

Week 8 Pharmacology – Neuro I VIVA Q:

1. Describe the classification of cholinoreceptors & give examples

Muscarinic = G protein linked

Nicotinic = ion channels

M1 – nerves

M2 – heart, nerves, smooth muscle

M3 - Glands, smooth muscle, endothelium

M4- CNS

M5- CNS

Nm- skeletal muscle neuromuscular junction

Nn- CNS, postganglionic cell body, dendrites + adrenal medulla.

Atropine - antimuscarinic

Clinical effects of stimulation (parasympathetic effects)

Eye – miosis (constriction), contraction of ciliary muscle for near vision

Heart

- SA node- decreased rate/chronotropy
- Atria – decreased contractile strength, decreased refractory period
- AV node- decreased conduction velocity and increased refractory period
- Ventricles- small decrease in contractile strength

Blood Vessels - Dilation at lower doses and constriction at high doses

Lung

- Muscle- Bronchoconstriction
- Glands- secretion

GIT

- Increased motility
- Relaxation of sphincters
- Stimulation of secretion

Bladder- Detrusor contracts and sphincter relaxes

Glands (sweat, salivary, lacrimal) all increase secretion

"cycloplegia" = weakened ciliary muscle + loss of near vision \Rightarrow 2^o cannot accommodate

2. Describe the actions and give examples of cholinesterase inhibitors

VIVA Q Target – acetylcholinesterase

MOA: Increase concentration of endogenous acetylcholine at cholinoreceptors by inhibiting AchE.

Group 1: i.e. edrophonium – reversibly bind to active site, short lived

Group 2: i.e. neostigmine/physostigmine – similar process (2 step hydrolysis) but prolonged action 30mins – 6 hours

Group 3: organophosphates. Covalent bond forms, slow hydrolysis (hundreds of hours)

Process of *aging* where bonds are strengthened – varies based on the compound. Clinical relevance because drugs like pralidoxime can break bonds if you get in before aging.

Clinical effects: most pronounced in cardiovascular, GI system, eye, skeletal muscle NMJ.

Uses – for myasthenia gravis, ileus, anticholinergic poisoning antidote, glaucoma

3. Describe the pharmacology of anticholinergics – atropine etc

Antimuscarinic agents – atropine is the prototype (from the bella donna deadly nightshade), also scopolamine (hyoscine), ipratropium, glycopyrrrolate.

Atropine – tertiary amine alkaloid ester of tropic acid .

Well absorbed from the gut and conjunctival membrane

Wide distribution – available in the CNS in 30 minutes

Half-life atropine 2 hours (fast phase) then 13 hours (slow phase)

* 50% excreted unchanged in the urine \rightarrow rest is hydrolysed + conjugated

Effects on the eye can persist >72 hours

MOA: reversible/surmountable blockade at muscarinic receptors

Selective for muscarinic receptors – doesn't distinguish M1/M2/M3 subgroups

Benztropine

• centrally acting antimuscarinic @ the basal ganglia.

• clinical: parkinson's disease
↓ tremor + rigidity

Glycopyrrrolate:

rapid onset
& airway secretions

NO CNS activity

Anticholinergic drugs acting on the muscarinic receptor giving the classical features of:

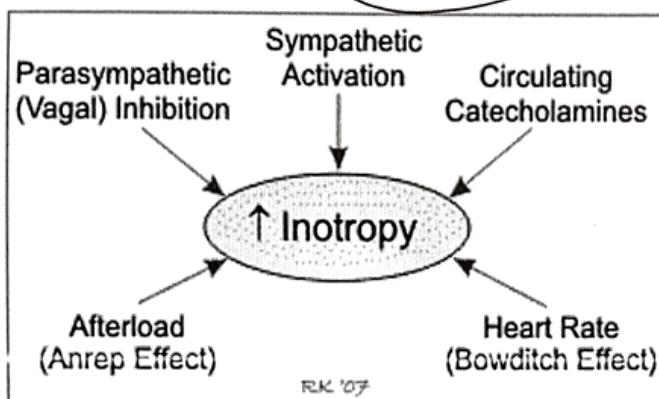
- red as a beet (vasodilatation)
- dry as a chip (decreased sweating)
- blind as a bat (pupillary vasodilatation)
- mad as a hatter (delirium)

Note: there are no muscarinic receptors on the blood vessels of the penis. Vasodilation occurs via nitric oxide from the endothelium.

Clinical effects

- CNS – minimal in atropine doses typically used. Some parkinsons drugs reduce PSNS activity in CNS.
- Eye- pupillary constrictor muscle depends on muscarinic input. Blocking it causes mydriasis due to unopposed sympathetic input. Big eyes considered beautiful – “belladonna”
- CVS- SA node sensitive to blockade, can cause tachycardia in an innervated and spontaneously beating heart by blocking the vagal slowing. Can reduce a prolonged PR interval caused by heavy vagal tone.
- Resp- Atropine can cause bronchodilation and reduce secretion. Antimuscarinics not AS effective as beta agonists. Use antimuscarinics to reduce airway secretions.
- GIT- Cause dry mouth by inhibition of secretions.
- Urinary- slows voiding by relaxing tone of bladder BUT can cause retention
- Sweat glands- suppression of thermoregulatory sweating → “atropine fever”

4. Can you describe the classification of inotropes



Inotropy = contractility

Contractility = ability of myocardial fibres to shorten, independent of preload and afterload

Ability to contract and the force of which it does so

Force of contraction is determined by concentration of calcium ions in the cells

Increase contractility by flooding the cell with more calcium (beta agonists) or by keeping more calcium in, preventing it escaping

Indications for inotropes

- To increase cardiac output by increasing the force of contraction in patients with cardiogenic and distributive shock

Inotropes: agents that alter the force or strength of myocardial contractility

Vasopressors: sympathomimetic drugs that mimic the effects of the SNS causing vascular smooth muscle vasoconstriction

Bipyridines (Phosphodiesterase inhibitors)

- Increase contractility by increasing calcium influx into myocardial cells
- Some effects on SR
- Milrinone – inhibits phosphodiesterase 3 (PDE-3), $t_{\frac{1}{2}}$ of 3-6 hours, 10-40% excreted in the urine
 - ↳ **inotropic + vasodilation so good for right heart failure (\uparrow contractility \downarrow vasc res)**

Beta-Adrenoceptor Agonists

- Most selective for heart β_1 = dobutamine
- Increases CO and decreases ventricular filling pressure
- SE- increased O₂ consumption, tachycardia (i.e. bad in CAD or arrhythmias)
- Can boost BP also

Beta agonists also used for
→ SMC relaxⁿ in airways
→ uterine relaxation
→ \uparrow skeletal muscle K⁺ uptake

Investigational

- Istaroxime – steroid derivative, inhibits Na/K/ATPase
- Levosimendan- sensitises the troponin system to calcium
- Omecamtiv mecarbil- activates cardiac myosin, prolongs systole without increasing O₂ consumption

Sympathomimetic amines (more often classified as vasopressors)

- Adrenaline – high affinity for β_1 , β_2 and α_1 , β effects at small dose, α_1 effects at high dose
- Noradrenaline – potent effects at α_1 receptors

Synthetic Catecholamines

- Dobutamine
 - o Strong β_1 ~~α_2 effects~~
 - o Cardiac effect makes it a strong inotrope
 - o Weak chronotropic activity
 - o Vascular smooth muscle binding results in combined α_1 agonism and antagonism
 - o β_2 stimulation with a net vascular effect of mild vasodilation

→ adrenaline synthesised from NA in the adrenal medulla. Same NA pathway synthesis in enzyme: phenylethanolamine - N-methyl transferase adds a methyl group to NA to form adrenaline

released in blood that perfuses the kidneys.

