoclonal antibodies (Ch. 59), hormones, for example **corticotropin** (adrenocorticotrophic hormone;

Ch. 32); **heparin** (Ch. 24); dextrans; radiological contrast agents; vaccines; and other serological products. Anaphylaxis with local anaesthetics (Ch. 42), the antiseptic chlorhexidine and with many other drugs (sometimes as a consequence of contaminants such as latex used to seal reusable vials or of excipients and colouring agents rather than the drug itself) can occur. Treatment of anaphylaxis is given in Chapter 27.

It is sometimes feasible to carry out a skin test for the presence of anaphylactic hypersensitivity, which involves injecting a minute dose intradermally. A patient who reports that she or he is allergic to a drug such as penicillin may actually be allergic to fungal contaminants in early preparations rather than to penicillin itself. The use of penicilloylpolylysine as a skin test reagent for penicillin allergy is an improvement over the use of penicillin itself, because it bypasses the need for conjugation of the test substance, thereby reducing the likelihood of a false negative. Other specialised tests are available to detect the presence of specific immunoglobulin E in the plasma, or to measure histamine release from the patient's basophils, but these are not used routinely.

Other drug-induced type I hypersensitivity reactions include bronchospasm (Ch. 27) and urticaria.

Haematological Reactions

Drug-induced haematological reactions can be produced by type II, III or IV hypersensitivity. Type II reactions can affect any or all of the formed elements of the blood, which may be destroyed by effects either on the circulating blood cells themselves or on their progenitors in the bone marrow. They involve antibody binding to a drug–macromolecule complex on the cell surface membrane. The antigen–antibody reaction activates complement, leading to lysis, or provokes attack by killer

lymphocytes or phagocytic leukocytes (Ch. 6). *Haemolytic anaemia* has been most commonly reported with sulfonamides and related drugs (Ch. 50) and with an antihypertensive drug, **methyldopa** (Ch. 14), which is still widely used to treat hypertension during pregnancy. With methyldopa, significant haemolysis occurs in less than 1% of patients, but the appearance of antibodies directed against the surface of red cells is detectable in 15% by the Coombs test. The antibodies are directed against Rh antigens, but it is not known how methyldopa produces this effect.

Drug-induced *agranulocytosis* (complete absence of circulating neutrophils) is usually delayed 2–12 weeks after beginning drug treatment but may then be sudden in onset. It often presents with mouth ulcers, a severe sore throat or other infection. Serum from the patient lyses leukocytes from other individuals, and circulating antileukocyte antibodies can usually be detected immunologically. Drugs associated with agranulocytosis include NSAIDs, especially **phenylbutazone** (Ch. 26), **carbimazole** (Ch. 33) and **clozapine** (Ch. 45) (increased genetic susceptibility associated with *HLA-DQB1*0201* is mentioned in Ch. 11) and **sulfonamides** and related drugs (e.g. *thiazides* and *sulfonylureas*). Agranulocytosis is rare but life-threatening. Recovery when the offending drug is stopped is often slow or absent. Antibody-mediated leukocyte destruction must be distinguished from the direct effect of cytotoxic drugs (see Ch. 55), which cause granulocytopenia that is rapid in onset, predictably related to dose and reversible.

Thrombocytopenia (reduction in platelet numbers) can be caused by type II reactions to **quinine** (Ch. 53), **heparin** (Ch. 24) and thiazide diuretics (Ch. 28).

Some drugs (notably **chloramphenicol**) can suppress all three haemopoietic cell lineages, giving rise to *aplastic anaemia* (anaemia with

associated agranulocytosis and thrombocytopenia).

The distinction between type III and type IV hypersensitivity reactions in the causation of haematological reactions is not clear-cut, and either or both mechanisms can be involved.

Allergic Liver Damage

Most drug-induced liver damage results from the direct toxic effects of drugs or their metabolites, as described above. However, hypersensitivity reactions are sometimes involved, a particular example being **halothane**-induced hepatic necrosis (see Ch. 40). *Trifluoracetylchloride*, a reactive metabolite of halothane, couples to a macromolecule to form an immunogen. Most patients with halothane-induced liver damage have antibodies that react with halothane–carrier conjugates. Halothane–protein antigens can be expressed on the surface of hepatocytes. Destruction of the cells occurs by type II hypersensitivity reactions involving killer T cells, and type III reactions can also contribute.

Other Hypersensitivity Reactions

The clinical manifestations of type IV hypersensitivity reactions are diverse, ranging from minor skin rashes to generalised autoimmune disease. Fever may accompany these reactions. Rashes can be antibody mediated but are usually cell mediated. They range from mild eruptions to fatal exfoliation. Stevens–Johnson syndrome is a very severe generalised rash that extends into the alimentary tract and carries an appreciable mortality. In some cases, the lesions are photosensitive, probably because ultraviolet light converts the drug to reactive products.

▼ Some drugs (notably **hydralazine** and **procainamide**) can produce an autoimmune syndrome resembling systemic lupus erythematosus.

This is a multisystem disorder in which there is immunological damage to many organs and tissues (including joints, skin, lung, central nervous system and kidney) caused particularly, but not exclusively, by type III hypersensitivity reactions. The prodigious array of antibodies directed against 'self' components has been termed an 'autoimmune thunderstorm'. The antibodies react with determinants shared by many molecules, for example the phosphodiester backbone of DNA, RNA and phospholipids. In drug-induced systemic lupus erythematosus, the immunogen may result from the reactive drug moiety interacting with nuclear material, and joint and pulmonary damage is common. The condition usually resolves when treatment with the offending drug is stopped.

Allergic reactions to drugs

• Drugs or their reactive metabolites can bind covalently to proteins to form immunogens. Penicillin (which can also form immunogenic polymers) is an important example.

• Drug-induced allergic (hypersensitivity) reactions may be antibody mediated (types I, II, III) or cell mediated (type IV). Important clinical manifestations include the following:

– anaphylactic shock (type I): many drugs can cause this, and most deaths are caused by **penicillin**

– haematological reactions (type II, III or IV): including haemolytic anaemia (e.g. **methyldopa**), agranulocytosis (e.g. **carbimazole**), thrombocytopenia (e.g. **quinine**) and aplastic anaemia (e.g. **chloramphenicol**)

– hepatitis (types II, III): for example, **halothane**, **phenytoin**

– rashes (type I, IV): are usually mild but can be life-threatening (e.g. Stevens–Johnson syndrome)

– drug-induced systemic lupus erythematosus (mainly type II): antibodies to nuclear material are formed (e.g. **hydralazine**).

References and Further Reading

Adverse drug reactions

ronson J.K., Ferner R.E. Joining the DoTS: a new approach to classifying adverse drug reactions. *Br. Med. J.*. 2003;327:1222-1225. (*Description of ADRs in terms of dose, time course and susceptibility*)

irmohamed M., James S., Meakin S., *et al.* Adverse drug reactions as cause of admission to hospital: prospective analysis of 18 820 patients. *Br. Med. J.*. 2004;329:15-19. (*There were 1225 admissions related to an adverse drug reaction. The median bed stay was 8 days, accounting for 4% of the hospital bed capacity. The projected annual cost is £466 million. Most reactions were avoidable. Drugs most commonly implicated were aspirin and other NSAIDs, diuretics, warfarin; the most common reaction was gastrointestinal bleeding*)

awlins M.D., Thomson J.W. Mechanisms of adverse drug reactions. In: Davies D.M., editor. *Textbook of adverse drug reactions*. third ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 1985:12-38. (*Type A/type B classification*)

Drug toxicity: general and mechanistic aspects

hogal N., Grindon C., Combes R., Balls M. Toxicity testing: creating a revolution based on new technologies. *Trends Biotechnol.*. 2005;23:299-307. (*Reviews current and likely future value of new technologies in relation to toxicological evaluation*)

remer S., Hartung T. The use of embryonic stem cells for regulatory developmental toxicity testing in vitro—the current status of test development. *Curr. Pharm. Des.*. 2004;10:2733-2747. (*Summarises requirements for an in vitro embryotoxicity test needed for regulatory toxicity testing*)

arng C. In vivo zebrafish assays for toxicity testing. *Curr. Opin. Drug Discov. Devel.*. 2005;8:100-106. (*Effective in vivo toxicity screening early in development can reduce the number of compounds that progress to laborious and costly late-stage animal testing. The transparent zebra fish provides accessibility to internal organs, tissues and even cells, and has emerged as a model organism for toxicity testing. Straightforward in vivo zebra fish assays can serve as an intermediate step between*

cell-based and mammalian testing, thus streamlining the drug development timeline)

irmohamed M. Drug-induced apoptosis: clinical significance. *Drug Metab. Rev.*. 35, 2003. 24-24. 48 (Suppl. 1)

irmohamed M. Role of the immune system in idiosyncratic drug reactions. *Drug Metab. Rev.*. 36, 2004. 29-29. 58 (Suppl. 1)

imbrell J.A. *Principles of biochemical toxicity*. New York: Informa Healthcare; 2009.

etrecht J. Screening for the potential of a drug candidate to cause idiosyncratic drug reactions. *Drug Discov. Today*. 2003;8:832-837. (*Highlights current mechanistic hypotheses of idiosyncratic drug reactions and discusses future directions in the development of better predictive tests*)

/alker D.K. The use of pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic data in the assessment of drug safety in early drug development. *Br. J. Clin. Pharm.*. 2004;58:601-608. (*Pharmacokinetic profile is a factor in assessing safety during early drug development, especially in relation to safety parameters such as QT interval prolongation, where free plasma concentrations are predictive; procedures are available that allow this on the microdose scale—potential limitations are discussed*)

Drug toxicity: carcinogenesis, teratogenesis

riggs G.G., Freeman R.K., Yaffe S.J. *Drugs in pregnancy and lactation*, eighth ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins; 2008. (*Invaluable reference guide to fetal and neonatal risk for clinicians caring for pregnant women*)

ollins M.D., Mayo G.E. Teratology of retinoids. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 1999;39:399-430. (*Overviews principles of teratology as they apply to the retinoids, describes signal transduction of retinoids and toxikinetics*)

oote R.H., Carney E.W. The rabbit as a model for reproductive and developmental toxicity studies. *Reprod. Toxicol.*. 2000;14:477-493. (*Discusses the use of the rabbit in developmental toxicity and teratology studies*)

nobloch J., Reimann K., Klotz L.-O., Rüther U. Thalidomide resistance is based on the capacity of the glutathione-dependent antioxidant defense. *Mol. Pharm.*. 2008;5:1138-1144.

jöström H., Nilsson R. *Thalidomide and the power of the drug companies*. London: Penguin Books;

1972.

Drug toxicity: organ involvement

Murray M.C., Brater D.C. Renal toxicity of the nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 1993;33:435-465.

Park B.K., Kitteringham N.R., Maggs J.L., *et al.* The role of metabolic activation in drug-induced hepatotoxicity. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.*. 2005;45:177-202. (*Reviews evidence for reactive metabolite formation from hepatotoxic drugs such as paracetamol, tamoxifen, diclofenac and troglitazone, and the current hypotheses of how this leads to liver injury*)

Ritter J.M., Harding I., Warren J.B. Precaution, cyclooxygenase inhibition, and cardiovascular risk. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2009;30:503-514.

Svensson C.K., Cowen E.W., Gaspari A.A. Cutaneous drug reactions. *Pharmacol. Rev.*. 2001;53:357-380. (*Covers epidemiology, clinical morphology and mechanisms. Assesses current knowledge of four types of cutaneous drug reaction: immediate-type immune mediated, delayed-type immune mediated, photosensitivity and autoimmune. Also reviews the role of viral infection as predisposing factor*)

Valentin J.-P. Reducing QT liability and proarrhythmic risk in drug discovery and development. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2010;159:5-11. (*See also accompanying articles in this themed section on QT safety*)

58

Lifestyle drugs and drugs in sport

Overview

The term *lifestyle drugs* refers to an eclectic group of drugs that are used for non-medical purposes. It includes drugs of abuse, drugs used to enhance athletic or other performance, as well as those taken for cosmetic purposes or for purely social reasons. Alcohol, nicotine and various abused drugs are covered in Chapter 48. Many lifestyle drugs are also used as conventional therapeutics and the pharmacology is dealt with elsewhere in this book. In this chapter, we present an overall summary of the classes of drugs that are used for non-medical purposes, and discuss some of the social and medicolegal problems associated with their growing use. Drugs, officially prohibited, that are used to enhance sporting performance represent a special category of lifestyle drugs. Once again, a wide range of agents are used for this purpose, and their pharmacological properties are described in other chapters. Here we discuss specific issues relating to their use in competitive sports.

What Is A Lifestyle Drug?

Lifestyle drugs is a term of fairly recent origin and not precisely defined. The most commonly accepted definition refers to a drug or medicine[1] that is used to satisfy an aspiration or a non-health-related goal. Examples include the use of the antihypertensive **minoxidil** for treating baldness or **sildenafil** for erectile difficulties in the absence of

underlying disease. Oral contraceptives, which clearly lie in the domain of mainstream medicine, should also be considered lifestyle drugs. The term is sometimes also used to describe medicines that are used to treat 'lifestyle illnesses', that is to say diseases that arise through 'lifestyle choices' such as smoking, alcoholism or overeating, and there are many other shades of meaning as well. Also included in the lifestyle category are food supplements and other related preparations that are taken by the general public from choice because of some claimed benefit, even when there is no good evidence that they are effective.

Classification of Lifestyle Drugs

[1]We use the terms 'drug' and 'medicine' interchangeably in this chapter for discussion and classification purposes.

To classify all the different drugs or medicines that might fall into the lifestyle category, and provide a standard universally acceptable definition, is therefore difficult, and cuts across the pharmacological classification used throughout this book. The classification scheme summarised in Table 58.1 is based largely on the work of Gilbert *et al.* (2000) and Young (2003). This scheme embraces drugs that have been used for lifestyle choices based on historical precedent, such as oral contraceptives, as well as agents used to manage potentially debilitating lifestyle illnesses such as addiction to smoking (e.g. **bupropion**). It also includes drugs such as **caffeine** and **alcohol** that are consumed on a mass scale around the world, and drugs of abuse such as **cocaine** as well as nutritional supplements. Particularly controversial are drugs aimed at improving intellectual performance, such as **modafinil** and **methylphenidate** (Ch. 47), that are gaining favour as a route to academic success.[2]

Table 58.1 Lifestyle drugs and medicines, excluding drugs in sport

Category	Example(s)	Primary clinical use	'Lifestyle' use	See Chapter
Medicines approved for specific indications but that can also be used for other 'lifestyle' purposes	Sildenafil	Erectile dysfunction	Erectile enhancement	34
	Oral contraceptives	Preventing conception	Preventing conception	34
	Orlistat	Obesity	Weight loss	31
	Sibutramine	Anorectic agent	Weight loss	31
	Bupropion	Managing nicotine addiction	Managing nicotine addiction	43
	Methadone	Managing opiate addiction	Managing opiate addiction	41
Medicines approved for specific indications that can also be used to satisfy 'lifestyle choices' or to treat 'lifestyle diseases'	Minoxidil	Hypertension	Regrowth of hair	22
	Methylphenidate	Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)	Improving academic performance	47
	Modafinil	Treatment of ADHD	Cognitive enhancement	47
	Opiates	Analgesia	'Recreational' usage	41
Drugs that have slight or no current clinical use but which fall into the lifestyle category	Alcohol	None as such	Widespread component of drinks	48
	Botulinum toxin	Relief of muscle spasm	Cosmetic alteration	13
	Caffeine	Migraine treatment	Widespread component of drinks	47
	Cannabis	Managing chronic pain, nausea and possibly muscle spasm	'Recreational' usage	18, 48
Drugs (generally illegal) that have no clinical utility but which are used to satisfy lifestyle requirements	Methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA, 'ecstasy')	None as such	'Recreational' usage	47
	Tobacco (nicotine)	Patches for tobacco addiction	'Recreational' usage	48
	Cocaine (some formulations)	Local anaesthesia (largely obsolete)	'Recreational' usage	42
Natural products, largely unregulated with claimed (often anecdotal and unsubstantiated) effects but which cater to lifestyle needs or desires	Fish oils	Slight Nutritional supplement	Widespread, for many conditions	—
	Ascorbic acid	Slight Nutritional supplement	Widespread, for many conditions	—
	Melatonin	None	Widespread, for many conditions	—
	Numerous herbal preparations	None	Widespread, for many conditions	—

(After Gilbert et al., 2000 and Young, 2003).

[2]Drugs intended to give a competitive advantage in sport are, of course, considered unfair, banned and very actively policed. Will there come a time when taking drugs to improve examination performance will become illegal, with similar surveillance methods and sanctions? See Bostrom & Sandberg (2009) for a discussion of this ethical minefield.

Drugs can, over time, switch from 'lifestyle' to 'mainstream' use. For example, **atropine** (Ch.13) was first used as a beauty aid based on its

ability to dilate the pupil. Cocaine was first described as a lifestyle drug in use by the South American Indians. Early explorers commented that it 'satisfies the hungry, gives new strength to the weary and exhausted and makes the unhappy forget their sorrows'. Subsequently assimilated into European medicine as a local anaesthetic (Ch. 42), it is now largely returned to lifestyle drug status and, regrettably, is the basis of an illegal multimillion dollar international drugs industry. **Cannabis** is another good example of a drug that has been considered (in the West at least) as a purely recreational drug but which is now (as **tetrahydrocannabinol**) in trial for various clinical uses (see Chs 18 and 48).

Many widely used lifestyle 'drugs' or 'sports supplements' consist of natural products (e.g. ginkgo extracts, melatonin, St John's wort, cinchona extracts), whose manufacture and sale has not generally been controlled by regulatory bodies.[3] Their composition is therefore highly variable, and their efficacy and safety generally untested. Many contain active substances that, like synthetic drugs, can produce adverse as well as beneficial effects.

Lifestyle drugs

• Comprise a group of drugs and medicines taken mainly for non-medical reasons. Should more accurately be called 'lifestyle uses'.

• Include prescription drugs such as **sildenafil** and **methylphenidate**, substances such as **alcohol** and **caffeine**, drugs of abuse and various nutritional preparations.

• Are linked to the concepts of 'self-diagnosis' and 'non-disease'.

• Are a growing sector of the pharmaceutical market.

• Are often brought to the consumer's attention through the Internet or direct marketing of drugs.

[3]In truth, it would be more accurate to refer to *lifestyle uses* for drugs and medicines rather than categorise these agents separately. Things are changing. In the UK, the Medicines and Healthcare Products Regulatory Agency now has a Herbal Medicines Advisory Committee.

The use of drugs to enhance sporting performance[4] is evidently widespread although officially prohibited. The World AntiDoping Agency (http://www.wada-ama.org), which was established partly in response to some high-profile doping cases and drug-induced deaths among athletes, publishes an annually updated list of prohibited substances that may not be used by sportsmen or sportswomen either in or out of competition. Drug testing is based mainly on analysis of blood or urine samples according to strictly defined protocols. The chemical analyses, which rely mainly on gas chromatography/mass spectrometry or immunoassay techniques, must be carried out by approved laboratories.

[4]Some of these drugs are used 'legitimately' by the military to improve battlefield effectiveness.

Table 58.2 summarises the main classes of drugs that are prohibited for use in sports. Athletes are easily persuaded of the potential of a wide variety of drugs to increase their chances of winning, but it should be emphasised that in very few cases have controlled trials shown that the drugs actually improve sporting performance among trained athletes, and indeed many such trials have proved negative. However, marginal improvements in performance (often 1% or less), which are difficult to measure experimentally, may make the difference between winning and losing, and the competitive instincts of athletes and their trainers generally carry more weight than scientific evidence.

Table 58.2 Drugs used in sport

Drug class	Example(s)	Effects	Detection	Notes
Anabolic agents	Androgenic steroids (testosterone, nandrolone and many others; Ch. 34)	Increased muscle development Increased aggression and competitiveness Serious long-term side effects (see text)	Urine or blood samples	Many are endogenous hormones, so results significantly above normal range are required Human chorionic gonadotrophin is sometimes used to increase androgen secretion
	Clenbuterol (Ch. 14)	Combined anabolic and agonist action on β_2 adrenoceptors may increase muscle strength		
Hormones and related substances	Erythropoietin (Ch. 25)	Increased erythrocyte formation and hence increased oxygen transport Increased blood viscosity causes hypertension and risk of strokes and coronary attacks Used mainly for endurance sports[a]	Plasma half-life is short, so detection is difficult	Use of other plasma markers indicating erythropoietin administration may be possible
	Human growth hormone (Ch. 32)	Increased lean body mass and reduced fat May accelerate recovery from tissue injury Causes cardiac hypertrophy, acromegaly, liver damage and increased cancer risk	Blood testing	Distinguishing endogenous (highly variable) from exogenous human growth hormone is difficult
	Insulin (Ch. 30)	Sometimes used (with glucose so as to avoid hypoglycaemia) to promote glucose uptake and energy production in muscle Probably ineffective in improving performance	Plasma samples	—
β_2-Adrenoceptor agonists	Salbutamol and others (Ch. 14)	Used by runners, cyclists, swimmers, etc. to increase oxygen uptake (by bronchodilatation) and cardiac function Controlled studies show no improvement in performance	Urine samples	—
β-Adrenoceptor antagonists	Propranolol, etc. (Ch. 14)	Used to reduce tremor and anxiety in 'precision' sports (e.g. shooting, gymnastics, diving)	Urine samples	Not banned in most sports where they actually impair performance
'Stimulants'	Ephedrine and derivatives Amphetamines, cocaine caffeine (Ch. 47)	Many trials show slight increase in muscle strength and performance in non-endurance events (sprint, swimming, field events, etc.)	Urine samples	The most widely used group, along with anabolic steroids
Diuretics	Thiazides, furosemide (Ch. 28)	Used mainly to achieve rapid weight loss before weighing in Also to mask presence of other agents in urine by dilution	Urine samples	—
Narcotic analgesics	Codeine, morphine, etc. (Ch. 41)	Used to mask injury-associated pain	Urine samples	—

[a] 'Blood doping' (removal of 1–2 l of blood in advance, followed by retransfusion immediately before competition) has a similar effect and is even more difficult to detect.

A brief account of some of the more important drugs in common use

follows. For a broader and more complete coverage, see British Medical Association (2002) and Mottram (2005).

Anabolic Steroids

Anabolic steroids (Ch. 34) include a large group of compounds with testosterone-like effects, including about 50 named compounds on the prohibited list. New chemical derivatives ('designer steroids') such as **tetrahydrogestrinone** (THG) are regularly developed and offered illicitly to athletes, which represents a continuing problem to the authorities charged with detecting and identifying them. A further problem is that some of these drugs are endogenous compounds or their metabolites, making it difficult to prove that the substance had been administered illegally. Isotope ratio techniques, based on the fact that endogenous and exogenous steroids have slightly different ^{12}C:^{13}C ratios, may enable the two to be distinguished analytically.

Anabolic steroids produce long-term effects and are normally used throughout training, rather than during competition, so out-of-competition testing is necessary.

Although anabolic steroids, when given in combination with training and high protein intake, undoubtedly increase muscle mass and body weight, there is little evidence that they increase muscle strength over and above the effect of training, or that they improve sporting performance. On the other hand, they have serious long-term effects, including male infertility, female masculinisation, liver and kidney tumours, hypertension and increased cardiovascular risk, and in adolescents premature skeletal maturation causing irreversible cessation of growth. Anabolic steroids produce a feeling of physical well-being, increased competitiveness and aggressiveness, sometimes progressing to actual psychosis. Depression is common when the drugs are stopped,

sometimes leading to long-term psychiatric problems.

Clenbuterol, a β-adrenoceptor antagonist (see Ch. 14), has recently come into use by athletes. Through an unknown mechanism of action, it produces anabolic effects similar to those of androgenic steroids, with apparently fewer adverse effects. It can be detected in urine and is banned for use in sport.

Human Growth Hormone

The use of **human growth hormone** (hGH; see Ch. 32) by athletes followed the availability of the recombinant form of hGH, used to treat endocrine disorders. It is given by injection and its effects appear to be similar to those of anabolic steroids. hGH is also reported to produce a similar feeling of well-being, although without the accompanying aggression and changes in sexual development and behaviour. It increases lean body mass and reduces body fat, but its effects on muscle strength and athletic performance are unclear. It is claimed to increase the rate of recovery from tissue injury, allowing more intensive training routines to be followed.

The main adverse effect of hGH is the development of acromegaly, causing overgrowth of the jaw and thickening of the fingers (Ch. 32), but it may also lead to cardiac hypertrophy and cardiomyopathy, and possibly also an increased cancer risk.

Detection of hGH administration is difficult because physiological secretion is pulsatile, so normal plasma concentrations vary widely. The plasma half-life is short (20–30 min), and only trace amounts are excreted in urine. However, secreted hGH consists of three isoforms varying in molecular weight, whereas recombinant hGH contains only one, so measuring the relative amounts of the isoforms can be used to detect the exogenous material.

Growth hormone acts partly by releasing insulin-like growth factor from the liver, and this hormone itself is coming into use by athletes.

Another hormone, erythropoietin, which increases erythrocyte production (see Ch. 25) is given by injection for days or weeks to increase the erythrocyte count and hence the O_2-carrying capacity of blood. The development of recombinant erythropoietin has made it widely available, and detection of its use is difficult. It carries a risk of hypertension, neurologic disease and thrombosis.

Stimulant Drugs

The main drugs of this type used by athletes and officially prohibited are **ephedrine** and **methylephedrine**; various amphetamines and similar drugs, such as **fenfluramine** and **methylphenidate**;[5] cocaine; and a variety of other CNS stimulants such as **nikethamide**, **amiphenazole** (no longer used clinically) and **strychnine** (see Ch. 47). Caffeine is also used: some commercially available 'energy drinks' contain taurine as well as caffeine. However, taurine is an agonist at glycine and extrasynaptic $GABA_A$ receptors (see Ch. 38). Its effects on the brain are therefore likely to be inhibitory rather than stimulatory. In this regard, taurine may be responsible for the post-energy-drink low that is experienced once the stimulatory effect of caffeine has worn off.

[5]Also used to improve academic performance!

In contrast to steroids, some trials have shown these drugs to improve performance in events such as sprinting and weightlifting, and under experimental conditions they increase muscle strength and reduce muscle fatigue significantly. The psychological effect of stimulants is probably more relevant than their physiological effects. Surprisingly, caffeine appears to be more consistently effective in improving muscle performance than other more powerful stimulants.

Several deaths have occurred among athletes taking amphetamines and ephedrine-like drugs in endurance events. The main causes are coronary insufficiency, associated with hypertension; hyperthermia, associated with cutaneous vasoconstriction; and dehydration.

Drugs in sport

• Many drugs of different types are commonly used by sportsmen and sportswomen with the aim of improving performance in competition.

• The main types used are:

– *anabolic agents*, mainly androgenic steroids and **clenbuterol**

– *hormones*, particularly erythropoietin and human growth hormone

– *stimulants*, mainly **amphetamine** and **ephedrine** derivatives and **caffeine**

– *β-adrenoceptor antagonists*, to reduce anxiety and tremor in 'accuracy' sports.

• The use of drugs in sport is officially prohibited—in most cases, in or out of competition.

• Detection depends mainly on analysis of the drug or its metabolites in urine or blood samples. Detection of abuse is difficult in the case of endogenous hormones such as erythropoietin, growth hormone and testosterone.

• Controlled trials have mostly shown that drugs produce little improvement in sporting performance. Anabolic agents increase body weight and muscle volume without clearly increasing strength. The effect of stimulants is often psychological rather than physiological.

Conclusion

The recent lifestyle drugs debate is one aspect of the broader long-standing question of what actually constitutes 'disease' and how far medical science should go in attempting to alleviate human distress and dysfunction in the absence of pathology, or to satisfy the needs and aspirations of otherwise healthy individuals. Discussion of these issues is

beyond the scope of this book but can be found in articles cited at the end of this chapter (see Smith, 2002).

There are several reasons why the lifestyle drug phenomenon—no matter how we choose to define it—is of increasing concern. The increasing availability drugs from Internet 'e-pharmacies', coupled with direct advertising by the pharmaceutical industry to the public that occurs in some countries, will ensure that demand is kept buoyant, and the pharmaceutical sector will undoubtedly develop more lifestyle agents. The lobbying power of patients advocating particular drugs, regardless of the potential costs or proven utility, is causing major problems for drug regulators and those who set healthcare priorities for state-funded systems of social medicine. The use of drugs that improve short-term memory to treat patients with dementia (Ch. 39) is generally seen as desirable (even though current drugs are only marginally effective). Extending the use of existing and future drugs to give healthy children and students a competitive advantage in tests is much more controversial. Further off is the prospect of drugs that retard senescence and prolong life—another social and ethical minefield in an overpopulated world.

From a pharmacological perspective, it is fair to say that the use of drugs to enhance sporting performance carries many risks and is of very doubtful efficacy. Its growing prevalence reflects many of the same pressures as those driving the introduction of lifestyle drugs, namely the desire to improve on human attributes that are not impaired by disease, coupled with disregard for scientific evidence relating to efficacy and risk.

References and Further Reading

Lifestyle drugs and medicines, and general reading

tkinson T. Lifestyle drug market booming. *Nat. Med.*. 2002;8:909. (*Interesting comments on the financial value of this sector*)

ostrom N., Sandberg A. Cognitive enhancement: methods, ethics, regulatory challenges. *Sci. Eng. Ethics*. 2009;15:343-349. (*Interesting discussion of a complex problem which will soon have to be faced*)

lower R.J. Lifestyle drugs: pharmacology and the social agenda. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.*. 2004;25:182-185. (*Accessible review that enlarges on some of the issues raised in this chapter*)

ilbert D., Walley T., New B. Lifestyle medicines. *BMJ*. 2000;321:1341-1344. (*Short but focused review dealing mainly with the clinical implications of the 'lifestyle medicine' phenomenon*)

exchin J. Lifestyle drugs: issues for debate. *CMAJ*. 2001;164:1449-1451. (*Excellent review highlighting many important issues*)

mith R. In search of 'non-disease'. *BMJ*. 2002;324:883-885. (*A fascinating and amusing piece that seeks to define 'health' and 'disease'. It's more tricky than you think! Forms a fascinating background to the lifestyle drugs debate*)

/alley T. Lifestyle medicines and the elderly. *Drugs Aging*. 2002;19:163-168. (*Excellent review of the whole area and its relevance to the treatment of the elderly*)

oung S.N. Lifestyle drugs, mood, behaviour and cognition. *J. Psychiatry Neurosci*. 2003;28:87-89.

Drugs in sport

vois L., Robinson N., Saudan C., *et al.* Central nervous system stimulants and sport practice. *Br. J. Sports Med.*. 2006;40(Suppl. 1):16-20. (*Deals mainly with the illegal use of stimulants such as ephedrine, amfetamine and cocaine in sport. Particularly highlights the dangers of misuse*)

ritish Medical Association. *Drugs in sport: the pressure to perform*. London: BMJ Publications; 2002. (*Useful coverage of the whole topic*)

atlin D.H., Fitch K.D., Ljungqvist A. Medicine and science in the fight against doping in sport. *J. Intern. Med.*. 2008;264:99-114. (*Very interesting review of the whole area and the establishment of antidoping agencies*)

lottram D.R., editor. Drugs in sport, fourth ed, London: Routledge, 2005. (*Comprehensive description of pharmacological and regulatory aspects of drugs in sport, with balanced discussion of evidence relating to efficacy and risk*)

pedding M., Spedding C. Drugs in sport: a scientist–athlete's perspective: from ambition to neurochemistry. *Br. J. Pharmacol.*. 2008;154:496-501. (*Very accessible review written by two brothers, one of whom is an Olympic athlete and the other a pharmacologist. Unique insights. Highly*

recommended)

59

Biopharmaceuticals and gene therapy

Overview

In this chapter, we review the impact of two therapeutic concepts based on our growing understanding and skill in manipulating genes. *Biopharmaceuticals* is an umbrella term applied to the use of nucleic acids or 'engineered' proteins and antibodies in medicine, while *gene therapy* refers specifically to attempts to use those nucleic acids to reprogram cells to prevent, alleviate or cure disease. Of the two, the former has already proved itself in the clinic, whereas the latter has not yet led to licensed products,[1] although there are many ongoing trials, and some convincing successes. It is clear that once the last remaining technical hurdles have been surmounted, it will hold great promise. In addition to introducing the central concepts in this chapter, we consider the considerable problems associated with developing these therapies, discuss safety issues and review the progress made to date.

Introduction

[1]At least not in Western countries. A gene therapy product for treating cancer was licensed in China in 2003.

The 'molecular biology revolution', which had its roots in the discovery of the structure of DNA in the 1950s, and the advances in cell biology that followed in its train, has enabled us to manipulate the genetic material from cells in ways that are useful in practical therapeutics. The

seductive notion that a gene of interest can be expressed in vitro to generate useful proteins that could not be prepared synthetically or, more daringly, that a gene could be directly introduced in vivo and persuaded to synthesise some crucial cellular component, has driven this field at breakneck speed.

Biopharmaceuticals (considered for the purposes of this chapter to comprise genetically engineered proteins and monoclonal antibodies) are already a well-recognised part of therapy, and we have already encountered them elsewhere in this book (see, for example, the anti-tumour necrosis factor [TNF] antibodies in Ch. 26). We still face many problems, not the least of which is the cost of manufacture, but the technology is established and maturing fast. Reviewing the area in 2004, Walsh noted that some 140 biopharmaceuticals had been licensed around the world by the previous year, and that 250 million patients were receiving these products at a cost of some US$30 billion.[2]

[2]Biopharmaceuticals currently comprise about 25% of new drugs approved.

While the same basic concepts and technologies underpin both these approaches, gene therapy is the more considerable challenge. However, the idea commands such appeal that vast resources (both public and private) have been committed to its development. There are several reasons why it is so attractive. First, the approach offers the potential for radical cure of single-gene diseases such as *cystic fibrosis* and the *haemoglobinopathies*, which are collectively responsible for much misery throughout the world. Second, many other more common conditions, including malignant, neurodegenerative and infectious diseases, have a large genetic component. Conventional treatment of such disorders is, as readers of this book will have appreciated by now, woefully inadequate, so the promise of a completely new approach has enormous attraction.

Finally, an ability to control gene expression could even revolutionise the management of diseases in which there is no genetic component at all.

The gurus are emphatic that 'the conceptual part of the gene therapy revolution has indeed occurred …'—so where are the therapies? The devil, of course, is in the detail: in this case, the details of:

- *pharmacokinetics*: delivery of the gene to appropriate target cells (especially in the CNS)
- *pharmacodynamics*: the controlled expression of the gene in question
- *safety*
- *clinical efficacy* and *long-term practicability*.

But perhaps the most fundamental hurdle is the delivery problem; here, modern virology has helped with techniques borrowed from viruses that can be used to introduce functional nucleic acids into mammalian cells. The principle is so simple that any broadsheet reader can apprehend it, and the potential rewards (humanitarian, scientific and commercial) so great that it has led inevitably to great expectations and, perhaps equally inevitably, to frustration at the lack of practical progress.

There is a broad consensus that the *Weismann barrier*[3] should not be breached and so gene therapy trials have focused on somatic cells. A moratorium has been agreed on therapies intended to alter the DNA of germ cells, which could influence future generations.

Biopharmaceuticals

[3]Named after August Weismann (1834–1914) who formulated the concept that inheritance utilises only germ, and not somatic, cells.

We consider first the use of proteins as therapeutic agents. Of course, this in itself is not a novel idea; insulin, extracted from animal pancreas tissue (Ch. 30), and human growth hormone, extracted from human cadaver pituitary glands (Ch. 32), were among the first therapeutic proteins to be used, and for many years provided the only option for treating hormone deficiency disorders. However, there were problems. First, there were difficulties in extraction and disappointingly low yields. Second, in the case of insulin, administration of animal hormones to humans could evoke an immune response. Third, there was always a danger of the transmission of infectious agents across species, or between people. This was highlighted in the 1970s, when cases of *Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease* (see Ch. 39) occurred in patients treated with human growth hormone obtained from cadavers. This serious problem was later traced to contamination of the donor pituitary glands with infectious prions (Ch. 39). The advent of 'genetic engineering' techniques offered a new way to deal with these perennial problems.

Biopharmaceuticals and gene therapy Definition and potential uses

• *Biopharmaceuticals* include proteins, antibodies (and oligonucleotides) used as drugs:

  – *first-generation* biopharmaceuticals are mainly copies of endogenous proteins or antibodies, produced by recombinant DNA technology

  – *second-generation* biopharmaceuticals have been 'engineered' to improve the performance of the protein or antibody.

• Applications:

  – therapeutic monoclonal antibodies

  – recombinant hormones.

• *Gene therapy* is the genetic modification of cells to prevent, alleviate or cure disease.

• Potential applications:
  – radical cure of monogenic diseases (e.g. cystic fibrosis, haemoglobinopathies)
  – amelioration of diseases with or without a genetic component, including many malignant, neurodegenerative and infectious diseases.

Proteins and Polypeptides

The biopharmaceuticals in use today are generally classified as 'first-' or 'second-' generation agents. *First-generation* biopharmaceuticals are usually straightforward copies of human hormones or other proteins prepared by *transfecting* the human gene into a suitable *expression system* (a cell line that produces the protein in good yield), harvesting and purifying the recombinant protein produced and using this as the drug. The first agent to be produced in this way was human recombinant insulin in 1982.

Second-generation biopharmaceuticals are those that have been engineered; that is to say, either the gene has been deliberately altered prior to transfection such that the structure of the expressed protein is changed, or some alteration is made to the purified end product. The reasons for making these changes are generally to improve some aspect of the protein's activity profile. Human recombinant insulins designed to act faster or last longer were among the first in this class to be marketed; Table 59.1 contains other examples. *Third-generation agents* would be those in which proteins are designed from scratch to do a particular biological function. This technology is still some way off.

Table 59.1 Some examples of 'second-generation' biopharmaceuticals

Type of change	Protein	Indication	Reason for change
Altered amino acid sequence	Insulin	Diabetes	Faster-acting hormone
	Tissue plasminogen activator analogues	Thrombolysis	Longer circulating half-life
	Interferon analogue	Antiviral	Superior antiviral action
	Factor VIII analogue	Haemophilia	Smaller molecule, better activity
	Diphtheria toxin–interleukin-2 fusion protein	T-cell lymphoma	Targets toxin to appropriate cells
	Tumour necrosis factor receptor–human immunoglobulin G F_c fusion protein	Rheumatoid disease	Prolongs half-life
Altered carbohydrate residues	Glucocerebrosidase enzyme	Gaucher's disease	Promotes phagocyte uptake
	Erythropoietin analogue	Anaemia	Prolongs half-life
Covalent attachment to polyethylene glycol	Interferon	Hepatitis C	Prolongs half-life
	Human growth hormone	Acromegaly	Prolongs half-life

Modified from Walsh, 2004.

Problems in Manufacture

There are several problems associated with the manufacture of any type of recombinant protein, and one of the most pressing is the choice of expression system. Many recombinant proteins are expressed in bacterial systems (*Escherichia coli*, for example), which are useful because cultures grow quickly and they are generally easy to manipulate. Disadvantages include the fact that they may contain bacterial endotoxins, which must be scrupulously removed before administration to patients, and that bacterial cells do not accomplish the same type of *post-translational processing* (e.g. glycosylation) as mammalian cells. This could pose problems if the protein's action is crucially dependent on this modification. To circumvent these problems, mammalian (e.g. Chinese hamster ovary, CHO) cells are also used as expression systems, although here the problem is often one of yield. Such cells require more careful culture, grow more slowly and produce less product, all of which contribute to the cost of the final medicine.

There are, however, a number of emergent technologies that could revolutionise the production process. The use of plants to produce

recombinant proteins has attracted considerable interest (see Daniell et al., 2001, and Fischer et al., 2004). Several species have shown promise, including the tobacco plant. Human genes of interest can readily be transfected into the plant by using tobacco mosaic virus as a vector; the crop grows rapidly (yields a high *biomass*) and offers a number of other advantages. But attention has also focused on edible plants such as lettuce and bananas. The advantage here is that some orally active proteins, such as vaccines, expressed in the plant could be consumed directly without the need for prior purification. Several such proteins have already been produced in plants, and some are in clinical trial.

Another technology that could dramatically increase the yield of human recombinant proteins is the use of transgenic cattle. A dairy cow can produce some 10 000 litres of milk per year, and recombinant proteins introduced into the genome, and under the control of promoters that regulate production of other milk proteins, can generate yields as high as 1 g/l (see Brink et al., 2000).

Engineered Proteins

There are several ways in which proteins can be altered prior to expression. Alteration of the nucleotide sequence of the gene coding for the protein in question can be used to change single amino acids or, indeed, whole regions of the polypeptide chain. There are good reasons why it is an advantage to 'engineer' proteins prior to expression:

1 Modification of pharmacokinetic properties.

2 Generation of novel *fusion* or other proteins.

3 Reducing immunogenicity, *e.g.* by *humanising*.

It is frequently advantageous to modify the pharmacokinetic properties

of recombinant proteins. Changes in the structure of human insulin, for example, provided diabetics with a form of the hormone that did not self-associate during storage and was thus faster acting and easier to manage. The half-life of proteins in the blood can often be extended by *PEGylation* (see Ch. 10), the addition of polyethylene glycol to the molecule. This *post-translational engineering* approach has been applied to some human hormones, such as recombinant growth hormone, interferons and others. Prolonging half-life is not merely a convenience to patients; it also reduces the overall cost of the treatment, and economic factors are important in the adoption of this type of therapy.

Fusion proteins comprise two or more proteins engineered to be expressed as one single polypeptide chain, sometimes joined by a short linker. An example is **etanercept**, an anti-inflammatory drug used in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis and other conditions (see Ch. 26). This consists of the ligand-binding domain taken from the tumour necrosis factor receptor, joined to the F_c domain of a human immunoglobulin G antibody. The latter moiety increases its persistence in the blood. Reduction of immunogenicity through bioengineering is discussed below.

Monoclonal Antibodies

Although antibodies are used to confer *passive immunity*, there are a number of disadvantages inherent in their production and use that limit their utility. Conventionally, antisera are produced from the blood of immunised humans (e.g. to collect antitetanus serum) or from animals immunised with the antigen in question (e.g. with inactivated bacterial toxins). These are used to prepare antiserum containing high levels of specific antibodies, which can then be used clinically to neutralise pathogens or other dangerous substances in the blood of the patient.

Such preparations contain *polyclonal antibodies*—that is, a mixture of antibodies from all the plasma cell clones that reacted to that particular antigen. The actual composition and efficacy of these varies over time, and obviously there is a limit to how much plasma can be collected on any one occasion. The Nobel Prize-winning discovery by Milstein and Köhler, in 1975, of a method of producing from immunised mice an immortalised *hybridoma*, a fusion of one particular lymphocytic clone with an immortalised tumour cell, provided us for the first time with a method of producing *monoclonal antibodies*, comprising a single species of defined antibody at high abundance in vitro. Because these hybridomas were immortal, the cell line could be retained indefinitely and expanded to any density while preserving the integrity of its product.

Monoclonal antibodies can be classified into first-or second-generation reagents along similar lines to other proteins discussed above. First-generation monoclonals were essentially murine monoclonals (or fragments thereof), but these suffered from several drawbacks. As mouse proteins, they provoked an immune response in 50–75% of all recipients. Other limiting factors were the short half-life in the circulation and the inability of the mouse antibodies to activate human complement.

Most of these problems have been surmounted by using either *chimeric* or *humanised* monoclonals. The two terms refer to the degree to which the monoclonals have been engineered. Figure 59.1 shows how this is done; the antibody molecule consists of a *constant* domain (F_c) and the *antibody-binding* domain (Fab), with *hypervariable* regions that recognise and bind to the antigen in question. The genes for chimeric monoclonals are engineered to contain the cDNA of the murine Fab domain coupled with the human F_c domain sequences. This greatly (around five-fold) extends the plasma half-life and improves the functionality of the

antibody in human medicine. A further development (and now the preferred approach) is to replace the entire F_c and Fab region with the human equivalent with the exception of the hypervariable regions, giving a molecule that, while essentially human in nature, contains the murine antibody-binding sites. The anticancer monoclonal **herceptin** (**trastuzumab**; see Ch. 55) is an example of such a therapeutically useful antibody, and some others are given in Table 59.2.

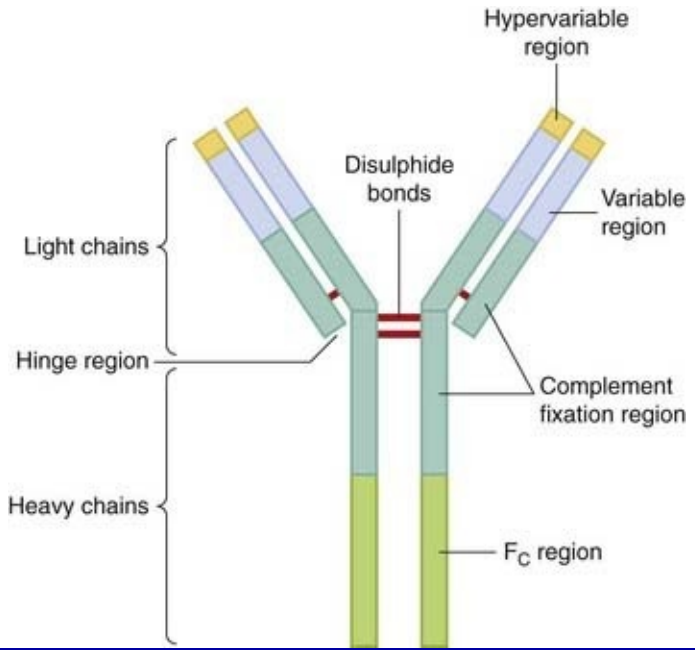


Fig. 59.1 Production of engineered 'chimeric' and 'humanised' monoclonal antibodies.

