

MARVIN B. SMITH

Handbook of Ocular Pharmacology

Third Edition

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This book is dedicated in loving memory to Isadore Smith.

About the Author

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Doctor Smith has conducted research projects in ocular and systemic pharmacology and has published numerous papers in the area of ocular pharmacology and toxicology. He has been the recipient of many awards and honors which include the Eli Lilly Achievement Award, the Bristol Laboratories Award, and the Henry Fisher Memorial Pharmacology and Pharmacognosy Award. He has been a consultant to a variety of industrial, academic, professional, and educational testing organizations.

Acknowledgment

Portions of this book are revisions of original articles by the author which appeared in issues of *Optical Journal and Review of Optometry*, Chilton Way, Radnor, PA.

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Foreword

This Third Edition of the Handbook of Ocular Pharmacology is intended to outline the vast array of information on ocular pharmacology. The main objective of this revised edition is to update some of the newer innovations in drug delivery systems for ocular and systemic medications, prodrugs, beta-adrenergic blocking agents, and the constant and dynamic changes in pharmaceuticals useful in over-the-counter care and in the management of contact lenses.

This edition reviews pharmaceuticals that were not available when the previous editions were published. There also is a completely new question and answer section designed to aid clinicians in their review of basic ocular pharmacology, especially for the numerous board certification examinations they may encounter during their careers.

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Introduction and General Concepts of Pharmacology

Pharmacology is the study of drugs; broadly speaking, it encompasses the sum total of all knowledge of drugs and their actions. For the purposes of this discussion, however, pharmacology can be divided into three basic areas of knowledge: experimental and comparative pharmacology, therapeutics, and toxicology.

EXPERIMENTAL AND COMPARATIVE PHARMACOLOGY

Much of the literature and data in this field are concerned with the mechanism of action of drugs, or how drugs work, and the development of screening procedures to find new drugs which are both safe and effective. Since the human is useful in only relatively safe experimental systems, animals are used to model systems of human disease conditions. For example, the rabbit is often used to assess the autonomic effects of various drugs on the pupil of the eye, or to test antiinflammatory agents on the eye.

If the animal model system is successful, then the pharmacologist can predict with accuracy the effects of a drug when used clinically. Unfortunately, since pharmacology is a relatively young science, pharmacological data may become confused by apparent contradictions between human and animal studies. Hopefully, the following chapters will clarify some of these possible contradictions.

THERAPEUTICS

Therapeutics is that branch of pharmacology which concerns the use of drugs in diagnosing or treating disease.

When drugs are used to treat ocular disorders, the most rational therapy is achieved when the cause of the ocular disease is known. If, for example, an ocular lesion (e.g., ulceration) is caused by herpes simplex virus, an agent such as idoxuridine effectively inhibits the virus which causes the disease. Clinical symptoms improve because the disease source is affected. However, much ocular pharmacology and pharmacology in general is aimed at treating symptoms rather than diseases—for instance, the cause of glaucoma in many cases is unknown, but it is known that a high intraocular pressure (IOP) can produce ocular nerve damage and subsequent blindness. As a result many drugs, even agents with pharmacologically opposite effects in most cases (e.g., epinephrine and cholinomimetics), are sometimes used to treat the symptoms of glaucoma; in other words, what is treated is the elevated intraocular pressure rather than the actual cause of the disease.

However, the clinician may be faced with difficulty when trying to find diagnostic drugs listed in the general pharmacological literature. Frequently these listings are hard to find since diagnostic effects are often not major reasons for the use of the drug and since, in some cases, the diagnostic test actually induces a side effect. For example, when topical steroids are used as provocative tests for glaucoma the increased intraocular pressure expected in a glaucoma patient is actually a side effect of the drug's major use, namely as an antiinflammatory agent.

TOXICOLOGY

Toxicology is concerned with the toxic or potentially harmful effects of drugs. Many drugs have the potential for ocular iatrogenic (drug-induced) disease, a possibility which should be a constant consideration in the patient's examination.

From a practical point of view, the clinician is largely concerned with the therapeutic and toxicologic effects of drugs, which are the primary concern of this book.

PRESCRIPTION DRUGS

Prescription drugs, also called legend drugs, have stated on their labels, "Caution: Federal (U.S.A.) Law Prohibits Dispensing

Without a Prescription." The manufacturers of these drugs are required to give the clinician information on the toxicology of a drug. Since this information is often too long to put on a package label, it often is included in a "package insert" placed inside the box or container in which the drug is marketed. This package insert contains prescribing information, contraindications, adverse effects, teratological effects, incompatibilities, and storage requirements. It is considered a part of the drug's labeling. The clinician should be aware of the general meanings of these terms

Contraindication refers to a condition in which the drug should not be used. However, it should be noted that the contraindications for a particular drug may not be absolute (unless stated) as the assumption usually is that the drug is being used alone. For example, sugar would be contraindicated in a diabetic patient. However, a diabetic patient who had taken too much insulin would require sugar administration.