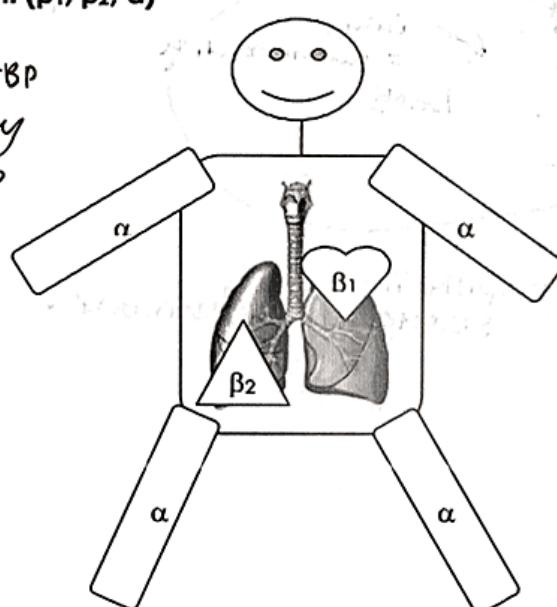
5. Describe the effects of adrenoceptors and distribution in the body

Receptor Location: (β_1 , β_2 , α)

Norad = peripheral TBP

Adrenalin = run away

Isoprel = THR - \textcircled{N} BP



α_2 - Gs CNS reuptake, smooth muscle.

Receptor Type	Location	Actions when stimulated
Alpha 1 1. norad 2. agen 3. isoprel	Vascular smooth muscle PLC DAG	Vasoconstriction Arterial SMC = contraction = ↑SVR Peripheral vasoconstriction
Beta 1 1. isoprenaline + dobutamine 2. adrenalin = norad	Heart and intestinal smooth muscle Gs	Increased contractility via ↑Ca in cells facilitating actin/myosin binding with trop C Increased automaticity Increased AV conduction Increase HR via Ca channel activation
Beta 2 1. isoprenaline 2. adrenalin = norad 3. norad	Bronchial Vascular and uterine smooth muscle Gs	Vasodilation and bronchial dilation B2 on vasc SMC causes ↑Ca uptake by SR and vasodilation Bronchial dilatation and dilation of coronary arteries
Dopaminergic receptors	Renal and mesenteric vessels	Vasodilation Increase blood flow to kidneys and mesentery
V1 and V2 receptors	V1 – vascular smooth muscle V2 – renal collecting duct	V1- constriction V2 – enhanced permeability collecting duct and mediates water reabsorption

Treatments for glaucoma

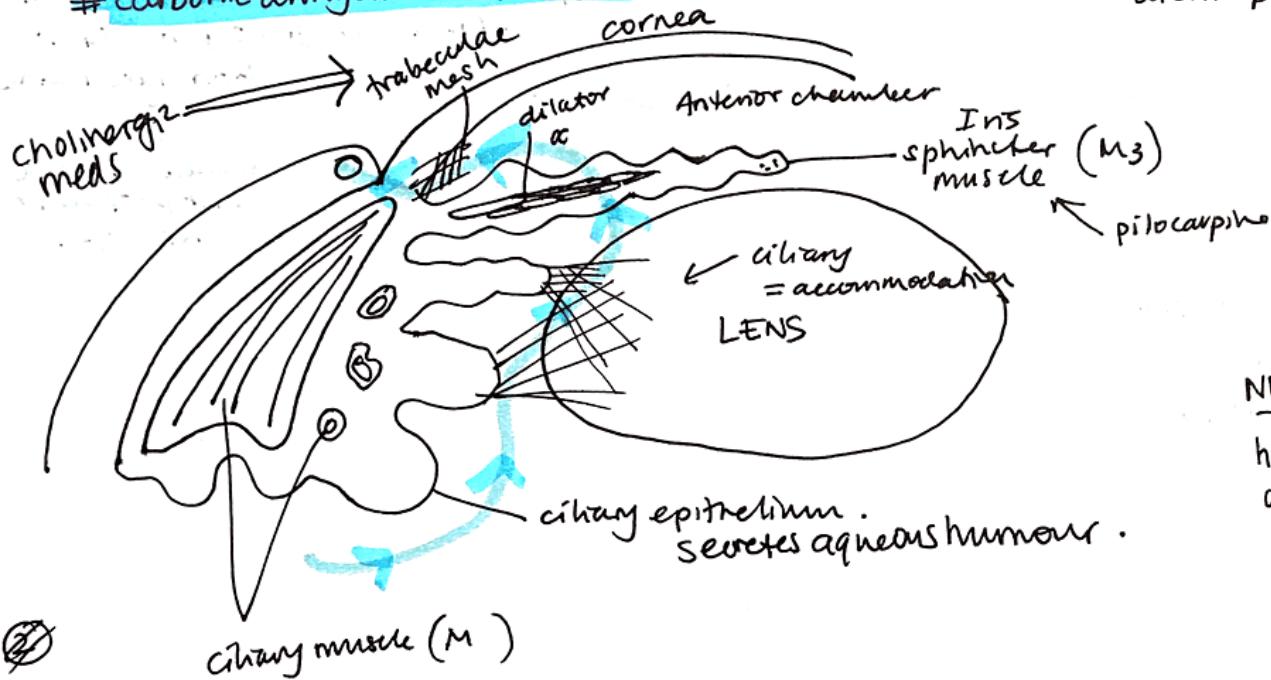
$\uparrow \text{IOP} = > 21 \text{ mmHg}$

① \downarrow of ~~aqueous~~ aqueous humor or secretion (ABC)

α_2 agonists \rightarrow \downarrow secretion i.e. apraclonidine

β blockers \rightarrow \downarrow secretion from ciliary epithelium (timolol, carteolol, metipranolol)

carbonic anhydrase inhibitors \rightarrow \downarrow secretion $\Rightarrow \downarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ (acetazolamide, dichlorphenamide)



NB:

homatropine
dilates pupil + can
precipitate
glaucoma.

② \uparrow aqueous outflow

cholinomimetics \rightarrow ciliary muscle contraction; opening of meshwork, \uparrow flow

(i.e. pilocarpine, physostigmine)
direct *indirect* \rightarrow AAT via AChE inhibition.

alpha agonists \Rightarrow \uparrow outflow - non-selective.
(i.e. adrenalin)

prostaglandins \Rightarrow \uparrow outflow, relax ciliary muscle, modulate ECF
(i.e latanoprost, bimatoprost)

DURATION OF EFFECT OF THESE DROPS FOR ED review of eyes

Atropine \Rightarrow 5-6 days

Scopolamine \Rightarrow 3-7 days

Homatropine \Rightarrow 12-24 hrs

Cyclopentolate \Rightarrow 3-6 hours

Tropicamide \Rightarrow 15-60 mins (BEST)

SYMPATHOMIMETICS = temporary only, time to institute other Rx.