The Y-shaped antibody molecule consists of two main domains: the F_c (constant) domain and the Fab (antibody-binding) domain. At the tip of the Fab regions (on the arms of the 'Y') are the hypervariable regions that actually bind the antigen. Chimeric antibodies are produced by replacing the murine F_c region with its human equivalent by altering and splicing the gene. For humanised antibodies, only the murine hypervariable regions are retained, the remainder of the molecule being human in origin.

(After Walsh, 2004.)

Table 59.2 Some examples of 'second-generation' therapeutic monoclonal antibodies

Antibody	Type	Target	Use	See Chapter
Infliximab	Chimeric Mab	Tumour necrosis factor	Crohn's disease, rheumatoid disease	26
Adalimumab	Humanised Mab	Tumour necrosis factor	Rheumatoid disease	26
Etanercept	Fusion protein	Tumour necrosis factor	Rheumatoid disease	26
Trastuzumab	Humanised Mab	HER2 epidermal growth factor receptor	Breast cancer	55
Palivizumab	Humanised Mab	Respiratory syncytial virus	Respiratory infections in young children	—
Omalizumab	Humanised Mab	Immunoglobulin E	Immunoglobulin E-mediated asthma	27
Abatacept	Fusion protein	B7 epitope on antigen presenting cells	Rheumatoid disease	26

Mab, monoclonal antibody. Therapeutic monoclonal antibody names all end in '-mab', prefixed by an indication of their species nature: -umab (human), -omab (mouse), -ximab (chimera), -zumab (humanised).
Source: Walsh, 2004 and British National Formulary.

Safety Issues

We are, by now, accustomed to the concept of using proteins therapeutically, and many of the risks associated with (for example) anti-TNF therapy are well understood (see Ch. 26). For the most part, therapeutic proteins do not cause the range of toxic effects encountered with small molecules discussed in Chapter 57, but there are still very real dangers.

In 2006, for example, a UK clinical trial of a new monoclonal antibody (TGN 1412) designed to activate T cells (see Ch. 6) and thus treat B-cell lymphocytic leukaemia went badly wrong. All 6 subjects became severely ill following a 'cytokine storm' and suffered lasting damage. The incident provoked wide media publicity[4] and, while the subsequent investigation blamed an 'unpredictable' biological reaction, it caused many to think hard about how such trials should be conducted in the future (see Muller & Brennan, 2009). Highly specific reagents such as monoclonals pose a particular problem as they may not cross-react with the corresponding antigens of other species, thus evading detection in the usual preclinical animal safety screens.

Gene Therapy

Gene Delivery

[4]One tabloid headline read ‘We saw human guinea pigs explode’ (quoted by Stobbart et al., 2007).

The transfer of recombinant nucleic acid into target cells—a special instance of the ‘drug distribution’ problem—is critical to the success of gene therapy. Nucleic acid must pass from the extracellular space across the plasma and nuclear membranes, and it must then be incorporated into the chromosomes. Because DNA is negatively charged and single genes have molecular weights around 10^4 times greater than conventional drugs, the problem is of a different order from the equivalent stage of routine drug development.

There are several important considerations in choosing a delivery system; these include:

- the *capacity* of the system (e.g. how much DNA it can carry)
- the *transfection efficiency* (its ability to enter and become utilised by cells)
- the *lifetime* of the transfected material (determined by the lifetime of the targeted cells)
- the *safety issue*, especially important in the case of viral delivery systems.

Various approaches have been developed (see Table 59.3) in an attempt to produce the optimal system.

Table 59.3 Characteristics of some delivery systems for gene therapy

Vector	Advantages	Disadvantages
Liposomes	Virus-free, cheap to	Low efficiency, sometimes cytotoxic

	produce	
DNA cassettes	Virus-free	Low efficiency, expression temporary
Herpes simplex virus type I	Highly infective, persistent expression	No integration with host DNA, cytotoxic, difficult to handle
Adenovirus	Highly infective in epithelia	Immunogenic and transient, requires readministration
Adeno-associated virus	Stable	Low capacity
Retrovirus	Efficient, permanent	Low capacity, unstable, must integrate into host DNA, requires dividing cells

After Wolf & Jenkins, 2002.

There are two main strategies for delivering genes into patients: the in vivo and ex vivo approach. Using the *in vivo strategy*, the vector containing the therapeutic gene is injected into the patient, either intravenously (in which case some form of organ or tissue targeting is required) or directly into the target tissue (e.g. a malignant tumour). The *ex vivo strategy* is to remove cells from the patient (e.g. stem cells from bone marrow or circulating blood, or myoblasts from a biopsy of striated muscle), treat them with the vector and inject the genetically altered cells back into the patient.

An ideal vector should be *safe*, highly *efficient* (i.e. insert the therapeutic gene into a high proportion of target cells) and *selective* in that it would lead to expression of the therapeutic protein in the target cells but *not* to the expression of viral proteins. Provided that the cell into which it is inserted is itself long-lived, the vector should ideally cause persistent expression, avoiding the need for repeated treatment. The latter consideration can be a problem in some tissues. In the autosomal recessive disorder *cystic fibrosis*, for example, the airway

epithelium malfunctions because it lacks a membrane Cl^- transporter known as the *cystic fibrosis transport regulator* (CFTR). Epithelial cells in the airways are continuously dying off and being replaced, so even if the CFTR gene were stably transfected into the epithelium, there would still be a periodic need for further treatment unless the gene could be inserted into the progenitor (stem) cells. Similar problems are anticipated in other cells that turn over continuously, such as gastrointestinal epithelium and skin.

Viral Vectors

Many contemporary gene delivery strategies aim to capitalise on the capacity of viruses to subvert the transcriptional machinery of the cells they invade and their ability (in some cases) to fuse with the host genome. While producing a tantalising glimpse of the possible, there remain substantial practical problems with this approach, partly because as viruses have evolved the means to invade human cells, so humans have evolved immune responses and other protective mechanisms to thwart them. Although irritating in some respects, this is not all bad news from the point of view of safety.

As many of these viruses are pathogenic, they are usually modified such that they are 'replication defective' to avoid toxicity.

Retroviruses

If introduced into stem cells, retroviral vectors have the attraction that their effects are persistent because they are incorporated into, and replicate with, host DNA, and so the 'therapeutic' gene is passed down to each daughter cell during division. Against this, the retroviral integrase

randomly inserts the construct into chromosomes, so it may cause damage (see below). Also, since many retroviruses show little specificity, they could infect germ or non-target cells and produce undesired effects if administered in vivo. For this reason, retroviruses have been used mainly for ex vivo gene therapy. The life cycle of naturally occurring retroviruses may be exploited to create useful vectors for gene therapy (see Fig. 59.2).

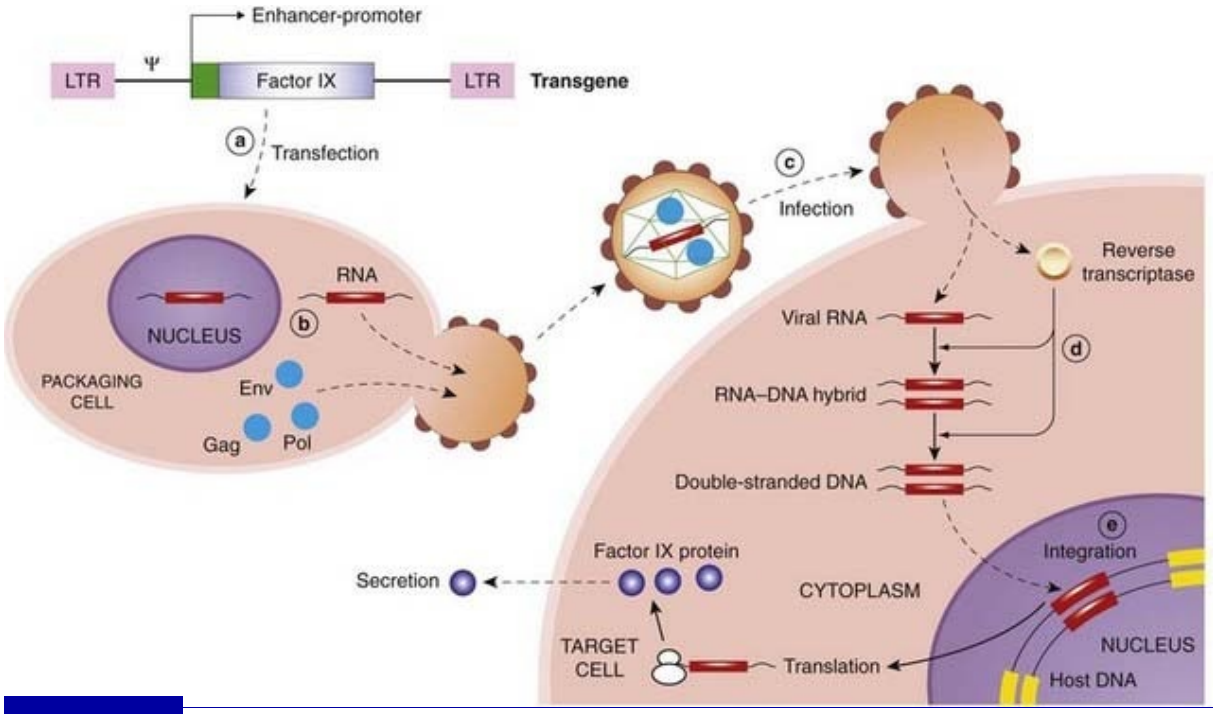


Fig. 59.2 Strategy for making retroviral vectors.

The transgene (the example shows the gene for factor IX) in a vector backbone is introduced (a) into a packaging cell, where it is integrated into a chromosome in the nucleus, and (b) transcribed to make vector mRNA, which is packaged into the retroviral vector and shed from the packaging cell. It then infects the target cell (c). Virally encoded reverse transcriptase (d) converts vector RNA into an RNA–DNA hybrid, and then into double-stranded DNA, which is integrated (e) into the genome of the target cell. It can then be transcribed and translated to make factor IX protein.

(Redrawn from Verma I M, Somia N 1997 Nature 389: 239–242.)

Many viruses are equipped to infect specific cell types, though not

necessarily the target cell of interest. It is possible to alter the retroviral envelope to alter specificity, such that the vector could be administered systemically but would target only the desired cell population. An example of this approach with a *lentivirus* (a type of retrovirus) is the substitution of the envelope protein of a non-pathogenic vector (e.g. mouse leukaemia virus) with the envelope protein of human vesicular stomatitis virus, in order specifically to target human epithelial cells.

Most retrovirus vectors are unable to penetrate the nuclear envelope, and because the nuclear membrane dissolves during cell division, they only infect dividing cells and not non-dividing cells such as adult neurons.

Adenovirus

Adenovirus vectors are popular because of the high transgene expression that can be achieved. They transfer genes to the nucleus of the host cell, but (unlike retroviruses) these are not inserted into the host genome and so do not produce effects that outlast the lifetime of the transfected cell. This property also obviates the risk of disturbing the function of other cellular genes and the theoretical risks of carcinogenicity and germ cell transfection, although at the cost of producing only a temporary effect. Because of these favourable properties, adenovirus vectors have been used for in vivo gene therapy. The vectors are genetically modified by making deletions in the viral genome, rendering it unable to replicate or cause widespread infection in the host while at the same time creating space in the viral genome for the therapeutic transgene to be inserted.

One of the first adenoviral vectors to be used lacked part of a growth-controlling region called E_1. This defective virus was grown in a cell line

that substitutes for the missing E_1 function. Recombinant virus was produced by infecting target cells with a *plasmid* containing the cloned DNA of therapeutic interest plus an expression cassette and portions of adenoviral DNA. Recombination between this and the 'backbone' of the E_1-deficient adenoviral genome resulted in a virus encoding the desired transgene. This approach led to seemingly spectacular results, demonstrating gene transfer to cell lines and animal models of disease, but it has been disappointing (e.g. in cystic fibrosis) in humans. The main problem is that low doses (administered by aerosol to patients with this disease) produce only a very low-efficiency transfer, whereas higher doses cause inflammation, a host immune response and short-lived gene expression. Furthermore, treatment cannot be repeated because of neutralising antibodies. This has led to recent attempts to manipulate adenoviral vectors to mutate or remove the genes that are most strongly immunogenic.

Other viral vectors

Other potential viral vectors under investigation include *adeno-associated virus*, *herpes virus* and disabled versions of *human immunodeficiency virus* (HIV). Adeno-associated virus associates with host DNA but is not activated unless the cell is infected with an adenovirus. It is less immunogenic than other vectors but is hard to mass produce and cannot be used to carry large transgenes. Herpes virus does not associate with host DNA but is very long lived in nervous tissue and could have a specific application in treating neurological disease. HIV, unlike most other retroviruses (see above), can infect non-dividing cells such as neurons. It is possible to remove the genes from HIV that control

replication and substitute other genes. Alternatively, it may prove possible to transfer to other non-pathogenic retroviruses those genes that permit HIV to penetrate the nuclear envelope.

Non-Viral Vectors

Liposomes

Non-viral vectors include a variant of liposomes (Ch. 8). Plasmids (diameter up to approximately 2 μm) are too big to package in regular liposomes (diameter 0.025–0.1 μm), but larger particles can be made from positively charged lipids ('lipoplexes'), which interact with both negatively charged cell membranes and DNA, improving delivery into the cell nucleus and incorporation into the host chromosome. Such particles have been used to deliver the genes for HLA-B7, interleukin-2 and CFTR. They are much less efficient than viruses, and attempts are currently under way to improve this by incorporating various viral signal proteins (membrane fusion proteins, for example) in their outer coat. Direct injection of these complexes into solid tumours (e.g. melanoma, breast, kidney and colon cancers) can, however, achieve high local concentrations within the tumour.

Microspheres

Biodegradable microspheres made from polyanhydride co-polymers of fumaric and sebacic acids (see Ch. 8) can be loaded with plasmid DNA. A plasmid with bacterial β-galactosidase activity formulated in this way and given by mouth to rats has resulted in systemic absorption and expression of the bacterial enzyme in the rat liver, raising the possibility of oral gene therapy.

Plasmid DNA

Surprisingly, plasmid DNA itself ('naked DNA') enters the nucleus of some cells and is expressed, albeit much less efficiently than when it is packaged in a vector. Such DNA carries no risk of viral replication and is not usually immunogenic (although autoantibodies to DNA do occur in systemic lupus erythematosus), but it cannot be targeted to a cell of interest. There is considerable interest in the possibility of using naked DNA for vaccines, because even very small amounts of foreign protein can stimulate an immune response. Such a vaccine for influenza is in clinical development, and more ambitious long-term targets include malaria, tuberculosis, *Chlamydia*, *Helicobacter* and hepatitis.

Controlling Gene Expression

To realise the full potential of gene therapy, it is not enough to transfer the gene selectively to the desired target cells and maintain acceptable expression of its product—difficult though these goals are. It is also essential that the activity of the gene is controlled. Historically, it was the realisation of the magnitude of this task that diverted attention from the haemoglobinopathies (which were the first projected targets of gene therapy). Correction of these disorders demands an appropriate balance of normal α-and β-globin chain synthesis to be effective, and for this, and many other potential applications, precisely controlled gene expression will be essential.

It has not yet proved possible to control transgenes in human recipients, but there are techniques that may eventually enable us to achieve this goal. One hinges on the use of an *inducible expression system*. This is a fairly standard technique whereby the inserted gene also

includes a doxycycline-inducible promoter such that expression of the gene can be switched on or off by treatment with, or withdrawal of, doxycycline.

The control of transfected genes is important in gene targeting as well. By splicing the gene of interest with a tissue-specific promoter, it should be possible to restrict expression of the gene to the target tissue. Such an approach has been used in the design of gene therapy constructs for use in ovarian cancer, the cells of which express several proteins at high abundance, including the proteinase inhibitor SLP1. In combination with the SLP1 promoter, plasmids carrying various genes were successfully and selectively expressed in ovarian cancer cell lines (Wolf & Jenkins, 2002).

Gene delivery and expression

• Gene delivery is one of the main hurdles to practical gene therapy.

• Recombinant genes are transferred using a vector, often a suitably modified virus.

• There are two main strategies for delivering genes into patients:
  – in vivo injection of the vector directly into the patient (e.g. into a malignant tumour)
  – ex vivo treatment of cells from the patient (e.g. stem cells from marrow or circulating blood), which are then returned to the patient.

• An ideal vector would be safe, efficient, selective and produce long-lasting expression of the therapeutic gene.

• Viral vectors include retroviruses, adenoviruses, adeno-associated virus, herpesvirus and disabled human immunodeficiency virus (HIV):
  – *retroviruses* infect many different types of dividing cells and become incorporated randomly into host DNA
  – *adenoviruses* are genetically modified to prevent replication and accommodate the therapeutic transgene. They transfer genes to the nucleus but not to the genome of the

host cell. Problems include a strong host immune response, inflammation and short-lived expression. Treatment cannot be repeated because of neutralising antibodies

– *adeno-associated* virus associates with host DNA and is non-immunogenic but is hard to mass-produce and has a small capacity

– herpesvirus does not associate with host DNA but persists in nervous tissue and may be useful in treating neurological disease

– disabled versions of HIV differ from most other retroviruses in that they infect non-dividing cells, including neurons.

• Non-viral vectors include:

– a variant of liposomes, made using positively charged lipids and called 'lipoplexes'

– biodegradable microspheres, which may offer orally active gene therapy

– plasmid DNA ('naked DNA'), which can be used as a vaccine.

• A *tetracycline-inducible expression system* or similar technique can control the activity of the therapeutic gene.

Safety Issues

Gene therapy raises a number of specific concerns that generally relate to the use of viral vectors. These are usually selected because they are non-pathogenic, or modified to render them innocuous, but there is a concern that such agents might still acquire virulence during use. Retroviruses, which insert randomly into host DNA, could damage the genome and interfere with the protective mechanisms that normally regulate the cell cycle (see Ch. 5), and if they happen to disrupt essential cellular functions, this could increase the risk of malignancy. This risk is more than a theoretical possibility; several children treated for *severe combined immunodeficiency* (SCID; see below) with a retrovirus vector developed a leukaemia-like illness (Woods et al., 2006). The retroviral vector was shown to have inserted itself into a gene called *LMO-2*. Mutations of *LMO-2* are associated with childhood cancers.

Another problem is that immunogenic viral proteins may be expressed that elicit an inflammatory response, and this could be harmful in some situations (e.g. in the airways of patients with cystic fibrosis). Initial clinical experience was reassuring, but the tragic death of Jesse Gelsinger, an 18-year-old volunteer in a gene therapy trial for the non-fatal disease *ornithine decarboxylase deficiency* (which can be controlled by diet and drugs), led to the appreciation that safety concerns related to immune-mediated responses to vectors are very real (see Marshall, 1999).

But despite safety concerns, there have been some encouraging successes. We will finish by glancing at some of the areas where gene therapy has already proved its worth—as well as several areas of particular promise for the future.

Safety

• There are those safety concerns that are *specific* to any particular therapy (e.g. polycythaemia from overexpression of erythropoietin) and additional *general* concerns relating, for example, to the nature of vectors.

• Viral vectors:
  – might acquire virulence during use
  – contain viral proteins, which may be immunogenic
  – can elicit an inflammatory response
  – could damage the host genome and interfere with the cell cycle, provoking malignancy.

• The limited clinical experience to date has not so far provided evidence of insurmountable problems.

Therapeutic Applications

Single-Gene Defects

Single-gene (*monogenic*) disorders were the obvious starting point for gene therapy trials. The haemoglobinopathies were the first projected targets, but early attempts (in the 1980s) were put 'on hold' because of the problem, mentioned above, posed by the need to control precisely the expression of the genes encoding the different polypeptide chains of the haemoglobin molecule. Patients with thalassaemia (the commonest monogenic disease) exhibit enormous phenotypic diversity and hence variable clinical symptoms because, even in monogenic disorders, other genes as well as environmental factors are also important.

Attention then shifted to a rare genetic disorder called *adenine deaminase deficiency*, which results in SCID. This led to the first therapeutic gene transfer protocol to be approved by the US National Institutes of Health, and subsequently a French team has treated 11 children with another form of SCID. The results provided the first proof that gene therapy can cure a life-threatening disease but also, less happily, evidence that retroviral vectors can cause malignancy.

Another early target was cystic fibrosis. Progress here has been slow: Atkinson (2008) has reviewed this area and explains the many problems associated with this approach.

More recently, however, there have been several successes. For example, X-linked *chronic granulomatous disease* (see Ch. 17) has been successfully treated using a retroviral technique to deliver a functional version of the mutated NADPH oxidase protein (Ott et al., 2006 and Fig. 59.3) and a form of inherited blindness, *Leber's congenital amaurosis*, associated with a mutation in a gene that produces retinal pigment, has been rectified using an adeno-associated virus vector bearing a cDNA coding for the intact gene (Maguire et al., 2008).

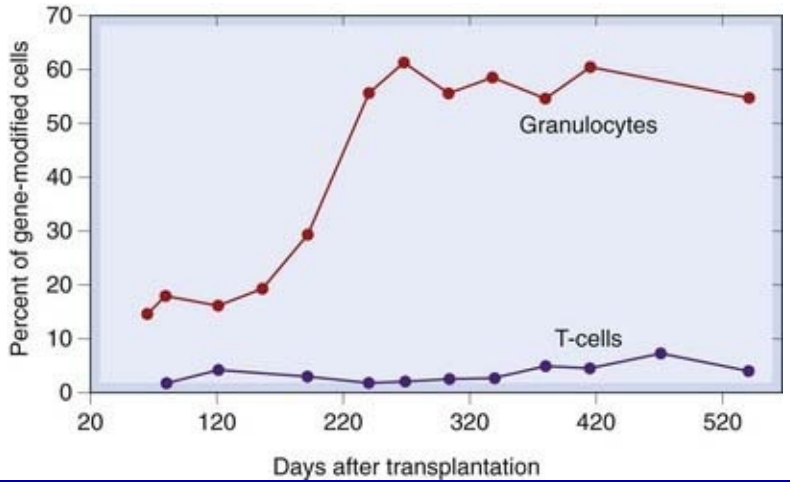


Fig. 59.3 Correcting an inherited defect using gene therapy.

In this clinical trial, two patients with X-linked chronic granulomatous disease were transfused with GMCSF-treated peripheral blood cells that had been genetically modified with a retroviral vector bearing the intact $gp91^{phox}$ gene ('in vitro protocol'—see text). The graph shows that the number of gene-modified peripheral blood leukocytes remained high for well over a year and this was accompanied by good levels of superoxide production in these cells—a clinical 'cure'.

(Data redrawn from Ott et al., 2006.)

Gene Therapy for Cancer

Many current clinical gene therapy trials relate to its use in cancer. The first gene transfer experiment to be approved by the National Institutes of Health was a non-therapeutic protocol in the late 1980s designed to introduce a marker gene (conferring resistance to an analogue of neomycin) into a class of lymphocytes that infiltrate various tumours. Gene transfer was performed ex vivo and the cells reinjected into the patient in order to track their subsequent redistribution. This strategy was useful in tracking other cells and hence identifying the cause of relapse following bone marrow transplantation for various leukaemias. Several therapeutic approaches are under investigation. Promising approaches include:

• restoring ‘protective’ proteins such as the tumour suppressor gene (see Ch. 5)

• inactivating oncogene expression (e.g. by using a retroviral vector bearing an antisense transcript RNA to the *k-ras* oncogene; see below)

• delivering a gene to malignant cells that renders them sensitive to drugs (e.g. thymidylate kinase, which activates **ganciclovir**)—the so-called ‘suicide gene’ approach

• delivery of proteins to healthy host cells in order to protect them (e.g. addition of the multidrug resistance channel to bone marrow cells ex vivo, thereby rendering them resistant to drugs used in chemotherapy)

• tagging cancer cells with genes expressing proteins that render malignant cells more visible to the immune system (e.g. for antigens such as HLA-B7 or cytokines such as granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor and interleukin-2).

Ovarian cancer is considered to be a good target for gene therapy because the vector can be directly introduced into the peritoneal cavity, where it is retained in a ‘closed’ environment. Several clinical trials are in progress or have been completed (see Wolf & Jenkins, 2002) with a variety of genes including p53 and the multidrug resistance gene, and utilising retroviral, adenoviral and liposome vectors. For a recent review of gene therapy in breast cancer, see Takahashi et al. (2006).

Gene therapy for cancer

• Promising approaches include:
  – restoring protective proteins such as p53

– inactivating oncogenes
– delivering a gene to malignant cells that renders them sensitive to drugs
– delivering a gene to healthy host cells to protect them from chemotherapy
– tagging cancer cells with genes that make them immunogenic.

Gene Therapy and Infectious Disease

In addition to DNA vaccines mentioned above, there is considerable interest in the potential of gene therapy for HIV infection. Some 10% of all clinical gene therapy research is focused on this area and, by rendering stem cells (which differentiate into immune cells) resistant to HIV before they mature, aims to prevent HIV replication as well as its spread to uninfected cells. Various strategies are under investigation, including the use of genes that code for variants of HIV-directed proteins that serve as blocking agents (so-called 'dominant-negative' mutations, *e.g. rev*, which began clinical testing in 1995), RNA decoys and soluble forms of CD4 (the cellular receptor used by HIV to enter lymphocytes; Ch. 51) that will bind, and it is hoped inactivate, HIV extracellularly.

Gene Therapy and Cardiovascular Disease

Vascular gene transfer is attractive not least because cardiologists and vascular surgeons routinely perform invasive studies that offer the opportunity to administer gene therapy vectors ex vivo (e.g. to a blood vessel that has been removed to use as an autograft) or locally in vivo (e.g. by injection through a catheter directly into a diseased coronary or femoral artery). Vascular gene transfer offers potential new treatments for several cardiovascular diseases (see Ylä-Herttuala & Martin, 2000). The nature of many vascular disorders, such as restenosis following angioplasty (stretching up a narrowed artery using a balloon that can be inflated via a catheter), is such that transient gene expression might be

all that is needed therapeutically. Extension of vein graft patency by gene therapy approaches has been reviewed by Chandiwal & Balasubramanian (2005). There is no shortage of attractive candidates for therapeutic overexpression in blood vessels, including nitric oxide synthase, prostacyclin synthase, thymidylate kinase, homeobox proteins and many others. Some of these have been studied in animal models of restenosis, finding that overexpression of vascular endothelial growth factor and fibroblast growth factor increases blood flow and collateral vessel growth in ischaemic leg muscle and myocardium. This is a promising area; for further details of angiogenic gene therapy, see Hammond & McKirnan (2001) and of peripheral vascular disease Ghosh et al. (2008).

Many trials are ongoing and these can be viewed online at *Gene Therapy Review* (http://www.genetherapyreview.com) and other sites (see Further Reading). Other uses of gene therapy include conditions as diverse as *uterine leiomyoma* (fibroids; Al-Hendy & Salama, 2006) and *periodontal disease* (Karthikeyan & Pradeep, 2006).

Other Gene-Based Approaches

So far, we have largely been considering the addition of entire genes, but there are other, related nucleic acid-based therapeutic strategies. One such attempt is to correct a gene that has been adversely altered by mutation. This has the enormous theoretical advantage that the corrected gene would remain under physiological control, avoiding many of the problems discussed above. This approach is in its infancy and is beyond the scope of this book.

Other therapeutic approaches that are, in effect, gene therapies are

conventionally excluded from this category. These include organ transplantation to correct a gene deficiency (e.g. liver transplantation to correct low-density-lipoprotein receptor deficiency in homozygous familial hypercholesterolaemia; Ch. 23).

Another approach is the use of *antisense oligonucleotides*. These are short (15–25mer) oligonucleotides that are complementary to part of a gene or gene product that it is desired to inhibit. These snippets of genetic material can be designed to influence the expression of a gene either by forming a triplex (three-stranded helix) with a regulatory component of chromosomal DNA, or by complexing a region of mRNA. Oligonucleotides can cross plasma and nuclear membranes by endocytosis as well as by direct diffusion, despite their molecular size and charge. However, there are abundant enzymes that cleave foreign DNA in plasma and in cell cytoplasm, so *methylphosphorate* analogues have been synthesised in which a methyl group substitutes for an oxygen atom in the nucleotide backbone. Another approach is the use of *phosphothiorate* analogues in which a negatively charged sulfur atom substitutes for oxygen (so-called 'S oligomers'). This increases water solubility as well as conferring resistance to enzymic degradation. The oligomer needs to be at least 15 bases long to confer specificity and tight binding.

Following parenteral administration, such oligomers distribute widely (although not to the central nervous system) and work in part by interfering with the transcription of mRNA and in part by stimulating its breakdown by ribonuclease H, which cleaves the bound mRNA. This approach is being used in clinical studies in patients with viral disease (including HIV infection) and malignancy (including the use of *Bcl-2*

antisense therapy administered subcutaneously in patients with non-Hodgkin's lymphoma). A related approach (see Castanatto & Rossi, 2009), which provides more efficient gene silencing than antisense oligonucleotides, is the use of *short interfering RNA* (siRNA),[5] whereby short lengths of double-stranded RNA recruit an enzyme complex, known as *RISC*, which selectively degrades the corresponding mRNA produced by the cell, thereby blocking expression. Clinical trials of siRNA therapeutics are in progress.

Other gene-based approaches

• Correction of a mutated gene. This is in its infancy.

• *Antisense oligonucleotides* are short (15–25) oligonucleotides that are complementary to part of the target gene and influence expression by forming a triplex (three-stranded helix) with a regulatory component of chromosomal DNA or by complexing a region of mRNA. siRNA, which acts by a different mechanism, can be used in the same way.

• Oligonucleotides can cross plasma and nuclear membranes but there are abundant enzymes that cleave foreign DNA, so water-soluble methylphosphorate or phosphothiorate analogues, which are resistant to enzymic degradation, are used. This approach is being used in clinical trials in HIV infection and malignancy.

[5]Discovered when it was found by plant scientists, to their surprise, that introducing RNA that encoded the colour-producing enzyme in petunias made the flowers less colourful, not more so. Subsequently siRNA has emerged as an important physiological mechanism for controlling gene expression, leading to the 2006 Nobel Prize award to Mello and Fire.

References and Further Reading

General reviews on biopharmaceuticals, gene therapy and utilities

Scientific American published an issue devoted to gene therapy in June 1997, which is an excellent introduction, including articles by T Friedmann (on 'overcoming the obstacles to gene therapy'), P L Felgner (on non-viral strategies for gene therapy), R M Blaese (on gene therapy for cancer) and D Y Ho and R M Sapolsky (on gene therapy for the nervous system).

rink M.F., Bishop M.D., Pieper F.R. Developing efficient strategies for the generation of transgenic cattle which produce biopharmaceuticals in milk. *Theriogenology*. 2000;53:139-148. (*A bit specialised, as it focuses mainly on the husbandry of transgenic cattle, but interesting nonetheless*)

astanatto D., Rossi J.J. The promises and pitfalls of RNA-interference-based therapeutics. *Nature*. 2009;457:426-433. (*Useful review of the mechanism, current status and potential applications of RNAi as a means of controlling gene expression*)

aniell H., Streatfield S.J., Wycoff K. Medical molecular farming: production of antibodies, biopharmaceuticals and edible vaccines in plants. *Trends Plant Sci.*. 2001;6:219-226. (*Interesting paper with some good examples*)

ischer N., Leger O. Bispecific antibodies: molecules that enable novel therapeutic strategies. *Pathobiology*. 2007;74:3-14. (*Interesting new twist to the therapeutic monoclonal story*)

ischer R., Stoger E., Schillberg S., *et al.* Plant-based production of biopharmaceuticals. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.*. 2004;7:152-158. (*Interesting general review on the use of plants for the production of biopharmaceuticals*)

uttmacher A.E., Collins F.S. Genomic medicine: a primer. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2002;347:1512-1520. (*First in a series on genomic medicine*)

erma I.M., Somia N. Gene therapy—promises, problems and prospects. *Nature*. 1997;389:239-242. (*The authors, from the Salk Institute, describe the principle of getting corrective genetic material into cells to alleviate disease, the practical obstacles to this and the hopes that better delivery systems will overcome them*)

alsh G. Second-generation biopharmaceuticals. *Eur. J. Pharm. Biopharm.*. 2004;58:185-196. (*Excellent overview of therapeutic proteins and antibodies; some good tables and figures*)

eatherall D.J. Single gene disorders or complex traits: lessons from the thalassaemias and other monogenic diseases. *BMJ*. 2000;321:1117-1120. (*Argues that relating genotype to phenotype is the challenge for genetic medicine over the next century*)

Problems

heck E. A tragic setback. *Nature*. 2002;420:116-118. (*News feature describing efforts to explain the mechanism underlying a leukaemia-like illness in a child previously cured of SCID by gene therapy*)

Iarshall E. Gene therapy death prompts review of adenovirus vector. *Science*. 1999;286:2244-2245. (*Deals with the tragic 'Gelsinger affair'*)

Iuller P.Y., Brennan F.R. Safety assessment and dose selection for first-in-human clinical trials with immunomodulatory monoclonal antibodies. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.*. 2009;85:247-258. (*A sober and, at times, very technical assessment of the safety precedures required for the 'first-in-man' testing of therapeutic monoclonals. Written in the wake of the TGN 1412 affair*)

tobbart L., Murtagh M.J., Rapley T., *et al.* 'We saw human guinea pigs explode'. *BMJ*. 2007;334:566-567. (*Analysis of the press coverage of the above clinical trial*)

/oods N.B., Bottero V., Schmidt M., von Kalle C., Verma I.M. Gene therapy: therapeutic gene causing lymphoma. *Nature*. 2006;440:1123.

Therapeutic uses

l-Hendy A., Salama S. Gene therapy and uterine leiomyoma: a review. *Hum. Reprod. Update*. 2006;12:385-400.

thanasopoulos T., Fabb S., Dickson G. Gene therapy vectors based on adeno-associated virus: characteristics and applications to acquired and inherited diseases (review). *Int. J. Mol. Med.*. 2000;6:363-375. (*Good review*)

tkinson T.J. Cystic fibrosis, vector-mediated gene therapy, and relevance of toll-like receptors: a review of problems, progress, and possibilities. *Curr. Gene Ther.*. 2008;8:201-207.

auerschmitz G.J., Barker S.D., Hemminki A. Adenoviral gene therapy for cancer: from vectors to targeted and replication competent agents (review). *Int. J. Oncol.*. 2002;21:1161-1174. (*Superb review: very comprehensive*)

handiwal A., Balasubramanian V., Baldwin Z.K., Conte M.S., Schwartz L.B. Gene therapy for the extension of vein graft patency: a review. *Vasc. Endovascular Surg.*. 2005;39:1-14.

hosh R., Walsh S.R., Tang T.Y., Noorani A., Hayes P.D. Gene therapy as a novel therapeutic option in the treatment of peripheral vascular disease: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int. J. Clin. Pract.*. 2008;62:1383-1390.

:ammond H.K., McKirnan M.D. Angiogenic gene therapy for heart disease: a review of animal studies and clinical trials. *Cardiovasc. Res.*. 2001;49:561-567. (*Comprehensive review spanning animal and human trials of gene therapy for myocardial ischaemia*)

arthikeyan B.V., Pradeep A.R. Gene therapy in periodontics: a review and future implications. *J.*

Contemp. Dent. Pract.. 2006;7:83-91.

i F., Hayes J.K., Wong K.C. Gene therapy: a novel method for the treatment of myocardial ischemia and reperfusion injury—mini-review. *Acta Anaesthesiol. Sin.*. 2000;38:207-215. (*The title is self-explanatory*)

laguire A.M., Simonelli F., Pierce E.A., *et al.* Safety and efficacy of gene transfer for Leber's congenital amaurosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*. 2008;358:2240-2248. (*Clinical trial of gene therapy to correct a cause of congenital blindness*)

athwani A.C., Davidoff A.M., Linch D.C. A review of gene therapy for haematological disorders. *Br. J. Haematol.*. 2005;128:3-17. (*The title is self-explanantory; easy to read and comprehensive in scope*)

tt M.G., Schmidt M., Schwarzwaelder K., *et al.* Correction of X-linked chronic granulomatous disease by gene therapy, augmented by insertional activation of MDS1-EVI1, PRDM16 or SETBP1. *Nat. Med.*. 2006;12:401-409. (*Clinical trial of gene therapy to correct hereditary neutrophil dysfunction*)

oth J.A., Grammer S.F. Gene replacement therapy for non-small cell lung cancer: a review. *Hematol. Oncol. Clin. North Am.*. 2004;18:215-229. (*Useful and readable paper on 'replacement therapy' in cancer therapy*)

akahashi S., Ito Y., Hatake K., Sugimoto Y. Gene therapy for breast cancer. Review of clinical gene therapy trials for breast cancer and MDR1 gene therapy trial in Cancer Institute Hospital. *Breast Cancer*. 2006;13:8-15.

olf J.K., Jenkins A.D. Gene therapy for ovarian cancer (review). *Int. J. Oncol.*. 2002;21:461-468. (*Excellent review and broad introduction to gene therapy in general*)

lä-Herttuala S., Martin J.F. Cardiovascular gene therapy. *Lancet*. 2000;355:213-222. (*Reviews rationale, vectors, delivery, therapeutic targets, human trials, ethics and future directions*)

Useful Web resources

ttp://www.genetherapynet.com (*Gene Therapy Net—a fantastic resource for both patients and professionals. It is a veritable clearing house for information and up-to-date news on all aspects of gene therapy. It even advertises for volunteers and has a 'jobs' section, in case you are tempted! Has links to other related sites*)

60

Drug discovery and development

Overview

With the development of the pharmaceutical industry towards the end of the 19th century, drug discovery became a highly focused and managed process. Discovering new drugs moved from the domain of inventive doctors to that of scientists hired for the purpose. Today, the bulk of modern therapeutics, and of modern pharmacology, is based on drugs that came from the laboratories of pharmaceutical companies, without which neither the practice of therapeutics nor the science of pharmacology would be more than a pale fragment of what they have become.

In this chapter, we describe in outline the main stages of the process, namely (i) the discovery phase, *i.e.* the identification of a new chemical entity as a potential therapeutic agent; and (ii) the development phase, during which the compound is tested for safety and efficacy in one or more clinical indications, and suitable formulations and dosage forms devised. The aim is to achieve registration by one or more regulatory authorities, to allow the drug to be marketed legally as a medicine for human use.

Our account is necessarily brief and superficial, and more detail can be found elsewhere (Rang, 2006).

The Stages of a Project

Figure 60.1 shows in an idealised way the stages of a 'typical' project,

aimed at producing a marketable drug that meets a particular medical need (e.g. to retard the progression of Parkinson's disease or cardiac failure, or to prevent migraine attacks).

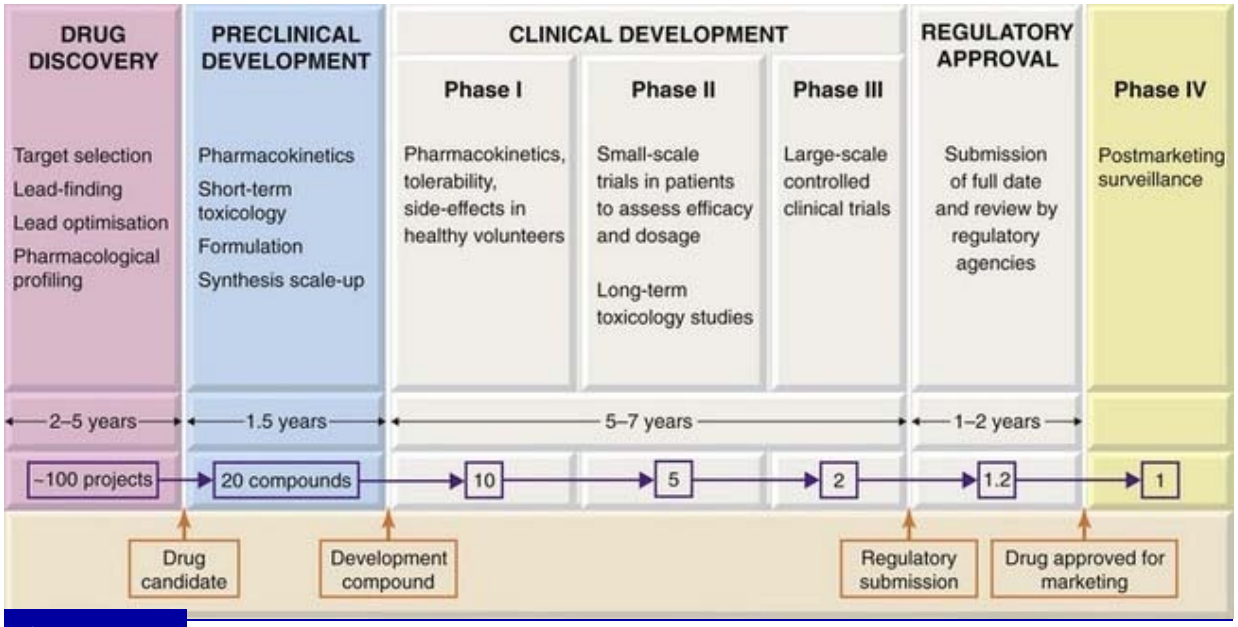


Fig. 60.1 The stages of development of a 'typical' new drug, *i.e.* a synthetic compound being developed for systemic use.

Only the main activities undertaken at each stage are shown, and the details vary greatly according to the kind of drug being developed.

Broadly, the process can be divided into three main components:

1 **Drug discovery**, during which candidate molecules are chosen on the basis of their pharmacological properties.

2 **Preclinical development**, during which a wide range of non-human studies (e.g. toxicity testing, pharmacokinetic analysis and formulation) are performed.

3 **Clinical development**, during which the selected compound is tested for efficacy, side effects and potential dangers in volunteers and patients.

These phases do not necessarily follow in strict succession as indicated in Figure 60.1, but generally overlap.

The Drug Discovery Phase

Given the task of planning a project to discover a new drug to treat—say, Parkinson's disease—where does one start? Assuming that we are looking for a novel drug rather than developing a slightly improved 'me too' version of a drug already in use,[1] we first need to choose a new molecular target.

Target Selection

[1]Many commercially successful drugs have in the past emerged from exactly such 'me too' projects, examples being the dozen or so β-adrenoceptor-blocking drugs developed in the wake of propranolol, or the plethora of 'triptans' that followed the introduction of sumatriptan to treat migraine. Quite small improvements (e.g. in pharmacokinetics or side effects), coupled with aggressive marketing, have often proved enough, but the barriers to registration are getting higher, so the emphasis has shifted towards developing innovative (first in class) drugs aimed at novel molecular targets.

As discussed in Chapter 2, drug targets are, with few exceptions, functional proteins (e.g. receptors, enzymes, transport proteins). Although, in the past, drug discovery programmes were often based—successfully—on measuring a complex response in vivo, such as prevention of experimentally induced seizures, lowering of blood sugar or suppression of an inflammatory response, without the need for prior identification of a drug target, nowadays it is rare to start without a defined protein target, so the first step is target identification. This most often comes from biological intelligence. It was known, for example, that inhibiting angiotensin-converting enzyme lowers blood pressure by

suppressing angiotensin formation, so it made sense to look for antagonists of the vascular angiotensin II receptor—hence the successful 'sartan' series of antihypertensive drugs (Ch. 22). Similarly, the knowledge that breast cancer is often oestrogen sensitive led to the development of aromatase inhibitors such as **anastrazole**, which prevents oestrogen synthesis. Current therapeutic drugs address about 120 distinct targets (see Hopkins & Groom, 2002; Rang, 2006), but there are still many proteins that are thought to play a role in disease for which we still have no cognate drug, and many of these represent potential starting points for drug discovery. Estimates range from a few hundred to several thousand potential drug targets that remain to be exploited therapeutically (see Betz, 2005). Selecting *valid* and '*druggable*' targets from this plethora is a major challenge.

Conventional biological wisdom, drawing on a rich fund of knowledge of disease mechanisms and chemical signalling pathways, remains the basis on which novel targets are most often chosen. However, genomics is playing an increasing role by revealing new proteins involved in chemical signalling and new genes involved in disease. Space precludes discussion here of this burgeoning area; interested readers are referred to more detailed accounts (Lindsay, 2003; Kramer & Cohen, 2004; Betz, 2005; Rang, 2006).

Overall, it is evident that in the foreseeable future there is ample biological scope in terms of novel drug targets for therapeutic innovation. The limiting factor is not the biology and pharmacology, but other factors, such as the emergence of unexpected adverse effects during clinical testing, and the cost and complexity of drug discovery and development in relation to healthcare economics and increasing regulatory hurdles.