Adverse (side) effects are usually undesired (untoward) effects of a particular drug; e.g., systemic antihistamines cause drowsiness as a side effect. However, sometimes the prudent clinician can utilize some adverse effects to a patient's benefit. For example, chickenpox virus sometimes starts as a lesion around the eye. It has no specific antiviral treatment other than to symptomatically decrease patient itching and discomfort. In this situation, relatively high doses of diphenhydramine (Benadryl) have been used to relieve the itching and also to produce sleep, which adds to patient comfort.

Teratological (literally, "the study of monsters") effects refer to the ability of a drug to produce birth defects. For obvious moral, ethical and legal reasons, research in this area is usually done in animal model systems, and extrapolation of the results, when applied to the human situation, is relatively unpredictable. However, the clinician should be aware of the fact that extreme caution, and careful weighing of the benefit-to-risk ratio, should be utilized when any drug is administered to a pregnant woman. Although still apparently in litigation, the drug Bendectin was voluntarily withdrawn from the market because of a number of law suits alleging teratology. Likewise, media and patient awareness of alleged dioxin teratological effects may carry over to a variety of drugs and chemicals.

Incompatibilities refer to a drug not being compatible with other drugs (chemical or pharmacological incompatibility), or physical conditions (physical incompatibility). An example of a chemical incompatibility can occur when ophthalmic AgNO3 is used with a halogen-containing solution or a sulfonamide. In this case the AgNO3 with the halogen or sulfonamide would cause the insoluble Ag-halogen or Ag-sulfide to precipitate, thus negating the antibacterial effect of silver. A pharmacological incompatibility occurs when one drug interferes with or causes an untoward side effect in another drug, by physiologic rather than chemical means. For example, systemic antihypertensives may be incompatible with topical beta-adrenergic blockers, as they may cause severe systemic hypotension and fainting. A physical incompatibility refers to physical conditions altering drug effectiveness. For example, epinephrine solutions deteriorate more rapidly and lose pharmacologic effectiveness when exposed to light.

DEFINITIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A drug is anything intended for the diagnosis, mitigation, mediation, or treatment of a disease or disease process. Generally speaking, drugs are chemical compounds. It is not unreasonable, however, to suppose that soft contact lens materials could be classified as drugs since they are chemical compounds. This is especially true since hydrophilic soft lenses have been considered drug delivery systems because of their adsorptive and absorptive properties which could lend these products to use in the treatment of disease. For example, hydrophilic lenses can be presoaked in a drug solution and then placed on the eve, or a drop of drug solution can be placed on the eve with a nontreated lens. Applying a drug solution in this way could, in effect, present a greater than normal amount of drug to the eye. Another consideration is the possibility of side effects due to the use of cosmetics by contact lens patients. An additional concern is the fact that a drug applied in this manner is usually maintained in a higher volume and for a more prolonged duration.

An interesting drug is hydroxypropyl cellulose, which is similar to agents used in over-the-counter artificial tear preparations for dry eye syndromes. However, placing the hydroxypropyl

cellulose (Lacrisert) in a rod-shaped, water soluble preparation for insertion into the cul-de-sac of the eye beneath the base of the tarsus, has produced a legend drug for patients with moderate to severe dry eye syndrome. The clinician should also be aware of the fact that any over-the-counter drug can be legally considered a prescription drug if the clinician directs a patient to use the agent for a specific reason. This is especially true if the clinician commits the direction or suggestion into writing in a prescription form.

REFERENCE TEXTS

There are several books available which should aid the clinician. The following list contains some of the books which I find extremely helpful in teaching ocular pharmacology:

AMA Drug Evaluations, Third Edition. American Medical Association, 1980. Prepared by the scientific staff of the AMA, this definitive work is an indispensable pharmacological reference. Drugs have been indexed by both trade and generic names. Included are evaluations of new drugs by therapeutic classifications, along with structural formulas, adverse reactions, dosages, and combinations.

L.S. Goodman and A. Gilman, *Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics*. New York: Macmillan, Inc., 1980. It gives detailed descriptions of most drugs and their theoretical or actual mechanisms of action. Unfortunately, the book is a generalized pharmacology text and does not give detailed descriptions specific to studying the eye as an entity. This criticism is probably true of most general pharmacology texts.

W.H. Havener, *Ocular Pharmacology*, Fourth Edition. St. Louis: The C.V. Mosby Co., 1978. A discussion of ocular pharmacology from the standpoint of how an ophthalmologist would use drugs gives many good descriptions of both the theoretical and clinical rationale for the use of ocular drugs.

M.B. Smith, Handbook of Ocular Toxicity. Acton, Mass.: Publishing Sciences Group, 1975. This valuable and practical book for the clinician identifies ocular symptoms produced by the use and abuse of various drugs. Every practitioner should have this book within arm's reach as an aid in documenting the patient's case history.