METARAMINOL

MOA: α_2 receptor agonist
some indirect effects via α_1 NA.
minimal/negligent CNS effects.

NORAD

MOA: α_2 receptor agonist
 α_2 receptor (presynaptic - neg feedback)
 β_2 receptor \uparrow contractility \uparrow SBP.

Note: β_2 activity \uparrow HR HOWEVER baroreflex from \uparrow SBP causes reflex bradycardia so minimal overall change in HR.

ADRENALINE - low dose mainly beta, \uparrow dose \uparrow alpha.

MOA: β_1 receptor \rightarrow \uparrow HR \uparrow force
EQUAL $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \beta_2 \text{ receptor} \rightarrow \text{vasodilation in skeletal muscle beds.} \\ \alpha \text{ receptors} \rightarrow \text{peripheral vasoconstriction.} \end{array} \right.$

PK: IM/IV/subcut/
neb
poor oral bio av.
cross BBB
does cross placenta
50% protein bound.
onset - seconds
duration - 2 mins.

metab: COMT & MAO
in sympathetic nerves
metabolites excreted via urine.

DOBUTAMINE

MOA: β_2 selective.
 \rightarrow \uparrow CO w/ less reflex tachy.

NB: comes as a mixture of isomers w/ equal β agonist/antagonist.

Local Anaesthetics

Aminoamides

- A i lignocaine
bupivacaine (+cvstox)
mepivacaine
prilocaine.



Hydrolysed by P450 in the liver so longer t_{1/2}.
Prilocaine metabolised fastest (but MetHb protein bound)

Amino esters

- E Procaine
Benzocaine
Tetracaine (amethocaine)
Cocaine

Hydrolysed rapidly by pseudocholinesterase to inactive metabolites so shorter t_{1/2}
Allergies more common

LA's = weak bases → made as salts

Exist as uncharged base or cation depending on pKa + pH

Most LA pKas are 7.5 - 9 i.e. above physiological pH ⇒ mostly cationic form

This is why they don't work in infected tissues (acidic)
b/c ↓ pH means more charged form.

Most effective at the receptor site.
BUT
needs unionized form to get in through the membrane

pKa 8-9% positively charged at physiologic pH → charged = action @ receptor
needs to be uncharged to get to receptor.

Week 9 Pharmacology- Neuro II: Local Anaesthetic, General Anaesthetic, Muscle Relaxants

1. Describe pharmacological properties of lignocaine and prilocaine

Lignocaine

T½ distribution 10 mins
T½ elimination 1.6 hours
Vd 91
CL 0.95 L/min

TRANSIENT NEUROLOGICAL SYMPTOMS

post spinal anaesthesia w lignocaine/LA
pain in buttocks + thighs + legs
few hours post spinal → days post
no other neurology (≈ 10)

Local Anaesthetic Blocks

- ① sympathetic
- ② pain
- ③ temp
- ④ motor
- ⑤ proprioception

Prilocaine

T½ distribution 5 mins
T½ elimination 1.5 hours
Vd 261
CL 2.84 L/min

can cause methaemoglobinuria 2° to accumulation
of metabolite O-toluidine

→ Ferrous ions of haem
 Fe^{2+} oxidised to Fe^{3+} +
cannot bind O₂.

Eliminated via conversion to water soluble metabolites in the liver or plasma

MOA of local anaesthetics: voltage gated sodium channel blockade without altering the resting membrane potential.
Prevents the generation of action potential. Channels in the resting state have lower affinity, where active channels bind better. The recovery from a drug induced block is 10 – 1000 times slower than recovery from normal activation.

NB: high extracellular calcium antagonizes LA, high extracellular K enhances LA.

LA also interact with other channels K/Ca, enzymes adenylyl cyclase and receptors i.e. NMDA/g proteins effect is poorly understood but seems to be important.

RISK OF TOXIC EFFECTS in vascular areas i.e. intercostal block.

→ promotes depo. Basic = better acidic = inhibits action. (abscess)

2. What is anaesthesia?

Unconsciousness, amnesia and immobility.

See also: inhibition of autonomic reflexes and skeletal muscle relaxation + analgesia

3. Describe the pharmacological properties of common anaesthetic agents – NO, Isoflurane

NO – MOA → modulates Gα_{i/o} → dynorphin release → kappa receptors
Incomplete anaesthetic NMDA agonist

Rapid onset and recovery → excreted in lungs.

MAC > 100 TSNS tone, mild CVS depression, ↑ PVR (beware pul HTN)

Low solubility in blood so more rapid onset (blood gas partition coefficient 0.47 = at equilibrium between alveolar space and blood, the concentration in the blood is less than half the concentration in the inspired air)
Brain:Blood partition coefficient = 1.1

$1.4 \times \text{RR PONV}$ Expands air space
→ ears → bowel → PTX

Isoflurane → ↓ myocardial O₂ requirement so good for IHD pts.

Medium rate of onset and recovery

MAC 1.4

Higher solubility so longer time to onset because more gas dissolves in the blood before the tension changes.

Blood:gas partition 1.40

Brain:Blood partition coefficient = 2.6

Blood: 1
gas: 2

proximal > distal
(due to inner fibres from distal areas)

prolonged use > 6 hrs
= prevents DNA synth
= megaloblastic anaemia
< peripheral neuropathy
= agranulocytosis.

4. What is the MAC?

only valid at sea level.

sex/wt/duration doesn't
↓ MAC

The minimum alveolar concentration, a measure of potency of an anaesthetic
MAC is the partial pressure of an inhalational anaesthetic in the alveoli of the lungs at which 50% of a population of non-relaxed patients remained immobile at the time of surgical skin incision

measured as a percentage at 1 atmosphere of gas
in the mixture required to achieve this effect.

MACs of drugs

NO > 100%

Halothane 0.75%

Isoflurane 1.4%

methoxyflurane 0.16%

FACTORS THAT ↓ MAC

- Hypoxia
- Hypothermia
- Old age
- Circadian rhythm (10%)
- Opioids (ceiling effect)

Alveolar [] ≈ Brain []

SevO 2%

desflurane 6-8%

General Anaesthetic Inhaled agents:

BASICS: Clinical effect of inhaled/volatile agent depends on partial pressure in CNS

@ equilibrium; partial pressure in CNS = P_a (blood) = P_A (alveoli)

NB: not done in practice - can take hours.

Rate of onset + offset depends on transfer of gas

- (1) Into alveoli
- (2) from alveoli to blood
- (3) from blood to CNS.

MACS OF DRUGS

NO > 100%.

desflurane 6.6%.

sevoflurane 2%.

isoflurane 1.4%.

halothane 0.75%.

methoxy 0.16%.

MAC = minimum alveolar [%] @ steady state to prevent movement to surgical incision in 50% of subjects. A measure of POTENCY.

But doesn't reflect lack of awareness or other agents so 1 MAC usually ok.

MAC-AWAKE = End tidal [%] of agent that prevents response to verbal command in 50%.
Usually $\frac{1}{3}$ of the MAC.

These are only valid @ sea level given they are partial pressures & conc.