Lead Finding

When the biochemical target has been decided and the feasibility of the project has been assessed, the next step is to find *lead compounds*. The usual approach involves cloning of the target protein—normally the human form, because the sequence variation among species is often associated with pharmacological differences, and it is essential to optimise for activity in humans. An assay system must then be developed, allowing the functional activity of the target protein to be measured. This could be a cell-free enzyme assay, a membrane-based binding assay or a cellular response assay. It must be engineered to run automatically, if possible with an optical read-out (e.g. fluorescence or optical absorbance), and in a miniaturised multiwell plate format for reasons of speed and economy. Robotically controlled assay facilities capable of testing tens of thousands of compounds per day in several parallel assays are now commonplace in the pharmaceutical industry, and have become the standard starting point for most drug discovery projects. For details on high-throughput screening, see Sundberg (2000) and Hüser (2006).

To keep such hungry monsters running requires very large compound libraries. Large companies will typically maintain a growing collection of a million or more synthetic compounds, which will be routinely screened whenever a new assay is set up. Whereas, in the past, compounds were generally synthesised and purified one by one, often taking a week or more for each, the present tendency is to use combinatorial chemistry, which allows families of several hundreds or thousands of related compounds to be made simultaneously. By coupling such high-speed chemistry to high-throughput assay systems, the time taken over the initial lead-finding stage of projects has been reduced to a few months in most cases, having previously often taken several years. Despite the

apparent mindlessness of the high-throughput random screening approach, it is often successful in identifying lead compounds that have the appropriate pharmacological activity and are amenable to further chemical modification. Building and maintaining huge compound libraries is, however, a costly business, and it has to be realised that even the largest practicable compound collection represents only a minute fraction of the number of 'drug-like' molecules that exists in theory—estimated at about 10^{60}.

One problem with random screening is that many of the 'hits' detected in the initial screen turn out to be molecules that have features undesirable in a drug, such as too high a molecular weight, excessive polarity and possession of groups known to be associated with toxicity. Computational 'prescreening' of compound libraries is often used to eliminate such compounds.

The hits identified from the primary screen are used as the basis for preparing sets of homologues by combinatorial chemistry so as to establish the critical structural features necessary for binding selectively to the target. Several such iterative cycles of synthesis and screening are usually needed to identify one or more lead compounds for the next stage.

Natural products as lead compounds

Historically, natural products, derived mainly from fungal and plant sources, have proved to be a fruitful source of new therapeutic agents, particularly in the field of anti-infective, anticancer and immunosuppressant drugs. Familiar examples include **penicillin**, **streptomycin** and many other antibiotics; vinca alkaloids; **paclitaxel**; **ciclosporin**; and **sirolimus** (**rapamycin**). These substances presumably serve a specific protective function, having evolved so as to recognise

with great precision vulnerable target molecules in an organism's enemies or competitors. The surface of this resource has barely been scratched, and many companies are actively engaged in generating and testing natural product libraries for lead-finding purposes. Fungi and other microorganisms are particularly suitable for this, because they are ubiquitous, highly diverse, and easy to collect and grow in the laboratory. Compounds obtained from plants, animals or marine organisms are much more troublesome to produce commercially. The main disadvantage of natural products as lead compounds is that they are often complex molecules that are difficult to synthesise or modify by conventional synthetic chemistry, so that lead optimisation may be difficult and commercial production very expensive.

Lead Optimisation

Lead compounds found by random screening are the basis for the next stage, lead optimisation, where the aim (usually) is to increase the potency of the compound on its target and to optimise it with respect to other properties, such as selectivity and metabolic stability. In this phase, the tests applied include a broader range of assays on different test systems, including studies to measure the activity and time course of the compounds in vivo (where possible in animal models mimicking aspects of the clinical condition; see Ch. 7), and checking for unwanted effects in animals, evidence of genotoxicity and usually for oral absorption. The objective of the lead optimisation phase is to identify one or more *drug candidates* suitable for further development.

As shown in Figure 60.1, only about one project in five succeeds in generating a drug candidate, and it can take up to 5 years. The most common problem is that lead optimisation proves to be impossible; despite much ingenious and back-breaking chemistry, the lead

compounds, like antisocial teenagers, refuse to give up their bad habits. In other cases, the compounds, although they produce the desired effects on the target molecule and have no other obvious defects, fail to produce the expected effects in animal models of the disease, implying that the target is probably not a good one. The virtuous minority proceed to the next phase, preclinical development.

Preclinical Development

The aim of preclinical development is to satisfy all the requirements that have to be met before a new compound is deemed ready to be tested for the first time in humans. The work falls into four main categories:

1 Pharmacological testing to check that the drug does not produce any obviously hazardous acute effects, such as bronchoconstriction, cardiac dysrhythmias, blood pressure changes and ataxia. This is termed *safety pharmacology*.

2 Preliminary toxicological testing to eliminate genotoxicity and to determine the maximum non-toxic dose of the drug (usually when given daily for 28 days, and tested in two species). As well as being checked regularly for weight loss and other gross changes, the animals so treated are examined minutely postmortem at the end of the experiment to look for histological and biochemical evidence of tissue damage.

3 Pharmacokinetic testing, including studies on the absorption, metabolism, distribution and elimination (ADME studies) in laboratory animals.

4 Chemical and pharmaceutical development to assess the feasibility of large-scale synthesis and purification, to assess the stability of the compound under various conditions and to develop a formulation suitable for clinical studies.

Much of the work of preclinical development, especially that relating to safety issues, is done under a formal operating code, known as *Good Laboratory Practice* (GLP), which covers such aspects as record-keeping procedures, data analysis, instrument calibration and staff training. The aim of GLP is to eliminate human error as far as possible, and to ensure the reliability of the data submitted to the regulatory authority, and laboratories are regularly monitored for compliance to GLP standards. The strict discipline involved in working to this code is generally ill-suited to the creative research needed in the earlier stages of drug discovery, so GLP standards are not usually adopted until projects get beyond the discovery phase.

Roughly half the compounds identified as drug candidates fail during the preclinical development phase; for the rest, a detailed dossier is prepared for submission to the regulatory authority such as the European Medicines Evaluation Agency or the US Food and Drugs Administration, whose permission is required to proceed with studies in humans. This is not lightly given, and the regulatory authority may refuse permission or require further work to be done before giving approval.

Non-clinical development work continues throughout the clinical trials period, when much more data, particularly in relation to long-term toxicity in animals, has to be generated. If a drug is intended for long-term use in the clinic, the toxicology studies may have to be extended for up to 2 years, and may include time-consuming studies for possible effects on fertility and fetal development. Failure of a compound at this stage is very costly, and considerable efforts are made to eliminate potentially toxic compounds much earlier in the drug discovery process by the use of in vitro, or even in silico, methods.

Clinical Development

Clinical development proceeds through four distinct phases (see Friedman et al., 1996, for details):

• *Phase I studies* are performed on a small group (normally 20–80) of normal healthy volunteers, and their aim is to check for signs of any potentially *dangerous effects*, for example on cardiovascular, respiratory, hepatic or renal function; *tolerability* (does the drug produce any unpleasant symptoms, for example headache, nausea, drowsiness?); and *pharmacokinetic properties* (is the drug well absorbed? What is the time course of the plasma concentration? Is there evidence of cumulation or non-linear kinetics?). Phase I studies may also test for pharmacodynamic effects in volunteers (e.g. does a novel analgesic compound block experimentally induced pain in humans? How does the effect vary with dose?).

• *Phase II studies* are performed on groups of patients (normally 100–300) and are designed to test for efficacy in the clinical situation, and if this is confirmed, to establish the dose to be used in the definitive phase III study. Often, such studies will cover several distinct clinical disorders (e.g. depression, anxiety states and phobias) to identify the possible therapeutic indications for the new compound and the dose required. When new drug targets are being studied, it is not until these phase II trials are completed that the team finds out whether or not its initial hypothesis was correct, and lack of the expected efficacy is a common reason for failure.

• *Phase III studies* are the definitive double-blind, randomised trials, commonly performed as multicentre trials on thousands of patients, aimed at comparing the new drug with commonly used alternatives.

These are extremely costly, difficult to organise and often take years to complete, particularly if the treatment is designed to retard the progression of a chronic disease. It is not uncommon for a drug that seemed highly effective in the limited patient groups tested in phase II to look much less impressive under the more rigorous conditions of phase III trials.

▼ The conduct of trials has to comply with an elaborate code known as Good Clinical Practice, covering every detail of the patient group, data collection methods, recording of information, statistical analysis and documentation.[2]

[2]Similar highly detailed codes must be followed in laboratory tests to determine safety (Good Laboratory Practice; see text) and drug manufacture (Good Manufacturing Practice).

Increasingly, phase III trials are being required to include a *pharmacoeconomic analysis* (see Ch. 1), such that not only clinical but also economic benefits of the new treatment are assessed.

At the end of phase III, the drug will be submitted to the relevant regulatory authority for licensing. The dossier required for this is a massive and detailed compilation of preclinical and clinical data. Evaluation by the regulatory authority normally takes a year or more, and further delays often arise when aspects of the submission have to be clarified or more data are required. Eventually, about two-thirds of submissions gain marketing approval. Overall, only 11.5% of compounds entering Phase I are eventually approved (see Munos, 2009). Increasing this proportion by better compound selection at the laboratory stage is one of the main challenges for the pharmaceutical industry.

• *Phase IV studies* comprise the obligatory postmarketing surveillance designed to detect any rare or long-term adverse effects resulting from

the use of the drug in a clinical setting in many thousands of patients. Such events may necessitate limiting the use of the drug to particular patient groups, or even withdrawal of the drug.[3]

Biopharmaceuticals

[3]Recent high-profile cases include the withdrawal of **rofecoxib** (a cyclo-oxygenase-2 inhibitor; see Ch. 26) when it was found to increase the frequency of heart attacks, and of **cerivastatin** (Ch. 23), a cholesterol-lowering drug found to cause severe muscle damage in a few patients.

'Biopharmaceuticals', *i.e.* therapeutic agents produced by biotechnology rather than conventional synthetic chemistry, are discussed in Chapter 59. Such therapeutic agents comprise an increasing proportion—currently about 30%—of new products registered each year. The principles underlying the development and testing of biopharmaceuticals are basically the same as for synthetic drugs. In practice, biopharmaceuticals generally run into fewer toxicological problems than synthetic drugs,[4] but more problems relating to production, quality control and drug delivery. Walsh (2003) covers this specialised field in more detail.

Commercial Aspects

[4]The serious toxicity caused to human volunteers in the 2006 Phase I trials of the monoclonal antibody TGN 1412 (see Ch. 59) showed that this could not be relied on, and has led to substantial tightening of standards (and slowdown of the development of biopharmaceuticals).

Figure 60.1 shows the approximate time taken for such a project and the attrition rate (at each stage and overall) based on recent data from several large pharmaceutical companies. The key messages are (i) that it is a high-risk business, with only about one drug discovery project in 50

reaching its goal of putting a new drug on the market, (ii) that it takes a long time—about 12 years on average, and (iii) that it costs a lot of money to develop one drug (currently a mind-boggling $3.9 billion in 2008, see Munos, 2009).[5] For any one project, the costs escalate rapidly as development proceeds, phase III trials and long-term toxicology studies being particularly expensive. The time factor is crucial, because the new drug has to be patented, usually at the end of the discovery phase, and the period of exclusivity (20 years in most countries) during which the company is free from competition in the market starts on that date. After 20 years, the patent expires, and other companies, which have not supported the development costs, are free to make and sell the drug much more cheaply, so the revenues for the original company decrease rapidly thereafter. Many profitable drugs will come to the end of their patents between 2010 and 2015, adding to the industry's problems. Reducing the development time after patenting is a major concern for all companies, but so far it has remained stubbornly fixed at around 10 years, partly because the regulatory authorities are demanding more clinical data before they will grant a licence. In practice, only about one drug in three that goes on the market brings in enough revenue to cover its development costs. Success for the company relies on this one drug generating enough profit to pay for the rest.[6]

Future Prospects

[5]These cost estimates have been strongly challenged by commentators (see Angell, 2004) who argue that the pharmaceutical companies overestimate their costs several-fold in order to justify high drug prices.

[6]Actually, companies spend about twice as much on marketing and administration as on research and development.

Since about 1990, the drug discovery process has been in the throes of

a substantial methodological revolution, following the rapid ascendancy of molecular biology, genomics and informatics, amid high expectations that this would bring remarkable dividends in terms of speed, cost and success rate. High-throughput screening has undoubtedly emerged as a powerful lead-finding technology, but overall the benefits are not yet clear: costs have risen steadily, the success rate has not improved (Fig. 60.2) and development times have not decreased.

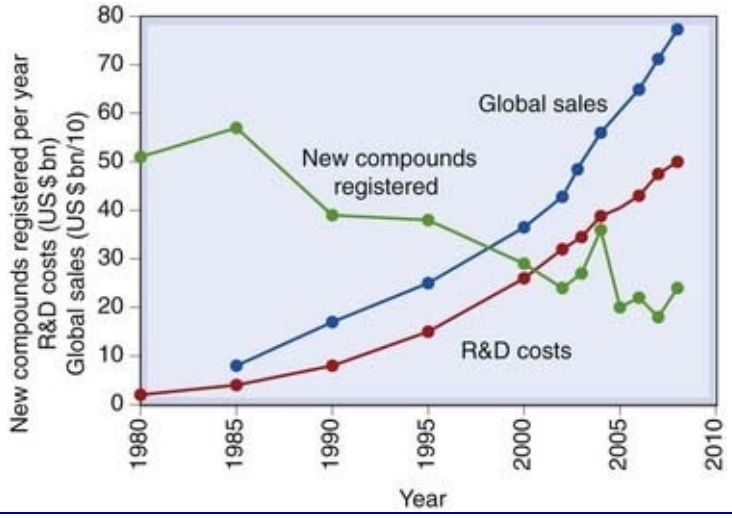


Fig. 60.2 Research and development (R&D) spend, sales and new drug registrations, 1980–2010.

Registrations refer to new chemical entities (including biopharmaceuticals, excluding new formulations and combinations of existing registered compounds).

(Data from various sources, including the Centre for Medicines Research, Pharmaceutical Research and Manufacturers Association of America.)

Figure 60.2 illustrates the steady decline in the number of new drugs launched in the major markets worldwide, despite escalating costs and improved technology. There has been much speculation as to the causes, the optimistic view (see below) being that fewer but better drugs are being introduced, and that the recent technological jump has yet to make its impact.

If the new drugs that are being developed improve the quality of medical care, there is room for optimism. In recent ('prerevolutionary') years, synthetic drugs aimed at new targets (e.g. selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, statins and the kinase inhibitor **imatinib**) have made major contributions to patient care. Even if the new technologies do not improve productivity, we can reasonably expect that their ability to make new targets available to the drug discovery machine will have a real effect on patient care.

Trends to watch include the growing armoury of biopharmaceuticals, particularly monoclonal antibodies such as **trastuzumab** (an oestrogen receptor antibody used to treat breast cancer) and **infliximab** (a tumour necrosis factor antibody used to treat inflammatory disorders; see Ch. 26); these are successful recent examples, and more are in the pipeline. Another likely change will be the use of genotyping to 'individualise' drug treatments, so as to reduce the likelihood of administering drugs to 'non-responders' (see Ch. 11, which summarises the current status of 'personalised medicine'). The implications for drug discovery will be profound, for the resulting therapeutic compartmentation of the patient population will mean that markets will decrease, bringing to an end the reliance on the 'blockbusters' referred to earlier. At the same time, clinical trials will become more complex (and expensive), as different genotypic groups will have to be included in the trial design. The hope is that therapeutic efficacy will be improved, not that it will be a route to developing drugs more cheaply and quickly. However, there is general agreement that the current modus operandi is commercially unsustainable (see Munos, 2009). Costs and regulatory requirements are continuing to rise, and the anticipated use of genomics to define subgroups of patients likely to respond to particular therapeutic agents (see Ch. 11) will mean fragmentation of the market, as we move away

from the ‘one-drug-suits-all’ approach that has encouraged companies to focus their efforts on blockbuster drugs. More niche products targeted at smaller patient groups will be needed, though each costs as much to develop as a blockbuster and carries a similar risk of failure.

A Final Word

The pharmaceutical industry in recent years has attracted much adverse publicity, some of it well deserved, concerning drug pricing and profits, non-disclosure of adverse clinical trials data, reluctance to address major global heath problems such as tuberculosis and malaria, aggressive marketing practices and much else (see Angell, 2004). It needs to be remembered though that, despite its faults, the industry has been responsible for most of the therapeutic advances of the past half-century, without which medical care would effectively have stood still.

References and Further Reading

ngell M. *The truth about the drug companies*. New York: Random House; 2004. (*A powerful broadside directed against the commercial practices of pharmaceutical companies*)

etz U.A.K. How many genomics targets can a portfolio afford? *Drug Discov. Today*. 2005;10:1057-1063. (*Interesting analysis—despite its odd title—of approaches to target identification in drug discovery programmes*)

rews J. *In quest of tomorrow’s medicines*. New York: Springer; 1998. (*Thoughtful and non-technical account of the history, principles and future directions of drug discovery*)

vans W.E., Relling M.V. Moving towards individualised medicine with pharmacogenomics. *Nature*. 2004;429:464-468. (*Good review article discussing the likely influence of pharmacogenomics on therapeutics*)

riedman L.M., Furberg C.D., DeMets D.L. *Fundamentals of clinical trials*, third ed. St Louis: Mosby; 1996. (*Standard textbook*)

opkins A.L., Groom C.R. The druggable genome. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2002;1:727-730.

(*Interesting analysis of the potential number of drug targets represented in the human genome*)

üser J., editor. High throughput screening in drug discovery. Vol. 35 of Methods and principles in drug discovery. Weinheim: Wiley-VCH, 2006. (*Comprehensive textbook covering all aspects of this technology*)

ramer R., Cohen D. Functional genomics to new drug targets. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2004;3:965-972. (*Describes the various approaches for finding new drug targets, starting from genomic data*)

indsay M.A. Target discovery. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2003;2:831-836. (*Well-balanced discussion of the application of genomics approaches to discovering new drug targets; more realistic in its stance than many*)

Iunos B. Lessons from 60 years of pharmaceutical innovation. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.*. 2009;8:959-968. (*Informative summary of the current status of the drug discovery industry, making clear that the modus operandi that has been successful in the past is no longer sustainable*)

ang H.P., editor. Drug discovery and development. Amsterdam: Elsevier, 2006. (*Short textbook describing the principles and practice of drug discovery and development at the beginning of the 21st century*)

undberg S.A. High-throughput and ultra-high-throughput screening: solution and cell-based approaches. *Curr. Opin. Biotechnol.*. 2000;11:47-53.

Valsh G. *Biopharmaceuticals*, second ed. Chichester: Wiley; 2003. (*Comprehensive textbook covering all aspects of discovery, development and applications of biopharmaceuticals*)

Appendix

Some important pharmacological agents

Students may feel overwhelmed by the number of drugs described in pharmacology textbooks. We would emphasise that it is more important to understand general pharmacological principles, and to appreciate the pharmacology of the main classes of drug, than to attempt to memorise details of individual agents. Specific drugs are best learned about when they are encountered in the setting of particular topics (e.g. noradrenergic transmission), during practical classes or (for therapeutic drugs) near a patient's bedside. The following list gives examples of some of the more important pharmacological agents. It is not intended as a starting point to learning pharmacology, and we would caution against attempting to memorise lists of names and properties. The important agents we list here were selected subjectively; they include (but are not limited to) the 100 drugs most likely to be prescribed by newly qualified doctors in the UK (Baker, 2010) and are divided into agents of primary and secondary importance. For students of some subjects, and in different geographical areas, one or another class of drug will have more or less importance (e.g. anthelminthics are very important for veterinarians and for all clinicians in regions where helminthiasis is common), so these categories are meant only as a broad guide. The list includes not only drugs used therapeutically, but also endogenous mediators/transmitters (med/trnsm) and certain important drugs used mainly as experimental tools (exp.tool)—especially important

for students studying basic or applied pharmacology as a science subject —and drugs used for recreational (recreat) rather than therapeutic purposes. Some endogenous mediators (e.g. adrenaline [epinephrine]) are also important therapeutic drugs.

The General Medical Council's 'Tomorrow's Doctors' (September 2009; http://www.gmc-uk.org/) specifies that students should be able to demonstrate knowledge of drug actions; therapeutics and pharmacokinetics; drug side effects and interactions, including for multiple treatments, long-term conditions and non-prescribed medication; and also including effects of drugs on the population, such as the spread of antibiotic resistance. A working knowledge of drugs in the 'primary importance' category should be built up gradually as they are encountered during training. For drugs in the second category, it is usually sufficient to be aware of the mechanism of action, supplemented by understanding how they differ from those in the primary category when relevant.

The choice of drugs in clinical use is somewhat arbitrary. Hospital formulary committees (on which pharmacists play a crucial role) grapple with choosing which individual drugs to stock in the pharmacy. There is a play-off between stocking several individual drugs of one category, for each of which there is good evidence of efficacy for distinct indications, and stocking a more restricted choice based on indirect evidence that efficacy is likely to be a common feature of different members of a class of drugs. Local variations will be encountered (e.g. as to which angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor or non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs are stocked in the hospital pharmacy). If the student or clinician (e.g. doctor, dentist, veterinarian or nurse) comes to these

(e.g. when changing to a job in a new hospital) with a sound appreciation of the general principles of pharmacology and of the specifics of the various classes of agent involved, he or she will be able to look up and understand the details of agents favoured locally and use them sensibly. Drugs are grouped broadly as in the chapters of the text, and some appear more than once in the lists.

Reference

Baker, E.H., 2010. The challenge of developing safe and effective prescribers: is a student formulary the way forward? *Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol.* In press.

Key

(Note: designation does not exclude a separate therapeutic role—for example, nicotine and cocaine are used therapeutically as well as recreationally, adrenaline is used therapeutically as well as being a mediator; conversely, some primarily therapeutic drugs such as morphine or other opioid analgesics are used recreationally by some individuals.)

med/trnsm = mediator/transmitter

exp.tool = experimental tool

recreat = drug used especially for recreational purposes

antag = antagonist

Primary	Secondary
1. Cholinergic transmission (see Ch. 13)	

Agonists	
acetylcholine (med/trnsm)	carbachol
suxamethonium	pilocarpine
nicotine (recreat)	
Antagonists	
atropine	tropicamide
tubocurarine (exp.tool)	pancuronium
hexamethonium (exp.tool)	atracurium
vecuronium	α-bungarotoxin (exp.tool)
oxybutinin	tolterodine
botulinum toxin (presynaptic action)	
Anticholinesterases and related drugs	
neostigmine	pyridostigmine
edrophonium	pralidoxime: cholinesterase reactivator
donepizil	

2. Noradrenergic transmission (Ch.14)

Agonists	
adrenaline (epinephrine) (med/trnsm)	clonidine
noradrenaline (norepinephrine) (med/trnsm)	phenylephrine
isoprenaline (isoproterenol) (exp.tool)	dopamine (med/trnsm)
salbutamol	dobutamine
Antagonists	
propranolol	prazosin
atenolol	doxazosin
metoprolol	tamsulosin
bisoprolol	
Drugs affecting noradrenergic neurons	

cocaine (recreat) (Ch. 48)	guanethidine (exp.tool)
tyramine (exp.tool)	reserpine (exp.tool)
methyldopa (Ch. 22)	amitriptyline (Ch. 46)
amphetamine (recreat) (Ch. 48)	α-methyltyrosine (exp.tool)
	phenelzine (Ch. 46)

3. 5-Hydroxytryptamine (serotonin) (Ch. 15)

Drugs acting on 5-HT receptors (see Ch. 46 for 5-HT reuptake inhibitors)	
5-HT (serotonin) (med/trnsm)	ergotamine/dihydroergotamine
LSD (recreat)	metoclopramide
ondansetron	granisetron
methysergide	pizotifen
triptans (e.g. sumatriptan)	ketotifen

5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; LSD, lysergic acid diethylamide.

4. Purines (Ch. 16)

Drugs/mediators acting on purinoceptors or purine uptake	
adenosine (med/trnsm) (+ therapeutic: Ch. 21)	dipyridamole
theophylline, aminophylline	prasugrel (Ch. 24)
caffeine (recreat)	
ATP (med/trnsm)	
ADP (med/trnsm)	
clopidogrel	

5. Local hormones (Ch. 17)

Cytokines (all: med/trnsm)	
interleukins	

chemokines	
tumour necrosis factor	
Tumour necrosis factor antagonists: etanercept, infliximab	
interferons (med/trnsm)	
colony-stimulating factors (Ch. 25) (med/trnsm)	
Histamine and antagonists (H_1 and H_2)	
histamine (med/trnsm)	fexofenadine
cetirizine	cyclizine
promethazine	
ranitidine	
cimetidine	
Eicosanoids and related substances	
prostaglandins E and F (med/trnsm)	platelet activating factor (med/trnsm)
prostaglandin I_2 (med/trnsm)	latanoprost
thromboxane A_2 (med/trnsm)	lipoxins (med/trnsm)
leukotrienes (med/trnsm)	
Inflammatory peptides	
bradykinin	icatibant (bradykinin antagonist)
	substance P
	calcitonin-gene-related peptide (CGRP)
	neurokinin A

6. Cannabinoids and related drugs (Ch. 18)

Δ9-tetrahydrocannabinol (recreat)	nabilone
anandamide (med/trnsm)	

7. Nitric oxide (Ch. 20)

nitric oxide (med/trnsm)
L-NG-monomethyl arginine (*L*-NMMA) (exp.tool)

8. The heart (Ch. 21)

Antidysrhythmic drugs (Vaughan–Williams classification)		
Class I	lidocaine	flecainide
Class II	metoprolol	
Class III	amiodarone	sotalol
Class IV	verapamil	
Unclassified	adenosine	
	digoxin	
Antianginal drugs		
Nitrates		
glyceryl trinitrate		
isosorbide mononitrate		
nicorandil (combined with K+-channel activation)		
β-Blockers		
metoprolol		
Calcium antagonists		
diltiazem		

9. The vascular system (Ch. 22)

Antihypertensive drugs (A, B, C and D)	
A: angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors and angiotensin II (AT_1 receptor) antagonists	
captopril	lisinopril

captopril	lisinopril
ramipril	trandolapril
losartan	irbesartan
candesartan	
B: β-adrenoceptor antagonists	
metoprolol	
C: calcium antagonists	
amlodipine	
nifedipine	
D: thiazides and related diuretics	
bendroflumethiazide	
hydrochlorothiazide	
indapamide	
chlortalidone	
α1-adrenoceptor antagonists	
doxazosin	
Other vasodilators	
hydralazine	minoxidil
	nitroprusside
	aliskiren (renin inhibitor)
Centrally acting drugs	
	methyldopa
	moxonidine
Drugs used in heart failure and shock Diuretics (see also Ch. 28)furosemideamiloridespironolactoneeplerenone**Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors and AT1 antagonists: see antihypertensives table above*Cardiac glycoside***digoxin***Drugs acting on adrenoceptors***carvediloldobutaminebisoprololdopaminemetoprolol***Vasodilators***hydralazineK+ channel activatorsisosorbide mononitrate	
Pulmonary hypertensionepoprostenoliloprostsildenafilbosentan	

10. Atherosclerosis and dyslipidaemia (Ch. 23)

simvastatin	ezetimibe
atorvastatin	pravastatin
	fibrates (gemfibrozil, fenofibrate)
	nicotinic acid derivatives
	resins (colestyramine, colesevelam)
	fish oil

11. Haemostasis and thrombosis (Ch. 24)

Oral anticoagulants and related drugs	
warfarin	rivaroxiban
vitamin K (antag)	
dabigatran etexilate	
Heparin-related drugs and related drugs	
heparin	protamine (antag)
enoxaparin	fondaparinux
Antiplatelet drugs	
aspirin	dipyridamole
clopidogrel	epoprostenol
abciximab	prasugrel
Fibrinolytic drugs and inhibitors of fibrinolysis	
streptokinase	
tissue plasminogen activator	
tranexamic acid (inhibitor)	

12. Haematinics and related drugs (Ch. 25)

ferrous sulfate	filgrastim
desferrioxamine (iron chelator)	hydroxycarbamide (hydroxyurea)
folic acid	eculizumab
hydroxocobalamin	
epoietin	

13. Anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressant drugs (Ch. 26)

Cyclo-oxygenase inhibitors (NSAIDs)	
aspirin (see also Ch. 24)	indometacin
paracetamol (acetaminophen)	diclofenac
ibuprofen	coxibs (e.g. celecoxib)
naproxen	
Disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs)	
methotrexate	gold complexes (e.g. auranofin)
tumour necrosis factor antagonists: etanercept, infliximab	hydroxychloroquine
glucocorticoids (e.g. prednisolone)	penicillamine
	sulfasalazine
Immunosuppressant drugs	
azathioprine	anakinra (interleukin-1 antagonist)
ciclosporin	
tacrolimus	
methotrexate	
prednisolone	
Drugs used in gout	
NSAIDs (see above)	colchicine
allopurinol (prophylaxis)	probenecid (prophylaxis)
	sulfinpyrazone

	sulfinpyrazone

NSAID, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug.

14. Respiratory system (Ch. 27)

β2-adrenoceptor agonists	
salbuterol	terbutaline
salmeterol	formeterol
Inhaled glucocorticoids	
beclometasone	
mometasone	
Inhaled muscarinic antagonists	
ipratropium	tiotropium
Xanthine alkaloids	
theophylline	
Leukotriene antagonists and 5-lipoxygenase inhibitors	
montelukast	
zileutin	
Anti-immunoglobulin E	
omalizumab	
Antitussive drug	
codeine	

15. The kidney (Ch. 28)

Thiazides and related diuretics	
bendroflumethiazide, and see Table 9 above	
Loop diuretics	
furosemide	bumetanide

K^+-sparing diuretics	
spironolactone	triamterene
amiloride	eplerenone
Osmotic diuretics	
mannitol	
Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors	
acetazolamide	
Antidiuretic hormone (vasopressin) V_2 agonists and antagonists	
desmopressin	demeclocycline (antag)
Anion exchange resin	
	sevelamer

16. Gastrointestinal system (Ch. 29)

Antacids and ulcer-healing drugs	
magnesium or aluminium salts	sucralfate (aluminium complex)
alginates	
H_2 receptor antagonists	
ranitidine	cimetidine
Proton pump inhibitors	
omeprazole	
lansoprazole	
Antibiotics for *Helicobacter pylori*	
amoxicillin	
clarithromycin	
metronidazole	
Prostaglandin analogues	
	misoprostol

Laxatives	
lactulose	sodium picosulfate
senna	
bulk-forming (e.g. ispaghula husk)	
Antiemetics	
phenothiazines	
antihistamines	
domperidone	granisetron
metoclopramide	nabilone
ondansetron	aprepitant
Antidiarrhoeal drugs	
codeine	
loperamide	
Drugs for inflammatory bowel disease	
prednisolone	mesalazine
sulfasalazine	
Antispasmodics	
hyoscine	
cyclizine	
Gastric secretagogues	
gastrin (med/trnsm)	pentagastrin

17. Endocrine pancreas and related drugs (Ch. 30)

Hormones	
insulin	amylin (med/trnsm)
insulin glargine	somatostatin (med/trnsm)
insulin lispro	
glucagon	

incretins (GIP, GLP1)	
Drugs that act on the sulfonylurea receptor	
tolbutamide	nateglinide
gliclazide	gliburide
Biguanide	
metformin	
α-Glucosidase inhibitor	
acarbose	
Thiazolidinediones	
rosiglitazone	
pioglitazone	
Incretin-mimetics and related drugs	
exenetide	vildagliptin
sitagliptin	

18. Obesity (Ch. 31)

leptin (med/trnsm)	neuropeptide Y (med/trnsm)
	orlistat

19. Adrenal cortex and pituitary (Ch. 32)

Glucocorticoids and related drugs	
Hydrocortisone (med/trnsm)	metyrapone (blocks synthesis)
prednisolone	
dexamethasone	
Mineralocorticoids (and their antagonists)	
aldosterone (med/trnsm)	eplerenone (antag)
fludrocortisone	

spironolactone (antag)	
Pituitary hormones and related drugs	
corticotropin (adrenocorticotrophic hormone) (med/trnsm)	
growth hormone (med/trnsm)	sermorelin (growth hormone-releasing hormone analogue)
somatostatin (med/trnsm)	
octreotide	lanreotide
vasopressin (med/trnsm)	desmopressin
oxytocin (med/trnsm)	
prolactin (med/trnsm)	
gonadorelin	
bromocriptine	

20. Thyroid (Ch. 33)

Hormones and precursors
thyroxine (med/trnsm)
liothyronine (med/trnsm)
calcitonin (med/trnsm)
iodine/iodide
Antithyroid drugs
carbimazole
propylthiouracil
radioiodine (131I)

21. Reproductive system (Ch. 34)

Oestrogens	
oestradiol (med/trnsm)	

ethinylestradiol	
Antioestrogen	
tamoxifen	clomiphene
Progestin	
progesterone (med/trnsm)	norethisterone
Antiprogestogen	
mifepristone	
Androgen	
testosterone (med/trnsm)	
Antiandrogens and related drugs	
cyproterone	bicalutamide
flutamide	finasteride (5-α reductase inhibitor)
Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone analogues	
buserelin	
goserelin	
Drugs acting on the uterus	
ergometrine	
oxytocin	atosiban
dinoprostone (prostaglandin E2)	
Erectile dysfunction	
sildenafil	
tadalafil	

22. Drugs and bone (Ch. 35)

parathyroid hormone (med/trnsm)	calcitonin
vitamin D	teriparatide
calcium salts	cinacalcet
oestrogen (med/trnsm)	

raloxifene	
alendronate	etidronate
risedronate	strontium ranelate

23. CNS mediators (Ch 36–38)

Neurotransmitters and related drugs	
glutamate	
NMDA (exp.tool)	ketamine (NMDA channel blocker)
glycine (med/trnsm)	strychnine (exp.tool) (glycine antag)
GABA (med/trnsm)	baclofen ($GABA_B$ agonist)
	bicuculline ($GABA_A$ antag)
Amines	
noradrenaline (norepinephrine) (med/trnsm)	melatonin (med/trnsm)
dopamine (med/trnsm)	
5-hydroxytryptamine (med/trnsm)	
acetylcholine (med/trnsm)	
histamine (med/trnsm)	

24. Neurodegenerative diseases (Ch. 39)

Parkinson's disease	
levodopa	selegiline
carbidopa	trihexyphenidyl hydrochloride (benzhexol)
bromocriptine	amantadine
	apomorphine
	MPTP (exp.tool)
Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis	
	riluzole

Alzheimer's disease	
donepezil	memantine
rivastigmine	galantamine

25. General anesthetics (Ch. 40)

Inhalational	
fluranes (enflurane, isoflurane, desflurane, sevoflurane)	ether, chloroform, halothane (historical interest)
nitrous oxide	
Intravenous	
propofol	midazolam
etomidate	
thiopental	ketamine

26. Analgesics and related substances (Ch. 41)

Opioids and related drugs	
morphine	oxycodone
codeine	
fentanyl	methadone
pethidine	diamorphine (recreat)
naloxone (antag)	naltrexone (antag)
Mild analgesics	
aspirin and other NSAIDs	
paracetamol	
Other analgesic drugs	
tramadol	
carbamazepine	
gabapentin	

amitriptyline	
Others related to nociception	
enkephalins and endorphins: dynorphin (med/trnsm)	
capsaicin (exp.tool)	

27. Local anaesthetics and other drugs that affect sodium or potassium channels (Ch. 42)

Local anaesthetics	
lidocaine	tetracaine (amethocaine)
bupivacaine (and levobupivacaine)	ropivacaine
Selective sodium channel blocker	
tetrodotoxin (exp.tool)	
Potassium channel antagonists	
tetraethylammonium (exp.tool)	
sulfonylureas (Ch. 30)	
Potassium channel activators (see Ch. 22 and Table 17 above)	
nicorandil	minoxidil
	cromakalim

28. Anxiolytic, hypnotic and related drugs (Ch. 43)

Antidepressants used as anxiolytic drugs (see also Ch. 46)	
fluoxetine	
paroxetine	
sertraline	
Benzodiazepines and related drugs	
temazepam	nitrazepam
diazepam	lorazepam
midazolam	flumazenil (antag)
	zopiclone

	zopiclone
Other	
buspirone (5-HT_{1A} receptor agonist)	propranolol (beta blocker)
	antiepileptic drugs *e.g.* gabapentin, valproate

29. Antiepileptic drugs and centrally acting muscle relaxants (Ch. 44)

carbamazepine	phenobarbital
valproate	diazepam
vigabatrin	clonazepam
gabapentin	ethosuximide
lamotrigine	leviteracetam
baclofen	
phenytoin	

30. Antipsychotic drugs (Ch. 45)

Classic	
chlorpromazine	fluphenazine
haloperidol	thioridazine
Atypical	
clozapine	risperidone
olanzapine	sulpiride

31. Drugs used in affective disorders (Ch. 46)

Tricyclic antidepressants	
amitriptyline	imipramine
Selective serotonin (5-HT) reuptake inhibitors	
fluoxetine	fluvoxamine

sertraline	
Monoamine oxidase inhibitors	
moclobemide (‘RIMA’)	phenelzine
	tranylcypromine
Miscellaneous antidepressants	
venlafaxine	trazodone
	bupropion
Mood stabilisers	
lithium	atypical antipsychotic drugs (e.g. olanzapine)
carbamazepine	

32. Central nervous system stimulants and psychotomimetics (Ch. 47)

amphetamine (recreat)	LSD (recreat)
cocaine (recreat)	phencyclidine (recreat)
caffeine (recreat)	strychnine (exp.tool)
methylphenidate	bicuculline (exp.tool)
MDMA (‘ecstasy’)	pentylenetetrazol (exp.tool)

LSD, lysergic acid diethylamide; MDMA, methylenedioxymethamphetamine.

33. Drug dependence and drug abuse (Ch. 48)

opiates (morphine, diamorphine—heroin)	Δ9-tetrahydrocannabinol (recreat)
nicotine (recreat)	amphetamine (recreat)
ethanol (recreat)	solvents (recreat)
cocaine (recreat)	benzodiazepines

34. Antibacterial agents (Ch. 50)

Bacterial cell wall inhibitor	
benzylpenicillin	piperacillin
amoxicillin	
flucloxacillin	
cephalosporins (cefadroxil, cefotaxime, ceftriaxone)	
vancomycin	
Topoisomerase inhibitor	
ciprofloxacin	
Folate inhibitors	
trimethoprim	sulfonamides
Bacterial protein synthesis inhibitors	
gentamicin	
amikacin	
tetracycline	
chloramphenicol	
erythromycin	
clarithromycin	
Antianaerobe drug	
metronidazole	benzyl penicillin
Antimycobacterial agents	
isoniazid	ethambutol
rifampicin	streptomycin
pyrazinamide	
dapsone	
clofazimine	

35. Antiviral agents (Ch. 51)

DNA polymerase inhibitors

aciclovir	foscarnet
	ganciclovir
	tribavirin (ribavirin)
Reverse transcriptase inhibitors	
zidovudine (AZT)	didanosine
lamivudine	
efavirenz (non-nucleoside inhibitor)	
Protease inhibitor	
saquinavir	indinavir
Immunomodulators	
interferons (med/trnsm)	
Neuraminidase inhibitor	
zanamavir	
Inhibitor of HIV fusion with host cells	
enfurvitide	
Inhibitor of viral entry	
maraviroc	

36. Antifungal drugs (Ch. 52)

Polyene antibiotics	
amphotericin B	nystatin
Azoles	
fluconazole	miconazole
Antimetabolite	
	flucytosine
Others	
	terbinafine
	echinocandin B

37. Antiprotozoal drugs (Ch. 53)

Antimalarials	
chloroquine	pyrimethamine plus sulfadoxine
quinine	
artemesinin	
primaquine	
For *Pneumocystis pneumoniae*	
co-trimoxazole (high dose)	pentamidine
Amoebicidal drug	
metronidazole	
Leishmanicidal drugs	
antimonials (e.g. stibogluconate)	
pentamidine	
Trypanosomicidal drugs	
suramin	pentamidine
Toxoplasmicidal drug	
pyrimethamine-sulfadiazine	

38. Anthelminthic drugs (Ch. 54)

Broad spectrum
mebendazole
Roundworm, threadworm
piperazine
levamisole (roundworm)
Schistosomes
praziquantel

River blindness
ivermectin

39. Anticancer drugs (Ch. 55)

Alkylating agents and related compounds	
cyclophosphamide	lomustine
melphalan	busulfan
cisplatin	chlorambucil
Antimetabolites	
cytarabine	fluorouracil
methotrexate	mercaptopurine
thioguanine	
pentostatin	gemcitabine
Cytotoxic antibiotics	
doxorubicin	
bleomycin	dactinomycin
Plant derivatives	
vinca alkaloids (vincristine, vinblastine)	etoposide
taxanes (paclitaxel, docetaxel)	
irinotecan	
Hormones and related drugs	
prednisolone	
dexamethasone	
flutamide	
buserelin	anastrazole
tamoxifen	
Monoclonal antibodies	
rituximab	erlotinib

rituximab	erlotinib
trastuzumab	serafinib
panitumumab	
bevacizumab	

40. Treatment of poisoning (Ch. 57)

activated charcoal	
acetyl cysteine	
naloxone	

This appendix was originally adapted from that in Dale M M, Dickenson A H, Haylett D G 1996 Companion to pharmacology, 2nd edn. Churchill Livingstone, Edinburgh, with permission.

Index

Page numbers followed by “f” indicate figures, “t” indicate tables, and “b” indicate boxes.

