

# Primary Cast Episode 23 - Endocrine & GIT Pharmacology



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## 1. Thyroid Pharmacology

### How does carbimazole act in thyroid disease?

Metabolised to methimazole

Major action is to block hormone synthesis (T3 and T4 )

Inhibits thyroid peroxidase enzyme which limits the organification of iodine.

Small action in blocking peripheral deiodination of T3 and T4

Slow onset as T4 may take weeks to be depleted

### What are the major side effects of carbimazole?

- Rash - maculopapular
- Pruritus
- Bone marrow suppression: neutropaenia, agranulocytosis (reversible)
- Jaundice/hepatitis
- Nausea and GI effects
- Arthralgia
- Vasculitis

### How does carbimazole differ from propylthiouracil?

- Carbimazole is a prodrug - converted to methimazole in vivo. Methimazole is 10 times more potent than carbimazole.
- PTU has greater action in inhibiting peripheral deiodination of T4 and T3
- PTU has a shorter half life 1.5 vs 6 hours. So means PTU given QID and Carbimazole once daily
- PTU bioavailability 50-80% vs carbimazole 100%
- PTU excreted in the urine as a glucuronide metabolite in <24 hours, carbimazole takes over 48 hours

## 2. Corticosteroids

### Describe the mechanism of action of corticosteroids as a cellular level

- Most of known effects are via widely distributed glucocorticoid receptors
- The drug is present in the blood in bound form on corticosteroid binding globulin
- Enters the cell as a free molecule
- The intracellular receptor is bound to stabilising support proteins
- The complex binds a molecule of cortisol and then is actively transported into the nucleus where it binds to glucocorticoid receptor elements on the gene
- Interacts with DNA and nuclear proteins that regulate transcription, resulting in mRNA exported to cytoplasm for protein production for the final hormone response

**What are the effects of corticosteroids?**

This is a question about pharmacodynamics

- Cardiac - Permissive effect on catecholamines
- Metabolic - catabolic, anti-anabolic effects
- Anti-inflammatory effects - influences the effect, concentration and distribution of peripheral leukocytes, suppresses inflammatory mediators, inhibits tissue macrophages.
- CNS effects - insomnia

**What are the effects of chronic steroid use?**

- Cushing's syndrome
- Peptic ulcers
- Cataracts + glaucoma
- Psychosis and/or depression
- Hypertension
- Adrenal suppression with use for > 2 weeks

**3. Diabetes Drugs****Outline the groups of drugs used to treat diabetes**

- Insulin
- Sulfonylureas
- Biguanides
- Meglitinides
- Alpha glucosidase inhibitors

**What are the pharmacokinetics of sulfonylureas?**

A: Oral administration with 80% bioavailability

D: Protein bound with a volume of distribution of approx 20L

M: Hepatic metabolism to products which are inactive or have very low activity. Variable but moderate half life of 8 - 24 hours

E: Renally excreted

**Contrast the mechanism of action of sulfonylureas and biguanides**Sulfonylureas i.e. glipizide

- Increase insulin release from the pancreas (specifically from pancreatic beta cells)
- They bind to a cell surface receptor and cause depolarisation by inhibition of K<sup>+</sup> efflux. This leads to release of preformed insulin
- Reduce serum glucagon levels
- Also facilitates closure of potassium channels in extrapancreatic tissues

Biguanides i.e. metformin

- Action does not depend on functioning pancreatic beta cells

- Mechanism is still unclear but evidence that it:
- May directly stimulate glycolysis in tissues with increase glucose removal from blood
- May reduce hepatic gluconeogenesis
- May slow absorption of glucose from the GI tract
- May reduce glucagon levels

**Describe the pharmacokinetics of metformin**

A: well absorbed

D: Not protein bound

M: Not metabolised

E: Elimination via kidney excretion as an unchanged compound with an elimination half life of 1.5 to 3 hours

**What are some of the side effects of metformin?**

GI upset most common and often limits compliance with the drug

High anion gap metabolic acidosis - especially in patients with co-existing renal disease, EtOH excess or chronic cardiopulmonary disease

**4. Insulin****What is the action of insulin?**

This is a question about pharmacodynamics

Promotes the uptake of glucose from blood into tissues - especially fat, liver cells and skeletal muscle. Promotes glycogen synthesis.

**What different formulations of insulin are there?**

Rapid and short acting - clear solution, rapid onset, short duration e.g. insulin lispro

Intermediate - turbid solution, protamine buffer to prolong action e.g. protaphane insulin

Long acting - clear solution, slow onset, prolonged action. Daily administration mimics basal insulin secretion. E.g. insulin glargine

**How are the different properties of these types of insulin used to optimise glycaemic control?**

Combination of insulins with different durations are used to form a basal bolus routine where half is given as long acting and the other half is given in divided doses associated with meals

**What type of insulin is used for intravenous infusion and why?**

Short acting regular soluble insulin as it immediately dissociates on dilution and is able to be more precisely delivered

**Can you provide any other emergency department uses for insulin aside from glucose control?**

- Treatment of hyperkalaemia
- Management of toxic overdoses i.e. calcium channel blockers or beta blockers

**What are the possible adverse effects of insulin therapy?**

- Hypoglycaemia
- Insulin allergy - usually due to non-insulin contaminants
- Immune insulin resistance
- Lipodystrophy at injection sites

**5. Glucagon****Describe the pharmacologic effects of glucagon**Metabolic

- Binds with receptors on liver cells (G protein linked)
- Promotes catabolism of stored glycogen, raising the blood glucose level
- Has no effect on skeletal muscle
- Causes release of insulin from beta cells