PARTITION COEFFICIENT:

Relative affinity for 2 phases when equal volume

Blood: gas \Rightarrow solubility in blood relative to air.

low blood:gas = rapid offset/onset b/c poorly soluble agents generate high $P_a \Rightarrow$ steep concentration gradient b/w P_A + P_B (brain)

high blood:gas = dissolves readily in blood w/out ΔP_a . Doesn't have the oomph to generate gradients = slow onset

Blood: gas coefficients for agents:

Methoxyflurane = 12!!. \rightarrow green whistle fast.

Halothane 2.3

desflurane lowest 0.42.

Inhaled agents ↓ MAP in proportion to "inhaled" alveolar [?].

NO does not cause

Halogenated agents have a higher brain:blood coefficient.

Clinical Effects

↓ GFR + urine flow - filtration fraction ↑

• Bronchodilation

• ↓ cardiac output

∴ ↓ portal blood flow

desflurane + isoflurane cause tachycardia.

Common things

• All inhaled agents undergo liver metabolism except halothane (oxidized)

• All halogenated agents ↓ Tidal vol + PRK = ↑ CO₂ via ↓ MV.

also ↑ central chemoreceptor sensitivity to CO₂

• ↓MAP ⇒ o° ↓ GFR.

• Muscle relaxation via Ca²⁺ channel blockade (may precipitate M+H)

Week 10 Pharmacology - Neuro III

sedation,

[Thiopental / Thiopentone] barbiturate → hypnosis, anaesthesia but NOT analgesia

o Rapidly crosses BBB

o Plasma: brain equilibrium < 1 min \propto ↑ lipid solubility

o Rapidly diffuses out of brain & vascular tissues \rightarrow redistributed to muscle + fat

o Metabolism 12-15% per hour

5-10 mins of action

o $\sim 1\%$ excreted unchanged in kidneys

Advantages: Rapid, controllable, amnesic, ↓ ICP, anticonvulsant

Disadvantages: Hypotension, myocardial depression, venous irritant, minimal muscle relaxation + analgesia, hepatic metabolism. Rare: porphyric crisis.

↑ GABA & ↓ glutamate

[Propofol]

→ procedural sedation - 0.5 - 1.0 mg/kg bolus or 10-20 mg aliquots

o IV administration → induction dose - 1 - 2.5 mg/kg & 2.5 - 3.5 mg/kg in kids

o Rapid onset/recovery due to redistribution from brain \rightarrow skeletal muscle \rightarrow fat rather than metabolism

o Distribution $t_{1/2}$ 2-4 mins

Indicated for: - Induction

- Maintenance of anaesthesia

- procedural sedation.

o Duration of action 3-8 mins

o Elimination $t_{1/2}$ 4-23 mins

o Metabolism in liver (rapidly) & lung

CNS/Resp/CVS effects.

o Excreted as glucuronides & sulphates, $< 1\%$ unchanged in urine

Advantages: Antiemetic, anaesthesia + sedation, (water soluble metabolites)

rapid onset/offset (for procedures)

Disadvantages/SE's: Hypotension - vaso/venodilation + -ve inotropic effect

Aphoea - dose related central depression, ↓TV, ↓ airway reflexes

Pain on injection, egg allergy, not analgesic, metabolic acidosis

Limit SE's \rightarrow caution w/ simultaneous opiates / benzos

\rightarrow titrate small doses \downarrow resp. : sedation

\rightarrow ↓ doses in elderly or poor cardiac reserve

\rightarrow caution in haemodynamically unstable pts.

(infusion)

propofol

infusion

syndrome

(tachycardia)

ketamine

Related to phenylididine

→ IV / IM / oral / rectal / epidural

"anaesthesia"

"dissociative anaesthesia" + also analgesia + sedation + amnesia.

- MOA: inhibition of NMDA receptor complex (antagonist)

- Rapid onset from high lipid solubility; offset from redistribution (quik)

OR ALSO
blockade of the membrane - metabolised in liver (p450) → norketamine ("3 as potent") → water soluble products excreted in urine.

- Low protein binding (12%)

- Reflexes preserved (but not able to maintain airway)

CNS effects → cerebral vasodilator that increases cerebral blood flow, so caution / avoid in ↑ ICP or open globe.

→ anticonvulsant effects

→ unpleasant emergent effects: hallucinations, distortion, fear, euphoria. (can combine w/ benzodiazepines)

→ anaesthesia (dissociative) + profound analgesia

CVS effects → haemodynamically stable

→ transient ↑ SBP / HR / CO via central SNS stimulation.

→ can be myocardial depressant

Resp effects → intact airway reflexes

→ single drug: resp response to ↑ CO₂ preserved.

→ Risk of laryngospasm from ↑ salivation (especially in kids)

→ Relaxes bronchial smooth muscle: good for asthma pts

* inhibits histamine release*

Induction dose: 1-2 mg/kg IV / 4-6 mg/kg IM

Analgesia dose: 0.2-0.8 mg/kg for a block / epidural.

Other SE's: vomiting, seizures.

Main indications → analgesia, procedural sedation, bronchodilator effect in severe asthma, ?behavioural disturbance, emergency agitation

Avoid in: allergy, ↑ IOP, ↑ ICP, recent/current VRT, shock

Contraindications: previous laryngospasm with ketamine

Documented allergy to ketamine

↑ HR ↑ BP i.e. methamphetamine OD

Theoretical risk in ICP / IOP.

Benzodiazepines. (midazolam, lorazepam, diazepam) (interaction)
usually (α or γ)

M_{OA}: Binds to molecular components of GABA_A receptor in neuronal membranes in CNS. This receptor is a chloride ion channel (i.e. ↑ membrane polarization)

NB: BZD don't substitute for GABA (inhibitory NT) but enhance effects without directly activating or opening the channel, causes ↑ freq of channel opening.

* diazepam → lipid soluble than lorazepam *

Organ level effects of diazepam:

CNS

- sedation adjointor
- (high dose) anaesthesia
- anticonvulsant (clonazepam/diaz)
- amnesia
- muscle relaxation
- hypnosis (↑ stage 2 NREM, ↓ REM)

DVS/resp.

- depression @ high doses (+CCF/hypovol/CHS) especially resp disease
- midaz ↓ BP > diaz ↓² peripheral vasodilation.

Clinical uses:

anticonvulsant, sedation of agitated pt, EtOH/Benzo withdrawal,

Various toxicoses.

Lipid soluble → rapid onset, redistribution effects

Indications:

- anxiety disorders / panic disorder
- preop medication
- insomnia / sleep disturbance
- seizure disorders
- alcohol withdrawal
- muscle spasm
- to induce amnesia during cardioversion/endoscopy

DIAZEPAM

t_{1/2} 20 - 40 hrs

no effect on hepatic metab.

Binds GABA-A to ↑ transmission.

metabolised to oxazepam & desmethyldiazepam

* All hepatic metabolism * to active metabolites

BZDs in ETOH withdrawal.

ETOH excess → down regulation of neuro-inhibitory GABA receptors in alcohol dependent person; leads to GABA deficiency in withdrawal.

BZD's act on a modulatory site on GABA_A receptor to facilitate binding of GABA, enhance chloride channel opening & overcome neuroexcitatory symptoms of GABA deficiency.

Flumazenil: selective BZD antagonist.

causes vomiting / seizures / unmasking withdrawal
don't forget re-sedation once effects wear off.

