英文原版

基础与临床药理学

Basic & Clinical Pharmacology

ENGLISH

Bertram G. Katzung

人民卫生出版社
McGraw-Hill

eighth edition

a LANGE medical book

Basic & Clinical Pharmacology

Eighth Edition

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图字：01-2000-4162

基础与临床药理学(英文版)

主　　编：(美) Bertram G. Katzung
出版发行：人民卫生出版社(中继线 67616688)
地　　址：(100078)北京市丰台区方庄芳群园 3 区 3 号楼
网　　址：http://www.pmph.com
E-mail：pmph@pmph.com
印　　刷：北京人卫印刷厂
经　　销：新华书店
开　　本：787×1092　1/16　　印张：77
字　　数：2300 千字
版　　次：2001 年 2 月第 1 版　2001 年 2 月第 1 版第 1 次印刷
标准书号：ISBN 7-117-04182-X/R·4183
定　　价：157.00 元

Preface

This book is designed to provide a complete, authoritative, current, and readable pharmacology textbook for medical, pharmacy, and other health science students. It also offers special features that make it useful to house officers and practicing clinicians.

Information is organized according to the sequence used in many pharmacology courses: basic principles; autonomic drugs; cardiovascular-renal drugs; drugs with important actions on smooth muscle; central nervous system drugs; drugs used to treat inflammation, gout, and diseases of the blood; endocrine drugs; chemotherapeutic drugs; toxicology; and special topics. This sequence builds new information on a foundation of information already assimilated. For example, early presentation of autonomic pharmacology allows students to integrate the physiology and neuroscience they know with the pharmacology they are learning and prepares them to understand the autonomic effects of other drugs. This is especially important for the cardiovascular and central nervous system drug groups. However, chapters can be used equally well in courses that present these topics in a different sequence.

Within each chapter, emphasis is placed on discussion of drug groups and prototypes rather than offering repetitive detail about individual drugs. Selection of the subject matter and the order of its presentation are based on the accumulated experience of teaching this material to thousands of medical, pharmacy, dental, podiatry, nursing, and other health science students.

Major features that make this book especially useful to professional students include sections that specifically address the clinical choice and use of drugs in patients and the monitoring of their effects—in other words, *clinical pharmacology* is an integral part of this text. Lists of the commercial preparations available, including trade and generic names and dosage formulations, are provided at the end of each chapter for easy reference by the house officer or practitioner writing a chart order or prescription.

The nomenclature of recognized receptors is still somewhat unstable at present. In order to minimize discrepancies, we have in most cases chosen to use the receptor names given in the 1999 and 2000 issues of *Receptor Nomenclature Supplement* (special annual issue of *Trends in Pharmacological Sciences*). Enzymes are named according to the contributor's judgment of the best current usage, usually that of *1992 Enzyme Nomenclature,* Academic Press, 1992.

Significant revisions in this edition include the following:

- A new chapter on botanicals (herbal medications) and food supplements—an area of increasing importance for health practitioners
- Major revision of the chapter on anti-inflammatory drugs, including important new disease-modifying agents
- Major revision of the chapter on anemia and colony-stimulating factors
- Major revision of the chapter on the treatment of clotting disorders
- Major revision of the chapters on steroid drugs
- Major revision of the chapter on antiprotozoal drugs
- New figures, most in color, that help to clarify important concepts in pharmacology
- New special-interest text boxes that provide working examples of the text material or serve to point out items of particular interest
- Continuing expansion of the coverage of general concepts relating to receptors and listings of newly discovered receptors
- Recent changes in the clinical management of antibiotic-resistant infections, AIDS, asthma, and congestive heart failure
- Descriptions of important new drugs released through March 2000
- Revised bibliographies with many new references through March 2000

An important related source of information is *Pharmacology: Examination & Board Review,* 5th ed. (Katzung BG, Trevor AJ: Appleton & Lange/McGraw-Hill, 1998). This book provides a succinct review of pharmacology with one of the largest available collections of sample examination questions and answers. It is especially helpful to students preparing for board-type examinations.

The widespread acceptance of the first seven editions of *Basic & Clinical Pharmacology* over more than 15 years suggests that this book fills an important need. We believe that the eighth edition will satisfy this need even more successfully. Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Indonesian translations are available. Translations into other languages are under way; the publisher may be contacted for further information.