A

Abacavir, 643, 647b
  and HLAB*5701, 135
  unwanted effects, 707

Abatacept, 330, 331t, 718t

Abciximab, 69, 305

ABC transporters, 21–23

Absorption, drug, 106–110, 107f, 110b
  effect of variation in rate of, 126
  factors affecting gastrointestinal, 106–108
  from the intestine, 106
  methods for delaying, 109
  pharmacokinetic interactions, 693

Abstinence syndrome, 516, 595

Acamprosate, alcohol dependence, 597b, 605b, 607

Acarbose, 382, 383b

ACAT (acyl coenzyme A: cholesterol acyltransferase), 286

ACE *See* Angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE)

Aceclofenac, 319t

A cells, 372

Acemetacin, 319t

Acetaldehyde, 605–606

Acetaminophen *See* Paracetamol

Acetazolamide, 109, 356

Acetylation, 134–135, 228

Acetylcholine (ACh), 141–143
  in Alzheimer's disease, 483
  in the CNS, 468–470, 469f, 470b
  effects on blood pressure, 151, 152f
  functional aspects, 470
  gastric acid secretion, 362
  muscarinic actions, 151
  nicotinic actions, 151
  noise analysis, 27, 27f–28f
  release, 154–156
    inhibitors, 167–168
  synthesis, 154–156
    inhibitors, 167
  vomiting, 365

Acetylcholine (ACh) receptors, 151–154, 469–470
  muscarinic *See* Muscarinic ACh receptors
  nicotinic *See* Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors

Acetylcholinesterase (AChE), 147–148, 155, 168, 171b

in Alzheimer's disease, 483
inhibitors *See* Anticholinesterases

Acetylcysteine, 325, 701

N-Acetylcysteine, 678

Acetyl-glyceryl-ether-phosphorylcholine *See* Platelet activating factor (PAF)

N-Acetyl-5-methoxytryptamine *See* Melatonin

N-Acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine, 325, 701

Acetylsalicylic acid *See* Aspirin

Acetyltransferase, 135

Aciclovir, 616b, 644–645, 646b
action/effects, 112–113, 613
unwanted effects, 645

Acid-base balance, 352

Acidic drugs
binding, 103
excretion, 120
ionization, 120
weak, 101, 102f–103f

Acitretin teratogenicity, 706

Acquired immune response *See* Adaptive (acquired) immune response

Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) *See* HIV/AIDS

Acridines, 613

Acriflavine, 613

Acrolein, 118–119, 678

Acromegaly, 394–395, 397, 713

ACTH *See* Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH)

Actin, 59

Action of drugs
  cellular aspects, 49–65
  in the central nervous system, 444–446, 445b
  general principles, 6–19
  molecular aspects, 20–48
  sites of, 149

Action potentials, 53–55, 57f, 246, 247f

Activated partial thromboplastin time (APTT), 299

Acute macular degeneration (AMD), 684

Acute-phase proteins, 86

Acyl coenzyme A: cholesterol acyltransferase (ACAT), 286

N-Acyl-phosphatidylethanolamine (NAPE), 223

Adalimumab, 330, 331t, 370, 718t

Adaptation, physiological, 16

Adapter proteins, 37

Adaptive (acquired) immune response, 77, 82–86, 82b
  antibody-mediated (humoral), 84–86
  cell-mediated, 86

effector phase, 83f, 84–86
induction phase, 83–84, 83f
Addiction *See* Dependence; *specific drugs*
Addison's disease, 401, 406–407
Adefovir, 643
Adenine deaminase deficiency, 722
Adeno-associated virus, 720
Adenohypophysis, 394, 399b, 402b, 403–404
Adenosine, 258
actions/effects, 470–471
and asthma, 206
and the cardiovascular system, 205
in the central nervous system, 206
clinical uses, 255t
coronary blood flow, 251
ischaemic preconditioning, 249
as a mediator, 204–206
metabolism, 471
nociceptive pathway, 510
receptors *See* Adenosine receptors
vasodilatation, 272
Adenosine deaminase, 681
Adenosine diphosphate (ADP), 204, 205f
action/effects, 205b
as a mediator, 206

and platelets, 206

Adenosine receptors, 204, 206t, 471
antagonists *See* Thienopyridines
blockers, 205b

Adenosine triphosphate (ATP), 21–23, 177, 204, 205f
action/effects, 205b, 470–471, 509
co-transmission, 147, 147f
in inflammation, 207
as a mediator, 207
metabolism, 471
NANC transmission, 145–147, 148t
as a neurotransmitter, 207
in nociception, 207
nociceptive pathway, 510

Adenovirus, 719–720

Adenylyl cyclase, 30, 32, 33f

ADH *See* Antidiuretic hormone (ADH)

ADHD *See* Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)

Adhesion molecules, 78, 80

Adipose tissue, 388–389

Administration, routes of, 106–110, 107f
drug dependence, 592*see also specific drugs; specific routes*

ADP *See* Adenosine diphosphate (ADP)

Adrenal cortex, 400–407

Adrenal hormone synthesis inhibitors, 683, 684b
Adrenaline, 139, 174
  action/effects, 7, 174, 182t–184t, 186, 256
  cardiac arrest, 252
  clinical uses, 255t
    allergic emergencies, 344
    shock, 281
  delaying drug absorption, 109
  efficacy, 13
  hypoglycaemia, 184–186, 372
  and local anaesthetics, 529
Adrenal medulla, 140–141, 400
Adrenal steroids, 84, 396, 399b, 402–406
  action/effects, 343, 400–405
    anti-inflammatory, 404–405
    immunosuppressive, 404–405
    metabolic and systemic, 402–403, 402b
    negative feedback on anterior pituitary and hypothalamus, 403–404
    unwanted, 343
  bone metabolism and remodelling, 437
  clinical uses, 401, 406b
    anticancer drugs, 683, 684b
    antiemesis, 367
    asthma, 342–343, 344b
    chronic bowel disease, 370

chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 344–345
thyroid disorders, 415
drug interactions, 635, 695
in hypoglycaemia, 372
as immunosuppressants, 330
inhalation administration, 109
mechanism of action, 402, 405b
new directions, 407–408
pharmacokinetics, 406
release, 402
replacement therapy, 401
secretion, 399b
synthesis, 402
unwanted effects, 406, 698 *See also* Mineralocorticoids *specific adrenal steroids*

Adrenoceptor agonists, 181–186, 186b
actions, 181–186, 182t–184t, 185f
clinical use, 186, 186b

Adrenoceptor antagonists, 186–190

Adrenoceptor(s)
characteristics, 176t
classification, 174–175, 175b
drugs acting on, 181–190
polymorphisms, 46

Adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH), 235t, 396, 398, 399b, 402, 565
actions, 398

antagonists, 280
effect of glucocorticoids, 403–404
receptors, 46
role in inflammation, 86
secretion, 398, 398f

Adrenomedulin, 37, 267

Adsorbent agents, 370

Advanced glycation end products (AGE), 377–378

Adverse drug reactions/harmful effects, 698–709
classification, 698–699
related to pharmacological action of drugs, 698–699
unrelated to pharmacological action of drugs, 699 *See also* Carcinogens *See also* Excitotoxicity *See also* Hypersensitivity *See also* Idiosyncratic reactions *See also* Teratogenicity *See also* Toxicity *specific drugs*

Aequorin, 49

Affective disorders, 564

Affinity, 8

African sleeping sickness, 665

After-depolarisation, 248, 248f

Afterload, 249–250, 265

Agar, 368

Age and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 690–691
drug metabolism, 690–691

renal excretion, 690
sensitivity to drugs, 691
AGEPC *See* Platelet activating factor (PAF)
Aggregation, 476, 478t
Aggression, 534
Agomelatine, 471
Agonist dose ratios, 18
Agonists, 8, 14b
versus antagonists, 7
full, 8, 11–13
inverse, 13, 14f
partial, 8, 11–15, 12f
trafficking, 37
Agouti-related peptide (AgRP), 388, 399
Agouti-signalling protein, 399
Agranulocytosis, 414, 561, 708
AIDS *See* HIV/AIDS
Akt, 39–40, 238–239
Albendazole, 670
action/effects, 616
clinical uses, 669
Albinism, 133
Albumin, 103–105, 120, 694

Alcohol *See* Ethanol

Alcohol dehydrogenase, 605

Alcohol-related neurodevelopmental disorder (ARND), 604–605

Aldehyde dehydrogenase, 179, 605–606

Aldesleukin, 686

Aldose reductase inhibitors, 378

Aldosterone, 64, 231, 350–351, 400–401, 401t, 406–407
  antagonists, 274t, 355–356
    pharmacokinetics, 355
    unwanted effects, 355–356
  escape, 280
  release, 407
  synthesis, 407

Alemtuzumab, 684

Alendronate, 438

Alfentanyl, 497, 510, 519

Alginates, 364

Alimenazine, 333t

Aliskiren, 274, 274t

Alkalinisation, urinary, 356–357

Alkylating agents, 677, 677t, 678f
  action/effects, 615
  and related compounds, 678–679, 679b
  teratogenicity, 706*see also specific drugs*

Allergic bronchopulmonary aspergillosis, 649
Allergy, 87
  antihistamines, 333–334
  emergencies, 344 *See also* Hypersensitivity
ALLHAT trial, 96
Allodynia, 503–505
Allopathy, 2
Allopurinol, 331–332, 357
  allergic reactions, 707
  drug interactions, 332, 695
N-Allylnormetazocine, 511–512
Almotriptan, 202t
Alopecia, 676
α-adrenoceptor agonists, 181
α-adrenoceptor antagonists, 181, 182t–184t, 186–187, 187b
  action/effects, 174, 182t–184t, 561
  clinical uses, 187, 187b
  non-selective, 186–187
  unwanted effects, 187
α-adrenoceptors, 143, 181
α_1-adrenoceptor agonists, 271
α_1-adrenoceptor antagonists
  clinical uses
    benign prostatic hypertrophy, 358

hypertension, 277–278, 279t
selective, 187
α_1-adrenoceptors, 174
action/effects, 175, 176t, 181
in the CNS, 461–462
α_2-adrenoceptor antagonists, 572–573
clinical uses, 383
selective, 187
α_2-adrenoceptors, 174
action/effects, 176t, 181, 184–186
in the CNS, 461–462
downregulation, 571
vasodilatation, 274
α-bungarotoxin, 23
Alphacalcidiol, 357–358, 439
α-endorphin, 232
α-Glucosidase inhibitors, 382–383
α-melanocyte-stimulating hormone (α-MSH), 388
α-methylnoradrenaline, 190
α-methyl-p-tyrosine, 182t–184t
α-methyltyrosine, 177, 190, 193b, 584–585
α-oxoglutarate, 448
α-synuclein, 486
α-tocopherol, 480

α-toxins, 23

Alphaxolone, 458, 492

Alprazolam
  characteristics, 533t
  clinical uses, 534

Alprenolol, 182t–184t, 187–188

Alprostadil, 216b, 429

Alteplase, 307, 481, 481b

Alternative pathway, 79

Alternative therapeutic principles, 2–3

Aluminium hydroxide, 358, 364

Aluminium salts, 364

Alvimopan, 515, 520

Alzheimer's disease, 476, 481–485, 483b
  animal models, 93
  loss of cholinergic neurons, 483
  pathogenesis, 481–483, 482f
  protein misfolding and aggregation, 478t
  in smokers, 601
  therapeutic approaches, 483–485
    cholinesterase inhibitors, 483–484, 484t
    memantine, 483–485

Amanita phalloides, 700

Amantadine, 645, 646b

clinical uses
bipolar disorder, 581
Parkinson's disease, 486, 489
Amascarine, 681
Ames test, 703
Amfetamine psychosis, 585–586
Amfetamine(s), 191, 462, 584–586, 585t, 586b
action/effects, 182t–184t, 193b, 554, 559–560
behavioural effects, 465
chemical use, 586
chronic use, tolerance and dependence, 585–586
clinical uses, 391
dependence, 593t
drug interactions, 578
exhaustion of mediators, 16
pharmacokinetics, 586
pharmacological effects, 584–585
related drugs, 584–586
structure, 585f
unwanted effects, 586
use in sport, 712t, 713, 714b
Amidation, 228
Amikacin, 630
antibacterial spectrum, 630
resistance, 630

Amiloride, 356
excretion, 352–353
pharmacokinetics, 356
sodium channel blocking, 64
unwanted effects, 356
Amino acid(s)
excitatory *See* Excitatory amino acids
transmitters, 448–460, 449f
Aminoglutethimide, 402, 683
Aminoglycoside antibiotics, 167, 167b, 630–631
action/effects, 631b
antibacterial spectrum, 630
elimination/excretion, 120
inactivation, 619
mechanism of action, 624t, 630
ototoxicity, 135
pharmacokinetics, 630
resistance, 619, 630
unwanted effects, 630–631, 704t
Amino laevulinic acid (ALA), 134
Aminophylline, 588
clinical uses
asthma, 341
status asthmaticus, 343
Aminopyridines, 172

Aminosalicylates, 370

5-Aminosalicylic acid, 327–328, 370

Amiodarone, 257, 259
  action/effects, 256
  clinical uses, 257b
  drug interactions, 694
  mechanism of action, 255t
  partitioning into fat/tissues, 106
  repeated dosing, 126
  thyroid dysfunction, 413

Amiphenazole, 713

Amisulpride
  action/effects, 558
  clinical efficacy, 563
  clinical uses, 562b

Amitriptyline, 567, 574, 576b
  characteristics, 568t–570t
  clinical uses, 581
    neuropathic pain, 521
    nocturnal enuresis, 358
  drug interactions, 365

Ammonium chloride, 357

Amnesia, 535

Amodiaquine, 660

Amoebapores, 664

Amoebas, 655, 656t
Amoebiasis, 664
Amoebicidal drugs, 664
Amorolfine, 653
Amoxicillin, 627
  clinical uses, 627b, 630b
  drug interactions, 426
AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), 380
AMPAkines, 455, 555
Ampalex, 455
AMPA receptors
  activation, 477
  effects of ethanol, 603
  glutamate, 449, 451, 454–455
Amphenicols, 629–630
  antibacterial spectrum, 629
  clinical uses, 630b
  mechanism of action, 624t
  pharmacokinetics, 630
  unwanted effects, 630
Amphotericin, 615, 617b, 650–651
  action/effects, 650
  clinical uses, 666
  packaging in liposomes, 113
  pharmacokinetics, 650

unwanted effects, 651
Ampicillin, 627
resistance, 619
Amprenavir, 643
Amrinone, 259
Amygdala, 388
Amygdaloid nucleus, 463
Amylin, 372, 377, 387t
Amyl nitrite, 260–261, 589
Amyloid, 377, 481–482
Amyloid deposits, 476, 481–483
Amyloid precursor protein, 93, 481–483
Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, 478t, 480
Anabolic steroids, 423, 711–713
Anabolism, 115
Anacetrapib, 288
Anaemia
aplastic, 692, 699, 708
haemolytic, 316–317, 708
treatment, 309–314
types of, 309
Anaesthetics, general, 446t, 492–502
clinical uses, 501b

in combination with other drugs, 502
dependence, 593t
inhalation, 497–500, 499f
characteristics, 498t
clinical uses, 501b
currently used, 500–501, 501b
idiosyncratic reactions, 692
induction and recovery, 498–499
metabolism, 500
pharmacokinetics, 497–500, 500b
solubility, 498
toxicity, 500
intravenous, 495–497, 496t, 497b, 501b
mechanism of action, 492–495
effects, 495b
effects on ion channels, 493–494
effects on the cardiovascular system, 494–495
effects on the nervous system, 494
effects on the respiratory system, 494–495
lipid solubility, 492–493
muscarinic antagonists and, 163b
theories of, 494b
Anaesthetics, local, 525–530
administration methods, 529t
chemical aspects, 525
history, 525–530
mechanism of action, 525–526, 526f, 528b

other therapeutic uses, 529–530, 530b
pharmacokinetics, 528–529, 528b
properties, 527t
receptor, 7
structure, 526f
unwanted effects, 528, 528b, 707–708
Anakinra, 330, 331t
Analgesic drugs, 446t, 503–524
bioassays, 92, 92f
clinical uses, 523b
effects of opioids, 514
in general anaesthesia, 494
new approaches, 522–523
non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, 321–322
Analgesic nephropathy, 323, 702
Anandamide, 223, 224f, 452, 472
actions/effects, 473, 508
biosynthesis, 223
transport, 224
Anaphase, 68
Anaphylactic hypersensitivity/shock, 87, 699, 707–708, 708b
Anaphylatoxin, 79
Anaphylaxis, 344
Anastrozole, 683, 726
Androgens, 418–419, 422–423

actions, 423
clinical uses, 423b
hormonal control of the male reproductive system, 423b
mechanism of action, 423
pharmacokinetics, 423
preparations, 423
sexual behaviour, 419–420
unwanted effects, 423, 704t
use in sport, 712t

Androstane receptor (CAR), 42

Androstenedione, 422–423

Angel dust *See* Phencyclidine

Angina, 253
management *See* Antianginal drugs
stable, 253
unstable, 253
variant, 253

Angiogenesis, 66, 70, 99
inhibitors, 75
tumour cells, 687
vascular endothelium in, 267

Angio-oedema, 275, 344

Angioplasty, 253–254

Angiotensin, 62
action, 231

specificity, 7 *See also* Renin-angiotensin system

Angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE), 218, 270
action, 275f
inhibitors *See* Angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors

Angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors
atheromatous disease prevention, 288
causing angio-oedema, 344
clinical uses, 275b
heart failure, 280
hypertension, 277, 279t
renal failure, 357–358
myocardial infarction, 254
pharmacological effects, 275
unwanted effects, 275
on the fetus, 704t
kidneys, 701–702
vasodilatation, 274–275, 274t, 276f

Angiotensin I, 270

Angiotensin II, 267, 270
action, 270
antagonists, 357–358
receptor antagonists *See* Angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs)
vasoconstriction, 271

Angiotensin III, 270

Angiotensin IV, 270, 296–297

Angiotensinogen, 270
Angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs)
  clinical uses, 276b
    heart failure, 280
    hypertension, 279t
  myocardial infarction, 254
  vasodilatation, 274t, 275–276
Anidulafungin, 652
Animal testing/models, 92–93
  Alzheimer's disease, 93
  anxiety, 531–532
  depression, 571, 571t
  disease, 92–93
  drug-induced reward, 594
  epilepsy, 542–543
  genetic and transgenic, 93
  obesity, 93
  Parkinson's disease, 93
  toxicity, 698–700
Ankylostoma duodenale, 668
Annexin-1, 81, 343, 402
Anopheles mosquito, 655–658, 657f
Anorexia, 488
Anorexigenic neurons, 388
Antacids, 364

Antagonism
chemical, 15
competitive, 10–11, 10f–11f, 11b
allosteric effects, 11
irreversible, 10f, 11, 12f
reversible, 10f, 11
insurmountable, 10
pharmacokinetic, 15
physiological, 15
surmountable, 10
Antagonists, 8, 14b
versus agonists, 7
allosteric, 11
neutral, 13
Antazoline, 332–333
Antecedents of pharmacology, 1–2
Anterograde amnesia, 535
Anthracyclines, 681–682
Anthroquinone laxatives, 368
Antiandrogens, 423b, 424
clinical uses, 683, 684b
Antianginal drugs, 259–263
Antibacterial drugs, 622–637
affecting bacterial protein synthesis, 628–631, 631b
affecting topoisomerase, 631–632, 632b

interfering with folate synthesis or action, 622–625
mechanism of action, 624t
possible new, 636
resistance, 618b
biochemical mechanisms, 618–619, 619b
current status, 619–620
genetic determinants, 617–618
targets, 610*see also specific classes; specific drugs*
Antibiotics
aminoglycoside *See* Aminoglycoside antibiotics
antifungal, 650–652
clinical uses
shock, 281
cytotoxic, 677, 677t, 681–682, 682b
intrathecal injection, 109–110
polyene, 615
and warfarin, 301 *See also* Chemotherapy
Antibodies, 235t, 645
and basophils, 86
and cellular cytotoxicity, 85
and complement, 85
humanised, 234–235
and mast cells, 86
and the phagocytosis of bacteria, 85
Antibody-dependent cytotoxic hypersensitivity, 87
Antibody-drug conjugates, 113

Antibody-mediated (humoral) response, 84–86

Anticancer drugs, 673–688, 677t
  drug interactions, 693
  emesis, 686
  future developments, 687
  general principles, 676–677, 676b
  myelosuppression, 686–687
  resistance, 686
  treatment schedules, 686

Anticholinesterases, 168–171, 170t, 171b, 483–484, 484t
  action, 169f
  clinical uses, 171b
  effects of, 170–171
  irreversible, 169–170
  medium-duration, 169
  short-acting, 168–169

Anticoagulants
  factors that lessen the effect of, 301
  factors that potentiate oral, 301
  pulmonary hypertension, 282
  unwanted effects, 302

Anticonvulsants *See* Antiepileptic drugs

Anticytokine drugs, 330–331

Antidepressant drugs, 446t, 564–583
  characteristics, 568t–570t

clinical effectiveness of, 580
clinical uses, 447, 581
anxiety, 532, 538b
fibromyalgia, 522
effects, 18, 445
future, 579
mechanism of action
chronic adaptive changes, 571–572
gene expression, 573
neurogenesis, 573
noradrenergic control of 5-HT release, 572–573, 572f–573f
testing, 571
tricyclic *See* Tricyclic antidepressants
types of, 567, 567b, 568t–570t*see also specific drugs; specific types*
Antidiarrhoeal agents, 369
Antidiuretic hormone (ADH), 231, 235t, 350, 396, 399–400
actions, 399–400
administration routes, 109
clinical uses, 281, 400b
inhibition, 352
and nephrogenic diabetes insipidus, 351–352
pharmacokinetics, 400
physiological role, 399
receptors, 46, 399
regulation of secretion, 399
unwanted effects, 400

vasoconstriction, 271, 272b
Antidysrhythmic drugs, 254–258
class I, 254–256
class Ia, 255–256, 257b
class Ib, 255, 257b
class Ic, 255, 257b
clinical uses, 257b
class II *See* β-adrenoceptor antagonists
class III, 255–257
clinical uses, 257b
class IV *See* Calcium channel antagonists/blockers
clinical use, 521
drug interactions, 693
mechanisms of action, 255–256
Vaughan William classification, 254, 255t
Antiemetic drugs, 366–367, 368b
receptor antagonists, 366–367
Antiepileptic drugs, 446t, 540–552
benzodiazepines, 535
clinical uses, 550, 551b
bipolar disorder, 582, 582b
fibromyalgia, 522
neuropathic pain, 521, 522b
drug interactions, 693–694
and HLAB*1502, 135
mechanism of action, 543–546, 546b

enhancement of GABA action, 545
inhibition of calcium channels, 546
inhibition of sodium channel function, 545–546
muscle spasm and muscle relaxants, 551
new drug development, 550
and pregnancy, 551, 706
properties, 544t–545t
unwanted effects, 706*see also individual drugs*
Antifungal drugs, 649–654
antibiotics, 650–652
future developments, 653
sites of action, 651f
synthetic, 652
Antigenic drift, 647
Antigen presentation, 81
Antigen-presenting cells (APCs), 82–84, 84f
Antihelminthic drugs, 668–672
action/effects, 616, 617b
resistance, 671
Antihistamines *See* Histamine H_1 receptor, antagonists
Antihypertensive drugs, 132, 277–278, 279t
Anti-IgE treatment, 343
Anti-inflammatory drugs, 318–335
asthma treatment, 340, 342–343, 344b
atheromatous disease prevention, 288

Antimalarial drugs, 655–663, 658t
acute attack, 658–659
affecting folate metabolism, 661–662
chemoprophylaxis, 659
as disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs, 328
drug targets of, 659t
and the parasite life cycle, 658b
pH partition, 101
potential new, 663
radical cure, 659
structure, 660f
transmission prevention, 659
Antimetabolites, 677, 677t, 680–681, 681b, 706
Antimotility agents, 369–370
Antimycobacterial agents, 624t, 634–636
Antioestrogens, 421, 421b
clinical uses, 421b, 683
Antioncogens *See* Tumour suppressor genes
Antioxidants, 288, 480
Antiplatelet drugs, 302–305, 305b
clinical uses, 305b
peripheral vascular disease, 281
drug interactions, 695
unstable angina, 253
Antiprogestogens, 422, 422b

Antiproliferative agents, implantable, 113

Antiprotozoal drugs, 655–667

Antipsychotic drugs, 446t, 553–563
  behavioural effects, 559–560
  characteristics, 556t–557t
  classification, 555, 558b
  clinical efficacy, 562–563
  clinical uses, 447, 562–563, 562b
    antiemesis, 367
    anxiety, 532
    bipolar disorder, 582, 582b
  effects, 445, 559–560
  esterification, 109
  future developments, 563
  idiosyncratic reactions, 692
  mechanism of action, 559b
  pharmacokinetics, 562
  pharmacological properties, 558–559
    dopamine receptors, 558–559
    hydroxytryptamine receptors, 559
    muscarinic acetylcholine receptors, 559
  unwanted effects, 560–561, 561b, 698
    endocrine effects, 560
    extrapyramidal motor disturbances, 560, 561b

Antipsychotic malignant syndrome, 561

Antipyretics, 321

Antirheumatoid drugs, 326–330, 326f
disease-modifying, 326–328, 326f
Antischizophrenic drugs *See* Antipsychotic drugs
Antisense oligonucleotides, 687, 723–724, 724b
Antithrombin III, 294, 299
Antithrombotic drugs
drug interactions, 693
implantable, 113
Anti-tumour necrosis factor agents, 330, 334, 717
Antitussive drugs, 345
Antiviral drugs, 638–648
biopharmaceuticals, 644t
chemokine receptor antagonists, 644t
DNA polymerase inhibitors, 644t, 646b
drug interactions, 693
immunomodulators, 644t, 646b
inhibitors of HIV fusion with host cells, 644t, 646b
inhibitors of viral coat disassembly, 644t, 646b
integrase inhibitors, 644t
neuraminidase inhibitors, 644t
non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors, 643, 644t, 646b
nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors, 641–646, 644t, 646b
prospects for new, 647
protease inhibitors, 643–644, 644t, 646b
Anturane Reinfarction Trial Research Group, 97

Anxiety
animal models of, 531–532
disorders, 531
human tests, 532
nature of, 531
treatment *See* Anxiolytics
Anxiolytics, 446t, 533b
antiepileptic drugs as, 550
benzodiazepines, 533–538
buspirone, 538–539
dependence, 593t
measurement of anxiolytic activity, 531–532
potential, 539
Apaf-1, 72
Apathy, 560
Aplastic anaemia, 692, 699, 708
ApoA-I Milano, 288
Apoferritin, 311
Apomorphine, 488
blood-brain barrier, 110
clinical uses, 429
Apoprotein, 286
Apoptosis, 50–51, 70–72, 477–478
and cancer development, 674–675
excessive, 70

major players in, 71, 71f
morphological changes in, 71
pathways to, 72
promoters, 74–75
Apoptosome, 71f, 72
Apoptotic initiating factor (AIF), 71
Apoptotic pathway inhibition, 640
Appetite, 388, 468
Appetite suppression, 586
Aprepitant, 231, 367
Aquaporins, 100, 351, 399
Aqueous diffusion, 99
Aqueous humour, 158–159
Arachidonate, 212
Arachidonic acid, 212, 214f, 374, 472, 472f
metabolism, 472–473
metabolites, 63
N-Arachidonyethanolamide, 223
2-Arachidonyl glycerol (2-AG), 223, 472
biosynthesis, 223–224
transport, 224
Arachis oil, 368
Arcuate nucleus (ARC), 388

Area postrema, 196, 467, 515

Arecoline, 589

Arenaviruses, 646

Aripiprazole
  action/effects, 560
  characteristics, 556t–557t
  clinical uses, 581–582, 582b

Aromatic hydrocarbon (Ah) receptor, 118

Arousal, 462, 470

Arsenic, 2

Artemether, 661–662

Artemisinin, 658, 662–663, 663b

Artemisinin derivatives, 659

Arterial thrombus, 294, 295f

Arteries, 265–266

Arterioles, 265

Artesunate, 662, 663b

Artether, 662

Articaine
  properties, 527t
  unwanted effects, 528

Ascaris lumbricoides, 668

Ascorbic acid, 480, 711t

Asparaginase, 235t, 685, 707–708
Aspartate, 448
Aspergillus, 649, 650t
Aspirin, 302–304, 319t, 323–325, 324b
  absorption, 101
  action, 319
  and Alzheimer's disease, 484
  angina, 253
  asthma, 339
  causing angio-oedema, 344
  clinical uses, 304f, 323–324
  drug interactions, 325
  metabolism, 118–119
  pharmacokinetics, 130, 324
  poisoning, 324–325
  resistance, 304
  -sensitive asthma, 323
  unwanted effects, 324–325, 699
  urate secretion inhibition, 357
  and warfarin, 301
Astemizole, 652
Asthma, 337–339, 340b
  adenosine and, 206
  aspirin-sensitive, 323, 339
  characteristics, 337
  immediate phase, 338, 338f–339f

late phase, 338f–339f, 339
and nitric oxide, 243
pathogenesis, 337–339, 338f
status asthmaticus, 337, 343
treatment, 340–343
anti-inflammatory agents, 340, 342–343, 344b
β_2 agonists, 186
bronchodilators, 340–342, 341b
Astrocytes, 443
Asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA), 238, 242
Asystolic arrest, 247–248
Atavoquone, 663
Atazanavir, 643
Atenolol, 187–188
Atherogenesis, 285–286, 601
Atheromatous disease, 285, 289b
prevention, 288
risk factors, 285
Atherosclerosis, 285–293, 604
Atomoxetine, 191, 567, 577
action/effects, 193b
clinical use, 581, 586
Atorvastatin, 289
Atosiban, 428, 429b

Atovaquone, 658, 663b

ATP *See* Adenosine triphosphate (ATP)

ATP-binding cassette (ABC), 21–23

ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters, 101

ATP-gated potassium channel, 44

ATP-sensitive potassium channels, 43

Atracurium, 164, 167b
  characteristics, 165t
  pharmacokinetics, 165–166
  unwanted effects, 164

Atria, 246

Atrial fibrillation, 247–248

Atrial natriuretic peptide (ANP), 252, 270

Atrioventricular (AV) node, 246

Atropine, 139, 151, 159–160, 590
  clinical uses, 255t, 369
  drug interactions, 693
  effects
    central nervous system, 161
    tachycardia, 161
  excretion, 352–353
  lifestyle use, 710

Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), 586

Auerbach's plexus, 360

Augmerosen, 687

Auranofin, 328

Autoantibodies, 45–46

Autoimmune disease, 87, 328

Autoinhibitory feedback, 144, 178, 178f

Autonomic efferent pathway, 140

Autonomic ganglia, 140

Autonomic nervous system
basic anatomy and physiology, 140–141, 140f, 143b
chemical mediators in, 139–150
main effects of, 142t
respiratory system, 336–337
role in inflammation, 86–87
transmitters in, 141–143, 143b *See also* Enteric nervous system *See also* Parasympathetic nervous system *See also* Sympathetic nervous system

Avermectins, 616, 617b, 671

Azapropazone, 319t

Azathioprine, 330
clinical uses, 370
drug interactions, 332, 695
metabolism, 118–119
unwanted effects, 706

Azelastine, 332–333

Azithromycin, 631
antimicrobial spectrum, 631
clinical use, 666
pharmacokinetics, 631
Azoles, 615–616, 649–650, 652
Aztreonam, 628, 629b

B

Bacillus, 623t

Bacitracin, 612, 622

Baclofen, 458, 459b
  clinical uses
    Huntington's disease, 489
    muscle tone control, 551
  intrathecal injection, 109–110

Bacteria, 609
  clinically significant pathogenic, 623t
  conjugation, 618
  decreased drug accumulation in, 619
  discovery of, 1
  phagocytosis, 85
  resistance genes, 617–618
  transduction, 618
  transformation, 618

Bacterial envelope, 610

Bad dreams, 189

Bak, 72

Balsalazide, 370

Barbiturates
  as anaesthetics, 492
  dependence, 593t

drug interactions, 430
tolerance, 16

Basic drugs
binding, 103
excretion, 120
ionization, 120
weak, 101, 102f–103f

Basiliximab, 330, 331t

Basophils
antibodies and, 86
histamine in, 211
innate immune response, 81

Batrachotoxin, 57

Bax, 72, 74, 478

BAY41-2272, 272

Bayesian analysis, 96

BAY K 8644, 262

B cells, 82–83, 372, 380

Bcl-2 protein family, 72, 478

BCR-ABL1, 137

Beclometasone, 343

Bed wetting, 358

Behaviour
effect of antipsychotics on, 559–560

effect of dopamine on, 465
effects of ethanol, 603
sexual, 419–420
Bendroflumethiazide, 355
Benefit and risk, clinical trials, 97–98
Benign prostatic hyperplasia, 181, 187, 358
Benserazide, 487
Benzbromarone, 332
Benzimidazoles, 670
action/effects, 616, 617b
resistance, 671
Benznidazole, 665
Benzocaine
chemical aspects, 525
pharmacokinetics, 529
Benzodiazepines, 533–538, 538b
antagonists, 537–538
channel gating, 20–21
characteristics, 533t
clinical uses, 534–535
aggression, 534
alcohol dependence, 597b, 607
anterograde amnesia, 535
anticonvulsant effects, 535
anxiety, 532, 534

bipolar disorder, 581
epilepsy, 548, 550b
fibromyalgia, 522
insomnia, 532
reduction of muscle tone, 535
sedation, 534–535
sleep induction, 534–535
dependence, 593t
effect on GABA receptors, 458
endogenous benzodiazepine-like mediator, 535
inverse agonists, 537–538
mechanism of action, 533–534
pharmacokinetics, 536
pharmacological effects, 534–535
postsynaptic modulation, 145
properties, 544t–545t
unwanted effects, 536–537
acute toxicity, 536
during therapeutic use, 536–537
tolerance on dependence, 537
Benzomorphan series, 510
Benzothiazepines, 262
Benzylpenicillin, 622, 627, 627b, 629b
Beractant, 345
β-adrenoceptor agonists, 181, 261
clinical uses

asthma, 340–341
thyroid disorders, 415
unwanted effects, 341
β-adrenoceptor antagonists, 181, 182t–184t, 187–190, 189b, 257
action/effects, 174, 182t–184t, 188–189
antidysrhythmic action, 254, 256
clinical uses, 189, 189b, 257b
angina, 259, 261–262
anxiety, 532
heart failure, 280
hypertension, 277, 279t
pathological tremor, 186
tachycardia, 205
and ethnicity, 689
myocardial infarction, 254
unwanted effects, 189–190, 257
use in sport, 712t
β-adrenoceptor kinase (BARK), 35
β-adrenoceptors, 7, 9f, 143
actions, 181
molecular structure, 28
respiratory system, 336
translocation, 16
β_1-adrenoceptors, 174–175
action/effects, 176t, 184–186
agonists, 259

antagonists, 174–175
in the CNS, 461–462
downregulation, 571
effect on heart, 251–252
Beta-blocker Heart Attack Trial Research Group, 96
β_2-adrenoceptor agonists, 174–175
actions/effects
unwanted, 186
on the uterus, 428
clinical uses, 186
potentiation of nitric oxide, 243
use in sport, 712t
β_2-adrenoceptors, 174–175
action/effects, 175, 176t, 181
in the CNS, 461–462
mutations, 46
β_3-adrenoceptors, 174
action/effects, 176t, 184–186
agonists, 392
β-alanine, 458
β-Bungarotoxin, 167–168
Betacarbolines, 535
β-endorphin, 232, 513t
β-globulin, 103
β-lactamases, 618–619

β-lactams, 616b, 625–628, 629b
action/effects, 612
inactivation, 618–619
mechanism of action, 624t
resistance, 619*see also specific types*
β-lipotrophin, 232
Betamethasone, 401t
Bethanechol, 157–158
Bethanidine, 190–191
Bevacizumab, 70, 75, 684, 685b
Bezafibrate, 290
Bezoar, 365
Bias, 95
Bicalutamide, 683
Bicarbonate, 349
Bicuculline, 456–458, 459b, 535
Bid, 72
Bifeprunox, 560
Biguanides, 379–380
actions, 379–380
clinical uses, 380, 383
mechanism of action, 379–380
unwanted effects, 380

Bile acid-binding resins, 290, 291b

Bilharzia, 668

Biliary colic, 370

Biliary system
  drugs affecting, 370
  excretion, 119

Bilirubin, 694

Billy whizz *See* Amfetamine(s)

Binding assays, 90

Binding (of drugs)
  to plasma proteins, 103–105, 105f
  to proteins, 6–15
  versus receptor activation, 8, 8f
  to receptors, 8–9, 9f, 16–18
  specificity, 7

Bioassays, 89–92, 91b
  design of, 91–92
  general principles, 90–92
  standards, 90–91, 92f
  test systems, 89–90

Bioavailability, 108, 110b, 123–124

Biochemistry, emergence of, 2

Bioequivalence, 108, 123–124

Biologically erodible nanoparticles, 112

Biological response modifiers, 686

Biopharmaceuticals, 3, 89, 330–331, 331t, 715–718
  antiviral, 644t, 645–646
  definition, 716b
  development, 729
  first-generation, 716
  future developments, 334
  monoclonal antibodies, 717–718
  polypeptides, 716–717
  potential uses, 716b
  proteins, 716–717
  second-generation, 716, 716t
  third-generation, 716

Biotechnology
  definition of, 4–5
  emergence of, 3

Bipolar disorder, 550, 564
  drug treatment of, 581–582, 582b

Bisacodyl, 368

Bismuth chelate
  gastric mucosa protection, 365
  unwanted effects, 365

Bisoprolol, 280

Bisphosphonates, 438b
  clinical uses, 437–438, 438b

mechanism of action, 438
pharmacokinetics, 438
structure, 437f
unwanted effects, 438

Bivalirudin, 300

Blastomyces dermatides, 650t

Bleeding *See* Haemorrhage

Bleomycin, 615, 682, 682b

Blood
coagulation *See* Coagulation
flow, 265
haemopoietic system, 309
5-hydroxytryptamine in, 194
reactions *See* Haematological reactions

Blood-brain barrier, 110–111, 445–446

Blood:gas partition coefficient, 498

Blood glucose control, 372, 373f, 378

Blood pressure
ACh effects, 151, 152f
and diabetes mellitus, 378
and oral contraceptives, 426
regulation, 462

Blood vessels, 141
autonomic nervous system effects on, 142t
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine on, 195 *See also* Vascular system

B-natriuretic peptide (BNP), 252

Body fluid compartments *See* Compartments, body fluid

Body mass index (BMI), 385

Body weight regulation
  hormones role in, 385–388, 386f–387f
  neurological circuits controlling, 388–389

Bone
  composition, 432
  disorders, 437–440(*see also specific disorders*)
  metabolism, 432–441
  mineral turnover, 434, 435f, 437b
  remodelling, 432–437, 434b
    action of cells and cytokines, 432–434, 433f
    hormones involved in, 435–437
    important cells for, 432
  structure, 432

Bone marrow, 309
  drug toxicity, 136
  toxicity of anticancer drugs, 676

Bone morphogenic proteins (BMPs), 432–433

Bordatella, 623t

Bortezomib, 74–75, 685

Bosentan, 234

Botox, 168 *See also* Botulinum toxin

Botulinum poisoning, 168
Botulinum toxin, 167, 167b, 458
clinical uses, 168, 522
lifestyle use, 711t
potency, 167–168
Bovine spongiform encephalopathy (BSE), 489–490
Bowman's capsule, 347–349
Boyle, Robert, 1
Bradycardia, 247
β-receptor antagonists, 189
effects of opioids, 515
suxamethonium-induced, 166
Bradykinin, 217–219, 219b
actions, 219
antagonists, 218f
and carcinoid syndrome, 202
formation of, 218, 218f
inactivation, 218
metabolism, 218
and pain, 508, 508f
receptors, 218–219
role in inflammation, 219
source of, 218
structure, 218f
Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), 455, 478, 543

central facilitation, 505
and depression, 565
Brain stimulation, 579–580
Parkinson's disease, 489
Bran, 368
BRCA1/BRCA2, 673
Breast cancer, 673
Breathing *See* Respiration
Bretylium, 190–191
Brivaracetam, 549
Bromocriptine, 397
action/effects, 199, 465–466, 554
clinical use, 397, 398b, 465, 488
effect on prolactin secretion, 397–398
properties, 199t
4-Bromo-2,5-dimethoxyphenethylamine, 590
Bronchial hyper-reactivity, 337
Bronchial secretion
effects of muscarinic agonists, 158
effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161
Bronchial smooth muscle, 141
Bronchitis, 344
Bronchoconstriction
β-receptor antagonists, 189

effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161
effects of opioids, 515
nitric oxide, 242
Bronchodilators
clinical uses
asthma, 340–342, 341b
chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
inhalation administration, 109
Brucella, 623t
Brugia malayi, 668–669
Brussels sprouts, 117
Buchheim, Rudolf, 1
Budesonide, 343, 370
Bulk laxatives, 368
Bumetanide, 353–354
Bundle of His, 246
Bupivacaine
action/effects, 528
clinical uses, 530b
intrathecal injection, 109–110
properties, 527t
Buprenorphine, 510, 518t–519t, 520
administration, 108
clinical uses

gallstone pain, 370
opioid dependence, 597b
Bupropion, 567, 577, 577b
characteristics, 568t–570t
clinical uses, 581
ethanol dependence, 605b
smoking cessation, 597b, 601–602
lifestyle use, 710, 711t
Buserelin, 424, 683
Buspirone, 468, 469b, 532, 538–539, 538b
Busulfan, 678
Butoxamine, 182t–184t
Butyrylcholinesterase (BuChE), 168, 171b

C

C1 esterase, 344

C3, 79, 85

C3a, 79–81

C3b, 79–80

C5, 79

C5a, 79–81

Cabergoline, 397–398, 465–466

Cadmium, 706

Caffeine, 52, 588
  action/effects, 206, 471, 588
  clinical use, 588
  lifestyle use, 710, 711t, 713b
  unwanted effects, 702
  use in sport, 712t, 713, 714b

Calcifediol, 436

Calciferol *See* Vitamin D

Calcimimetics, 440

Calcineurin, 329

Calciphylaxis, 358

Calcitonin, 235t, 410
  administration routes, 109
  bone metabolism and remodelling, 437

clinical uses
analgesia, 522
bone disorders, 439, 439b
Calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP), 37, 219, 504–505
antagonists, 509
central facilitation, 505
discovery of, 229
and migraine, 200
NANC transmission, 148t
nociceptive pathway, 509
Calcitriol, 350, 434, 436
clinical uses, 357–358, 439
Calcium-activated potassium channels, 43
Calcium (bone mineral), 434, 435f
Calcium carbonate, 440
Calcium channel antagonists/blockers, 257–258, 258b, 263b
actions/effects, 262–263
antidysrhythmic, 256
cardiac, 254, 262
ischaemic tissue protection, 263
unwanted, 263
vascular smooth muscle, 262–263
clinical uses, 263b
angina, 259, 262–263, 262f
hypertension, 277, 279t

mechanism of action, 262
pharmacokinetics, 263
vasodilatation, 272

Calcium channels
effect of antiepileptic drugs, 546
functions, 51t
heart, 246, 249
ligand-gated, 50–51
L-type *See* L-type calcium channels
store-operated, 44, 51, 51t
T-type *See* T-type calcium channels
types, 51t
voltage-gated, 44, 49–50, 51t

Calcium chloride, 255t

Calcium gluconate, 358, 439–440

Calcium-induced calcium release (CICR), 52

Calcium (ions)
calmodulin, 52
chemical mediators release, 62
effect of glucocorticoids, 403
entry mechanisms, 49–51
epithelial ion transport, 64
extrusion mechanisms, 51–52
muscle contraction, 59–61
regulation, 49–52, 50f, 53b
release mechanisms, 52

transport
renal, 350
and thiazide diuretics, 355
Calcium lactate, 439–440
Calcium polystyrene sulphonate, 358
Calcium release channels, 43–44
Calcium salts, 439–440, 440b
Calmodulin, 52
Calomel, 1
cAMP, 32, 33f, 64
effect on heart, 251–252
vasodilatation, 272–273
cAMP response element binding protein (CREB), 596–597
Camptothecins, 682
Campylobacter spp., 369, 623t
Canal of Schlemm, 158–159, 159f
Cancer, 673
drug therapy *See* Anticancer drugs
effects of smoking, 600
gene therapy for, 722–723, 723b
growth, invasion and metastasis, 73
pathogenesis, 673–676, 675f, 676b
risk, oral contraceptives, 426*see also specific types*
Cancer cells, 609

compartments, 676
control of tumour-related blood vessels, 675
dedifferentiation and loss of function, 675
genesis, 673–674
invasiveness, 675
metastasis, 675–676
resistance to apoptosis, 674–675
special characteristics, 674–676
telomerase expression, 675
uncontrolled proliferation, 674–675
Candesartan, 274t, 275–276
Candida albicans, 650t
Candidiasis, 406, 649
Cannabidiol, 221
Cannabinoids, 221–227
clinical uses, 226
analgesia, 522
antiemesis, 367
obesity, 392–393
plant-derived, 221–222
adverse effects, 222
analytical aspects, 222
dependence, 222
pharmacokinetics, 222
pharmacological effects, 221
tolerance, 222

receptors, 222–223
activation, 225
agonists, 225, 226b, 369
antagonists, 225–226, 226b
CB_1, 222–223, 223f, 225, 473
antagonists, 225–226
CB_2, 222–223, 473
cloning, 225
depolarisation-induced suppression of inhibition, 225
synthetic, 225–226

Cannabinol, 221

Cannabis, 221b
adverse effects, 222
analytical aspects, 222
clinical uses, 551
dependence, 222, 593t
erectile dysfunction, 429
lifestyle use, 710, 711t
pharmacokinetics, 222
pharmacological effects, 221
tolerance, 222

Canrenone, 355

Capecitabine, 681

Capillaries, 265

Capreomycin

clinical use, 634–635
unwanted effects, 635
Capsaicin, 43, 507–508, 522
Capsid, 638
Capsules, intestinal absorption, 107–108
Captopril, 235t
unwanted effects, 702
vasodilatation, 274–275, 274t
Carbachol, 154, 158
Carbamazepine
clinical uses
bipolar disorder, 581–582, 582b
epilepsy, 543, 546, 550b
neuropathic pain, 521, 522b
drug interactions, 342, 426, 430, 634, 694
effect on antidiuretic hormone, 399–400
and HLAB*1502, 135
induction of microsomal enzymes, 118
pharmacokinetics, 546
in pregnancy, 551
properties, 544t–545t
unwanted effects, 546
allergic reactions, 707
on the fetus, 704t, 706
Carbamyl esters, 169

Carbapenems, 618, 624t, 628, 629b

Carbenicillin, 111

Carbenoxolone, 407

Carbidopa, 182t–184t, 190, 193b, 487

Carbimazole, 414, 414f, 415b
  unwanted effects, 699b, 708, 708b

Carbohydrates, effect of glucocorticoids, 402–403, 402b

Carbon dioxide, partial pressure, 336

Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors, 356–357

Carbonium ion, 678

Carbon monoxide, 267, 472, 601

Carboplatin, 679

Carboprost, 216b, 428

Carboxylation, 228

Carcinogenesis, 702–704, 703b
  measurement of, 703–704

Carcinogens, 673, 699, 704b

Carcinoid syndrome, 202–203

Cardiac depression, β-receptor antagonists, 189

Cardiac failure, β-receptor antagonists, 189

Cardiac glycosides, 258–259
  action/effects, 258
  clinical uses, 280

effects of extracellular potassium, 259
in mechanism, 258–259
pharmacokinetic aspects, 259
unwanted effects, 258
Cardiac muscle *See* Heart muscle
Cardiac natriuretic peptides, 252–253
Cardiac output, 249
Cardiotonic steroids (CTSs), 258
Cardiovascular system
adenosine and the, 205
disease, gene therapy for, 723
effect of glucocorticoids, 402b
effects of β-receptor antagonists, 189
effects of ethanol, 603
effects of general anaesthetics on, 494–495
effects of histamine, 211
effects of leukotrienes, 216
effects of local anaesthetics, 528
effects of muscarinic agonists, 158
effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161, 163b
effects of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, 323
effects of prostanoids, 216b *See also* Heart *See also* Vascular system
Carisbamate, 549
Carmustine, 678
Carrier-mediated transport, 101–103

Carvedilol
action/effects, 182t–184t, 187–188
clinical uses, 189, 280
Cascade superfusion, 89, 91f
Caspases, 71, 71f
inhibitors, 75
Caspofungin, 652
Catabolism, 115
Catalase, 480
Catalepsy, 559–560
Catecholamines, 174, 178–179, 584–585
actions/effects, 181–184
biosynthesis, 177f
degradation, 179, 180f
hypothesis of depression, 462
uptake, 178–179, 179t*see also specific catecholamines*
Catechol-*O*-methyl transferase (COMT), 179
Cathepsin K, 432–433
Cathine, 589
Cathinone, 589
Cattle, transgenic, 717
Caveolin, 237
C cells, 437