MIDAZOLAM

- Water soluble - so oral / IM / intranasal ok
- Poor oral bioavailability
- Highly protein bound
- crosses BBB easily
- Elimination t_{1/2} short: 1.5 - 2.5 hours (active metabolites)
- Hepatic metabolism + renal excretion (56% renal excretion)

(MOA)
pharmacodynamics - anticonvulsant, sedative-hypnotic, anxiolytic, amnesia.

Etomidate

GABA receptors

conscious sedation + RSI

dose: [Seizures]

paediatric IV 0.1mg/kg

buccal / IN 0.3mg/kg

adult: IV 5mg IV/IN/buccal

>70yrs 2.5mg IM

Alcohol Mech: enhances GABA-mediated inhibition, inhibits Ca^{2+} entry, inhibits NMDA receptors, inhibits adenosine transport.

(PK) Absorption: rapid, from GIT, peak levels in 30 mins

Distribution: Rapid, volume is $T_{1/2V} 0.5 - 0.7 \text{ L/kg}$

metabolised in the liver by alcohol dehydrogenase (& small amounts by microsomal ethanol oxidising system (MEOS)) 1 unit per hour

- zero order kinetics (elimination @ constant rate no matter [I])

Excretion in the lungs & small amounts in urine (10% unchanged)

Other zero order drugs: phenytoin, theophylline, warfarin, heparin, paracetamol.

(PD)

CNS - sedation, disinhibition, impaired judgement, impaired motor skills, ataxia, slurred speech, coma, respiratory ↓ central mechanism.

CVS - ↓ contractility, vasodilation → hypotension.

Chronic alcohol exposure: arrhythmias, HTN, CAD, chronic pancreatitis

Alcoholic cardiomyopathy, fatty liver disease → cirrhosis (varices)

obesity \rightarrow energy consent, Wernicke's ataxia, Korsakoff syndrome

neurotoxicity. FASD.

Tolerance - upregulation of NMDA receptors

- downregulation of GABA response

VIGABATRIN

GABA analogue that inhibits 4-amino butyrate-transaminase (enzyme that usually breaks down GABA) ↑ GABA availability
(off-label use for cocaine dependence)

Renal elimination unchanged drug, no liver metabolism.

ETHOSUXIMIDE: for absence seizures.
blocks Ca^{2+} channels.

nausea/vom
CNS dep.

WK10.

ANTIEPILEPTICS

Carbamazepine - Antipsychotic for bipolar "mood stabilizer"

- Antiepileptic (focal & focal to full)

- Trigeminal neuralgia (great!)

don't have
a seizure in
the car
eating salty
chips

MOA: Sodium channel blockade

Binds to inactive state to stabilise there

High frequency trains of AP preferentially inhibited
so interfere less in normal / baseline activity

Pharmacokinetics

100% bioavailability

peak levels 6-8 hours post ingestion

slower after meals = more well tolerated

~ 70% protein bound

Vd 100L/kg

low clearance - t_{1/2} 36 hrs (< over time)

Induces its own metabolism

Liver converts to active metabolite

P450 enzymes ↑↑

- Valproate can inhibit clearance (+phenytoin)

- carbamazepine induces enzymes

SE:

— GI symptoms

benign leukoencephalopathy

diplopia, ataxia

sedation @ high doses

agranulocytosis

? seizures. OD: manage as per TCS

NB oxycarbamazepine - analog, less potent, no active metabolite

Antiepileptics

Sodium Valproate

↓
LIVER TOXICITY

- protects against many seizure types
- also bipolar mood stabilizer
- migraine prophylaxis

* MOA: unknown, effective on diverse epilepsy models.

VIVA Q: What could it be?

Could be: Na⁺ channels

GABA transmission

NMDA.

∅ = in drug level so ? active part.

used for all kinds of seizures.

PK

oral bioavailability: 80%

Peak level 2 hrs → food delays absorption

Highly protein bound = low Vd = 0.15 L/kg

t_{1/2} 9 - 18 hours

20% excreted as a conjugate

Interactions

Inhibits the metabolism of several drugs

Displaces phenytoin from plasma proteins

↑ levels of carbamazepine

Inhibits its own metabolism

↓ clearance of lamotrigine

* P450 enzyme inhibitor *

Toxicity

nausea / vomiting / abdominal pain / heartburn

Fine tremor

* Hepatic toxicity (< 2 yrs) *

Thrombocytopenia + bruising

↑ ammonia → tiredness to coma

Neural tube defects in 1st trimester

CNS: coma, cerebral oedema

Antiepileptics

PHENYTOIN

MVA: Sodium Channel Blockade (similar to carbamazepine)
Inhibits the generation of repetitive APs. plus GABA_A activity.

used for: focal, tonic clonic seizures, status

NOT FOR absence, Dravets, juvenile myoclonic (worsens)

PK

PO/IV - highly variable absorption

90% albumin bound = low Vol 0.6 L/kg

ENZYME INDUCING

Metabolised in liver to inactive metabolites → urine

First order → saturated → variable t_{1/2} 12-36 hrs

takes 5-7 days to reach steady state

Toxicity

Nystagmus, loss of smooth pursuit is NORMAL + OK

Diplopia + ataxia = needs dose ↓

Gingival hyperplasia + misurition

long term use = Vit D & osteomalacia

IV administration = purple glove syndrome. Black discolouration distal to IV site. Can cause local necrosis 2° extravasation

IV administration can cause ~~tachy~~ bradycardia & ↓ BP → CVS collapse.

status epilepticus dose → 20mg/kg 1/10

over 20 mins, 50mg per min.

why is the dose dependent elimination important?

Small, frequent ↑ in dose can lead to overdose + toxicity

Low doses = first order kinetics, higher doses = ~~real~~ zero order.

Antiepileptics

LEVETIRACETAM

Liked because of : favourable SE profile
broad therapeutic window
lack of drug interactions

MOA: Binds to SV2A - synaptic vesicle protein (? related to exocytosis)
Endocytosis → binds in the vesicle + prevents release of glutamate during ↑ frequency activity

uses focal seizures, generalised T/C, status.

PK: Rapid oral absorption - peak 1-3 hours

Linear kinetics

low protein binding (~10%)

t_{1/2} 6-8 hours (BD dosing)

2/3 excreted unchanged in the urine

1/3 deaminated in the BLOOD

NO LIVER METABOLISM, MINIMAL INTERACTIONS.

SEs:

mild: somnolence, ataxia, infection, dizziness

worse: behavioural + mood changes (aggression, anxiety)

status dose → paediatrics: 40mg/kg IV/10 (max 3g)

→ adults: 60mg/kg IV/10 (max 4.5g)

Antiepileptics

LAMOTRIGINE - well tolerated, ✓ foetal nJK.

MOA: Sodium channel blockade

Clinical: almost all seizures inc. absence.

PK:

50% protein bound

$t_{1/2}$ 24hrs - daily dosing to 2nd daily

usually dosed w/ valproate (which & its metabolite) glucuronidated in the liver

GABAPENTIN + PREGABALIN

MOA: Binds to $\alpha 2 \delta$ on voltage gated Ca^{2+} channels
? \downarrow glutamate release

used for - focal seizures (NOT generalised or absence)
- neuropathic pain

PK: Eliminated unchanged in urine

Absorbed in upper small intestine

variable absorption.