I wish to acknowledge the ongoing efforts of my contributing authors and the major contributions of the staff at Appleton & Lange and more recently at McGraw-Hill, and of our editor, James Ransom. I also wish to thank my wife, Alice, for her expert proofreading contributions since the first edition.

Suggestions and comments about *Basic & Clinical Pharmacology* are always welcome. They may be sent to me at the Department of Cellular & Molecular Pharmacology, Box 0450, S-1210, University of California, San Francisco, CA 94143-0450.

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Contents

Schedule of Controlled Drugs ..... Inside Front Cover

Preface vii

The Authors ix

I. BASIC PRINCIPLES

1. Introduction 1
Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

2. Drug Receptors & Pharmacodynamics 9
Henry R. Bourne, MD, & Mark von Zastrow, MD, PhD

3. Pharmacokinetics & Pharmacodynamics: Rational Dosing & the Time Course of Drug Action 35
Nicholas H. G. Holford, MB, ChB, FRACP

4. Drug Biotransformation 51
Maria Almira Correia, PhD

5. Basic & Clinical Evaluation of New Drugs 64
Barry A. Berkowitz, PhD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

II. AUTONOMIC DRUGS

6. Introduction to Autonomic Pharmacology 75
Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

7. Cholinoceptor-Activating & Cholinesterase-Inhibiting Drugs 92
Achilles J. Pappano, PhD

8. Cholinoceptor-Blocking Drugs 107
Achilles J. Pappano, PhD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

9. Adrenoceptor-Activating & Other Sympathomimetic Drugs 120
Brian B. Hoffman, MD

10. Adrenoceptor Antagonist Drugs 138
Brian B. Hoffman, MD

III. CARDIOVASCULAR-RENAL DRUGS

11. Antihypertensive Agents 155
Neal L. Benowitz, MD

12. Vasodilators & the Treatment of Angina Pectoris 181
Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD, & Kanu Chatterjee, MB, FRCP

13. Cardiac Glycosides & Other Drugs Used in Congestive Heart Failure 200
Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD, & William W. Parmley, MD

14. Agents Used in Cardiac Arrhythmias 219
Luc M. Hondeghem, MD, PhD, & Dan M. Roden, MD

15. Diuretic Agents 245
Harlan E. Ives, MD, PhD

IV. DRUGS WITH IMPORTANT ACTIONS ON SMOOTH MUSCLE

16. Histamine, Serotonin, & the Ergot Alkaloids 265
Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD, & David J. Julius, PhD

17. Vasoactive Peptides 292
Ian A. Reid, PhD

18. The Eicosanoids: Prostaglandins, Thromboxanes, Leukotrienes, & Related Compounds 311
Marie L. Foegh, MD, DSc, & Peter W. Ramwell, PhD

