

英文原版

基础与临床药理学

Basic & Clinical Pharmacology

Bertram G. Katzung



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a LANGE medical book

Basic & Clinical Pharmacology

Eighth Edition

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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
	<i>Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD</i>
2. Drug Receptors & Pharmacodynamics	9
	<i>Henry R. Bourne, MD, & Mark von Zastrow, MD, PhD</i>
3. Pharmacokinetics & Pharmacodynamics: Rational Dosing & the Time Course of Drug Action	35
	<i>Nicholas H. G. Holford, MB, ChB, FRACP</i>
4. Drug Biotransformation	51
	<i>Maria Almira Correia, PhD</i>
5. Basic & Clinical Evaluation of New Drugs	64
	<i>Barry A. Berkowitz, PhD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD</i>
II. AUTONOMIC DRUGS	
6. Introduction to Autonomic Pharmacology	75
	<i>Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD</i>
7. Cholinoceptor-Activating & Cholinesterase-Inhibiting Drugs	92
	<i>Achilles J. Pappano, PhD</i>
8. Cholinoceptor-Blocking Drugs	107
	<i>Achilles J. Pappano, PhD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD</i>
9. Adrenoceptor-Activating & Other Sympathomimetic Drugs	120
	<i>Brian B. Hoffman, MD</i>
10. Adrenoceptor Antagonist Drugs	138
	<i>Brian B. Hoffman, MD</i>
III. CARDIOVASCULAR-RENAL DRUGS	
11. Antihypertensive Agents	155
	<i>Neal L. Benowitz, MD</i>
12. Vasodilators & the Treatment of Angina Pectoris	181
	<i>Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD, & Kanu Chatterjee, MB, FRCP</i>
13. Cardiac Glycosides & Other Drugs Used in Congestive Heart Failure	200
	<i>Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD, & William W. Parmley, MD</i>

14. Agents Used in Cardiac Arrhythmias	219
<i>Luc M. Hondeghem, MD, PhD, & Dan M. Roden, MD</i>	
15. Diuretic Agents	245
<i>Harlan E. Ives, MD, PhD</i>	
IV. DRUGS WITH IMPORTANT ACTIONS ON SMOOTH MUSCLE	
16. Histamine, Serotonin, & the Ergot Alkaloids	265
<i>Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD, & David J. Julius, PhD</i>	
17. Vasoactive Peptides	292
<i>Ian A. Reid, PhD</i>	
18. The Eicosanoids: Prostaglandins, Thromboxanes, Leukotrienes, & Related Compounds	311
<i>Marie L. Foegh, MD, DSc, & Peter W. Ramwell, PhD</i>	
19. Nitric Oxide, Donors, & Inhibitors	326
<i>George Thomas, PhD, & Peter W. Ramwell, PhD</i>	
20. Drugs Used in Asthma	333
<i>Homer A. Boushey, MD</i>	
V. DRUGS THAT ACT IN THE CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM	
21. Introduction to the Pharmacology of CNS Drugs	351
<i>Roger A. Nicoll, MD</i>	
22. Sedative-Hypnotic Drugs	364
<i>Anthony J. Trevor, PhD, & Walter L. Way, MD</i>	
23. The Alcohols	382
<i>Susan B. Masters, PhD</i>	
24. Antiseizure Drugs	395
<i>Roger J. Porter, MD, & Brian S. Meldrum, MB, PhD</i>	
25. General Anesthetics	419
<i>Anthony J. Trevor, PhD, & Ronald D. Miller, MD</i>	
26. Local Anesthetics	436
<i>Ronald D. Miller, MD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD</i>	
27. Skeletal Muscle Relaxants	446
<i>Ronald D. Miller, MD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD</i>	
28. Pharmacologic Management of Parkinsonism & Other Movement Disorders	463
<i>Michael J. Aminoff, MD, FRCP</i>	
29. Antipsychotic Agents & Lithium	478
<i>William Z. Potter, MD, PhD, & Leo E. Hollister, MD</i>	
30. Antidepressant Agents	498
<i>William Z. Potter, MD, PhD, & Leo E. Hollister, MD</i>	
31. Opioid Analgesics & Antagonists	512
<i>Walter L. Way, MD, Howard L. Fields, MD, PhD, & Mark A. Schumacher, PhD, MD</i>	
32. Drugs of Abuse	532
<i>Thomas R. Kosten, MD, and Leo E. Hollister, MD</i>	