Pregab: bioavailability ~ 90%

$t_{1/2}$ ~ 5-8 hours BD/TDS

SES (Somnolence)

ataxia

dizziness

weight gain + peripheral oedema

Skeletal Muscle Relaxants

receptor occupation

smaller muscles affected first.

NON depolarising

- occupies receptor sites + prevents channel opening
NB: can enter pore @ very high doses.

DURATION IN:

- hypotension
- renal failure (steroids)
- acidosis
- hypokalaemia
- hyper mag

STEROID AT & metabolized in liver. ± renal excretion

Intermediate acting
5-30mins

Rocuronium

Hepatic metabolism (55%) biliary
Lasts 30mins, onset 45-90secs elimination (60%)
40% urinary excretion.
↑ HR @ high doses anaphylaxis

Vecuronium
Potent

Has least effect on CVS.
Hepatic metabolism (70-90%).
Lasts 45mins - 1hr

can be reversed with sugammadex which binds ROC + VEC.

Pipercuronium - t/t

Pancuronium
Potent

- LONG ACTING: >35mins, onset 90-150sec.
- 80% renal elimination of unchanged product
- small ↑HR via M. block @ heart
- no histamine release

ISOQUINOLINE

Tubocurarine - >50mins action duration.

- 40% renal elimination.

Acetacurium - lasts 25-30mins

- histamine release → hypotension / bronchospasm
- Hoffmann elimination (spontaneous breakdown)
↳ byproducts: laudanosine ⇒ seizures.

Cisacurium - less histamine

- less laudanosine
- still mostly spontaneous elimination.
- lasts slightly longer.

Other

Gantacurium (new)

Depolarising

~~Succinylcholine~~ (suxamethonium)

Succinylcholine - occupies receptor sites & blocks channel.

looks like 2 Ach molecules together.

Very short duration \rightarrow 5 - 10 mins

hydrolysed by butyrylcholinesterase & pseudocholinesterase in plasma
in liver

genetic deficiency
can cause prolonged
blockade

Main elimination

NB: Sux is hydrolysed enroute to NMJ so, circulating cholinesterase determines how much gets there to begin with \therefore duration of action.

So action can be prolonged if pt has genetic abnormality (abnormal cholinesterase number)
"pseudocholinesterase deficiency"

Phase I block (depolarising) Tense phase

Activation \Rightarrow transient contraction

paralysis 2° to inability of nerve to repolarise + depolarise again (which is req'd for maintenance of muscle tension)

Phase I augmented by cholinesterase inhibitors.

Phase II (desensitising) Relaxed phase

With prolonged exposure the membrane is able to repolarise.

BUT does not depolarise again \Rightarrow it is now desensitised.

Behaves like a non-depol block

Can be antagonised by anticholinesterase inhibitors (controversial)

Other effects 2nd dose causes bradycardia. (nobody knows why)

Stimulates cardiac muscarinic receptors \Rightarrow attenuated by atropine/glycopyrrolate.
negative inotropic + chronotropic effects

Hyperkalaemia - K released from muscles 2° fasciculations. If extrajunctional receptor proliferation (bums) \therefore NK can \rightarrow arrhythmias.

\uparrow IOP - not for open globe trauma.

\uparrow intragastric pressure -

Myalgias -

Interactions - malignant hyperthermia

- Aminoglycosides enhance blockade

abnormal Ca^{2+} release from skeletal muscle \rightarrow give dantrolene (over next page)

Neuromuscular MCQs

Sugammadex:

- modified gamma cyclohextrin
- selectively reverses effects of rocuronium + vecuronium
- maybe pancuronium
- MOA: forms a complex w/ these drugs so they can't bind to **nicotinic receptors** in NMJ.
- IV administration - elimination $t_{1/2}$ 2.2 hours (elderly ✓ in kids)
- mostly excreted unchanged in urine so not for renal pts
- immediate reversal = 16mg/kg 3 mins post roc
- 4mg/kg for reversal of deep block
- 2mg/kg for shallow block.
- More effective than neostigmine for reversal (quicker)
- Recurrence of blockade can occur.

Sux does not cause urinary retention

Pancuronium / Rocuronium / Vecuronium rely on liver or kidney metabolism to clear a drug. BC they are STEROIDAL

Atracurium is cleared via Hoffman elimination (i.e enzymatic & non-enzymatic hydrolysis of ester bonds). Better for liver/renal disease pts. Cisatracurium is better b/c all the advantages w/ less histamine.

Pseudocholinesterase deficiency: (1 in 3k-5000 people)

usually drugs are rapidly metabolized by plasma cholinesterase.

In individuals w/ this, the paralysis can be prolonged (hours)

Eg succinylcholine, mivacurium.

procaine + pesticides + cocaine

Iatrogenic causes: ACE inhibitors, esmolol, steroids, contraceptives.

Causes of prolonged neuromuscular blockade (vecuronium)

- hypothermia (↓ clearance) & hyperthermia (↑ activity)
- severe bradycardia/arrhythmias - adenos (↑ activity.)
- abx/steroids/narcotics (gentamycin potentiates) by ↓ Ach release

Shortened in burns - resistant 2° to proliferation of **extrajunctional receptors**

Week 11 Pharmacology: Neuro IV.

1. Biogenic amine theory of depression

→ Noradrenaline + serotonin

→ "depression is a result of ↓ functional activity of these"

→ ↑ availability by blocking reuptake → more at binding sites.

Now more evidence for neurotrophic + endocrine factors / neurotrophin hypothesis

Involves BDNF.

Hormones - abnormal HPA axis in major depression, ↑ cortisol, Δ TFTs.

flu - 70%.

SSRIs • ↑ bioav, protein bound.

Act on SERT, serotonin only, block reuptake

Used for: GAD, PTSD, OCD, Panic disorder, PMDD, serotonin

Bulimia.

Highly lipophilic

Fluoxetine - metabolised to active product, 5HT_{1B}

Sertraline - longest t_{1/2}, wait 4 wks b4 MAOI.

Citalopram

Paxoxetine - Inhibits CYPD26.

Fluvoxamine - Inhibits CYP3A4 ~~Elbitaldehyde~~

Escitalopram

Relatively safe in overdose

SE → nausea/diarrhoea, ↓ libido, headaches

Risk of serotonin syndrome

TRAZODONE

SNRIs Act at both SERT & NET, better tolerated than TCAs.

All different structures, weak inhibitor of NET

Venlafaxine - 45% bioav, liver metabolism CYPD6 to desvenlafaxine,

t_{1/2} of both = 10 hours, 45% des is excreted unchanged in urine (4% ven)

Des = better for liver disease

Duloxetine → 3 RINGS → 50% bioav, t_{1/2} 12-15 hrs, protein bound, hepatic impairment significantly ↓ levels.

Also milnacipran + levomilnacipran.

SE: norad effects → HTN, TIR, CNS = insomnia, agitation, anxiety.

10mg/kg Lethal

Nortriptyline.

TCAs (old school) iminodibenzyl core → used if SS & SNRIs fail.

Imipramine → highly anticholinerg.

→ strong SSRI/SNRI

→ OD = VF arrest

Amitriptyline

BioAv 45%, $t_{1/2}$ 31-46 hrs, ^{active metabolite} 96 hrs
90% protein bound.