19. Nitric Oxide, Donors, & Inhibitors 326
George Thomas, PhD, & Peter W. Ramwell, PhD

20. Drugs Used in Asthma 333
Homer A. Boushey, MD

V. DRUGS THAT ACT IN THE CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM

21. Introduction to the Pharmacology of CNS Drugs 351
Roger A. Nicoll, MD

22. Sedative-Hypnotic Drugs 364
Anthony J. Trevor, PhD, & Walter L. Way, MD

23. The Alcohols 382
Susan B. Masters, PhD

24. Antiseizure Drugs 395
Roger J. Porter, MD, & Brian S. Meldrum, MB, PhD

25. General Anesthetics 419
Anthony J. Trevor, PhD, & Ronald D. Miller, MD

26. Local Anesthetics 436
Ronald D. Miller, MD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

27. Skeletal Muscle Relaxants 446
Ronald D. Miller, MD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

28. Pharmacologic Management of Parkinsonism & Other Movement Disorders 463
Michael J. Aminoff, MD, FRCP

29. Antipsychotic Agents & Lithium 478
William Z. Potter, MD, PhD, & Leo E. Hollister, MD

30. Antidepressant Agents 498
William Z. Potter, MD, PhD, & Leo E. Hollister, MD

31. Opioid Analgesics & Antagonists 512
Walter L. Way, MD, Howard L. Fields, MD, PhD, & Mark A. Schumacher, PhD, MD

32. Drugs of Abuse 532
Thomas R. Kosten, MD, and Leo E. Hollister, MD

VI. DRUGS USED TO TREAT DISEASES OF THE BLOOD, INFLAMMATION, & GOUT

33. Agents Used in Anemias; Hematopoietic Growth Factors 549
Daniel V. Santi, MD, PhD, & Susan B. Masters, PhD

34. Drugs Used in Disorders of Coagulation 564
Julie Hambleton, MD, & Robert A. O'Reilly, MD

35. Agents Used in Hyperlipidemia 581
Mary J. Malloy, MD, & John P. Kane, MD, PhD

36. Nonsteroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs, Disease-Modifying Antirheumatic Drugs, Nonopioid Analgesics, & Drugs Used in Gout 596
Daniel E. Furst, MD, & Tino Munster, MD

VII. ENDOCRINE DRUGS

37. Hypothalamic & Pituitary Hormones 625
Paul A. Fitzgerald, MD

38. Thyroid & Antithyroid Drugs 644
Francis S. Greenspan, MD, & Betty J. Dong, PharmD

39. Adrenocorticosteroids & Adrenocortical Antagonists 660
George P. Chrousos, MD, & Andrew N. Margioris, MD

40. The Gonadal Hormones & Inhibitors 679
George P. Chrousos, MD, Emmanouil N. Zoumakis, PhD, & Achille Gravanis, PhD

41. Pancreatic Hormones & Antidiabetic Drugs 711
Martha S. Nolte, MD, & John H. Karam, MD

42. Agents That Affect Bone Mineral Homeostasis 735
Daniel D. Bikle, MD, PhD

VIII. CHEMOTHERAPEUTIC DRUGS

43. Beta-Lactam Antibiotics & Other Inhibitors of Cell Wall Synthesis 754
Henry F. Chambers, MD

44. Chloramphenicol, Tetracyclines, Macrolides, Clindamycin, & Streptogramins 774
Henry F. Chambers, MD

45. Aminoglycosides & Spectinomycin 784
Henry F. Chambers, MD

46. Sulfonamides, Trimethoprim, & Quinolones 793
Henry F. Chambers, MD

47. Antimycobacterial Drugs 803
Henry F. Chambers, MD

48. Antifungal Agents 814
Don Sheppard, MD, & Harry W. Lampiris, MD

49. Antiviral Agents 823
Sharon Safrin, MD

50. Miscellaneous Antimicrobial Agents; Disinfectants, Antiseptics, & Sterilants 845
Henry F. Chambers, MD

51. Clinical Use of Antimicrobial Agents 854
Harry W. Lampiris, MD, & Daniel S. Maddix, PharmD

52. Basic Principles of Antiparasitic Chemotherapy 869
Ching Chung Wang, PhD

53. Antiprotozoal Drugs 882
Philip J. Rosenthal, MD, & Robert S. Goldsmith, MD, DTM&H

54. Clinical Pharmacology of the Anthelmintic Drugs 903
Robert S. Goldsmith, MD, DTM&H

55. Cancer Chemotherapy 923
Sydney E. Salmon, MD, & Alan C. Sartorelli, PhD

56. Immunopharmacology 959
Douglas F. Lake, PhD, Emmanuel T. Akporiaye, PhD, & Evan M. Hersh, MD

IX. TOXICOLOGY

57. Introduction to Toxicology: Occupational & Environmental 987
Gabriel L. Plaa, PhD

58. Heavy Metal Intoxication & Chelators 999
Michael J. Kosnett, MD, MPH

59. Management of the Poisoned Patient 1011
Kent R. Olson, MD

X. SPECIAL TOPICS

60. Special Aspects of Perinatal & Pediatric Pharmacology 1025
Gideon Koren, MD

61. Special Aspects of Geriatric Pharmacology 1036
Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

62. Dermatologic Pharmacology 1045
Dirk B. Robertson, MD, & Howard I. Maibach, MD

63. Drugs Used in Gastrointestinal Diseases 1064
David F. Altman, MD

64. Therapeutic & Toxic Potential of Over-the-Counter Agents 1077
Robin L. Corelli, PharmD, & Mary Anne Koda-Kimble, PharmD

65. Botanicals ("Herbal Medications") & Nutritional Supplements 1088
Cathi E. Dennehy, PharmD, & Candy Tsourounis, PharmD

66. Rational Prescribing & Prescription Writing 1104
Paul W. Lofholm, PharmD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