CCR5, 641, 645, 647

CD95, 72

Cdk inhibitory proteins, 68

CD4+ T-helper lymphocytes, 84
  HIV/AIDS, 640–641, 642f–643f
  macrophage-activating, 86

CD8+ T lymphocytes, 84, 86
  HIV/AIDS, 640–641

Cefaclor, 627–628

Cefadroxil, 627–628, 628b

Cefalexin, 627–628

Cefixime, 627–628

Cefotaxime, 627–628, 628b

Cefpodoxime, 627–628

Cefradine, 627–628

Ceftazidime, 627–628

Ceftriaxone, 627–628, 628b

Cefuroxime, 627–628, 628b

Celecoxib, 319t, 325
  clinical uses, 687
  effects on gastrointestinal tract, 362
  unwanted effects, 698–699

Cell cycle, 66–68, 68b

check points, 68
microRNAs and, 72
negative regulators of, 68
phases, 66, 67f
positive regulators of, 66–68, 67f
regulation, 75
transducers, 674
Cell-mediated hypersensitivity, 87
Cell-mediated immune response, 86
Cell(s)
apoptosis *See* Apoptosis
damage, 700–702
death, 700–702
division, 66
host defence, 77–88
interactions with growth factors and extracellular matrix, 69–70
proliferation, 66–70
regeneration, 73–74
removal, 70–72
repair, 73
Cell theory, 1
Cell wall, 609–610
Central nervous system
adenosine in the, 206
body weight regulation, 388

chemical signalling in, 442–443, 443f
chemical transmission in, 442–447, 444b *See also* (Neurotransmission)
drug action in, 444–446, 445b, 446t
effects of anticholinesterases on, 171
effects of antihistamines on, 333
effects of ethanol on, 602–603
effects of glucocorticoids on, 406
effects of histamine on, 211
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine on, 195
effects of indirectly acting sympathomimetic amines on, 191
effects of local anaesthetics on, 528
effects of monoamine oxidase on, 179
effects of muscarinic antagonists on, 161, 163b
effects of nicotine on, 598
effects of opioids on, 514–515
effects of quinolones on, 632
effects of tetrahydrocannabinol on, 221
5-hydroxytryptamine in, 194
role in inflammation, 86
Cephalosporins, 618, 627–628, 629b
action/effects, 612
clinical uses, 628b
excretion, 352–353
mechanism of action, 624t
pharmacokinetics, 628
unwanted effects, 628

Cephamandole, 618

Cephamycins, 627–628, 629b

Certilizumab-pegol, 334

Cestodes, 668, 670

Cetirizine, 333t

CETP *See* Cholesteryl ester transfer protein (CETP)

Cetuximab, 684

Cevimeline, 157–158

CFTR gene, 64

cGMP *See* cyclic GMP (cGMP)

Channel modulators, 458

Chaperone proteins, 476

Cheese reaction, 578, 579b

Chelating agents, 15

Chem 23, 217

Chemical antagonism, 15

Chemical mediators
  and the autonomic nervous system, 139–150
  release of, 61–63

Chemokines, 208, 210
  antagonists, 345, 644t
  innate immune response, 78

Chemoprophylaxis, malaria, 659

Chemoreceptor trigger zone (CTZ), 110, 365

Chemotaxins, 78, 80

Chemotherapy, 609–621
  background, 609
  for cancer *See* Anticancer drugs
  molecular basis, 609–616, 610b
  targets, 610–615, 616b–617b
    class III reactions, 611–615
    class II reactions, 610–611
    class I reactions, 610
    intracellular organelles, 616
    membrane, 615–616
    muscle fibres, 616

Chickenpox, 639, 645b

Chief cells, 360

Chinese restaurant syndrome, 477

Chirality, 115

Chlamydia, 623t, 628–629

Chloral hydrate
  clinical uses, 532
  drug interactions, 694
  and warfarin, 301

Chlorambucil, 678
  teratogenicity, 706

Chloramphenicol, 616b, 629

action/effects, 631b
affect of age on, 690–691
antibacterial spectrum, 629–630
clinical uses, 630b
idiosyncratic reactions, 692
inactivation, 619
pharmacokinetics, 630
resistance, 619
unwanted effects, 630, 690–691, 699, 708, 708b

Chloramphenicol acetyltransferase, 619, 629

Chlordiazepoxide, 533, 538b
characteristics, 533t
clinical uses, 607

Chlorhexidine, 707–708

Chloride transport, 64, 349

Chloroform, 492, 500

7-Chloro-kynurenic acid, 453–454

Chloroquine, 327
action/effects, 619
administration, 659–660
clinical uses
malaria, 655–656, 658–660, 663b
malaria chemoprophylaxis, 659
as a disease-modifying antirheumatic drug, 328
partitioning into fat/tissues, 106

pharmacokinetics, 659–660
resistance, 659
unwanted effects, 660
Chlorphenamine, 344
Chlorpromazine, 555
action/effects, 555
characteristics, 556t–557t
clinical uses, 562b
antiemesis, 367
Huntington's disease, 489
prion diseases, 490
and Parkinson's disease, 485
pharmacokinetics, 562
unwanted effects, 560–561, 700–701, 701b
Chlorpropamide, 380–381
Chlortalidone, 355
Cholecalciferol *See* Vitamin D_3
Cholecystokinin (CKK), 360, 387t, 388
Cholelithiasis, 370
Cholera toxin, 30–32
Cholesterol, 285, 402, 422–423
drugs inhibiting absorption of, 290–291, 291b
high-density *See* High-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol
low-density *See* Low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol
transport, 286, 287f

Cholesteryl ester transfer protein (CETP), 286, 288
Choline acetyltransferase (CAT), 154–155, 483
Cholinergic transmission, 139, 151–173
  drugs that enhance, 168–172
  effects of drugs on, 157–172
  electrical events, 156–157, 156f
  physiology of, 154–157, 155f
Cholinesterase, 154–155, 171b
  distribution and function of, 168
  drugs inhibiting *See* Anticholinesterases
  reactivation, 171–172
Christmas disease, 297
Chromogranin A, 177
Chromosomes, 610
Chronic granulomatous disease, 722
Chronic myeloid leukaemia (CML), 684
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), 344–345
  acute exacerbations, 345
  clinical features, 344–345
  effects of smoking, 600
  and nitric oxide, 243
  pathogenesis, 344
  treatment
    principles, 344–345
    specific, 345

Chylomicrons, 286

Chymase, 275–276

Ciclesonide, 343

Ciclosporin, 21, 84, 235, 235t, 328–329, 727–728
  drug interactions, 652
  and dyslipidaemia, 288
  unwanted effects, 702

Cidofovir, 357, 645

Cigarette smoke, 117 *See also* Nicotine *See also* Smoking *See also* Tobacco

Ciglitazone, 381

Cilastatin, 628

Ciliary muscle, 141

Ciliates, 655, 656t

Cilostazol
  clinical uses, 281
  vasodilatation, 272–273

Cimetidine, 211
  action/effects, 363, 363t
  drug interactions, 430, 695
  unwanted effects, 363

Cinacalcet, 440

Cinchona bark, 1

Cinchonism, 661

Cinnarizine, 333t, 366

Cinoxacin, 613–615

CIP family, 68

Ciprofibrate, 290

Ciprofloxacin, 616b, 631, 632b
  action/effects, 613–615
  antibacterial spectrum, 632
  clinical uses, 630b
    diarrhoea, 369
    tuberculosis, 634
  drug interactions, 342
  pharmacokinetics, 632
  resistance, 620

Circus movement, 248

Cirrhosis (hepatic)
  effects of ethanol, 604
  and nitric oxide, 243

Cisapride, 198, 368–369

Cisplatin, 366–367, 679, 679b

Citalopram, 567, 568t–570t, 573

Citrate, 356–357

CKK *See* Cholecystokinin (CKK)

Cladribine, 681

Clarithromycin, 631

antimicrobial spectrum, 631
clinical use
toxoplasmosis, 666
tuberculosis, 634
drug interactions, 342
pharmacokinetics, 631
Clavulanic acid, 627
Clearance, 123–124
Clemastine, 333t
Clenbuterol
action/effects, 182t–184t, 186
use in sport, 712t, 713, 714b
Clindamycin, 633
action/effects, 631b, 633
clinical uses
malaria, 659
toxoplasmosis, 666
unwanted effects, 633
Clinical outcome measures, 96
Clinical trials, 94–98, 95f
avoidance of bias, 95
balancing benefit and risk, 97–98
clinical outcome measures, 96
controls, 94
errors, 95–96

ethics, 94
frequentist and Bayesian approaches, 96
meta-analysis, 97
placebos, 96
power, 95–96
randomised controlled, 94
Sample size, 95–96
Clobazam
action/effects, 548
clinical uses, 543
Clodronate, 438
Clofarabrine, 681
Clofazimine
action/effects, 636
clinical use, 635–636, 636b
pharmacokinetics, 636
unwanted effects, 636
Clofibrate, 290
Clofibrate analogue, 381
Clomethiazole, 607
Clomiphene, 421, 424–425
Clomipramine, 567, 574, 576b
characteristics, 568t–570t
drug interactions, 579b
Clonazepam, 533, 538b

action/effects, 546, 548
administration route, 548
characteristics, 533t
clinical use, 535, 543
Clonidine, 190
action/effects, 182t–184t, 462, 571
clinical uses
alcohol dependence, 607
attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, 586
hypertension, 277–278
opioid dependence, 597b
smoking cessation, 602
Clopidogrel, 204, 205b, 206, 304
clinical use, 304–305, 305f
drug interactions, 695
pharmacokinetics, 130, 304
unstable angina, 253
unwanted effects, 304
Clorphenamine, 333t
Clostridium difficile, 633
Clostridium spp., 623t
Clotrimazole, 652
Clotting factors, 235t
Clozapine, 468, 555
action/effects, 560

characteristics, 556t–557t
clinical efficacy, 562–563
clinical uses, 562b
and HLA-DQB1*0201, 136
unwanted effects, 561, 708
C-natriuretic peptide (CNP), 252, 267
Coagulation, 294–297, 296f, 297b
defects, 297–298
drugs affecting, 297–302, 302b
innate immune response, 78–80, 80f
Coagulation factors, 294
factor II, 297, 298f
factor IIa *See* Thrombin
factor Va, 294
factor V Leiden, 296–297
factor VII, 294, 297
factor VIIa, 294
factor IX, 294, 297
factor IXa, 294
factor X, 294, 297
factor Xa, 294
factor XIa, 294
factor XII, 294
factor XIIa, 294
factor XIII, 295–296
Co-amoxiclav, 627b

Coated implantable devices, 113

Cocaethylene, 592

Cocaine, 585t, 587–588, 588b
  action/effects, 182t–184t, 192, 193b
    behavioural, 465
    cardiovascular system, 528
    on the CNS, 528
  chronic use, dependence on tolerance, 587
  dependence, 593t
  history, 525
  lifestyle use, 710, 711t
  pharmacokinetics, 587
  pharmacological effects, 587
  properties, 527t
  teratogenicity, 704
  unwanted effects, 587–588, 704
  use in sport, 712t

Cocaine-and amfetamine-regulated transcript (CART), 388

Coccidioides immitis, 650t

Codeine, 510, 513, 518t–519t, 519
  actions/effects, 515
  bioassays, 92, 92f
  clinical uses
    cough, 345
    gastrointestinal motility, 369
  pharmacokinetics, 516–517

use in sport, 712t
Coenzyme B_{12}, 313
Cognition enhancers, 446t
Colchicine, 332, 352, 399–400
Cold extremities, 189–190
Cold sores, 639
Colesevelam, 290–291
Colestyramine, 330, 438
absorption, 108
drug interactions, 693
and warfarin, 301
Colistin, 633, 634b
Collagen species, 69
Collecting ducts, 347, 350–352
Collecting tubules, 350–352, 351f
Colony-stimulating factors (CSFs), 37, 309, 314–315
administration, 315
clinical uses, 316b
unwanted effects, 315
Combined pill, 425–426, 426b
beneficial effects, 426
common adverse effects, 426
considerations, 426
Commensals, 609, 649

Compartments
body fluid, 110–111, 110f
pH, 101
single-compartment model, 124–126, 125f–126f
two-compartment model, 127–128, 128f
well-stirred, 99
Complement system
antibodies and, 85
innate immune response, 78–79, 80f
Complex-mediated hypersensitivity, 87
Concentration, drug, 124–125, 125f
bioassays, 89
relation between effect and, 9–10, 10f
Concentration-effect curve, 9–10, 10f, 12f
Conditioned place preference studies, 594
Conivaptan, 280
Conjugative plasmids, 618
Conn's syndrome, 401, 406–407
Constitutively active receptors, 36
Constrictor pupillae, 158–159
Construct validity, 92–93
Contraception, 425–427
long-acting progestogen-only, 427
oral contraceptives, 425–426

postcoital (emergency), 427
Contraction, muscle, 59–61, 60f, 62b
cardiac muscle, 59–60
skeletal muscle, 59
smooth muscle, 59–61, 61f
Coronary artery disease *See* Ischaemic heart disease
Coronary blood flow, 250–251, 251b
neural and humoral control, 251
physical factors, 250, 251f
vascular control, 251
Corpus luteum, 417–418, 418f
Corpus striatum, 463
Cortical bone, 432
Cortical spreading depression, 200
Corticosteroid-binding globulin (CBG), 406
Corticosteroids, 400–401
action/effects, 192
clinical uses
asthma, 340
shock, 281
comparison of, 401t
deficiency *See* Addison's disease
excess *See* Cushing's syndrome
teratogenicity, 704t *See also* Adrenal steroids *See also* Mineralocorticoids *See also* Steroids/steroid hormones

Corticotrophin-releasing factor (CRF), 395t, 396, 399b, 403–404

Corticotrophin-releasing hormone (CRH), 565

Corticotrophs, 394

Corticotropin, 707–708

Cortisol *See* Hydrocortisone

Cortisone, 400–401, 401t

Corynebacterium spp., 623t

Cotinine, 599

Co-transmission, 147, 147f, 149f

Co-trimoxazole, 611, 622
  clinical uses, 625b–626b, 630b
    Pneumocystis, 666
    toxoplasmosis, 666
  interfering with folate action, 626b

Cough, 345
  reflex depression, effects of opioids, 515
  treatment, 345

Coxibs, 318–319, 325–326
  asthma, 339
  commonly used, 323–326
  future developments, 334
  unwanted effects, 322–323, 325–326

C-peptide, 372

Cranial nerves, 141

Cranial outflow, 141

Cravings, 595

C-reactive protein, 86, 288

Creeping eruption, 669, 669t

Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease, 397, 478t, 489–490, 715–716

Crisantaspase, 685

Crohn's disease, 370, 601

Cromakalim, 58

Cromoglicate, 340, 343

Cryptococcus neoformans, 650t

Cryptosporidium spp., 369

Crystal meth *See* Methamphetamine

CSFs *See* Colony-stimulating factors (CSFs)

CTOP, 513t

Curare, 106, 139, 164

Cushing's syndrome, 401–403, 405f

Cutaneous administration, 108–109

Cutaneous larva migrans, 669, 669t

CX-516, 455

CXCR4, 645, 647

Cyanide poisoning, 261

Cyclase activation, 272

Cyclazocine, 510

Cyclic 3′,5′-adenosine monophosphate *See* cAMP

Cyclic ADP-ribose (cADPR), 52

Cyclic GMP (cGMP), 237, 240–241, 272–273

Cyclic nucleotides *See* cAMP; cyclic GMP (cGMP)

Cyclin-dependent kinases (cdks), 66–68, 67f, 75

Cyclins, 66–68, 67f

Cyclizine, 333t, 366

Cyclo-oxygenase (COX), 213
  COX-1, 213, 318–320
  COX-2, 213, 318–320

Cyclo-oxygenase (COX) inhibitors, 318–326, 320b
  actions/effects, 428
  clinical uses, 687
  comparison of, 319t
  unwanted effects, 323b, 698–699 *See also* Coxibs *See also* Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)

Cyclopentolate, 159–160

Cyclophilin, 329

Cyclophosphamide, 678, 679b
  action, 112–113
  bladder toxicity, 118–119
  drug interactions, 332
  stereoselectivity, 117

teratogenicity, 706

Cycloplegia, 161

Cyclopropane, 493

Cycloserine
action/effects, 612
clinical use, 634–635
unwanted effects, 635

Cyclothiazide, 455

CYP2C9 + VKORC1 genotyping, 137

CYP2C19, 695

CYP2D6, 136–137

CYP enzymes *See* P450 monooxygenase system

Cyproheptadine, 333, 333t
carcinoid syndrome management, 202–203
migraine management, 202t

Cyproterone, 424, 683

Cysteinyl leukotriene receptor antagonists, 340, 341b, 342

Cysteinyl leukotrienes, 339

Cysticercosis, 668, 670

Cystic fibrosis, 715, 722

Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR), 64, 719t

Cytarabine, 613, 681, 681b, 681f

Cytochrome *c* oxidase, 240

Cytochrome P450 system *See* P450 monooxygenase system

Cytokines, 208–210, 209t, 330–331, 444t
  bone remodelling, 432–434, 433f
  classification, 208
  innate immune response, 78
  receptors, 37, 210b
  role in inflammation, 86
  synthesis inhibition by viruses, 640*see also specific cytokines*

Cytoplasm, 610

Cytoprotective agents, 365

Cytosine arabinoside triphosphate, 681

Cytotoxic drugs
  antibiotics, 677, 677t, 681–682, 682b
  as anticancer drugs, 677
  teratogenicity, 704t, 706

Cytotoxicity, 241–242

Cytotoxic T cells, 86

D

Dabigatran, 300

Dabigatran etexilate, 300

Dacarbazine, 679

Daclizumab, 330, 331t

Dactinomycin, 613, 682, 682b

Daidzin, 605–606

Dale's principle, 143

Dalfopristin, 631b, 633

DAMGO, 513t

D-amino acid oxidase (DAAO), 554

D-amino acids, 234

Danaparoid, 299–300

Danazol, 344, 424–425, 425b

Dantrolene, 52, 167, 500

Dantron, 368

Dapsone
- action/effects, 636
- clinical uses
  - leprosy, 635–636, 636b
  - malaria, 658, 661–662, 663b
  - malaria chemoprophylaxis, 659
- drug interactions, 635

metabolism, 135
pharmacokinetics, 636
unwanted effects, 636
Daptomycin, 633
Darbepoetin, 314
Darifenacin, 154, 159–160
DARPP-32, 464
Darunavir, 643
Dasatinib, 137, 684
Daunorubicin, 681
Db gene, 385–386
D cells, 362, 372
DDT, 530
Deadly nightshade, 159–160
Death receptor pathway, 72
Death receptors, 71
Debrisoquine, 190–191, 692b
Decamethonium, 163, 166
Defasirox, 311
Deferiprone, 311
Deflazacort, 401t
Dehydroepiandrosterone, 422–423

Delirium tremens, 607

Delivery systems, 111–113

Demeclocycline, 628
  antidiuretic hormone inhibition, 352
  clinical uses, 629b
  effect on antidiuretic hormone, 399–400

Dementia
  drugs used in, 484b *See also* Alzheimer's disease

Dendritic cells
  adaptive immune response, 82–83
  innate immune response, 81
  pathogen recognition, 78

Denervation supersensitivity, 8–9, 143–144

Denosumab, 440

5′-Deoxyadenosylcobalamin, 313

Deoxythymidylate monophosphate (DTMP), 312, 680

Deoxyuridylate monophosphate (DUMP), 312, 680

Dependence, 592–608, 593f, 596b
  drug administration, 592
  drug harm, 592–594
  drug-induced reward, 594–595
  mechanisms of, 595–597
  pharmacological treatment, 596t, 597
  physical dependence, 595
  psychological dependence, 595, 595f

reward pathways, 594–595
terminology, 593t*see also specific drugs*
Depolarisation block, 156–157, 157f, 166
Depolarisation-induced suppression of inhibition (DSI), 225
Depolarising blocking agents, 166–167, 167b
comparison with non-depolarising blocking agents, 166
unwanted effects, 166–167
Depression (mood), 442
animal models, 571, 571t
bipolar disorder, 550, 564, 581–582
catecholamine hypothesis of, 462
endogenous, 564
human tests, 571
monoamine theory, 564–566
nature of, 564
reactive, 564
treatment *See* Antidepressant drugs
unipolar, 564
Depression (synaptic transmission), long-term, 451–452, 472
Dermatomycoses, 649
Des-Arg9-bradykinin, 218–219, 219b, 508
Descending inhibitory pathway, 505–506
Desensitisation, 15–16, 16f, 35, 36f
Desferrioxamine, 311

Desflurane, 497, 500, 501b
  characteristics, 498t
  induction and recovery, 499
  pharmacokinetics, 500b
Desipramine, 567, 574
  characteristics, 568t–570t
  clinical use, 521
Desloratadine, 333t
Desmopressin, 235t, 358, 400, 400b
Desogestrel, 421, 425–426
Desvenlafaxine, 567, 576–577, 577b
Development, drug *See* Drug development
Development (human)
  effect of thyroid hormones, 412 *See also* Growth
Dexamethasone, 401t, 565
  clinical uses, 406
    anticancer drugs, 683
    antiemesis, 367
Dexamethasone suppression test, 398, 406, 565
Dexfenfluramine, 699
Dexibuprofen, 319t
Dexies *See* Dextroamphetamine
Dexketoprofen, 319t
Dextrans, 707–708

Dextroamphetamine, 584

Dextromethorphan, 522
  actions/effects, 515
  clinical uses, 345

Dextropropoxyphene, 513, 518t–519t

Diabetes Control and Complications Trial, 378

Diabetes insipidus, 399
  antidiuretic hormone, 400
  and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 691
  nephrogenic, 351–352
  thiazide diuretics in, 355

Diabetes mellitus, 372, 377–383
  treatment, 378–382
  type 1, 378
  type 2, 378

Diabetic neuropathy, 377–378

Diacylglycerol (DAG), 32–34

Diacylglycerol lipase, 212

Diaglycerol lipases (DAGLs), 223–224

Diamorphine, 510, 518t–519t, 519
  administration, 592
  dependence, 593t

Diarrhoea
  drugs for *See* Antidiarrhoeal agents

traveller's, 369
Diazepam, 497, 538b
administration, 108, 548
affect of age on, 691
characteristics, 533t
clinical uses, 535, 543
excretion, 119–120
Diazepam-binding inhibitor, 535
Diazoxide, 58, 355
Dibucaine, 133–134
Dichloroisoprenaline, 187–188
Diclofenac, 319t
Dicycloverine, 369
Didanosine, 613, 643
Diet
and obesity, 391 *See also* Appetite *See also* Food intake
Diethylcarbamazine, 117–118, 670–671
Diethylstilbestrol, 683
Diffusion, 99–100
coefficient, 100
facilitated, 101–102
through lipid, 100–101
Digitalis, 94
Digitalis-like factors, 258

Digoxin, 52, 258
affect of age on, 690
clinical uses, 255t, 280
drug interactions, 365, 693–694
elimination/excretion, 120
faecal elimination, 115
gastrointestinal absorption, 106–107, 107f
pharmacokinetics, 259
repeated dosing, 126
and verapamil, 257–258
Dihydrocodeine, 519
Dihydroergotamine, 197–198
action/effects, 199
properties, 199t
Dihydrofolate, 312
Dihydrofolate reductase, 312, 610–611, 619, 680
Dihydro-orotate dehydrogenase, 330
Dihydropteroate synthetase, 619, 622–623
Dihydropyridines, 262
calcium channels and, 50
channel gating, 20
receptors, 52
unwanted effects, 263
vasodilatation, 272
Dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase (DPYD), 136

Dihydrotestosterone, 423

Dihydroxyphenylacetic acid (DOPAC), 463

Dihydroxyphenylalanine (dopa), 175–177

Di-iodotyrosine (DIT), 410

Diloxanide, 664, 664b

Diloxanide furoate, 664

Diltiazem, 257–258
  action/effects, 262
  calcium channels and, 50
  drug interactions, 342
  vasodilatation, 272

Dimaprit, 211

2,5-Dimethoxy-4-methylamphetamine (DOM), 590

Dimethylarginine dimethylamino hydrolase (DDAH), 242

Dimethyltryptamine (DMT), 590

Dimorphic fungi, 649, 650t

Dinitrophenol, 391

Dinoprost, 428, 429b

Dinoprostone, 216b, 428, 429b

Diphenhydramine, 532, 686

Diphenoxylate, 369

Diphyllobothrium latum, 668

Dipivoxil, 643

Dipyridamole, 205, 258
clinical uses, 304
vasodilatation, 260, 272–273
Direct thrombin inhibitors, 300
DISC-1, 554
Discovery, drug *See* Drug development
Disease
animal models, 92–93
and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 691–692, 692b
and oral anticoagulants, 301
receptors and, 45–46
Disease-modifying antirheumatic drugs (DMARDs), 326–328, 326f
Disopyramide, 255t, 256
Disposition, drug, 99–106
Distal tubule, 350
Distribution of drugs, 110–111, 112b, 693–694
Disulfiram, 177, 679
action/effects, 605–606
clinical uses, 597b, 605b, 607
drug interactions, 695
metabolism, 118–119
Diuresis, effects of ethanol, 603–604
Diuretics, 347, 353–356, 357b
clinical uses, 269

drug interactions, 696
effects, 91–92
loop *See* Loop diuretics
osmotic, 356
potassium-sparing, 355–356, 356b
thiazide *See* Thiazide diuretics
use in sport, 712t

Dizocilpine
action/effects, 554–555
NDMA receptor blockers, 450, 453–454

DMT (dimethyltryptamine), 590

DNA
damage, 72
plasmid, 720–721
replication, 66, 616f
sequence, 132–133
structure, 615f
synthesis, 612–615
transcription, 132–133

DNAase, 235t

DNA gyrase, 612
inhibition, 613–615, 615f

DNA polymerase, 612
inhibition, 613, 644–645, 644t, 646b

DNA viruses, 638, 640b

replication, 638
Dobutamine, 252
action/effects, 182t–184t
clinical uses
heart failure, 280
shock, 281
effect on myocardial contraction, 259
Docetaxel, 682
Docusate sodium, 368
Dolasetron, 366–367
DOM (2,5-dimethoxy-4-methylamphetamine), 590
Domoic acid, 478
Domperidone, 427
blood-brain barrier, 110
clinical uses, 488
antiemesis, 367
gastrointestinal motility, 368
Donepezil, 483, 484b, 484t
Dopa, 175–177
Dopa decarboxylase, 177
Dopamine, 174, 177
behavioural effects, 465
in the CNS, 463–466, 466b
functional aspects, 464–466

metabolism, 463, 463f
and motor systems, 464–465
NANC transmission, 145–147, 148t
neuroendocrine function, 465–466
in Parkinson's disease, 485
role in satiety signals, 388
schizophrenia, 554
transporter, 147–148
vasodilatation/vasoconstriction, 272
vomiting, 365, 466

Dopamine agonists
clinical uses
fibromyalgia, 522
Parkinson's disease, 486, 488

Dopamine antagonists
clinical uses, 367
effect on prolactin secretion, 397

Dopamine-β-hydroxylase (DBH), 177
inhibition, 177

Dopamine receptors, 464
antagonists, 464
D_1, 464–465, 558
D_2, 464, 554, 558
D_3, 464, 558
D_4, 464, 558
D_5, 464, 558

in Parkinson's disease, 485
in schizophrenia, 558–559
Dopaminergic pathways in the CNS, 463–464, 463f
Dorzolamide, 109
Dose/dosing, effect of repeated, 126
Dose ratio, 10
Dose-response curve, 9–10, 91
Double-blind clinical trials, 95
Doxazosin
clinical uses
benign prostatic hypertrophy, 358
hypertension, 277–278
Doxepin, 574–575
Doxorubicin, 613–615, 681–682, 682b
Doxycycline, 70, 628
clinical uses, 629b
malaria, 659
malaria chemoprophylaxis, 659
pharmacokinetics, 629
DPDPE, 513t
Dracunculus medinensis, 668–669
Dronabinol *See* Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC)
Dronedarone, 257

Droperidol, 497

Drotrecogin alpha, 281, 296–297

Droxidopa, 182t–184t, 190

Drug, definition, 1

Drug abuse, 592–597 *See also* Dependence *specific drugs*

Drug acetylation deficiency, 134–135

Drug delivery systems, 111–113

Drug development, 726–730
- biopharmaceuticals, 729
- clinical, 726, 727f, 728–729
- commercial aspects, 729
- discovery phase, 726–728, 727f
  - lead finding, 727–728
  - lead optimisation, 728
  - target selection, 726–727
- future prospects, 729–730
- preclinical, 726, 727f, 728

Drug-induced lupus, 135

D-serine, 450

Duloxetine, 567, 568t–570t, 576–577, 577b, 581

Duteplase, 307

Dwarfism, pituitary, 397

Dydrogesterone, 421

Dyflos, 169–170, 170t, 171b

Dynorphin, 232, 513t

Dysbindin, 554

Dyskinesia, 488
  tardive, 560, 561b, 698

Dyslipidaemia, 286–288, 287t, 288b, 292b, 357–358

Dysmenorrhoea, 428

Dysrhythmias, 247–249, 249b
  β_2-adrenoceptor agonists effects, 341
  treatment, 550
  xanthine drugs adverse effects, 341

Dystonias, acute, 560, 561b

E

Eating behaviour, neurological circuits controlling, 388–389

Echinocandin B, 651–652

Echinocandins, 649–652

Echinococcus spp., 669

Eclampsia, 244

Econazole, 652

Ecothiophate, 169–170, 170t, 171b

Ecstasy *See* MDMA (methylenedioxymethamphetamine)

Ectopic pacemaker activity, 248–249

Eculizumab, 309, 316, 316f

Edrophonium, 168–169, 170t, 171b

Efalizumab, 330, 331t

Efavirenz, 643, 646b

Effector(s)
  block of receptor-effector linkage, 15
  controlled by G-proteins, 34b

Efficacy, 8, 11–15, 14b

Eflornithine, 665

Ehrlich, Paul, 6

Eicosanoids, 84, 212–217, 472
  biosynthesis, 212–213

structure, 212–213
vasoconstriction, 271, 272b
Eicosapentaenoic acid, 213, 217
Eicosatrienoic acid, 213
Elastin, 69
Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT), 579–580
Electroencephalography (EEG), 540, 541f
Electrolytes, 369
Eletriptan, 202t
Elimination (and excretion), 119–121
definition, 115
drugs and metabolites, 119
expressed as clearance, 124
pharmacokinetic interactions, 696
Elimination half-life, 125
Elimination rate constant, 125
Eliprodil, 450
Emadastine, 332–333
Embden-Meyerhof pathway, 610
Embryogenesis, 70
Emergency contraception, 427
Emricasan, 75
Emtricitabine, 643

Enadoline, 513t

Enalapril, 235t
  metabolism, 118–119
  vasodilatation, 274t

Enalaprilat, 118–119

Encainide, 255–256

End-diastolic volume, 249–250

Endocannabinoids, 223–225, 223t, 225b, 472–473
  biosynthesis, 223–224, 224f
  clinical use, 392–393
  pathological involvement, 225
  physiological mechanisms, 225
  termination of signal, 224–225

Endocrine gland-derived vascular endothelial growth factor (EG-VEGF), 99

Endocrine system
  effects of antipsychotic drugs, 560
  effects of ethanol, 603 *See also* Neuroendocrine system

Endogenous depression, 564

Endoperoxides, 213

Endorphins, 232, 512

Endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS), 237–240

Endothelin, 267–269
  biosynthesis, 267–268, 268f

discovery, 267–268
functions of, 269, 269f
receptors, 268–269, 268t
secretion, 267–268
vasoconstriction, 271, 272b
Endothelium
dysfunction, 285
injury, 285
movement of drugs across, 99
vascular, 266–269, 266f
in angiogenesis, 267
endothelin, 267–269
in haemostasis and thrombosis, 296–297
Endothelium-derived hyperpolarisation factors (EDHFs), 267
Endothelium-derived relaxing factor, 237, 238f, 266–267
Endotoxin, 622
Endplate potential (epp), 156
Energy balance, 385–390, 389b
Energy expenditure control, 388–389
Enflurane, 492, 500, 501b
characteristics, 498t
metabolism, 500
Enfurvitide, 235t, 645, 647, 647b
Engineered proteins, 717

Enkephalins, 512
descending inhibitory pathway, 506
vomiting, 365
Enprofylline, 341
Entacapone, 487
Entamoeba histolytica, 663
Entecavir, 643
Enteric nervous system, 140–141, 360
Enterobius vermicularis, 668
Enterochromaffin cells, 194, 361
Enterococci resistance, 620
Enterohepatic circulation, 119
Enuresis, 358
Enzymes, 21, 21f, 22t
induction, 694–695, 694f
inhibition, 694t, 695–696
Eosinophil cationic protein, 81, 339
Eosinophil-derived neurotoxin, 339
Eosinophil major basic protein, 81
Eosinophils, 80–81
Eotaxin, 209t
Ephedrine, 191, 586
action/effects, 182t–184t, 193b

drug interactions, 578, 579b, 693
use in sport, 712t, 713, 714b

Epibatidine, 162, 522, 598

Epidermal growth factor (EGF), 37, 69

Epidermophyton floccosum, 650t

Epidermophyton spp., 649

Epidural anaesthesia, 529t

Epilepsy
animal models, 542–543
characteristics, 540
jacksonian, 541
Lennox-Gastaut syndrome, 542
nature of, 540–543, 543b
neural mechanisms, 542–543
psychomotor, 540–541
status epilepticus, 548
treatment *See* Antiepileptic drugs
types of, 540–542
complex, 540
generalised seizures, 541–542
partial seizures, 540–541
simple, 540

Epinastine, 332–333

Epinephrine *See* Adrenaline

Epirubicin, 681

Epithelium
as an administration route, 108–109
ion transport, 63–64, 64b, 64f
Eplerenone, 355, 407
clinical uses, 280
pharmacokinetics, 355
vasodilatation, 274t
Epoietin, 314, 315b, 347, 357–358
Epoprostenol, 216b, 281, 305
Epoxyeicosatrienoic acids (EETs), 267
Eptifibatide, 305
Equilibrium constant, 17
Erectile dysfunction, 272–273, 429–430
effects of ethanol, 604
and nitric oxide, 244, 244f
and thiazide diuretics, 355
Ergocalciferol *See* Vitamin D_2
Ergometrine, 199t, 427–428, 429b
Ergosterol, 615, 650
Ergot alkaloids, 197–199, 198b
action/effects, 174, 199
clinical use, 199
poisoning, 198
properties, 199t

unwanted effects, 199
vasoconstriction, 271
Ergotamine, 190
action/effects, 199
migraine management, 202t
properties, 199t
unwanted effects, 199
Erlotinib, 75, 684, 685b
Ertapenem, 628
Erythromycin, 616b, 631
antimicrobial spectrum, 631
clinical uses, 369
drug interactions, 342
pharmacokinetics, 631
resistance, 619
Erythropoietin, 235t, 309, 314–315
clinical use, 314
unwanted effects, 314
use in sport, 712t, 713
Escherichia coli, 369
Escherichia spp., 623t
Escitalopram, 567, 568t–570t, 573
Eslicarbazepine, 546
Esomeprazole, 363

Essential hypertension, 277–278

Estramustine, 678

Etanercept, 330, 331t, 717, 718t

Etaquine, 662

Ethambutol
  clinical use, 634–635
  unwanted effects, 635

Ethanol
  abstinence syndrome, 607
  action/effects, 547
  antidiuretic hormone secretion, 352
  dependence, 593t, 597b, 602–607
    treatment, 607
  distribution, 111
  drinks content, 602
  drug interactions, 694
  erectile dysfunction, 429
  induction of microsomal enzymes, 118
  lifestyle use, 710, 711t, 713b
  metabolism, 117
  pharmacokinetics, 605–607
    genetic factors, 606
    metabolism, 605–606, 606f, 607b
    metabolism and toxicity of methanol and ethylene glycol, 606–607
  pharmacological effects of, 602–605, 605b
    atherosclerosis, 604

behavioural effects, 603
on the CNS, 602–603
on fetal development, 604–605
lipid metabolism, 604
on the liver, 604
neurotoxicity, 603
on other systems, 603–604
platelet function, 604
saturation kinetics, 128
teratogenicity, 704t
tolerance, 16, 607
vasodilatation, 273
Ether, 501b
characteristics, 498t
induction and recovery, 498
Ethinylestradiol, 119, 425, 683
Ethnicity and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 689
Ethosuximide, 262
action/effects, 546
clinical uses, 543, 548, 550b
drug interactions, 634
properties, 544t–545t
Ethylene glycol
metabolism, 606–607
toxicity, 118–119, 606–607

Ethylene immonium, 678

Ethynodiol, 421, 425–426

Etidronate, 438

Etodolac, 319t

Etomidate, 496, 496t, 497b

Etoposide, 682, 683b

Etoricoxib, 319t, 325

Etorphine, 510, 513, 520

Etretinate, 706

Eukaryotes, 609

Euphoria, 514

Excitation, 53–59, 54f, 56f–57f

Excitatory amino acids, 448, 455b
  as CNS transmitters, 448
  metabolism, 448
  release, 448*see also individual amino acids*

Excitotoxicity, 50–51, 477–478, 479f, 480b

Excretion *See* Elimination (and excretion)

Exemestane, 683

Exenatide, 382–383

Exendin-4, 382

Exocytosis, 61–63, 62f

Exons, 132–133

Extracellular fluid, 110–111, 112t

Extracellular matrix (ECM)
components, 69
interactions with cells and growth factors, 69–70

Extraneuronal monoamine transporter (EMT), 178–179, 179t, 192

Extrapyramidal motor disturbances, 560, 561b

Eye drops, 109

Eye(s)
autonomic nervous system effects on, 142t
effects of muscarinic agonists, 158–159, 159f
effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161, 163b

Ezetimibe, 291, 291b

F

Face validity, 92

Facial nerve, 141

Facilitating diffusion, 101–102

Factor XII, 79–80

Faecal elimination, 115

Faecal softeners, 368

Famciclovir, 112–113, 645, 646b

Familial hypercholesterolaemia (FH), 286, 691–692

Famotidine, 363

Farnesoid (bile acid) receptor (FXR), 42

Fas receptors, 72, 639

Fast excitatory postsynaptic potential (fast epsp), 156

Fast transmitters, 62–63, 63f

Fat, body
- brown, 388–389
- partitioning of drugs into, 105–106
- white, 388–389

Fat (dietary), 390

Fat gene, 385–386

Fatigue, β-receptor antagonists, 189

Fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH), 224–225

Fatty acid oxidation inhibitors, 383

Fatty streaks, 285

Fear, 531

Felbamate, 549
  clinical uses, 543
  properties, 544t–545t

Felypressin, 400, 400b, 529

Fenbufen, 319t

Fenfluramine
  clinical uses, 391
  unwanted effects, 699
  use in sport, 713

Fenofibrate, 290

Fenoldopam, 277–278

Fenoprofen, 319t
  unwanted effects, 702

Fentanyl, 109, 497, 510, 518t–519t, 519

Fenticonazole, 652

Ferritin, 310–311

Ferrous succinate, 311

Ferrous sulfate, 311

Fetal alcohol syndrome (FAS), 604

Fetal development, 604–605

Fexofenadine, 333t

Fibrates, 290
  adverse effects, 290
  clinical uses, 290b
  nuclear receptors, 42

Fibrin, 79–80, 294

Fibrinogen, 294

Fibrinolysis, 306–307, 306f
  antifibrinolytic drugs, 307
  fibrinolytic drugs, 306–307, 307b
    choosing, 307
    clinical use, 307, 307b
    contraindications, 307
    unwanted effects, 307
  myocardial infarction, 253–254

Fibrinolytic system, 78–80, 80f

Fibroblast growth factor (FGF), 69

Fibromyalgia, 522

Filamentous fungi, 649, 650t

Filariae, 668–670

Filgrastim, 314–315

Finasteride
  antiandrogen activity, 424
  clinical uses, 358

First-order kinetics, 125

First-pass metabolism, 108, 118, 118t

Fish oils, 217, 288, 291–292, 711t

FKBP (FK-binding protein), 329

Flagellates, 655, 656t

FLAP (five-lipoxygenase activating protein), 215

Flatworms, 668

Flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD), 237

Flavin mononucleotide (FMN), 237

Flavopiridol, 75

Flecainide, 255–256, 255t

Fleming, Alexander, 622

Flucloxacillin, 627, 627b

Fluconazole, 652
  drug interactions, 342
  unwanted effects, 652

Flucytosine, 611, 650, 653

Fludarabine, 681, 681b

Fludrocortisone, 401t, 407

Fluid replacement
  diarrhoea, 369
  shock, 281

Flukes, 668, 669t

Flumazenil, 497, 533, 535–537, 538b, 602

Flunitrazepam, 535

Fluoride ions, 32

Fluorinated pyrimidines, 649–650

Fluorodeoxyuridine monophosphate (FDUMP), 681

Fluoroquinolones
  action/effects, 613–615 *See also* Quinolones

Fluorouracil, 21, 616b, 681, 681b
  action/effects, 611, 680f
  intestinal absorption, 106

5-Fluorouracil (5-FU), 136

Fluoxetine, 466–468, 469b, 567, 573
  characteristics, 568t–570t
  clinical use, 581–582
  unwanted effects, 574

Flupentixol
  characteristics, 556t–557t
  clinical uses, 562b

Flupentixol decanoate, 562b

Flurazepam, 533t

Flurbiprofen, 319t

Flushing, 291

Flutamide, 424, 683

Fluticasone, 343

Fluvoxamine, 567, 568t–570t, 573

Foam cells, 285

Focal adhesion kinase, 69

Folate/folic acid, 311–314
  action/effects, 610–611
    antimicrobial agents interfering with, 622–625, 626b
  antagonists, 680–681, 681b
    teratogenicity, 706
  antimalarial drugs affecting metabolism, 661–662
  clinical uses, 312b
  deficiency, 309
  mechanism of action, 312
  pharmacokinetics, 312
  during pregnancy, 705
  structure, 680f
  synthesis, antimicrobial agents interfering with, 622–625, 626b
  unwanted effects, 312

Folinic acid, 312

Follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), 395, 425
  clinical use, 425
  male reproductive system, 418–419
  menstrual cycle, 417
  pharmacokinetics, 425
  preparations, 425

Folliculostellate cells, 394

Follitropin, 425

Fomepizole, 606–607

Food intake
  control of, 388
  effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine, 468
  and obesity, 390

Food vacuoles, 616

Forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV_1), 336

Formaldehyde, 600, 606

Formic acid, 606

Formoterol
  asthma, 340–341, 341b
  chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345

Formulation, 106–108

Formyl peptide receptor (FPR), 234

Forskolin, 32

Fosamprenavir, 643

Fosaprepitant, 367

Foscarnet, 613, 616b, 645

Foxgloves, 258 *See also* Cardiac glycosides

FPR (formyl peptide receptor) family, 77–78

Fraction, 125

Frameshift mutation, 613

Frank-Starling law, 249–250

Free radicals, 480

Frequentist analysis, 96

Frovatriptan, 202t

Frozen addict syndrome, 486

Fulvestrant, 683

Fumarate, 311

Functionalisation, 115

Fungal infections/fungi, 649, 650t
  treatment *See* Antifungal drugs

Fungicidin, 651

Fura-2, 49

Furosemide, 353–354, 354f
  affect of disease on, 691
  excretion, 352–353
  use in sport, 712t

Fusidic acid, 622, 627–628, 633
  action/effects, 631b
  resistance, 620

Fusion proteins, 234–235

G

G_0 phase of cell cycle, 66–68, 67f, 69f

G_1 phase of cell cycle, 66, 67f, 68

G_2 phase of cell cycle, 67f, 68

$GABA_A$ receptors
  drugs acting on, 457–458
    benzodiazepines, 533–534, 534f
  effect of antiepileptic drugs, 545
  effect of general anaesthetics on, 493–494
  effects of ethanol, 602
  pharmacology, 456, 457t
  presynaptic modulation, 144–145
  sites of drug action, 452f
  structure, 456

$GABA_B$ receptors, 36
  drugs acting on, 458
  pharmacology, 456, 457t
  structure, 456, 457f

GABA (gamma-aminobutyric acid), 456–458, 459b
  in the brain, 448
  effect of antiepileptic drugs, 545
  function, 456
  NANC transmission, 145–147, 148t
  nociceptive pathway, 510
  receptors *See* GABA receptors

storage, 456
synthesis, 456
transporter, 147–148
Gabapentin
action/effects, 545–546
calcium channels and, 50
clinical uses
anxiety, 532
bipolar disorder, 582
epilepsy, 543, 549
neuropathic pain, 521, 522b
properties, 544t–545t
GABA receptors
drugs acting on, 457–458
effects of ethanol, 602
pharmacology, 456
structure, 456
Gabazine, 457–458
Gaboxadol, 456–458
Galanin, 397, 509
Galantamine, 145, 483, 484b, 484t
Gallamine, 154, 164
Gallstones, 370
Galvanic skin reactions, 532
Gametocytes, 657–658

Gametogenesis, 678

Gamma-aminobutyric acid *See* GABA (gamma-aminobutyric acid)