Desipramine → more selective NA inhibitor

→ less anticholinerg.

→

Blocks reuptake of:

- serotonin

- noradrenaline

Blocks muscarinic, sympathetic α_1 ,
GABA_A, Na⁺ channel + histamine

RAPID

- PK: o Well absorbed + long $t_{1/2}$'s 20-40 hours, highly lipophilic + high volume of dist. (so cannot dialyse)
- o Most doses node due to sedation
- o Extensive metabolism - demethylation, hydroxylation, glucuronide conjugation. Only 5% excreted unchanged in the urine.
- o Go through CYP2D6 system - interact w/ fluoxetine

P.D: Variable affinity for receptors - SERT vs NET

i.e. clomipramine more SERT → good for OCD.

seizures (CNS.)

sedation (antihistamine)

Hypotension (anti-alpha)

wide QRS (Na⁺ channel)

Adverse effects

- blurred vision
- dry mouth
- tachycardia
- constipation

anticholinergic / antimuscimelic effects

100mg in kids. >10mg/kg potentially life threatening

overdose → 1500mg amitriptyline can kill you (7/7 supply)

severe toxicity usually manifests in 2 hrs, can block GABA → seizures

QRS widens due to fast Na channel blockade → arrhythmias

• Treat aggressively in sodium bicarb & hyperventilation.

↳ plasma alkalinization promotes protein binding to sequester TCA away & reduce free drug available.

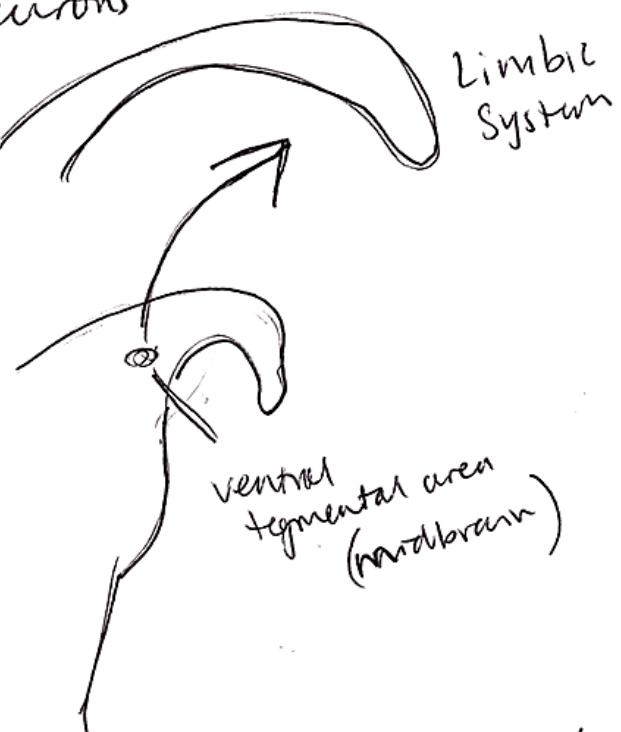
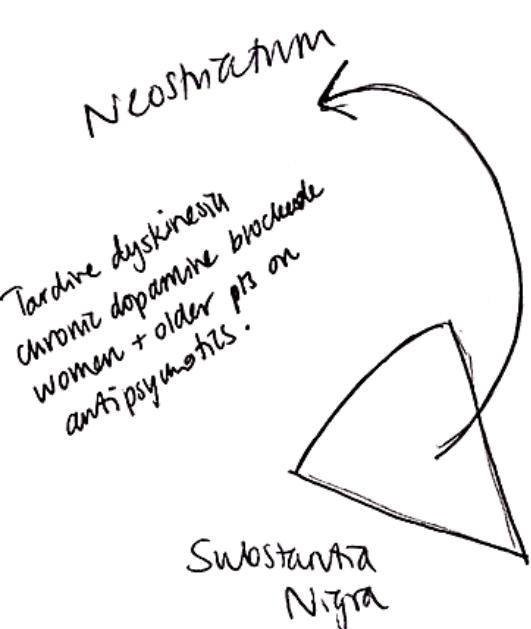
↳ sodium load ↑ Na to compete at receptor site.

↳ ameliorate shock → replace volume to dilute + spread TCA.

proprioception / local anesthesia / overdose

DOPAMINE

slow inhibitory action on CNS neurons



PATHWAY #1 Not enough dopamine
MOVEMENT

PATHWAY #2 Too much dopamine
PSYCHOSIS

D2: Inhibitory g protein.

D2 blockade (anti-psychotics)
 ⇒ EPSes
 ⇒ IATATION.
 ⇒ dystonic rxn to metoclopramide.

D2 agonists (parkinsons Rx)

relief of aketnesia.

Bromocriptine

⇒ hallucinations.

Inactivated in solution by Na Bicarb
Also precursor for noread / adrenalin
 used in shock. via adrenergic action
 ?Systemically

Causes renal vasodilation,
 ↑GFR & natriuresis.
 via D1 receptors

$$D1 = D2 \gg \beta \gg \alpha$$

Highly protein bound

Lipid soluble ie get to the brain

"first generation"

Pharm II

"typical"

lots of side

Antipsychotics → large Vol

"neuroleptic"

effects

LARGACTIL

large action"

bad CVS effects

phenothiazines: chlorpromazine / Fluphenazine / thioridazine
 $(+ \text{Thioxanthene})$ hypotension? promethazine

worst antimuscarinic symptoms

MVA: Blockade of D₂ receptors >> 5-HT_{2A} receptors

Effects: - α-receptor blockade → **hypotension**

- muscarinic-blockade (esp chlorpromazine)

- H₁ receptor-blockade

- CNS depression → sedation

- ↓ seizure threshold

- QT prolongation (thioridazine)

- D₂ blockade → EPS, dystonia, lactation.

Used for: schizophrenia (attenuate +ve symptoms)

bipolar mania

antiemesis

pmritis (antihistamine)

PO / parenteral - extensive 1st pass metabolism → PO = 25-30% BioAv.

long t_{1/2}, metabolism dependent elimination (found in urine)

Tox: parkinsonian features from D₂ blockade. (for weeks)

also α & muscarinic effects.

chlorpromazine can cause cholestasis.

Haloperidol (first generation) ✓ 1st pass = bioav ~ 65%.

D₂ blockade > 5HT₂ "BUTROPHENONES"

worst for EPSes

causes ++ extrapyramidal SE's.

→ used for tics.

Note: D₂ receptors in caudate, putamen, nucleus accumbens & olfactory tubercle.

"Atypicals"

Second Generation = complex pharmacology

Act more on 5HT₂ than D₂ (also partial 5HT_{1A})

clozapine "the prototype."

agranulocytosis

metabolic issues $\begin{matrix} \text{T2DM} \\ \text{Lipids} \\ \text{\downarrow wt gain} \\ \text{\downarrow seizure threshold} \end{matrix}$

less EPS.