Appendix I. Vaccines, Immune Globulins, & Other Complex Biologic Products 1113
Harry W. Lampiris, MD, & Daniel S. Maddix, PharmD

Appendix II. Important Drug Interactions & Their Mechanisms 1122
Philip D. Hansten, PharmD

Index 1135

Section I.
Basic Principles

Introduction 1

Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD

Pharmacology can be defined as the study of substances that interact with living systems through chemical processes, especially by binding to regulatory molecules and activating or inhibiting normal body processes. These substances may be chemicals administered to achieve a beneficial therapeutic effect on some process within the patient or for their toxic effects on regulatory processes in parasites infecting the patient. Such deliberate therapeutic applications may be considered the proper role of **medical pharmacology,** which is often defined as the science of substances used to prevent, diagnose, and treat disease. **Toxicology** is that branch of pharmacology that deals with the undesirable effects of chemicals on living systems, from individual cells to complex ecosystems.

History

Prehistoric people undoubtedly recognized the beneficial or toxic effects of many plant and animal materials. The earliest written records from China and from Egypt list remedies of many types, including a few still recognized today as useful drugs. Most, however, were worthless or actually harmful. In the 2500 years or so preceding the modern era there were sporadic attempts to introduce rational methods into medicine, but none were successful owing to the dominance of systems of thought that purported to explain all of biology and disease without the need for experimentation and observation. These schools promulgated bizarre notions such as the idea that disease was caused by excesses of bile or blood in the body, that wounds could be healed by applying a salve to the weapon that caused the wound, and so on.

Around the end of the 17th century, reliance on observation and experimentation began to replace theorizing in medicine, following the example of the physical sciences. As the value of these methods in the study of disease became clear, physicians in Great Britain and elsewhere in Europe began to apply them to the effects of traditional drugs used in their own practices. Thus, materia medica, the science of drug preparation and the medical use of drugs, began to develop as the precursor to pharmacology. However, any understanding of the mechanisms of action of drugs was prevented by the absence of methods for purifying active agents from the crude materials that were available and—even more—by the lack of methods for testing hypotheses about the nature of drug actions. However, in the late 18th and early 19th centuries, François Magendie and later his student Claude Bernard began to develop the methods of experimental animal physiology and pharmacology. Advances in chemistry and the further development of physiology in the 18th, 19th, and early 20th centuries laid the foundation needed for understanding how drugs work at the organ and tissue levels. Paradoxically, real advances in basic pharmacology during the 19th century were accompanied by an outburst of unscientific promotion by manufacturers and marketers of worthless "patent medicines." It was not until the concepts of rational therapeutics, especially that of the controlled clinical trial, were reintroduced into medicine—about 50 years ago—that it became possible to accurately evaluate therapeutic claims.

About 50 years ago, there also began a major expansion of research efforts in all areas of biology. As new concepts and new techniques were introduced, information accumulated about drug action and the biologic substrate of that action, the receptor. During this half-century, many fundamentally new drug groups and new members of old groups have been introduced. The last 3 decades have seen an even more

rapid growth of information and understanding of the molecular basis for drug action. The molecular mechanisms of action of many drugs have now been identified, and numerous receptors have been isolated, structurally characterized, and cloned. Much of that progress is summarized in this book.

The extension of scientific principles into everyday therapeutics is still going on, though the medication-consuming public, unfortunately, is still exposed to vast amounts of inaccurate, incomplete, or unscientific information regarding the pharmacologic effects of chemicals. This has resulted in the faddish use of innumerable expensive, ineffective, and sometimes harmful remedies and the growth of a huge "alternative health care" industry. Conversely, lack of understanding of basic scientific principles in biology and statistics and the absence of critical thinking about public health issues has led to rejection of medical science by a segment of the public and a tendency to assume that all adverse drug effects are the result of malpractice.

The Nature of Drugs

In the most general sense, a drug may be defined as any substance that brings about a change in biologic function through its chemical actions. In the great majority of cases, the drug molecule interacts with a specific molecule in the biologic system that plays a regulatory role, ie, a **receptor** molecule. The nature of receptors is discussed more fully in Chapter 2. In a very small number of cases, drugs known as chemical antagonists may interact directly with other drugs, while a few drugs (eg, osmotic agents) interact almost exclusively with water molecules. Drugs may be synthesized within the body (eg, hormones) or may be chemicals *not* synthesized in the body, ie, xenobiotics (from Gr *xenos* "stranger"). Poisons are drugs. Toxins are usually defined as poisons of biologic origin, ie, synthesized by plants or animals, in contrast to inorganic poisons such as lead and arsenic.

