

# Mechanism of Drug Action

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# Objectives

- Classification of mechanisms of drug action
  - Non-Receptor-Mediated mechanisms
  - Receptor-Mediated mechanisms
- Regulation of receptors
  - Upregulation
  - Downregulation
  - Desensitization

# Grossly

## 1. **Non-Receptor-Mediated** mechanism of action of drugs

- a) Physiochemical Mechanisms
- b) Pharmacological Mechanisms
  - i. Intercellular
  - ii. Intracellular

## 2. **Receptor-Mediated** mechanisms of action of drugs

# 1. Non-Receptor mediated mechanisms of drug action

## a) Physiochemical mechanisms

- i. *Acids and bases*
- ii. *osmotic agents*
- iii. *Surfactants*
- iv. *Adsorbents*
- v. *Physical barriers*
- vi. *Astringents*
- vii. *Oxidizing and reducing agents*
- viii. *Radioactive and radiopaque agents*

# 1. Non-Receptor mediated mechanisms of drug action

## b) Pharmacological mechanisms

### A. Intercellular signaling

- i. Direct contact
- ii. Synapses
- iii. Exocrine signals
- iv. Endocrine signals

### B. Intracellular signaling

- i. Receptors\*
- ii. Ion channels
- iii. Enzymes
- iv. Carrier molecules

### C. Through Antibody Production

### D. Transporters

### E. Others

## 2. Receptor-mediated mechanism of drug action

Includes the different types of receptor families

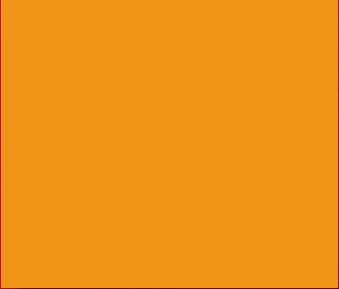
- a) Ligand gated ion channels (e.g. cholinergic nicotinic receptors)
  - b) G-Protein coupled receptors (e.g. alpha and B-receptors)
  - c) Enzyme linked receptors (e.g. Insulin receptors)
  - d) Intracellular receptors (e.g. Steroid receptors)
- The targets for G protein are cAMP, Phosphoinositides and  $Ca^{++}$ , DAG, cGMP, Ion channels, Arachidonic and metabolites

• *Source: Lipincott Pharmacology - 6<sup>th</sup> Edition*

# Non-Receptor-Mediated Mechanisms



## a) Physiochemcial Mechanisms





## a) Physiochemical Mechanisms

- ✓ **Acids and Bases:** e.g. 1) use of **antacids** to neutralize the **gastric hyperacidity** and 2) using **sodium bicarbonate** and **ammonium chloride** to increase the urinary excretion of **acidic and basic drugs**, respectively
- ✓ **Osmotic Agents:** e.g. 1) **bulk** and **saline purgatives** and 2) **osmotic diuretics**
- ✓ **Surfactants:** e.g. different agents like **soaps** to disrupt the plasma membrane of micro organisms

## a) Physiochemical Mechanisms

- ✓ **Adsorbents:** e.g. use of finely divided substances with large area of adsorption for bacteria, toxins and poisons like **kaolin powder for diarrhea** and **activated charcoal for poisoning**.
- ✓ **Physical barriers:** **Demulcents** used to coat the inflamed surface of mucous membrane.
- ✓ **Astringents:** Certain **hemostatic agents** act by precipitating and denaturing protein to stop bleeding.

## a) Physiochemical Mechanisms

- ✓ **Oxidizing and reducing agents:** Weak solution of potassium permanganate (0.01%) may be used as oxidizing agent in the treatment of morphine and strychnine still present in the stomach.
- ✓ **Radioactive and radiopaque agents:** for ionizing and absorption of radioactive rays for the treatment or diagnosis of disease.

## b) Pharmacological mechanisms



# 1) Intercellular signaling mechanisms

## □ Direct Contact:

- b/w adjacent cells via communicating junctions b/w cytoplasms of two cells.
- These are composed of special structures called connexons which are bound by six identical proteins arranged in a circle
- Small molecules like aminoacids or sugar and ions can pass through these junctions.

# 1) Intercellular signaling mechanisms

## □ Synapses:

- the narrow gaps b/w the neurons
- where two neurons communicate with each other
- through release of neurotransmitter by axons

# 1) Intercellular signaling mechanisms

## □ Exocrine signals:

- Signal molecules released by cells diffuse to other cells through extracellular fluid.
- If destroyed or removed instantaneously
  - the effect is short lived
  - confined to the cells in the immediate vicinity of the releasing cells.

# 1) Intercellular signaling mechanisms

- **Endocrine signals:**
  - released molecules enter the circulatory system from the extracellular fluid
  - These effect the cells of the body quite distant from the releasing cells e.g. hormones.



## 2) Intracellular mechanisms

- A. Receptors (discussed later with receptor mediated mech.)
- B. Ion channels
- C. Enzymes
- D. Carrier molecules

## B. Ion Channels

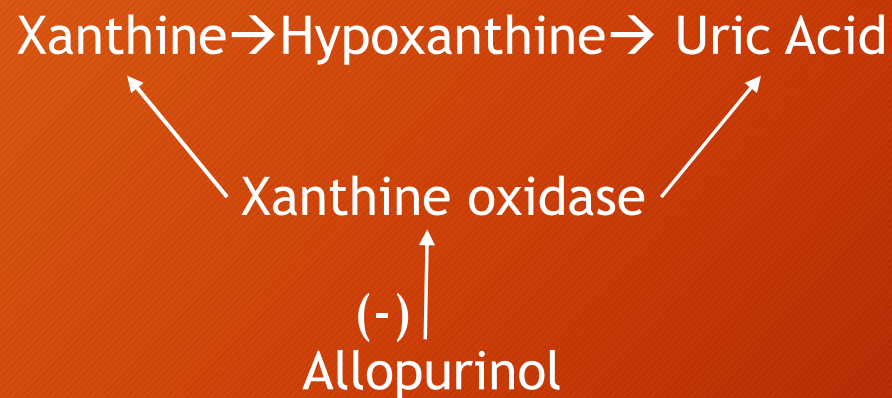
- The ligand gated channels are linked to a receptor and open when the receptor is occupied by a ligand
- Some drugs directly bind to ion channels and alter the flow of ions
- E.g. **local anesthetics** block sodium channels in neuronal membrane to produce local anesthesia