D₄ = α₁ > 5HT₂ > D₂ = D₁

Risperidone → to paliperidone (rapid)

10% pts poor metabolisers

↑ prolactin, weight gain

oral tab/wafer

olanzapine "the wafer"

im depot

5HT_{2A} > H₁ > D₄ > D₂ = D₁

expensive \$\$\$

Aripiprazole "the depot"

Partial agonist @ D₂

D₂ = 5HT_{2A} > D₄ > α₁ = H₁ > D₁

Adverse effects:

Extrapyramidal reactions (less common than in typicals)

Tardive dyskinesia

Antimuscarinic effects - dry mouth, constipation, blurred vision.

Orthostatic hypotension (α₂ block)

Metabolic - weight gain, ↑BGL, ↑ lipids

↑ prolactin (from dopamine)

Agranulocytosis (clozapine)

Neuroleptic malignant syndrome

MORE UNCLASSIFIED ANTIDEPRESSANTS.

Pharm II

5HT2 antagonists - trazodone + nefazodone + vortioxetine

block negative feedback mechanisms

Highly sedating

sedation + GIT upset

also other 5HTs
also SERT

Tetracyclics -



Bupropion → rapidly absorbed

univariant. → protein binding 85%

→ significant first pass effect + hepatic metabolism

→ Biphasic metabolism - 1hr then 14hrs

→ unique SE profile.

→ Resembles amphetamine structure & has CNS activating properties (agitation, insomnia, anorexia)

→

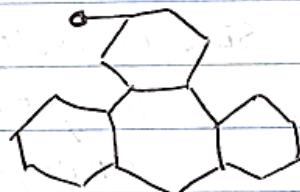
Mirtazapine.

→ no sexual side effects. (?)

→ t½ 20-40 hours

→ sedating = dose in the evening

→ hydroxylation + glucuronide conjugation.



Amitriptyline

→ D₂ blocking → parkinson syndrome.

Antiparkinsons Medications

Dopamine replacement

- L-DOPA → via jejunal tube or carbidopa.
- precursor for dopamine
 - can cross the BBB (dopamine cannot)
 - 1-3% enters the brain (\uparrow if also using dopa decarboxylase inhibitor i.e. carbidopa).

PK: $t_{1/2}$ 1-3 hours (longer in carbidopa)

causes a +ve coombs test

Rapidly absorbed from small intestine but depends on the rate of stomach emptying and pH of faeces (food competes w drug for absorption).

GIVEN IV CARBIDOPA - ↓ side effects (n/v / anorexia)

- ↓ daily requirement by 75%

SE sudden cessation causes tremor

Abrupt change = neuroleptic malignant syndrome.

80% develop dyskinesia after 10 yrs

DRUG HOLIDAY not recommended

→ slight ↑ responsiveness

→ risk of aspiration, PE, VTE, depression from ↓ mobility
cancels it out.

Vomiting in parkinsons patient → use domperidone

Contraindicated in psychosis, Acute angle closure glaucoma, malignant melanoma.

Amantadine

Anatural in antiparkinsons effects

MOA unclear

Also NMDA antagonist.

— improves the imbalance b/w Dopamine & cholinergic systems

Ach blockers — centrally acting antimuscarinic drugs.

i.e. benztropine, biperiden, orphenadrine, procyclidine, trihexyphenidyl.

improves tremor + rigidity but little effect on bradykinesia

SI anticholinergic syndromes.

not tolerated in cognitively impaired

Acute suppurative parotitis & dry mouth.

VIVA Q:

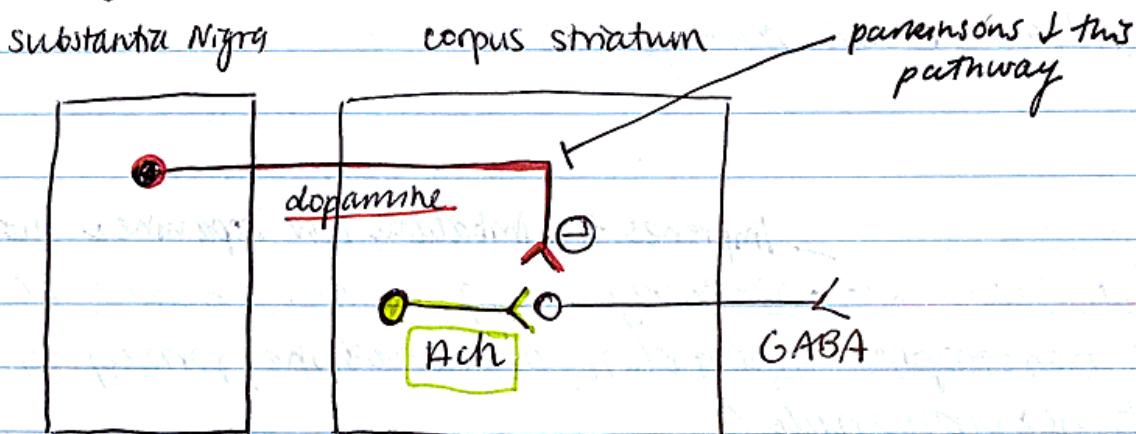
NB: Benztropine also used as the antidote for acute dystonia rxns \perp° to dopamine antagonists i.e. Metoclopramide.

↳ acute dystonia rxns occur due to imbalance of dopaminergic + cholinergic neurotransmission.

Mech: nigrostriatal D2 receptor blockade \rightarrow excess striatal cholinergic output

Antiparkinsons medications

Basically



Options either ↑ dopamine OR ↓ Ach.

Dopamine agonists

Bromocriptine: D₂ agonist (full) + D₁ (partial)

Pergolide: D₂ + D₃

Pramipexole: D₃ > others

excreted unchanged in urine (xif renal failure)

Ropinirole: D₂ agonist

Rotigotine: patch - for early disease

Adverse effects: anorexia/nausea/vomiting/heartburn

postural hypotension

cardiac arrhythmias

dystonia

mental disturbance - confusion / hallucinations

CI: psychotic illness

Recent MI

peptic ulcer.

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LITHIUM

0.5mEq/kg/day.

Absorption: absorbs in 6-8 hours

peak plasma levels 30mins - 2 hours

Acts like Na^+ in
the tubules.

Distribution Total body water Vd 0.7L/kg

Slow to move into cells

some sequestration to bone

No protein binding.

Narrow therapeutic
window: needs monitoring

→ levels 10-12 hrs after dose

> 2mmol/L toxic

Supportive Rx \pm haemodialysis**Not metabolised**

Excretion: Almost entirely in urine.

Clearance = 20% of creatinine clearance.Plasma $t^{1/2} \approx 20$ hours.MOA uncertain - suppresses inositol signalling + inhibits glycogen synthase kinase-3 (GSK-3) $\xrightarrow{\alpha}$ multifunctional kinase.

No significant effects on autonomic / CNS receptors. Not sedating.

clinically \rightarrow prophylaxis against mood swings in bipolar. (nephrogenic diabetes insipidus)Toxicity \rightarrow Tremor, oedema, reversible hypothyroidism, renal dysfunction, dysrhythmias, pregnancy category D, Ataxia, confusion, Ebsteins anomaly. \rightarrow polyuria, polydipsia

Interactions - clearance reduced by triazine diuretics + NSAIDs + ACEi's.

Other antipsychotics can ↑ risk of EPS.

Slowing down of GFR rate = more time in PCT for resorption.

≈ 80% is filtered + reabsorbed

+ Needs dialysis in overdose.

NB Osmotic diuretics or loop diuretics get rid of lithium