In order to interact chemically with its receptor, a drug molecule must have the appropriate size, electrical charge, shape, and atomic composition. Furthermore, a drug is often administered at a location distant from its intended site of action, eg, a pill given orally to relieve a headache. Therefore, a useful drug must have the necessary properties to be transported from its site of administration to its site of action. Finally, a practical drug should be inactivated or excreted from the body at a reasonable rate so that its actions will be of appropriate duration.

A. The Physical Nature of Drugs: Drugs may be solid at room temperature (eg, aspirin, atropine), liquid (eg, nicotine, ethanol), or gaseous (eg, nitrous oxide). These factors often determine the best route of administration. For example, some liquid drugs are easily vaporized and can be inhaled in that form, eg, halothane, amyl nitrite. The common routes of administration are listed in Table 3–3. The various classes of organic compounds—carbohydrates, proteins, lipids, and their constituents—are all represented in pharmacology. Many drugs are weak acids or bases. This fact has important implications for the way they are handled by the body, because pH differences in the various compartments of the body may alter the degree of ionization of such drugs (see below).

B. Drug Size: The molecular size of drugs varies from very small (lithium ion, MW 7) to very large (eg, alteplase [t-PA], a protein of MW 59,050). However, the vast majority of drugs have molecular weights between 100 and 1000. The lower limit of this narrow range is probably set by the requirements for specificity of action. In order to have a good "fit" to only one type of receptor, a drug molecule must be sufficiently unique in shape, charge, etc, to prevent its binding to other receptors. To achieve such selective binding, it appears that a molecule should in most cases be at least 100 MW units in size. The upper limit in molecular weight is determined primarily by the requirement that drugs be able to move within the body (eg, from site of administration to site of action). Drugs much larger than MW 1000 will not diffuse readily between compartments of the body (see Permeation, below). Therefore, very large drugs (usually proteins) must be administered directly into the compartment where they have their effect. In the case of alteplase, a clot-dissolving enzyme, the drug is administered directly into the vascular compartment by intravenous infusion.

C. Drug Reactivity and Drug-Receptor Bonds: Drugs interact with receptors by means of chemical forces or bonds. These are of three major types: covalent, electrostatic, and hydrophobic. Covalent bonds are very strong and in many cases not reversible under biologic conditions. Thus, the covalent bond formed between the activated form of phenoxybenzamine and the α receptor for norepinephrine (which results in blockade of the receptor) is not readily broken. The blocking effect of phenoxybenzamine lasts long after the free drug has disappeared from the bloodstream and is reversed only by the synthesis of new α receptors, a process that takes about 48 hours. Other examples of highly reactive, covalent bond-forming drugs are the DNA-alkylating agents used in cancer chemotherapy to disrupt cell division in the neoplastic tissue.

Electrostatic bonding is much more common than covalent bonding in drug-receptor interactions. Electrostatic bonds vary from relatively strong linkages between permanently charged ionic molecules to weaker hydrogen bonds and very weak induced dipole interactions such as van der Waals forces and similar phenomena. Electrostatic bonds are weaker than covalent bonds.

Hydrophobic bonds are usually quite weak and are probably important in the interactions of highly lipid-soluble drugs with the lipids of cell membranes and

perhaps in the interaction of drugs with the internal walls of receptor "pockets."

The specific nature of a particular drug-receptor bond is of less practical importance than the fact that drugs which bind through weak bonds to their receptors are generally more selective than drugs which bind through very strong bonds. This is because weak bonds require a very precise fit of the drug to its receptor if an interaction is to occur. Only a few receptor types are likely to provide such a precise fit for a particular drug structure. Thus, if we wished to design a highly selective short-acting drug for a particular receptor, we would avoid highly reactive molecules that form covalent bonds and instead choose molecules that form weaker bonds.

A few substances that are almost completely inert in the chemical sense nevertheless have significant pharmacologic effects. For example, xenon, an "inert gas," has anesthetic effects at elevated pressures.