γ-endorphin, 232

γ-hydroxybutyrate (GHB), 458

γ-hydroxybutyric acid (GHB)
  clinical use, 607
  dependence, 593t

Ganaloxone, 550

Ganciclovir, 645

Ganglia/ganglion
  blocking drugs, 163
    clinical uses, 163, 277
    effects of, 163
  drugs affecting, 161–163
  stimulants, 161–162

Ganglionic synapse, 156, 156f

Gastric acid secretion, 360–365
  effects of histamine, 211, 361
  inhibition/neutralisation, 362–364
    antacids, 364
    histamine H_2 receptor antagonists, 362–363
    proton pump inhibitors, 363–364
  regulation of
    coordination of factors, 362
    by parietal cells, 360–362, 361f

Gastrin, 360–362

Gastrin-ECL-parietal cell axis, 362

Gastrointestinal tract, 360–371
drug absorption from, 106–108
effect of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, 322, 322f
effects of ethanol, 603
effects of histamine, 211
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine on, 195
effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161, 163b
effects of opioids, 515
gastric secretion *See* Gastric acid secretion
histamine in, 211
hormonal control, 360
motility *See* Motility, gastrointestinal
mucosa, drugs that protect, 365
neuronal control, 360
toxicity of anticancer drugs, 676

Gastro-oesophageal reflux disease (GORD), 360, 362

Gating, 43–44
calcium release channels, 43–44
ligand-gated channels, 43
store-operated calcium channels, 44
voltage-gated channels, 43

G cells, 361

GDP and G-proteins, 30

Gefitinib, 75, 689
Gemcitabine, 681
Gemeprost, 216b, 422, 428
Gemfibrozil, 290
Gene amplification, 617
Gene cassettes, 617–618
Gene duplication, 617
Gene expression, 573
  controlling, 721
  inducible system, 721
Gene(s)
  influence on pharmacokinetics, 132
  mutation, 133
  and obesity, 390–391
  personalised medicine, 132–133
  polymorphisms, 133
  transcription, 42–43
Gene silencing, 639–640
Gene splicing, 232
Gene tests
  combined (metabolism and target), 137
  drug metabolism-related, 136–137
  drug target-related, 137
  HLA, 135–136

Gene therapy, 715, 718–721
anticancer drugs, 687
applications, 722–724
cancer, 722–723, 723b
cardiovascular disease, 723
infectious disease, 723
other gene-based approaches, 723–724
single-gene defects, 722
controlling gene expression, 721, 721b
definition, 716b
delivery, 718–721, 719t, 721b
non-viral vectors, 720–721
liposomes, 720
microspheres, 720
plasmid DNA, 720–721
viral vectors, 719–720
adenovirus, 719–720
retroviruses, 719, 720f
potential uses, 716b
safety issues, 721–722, 722b
Genetic animal models, 93
Genistein, 420
Genotoxic potential testing, 707
Gentamicin, 630
affect of age on, 690
antibacterial spectrum, 630

distribution, 111
Gepirone, 538
Gestodene, 117–118, 421, 425–426
Ghrelin, 387t, 388
Giardia lamblia, 666
Giardiasis, 666
Giardia spp., 369
Gigantism, 397
Glargine, 376, 379, 383
Glaucoma
drugs causing, 158–159
drugs used for, 159t
Glial cells, 443
Glibenclamide, 380t, 381
Glipizide, 380t
Gliptins, 382–383, 383b
Glitazones *See* Thiazolidinediones
Glomerular filtration, 120, 347–349
affect of age on, 690
Glomerular filtration rate, 701–702
Glomerulus, 347
Glossopharyngeal nerve, 141

Glucagon, 376–377
  actions, 376–377
  clinical uses, 377b
  effect on myocardial contraction, 259
  in hypoglycaemia, 372
  role in body weight regulation, 387t
  secretion, 372, 376
  synthesis, 376
Glucagon-like insulinotropic peptide (GIP), 372–373, 377
Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1), 372–373, 377, 387t
Glucocerebrosidase, 235t
Glucocorticoids *See* Adrenal steroids
Glucokinase, 374
Gluconate, 311
Glucose
  blood *See* Blood glucose
  impaired tolerance, 355
Glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency, 133, 662, 692
Glucuronide conjugation reaction, 117, 117f
Glut-2, 374
Glut-4, 374
Glutamate
  in the CNS, 448
  effects of ethanol, 603

excitotoxicity, 477, 481
and general anaesthetics, 494
long-term potentiation, 451–453
metabolism, 448
nociceptive pathway, 509–510
schizophrenia, 554–555
synaptic plasticity, 451–453
transport, 449f
Glutamate receptors
agonists, 455
antagonists, 453–455, 523
negative modulators, 453–455
positive modulators, 455
subtypes, 449–450, 451t, 452f–453f, 453t
Glutamic acid, 680
Glutamine, 448
Glutathione, 117, 480, 700
Glycerol, 368
Glyceryl trinitrate (GTN), 242
administration, 108
clinical uses
angina, 260
gallstone pain, 370
heart failure, 280
pharmacokinetics, 261

Glycine, 450, 453f, 458, 459b
antagonists, 454–455
receptor, 457t, 458, 602
transporters, 147–148, 458
Glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3), 581
Glycolysis, 374
Glycopeptides, 624t, 633, 634b
Glycophosphatidylinositol (GPI), 316
Glycoprotein IIB/IIIA receptor antagonists, 305
Glycosylation, 228
Goitre
diffuse toxic, 413
simple, non-toxic, 413
toxic nodular, 413
Goitrogens, 413
Gold compounds, 327–328
Golimumab, 334
Gonadorelin, 395, 395t, 424, 425b
Gonadotrophin-releasing factor, 399b
Gonadotrophin-releasing hormone (GnRH), 395, 395t, 425b
administration routes, 109
agonists and antagonists, 424–425
clinical use, 424
pharmacokinetics, 424

unwanted effects, 424
analogues, 235t, 683, 684b
male reproductive system, 418–419
menstrual cycle, 417
NANC transmission, 148t
translocation of receptors, 16
Gonadotrophins, 425, 425b
analogues, 425
clinical use, 425
pharmacokinetics, 425
preparations, 425
Gonadotrophs, 394
Good Laboratory Practice (GLP), 728
Goserelin, 424, 683
Gout, 331–332, 331b
G-protein coupled receptor kinases (GRKs), 35, 77–78
G-protein coupled receptors, 24, 24f–25f, 24t, 28–37, 30b
activation, 477
agonist specificity, 37
constitutively active, 36
desensitisation, 16, 35, 36f
dimerisation, 36
families, 28, 29t
further developments in biology, 35–37
glutamate, 450–451, 453t, 455

molecular structure, 28–29
presynaptic modulation, 144–145
protease-activated receptors, 29, 29f
RAMPs and RGS proteins, 37
G-protein(s), 9, 30–32
independent signalling, 37
mutations, 46
role of, 30–32, 31f, 31t
targets for, 31t, 32–35
Graafian follicle, 417, 418f
Gram-negative organisms, 610, 618–619, 622
Gram-positive organisms, 610, 622
Gram's stain, 610, 622
Granisetron, 366–367, 686
Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor, 315
Granulocyte macrophage colony stimulating factor (GMCSF), 653
Grapefruit juice, 117, 430
Graves' disease, 415
Gregory, James, 2
Grey baby syndrome, 630, 690–691
Griseofulvin, 651
Growth
effect of thyroid hormones, 412
toxicity of anticancer drugs, 676

Growth factors, 229
action of, 69
in asthma, 339
and cancer development, 674, 674f
cell cycle, 66, 69f
in hypertension, 277
interactions with cells and extracellular matrix, 69–70
Growth hormone, 235t, 396–397, 715–716
actions, 396–397
clinical use, 397
effect of dopamine on, 465–466
in hypoglycaemia, 372
production disorders, 397
secretion regulation, 396
and thyroid hormones, 412
use in sport, 712t, 713
Growth hormone-releasing factor (GHRF), 395, 395t, 399b
Growth hormone-releasing inhibiting factor, 395t
GTP and G-proteins, 30
Guanethidine, 191
action/effects, 182t–184t
clinical uses, 415
Guanfacine, 586
Guanidinium ions, 530
Guanine nucleotides

G-proteins and, 30 *See also* GDP *See also* GTP

Guanylyl cyclase, 40, 240–241

Guinea worm, 668–669

Guvacine, 456

H

HAART *See* Highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART)

Haem, 239–240

Haematinic agents, 309–314

Haematological reactions, 696, 708

Haemochromatosis, 311

Haemoglobin, 310, 316

Haemoglobinopathies, 715

Haemolytic anaemia, 316–317, 708

Haemophilia, 297

Haemophilia B, 297

Haemophilus spp., 623t, 629

Haemopoietic growth factors, 309, 314–315, 315f

Haemopoietic system, 309

Haemorrhage
  anticoagulants adverse effects, 302
  fibrinolytic agents adverse effects, 307
  heparin unwanted effects, 299

Haemosiderin, 310–311

Haemostasis, 294–308

Haemostatic drugs, 307

Hageman factor, 218, 294

Hallucinations
drugs causing *See* Psychotomimetic drugs
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine, 468
Halofantrine, 661
Halogenated hydrocarbons, 492
Haloperidol, 555
characteristics, 556t–557t
clinical uses, 367, 562, 562b
distribution, 111
Halothane, 497, 500, 501b
characteristics, 498t
effect on respiratory system, 494
induction and recovery, 498–499
metabolism, 500
pharmacokinetics, 500b
unwanted effects, 167, 700–701, 701b, 708, 708b
Haptens, 707
Harmful effects of drugs *See* Adverse drug reactions/harmful effects; *specific drugs*
Hashimoto's thyroiditis, 413
Healing processes, 73
Hearing loss, aminoglycoside-induced, 135
Heart, 246–264
autonomic control, 142t, 251–252
parasympathetic, 252

sympathetic, 251–252
contraction *See* Heart muscle, contraction
coronary blood flow *See* Coronary blood flow
drugs affecting, 254–263
effects of adrenoceptor agonists, 181–184, 185f
effects of adrenoceptors, 176t
effects of calcium antagonists, 262
failure, 249–250, 278–280, 279f
muscle *See* Heart muscle
myocardial oxygen consumption, 250–251
rate, 246–249
control, 249
effects of cardiac glycosides, 258–259
effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161
rhythm, 246–249
disturbances of, 247–249
effects of cardiac glycosides, 258–259

Heart attack *See* Myocardial infarction

Heart block, 247–249

Heart muscle
contraction, 59–60, 249–250, 250b
drugs that increase, 258–259
force of, 259
heart failure, 249–250
in heart failure, 280
myocardial contractility and viability, 249

ventricular function curves, 249–250, 250f
electrophysiological features, 246
excitation, 56–57
regeneration, 74
Heavy metals
poisoning, 328
teratogenicity, 706
Helicobacter pylori, 362, 364–365
Helicobacter spp., 623t
Helminth infections, 668–669*see also specific types*
Hemicholinium, 167, 167b
Henderson-Hasselbalch equation, 100–101
Heparan sulfate, 296–297
Heparin (and low-molecular-weight heparins)
administration, 299
clinical uses, 298–300
elimination/excretion, 120
mechanism of action, 299, 299f
pharmacokinetics, 299
plasma compartment, 111
repeated dosing, 126
unstable angina, 253
unwanted effects, 299–300, 707–708
Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT), 299–300
Hepatotoxicity, 700–701, 701b

paracetamol, 325
thiazolidinediones, 382
Heptahelical receptors *See* G-protein coupled receptors
HER2, 137
Herbal ecstasy, 590
Herbal preparations, 711t
Herceptin *See* Trastuzumab
Heroin *See* Diamorphine
Herpes labialis, 639
Herpes simplex, 645b
Herpes viruses, 645b, 720
Heterologous desensitisation, 35
Heterotropic interactions, 144
Hexamethonium, 163
High-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, 285–286, 288, 290
Highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART), 646–647, 647b
High-molecular-weight kininogen, 218, 218f
Hill-Langmuir equation, 17
Hiostidine decarboxylase, 211
Hirudins, 300
Histaminase, 211
Histamine, 210–211, 211b, 360

action/effects, 8, 211
in asthma, 338
in the CNS, 471, 473b
gastric acid secretion, 361
inhibition by catecholamines, 186
innate immune response, 80–81
receptors, 211 (*see also specific histamine receptors*)
release, 211
effects of opioids, 515
storage, 211
synthesis, 211
triple response, 211
vomiting, 365
Histamine H_1 receptor, 8, 471
antagonists, 211, 332–334
antiemesis, 366
clinical uses, 333b
allergic emergencies, 344
asthma, 342
insomnia, 532
comparison of commonly used, 333t
drug interactions, 693
pharmacokinetics, 333–334
pharmacological actions, 333
Histamine H_2 receptor, 8, 471
agonists, 211

antagonists, 211, 332
inhibition/neutralisation of gastric acid secretion, 362–363
pharmacokinetics, 363
unwanted effects, 363
Histamine H_3 receptor, 8, 471
agonists, 211
antagonists, 211, 332
Histaminergic neurons, 211
Histaminocytes, 211
Histone deacetylase (HDAC), 341, 343–345, 408
Histoplasma capsulatum, 650t
HIV/AIDS, 640–641, 642f–643f
combination therapy, 646–647, 647b
gene delivery vectors, 720
gene therapy for, 723
HIV-1, 640
HIV-2, 640
treatment, 647b *See also* (Antiviral drugs)
HLAB*1502, 135
HLAB*5701, 135
HLA-DQB1*0201, 136
HLA gene tests, 135–136
HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors *See* Statins
Homocysteate in the CNS, 448

Homocysteine-methionine methyltransferase, 313

Homoeopathy, 2

Homologous desensitisation, 35

Homotropic interactions, 144

Homovanillic acid (HVA), 463

Hookworms, 668

Hormone replacement therapy (HRT), 422

Hormone(s)
  antagonists, 683
  anterior pituitary, 396–399
  anticancer drugs, 677, 677t, 682–683, 684b
  gastrointestinal tract, 360
  hypothalamic, 394–396, 395t
  involved in bone metabolism and remodelling, 435–437
  peptide, 228–229
  role in body weight regulation, 385–388, 386f–387f
  unwanted effects, 707–708*see also specific hormones*

Host defence
  cells, 77–88
  nitric oxide, 241–242

Human chorionic gonadotropin (HCG), 417–418, 425
  clinical use, 425
  pharmacokinetics, 425
  preparations, 425

Human genome, 28

Human immunodeficiency virus *See* HIV/AIDS

Humanised antibodies, 234–235

Humoral response, 84–86

Huntingtin, 489

Huntington's disease, 478t, 489

Hyaluronidase, 109

Hybridoma, 717

Hydatid tapeworm, 669

Hydralazine
  clinical uses, 280
  effect of genetics on, 692b
  metabolism, 135
  unwanted effects, 708–709, 708b
  vasodilatation, 273

Hydrocarbons, 600

Hydrochloric acid (HCl), 360

Hydrocortisone, 400–401, 401t
  clinical uses
    allergic emergencies, 344
    chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
    status asthmaticus, 343
  pharmacokinetics, 406

Hydrogen ion transport, 349, 352

Hydrogen peroxide, 267

Hydrogen sulphide, 267

Hydrolytic reactions, 117

Hydromorphone, 518t–519t

5-Hydroperoxytetraenoic acid (5-HPETE), 215

Hydroxycarbamide, 309, 685
  administration, 317
  clinical uses, 316–317
  mechanism of action, 317
  unwanted effects, 317

Hydroxychloroquine, 328

Hydroxycobalamin *See* Vitamin B_{12}

8-Hydroxy-2-(di-n-propylamino)tetralin (8-OH-DPAT), 468

6-Hydroxydopamine, 190, 193b, 463, 584–585

Hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acids (HETEs), 472–473, 472f, 508–509

5-Hydroxyindoleacetic acid (5-HIAA), 194

Hydroxyprogesterone, 421

2-Hydroxysaclofen, 458

11β-Hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase, 400–401, 407

5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT), 194–199
  actions/effects, 196b, 509
  biosynthesis, 194, 195f
  and carcinoid syndrome, 202–203
  clinically used drugs, 468
  in the CNS, 466–468, 469b

degradation, 194
descending inhibitory pathway, 506
distribution, 194
feeding and appetite, 468
functional aspects, 467–468
hallucinatory effects, 468
metabolism, 466–467
and migraine, 199–201
mood, 468
NANC transmission, 145–147, 148t
nociceptive pathway, 510
pathways, 467, 467f
pharmacological effects, 195
and pulmonary hypertension, 203
receptors, 198b, 467 (*see also specific receptors*)
classification, 195–196
drugs acting on, 196–199, 197t
in schizophrenia, 559
release, control of, 572–573, 572f–573f
role in satiety signals, 388
sensory transmission, 468
sleep/wakefulness, 468
transporter, 147–148
vomiting, 365
5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)$_1$ receptors, 196, 198b, 467
agonists, 197, 201, 469b
drugs acting on, 197t

type $_{1A}$, 559, 571–572
agonists
as anxiolytics, 538, 538b
expression, 538
5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)$_2$ receptors, 196, 198b, 467
antagonists, 197–198, 469b
drugs acting on, 197t
type $_{2A}$, 559
5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)$_3$ receptors, 196, 198b, 467
antagonists, 198, 366–367, 469b, 679, 686
drugs acting on, 197t
5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)$_4$ receptors, 196, 198b, 467
agonists, 198
drugs acting on, 197t
5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)$_5$ receptors, 196, 197t, 198b, 467
5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)$_6$ receptors, 196, 197t, 198b, 467
5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)$_7$ receptors, 196, 198b, 467
drugs acting on, 197t
5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) reuptake inhibitors, 532
Hydroxyzine, 333t
Hygiene hypothesis, 671
Hymenolepsis nana, 668
Hyoscine, 159–160, 590
action/effects, 470

clinical uses
antiemesis, 366
gastrointestinal motility, 369
effects, 161
Hyoscine butylbromide, 159–160
Hyoscyamine, 590
Hyperaldosteronism, 401
Hyperalgesia, 503–505
Hyperbola, rectangular, 17, 17f
Hypercholesterolaemia, 243–244, 290–291
Hyperglycaemia, 379
adrenaline-induced, 184–186
effect of glucocorticoids, 406
Hyperimmune globulin, 645
Hyperkalaemia, 355–356, 358
Hyperlipoproteinaemia, 287t
Hyperphagia, 385
Hyperphosphataemia, 358
Hyperplasia, 73
Hyperprolactinaemia, 397–398
Hyperpyrexia, malignant *See* Malignant hyperpyrexia
Hypersensitivity, 707–709, 708b
clinical types of, 707–709

effects of local anaesthetics, 528
heparin unwanted effects, 300
immunological mechanisms, 707
type I (anaphylactic/immediate), 87
type II (antibody-dependent cytotoxic), 87
type III (complex-mediated), 87
type IV (cell-mediated), 87
Hypertension, 188, 277–278, 278f
effects of MAOIs, 578
pulmonary, 195, 203, 282, 282b, 282f
in renal failure, 357–358
thiazide diuretics in, 355
Hyperthermia, malignant *See* Malignant hyperthermia
Hyperthyroidism, 413
and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 692
treatment, 414–415, 415b
Hyperuricaemia, 331b, 354
Hyphae, 649
Hypnotic drugs, 532–533, 533b
clinical use, 539b
dependence, 593t *See also* Anxiolytics
Hypnozoites, 657
Hypoaldosteronism, 300
Hypoglycaemia, 372
β-receptor antagonists, 189

effects of insulin, 379

Hypoglycaemic agents
clinical uses, 379b, 383b *See also* Insulin *specific types*

Hypokalaemia, 354–355

Hypokinesia, 485

Hypomagnesaemia, 354

Hyponatraemia, 355

Hypoparathyroidism, 46, 439

Hypophosphorylated Rb, 67–68

Hypotension
effects of opioids, 515
orthostatic, 561
in Parkinson's disease, 488
postexercise, 163
postural, 163

Hypotensive states, vasoactive drugs for, 280–281

Hypothalamic hormones, 394–396, 395t

Hypothalamic-hypophyseal tract, 399

Hypothalamus, 399b
body weight regulation, 385, 388
effect of glucocorticoids, 402b, 403–404

Hypothermia, 691

Hypothyroidism, 413–414
congenital, 413–414

and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 691
treatment, 415, 415b

I

Ibandronate, 438

Ibogaine, 590

Ibuprofen, 319t
  and Alzheimer's disease, 484
  drug interactions, 693

Icatibant, 219
  actions/effects, 508
  clinical uses, 344

Ice *See* Methamphetamine

Idarubicin, 681

Idazoxan, 187, 462

Idiosyncratic reactions, 689, 692, 692b, 699 *See also* Adverse drug reactions/harmful effects

Idoxuridine, 645

Ifenprodil, 450

Ifosfamide, 678

Imatinib, 40, 75, 685b, 730
  and BCR-ABL1, 137
  clinical uses, 684

Imidazole *N*-methyltransferase, 211

Imidazoline I_1 receptor, 274

Imidazolines, 430

Imidazoquinolones, 78

Imipenem, 628, 629b

Imipramine, 191, 567, 574, 576b
  action/effects, 182t–184t, 192
  characteristics, 568t–570t
  pharmacokinetics, 575f

Immediate hypersensitivity, 87

Immune response
  acquired/adaptive *See* Adaptive (acquired) immune response
  apoptosis and, 70
  innate *See* Innate immune response
  subversion by viruses, 640
  unwanted, 87

Immune system
  effect of glucocorticoids, 402b, 404–405
  helminths, 671
  mediators, 229

Immunoglobulins, 84, 645, 646b, 683–684

Immunomodulators, 644t, 646, 646b

Immunosuppressant drugs, 328–330, 329b
  clinical uses, 329b
  cytotoxic, 84
  drug interactions, 693

Immunosuppression and ethanol, 604

Incontinence, 358

Incretin mimetics, 382
Incretins, 372–373, 377
Indapamide, 355
Indinavir, 643, 646b
Individual variation, 689–692, 689b
  age, 690–691
  disease, 691–692, 692b
  ethnicity, 689
  genetic factors, 692b
  pregnancy, 691
Indometacin, 319t
  absorption, 107–108
  and Alzheimer's disease, 484
  drug interactions, 693
Inducible expression system, 721
Inducible NO synthase (iNOS), 219, 237, 239, 242
Induction, enzyme, 118
Infection
  gene therapy for, 723
  response to, 406
Infiltration anaesthesia, 529t
Inflammation
  adenosine triphosphate in, 207
  bradykinin role in, 219

cytokines in, 208
effect of glucocorticoids, 402b, 404–405, 407–408
leukotrienes role in, 216–217
neurogenic, 219, 337, 504–505
nitric oxide role in, 219
outcome, 87–88
platelet activating factor role in, 217
prostanoids in, 214–215
role of nervous system in, 86–87
systemic responses, 86–88
unwanted, 87

Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), 370

Inflammatory response, 77, 77b

Infliximab, 330, 331t, 718t, 730
chemical antagonism, 15
clinical uses, 370

Inhalation administration, 109

Inhibitors of kinases, 68

Injection of drugs, 109–110

Injury, response to, 406

Ink family, 68

Innate immune response, 77–82
cellular events, 80–82
pathogen recognition, 77–82
vascular events, 78–80

Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase, 330

Inosine pranobex, 646, 646b

Inositol monophosphatase, 581

Inositol phosphate system, 32–34

Inositol (1,4,5) trisphosphate (IP_3), 32–33, 43–44, 52

Inositol trisphosphate receptor (IP_3R), 52

Insecticides, 530

Insomnia treatment *See* Hypnotic drugs

Insulin, 235t, 372–376, 383, 715–716
- actions/effects, 372, 374–376, 374f
  - long term, 376
- clinical uses, 379b
- diabetes mellitus treatment, 378–379
- mechanism of action, 376
- pharmacokinetics, 379
- preparations, 379
- role in body weight regulation, 387t
- secretion, 372–374, 373f
  - drugs that stimulate, 381–382
- signalling pathways, 375f, 376
- synthesis, 372–374
- unwanted effects, 379
- use in sport, 712t

Insulin glargine, 376, 379, 383

Insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-1, 396

Insulin lispro, 379, 383

Insulin receptor substrate (IRS) proteins, 376

Insulin-secreting cells, 74

Integrase inhibitors, 644t

Integrins, 69, 78

Integrons, 617–618

Interactions, drug, 692–696, 696b
  pharmacodynamic, 693
  pharmacokinetic, 693–696
  receptors, 8–10, 16–18*see also specific drugs*

Interferon-α, 210, 646
  action/effects, 209t
  clinical use, 210, 686

Interferon-α-2a, 646

Interferon-α-2b, 646

Interferon-β, 210, 646

Interferon-γ, 210, 646
  action/effects, 209t
  clinical use, 210

Interferons, 37, 82, 210, 235t, 646
  action/effects, 209t
  clinical use, 210, 210b

Interleukin (IL)-1, 78, 208

Interleukin (IL)-2, 84

Interleukin (IL)-3, 343

Interleukins, 208
  action/effects, 209t
  anti-inflammatory, 208
  in asthma, 339

International normalised ratio (INR), 301

International Union of Pharmacological Sciences (IUPHAR), 8

Interstitial cell-stimulating hormone (ICSH), 418–419

Intestine
  drug absorption from, 106, 107f
  drug metabolism in, 117
  epithelial cells, pathogen recognition, 78
  5-hydroxytryptamine in, 194
  motility *See* Motility, gastrointestinal

Intracellular fluid, 110

Intramuscular injection of drugs, 109

Intraocular pressure
  drugs that lower, 159t
  increased, suxamethonium-induced, 166
  regulation, 158–159

Intrathecal injection, 109–110

Intrauterine devices, 113

Intravenous injection of drugs, 109

Intravenous regional anaesthesia, 529t

Intravitreal injection, 110

Intrinsic efficacy, 13

Intrinsic factor, 313, 360

Introns, 132–133

Inwardly rectifying potassium channels, 58, 58t

Inward rectifier channels, 44

Iodide/iodine, 415, 415b
  oxidation, 410
  plasma concentration, 412
  uptake, 410, 412

Ion channels, 20–21, 21f, 22t
  as drug targets, 43–44
  effect of general anaesthetics on, 493–494, 493f
  excitation and, 55–59, 56f
  gating *See* Gating
  ligand-gated *See* Ligand-gated ion channels
  molecular architecture, 44, 45f
  pharmacology of, 44
  presynaptic modulation, 144–145
  selectivity, 43
  targets for G-proteins, 32, 34
  voltage-gated see Voltage-gated ion channels *see also specific ion channels*

Ionisation, 100–101, 120

Ionotropic glutamate receptors, 449–450
  agonists, 455
  antagonists, 453–455
Ionotropic receptors *See* Ligand-gated ion channels
Ion transport, epithelial, 63–64, 64b, 64f
Ion trapping, 101, 120
Iopanoic acid, 413
Ipratropium, 159–160
  clinical uses
    asthma, 342
    chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
    status asthmaticus, 343
  inhalation administration, 109
Iproniazid, 577, 700–701
Ipsapirone, 538
Irbesartan, 275–276
Irinotecan, 137, 682, 683b
Iron, 312b
  administration, 311
  balance, 310–311
  deficiency, 309
  distribution, 310, 310f, 310t
  intestinal absorption, 106
  overload, 311
  toxicity, 311

turnover, 310–311, 310f
unwanted effects, 311
Irritable bowel syndrome, 369–370
Irritant receptors, 337
Ischaemic brain damage, 476, 480–481, 481b
excitotoxicity, 478
pathophysiology, 480–481
therapeutic approaches, 481
Ischaemic heart disease, 253–254
effects of ethanol, 604
effects of smoking, 600 *See also* Angina *See also* Myocardial infarction
Ischaemic preconditioning, 249
Islet amyloid polypeptide, 372, 377
Islets of Langerhans, 372
Isocarboxazid, 568t–570t, 579b
Isoflurane, 494, 497, 498t, 500, 501b
Isoniazid
action/effects, 634
clinical use, 634
drug acetylation deficiency, 134–135
drug interactions, 634
effect of genetics on, 692b
pharmacokinetics, 634
unwanted effects, 634

Isophane insulin, 379

Isoprenaline, 174
  clinical uses, 255t
  translocation of receptors, 16

Isoproterenol, 182t–184t

Isosorbide mononitrate
  clinical uses, 260
  pharmacokinetics, 261

Isotretinoin, 288

Ispaghula husk, 368

Itching
  effects of histamine, 211
  effects of opioids, 515

Itraconazole, 615–616, 652

Ivabradine, 247, 259

Ivermectin, 671
  clinical uses, 669
  pharmacogenomic tests, 135

J

Jacksonian epilepsy, 541

Jak, 39

Jaundice, 561

Juxtaglomerular apparatus, 270, 347, 348f

Juxtamedullary nephrons, 347, 348f

K

Kainate model, 542

Kainate receptors, 449

Kainic acid, 477

Kallidin, 217, 508

Kallikrein, 218, 219b, 306

Kernicterus, 690–691, 694

Ketamine, 493–494, 496, 496t, 497b, 522, 585t, 589–590, 591b
- action/effects, 495b, 554–555
- as an antidepressant, 579
- classification, 446
- clinical use, 454–455, 581
- dependence, 593t
- effect on cardiovascular system, 494
- NDMA receptor blocker, 450, 453–454
- pharmacological effects, 590

Ketoconazole, 402, 652
- P450 inhibition, 117–118
- unwanted effects, 652

Ketocyclazocine, 511–512

Ketoprofen, 319t

Ketorolac, 319t

Ketotifen, 332–333

Kidney(s), 347–359
acid-base balance, 352
diffusion across the renal tubule, 120, 120t
drugs acting on *See* Diuretics
effects of amphotericin on, 651
effects of antidiuretic hormone, 399–400
effects of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, 322–323
excretion via, 115, 119–121
organic molecules, 352–353, 357
failure, drugs used in, 357–358
glomerular filtration, 120
natriuretic peptides, 353
nephron, 347–353
blood supply, 347, 348f
diuretics acting directly on cells of, 353–356
glomerular filtration, 347–349
juxtaglomerular apparatus, 347, 348f
renal clearance, 121
renal function, 347
prostaglandins and, 353
toxicity *See* Nephrotoxicity
tubular function, 349–352, 352b
tubular secretion, 120, 120t
Kinase inhibitors, 75, 484
Kinase inhibitory proteins, 68
Kinase-linked receptors, 24–25, 24f–25f, 24t, 37–40, 38f, 39b

cascade mechanisms, 39–40, 41f
protein phosphorylation, 39–40
Kinases, 39
Kindling model, 542
Kininase II, 218
Kininases, 218
Kininogen, 219b
Kinins, 62, 218, 508
Kinin system, 78–80, 80f
KIP family, 68
Klebsiella, 623t
Kuru, 489–490
Kynurenic acid, 453–454

L

Labetalol, 182t–184t, 187

Lacosamide, 522, 550

Lacrimation
  effects of muscarinic agonists, 158
  effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161

Lactic acidosis, 380

Lactotrophs, 394, 397

Lactulose, 368

Lamivudine, 643, 646b

Lamotrigine, 549
  clinical uses
    bipolar disorder, 581–582, 582b
    epilepsy, 543
    neuropathic pain, 521
  in pregnancy, 551
  properties, 544t–545t
  teratogenicity, 706

Langerhans cells, 81

Lanreotide, 395, 399b, 683

Lansoprazole, 363

L-arginine, 237–238

L-arginine/nitric oxide pathway

clinical conditions, 243
inhibition, 243b

Laropiprant, 291

Lassa fever, 646

Latanoprost, 216b

Lateral horn, 140–141

Law of Mass Action, 17

Laxatives
anthroquinone, 368
bulk, 368
osmotic, 368
stimulant, 368

LCAT (lecithin cholesterol acyltransferase), 286

L-dopa *See* Levodopa

Lead compounds
finding, drug development, 727–728
natural products as, 727–728
optimisation, drug development, 728
teratogenicity, 706

Learning, 470

Leber's congenital amaurosis, 722

Lecithin cholesterol acyltransferase (LCAT), 286

Leflunomide, 330

Legionella, 623t

Leishmania major, 241–242

Leishmaniasis, 665–666

Leishmania spp., 655

Lenalidomide, 685

Lennox-Gastaut syndrome, 542

Lenograstim, 314–315

Lentivirus, 719

Lepirudin, 300

Lepra reactions, 636

Leprosy, 635–636, 636b

Leptin, 93, 184–186
  deficiency, 392
  role in body weight regulation, 386, 386f, 387t, 388, 390

Letrozole, 683

Leucocytosis, 86

Leu-enkephalin, 232, 513t

Leukocytes, 330–331

Leukopenia, 561

Leukotriene (LT)A_4, 215

Leukotriene (LT)B_4, 338

Leukotrienes, 212, 215–217, 217b
  actions, 215–217
  biosynthesis, 214f

receptors, 215
sulfidopeptide, 215
Leuprorelin, 424, 683
Levamisole, 616, 669, 671
Levetiracetam, 549
action/effects, 546
clinical uses
bipolar disorder, 582
epilepsy, 543
properties, 544t–545t
Levobupivacaine, 528, 530b
Levocetrizine, 333t
Levodopa, 445–446
absorption, 112–113
clinical use, 486–488
intestinal absorption, 106
therapeutic effectiveness, 487–488
unwanted effects, 488, 560
Levofloxacin, 631
Levomepromazine, 367
Levonorgestrel, 425–427
Levosimendan, 249
clinical uses, 281
vasodilatation, 272

Levothyroxine, 415, 415b

Lewy bodies, 486

Lexatumumab, 74

Lexipafant, 217, 217b

Leydig cells, 418–419

L-histidine, 177

Lidocaine, 256
  action/effects, 528
  clinical use, 521, 522b, 526
  drug interactions, 696
  mechanism of action, 255, 255t
  properties, 527t

Lifestyle drugs, 713b
  classification, 710
  commonly used, 711t
  definition, 710

Ligand-activated transcription factors, 40 *See also* Nuclear receptors

Ligand-gated ion channels, 20, 23, 24f–25f, 24t, 26–27, 28b, 44
  calcium *See* Calcium channels
  gating, 43
  gating mechanism, 27, 27f
  molecular structure, 26–27, 26f

Ligand specificity, 7

Lincosamides, 624t

Linezolid, 631b, 633

Liothyronine, 415, 415b

Lipid-lowering drugs, 288–292

Lipid mediators, 444t, 472–473, 472f, 473b

Lipids
  drug diffusion through, 100–101
  effect of glucocorticoids, 402b
  metabolism, effects of ethanol, 604
  peroxidation, 700
  transport, 286–288 *See also* Cholesterol *See also* Triglycerides

Lipid solubility of general anaesthetics, 492–493, 493f

Lipophilic drugs, 115

Lipopolysaccharide, 239

Lipoprotein
  high-density, 286, 288, 290
  low-density, 286, 288, 290
  transport, 286–288, 287f, 288b
  very low-density, 286, 290

Liposomes
  gene delivery vectors, 720
  packaging in, 113

Lipoxins, 212, 215, 217

5-Lipoxygenase, 215

Lipoxygenases, 213, 267

Liquid paraffin, 368

Lispro, 379, 383

Listeria, 630

Lithium, 32–33
- antidiuretic hormone inhibition, 352
- classification, 446
- clinical uses, 581–582, 582b
- drug interactions, 693, 696
- effect on antidiuretic hormone, 399–400
- mechanism of action, 581
- personalisation, 132
- pharmacokinetics, 129–130, 582
- pharmacological effects, 581
- toxicity, 582

Liver
- allergic damage, 708
- anticoagulants adverse effects, 302
- drug toxicity, 136
- effects of ethanol, 604
- enterohepatic circulation, 119
- toxicity *See* Hepatotoxicity

Liver oxysterol receptor (LXR), 42

L-NAME (N^G-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester), 242

L-NMMA (N^G-monomethyl-L-arginine), 242

Loa loa, 668–669

Lobeline, 162

Local anaesthetics *See* Anaesthetics, local

Locus coeruleus, 444–445, 506

Lofexidine, 597b

Lomustine, 678, 679b

Long QT syndrome, 59

Long-term depression, 451–452, 472

Long-term potentiation, 451–453, 454f, 472

Loop diuretics, 353–354
  clinical uses, 269, 354b
  drug interactions, 696
  pharmacokinetics, 354
  unwanted effects, 354

Loop of Henle, 347, 349–350, 351f

Loperamide, 369, 520

Lopinavir, 643

Loratadine, 333t

Lorazepam, 538b
  administration route, 548
  characteristics, 533t
  clinical uses
    antiemesis, 686
    insomnia, 532
  pharmacokinetics, 536

Lormetazepam, 533t

Losartan, 234, 274t, 275–276

Lovastatin, 75, 289

Low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, 285–286, 288, 290

Low-density lipoprotein receptor, 7

Low-molecular-weight heparins *See* Heparin (and low-molecular-weight heparins)

LSD *See* Lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD)

LTB_4, 215

L-tryptophan, 177

L-type calcium channels, 50, 51t
  blockers, 256
  heart, 246
  muscle contraction, 59–60
  smooth muscle contraction, 60–61

L-tyrosine, 175–177

Lugol's iodine, 415, 415b

Lukasts, 342

Lumefantrine, 659, 661, 663b

Lungs
  disease, 337–345 (*see also specific diseases*)
  drug metabolism in, 117
  excretion via, 115 *See also* Respiratory system *entries beginning* Pulmonary

Lupus, drug-induced, 135

Luteinising hormone (LH), 395, 395t, 425
  clinical use, 425
  male reproductive system, 418–419
  menstrual cycle, 417
  pharmacokinetics, 425
  preparations, 425

Lutropin, 425

Lymecycline, 628

Lymphocytes, 85t, 216
  adaptive immune response, 82–84
  adrenoceptor expression, 186
  bone remodelling, 432 *See also* Bcells *See also* T cells

Lymphoma, 684

Lypressin, 235t

Lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD), 196, 221, 466, 585t, 589–590, 591b
  adverse effects, 589
  dependence, 589, 593t
  pharmacological effects, 589

Lysoglyceryl-phosphorylcholine (lyso-PAF), 212

Lysozyme, 610

Lysyl bradykinin, 217

M

Macrogols, 368

Macroheparin, 211

Macrolide antibiotics, 622, 631
- action/effects, 631b
- antimicrobial spectrum, 631
- drug interactions, 430
- mechanism of action, 624t, 631
- pharmacokinetics, 631
- unwanted effects, 631

Macrophage-activating $CD4^+$ T-helper lymphocytes, 86

Macrophage inflammatory protein (MIP)-1, 209t

Macrophages, 216
- adaptive immune response, 82–83
- in apoptosis, 71
- bone remodelling, 432
- innate immune response, 81
- pathogen recognition, 78

Macrovascular disease in diabetes mellitus, 377–378

Macula densa, 270, 347

Magnesium chloride, 255t

Magnesium hydroxide, 364, 368

Magnesium salts, 364

Magnesium sulphate, 368

Magnesium trisilicate, 364

Major basic protein, 339

Major histocompatibility complex (MHC), 82–83, 639

Malaria, 655–663, 656b
  parasite life cycle, 656–658, 657f
  treatment *See* Antimalarial drugs

Malignant hyperpyrexia, 133–134, 500

Malignant hyperthermia, 500, 692
  suxamethonium-induced, 167

Malnutrition, effects of ethanol, 604

Mammalian cells, 716–717

Mammary gland, 399b

Mammotrophs, 394, 397

Mapatumumab, 74

Maraviroc, 645, 646b–647b, 647

Mast cells
  antibodies and, 86
  histamine in, 211
  innate immune response, 80–81
  pathogen recognition, 78

Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), 69–70
  inhibitors, 75

Maximal response, 9–10

Maximum plasma concentration, 123

McNA343, 154

MCP-1[3], 81

MDMA (methylenedioxymethamphetamine), 469b, 585t, 589–590, 591b
  actions/effects, 468
  dependence, 593t
  lifestyle use, 711t
  pharmacological effects, 590, 590f

Measurement in pharmacology, 89–98*see also specific tests*

Mebendazole, 670

Mebeverine, 369

Mecamylamine, 469–470, 598, 600b, 602

Mecasermin, 397

Mecillinam, 627

Mediators
  definition, 208
  exhaustion of, 16
  types of, 444t

Medicine, definition, 1

Medroxyprogesterone, 421, 422b, 427, 683

Mefenamic acid, 319t
  clinical uses, 428
  unwanted effects, 322

Mefloquine
clinical uses
malaria chemoprophylaxis, 659
malaria treatment, 658, 661, 663b
pharmacokinetics, 661
unwanted effects, 661
Megaloblastic haemopoiesis, 311–312
Megestrol, 683
Meglumine antimoniate, 666
Meissner's plexus, 360
Melanin, 398–399
Melanocortin receptors, 398–399
Melanocortins, 392, 398–399
Melanocytes, 398
Melanocyte-stimulating hormone (MSH), 394, 398–399
Melanocyte-stimulating hormone (MSH) release-inhibiting factor, 395t
Melanocyte-stimulating hormone (MSH) releasing factor, 395t
Melarprosol, 665
Melatonin, 471, 473b
lifestyle use, 711t
metabolism, 471
receptors, 471
secretion, 471
Meloxicam, 319t

Melphalan, 678

Memantine, 478, 522
  clinical use, 454–455
    Alzheimer's disease, 483–485
    bipolar disorder, 581
  NDMA receptor blocker, 453–454

Membranes, cell, movement of drugs across, 99–103, 100f

Membrane transporters, 148–149

Memory, 470
  and benzodiazepines, 535

Memory cells, 84

Menadiol sodium phosphate, 298

Menorrhagia, 428

Menstrual cycle, 417, 418f

Mepacrine, 328, 666

Meperidine *See* Pethidine

Mepivacaine, 527t

Meprobamate, 532, 549

Meptazinol, 520

Mepyramine, 211, 363t

Mercaptopurine, 118–119, 616b, 681, 681b
  action/effects, 611
  drug interactions, 332, 695

teratogenicity, 706
unwanted effects, 706
6-Mercaptopurine, 117, 370
Mercurous chloride, 1
Mercury, teratogenicity, 706
Meropenem, 628
Merozoites, 657
Mesalazine
absorption, 108
clinical uses, 370
Mescaline, 585t, 589–590, 591b
adverse effects, 589
dependence, 589, 593t
pharmacological effects, 589
Mesna, 678
Mesocortical pathway, 463
Mesolimbic pathway, 463, 554
Messenger RNA (mRNA), 132–133, 229
splicing, 25–26
Mestranol, 425
Meta-analysis, 97
Metabolism (drug), 115–119
affect of age on, 690–691
altered, 16

definition, 115
first-pass, 108, 118, 118t
gene tests related to, 136–137
induction of microsomal enzymes, 118
inhibition of P450, 117–118
pharmacokinetic interactions, 694–696
pharmacologically active drug metabolites, 118–119, 119t
phase 1 reactions, 115–117, 116f
phase 2 reactions, 116f–117f, 117
stereoselectivity, 117

Metabolism (human)
effect of thyroid hormones, 412
effects of adrenoceptor agonists, 184–186, 185f

Metabolites
excretion, 119–121
pharmacologically active drug, 118–119

Metabotropic receptors *See* G-protein coupled receptors

Metalloproteinase inhibitors, 687

Metaphase, 68

Metastases, 673, 675–676

Met-enkephalin, 232, 513t

Metformin
action, 103, 379–380
clinical uses, 380, 383b
mechanism of action, 379–380

transport, 103, 105f
unwanted effects, 380
Methacholine, 158
Methadone, 510, 513, 518t–519t, 519–520
clinical use, 597b
dependence, 593t
lifestyle use, 711t
Methadone series, 510
Methaemoglobin, 261
Methamphetamine, 584
Methanamine, 633
Methanol
metabolism, 606–607
toxicity, 118–119, 606–607
Methaqualone, 532
Methimazole, 414
Methionine, 325, 701
Method and measurement in pharmacology, 89–98*see also specific tests*
Methotrexate, 327, 334, 616b, 680, 681b
action/effects, 610–611, 680f
administration, 680
drug interactions, 694
intrathecal injection, 109–110
receptor, 7

structure, 680f
unwanted effects
on the fetus, 705–706
on the liver, 700–701
Methotrimeprazine, 560
Methoxamine, 182t–184t
Methoxsalen, 703–704
Methoxyflurane, 500, 500b
3-Methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylglycol (MHPG), 179
Methoxy polyethylene glycol-epoetin beta, 314
Methylcellulose, 368
Methylcobalamin, 313
Methyldopa, 190
action/effects, 182t–184t, 193b, 462
clinical uses, 277–278
unwanted effects, 708, 708b
Methylenedioxymethamphetamine *See* MDMA (methylenedioxymethamphetamine)
Methylephedrine, 713
Methylfolate, 579
Methylnaltrexone bromide, 520
action/effects, 515
blood-brain barrier, 110–111
Methylphenidate, 191, 584

action/effects, 193b
clinical use, 586
lifestyle use, 710, 711t, 713b
use in sport, 713

1-Methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP), 486

Methylphosphorate analogues, 723

Methylprednisolone, 401t

Methylxanthines, 32, 585t, 588, 588b
clinical uses, 206, 588
pharmacological effects, 588
unwanted effects, 588
vasodilatation, 272–273

Methymalonyl-CoA, 313

Methysergide, 197–198, 467
action/effects, 199
migraine management, 202t
properties, 199t
unwanted effects, 199