Cardiac Effects

- Potent inotropic and chronotropic effect on the heart via cAMP without requiring functioning beta receptor

Other

- Large doses of glucagon produce relaxation of smooth muscle

**What are the indications for using glucagon clinically**

- Severe hypoglycaemia
- Can be used as an adjunct in anaphylaxis in patients on beta blockers who fail to respond to adrenaline
- Relaxation of intestine during some radiological procedures
- Diagnosis of endocrine disorders i.e. diabetes, some tumours including pheochromocytoma
- Previously first line for treatment of beta blocker overdose - used to reverse hypotension/bradycardia due to the ability to increase cAMP production in the heart independent of beta-receptor function. Now not really done due to lack of evidence and superiority of high dose euglycemic insulin therapy.
- Previously also used to treat food bolus but not done anymore due to side effects and poor effectiveness

**What are the adverse reactions produced by glucagon?**

- Relatively free from severe reactions
- Transient dose-dependent nausea and vomiting
- Hyperglycaemia
- Anaphylaxis always possible

## 6. Octreotide

### What is the mechanism of action of octreotide?

- Somatostatin analog
- Reduced splanchnic and portal blood flow by poorly understood mechanisms and hence variceal pressures
- Inhibits endocrine and paracrine factor secretion including insulin, glucagon, gastrin, GH and TSH

### What are the pharmacokinetics of octreotide?

A: IV, IM, subcut

D:

M: Mostly metabolised by the liver

E: plasma elimination half life is 80 mins, 20% excreted unchanged

### What are the adverse effects?

- Anaphylaxis
- Local irritation during injection
- GI symptoms - nausea, vomiting, decreased intestinal motility
- Hypo OR hyperglycaemia - unpredictable
- Cardiac - sinus brady, conduction disturbances

### What are some of the clinical uses of octreotide?

- Acute oesophageal variceal bleed - to divert blood from the splanchnic circulation and decrease portal pressure
- Used in sulfonylurea overdose
- Reduce symptoms of hormone secreting tumours e.g. carcinoid syndrome

## 7. Terlipressin (not included in previous exams but now clinically used in variceal bleed instead of octreotide so fair game for new questions, also useful in an emergency!)

### What is the mechanism of action of Terlipressin?

Synthetic vasopressin analogue with relative specificity for splanchnic circulation where it causes vasoconstriction of these vessels with a reduction in portal pressure

### What are the pharmacokinetics?

A: Given IV, concentration increases proportionally with the dose administered

D: VD of 6.3L

M: Converted to active metabolite lypressin via tissue peptidases. Not affected by liver/kidney disease states. Half life of the active metabolite is 3 hours.

E: Less than 1% of terlipressin or lypressin is excreted unchanged

### What is it used for?

Mostly in acute management of variceal bleed to divert blood from splanchnic circulation.

Also used non-emergently in hepatorenal syndrome

#### What are the adverse effects

- Reduced cardiac output state due to vasoconstriction
- Heart failure or MI
- GI disturbance
- Hyponatraemia - longer term use

### 8. Antiemetics

#### Name some antiemetics used in the emergency department

- Ondansetron
- Metoclopramide
- Prochlorperazine
- Antihistamine
- Droperidol
- Som benzodiazepines

#### Compare the mechanisms of action of ondansetron and metoclopramide

These drugs are both antiemetics but act on different receptors

Ondansetron: Peripheral 5HT<sub>3</sub> blockade (reduces vagal and spinal afferents and sensory visceral output) + central 5HT<sub>3</sub> blockade (inhibits the vomiting centre in the chemoreceptor trigger zone (CTZ))

Metoclopramide: D<sub>2</sub> Blockade in the CTZ. Also a prokinetic which increased oesophageal motility and promotes gastric emptying.

#### Describe the potential adverse effects of metoclopramide

Most of these relate to central dopamine antagonist action

- CNS: restlessness, drowsiness, insomnia, anxiety, agitation. These are common, occurring in 20% of people especially the elderly.
- Extrapyramidal effects: acute dystonia, akathisia, parkinsonian effects (more likely with higher doses). Tardive dyskinesia can occur with chronic dosing
- Endo: Hyperprolactinaemia, leading to galactorrhoea, gynecomastia, impotence and menstruation disorders.

#### What are the doses and route of ondansetron?

4-8mg Sublingual, oral, subcut or IM

#### What are the potential adverse effects of ondansetron?

Headache, dizziness, constipation, diarrhoea

Uncommonly can cause a small prolongation of QT interval

#### In which disease states would you need to modify the dosing?

Hepatic failure

## 9. Proton pump inhibitors

### **Describe the MOA of PPIs**

Irreversibly inactivates H/K/ATPase, blocking the proton pump, inhibiting >90% of acid secretion, for up to 24hours which is the time it takes to synthesis new pumps

### **Why is an IV infusion preferred to a single bolus dose?**

It only inactivates actively secreting acid pumps (<10% in fasting patients)

Single dose only suppresses acid secretion for a few hours

### **Regarding oral formulations of proton pump inhibitors, please describe strategies used to increase their bioavailability and activity.**

- PPIs are taken as prodrugs
- They have an acid resistant enteric coating to prevent gastric elimination
- Food decreases the bioavailability so its advised that people take them on an empty stomach
- They are weak bases so pass into the acidified parietal cells where they bind to H/K ATPase
- Peak activity occurs in one hour, so best to have 1 hour before a meal