D. Drug Shape: The shape of a drug molecule must be such as to permit binding to its receptor site. Optimally, the drug's shape is complementary to that of the receptor site in the same way that a key is complementary to a lock. Furthermore, the phenomenon of **chirality** (stereoisomerism) is so common in biology that more than half of all useful drugs are chiral molecules, ie, they exist as enantiomeric pairs. Drugs with two asymmetric centers have four diastereomers, eg, labetalol, an α- and β-receptor-blocking drug. In the great majority of cases, one of these enantiomers will be much more potent than its mirror image enantiomer, reflecting a better fit to the receptor molecule. For example, the (S)(+) enantiomer of methacholine, a parasympathomimetic drug, is over 250 times more potent than the (R)(−) enantiomer. If one imagines the receptor site to be like a glove into which the drug molecule must fit to bring about its effect, it is clear why a "left-oriented" drug will be more effective in binding to a left-hand receptor than will its "right-oriented" enantiomer.

The more active enantiomer at one type of receptor site may not be more active at another type, eg, a receptor type that may be responsible for some unwanted effect. For example, carvedilol, a drug that interacts with adrenoceptors, has a single chiral center and thus two enantiomers (Table 1–1). One of these enantiomers, the (S)(−) isomer, is a potent β-receptor blocker. The (R)(+) isomer is 100-fold weaker at the beta receptor. However, the isomers are approximately equipotent as α-receptor blockers. Ketamine is an intravenous anesthetic. The (+) enantiomer is a more potent anesthetic and is less toxic than the (−) enantiomer. Unfortunately, the drug is still used as the racemic mixture.

Finally, because enzymes are usually stereoselective, one drug enantiomer is often more susceptible than the other to drug-metabolizing enzymes. As a result, the duration of action of one enantiomer may be quite different from that of the other.

Table 1–1. Dissociation constants (K_d) of the enantiomers and racemate of carvedilol. The K_d is the concentration for 50% saturation of the receptors and is inversely proportionate to the affinity of the drug for the receptors.[1]

Form of Carvedilol	Inverse of Affinity for Alpha Receptors (K_d, nmol/L)	Inverse of Affinity for Beta Receptors (K_d, nmol/L)
R(+) enantiomer	14	45
S(−) enantiomer	16	0.4
R,S(+/−) enantiomers	11	0.9

[1]Data from Ruffolo RR et al: The pharmacology of carvedilol. Eur J Pharmacol 1990;38:S82.

Unfortunately, most studies of clinical efficacy and drug elimination in humans have been carried out with racemic mixtures of drugs rather than with the separate enantiomers. At present, only about 45% of the chiral drugs used clinically are marketed as the active isomer—the rest are available only as racemic mixtures. As a result, many patients are receiving drug doses of which 50% or more is either inactive or actively toxic. However, there is increasing interest—at both the scientific and the regulatory levels—in making more chiral drugs available as their active enantiomers.

E. Rational Drug Design: Rational design of drugs implies the ability to predict the appropriate molecular structure of a drug on the basis of information about its biologic receptor. Until recently, no receptor was known in sufficient detail to permit such drug design. Instead, drugs were developed through random testing of chemicals or modification of drugs already known to have some effect (Chapter 5). However, during the past 2 decades, many receptors have been isolated and characterized. A few drugs now in use were developed through molecular design based on a knowledge of the three-dimensional structure of the receptor site. Computer programs are now available that can iteratively optimize drug structures to fit known receptors. As more becomes known about receptor structure, rational drug design will become more feasible.

F. Receptor Nomenclature: The spectacular success of newer, more efficient ways to identify and characterize receptors (see Chapter 2, box: How Are Receptors Discovered?) has resulted in a variety of differing systems for naming them. This in turn has led to a number of suggestions regarding more rational methods of naming them. The interested reader is referred for details to the efforts of the International Union of Pharmacology (IUPHAR) *Committee on Receptor Nomenclature and Drug Classification* (reported in various issues of *Pharmacological Reviews*) and to the annual *Receptor and Ion Channel Nomenclature Supplements* published as special issues by the journal *Trends in Pharmacological Sciences*

(TIPS). The chapters in this book mainly use these sources for naming receptors.