Meticillin, 622, 627
unwanted effects, 702

Meticillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA), 617, 620

Metoclopramide, 198
clinical uses
antiemesis, 367, 686
gastrointestinal motility, 368

drug interactions, 693
Metoprolol
action/effects, 182t–184t
clinical uses, 280
Metronidazole, 633
action/effects, 605–606
clinical uses, 633
amoebiasis, 664, 664b
giardiasis, 666
trichomoniasis, 666
drug interactions, 695
unwanted effects, 664
Metyrapone, 402
Mianserin, 567, 568t–570t, 577, 579b
Mibefradil, 262
Micafungin, 653
Miconazole, 652
Microangiopathy, 377–378
Microfilaments, 616
MicroRNAs, 72, 74
Microsomal enzymes, 115, 118
Microspheres, gene delivery vectors, 720
Microsporum, 649, 650t
Microtubules, 616, 617b

Midazolam, 496t, 497, 533t, 538b

Mifepristone, 422, 422b

Migraine
  brain hypothesis, 200
  drug management, 199–201, 201b, 202t
    ergot alkaloids, 199
  inflammation hypothesis, 200
  pathophysiology, 200
  prophylaxis, antiepileptic drugs, 550
  vascular theory, 200

Milk
  excretion via, 115
  production, 397

Milnacipran, 567, 568t–570t, 576–577, 577b

Milrinone, 32, 259

Miltefosine, 666

Minamata disease, 706

Mineralocorticoid receptor, 407

Mineralocorticoids, 399b, 406–407, 407b
  actions, 400–401
  antagonists, 407
  clinical uses, 407
  mechanism of action, 407 *See also* Adrenal steroids

Miniature endplate potentials, 62

Minimal alveolar concentration (MAC), 492

Minipumps, osmotically driven, 107–108

Minocycline, 628
  antibacterial spectrum, 628–629
  pharmacokinetics, 629
  unwanted effects, 629

Minoxidil, 117
  clinical uses, 277–278
  lifestyle use, 710, 711t
  vasodilatation, 272

M2 ion channel, 645

Mipomersen, 288

Mirtazapine, 567, 568t–570t, 574, 577, 579b

Misoprostol, 362, 428
  clinical uses, 216b, 322
  gastric mucosa protection, 365
  unwanted effects, 365

Mitochondria, 610
  in apoptosis, 71f, 72
  calcium release, 52
  oxidative stress, 480

Mitochondrial uncoupling proteins (UCP), 388–390

Mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAP kinase), 32, 34–35, 39

Mitomycin, 615, 682, 682b

Mitosis, 66, 68

Mitoxantrone(mitozantrone), 681

Mivacurium, 167b
  characteristics, 165t
  pharmacokinetics, 165
  unwanted effects, 164

Mizolastine, 333t

Moclobemide, 567, 568t–570t, 578, 579b

Modafinil
  clinical use
    attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, 586
    narcolepsy, 586
  lifestyle use, 710, 711t

Molecular biology and peptides, 229

Molecular cloning, 8

Molgramostim, 686–687

Mometasone, 343

Monoamine oxidase-A (MAO-A), 554, 577–578

Monoamine oxidase-B (MAO-B), 577–578
  inhibitors, 486, 488

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs), 567, 577–579, 577t, 579b
  and amfetamines, 584–585
  characteristics, 568t–570t
  chemical aspects, 578

clinical uses
anxiety, 532
smoking cessation, 602
drug interactions, 578–579, 693
food interactions, 578–579
pharmacokinetics, 130
pharmacological effects, 578
toxicity, 578
unwanted effects, 578

Monoamine oxidase (MAO), 117, 179, 191, 194, 577–578

Monoamine receptor antagonists, 567, 568t–570t, 577

Monoamines, 388

Monoamine theory of depression, 564–566, 567b
evidence supporting, 568t–570t
neuroendocrine mechanisms, 565
neuroplasticity, 565–566
trophic effects, 565–566

Monoamine uptake inhibitors, 567, 568t–570t, 573–577*see also specific types*

Monobactams, 618, 624t, 628, 629b

Monoclonal antibodies, 235t, 683–684, 685b, 685f, 717–718
as anticancer drugs, 677, 677t
chimeric, 717, 718f
humanised, 717, 718f
safety issues, 717–718

second-generation, 718t
unwanted effects, 707–708
Monocyte chemoattractant protein (MCP)-1, 209t
Monocytes
bone remodelling, 432
innate immune response, 81
Monoiodotyrosine (MIT), 410
Montelukast
actions/effects, 215–216
clinical uses, 340, 342
Mood
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine, 468
noradrenaline effects, 462
Mood-stabilising drugs, 581, 582b
Morbidly obese, 385
Morphine, 272–273, 499, 510–513, 518t–519t
actions/effects, 468, 516b
affect of age on, 690–691
analogues, 510
bioassays, 92, 92f
clinical uses
cough, 345
gallstone pain, 370
gastrointestinal motility, 369
dependence, 516, 593t

distribution, 111
enterohepatic circulation and, 119
excretion, 352–353
histamine release, 211
overdose, 517
partitioning into fat/tissues, 105
pharmacokinetics, 516–517
pharmacological actions, 514–516
sites of action, 514
synthetic derivatives, 510
tolerance, 516
unwanted effects, 164, 517
use in sport, 712t

Morphine-6-glucuronide, 117

Motility, gastrointestinal, 367–370
drugs decreasing, 369–370
drugs increasing, 368–369
effect on drug absorption, 106
effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161

Motor neuron disease, 478t, 480

Motor systems, 464–465

Moxifloxacin, 631

Moxonidine
actions/effects, 462
clinical uses, 277–278

M phase of cell cycle, 66, 67f, 68

MPTP (1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,5-tetrahydropyridine), 190

mRNA *See* Messenger RNA (mRNA)

MRSA *See* Meticillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA)

Multidrug resistance (MDR), 617–618, 620b
  reversal of, 687
  transporters, 21–23

Multiple sclerosis (MS), 551

Muscarine, 139, 151

Muscarinic ACh receptors, 34, 141, 153–154, 469
  ACh actions, 151
  agonists, 153t, 154, 157–159, 158t, 470
    clinical use, 159
    effects, 158–159, 159f, 159t
    structure-activity relationships, 157–158
  antagonists, 153t, 154, 159–161, 160t
    clinical uses, 161, 162b
      antiemesis, 366
      asthma, 340, 342, 342b
      gastrointestinal motility, 369
      incontinence, 358
      Parkinson's disease, 486, 489
    effects of, 161
  drugs affecting, 157–161
  M_1 (neural), 153, 336

M_2 (cardiac), 153, 156, 252, 336
M_3 (glandular/smooth muscle), 154, 336
M_4, 154
M_5, 154
respiratory system, 336
in schizophrenia, 559
subtypes, 153, 153t

Muscimol, 457–458, 459b

Muscle(s)
contraction *See* Contraction, muscle
effects of non-depolarising blocking agents, 164
fibres, 616, 617b
relaxation
antiepileptic drugs, 551
benzodiazepines, 535
in general anaesthesia, 494
rigidity, 485
spasm, 551*see also specific types*

Musculoskeletal system, effect of glucocorticoids, 402b, 406

Mutagenesis, 702–704, 703b
biomechanical mechanisms of, 703
measurement of, 703–704
site-directed *See* Site-directed mutagenesis

Mutations
antibiotic resistance, 617
gene, 133

Myasthenia gravis, 171–172, 172f
and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 691
receptors and, 45–46
Mycelium, 649
Mycobacteria, 623t, 634
Mycolic acids, 634
Mycophenolate mofetil, 330
Mycophenolic acid, 330
Mycoplasma, 609, 628–629
Mycoses *See* Fungal infections/fungi
Mydriasis, 161
Myelosuppression, 686–687
Myenteric plexus, 360
Myocardial contractility *See* Heart muscle, contraction
Myocardial infarction, 252–254, 698–699
Myocardial oxygen consumption, 250–251
Myocardial stunning, 249
Myometrial cells, 427
Myosin, 59
Myosin light-chain, 61
Myosin light-chain kinase (MLCK), 32, 61
Myosin phosphatase, 61

Myositis
fibrates adverse effects, 290
statins adverse effects, 290
Myxoedema, 413

N

Nabilone, 225
  adverse effects, 222
  clinical uses, 367

Nabumetone, 319t

Nafarelin, 424, 425b

Naftifine, 653

Nalidixic acid, 613–615, 631

Nalorphine, 511–513

Naloxone, 234, 506, 511–513, 520
  clinical uses, 367
  pharmacokinetics, 517

Naltrexone, 234, 513, 520, 603
  clinical use
    ethanol dependence, 605b, 607
    opioid dependence, 597b

Naltrindole, 513t

Nandrolone, 423

Nanoparticles, biologically erodible, 112

Naproxen, 319t

Naratriptan, 202t

Narcolepsy, 586

Nasal sprays, 109

Natalizumab, 69, 330, 331t

Nateglinide, 381

Natriuretic drugs *See* Diuretics

Natriuretic peptides, 353

Natural killer (NK) cells, 639–640
  adaptive immune response, 82
  innate immune response, 82

Nausea, 365
  effects of opioids, 515
  in Parkinson's disease, 488 *See also* Vomiting

N-demethylation, 576

N-desmethyldiazepam, 536

Nebivolol, 182t–184t, 187–188, 243

Necator americanus, 668

Necrosis, 476–477

Nedocromil, 343

Nelarabrine, 681

Nelfinavir, 643

Nemathelminths, 668

Nematodes, 668–669, 671

Neomycin, 630

Neostigmine, 169, 170t, 171b
  effects, 170

reversing non-depolarising blockers, 166

Nephron *See* Kidney(s), nephron

Nephrotic syndrome, 354
and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 691

Nephrotoxicity, 630, 701–702

Nerve block anaesthesia, 529t

Nerve endings/terminals
effects of adrenoceptor agonists, 181
effects of adrenoceptors, 176t
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine on, 195
nociceptive, 507–509
presynaptic *See* Presynaptic terminals

Nerve growth factor (NGF), 37, 478
central facilitation, 505
clinical uses, 522–523

Nervi erigentes, 141

Nervous system
effects of general anaesthetics on, 494
peptides in, 229–231
role in inflammation, 86–87 *See also* Autonomic nervous system *See also* Central nervous system *See also* Neuroendocrine system

Nesiritide, 272

Nesseria spp., 623t, 628–629

Neural transplantation, 489

Neuraminidase inhibitors, 644t, 645, 646b

Neuregulin, 554

Neurodegeneration in schizophrenia, 555

Neurodegenerative diseases, 476–491
  neuronal death, 476–480
  protein misfolding and aggregation, 476, 477b, 477f, 478t*see also specific diseases*

Neuroendocrine system
  effects of dopamine on, 465–466
  mediators, 228
  monoamine theory of depression, 565
  role in inflammation, 86

Neurofibrillary tangles, 481–483

Neurogenesis, 573

Neurogenic inflammation, 219, 337, 504–505

Neurohypophysis, 399–400, 400b

Neurokinin A, 219, 337

Neurokinin B, 337

Neuroleptanalgesia, 497

Neuroleptic drugs *See* Antipsychotic drugs

Neuromodulation, 139, 144–145, 149f, 442–443

Neuromodulators, 444b

Neuromuscular-blocking drugs, 163–167, 165t, 167b *See also*

Depolarising blocking agents *See also* Non-depolarising blocking agents

Neuromuscular junction, 171–172, 172f
  acetylcholine at, 155–156
  effects of anticholinesterases, 170–171

Neuronal death, 476–480

Neuronal nitric oxide synthase (nNOS), 237

Neuropathic pain, 506–507, 509b
  treatment, 521–522, 522b, 550

Neuropeptides, 219, 444t
  clinical uses, 522

Neuropeptide Y, 388
  NANC transmission, 145–147, 148t
  and obesity, 392
  postsynaptic modulation, 145

Neuroplasticity, 504

Neuropsychological tests, 532

Neurosteroids, 458

Neurotoxicity, 603

Neurotoxins, 486

Neurotransmission
  basic steps, 149
  in the central nervous system, 442–447, 444b
  general principles, 143–149

Neurotransmitters, 21–23, 28, 228, 444b

adenosine triphosphate, 207
amino acid *See* Amino acid(s), transmitters
in the autonomic nervous system, 141–143, 143b
termination of action, 147–149
Neurotrophic factor, 444b
Neurotrophins, 444t, 543
Neutropenia, 414
Neutrophil elastase, 306
Neutrophilia, 86
Neutrophils, 80, 216
Nevirapine, 643, 647b
N^G-monomethyl-L-arginine (L-NMMA), 242
N^G-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester (L-NAME), 242
Niclosamide, 669–670
Nicorandil, 261
drug interactions, 430
vasodilatation, 272
Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD), 52, 605
Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) phosphate, 52
Nicotine, 139, 151, 162, 601
absorption, 108–109
action/effects, 470
antidiuretic hormone secretion, 352
dependence, 593t, 597–602, 597b *See also* (Smoking)

treatment, 601–602
pharmacokinetics, 599, 600b
replacement therapy, 601
tolerance, 599
Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors, 141, 151–153, 469
ACh actions, 151
agonists, 151–153, 152t, 162t, 522
antagonists, 151–153, 152t, 162t, 469–470
nicotine dependence, 598–599
presynaptic modulation, 144–145
structure, 25, 26f
subtypes, 151, 152t
Nicotinic acid, 291, 292b, 292f
Nicotinic acid dinucleotide phosphate (NAADP), 52
Nifurtimox, 665
Nigrostriatal pathway, 463
Nikethamide, 713
Nilotinib, 684
Nimodipine, 263
Nipecotic acid, 456
Nitrate(s), 261b
action/effects, 260–261
clinical uses, 259–261, 261b
dietary, 242
pharmacokinetic aspects, 261

tolerance, 261
unwanted effects, 261
Nitrazepam, 533t
Nitric oxide (NO), 237–245, 444t
actions/effects of, 240–242, 241b, 472
biochemical and cellular, 240–241
host defence, 241–242
neuronal, 241
vascular, 241
and apoptosis, 72
biosynthesis and its control, 237–239
carriage, 239–240
central facilitation, 505
clinical conditions, 243–244
in the CNS, 471–472, 473b
degradation, 239–240
donors/precursors, 242
in haemostasis and thrombosis, 296–297
inhibition, 243b
metabolites, 63
NANC transmission, 145–147, 148t
in pathophysiology, 244b
potentiation, 243
release, 151
role in inflammation, 219
synthesis inhibition, 242–243

therapeutic approaches, 242–243, 244b
vascular endothelium, 266–267
Nitric oxide synthase (NOS), 237, 472
constitutive, 237–238, 239f
endothelial, 237–240
inducible, 208, 237, 239, 242
neuronal, 237
Nitrofurantoin, 633
Nitrogen dioxide, 600
Nitrogen mustards, 615, 678–679, 679b
7-Nitroindazole, 242
Nitroprusside, 240, 272
Nitrosureas, 615, 678, 679b
Nitrous oxide, 492, 494, 497, 500–501, 501b
action/effects, 495b
characteristics, 498t
effect on cardiovascular system, 494
induction and recovery, 498
pharmacokinetics, 500b
Nitrovasodilators, 16, 242
Nizatidine, 363
NK_1 receptor antagonists, 367
NMDA receptors
activation, 477

antagonists, 484b
effects of ethanol, 603
effects of general anaesthetics on, 494
glutamate, 44, 50–51, 449, 451, 452f–453f, 453–454
in schizophrenia, 554–555
special features, 450, 452–453

Nociceptin, 229, 513t

Nociception
adenosine triphosphate in, 207
afferent neurons, 503, 504f
chemical signalling in, 507–509
mechanisms, 509b
modulation in, 503–506, 504f, 506b
modulators, 509–510
and pain, 507
transmitters, 509–510

Nociceptive nerve endings chemosensitivity, 507–509

Nocistatin, 229

NOD-like receptors, 77–78

Noise analysis, ligand-gated ion channels, 27, 27f–28f

Non-adrenergic non-cholinergic (NANC) transmission, 145–147, 148t
nitric oxide, 241
respiratory system, 336

Non-depolarising blocking agents, 164–166, 167b
comparison with depolarising blocking agents, 166

effects of, 164
mechanism of action, 164
pharmacokinetic aspects, 164–166
recovery rate, 164f
unwanted effects, 164
Non-linear mixed effects modelling (NONMEM), 129
Non-nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors, 643, 644t, 646b–647b
Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), 318–319
action/effects
analgesia, 321–322
on antidiuretic hormone, 399–400
anti-inflammatory, 321
antipyretic, 321
on gastrointestinal tract, 362
pharmacological, 321
therapeutic, 321–323
and Alzheimer's disease, 484
asthma, 339
clinical uses, 324b
commonly used, 323–326
drug interactions, 693
future developments, 334
mechanism of action, 319–321, 320f
with opioids, 521
and renal function, 353
unwanted effects, 322–323, 323b, 698–699

allergic reactions, 708
cardiovascular, 323
gastrointestinal, 322, 322f
kidneys, 322–323, 701–702, 702t
skin, 322
and warfarin, 301

Non-vesicular release mechanisms, 63

Nootropic drugs *See* Cognition enhancers

Noradrenaline, 139, 141–143, 174
acetylcholine inhibition, 156
action/effects, 182t–184t
arousal and mood, 462
blood pressure regulation, 462
in the CNS, 461–462, 462b
co-transmission, 147, 147f
functional aspects, 461–462
nociceptive pathway, 510
release, 177–178
drugs affecting, 182t–184t, 190
regulation, 178, 178f
role in satiety signals, 388
storage, 177
drugs affecting, 190
synthesis, 175–177
drugs affecting, 182t–184t, 190
transporter, 147–148

uptake
drugs affecting, 182t–184t
inhibitors, 192, 192f
vasodilatation, 272
Noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors, 567, 576–577, 577b
characteristics, 568t–570t
clinical uses, 532
Noradrenergic neurons, 175–178
drugs affecting, 190–192, 193b, 277
noradrenaline release, 177–178
noradrenaline storage, 177
noradrenaline synthesis, 175–177
Noradrenergic pathways in the CNS, 461
Noradrenergic transmission, 174–193, 180b
drugs acting on, 181–192, 182t–184t
physiology, 175–179
Nor-binaltorphimine, 513t
Nordazepam, 536, 538b
Norehisterone, 683
Norepinephrine transporter (NET), 178–179, 179t
inhibition, 192
Norethisterone, 421, 422b, 425–426
Norfloxacin, 631
action/effects, 613–615
clinical use, 632b

pharmacokinetics, 632
resistance, 620
Norgestrel, 421
Nortriptyline, 567, 574, 576f
characteristics, 568t–570t
clinical use, 521, 581
Novobiocin, 622
Nuclear factor kappa B (NFκB), 39
Nuclear receptors, 24f–25f, 24t, 25, 40–43, 41f
classification, 42, 42b
control of gene transcription, 42–43
structure of, 40–42
Nucleic acid synthesis, 612–615
inhibition, 612
Nucleocapsid, 638
Nucleoside analogues, 641, 646b
Nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors, 641–646, 644t, 647b
Nucleus accumbens (NAc), 388, 463
Nucleus basalis of Meynert, 468–469
Nucleus tractus solitarus (NTS), 388
Null hypothesis, 96
Number needed to treat (NNT), 97–98
Nystatin, 615, 651

O

Obatoclax, 74

Obesity, 385–393, 391b
  animal models, 93
  definition, 385
  as a disorder of homeostatic control of energy balance, 390
  energy expenditure control, 388–389
  food intake and, 390
  genetic factors, 390–391
  as a health problem, 389–391
  morbidly obese, 385
  neurological circuits controlling body weight and eating behaviour, 388–389
  new approaches to therapy, 392–393
  pathophysiology of, 389–390
  pharmacological approaches to, 391–392, 391f
  physical exercise and, 390
  role of hormones in body weight regulation, 385–388, 386f–387f

Ob gene, 385–386, 390

Oblimersen, 74

Obsessive-compulsive disorder, 531

Occupancy (of receptors), 11–13

Ocrelizumab, 334

Octreotide, 235t, 394–395, 397, 399b

action, 377
clinical uses
anticancer drugs, 683
carcinoid syndrome management, 202–203
vasoconstriction, 271
Oculomotor nerve, 141
Odanacatib, 440
Oedema, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs effects, 321
Oestradiol, 420
Oestriol, 420
Oestrogen(s), 420–421, 421b
actions, 420
administration routes, 109
as an antidepressant, 579
antiandrogen activity, 424
atheromatous disease prevention, 288
bone metabolism and remodelling, 436
clinical uses, 421b
anticancer drugs, 683
bone disorders, 438–439
drug interactions, 635
effect on prolactin secretion, 397
mechanism of action, 420
menstrual cycle, 417
pharmacokinetics, 420

preparations, 420
receptor modulator, 420–421
receptors, 420
replacement *See* Hormone replacement therapy (HRT)
teratogenicity, 704t
unwanted effects, 420, 704t
Oestrone, 420
Ofatumumab, 334
Ofloxacin, 631
clinical use, 632b
pharmacokinetics, 632
Oil : gas partition coefficient, 498
Olanzapine, 561
action/effects, 559–560
clinical efficacy, 563
clinical uses, 562b, 581
anxiety, 532
bipolar disorder, 581–582, 582b
Olapatadine, 332–333
Olsalazine
absorption, 108
clinical uses, 370
Omalizumab, 338, 343, 718t
Omega-3, 291–292
Omeprazole, 304

clinical uses, 363
drug interactions, 695
pharmacokinetics, 363–364

Onchocerca volvulus, 668–669

Onchocerciasis, 671

Oncogenes, 673

Ondansetron, 366–367, 467–468, 469b, 679, 686

Onychomycosis, 649

Oocyst, 656–657

Opiates
clinical uses, 369
drug interactions, 693
intrathecal injection, 109–110
lifestyle use, 711t

Opioid drugs, 510–520
cellular actions, 513–514
chemical aspects, 510
clinical uses, 345
dependence, 516, 593t, 597b
effects, 18
mechanism of action, 513–514
with non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, 521
pharmacokinetics, 516–517
pharmacological actions, 514–516
structure, 511f

terminology, 510b
tolerance, 516
unwanted effects, 517
Opioid peptides, 232, 233f, 509, 513t
Opioid receptors, 511–512, 513b
agonists, 513, 513t
antagonists, 513, 513t, 520
functional effects, 512t
Opium, 510
Opportunistic infections, 649
Opsonin, 79–80
Orai1, 51
Oral administration, 106–108*see also specific drugs*
Oral contraceptives, 425–426
combined pill, 425–426
drug interactions, 426
lifestyle use, 711t
pharmacokinetics, 426
progestogen-only pill, 426
Oral thrush, 406
Orexigenic neurons, 388
Orexins, 229
Organic anion transporters (OATs), 101–103, 119–120, 120t
Organic cation transporters (OCTs), 101–103, 104f–105f, 119–120, 120t

Organophosphates, 108, 171

Origins of pharmacology, 1–2

Orlistat, 392
  clinical uses, 391
  lifestyle use, 711t
  pharmacokinetics, 392
  unwanted effects, 392

Ornithine decarboxylase deficiency, 721

Orphanin FQ, 513t

Orphan receptors, 40

Orthostatic hypotension, 561

Oseltamivir, 645, 646b

Osmotically driven minipumps, 107–108

Osmotic diuretics, 356

Osmotic laxatives, 368

Ostabolin, 439

Osteoblasts, 432, 434f

Osteocalcin, 432

Osteoclasts, 432–433, 434f

Osteocytes, 432

Osteoid, 432

Osteomalacia, 437

Osteonectin, 432

Osteopenia, 437
Osteopontin, 69
Osteoporosis, 437, 698
  effect of glucocorticoids, 406
  heparin unwanted effects, 300
  treatment, 437, 438b
Osteoprotegerin (OPG), 433–434
Ototoxicity, 630
Ouabain, 258
Outcome measures, clinical, 96
Overview analysis, 97
Ovulation, 399b, 417–418
Oxaliplatin, 679
Oxazepam
  characteristics, 533t
  pharmacokinetics, 536
Oxazolidinones, 624t, 633
Oxcarbazepine, 546
  clinical uses
    epilepsy, 543
    neuropathic pain, 521
Oxidase LDL (oxLDL), 285
Oxidation, 117
  by P450 system, 115–116

Oxidative stress, 480, 480b

Oxotremorine, 154

Oxprenolol, 187–188

Oxybutynin, 159–160, 358

Oxycintomodulin, 387t

Oxycodone, 510, 518t–519t, 519
  dependence, 593t
  pharmacokinetics, 516–517

Oxygen therapy
  allergic emergencies, 344
  chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
  status asthmaticus, 343

Oxyntic cells, 360

Oxytetracycline, 628

Oxytocin, 235t, 397, 399, 427, 429b

P

P21, 68, 72

P2X ionotropic receptors, 204, 206t, 207, 471, 509

P2Y metabotropic receptors, 204, 206t, 207, 471

P450 monooxygenase system, 115–117, 116f, 116t, 652
  and biological variation, 117
  inhibition, 117–118, 695

P53, 68

PABA *See* *P*-aminobenzoic acid (PABA)

Pacemaker, ectopic activity, 248–249

Pacemaker potential, 247

Paclitaxel, 94–95, 682, 683b, 727–728

PAF-acether *See* Platelet activating factor (PAF)

Paget's disease, 437, 438b

Pagoclone, 534

PAG (periaqueductal grey), 505–506

Pain
  mechanisms, 509b
  neural mechanisms of, 503–510
  neuropathic, 506–507, 509b, 521–522, 522b, 550
  and nociception, 507
  transient receptor potential channels, 507–508
  transmission to higher centres, 505

Palivisumab, 646, 718t

Palonosetron, 366–367

Palpitations, 247–248

Pamidronate, 438

P-aminobenzoic acid (PABA), 622–623, 661, 680

PAMPs *See* Pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs)

Pancreatic islet hormones, 372–377

Pancreatic polypeptide secretion, 372

Pancuronium, 164, 167b
  characteristics, 165t
  unwanted effects, 164

Pancytopenia, 630

Panic disorder, 531

Panitumumab, 684, 685b

Pantoprazole, 363

Papaverine, 272–273, 429

PAR-2, 29

Paracalcitol, 439

Paracelsus, 698

Paracetamol, 117, 325, 325b, 521, 522b
  action, 319
  asthma, 339
  combination therapy, 521

drug interactions, 694–695
hepatotoxicity, 118–119
overdose, 323
pharmacokinetics, 325
unwanted effects, 325, 699–700, 699b
liver, 700–701, 701b

Parallel line assays, 91

Paralysis
aminoglycosides, 630–631
prolonged, suxamethonium-induced, 166–167

Para-methoxyamphetamine, 590

Parasympathetic nervous system, 140–141
control of the heart, 252
respiratory system, 336–337

Parasympatholytics *See* Muscarinic ACh receptors, antagonists

Parasympathomimetics *See* Muscarinic ACh receptors, agonists

Parathion, 169–170, 170t

Parathormone, 350

Parathyroid hormone
bone metabolism and remodelling, 435, 437b
clinical use, 439

Paraventricular nucleus, 388, 399

Paravertebral chains, 140–141

Parecoxib, 319t, 326

Pargyline, 578

Parietal cells, 360–362, 361f

Parkin, 485–486

Parkinson's disease, 476, 485–489
  animal models, 93
  drug treatment, 486–489, 489b
    acetylcholine antagonists, 489
    amantadine, 489
    dopamine agonists, 488
    levodopa, 487–488
    MAO-B inhibitors, 488
  features, 485–486, 485f
  neural transplantation and brain stimulation, 489
  neurochemical changes, 485–486
  pathogenesis, 486
    molecular aspects, 486
    neurotoxins, 486
  protein misfolding and aggregation, 478t
  in smokers, 601

Paroxetine, 567, 568t–570t, 573

Paroxysmal depolarising shift (PDS), 542–543, 542f

Paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria (PNH), 316, 316f

Particle size and intestinal absorption, 106–107

Partition coefficients, 498

Partitioning (of drugs), 105–106

Pasteur, Louis, 1

Patch clamp recording technique, 27, 28f

Pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), 77–78

Pathogen recognition, 77–82

Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), 77–78, 79t

P-chlorophenylalanine (PCPA), 466–468

PD-1 death receptor, 75

Peak expiratory flow rate (PEFR), 336

PECAM (platelet endothelium adhesion molecule), 80

Pegfilgrastim, 314–315

Pegvisomant, 397

PEGylation, 717

Pelvic ganglia, 141

Pemetrexed, 681

Penciclovir, 112–113, 645

Pendred's syndrome, 413–414

Pendrin (PDS), 410

Penicillamine, 327–328
  unwanted effects
    on the fetus, 704t
    kidneys, 702

Penicillin-binding proteins, 612, 626

Penicillin G *See* Benzylpenicillin

Penicillin(s), 328, 357, 616b, 618, 625–627, 629b, 727–728
  action/effects, 612
  antimicrobial activity, 627
  blood-brain barrier, 110
  clinical uses, 627b
  discovery of, 622
  drug interactions, 693, 696
  elimination/excretion, 120
  excretion, 119–120, 352–353
  mechanism of action, 624t, 626–627
  pharmacokinetics, 627
  types of, 627
  unwanted effects, 627, 699
    allergic reactions, 707–708, 708b
    kidneys, 702

Penicillin V *See* Phenoxymethylpenicillin

Penicillium griseofulvum, 651

Pentamidine, clinical uses
  leishmaniasis, 665
  trypanosomiasis, 664–665

Pentazocine, 510, 513, 518t–519t, 520

Pentosan polyphosphate, 490

Pentostatin, 681, 681b

Pentylenetetrazol, 535, 542

Pepsinogen, 360

Peptic cells, 360

Peptic ulcer, 360, 362

Peptide hormones, 386

Peptides
- agonists, 234
- antagonists, 234
- biosynthesis, 231–233, 232f, 233b
- blood-brain barrier, 110–111
- diversity, 232–233
  - gene splicing, 232
  - post-translational modification, 232–233
- as drugs, 234–235, 234b, 235t
- historical aspects, 228
- molecular biology, 229
- multiple physiological roles of, 231
- in the nervous system, 229–231
- precursors, 231–232
- regulation, 231–233
- release, 233b
- secretion, 233
- structure, 228, 231b
- trafficking, 233
- types of, 228–229
- vascular endothelium, 267
- vasoconstriction, 271, 272b

Peptidoglycan, 609
  synthesis, 611–612
Peptidomimetics, 228
Peptoids, 234
Pergolide, 488
Periaqueductal grey (PAG), 505–506
Pericyazine, 559
Pericytes, 99
Perifosine, 75
Peripheral sensory neurons
  effects of smoking, 598–599
  role in inflammation, 87
Peripheral vascular disease, 281, 600
Permeability coefficient, 100
Permethrin, 658
Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ (PPARγ), 381–382
Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs), 23, 42, 390
Peroxynitrite anion, 239–240
Perphenazine, 367
Personalised medicine, 132–138
Pertussis toxin, 30–32
Pethidine, 510, 518t–519t, 520
  affect of disease on, 691

clinical uses, 370
drug interactions, 579, 579b
P-glycoprotein, 259, 686
P-glycoprotein transporters, 103, 119
pH, 100–101
partition, 101, 102f
Phaeochromocytoma, 186–187
Phagocytosis, 85
Pharmacodynamics, 123
Pharmacoeconomics, 4–5
Pharmacoepidemiology, 4
Pharmacogenetics, 4, 132–138
Pharmacogenomics, 4, 132–138
Pharmacokinetic antagonism, 15
Pharmacokinetic disorders, single-gene, 133–135
Pharmacokinetics, 99–114, 123–131
complicated models, 126–129
definition, 123–124
drug elimination expressed as clearance, 124
limitations of, 129–130
population, 129
saturation kinetics, 128–129, 129f
single-compartment model, 124–126, 125f–126f
two-compartment model, 127–128, 128f

uses of, 130b*see also individual drugs; individual parameters*

Pharmacological studies in humans, 93–94 *See also* Clinical trials *specific studies*

Phase inversion nanoencapsulation, 112

Phenacetin, 323, 702

Phencyclidine, 496, 589–590, 591b
action/effects, 554–555, 560
NDMA receptor blocker, 450, 453–454
pharmacological effects, 590

Phenelzine, 567, 568t–570t, 577, 579b

Phenindione, 300

Phenobarbital, 703
action/effects, 547
clinical uses, 543, 548
drug interactions, 695
nuclear receptors, 42
pharmacokinetic antagonism, 15
pharmacokinetics, 548
properties, 544t–545t
unwanted effects, 548

Phenobarbitone, 605

Phenoxybenzamine, 182t–184t, 186–187, 192

Phenoxymethylpenicillin, 627, 627b

Phentolamine

action/effects, 182t–184t, 186–187
clinical uses, 429

Phenylalkylamines, 262

Phenylbutazone
drug interactions, 694
unwanted effects, 708

Phenylephrine, 11–13, 12f
action/effects, 182t–184t
clinical uses, 429

Phenylethanolamine *N*-methyl transferase (PNMT), 177, 462

Phenylpiperidine series, 510

Phenytoin, 256
action/effects, 546
clinical uses, 543, 546–547, 550b
distribution, 111
drug interactions, 342, 426, 634, 694
hypersensitivity, 135
pharmacokinetics, 547
in pregnancy, 551
properties, 544t–545t
saturation kinetics, 128
unwanted effects, 547
allergic reactions, 708b
on the fetus, 704t, 705–706
liver, 700–701

Phobias, 531

Pholcodine
  actions/effects, 515
  clinical uses, 345

Phosphatases, 39

Phosphate (bone mineral), 434
  binding preparations, 358
  excess *See* Hyperphosphataemia

Phosphatidylinositol (4,5) bisphosphonate (PIP_2), 32–33, 34f

Phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase (PI_3), 39–40

Phosphatidyl inositol pathway, 581

Phosphodiesterase inhibitors, 588
  clinical uses
    asthma, 341
    chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
    erectile dysfunction, 429–430, 430f
    heart failure, 280
  drug interactions, 430
  effect on myocardial contraction, 259
  mechanism of action, 429
  pharmacokinetics, 430
  unwanted effects, 430
  vasodilatation, 272–273

Phosphodiesterases (PDEs), 32

Phosphodiesterase type V inhibitors, 243

Phosphoinositides (PIs), 32–33, 35f

Phospholipase A_2, 212–213

Phospholipase C, 32–34, 212

Phospholipase Cβ, 32–33

Phospholipase D, 212

Phospholipases, 374

Phospholipids
  cleavage, 472
  mediators derived from, 212f, 213b
  structure, 213f

Phospholipid transfer protein (PLTP), 286

Phosphoramidon, 267–268

Phosphorylation, 35, 39–40, 228

Phosphothiorate analogues, 723

Physical exercise, 390–391

Physiochemical factors affecting drug absorption, 108

Physiological antagonism, 15

Physostigmine, 139, 161, 169, 170t, 171b

Phytomenadione, 298

Picrotoxin, 458, 459b

Pilocarpine, 157–158

Pimecrolimus, 329

PIN, 243

Pindolol, 571–572

Pinocytosis, 100

Pinworm, 668, 669t

Pioglitazone, 381–382, 390

Piperacillin, 627, 627b

Piperazine, 616, 670

Piracetam, 455, 549

Pirenzepine, 154, 159–160

Piroxicam, 319t

Pituitary dwarfism, 397

Pituitary gland, 394–400
  anterior, 394, 399b
    effect of glucocorticoids, 402b, 403–404
    hormones, 396–399
  hypothalamic hormones, 394–396, 395t
  posterior, 399–400, 400b

Pivmecillinam, 627

Pizotifen, 202t

Placebos, 96

Plant derivatives, 677, 677t, 682, 683b, 717

Plant extracts, 1–2

Plasma

drug concentrations in, 123
drug distribution, 111, 112t
drug metabolism in, 117
Plasma cells, 84
Plasma cholinesterase deficiency, 133–134
Plasma membrane, 609, 615–616, 617b
Plasma proteins, 103–105, 105f
Plasmid DNA, 720–721
Plasmids
antibiotic resistance, 617
conjugative, 618
promiscuous, 618
Plasmin, 286, 306
Plasminogen, 286
Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1, 270, 296–297
Plasminogen activators, 306
Plasmodium falciparum, 658–660
Plasmodium malariae, 658
Plasmodium ovale, 658
Plasmodium spp., 655
Plasmodium vivax, 658–659
Platelet activating factor (PAF), 212, 217, 217b
actions, 217

role in inflammation, 217
Platelet-dependent growth factor (PDGF), 69
Platelet endothelium adhesion molecule (PECAM), 80
Platelet(s)
and adenosine diphosphate, 206
adhesion and activation, 302–305, 303f
effects of antidiuretic hormone, 400
effects of ethanol, 604
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine on, 195
function, 304b
5-hydroxytryptamine in, 194
innate immune response, 82
Platinum compounds, 679, 679b
Platyhelminths, 668
PLTP (phospholipid transfer protein), 286
Pneumocystis carinii, 649, 655, 666
Pneumocystis spp., 666
PNMT (phenylethanolamine *N*-methyl transferase), 177, 462
Polyclonal antibodies, 717
Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, 118
Polycythaemia rubra vera, 316–317
Polyene antibiotics, 615, 649–650
Polymixin B, 633

Polymixins, 615, 624t, 633, 634b

Polymodal nociceptors (PMNs), 509b

Polymorphisms, 133 *See also* Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)

Polymorphonuclear leucocytes, 80

Polypeptides, 716–717

Polyproteins, 643

Polysaccharides, complex, 622

Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), 291–292

Population pharmacokinetics, 129

Poractant alpha, 345

Porins, 619

Porphobilinogen deaminase (PBGD), 134

Porphyrias, acute intermittent, 134

Posconazole, 652

Positive reinforcement, 594

Positron emission tomography (PET), 9

Postcoital contraception, 427

Postexercise hypotension, 163

Postganglionic neurons, 140

Postsynaptic modulation, 145

Post-translational modification of peptides, 232–233

Post-traumatic stress disorder, 531

Postural hypotension, 163

Potassium channel activators, 261, 272, 273f

Potassium channels
  ATP-gated, 44
  ATP-sensitive, 43, 374
  calcium-activated, 43
  classes, 57, 58t
  effects of general anaesthetics on, 494
  excitation and, 54, 55f, 57–59
  inherited abnormalities, 59
  inwardly rectifying, 58, 58t
  two-pore domain, 58–59, 58t, 494
  voltage-gated, 44, 54, 57–59, 58t

Potassium competitive acid blocker, 370–371

Potassium (ions)
  balance, 352
  effects of cardiac glycosides, 259
  excitation and, 54
  loss, and thiazide diuretics, 355
  release, suxamethonium-induced, 166
  transport, renal, 350

Potassium-sparing diuretics, 355–356, 356b

Potentiation, long-term, 451–453

PPADS, 207

PPARs *See* Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs)

PP cells, 372

Practolol, 187–188

Prader-Willi syndrome, 388

Pralidoxime, 171, 172f

Pramipexole, 488

Pramlintide, 377

Prasugrel, 304
  clinical use, 304–305
  unstable angina, 253

Pravastatin, 289

Praziquantel, 669–670

Prazosin, 182t–184t, 187

Pre-Bötzinger complex, 514–515

Precocious puberty, 692

Predictive validity, 92–93

Prednisolone, 401t
  and Alzheimer's disease, 484
  clinical uses
    anticancer drugs, 683
    chronic bowel disease, 370
    chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
    status asthmaticus, 343
  pharmacokinetics, 406

Prednisone, 401t, 406

Pregabalin
calcium channels and, 50
clinical uses
anxiety, 532
bipolar disorder, 582
epilepsy, 543, 549
neuropathic pain, 521, 522b
properties, 544t–545t
Preganglionic neurons, 140
Pregnancy
and antiepileptic drugs, 551
and drug responsiveness/effectiveness, 691
effects of smoking in, 600
Pregnenolone, 402
Preload, 249, 265
Prenylation, 30
Preprodynorphin, 232
Preproenkephalin, 232
Preprohormone, 231, 233b
Preproinsulin, 372
Prepro-opiomelanocortin (POMC), 232
Presenilins, 93
Presynaptic modulation, 144–145, 145f, 156, 178
Presynaptic terminals, 144

Pre-systemic metabolism, 108, 118, 118t

Prevertebral ganglia, 140–141

Prilocaine, 400
  action/effects, 528
  properties, 527t

Primaquine
  action/effects, 659
  clinical use, 662, 663b
  pharmacokinetics, 662
  unwanted effects, 662

Primidone, 548

Prion diseases, 489–490, 609

Probenecid, 332
  action, 357
  clinical uses, 627b
  drug interactions, 325, 696
  elimination/excretion, 120

Procainamide, 256
  action/effects, 255
  effect of genetics on, 692b
  metabolism, 135
  unwanted effects, 708–709

Procaine, 168, 496, 622–623
  action/effects, 528
  clinical uses, 627b

history, 525
pharmacokinetics, 529
properties, 527t
Procaine penicillin, 109
Procalcitonin, 232
Procalcitonin gene-related peptide (pro-CGRP), 232
Procarbazine, 679
Prochlorperazine, 367
Procholecystokinin (pro-CCK), 232–233
Prodrugs, 112–113, 118–119
Proflavine, 613
Progesterone, 417
Progestogen-only pill, 426, 426b
beneficial effects, 426
unwanted effects, 426
Progestogens, 421–422, 422b
actions, 421
antiandrogen activity, 424
clinical uses, 422b, 683
pharmacokinetics, 422
preparations, 421
unwanted effects, 422
Proglumide, 361
Programmed cell death receptors, 70

Proguanil
action/effects, 610–611, 661
clinical uses
malaria chemoprophylaxis, 659
malaria treatment, 658, 663b
pharmacokinetics, 662
structure, 662
Prohormone, 231
Prohormone convertases, 231
Prokaryotes, 609
Prolactin, 397–398, 465
actions, 397
secretion
modification of, 397–398
regulation of, 397, 397f
Prolactin release-inhibiting factor, 395t
Prolactin-releasing factor (PRF), 395t
Proliferation, cell, 66–70
Prolonged QT syndrome, 256
Promethazine, 333t
action/effects, 555
clinical uses
antiemesis, 366
insomnia, 532
drug interactions, 693

Promiscuous plasmids, 618

Pronethalol, 699

Prontosil, 622

Pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC), 388, 398

Propanidid, 168

Propantheline, 159–160, 369

Prophase, 68

Propiverine, 358

Propofol, 495, 496t, 497b

Propranolol, 257
- action/effects, 182t–184t, 187–188
- clinical trials, 96
- clinical uses
  - alcohol dependence, 607
  - thyroid disorders, 415
- drug interactions, 696
- efficacy, 13
- and ethnicity, 689
- mechanism of action, 255t
- migraine management, 202t
- use in sport, 712t

Propylthiouracil, 414, 415b

Prorennin, 360

Prostacyclin (PGI_2), 213–214, 428

action/effects, 214
in haemostasis and thrombosis, 296–297
in inflammation, 214–215
and renal function, 353
vascular endothelium, 266
vasodilatation, 272

Prostaglandin D_2, 213
action/effects, 214
in asthma, 338
in inflammation, 214–215

Prostaglandin E_1, 213, 429

Prostaglandin E_2, 213, 428
action/effects, 214
in inflammation, 214–215
and renal function, 353
vascular endothelium, 266

Prostaglandin E_3, 213

Prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$, 213–214, 428

Prostaglandin G_2, 213, 266

Prostaglandin H_2, 213, 266

Prostaglandins, 212
actions/effects, 428
and carcinoid syndrome, 202
gastric acid secretion, 362
and pain, 508–509, 508f

preparations, 428
and renal function, 353
unwanted effects, 428
Prostanoids, 213–215, 216b
action/effects, 214
catabolism, 213–214
clinical uses, 216b
receptors, 214, 215t
role in inflammation, 214–215
vascular endothelium, 266
Protamine sulfate, 299
Protean agonism, 37
Protease-activated receptors (PARs), 29, 29f
Protease inhibitors, 288, 643–644, 644t, 646b–647b
Proteases, 66
Protein C, 296–297
Protein kinase A, 35, 238–239
Protein kinase B, 39–40, 238–239
Protein kinase C, 33–35, 238–239
Protein kinase inhibitors, 383, 677, 677t, 684, 685b, 685f
Protein kinases, 32
Protein(s)
designer, 234–235
as drugs, 234–235, 234b, 235t, 716–717

effect of glucocorticoids, 402–403, 402b
engineered, 717
fusion, 234–235
historical aspects, 228
manufacturing problems, 716–717
misfolding, 476, 477b, 477f, 478t
phosphorylation, 39–40
synthesis, 610
as targets for drug binding, 6–15
as therapeutic agents, 715–716 *See also* Peptides

Proteoglycans, 69, 432

Prothrombin, 298f

Prothrombin time (PT), 301

Protirelin, 395–396, 395t, 399b, 410–412

Proton pump inhibitors
clinical use, 363–364
drug interactions, 695
pharmacokinetics, 363–364
unwanted effects, 363–364

Proto-oncogenes, 673

Protozoa, 655, 656t
host-parasite interactions, 655
treatment *See* Antiprotozoal drugs

Provirus, 638–639

Proximal convoluted tubule, 349, 349f

PRRs *See* Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs)