VI. DRUGS USED TO TREAT DISEASES OF THE BLOOD, INFLAMMATION, & GOUT		
33. Agents Used in Anemias; Hematopoietic Growth Factors		549
	<i>Daniel V. Santi, MD, PhD, & Susan B. Masters, PhD</i>	
34. Drugs Used in Disorders of Coagulation		564
	<i>Julie Hambleton, MD, & Robert A. O'Reilly, MD</i>	
35. Agents Used in Hyperlipidemia		581
	<i>Mary J. Malloy, MD, & John P. Kane, MD, PhD</i>	
36. Nonsteroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs, Disease-Modifying Antirheumatic Drugs, Nonopioid Analgesics, & Drugs Used in Gout		596
	<i>Daniel E. Furst, MD, & Tino Munster, MD</i>	
VII. ENDOCRINE DRUGS		
37. Hypothalamic & Pituitary Hormones		625
	<i>Paul A. Fitzgerald, MD</i>	
38. Thyroid & Antithyroid Drugs		644
	<i>Francis S. Greenspan, MD, & Betty J. Dong, PharmD</i>	
39. Adrenocorticosteroids & Adrenocortical Antagonists		660
	<i>George P. Chrousos, MD, & Andrew N. Margioris, MD</i>	
40. The Gonadal Hormones & Inhibitors		679
	<i>George P. Chrousos, MD, Emmanouil N. Zoumakis, PhD, & Achille Gravanis, PhD</i>	
41. Pancreatic Hormones & Antidiabetic Drugs		711
	<i>Martha S. Nolte, MD, & John H. Karam, MD</i>	
42. Agents That Affect Bone Mineral Homeostasis		735
	<i>Daniel D. Bikle, MD, PhD</i>	
VIII. CHEMOTHERAPEUTIC DRUGS		
43. Beta-Lactam Antibiotics & Other Inhibitors of Cell Wall Synthesis		754
	<i>Henry F. Chambers, MD</i>	
44. Chloramphenicol, Tetracyclines, Macrolides, Clindamycin, & Streptogramins		774
	<i>Henry F. Chambers, MD</i>	
45. Aminoglycosides & Spectinomycin		784
	<i>Henry F. Chambers, MD</i>	
46. Sulfonamides, Trimethoprim, & Quinolones		793
	<i>Henry F. Chambers, MD</i>	
47. Antimycobacterial Drugs		803
	<i>Henry F. Chambers, MD</i>	
48. Antifungal Agents		814
	<i>Don Sheppard, MD, & Harry W. Lampiris, MD</i>	
49. Antiviral Agents		823
	<i>Sharon Safrin, MD</i>	
50. Miscellaneous Antimicrobial Agents; Disinfectants, Antiseptics, & Sterilants		845
	<i>Henry F. Chambers, MD</i>	
51. Clinical Use of Antimicrobial Agents		854
	<i>Harry W. Lampiris, MD, & Daniel S. Maddix, PharmD</i>	

52. Basic Principles of Antiparasitic Chemotherapy	<i>Ching Chung Wang, PhD</i>	869
53. Antiprotozoal Drugs	<i>Philip J. Rosenthal, MD, & Robert S. Goldsmith, MD, DTM&H</i>	882
54. Clinical Pharmacology of the Anthelmintic Drugs	<i>Robert S. Goldsmith, MD, DTM&H</i>	903
55. Cancer Chemotherapy	<i>Sydney E. Salmon, MD, & Alan C. Sartorelli, PhD</i>	923
56. Immunopharmacology	<i>Douglas F. Lake, PhD, Emmanuel T. Akporiaye, PhD, & Evan M. Hersh, MD</i>	959
IX. TOXICOLOGY		
57. Introduction to Toxicology: Occupational & Environmental	<i>Gabriel L. Plaa, PhD</i>	987
58. Heavy Metal Intoxication & Chelators	<i>Michael J. Kosnett, MD, MPH</i>	999
59. Management of the Poisoned Patient	<i>Kent R. Olson, MD</i>	1011
X. SPECIAL TOPICS		
60. Special Aspects of Perinatal & Pediatric Pharmacology	<i>Gideon Koren, MD</i>	1025
61. Special Aspects of Geriatric Pharmacology	<i>Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD</i>	1036
62. Dermatologic Pharmacology	<i>Dirk B. Robertson, MD, & Howard I. Maibach, MD</i>	1045
63. Drugs Used in Gastrointestinal Diseases	<i>David F. Altman, MD</i>	1064
64. Therapeutic & Toxic Potential of Over-the-Counter Agents	<i>Robin L. Corelli, PharmD, & Mary Anne Koda-Kimble, PharmD</i>	1077
65. Botanicals ("Herbal Medications") & Nutritional Supplements	<i>Cathi E. Dennehy, PharmD, & Candy Tsourounis, PharmD</i>	1088
66. Rational Prescribing & Prescription Writing	<i>Paul W. Lofholm, PharmD, & Bertram G. Katzung, MD, PhD</i>	1104
Appendix I. Vaccines, Immune Globulins, & Other Complex Biologic Products	<i>Harry W. Lampiris, MD, & Daniel S. Maddix, PharmD</i>	1113
Appendix II. Important Drug Interactions & Their Mechanisms	<i>Philip D. Hansten, PharmD</i>	1122
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 admin-

istration 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

¹Data 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*