Drug-Body Interactions

The interactions between a drug and the body are conveniently divided into two classes. The actions of the drug on the body are termed **pharmacodynamic** processes; the principles of pharmacodynamics are presented in greater detail in Chapter 2. These properties determine the group in which the drug is classified and often play the major role in deciding whether that group is appropriate therapy for a particular symptom or disease. The actions of the body on the drug are called **pharmacokinetic** processes and are described in Chapters 3 and 4. Pharmacokinetic processes govern the absorption, distribution, and elimination of drugs and are of great practical importance in the choice and administration of a particular drug for a particular patient, eg, one with impaired renal function. The following paragraphs provide a brief introduction to pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics.

Pharmacodynamic Principles

As noted above, most drugs must bind to a receptor to bring about an effect. However, at the molecular level, drug binding is only the first in what is often a complex sequence of steps.

A. Types of Drug-Receptor Interactions: **Agonist** drugs bind to and *activate* the receptor in some fashion, which directly or indirectly brings about the effect. Some receptors incorporate effector machinery in the same molecule, so that drug binding brings about the effect directly, eg, opening of an ion channel or activation of enzyme activity. Other receptors are linked through one or more intervening **coupling molecules** to a separate **effector molecule.** The several types of drug-receptor-effector coupling systems are discussed in Chapter 2. Pharmacologic **antagonist** drugs, by binding to a receptor, *prevent* binding by other molecules. For example, acetylcholine receptor blockers such as atropine are antagonists because they prevent access of acetylcholine and similar agonist drugs to the acetylcholine receptor. These agents reduce the effects of acetylcholine and similar drugs in the body.

B. Agonists That Inhibit Their Binding Molecules and Partial Agonists: Some drugs mimic agonist drugs by inhibiting the molecules responsible for terminating the action of an endogenous agonist. For example, acetylcholinesterase inhibitors, by slowing the destruction of endogenous acetylcholine, cause cholinomimetic effects that closely resemble the actions of cholinoceptor agonist molecules even though cholinesterase inhibitors do not—or only incidentally do—bind to cholinoceptors (see Chapter 7: Cholinoceptor-Activating & Cholinesterase-Inhibiting Drugs). Other drugs bind to receptors and activate them but do not evoke as great a response as so-called full agonists. Thus, pindolol, a β adrenoceptor "partial agonist," may act as either an agonist (if no full agonist is present) or as an antagonist (if a full agonist such as isoproterenol is present). (See Chapter 2.)

C. Duration of Drug Action: Termination of drug action at the receptor level results from one of several processes. In some cases, the effect lasts only as long as the drug occupies the receptor, so that dissociation of drug from the receptor automatically terminates the effect. In many cases, however, the action may persist after the drug has dissociated, because, for example, some coupling molecule is still present in activated form. In the case of drugs that bind covalently to the receptor, the effect may persist until the drug-receptor complex is destroyed and new receptors are synthesized, as described previously for phenoxybenzamine. Finally, many receptor-effector systems incorporate **desensitization** mechanisms for preventing excessive activation when drug molecules continue to be present for long periods. See Chapter 2 for additional details.

D. Receptors and Inert Binding Sites: To function as a receptor, an endogenous molecule must first be selective in choosing ligands (drug molecules) to bind; and second, it must change its function upon binding in such a way that the function of the biologic system (cell, tissue, etc) is altered. The first characteristic is required to avoid constant activation of the receptor by promiscuous binding of many different ligands. The second characteristic is clearly necessary if the ligand is to cause a pharmacologic effect. The body contains many molecules that are capable of binding drugs, however, and not all of these endogenous molecules are regulatory molecules. Binding of a drug to a nonregulatory molecule such as plasma albumin will result in no detectable change in the function of the biologic system, so this endogenous molecule can be called an inert binding site. Such binding is not completely without significance, however, since it affects the distribution of drug within the body and will determine the amount of free drug in the circulation. Both of these factors are of pharmacokinetic importance (see below and Chapter 3).

Pharmacokinetic Principles

In practical therapeutics, a drug should be able to reach its intended site of action after administration by some convenient route. In only a few situations is it possible to directly apply a drug to its target tissue, eg, by topical application of an anti-inflammatory agent to inflamed skin or mucous membrane. In other cases, drugs may be given intravenously and circulate in the blood directly to target blood vessels in another part of the body where they bring about useful effects. Much more commonly, a drug is given into one body compartment, eg, the gut, and must move to its site of action in another compartment, eg, the