Pseudocholinesterase *See* Butyrylcholinesterase (BuChE)

Pseudohypoparathyroidism, 692

Pseudomembranous colitis, 633

Pseudomonas aeruginosa, 622, 630

Pseudomonas spp., 623t

Pseudoreceptors, 640

Psilocybin, 585t, 589–590, 591b
  adverse effects, 589
  dependence, 589
  pharmacological effects, 589

Psoriasis, 700–701

Psychedelic drugs *See* Psychotomimetic drugs

Psychiatric disorders, 442

Psychodysleptics *See* Psychotomimetic drugs

Psychomotor epilepsy, 540–541

Psychomotor stimulants, 446t, 584–589, 585t
  clinical uses, 447
  dependence, 593t

Psychostimulants *See* Psychomotor stimulants

Psychotomimetic drugs, 446t, 585t, 589–590, 591b, 593t

Psychotropic drugs
  classification of, 446–447

effects, 445

Pulmonary artery pressure, 282

Pulmonary emboli, recurrent, 282

Pulmonary hypertension, 195, 203, 282, 282b, 282f

Pulse pressure, 265–266

Pupillary constriction, effects of opioids, 515

Purgatives, 368

Purines, 204–207, 470–471, 473b
analogues, 611, 681, 681b
future prospects, 207
as mediators, 204–206, 205b, 205f
receptors *See* Adenosine receptors; P2X ionotropic receptors; P2Y metabotropic receptors

Purkinje fibres, 246

Pyrantel, 616, 617b

Pyrazinamide
clinical use, 634–635
unwanted effects, 635

Pyrethrins, 530

Pyridostigmine, 169, 170t
blood-brain barrier, 110–111
effects, 170

Pyrimethamine, 616b, 625
action/effects, 610–611, 661

clinical uses, 625b
malaria chemoprophylaxis, 659
malaria treatment, 611, 658, 663b
toxoplasmosis, 666
pharmacokinetics, 662
structure, 662
unwanted effects, 703–704
Pyrimidines, 204
action/effects, 611
analogues, 681, 681b
fluorinated, 649–650
Pyrimidinoceptors, 204
Pyronaridine, 663

Q

Quality-adjusted life years (QALYs), 96

Quaternary ammonium compounds, 159–160

Quetiapine
- action/effects, 559
- characteristics, 556t–557t
- clinical use, 581–582, 582b

Quinacrine, 490

Quinagolide, 397–398

Quinidine, 256
- action/effects, 255
- drug interactions, 694

Quinine
- clinical use, 658, 660–661, 663b
- excretion, 352–353
- pharmacokinetics, 661
- unwanted effects, 660–661, 708, 708b

Quinolones, 631–632
- antibacterial spectrum, 632
- clinical use, 632, 632b
- mechanism of action, 624t, 632f
- pharmacokinetics, 632
- resistance, 620
- unwanted effects, 632

Quinupristin, 631b, 633

R

Rabeprazole, 363

Radioiodine, 413–414, 415b

Radiological contrast agents, 707–708

Raf, 39

Ralfinamide, 522

Raloxifene, 420–421, 438–439

Raltitrexed, 681

Ramelteon, 471

RAMPs *See* Receptor activity-modifying proteins (RAMPs)

Randomisation, clinical trials, 95

Randomised controlled clinical trials, 94

Ranibizumab, 110

Ranitidine, 363

RANK (receptor activator of nuclear factor kappa B), 432–434, 434f

RANTES, 81, 209t

Rapamycin *See* Sirolimus

Ras, 39, 376

Rasagiline, 488

Rasburicase, 332

Ratelgravir, 645, 646b–647b, 647

Raynaud's disease, 281–282

Rb protein, 67–68

Reactive depression, 564

Reactive oxygen species (ROS), 480, 700

Reboxetine, 567, 568t–570t, 577

Receptor activator of nuclear factor kappa B (RANK), 432–434, 434f

Receptor activity-modifying proteins (RAMPs), 37

Receptor(s), 6–7, 20, 21f, 22t
  activation, 8, 8f
    constitutive, 13
  agonists *See* Agonists
  antagonists *See* Antagonists
  binding of drugs to, 8–9, 9f
  block of receptor-effector linkage, 15
  change in, 15–16
  classification, 8
  control of expression, 44–45
  death, 71–72
  definition of, 6–7
  and disease, 45–46
  drug interactions, 8–10
    quantitative aspects, 16–18
  heterogeneity, 25–26
  history of, 2
  ionotropic *See* Ligand-gated ion channels

isolation and cloning, 23
kinase-linked and related *See* Kinase-linked receptors
metabotropic *See* G-protein coupled receptors
molecular structure, 25–26
nuclear *See* Nuclear receptors
occupancy *See* Occupancy (of receptors)
orphan, 23, 40
in physiological systems, 7
proliferation of, 144
spare, 8–9, 11, 13–15
subtypes, 25–26
translocation of, 16
two-state model, 13, 14f
types of, 23–25*see also specific types*
Receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs), 37, 78
Rectal administration, 108
Rectangular hyperbola, 17, 17f
Red blood cells, 309
Re-entry rhythm, 248, 248f
Refractoriness, 15
Regeneration, 73–74
Regulators of G-protein signalling (RGS) proteins, 37
Relative potency, 90–91, 92f
Remacemide, 453–454

Remifentanyl, 510, 517, 518t–519t, 519

Remoxipride, 558

Renal artery stenosis, bilateral, 701–702

Renin, 347

Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, 271, 273–274, 274t
  inhibition, 280

Renin-angiotensin system, 270–271, 270f

Renin inhibitors, 274, 274t

Repaglinide, 381

Repair processes, 73

Reproductive system, 417–431
  drugs affecting, 420–425
  endocrine control of, 417–420
  female, neurohormonal control, 417–418, 418f, 419b
  male, neurohormonal control, 418–419, 419f, 423b

Reserpine, 177, 190
  action/effects, 182t–184t, 193b, 554
  and amfetamines, 584–585
  clinical uses
    gastrointestinal motility, 369
    hypertension, 277
  and Parkinson's disease, 485

Resistance, drug, 15*see also specific drugs; specific organisms*

Resistance arteries, 141

Resolvins, 217

Respiration, 336–337
  afferent pathways, 337
  blood vessels, 336–337
  control of breathing, 336
  efferent pathways, 336–337
  glands, 336–337
  physiology of, 336–337
  regulation of musculature, 336–337
  sensory receptors, 337

Respiratory distress syndrome, 242, 345

Respiratory syncytial virus, 646

Respiratory system, 336–346
  effects of general anaesthetics on, 494–495
  effects of leukotrienes, 216–217
  effects of muscarinic antagonists, 163b
  effects of opioids, 514–515
  physiology of respiration, 336–337

Resting cell, 53–54, 54f

Reteplase, 307

Retigabine, 522, 550

Retinoic acid receptor (RAR), 42

Retinoids, 704t, 706

Retroviruses, 613, 640b
  gene delivery vectors, 719, 720f

replication, 638–639
Reversed transcriptase enzyme, 638–639
Reward pathways, 594–595
Reye's syndrome, 324
RGS proteins *See* Regulators of G-protein signalling (RGS) proteins
Rheumatoid arthritis, 326
Rho A/Rho kinase, 32, 34
Rhodopsin, 28
Rho kinase inhibitors, 34
Ribonucleotide reductase, 317
Ribosomes, 610
Rickets, 437
Rickettsiae, 623t, 628–629
Rifabutin
clinical use, 634
drug interactions, 426
Rifampicin, 613, 622
action/effects, 634
clinical use
leprosy, 635–636, 636b
tuberculosis, 634–635
drug interactions, 342, 426, 430, 635, 652, 694–695, 695f
excretion, 119
induction of microsomal enzymes, 118

pharmacokinetics, 634–635
resistance, 619
unwanted effects, 635
Rifamycin, 613
Riluzole, 478, 582
Rimantadine, 645
Rimonabant, 225–226
actions/effects, 473
clinical use, 392–393
Ring hydroxylation, 576
Ringworm, 649
Risedronate, 438
Risk, clinical trials, 97–98
Risperidone, 555
action/effects, 559
characteristics, 556t–557t
clinical efficacy, 563
clinical uses, 562b
anxiety, 532
bipolar disorder, 581–582, 582b
Ritalin *See* Methylphenidate
Ritodrine, 182t–184t, 428, 429b
Ritonavir, 430, 643
Rituximab, 330, 331t, 334, 684, 685b

Rivaroxaban, 300

Rivastigmine, 483, 484b, 484t

Rizatriptan, 202t

(R)-methylhistamine, 211

RNA
  synthesis, 612–615
  translation, 132–133
  types of, 612

RNA polymerase, 638
  inhibition, 613

RNA viruses, 638, 640b
  replication, 638

Ro64-6198, 513t

Rofecoxib, 323, 698–699

Rolipram, 32

Ropinirole, 488

Ropivacaine, 528

Rosiglitazone, 381–382, 390

Rosuvastatin, 289

Rotenone, 486

Rotigotine, 488

Roundworms, 668–671, 669t

Routes of administration, 106–110, 107f*see also specific drugs; specific*

routes

R plasmids, 617

Rubella, 704–705

Ruboxistaurin, 383

Rufinamide, 550
  clinical uses, 543
  properties, 544t–545t

Rupatidine, 217

RXR, 40

Ryanodine, 52

Ryanodine receptor (RyR), 43–44, 52, 692
  cardiac muscle contraction, 59–60
  mutations, 59–60
  skeletal muscle contraction, 59

S

Sacral outflow, 141

Safety of drugs, 698

Safety pharmacology, 728

St Anthony's fire, 198–199

St John's wort, 117, 567, 568t–570t

Salbutamol, 428
- action/effects, 182t–184t
- clinical uses
  - asthma, 341, 341b, 343
  - chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
  - hyperkalaemia, 358
- drug interactions, 693
- use in sport, 712t

Salcatonin, 439, 439b

Salicylate, 324
- drug acetylation deficiency, 134–135
- drug interactions, 694
- excretion, 352–353
- saturation kinetics, 128 *See also* Aspirin

Salicylism, 324

Salivary glands, 141

Salivation
- effects of muscarinic agonists, 158

effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161

Salmeterol
action/effects, 182t–184t
clinical uses
asthma, 340–341, 341b
chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345

Salmonella spp., 369, 623t

Salmonella typhimurium, 703, 704b

Salt balance, 353

Salvinorin A, 585t, 589–590

Saquinavir, 643, 646b

Sarafotoxin S6c, 268–269

Sartans
clinical uses, 276b
vasodilatation, 275–276

Sativex, 522

Saturation kinetics, 128–129, 129f

Saxitoxin, 530

SB 612111, 513t

Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study, 289

Scatchard plot, 17

Schild equation, 18

Schild plot, 18

Schistosoma haematobium, 668

Schistosoma japonicum, 668

Schistosoma mansoni, 668

Schistosomiasis, 668, 670

Schizont, 657

Schizophrenia, 442
  aetiology, 554–555
  environmental factors, 554
  genetic factors, 554
  nature of, 553–555, 555b
  negative symptoms, 553
  neuroanatomical and neurochemical basis, 554–555
  pathogenesis, 554–555
  positive symptoms, 553
  treatment *See* Antipsychotic drugs

Sclerostin, 432

Scopolamine, 159–160, 366

Scrapie, 489–490

Second messengers, 52

Sedatives, 446t

Seizures, 540
  absence, 541–542
  generalised, 541–542
  partial, 540–541

tonic-clonic, 541–542
xanthine drugs adverse effects, 341
Selective attention, 553
Selective oestrogen receptor modulator (SERM), 420–421, 438
Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), 194, 466–467, 469b, 567, 573–574, 574b
characteristics, 568t–570t
clinical uses
anxiety, 532
smoking cessation, 602
pharmacokinetics, 574
unwanted effects, 574
Selegiline, 486, 488, 577–578
Senna, 368, 670
Sepsis, 243
Septohippocampal nucleus, 468–470
Serine/threonine kinases, 37
Sermorelin, 395, 395t, 399b
Serotonin *See* 5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)
Serotonin syndrome, 574
Serotonin uptake transporter (SERT), 195, 203
Sertindole
action/effects, 560
characteristics, 556t–557t

Sertoli cells, 418–419

Sertraline, 567, 568t–570t, 573–574

Sertürner, Friedrich, 1–2

Sevelamer, 358

Severe combined immunodeficiency (SCID), 721–722

Sevoflurane, 497, 500, 501b
  characteristics, 498t
  induction and recovery, 499
  metabolism, 500

Sex hormones, 399b, 417
  behavioural effects of, 419–420

Sex pili, 618

SH2 domain proteins, 39

Shear stress, 238–239

Shigella, 369, 623t

Shingles, 639, 645b

Shock, 280–281, 281f

Sibutramine
  clinical uses, 391–392, 581
  lifestyle use, 711t
  pharmacokinetics, 392
  unwanted effects, 392

Sickle cell anaemia, 282

Signalling, chemical
in the central nervous system, 442–443, 443f
in nociceptive pathway, 507–509
Sildenafil, 32, 240, 429–430
clinical uses, 711t
drug interactions, 693
lifestyle use, 710, 711t, 713b
Silver sulfadiazine, 625b
Simeticone, 364
Simvastatin, 289
Single-compartment model, 124–126, 125f–126f
Single-gene defects, 722
Single-gene pharmacokinetic disorders, 133–135
Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), 103, 133
Sinoatrial (SA) node, 246
Sirolimus, 113, 329, 727–728
Sitagliptin, 382
Site-directed mutagenesis
G-protein coupled receptors, 29
ligand-gated ion channels, 26
Skeletal muscle
contraction, 59
effects of adrenoceptor agonists, 186
excitation, 56–57

Skin
as an administration route, 108–109
autonomic nervous system effects on, 142t
as a defence against viruses, 639
effects of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, 322
Sleep
and benzodiazepines, 534–535
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine, 468
Slow excitatory postsynaptic potential (slow epsp), 156
Slow inhibitory (hyperpolarising) postsynaptic potential (slow ipsp), 156
Slow-reacting substance of anaphylaxis (SRS-A), 215
Slow transmitters, 62–63, 63f
S-methyl-L-thiocitrulline, 242
Smoking, 598b
annual cigarette consumption, 598f
effects of, 598–599
on the central nervous system, 598
harmful, 600–601, 601b
peripheral effects, 598
pharmacological approaches to cessation, 601–602
withdrawal syndrome, 599
Smooth muscle
bronchial, 141
cAMP-dependent protein kinase, 32
contraction, 59–61, 61f

effects of adrenoceptor agonists, 181
effects of adrenoceptors, 176t
effects of antidiuretic hormone, 400
effects of calcium antagonists, 262–263
effects of ergot alkaloids, 199
effects of ethanol, 604
effects of histamine, 211
effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine on, 195
effects of muscarinic agonists, 158
effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161
effects of opioids, 515
vascular *See* Vascular system, smooth muscle; Vasoconstrictor drugs; Vasodilator drugs

SNAREs, 63

S-nitrosoacetylpenicillamine (SNAP), 240

S-nitrosoglutathione (SNOG), 240, 242

Social anxiety disorder, 531

Sodium aurothiomalate, 328

Sodium bicarbonate, 358

Sodium channel blockers, 55, 57, 255–256, 530
antidysrhythmic action *See* Antidysrhythmic drugs, class I
clinical uses, 257b, 522
use-dependent, 255 *See also* Anaesthetics, local

Sodium channels
activation, 255

agents affecting gating of, 530
effect of antiepileptic drugs, 545–546
epithelial, 64
excitation and, 54–57, 55f, 57f
inactivation, 255
voltage-gated, 44, 54
Sodium cromoglicate, 370
Sodium (ions)
excitation and, 54
transport, 64
renal, 349–350
Sodium oxybate, 586
Sodium picosulfate, 368
Sodium polystyrene sulphonate, 358
Sodium pump, 21–23
Sodium stibogluconate, 666
Soft tissue necrosis, 302
S oligomers, 723
Solute carrier, 100
Solute carrier (SLC) transporters, 101
Solvents, 593t
Somatomedins, 396
Somatorelin, 395, 395t

Somatostatin, 235t, 377, 394–395, 399b, 412
analogues, 683
clinical use, 522
gastric acid secretion, 362
secretion, 372
unwanted effects, 395
Somatotrophin, 396–397
Somatotrophs, 394
Somatropin, 399b
Somogyi effect, 379
Sorafenib, 684, 685b
Sotalol, 257
action/effects, 256
clinical uses, 257b
mechanism of action, 255t
stereoselectivity, 117
Spare receptor hypothesis, 8–9, 11, 13–15
Spasmolytic agents, 369–370
Special drug delivery systems, 111–113
Special K *See* Ketamine
Specificity of drugs, 7–8
Speed *See* Amfetamine(s)
Spermatogenesis, 399b, 418–419
S phase of cell cycle, 66, 67f, 68

Spinal anaesthesia, 529t

Spiramycin, 631

Spironolactone, 259, 355
  clinical uses, 407
    heart failure, 280
    hypertension, 277–278
  pharmacokinetics, 355
  vasodilatation, 274t

Spongiform encephalopathy, 489–490

Sporozoa, 655, 656t

Sporozoites, 656–657

Sport, drugs in, 710–713, 712t, 714b
  anabolic steroids, 711–713
  human growth hormone, 713
  stimulants, 713

Squalene epoxidase, 653

Staphylococci, 618, 623t
  resistance, 619–620

Staphylococcus aureus, 611–612
  resistance, 619–620

Stat, 39

Statins, 285, 289–290
  action/effects, 289–290
  adverse effects, 290

clinical uses, 281, 290b
pharmacokinetics, 289–290
Status asthmaticus, 337, 343
Status epilepticus, 548
Stavudine, 643
Steal, vascular, 260
Stem cells, 73–74
Stents, 113
Sterculia, 368
Stereoselectivity, 117
Steroids/steroid hormones, 444t
as anaesthetics, 492
delaying absorption of, 109
effect of ethanol on, 605
esterification, 109
receptors, 42
Sterols, 609
Stevens Johnson syndrome, 135, 707–708
Stilbestrol, 704t, 705
Stim1, 51
Stimulant drugs, use in sport, 713
Stimulant laxatives, 368
Stiripentol, 550

Storage vesicles/granules, 61–62

Store-operated calcium channels, 44, 51, 51t

Stratified randomisation, 95

Straub tail reaction, 515

Streptococci, 623t, 630

Streptogramins, 624t, 633

Streptokinase, 235t, 307

Streptomyces, 627–629, 650

Streptomycin, 622, 630, 727–728
  clinical use, 634
  resistance, 619

Stress, 110–111

Stretch receptors, respiratory system, 337

Stroke *See* Ischaemic brain damage

Stroke volume, 249

Strongyloides infestation, 670

Strongyloides stercoralis, 668

Strontium ranelate, 437, 439

Strychnine, 458, 459b, 713

Subcutaneous injection of drugs, 109

Sublingual administration, 108

Submucous plexus, 360

Substance P, 219, 504–505
and carcinoid syndrome, 202
central facilitation, 505
NANC transmission, 145–147, 148t
nociceptive pathway, 509
postsynaptic modulation, 145
respiratory system, 337
vomiting, 365
Substantia gelatinosa (SG), 506
Substantia nigra, 464
Succinyl-CoA, 313
Sucralfate
gastric mucosa protection, 365
unwanted effects, 365
Sufentanil, 510, 519
Sugammadex, 166, 167b
Suicide and antidepressants, 580
Sulconazole, 652
Sulfadiazine, 622, 666
Sulfadoxine, 611, 661–662, 663b
Sulfamethoxazole, 622, 626b
Sulfanilamide, 622–623
Sulfapyridine, 327–328, 370
Sulfasalazine, 327–328, 622

clinical uses, 370, 625b
urate secretion inhibition, 357
Sulfation, 228
Sulfhydryl groups modification, 700
Sulfinpyrazone, 332
action, 357
clinical trials, 97
drug interactions, 325
Sulfonamides, 327–328, 356–357, 622–623
action/effects, 610, 661
binding, 105
clinical uses, 625b
discovery of, 2
drug interactions, 693–694
interfering with folate action, 626b
mechanism of action, 622–623, 624t
metabolism, 135
pharmacokinetics, 623
resistance, 619
unwanted effects, 623, 708
Sulfones, 661
Sulfonylurea receptor (SUR), 44
Sulfonylureas, 58, 380–381, 380t
channel gating, 21
clinical uses, 381, 383

drug interactions, 381
mechanism of action, 380
pharmacokinetics, 381
unwanted effects, 381

Sulindac, 319t, 322

Sulpiride
action/effects, 558
characteristics, 556t–557t
clinical use, 562

Sumatriptan, 196, 468, 469b
migraine management, 202t
vasoconstriction, 271

Sunitinib, 684

Superoxide anion, 239–240

Superoxide dismutase (SOD), 480

Supraoptic nucleus, 399

Supraventricular tachycardia (SVT), 247–248

Suramin, 207
clinical uses, 665
unwanted effects, 665

Surface anaesthesia, 529t

Surfactants, 345

Survival curves, 94–95, 95f

Survivin, 74–75

Suxamethonium, 156–157, 166, 167b, 168
characteristics, 165t
effect of genetics on, 692b
idiosyncratic reactions, 692
pharmacokinetics, 165
sensitivity, 133–134
unwanted effects, 166–167, 167f

Sweat glands, 141

Sweating
effects of muscarinic agonists, 158
effects of muscarinic antagonists, 161
excretion via, 115

Sympathetic nervous system, 140–141
control of the heart, 251–252
insulin release, 374
respiratory system, 337
role in energy expenditure control, 388–389

Sympathomimetic amines
directly acting *See* Adrenoceptor agonists
indirectly acting, 182t–184t, 191–192
actions, 192
mechanism of action, 191
structure-activity relationships, 191
vasoconstriction, 271, 272b

Synapse
cholinergic

effect of anticholinesterases, 170
electrical events, 156–157, 156f
ganglionic, 156, 156f
Synaptic plasticity, 451–453, 472
Synaptobrevin, 63
Synaptotagmin, 63
Synaptotaxin, 63
Syndrome of inappropriate ADH secretion (SIADH), 399–400
Synuclein, 93, 485
Systemic lupus erythematosus, 708–709, 708b

T

Tachycardia, 247
  atropine-induced, 161
  β_2-adrenoceptor agonists effects, 341

Tachyphylaxis, 15–16

Tacrine, 483, 484t

Tacrolimus, 329–330

Tadalafil, 240, 429

Taenia saginata, 668

Taenia solium, 668, 670

Tafenoquine, 659, 662

Tamoxifen, 286
  antioestrogenic action, 420–421
  clinical uses, 683, 684b
  and CYP2D6, 136–137
  and dyslipidaemia, 288

Tamsulosin, 424
  action/effects, 182t–184t, 187
  clinical uses, 358

Tapeworms, 668, 670

Tardive dyskinesias, 560, 561b, 698

Target concentration strategy, 123

Targets for drug action, 6–15, 7b, 20–23, 21f, 22t, 444

in drug development, 726–727
gene tests related to, 137
Tau, 483
Taurine, 713
Taxanes, 682
T cells
adaptive immune response, 82–84, 84f
in asthma, 337–338, 338f
clonal proliferation, 329, 329b
cytotoxic *See* CD8+ T lymphocytes
helper *See* CD4+ T-helper lymphocytes; T-helper cells
Tegafur, 681
Tegaserod, 198, 368–369
Teicoplanin, 633
Telbivudine, 643
Telcagepant, 200
Telithromycin, 631
Telomerase, 674–675, 687
Telophase, 68
Temazepam, 538b
characteristics, 533t
clinical uses, 532
Temocillin, 627

Temozolomide, 679

Tenofovir, 643

Tenoxicam, 319t

Teratogenicity, 704–707, 704t, 707b
  anticancer drugs, 676
  anticoagulants, 302
  definite and probable human teratogens, 705–706
  genotoxic potential testing, 707
  mechanism of, 705
  nature of drug effects, 705t
  testing for, 705*see also specific drugs*

Terazosin, 424

Terbinafine, 653

Terbutaline
  action/effects, 182t–184t
  clinical uses, 341

Teriparatide, 439

Terlipressin, 400, 400b

Testosterone, 418–419
  administration, 109, 423
  pharmacokinetics, 423
  synthesis, 422–423

Tetanic fade, 166

Tetanus toxin, 458

Tetrabenazine, 136–137, 489

Tetracaine, 527t

Tetracosactide, 398

Tetracycline(s), 628–629
- absorption, 108
- action/effects, 631b
- antibacterial spectrum, 628–629
- clinical uses, 629b
- drug interactions, 365, 693
- mechanism of action, 624t, 628
- partitioning into fat/tissues, 106
- pharmacokinetics, 629
- resistance, 619
- teratogenicity, 704t
- unwanted effects, 629, 704t

Tetraethylammonium, 172

Tetrahydrobiopterin (H_4B), 237

Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), 221–222, 222f, 551, 585t, 589, 710

Tetrahydrofolate, 312–313, 610–611, 680

Tetrahydrogestrinone (THG), 711–713

Tetrodotoxin, 55–56, 530

Thalassaemia, 311

Thalidomide, 685, 704–706, 704t

Thapsigarin, 51–52

Thebaine derivatives, 510

T-helper cells, 208
  in asthma, 337–338
  CD4+ *See* CD4+ T-helper lymphocytes
  clonal proliferation, 329, 329b
  host-parasite interactions, 655
  Th0, 84, 85t
  Th1, 85t, 671
  Th2, 85t, 671
  Th17, 85t

Theophylline, 205b, 258
  action/effects, 588
  clinical uses
    asthma, 206, 340–341, 341b
    chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
  drug interactions, 342, 365, 631–632
  mechanism of action, 341
  pharmacokinetics, 342
  unwanted effects, 341 *See also* Aminophylline

Therapeutic drug monitoring (TDM), 123, 124t

Therapeutic index, 97

Thermal sensation, 507–508, 508t

Thermogenesis, 388

Thiamine deficiency, 604

Thiazide diuretics, 354–355

clinical uses, 277, 279t, 355b
drug interactions, 696
excretion, 352–353
pharmacokinetics, 355
physiological adaptation, 16
unwanted effects, 355
use in sport, 712t

Thiazolidinediones, 381–382, 383b
clinical use, 382–383
effects, 381
mechanism of action, 381–382
nuclear receptors, 42
and obesity, 390
pharmacokinetics, 382
unwanted effects, 382

Thienopyridines, 304–305
clinical use, 304–305
pharmacokinetics, 304
unwanted effects, 304

Thioguanine, 611

Thiopental, 105, 492, 495–496, 496t, 497b

Thioperamide, 211, 363t

Thiopurines, 136

Thiopurine-S-methyltransferase (TPMT), 136

Thiotepa, 679

Thioureylenes, 414, 415b
mechanism of action, 414
pharmacokinetics, 414
unwanted effects, 414

Thirst, 399

Thoracolumbar sympathetic outflow, 140–141

Thorn apple, 159–160

Threadworm, 668, 669t, 670–671

Thrifty genes, 385

Thrombin, 29, 79–80, 294
direct inhibitors, 300
role in coagulation, 295–296

Thrombocytopenia, 708

Thrombocytopenic purpura, 302

Thromboembolism, 426

Thrombolysis *See* Fibrinolysis

Thrombomodulin, 296–297

Thrombophilia, 294

Thrombopoietin, 314–315

Thrombosis, 286, 296b, 298–302
definition, 294
heparin adverse effects, 299
treatment, 298–302
vascular endothelium in, 296–297

Thrombospondin, 69

Thromboxane A_2, 213–214
  action/effects, 214
  in inflammation, 214
  inhibition, 303–304

Thromboxanes, 212

Thrombus, 294, 295f

Thymidylate, 680f

Thyroglobulin, 410

Thyroid, 410–416, 413b
  acinus, 410
  disorders, 413–415, 415b
  follicle, 410
  function regulation, 410–412
  hormones *See* Thyroid hormones

Thyroid hormone receptor (TR), 42

Thyroid hormones
  actions, 412
  mechanism of action, 412
  metabolism, 412–413
  secretion, 399b, 410, 411f
  storage, 410
  synthesis, 410, 411f
  transport, 412–413 *See also* Thyroxine (T_4) *See also* Tri-iodothyronine (T_3)

Thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), 399b
production, 412
thyroid function regulation, 410–412
Thyroid storm, 415
Thyroperoxidase, 410
Thyrotoxicosis *See* Hyperthyroidism
Thyrotrophin, 399b
Thyrotrophin-releasing factor, 399b
Thyrotrophin-releasing hormone (TRH), 395–396, 395t, 410–412
Thyrotrophs, 394
Thyrotropin receptors, 45–46
Thyroxine-binding globulin (TBG), 412–413
Thyroxine (T_4), 410
absorption, 108
actions, 412
bone metabolism and remodelling, 437
clinical uses, 415, 415b
metabolism, 412–413
transport, 412–413
Tiabendazole, 669–670
Tiagabine, 456, 549
action/effects, 545
clinical uses
anxiety, 532

epilepsy, 543
properties, 544t–545t
Tiaprofenic acid, 319t
Tibolone, 422
Ticarcillin, 627, 627b
Ticlopidine, 206, 304
Tigecycline, 628
Timolol, 109
Timpranavir, 643
TIMPS (tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases), 70
Tinea, 649
Tinidazole, 664, 664b
clinical uses
giardiasis, 666
trichomoniasis, 666
Tioconazole, 652
Tioguanine, 681
Tiotropium, clinical uses
asthma, 342
chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 345
Tirofiban, 305
Tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases (TIMPS), 70
Tissue kallikreins, 218

Tissue plasminogen activator (tPA), 296–297, 306

Tizanidine, 551

TNF converting enzyme (TACE), 334

Tobacco
  lifestyle use, 711t *See also* Nicotine *See also* Smoking

Tobramycin, 630

Toclizumab, 334

Tolazoline, 11–13, 12f

Tolbutamide, 104, 380, 380t

Tolerance, 15, 595–597
  mechanisms of, 595–597*see also specific drugs*

Tolfenamic acid, 319t

Toll-like receptors (TLRs), 37, 78, 79t

Tolterodine, 159–160, 358

Tolvaptan, 280

Tonabersat, 550

Tophi, 331–332, 357

Topiramate, 549
  action/effects, 543
  clinical uses
    alcohol dependence, 607
    bipolar disorder, 582
    epilepsy, 543

ethanol dependence, 605b
neuropathic pain, 521
in pregnancy, 551
properties, 544t–545t
Topoisomerase, 631–632, 632b
Topoisomerase II, 612, 681
Topotecan, 682
Torcetrapib, 288
Toremifene, 683
Torsade de pointes, 256–257
Toxic epidermal necrolysis, 135, 707
Toxicity, 699–707
cell damage and cell death, 700–702
covalent interactions, 700
non-covalent interactions, 700
testing, 699–707, 728
types of, 699b *See also* (*specific types e.g.* Nephrotoxicity)
Toxocariasis, 669
Toxoplasma gondii, 655, 666
Toxoplasmosis, 666
Trabecular bone, 432
TRAIL, 72
Tramadol, 518t–519t, 520

Tranexamic acid
  action, 307
  clinical uses
    angio-oedema, 344
    bleeding, 307
Tranquillisers *See* Antipsychotic drugs; Anxiolytics; Sedatives
Transcellular fluid, 110
Transcobalamins, 313
Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS), 579–580
Transferrin, 311
Transforming growth factor (TGF), 37
Transforming growth factor (TGF)-α, 209t
Transforming growth factor (TGF)-β, 69
Transgenic animal models, 93
Transient receptor potential (TRP) channels, 507–508, 508t
7-Transmembrane receptors *See* G-protein coupled receptors
Transport
  carrier-mediated, 101–103
  drugs across cell barriers, 99–103, 100f
  epithelial ion, 63–64, 64b, 64f
  neurotransmitters, 147–149
Transporters, 21–23, 21f, 22t
Transposons, 617

Tranylcypromine, 567, 568t–570t, 577–578, 579b

Trastuzumab, 685b, 717, 718t, 730
  clinical uses, 684
  and HER2, 137

Traveller's diarrhoea, 369

Trazodone, 567, 568t–570t, 577, 579b

Trematodes *See* Flukes

Tremor, 341, 485

Treosulfan, 679

Treponema pallidum, 627

Treponema spp., 623t

Tretinoin, 686

Triamcinolone, 401t

Triamterene, 356
  excretion, 352–353
  pharmacokinetics, 356
  unwanted effects, 356

Triazolam
  characteristics, 533t
  clinical uses, 534
  unwanted effects, 537

Tribavirin, 646

Tricarboxylic acid cycle, 610

Trichinella spiralis, 668–669

Trichomonas vaginalis, 666

Trichomoniasis, 666

Trichophyton, 649, 650t

Trichuris trichiura, 668

Tricyclic antidepressants, 567, 574–576, 576b
  action/effects, 7, 192, 193b
  acute toxicity, 576
  clinical uses
    anxiety, 532
    neuropathic pain, 521, 522b
    smoking cessation, 602
  distribution, 111
  drug interactions, 576
  mechanism of action, 575
  pharmacokinetics, 576
  unwanted effects, 575–576

Trifluoperazine, 367

Trifluoracetylchloride, 708

Triglycerides, 286, 290

Tri-iodothyronine (T_3), 410
  actions, 412
  clinical uses, 415, 415b
  metabolism, 412–413
  transport, 412–413

Trilostane, 402, 683

Trimetaphan, 163

Trimethadione, 548

Trimethoprim, 616b, 622, 625
  action/effects, 610–611
  clinical uses, 626b
  drug interactions, 693
  interfering with folate action, 626b
  mechanism of action, 625
  pharmacokinetics, 625
  resistance, 619
  structure, 661
  unwanted effects, 625 *See also* Co-trimoxazole

Trinucleotide repeat neurodegenerative diseases, 489

Triple response, 211

Triptans, 201, 202t, 469b

Triptorelin, 683

Troglitazone, 381

Trophozoites, 657, 664

Tropicamide, 159–160

Tropisetron, 366–367

Troponin
  muscle contraction, 59
  myocardial infarction, 253

Troponin C, 249

Trospium, 358

TRPA1, 508, 508t

TRP channel ligands, 522

TRPM8, 508, 508t

TRPV1, 508, 508t, 509b

Trypanicidal drugs, 664–665

Trypanosoma cruzi, 664

Trypanosoma gambiense, 664

Trypanosoma rhodesiense, 664

Trypanosoma spp., 655

Trypanosomiasis, 664–665

Tryptophan, 194, 466–467

Tryptophan hydroxylase, 194, 466–467

T-tubules, 59

T-type calcium channels, 50, 51t

Tuberculosis, 634–635

Tuberohypophyseal dopaminergic pathway, 394, 463, 465

Tuberoinfundibular system *See* Tuberohypophyseal dopaminergic pathway

Tub gene, 385–386

Tubocurarine, 156, 156f, 164, 167b, 469–470

characteristics, 165t
histamine release, 211
unwanted effects, 164
Tubules (renal), 347, 349–352
collecting, 350–352, 351f
distal, 350
diuretics acting on, 354–355
loop of Henle, 349–350
medullary counter-current multiplier and exchanger, 349–350
proximal convoluted, 349, 349f
secretion, 120, 120t, 696, 696f
Tubulin, 332
Tumour necrosis factor receptor (TNFR), 72
Tumour necrosis factor (TNF), 71f, 72, 432–433
Tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-α, 208
action/effects, 209t
innate immune response, 78
and obesity, 390
oxidative stress, 480
Tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-β, 209t
Tumour suppressor genes, 673
Turner's syndrome, 397
20th century pharmacology, 2–5
21st century pharmacology, 2–5

Two-compartment model, 127–128, 128f

Two-pore domain potassium channels, 58–59, 58t

Two-state receptor model, 13, 14f

Tyramine, 191, 578, 586
  action/effects, 182t–184t, 193b
  drug interactions, 693

Tyrosine, 512

Tyrosine hydroxylase, 175–177, 554

Tyrosine residues, iodination of, 410, 411f

U

Ubiquinone, 663

Ubiquitin, 66

UGT1A1*28, 137

UK Prospective Diabetes Study, 378

Ulcerative colitis, 370, 601

Unconsciousness, 494

Uncoupling proteins (UCP), 388–390

Unipolar depression, 564

Uniporters, 101–102

Urate crystals, 331–332, 357

Uric acid, 331–332, 357

Uric acid oxidase, 332

Uricosuric agents, 332, 357

Uridine diphosphate glucuronic acid (UDPGA), 117

Urinary pH, drug interactions, 696

Urinary tract disorders, 358

Urine
- alkalinisation, 356–357
- excretion in *See* Kidney(s), excretion via
- flow alteration, drug interactions, 696
- pH

drugs that alter, 356–357
effect on excretion, 120, 121f
Urodilatin, 353
Urokinase-type plasminogen activator, 306
Ursodeoxycholic acid, 370
Urticaria, 561
Uterus, 427–428
motility, 427
relaxants, 428, 428b
stimulants, 427–428, 428b

V

Vaccination/vaccines
  antihelminthic, 672
  unwanted effects, 707–708
  against viruses, 647
Vagal activity, 252
Vagus, 139
Vagus nerve, 141
Vagusstoff, 139
Valaciclovir, 112–113, 645
Valdecoxib, 326, 698–699
Valganciclovir, 645
Validity, 92–93
Valproate, 445–446
  action/effects, 543, 546
  clinical uses
    anxiety, 532
    bipolar disorder, 581–582, 582b
    epilepsy, 543, 547–548, 550b
  pharmacokinetics, 548
  in pregnancy, 551
  properties, 544t–545t
  teratogenicity, 704t, 706
  unwanted effects, 548, 704t, 706

Valproic acid, 521

Valsartan, 234, 274t, 275–276

Vancomycin, 622, 633, 634b
  absorption, 108
  action/effects, 612
  clinical use, 620, 633
  unwanted effects, 633

Vanilloid receptors, 43–44

Vanillylmandelic acid (VMA), 179

Vardenafil, 429

Varenicline, 162, 597b, 601

Variant Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease (vCJD), 489–490

Variation, individual *See* Individual variation

Varicella zoster virus, 639, 645b

Vasa recta, 347

Vascular effects
  of ergot alkaloids, 199
  of loop diuretics, 353
  of nitric oxide, 241

Vascular endothelial cells
  bone remodelling, 432
  innate immune response, 81–82

Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), 69–70, 99, 267

Vascular gene transfer, 723

Vascular steal, 260

Vascular system, 265–284
endothelium, 266–269, 266f
in angiogenesis, 267
endothelin, 267–269
in haemostasis and thrombosis, 296–297
function, 265–266
smooth muscle *See also* (Vasoconstrictor drugs *See also* Vasodilator drugs)
relaxation, 280
tone, 266–271
structure, 265–266

Vasoactive drugs, 271–276, 271t
clinical uses, 277–282, 283b *See also* Vasoconstrictor drugs *See also* Vasodilator drugs

Vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP), 145–147, 148t, 336

Vasoconstriction, 265
adrenaline, 174
antidiuretic hormone, 400
endothelin receptors, 268–269
ergot alkaloids, 199
5-hydroxytryptamine, 195

Vasoconstrictor drugs, 271, 271t, 272b

Vasodilatation, 265
adrenaline, 174

bradykinin, 219
effects of local anaesthetics, 528
endothelin receptors, 268–269
5-hydroxytryptamine, 195
nitric oxide, 242
non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, 321
thiazide diuretics, 355
Vasodilator drugs, 271–276, 271t, 273b
clinical uses
pulmonary hypertension, 282
Raynaud's disease, 281–282
directly-acting, 272–273, 276b
indirectly-acting, 273–276, 276b
with unknown mechanism of action, 273, 276b
Vasopressin *See* Antidiuretic hormone (ADH)
Vaughan William classification, 255t
Vecuronium, 164, 167b
affect of disease on, 691
characteristics, 165t
distribution, 111
excretion, 119
Venlafaxine, 567, 576–577, 577b
characteristics, 568t–570t
clinical use, 521, 581
Venous thrombus, 294

Ventral tegmental area (VTA), 594

Ventricles filling pressure, 250

Ventricular fibrillation, 247–248

Ventricular function curves, 249–250, 250f

Ventricular stroke volume, 249

Ventricular tachycardia, 247–248

Ventromedial hypothalamus, 388

Verapamil, 257–259, 671
  action/effects, 262
  calcium channels and, 50
  clinical uses, 205
  drug interactions, 694
  mechanism of action, 255t
  reversal of multidrug resistance, 687
  unwanted effects, 263
  vasodilatation, 272

Veratridine, 57, 530

Very low-density lipoprotein (VLDL), 286, 290

Vesamicol, 155, 167

Vesicular monoamine transporter (VMAT), 177–179, 179t

Vesicular transporters, 148–149

Vicriviroc, 645

Vidarabine, 616b

Vigabatrin, 456, 549
action/effects, 545
clinical uses, 543
properties, 544t–545t
Vildagliptin, 382
Vinblastine, 616, 682
Vinca alkaloids, 682, 727–728
action/effects, 616, 617b
antidiuretic hormone inhibition, 352
effect on antidiuretic hormone, 399–400
Vincristine, 616, 682, 683b
Vindesine, 682
Vinorelbine, 682
Virchow, Rudolf, 1
Virchow's triad, 294
Virion, 638, 639f
Viruses, 640b
circumvention of host defences, 640
DNA *See* DNA viruses
function and life history, 638–639
gene delivery vectors, 719–720
host defences against, 639–640
host-virus interaction, 639–640
pathogenic, 638
RNA *See* RNA viruses

structure, 638, 639f, 639t

Visceral larva migrans, 669t

Vitamin B_{12}, 311–314
administration, 314
clinical uses, 312b
deficiency, 309
mechanism of action, 313, 313f

Vitamin D
bone metabolism and remodelling, 435–436, 436f, 437b
deficiency, 437, 439
preparations, 439

Vitamin D_2, 436, 439

Vitamin D_3, 436

Vitamin D receptor (VDR), 42

Vitamin E, 480

Vitamin K, 297–298, 297f
administration, 298
antagonists, 300–301
clinical uses, 298b
pharmacokinetics, 298, 298f
and warfarin, 301

Vitamin K reductase component 1 (VKORC1), 137, 300–301

Voltage dependence, 55

Voltage-gated ion channels, 20, 44

calcium *See* Calcium channels
excitation and, 55, 57f
gating, 43
potassium *See* Potassium channels
Volume of distribution, 111, 112t, 123
Vomiting, 365–367
anticancer drugs, 686
dopamine, 466
drugs for *See* Antiemetic drugs
effects of opioids, 515
reflex mechanism of, 365, 367b
Voriconazole, 652

W

Wakefulness, effects of 5-hydroxytryptamine, 468

Ward-Romano syndrome, 256

Warfarin, 297f, 300–301
- absorption, 108
- administration, 301
- and CYP2C9 + VKORC1 genotyping, 137
- drug interactions, 325, 332, 635, 693–695, 695f
- effect of ethanol on, 605
- elimination/excretion, 120
- factors that lessen the effect of, 301
- factors that potentiate, 301
- mechanism of action, 300–301
- personalisation, 132
- pharmacogenomic tests, 135
- pharmacokinetic antagonism, 15
- pharmacokinetics, 298f, 301
- stereoselectivity, 117
- teratogenicity, 704t, 706

Water, body
- distribution, 110, 110f
- drug distribution throughout, 111, 112t

Weight, body *See* Body weight regulation

Well-stirred compartments, 99

Whipworm, 668, 671

Wilson's disease, 328

Withdrawal syndrome, 595–597

Wolff-Parkinson-White syndrome, 258

Wound healing
  effect of glucocorticoids, 406
  toxicity of anticancer drugs, 676

Wuchereria bancrofti, 668–669

X

Xanthine drugs
  actions/effects, 471
  clinical use, 341–342
  mechanism of action, 341
  pharmacokinetics, 342
  unwanted effects, 341

Xanthine oxidase, 117, 331–332, 695

Xenobiotic receptor (SXR/PXR), 42

Xenobiotics, 115

Xenon, 492–494, 495b, 500

X-linked nephrogenic diabetes insipidus, 691

Y

Yeast-like fungi, 649, 650t

Yeasts, 649, 650t

Yersinia, 623t

Yohimbine
  action/effects, 182t–184t, 187
  clinical use, 429

Z

Zafirlukast
  actions/effects, 215–216
  clinical uses, 342

Zanamivir, 645

Zero-order kinetics, 128–129

Ziconotide, 522

Zidovudine, 641–643, 646b–647b
  action/effects, 112–113, 613
  drug interactions, 696
  pharmacokinetics, 641–643
  unwanted effects, 643

Zileuton, 215–216

Ziprasidone, 556t–557t

Zoledronate, 438

Zollinger-Ellison syndrome, 362

Zolmitriptan, 202t

Zolpidem, 533, 538b
  characteristics, 533t
  clinical uses, 532

Zona fasciculata, 400

Zona glomerulosa, 400

Zona reticularis, 400

Zonisamide, 549–550
  clinical uses
    bipolar disorder, 582
    epilepsy, 543
  properties, 544t–545t
Zonula occludens, 350
Zopiclone, 532–533
Zotepine, 556t–557t
Zygote, 656–657

Instructions for online access

Thank you for your purchase. Please note that your purchase of this Elsevier eBook also includes access to an online version. Please click here (or go to ebooks.elsevier.com) to request an activation code and registration instructions in order to gain access to the web version.