## C. Enzymes

- These drugs act on the enzymes either activating or inactivating them.
- E.g. aspirin acting on cyclo-oxygenase, relatively **inactivates** it by acetylation
- Neostigmine reversibly and competitively **inhibits** cholinestrase

## C. Enzymes...contd.

- Angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors such as captopril, enalapril etc - used in the treatment of HTN, act by inhibiting ACE.
- Xanthine and hypoxanthine are oxidized to uric acid by enzyme xanthine oxidase, which is inhibited by allopurinol (in the tx of chronic gout to reduce the synthesis of uric acid)

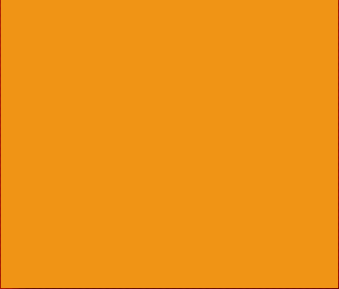


## D. Carrier Molecules/Transporters

- Some polar and organic molecules are transported across the cell membrane by a carrier protein.
- The carrier proteins have a recognition site for the particular molecule.
- Sometimes the recognition site acts as a target for the binding drug like Na<sup>+</sup>K<sup>+</sup> ATPase which binds digoxin
- Digoxin inhibits the enzyme after binding with it.

## 2) Receptor-Mediated-Mechanisms of Drug Action

# A. Receptors



## 2. Receptor-mediated mechanism of drug action

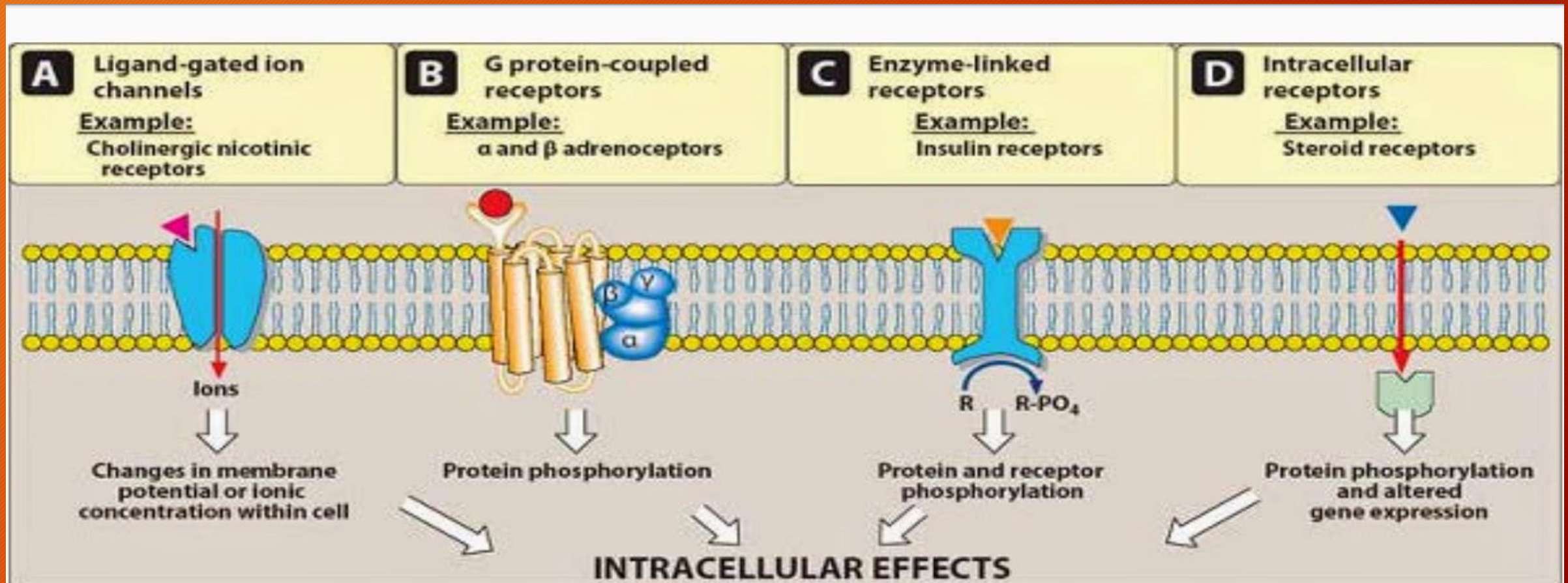
Includes the different types of receptor families

- a) Ligand gated ion channels (e.g. cholinergic nicotinic receptors)
  - b) G-Protein coupled receptors (e.g. alpha and B-receptors)
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# a) Ligand gated ion channels



## a) Ligand gated ion channels

- The extracellular portion of ligand-gated ion channels usually contains the ligand binding site.
- This site regulates the shape of the pore through which ions can flow across cell membranes (Figure)
- The channel is usually closed until the receptor is activated by an agonist, which opens the channel briefly **for a few milliseconds**.

# a) Ligand gated ion channels

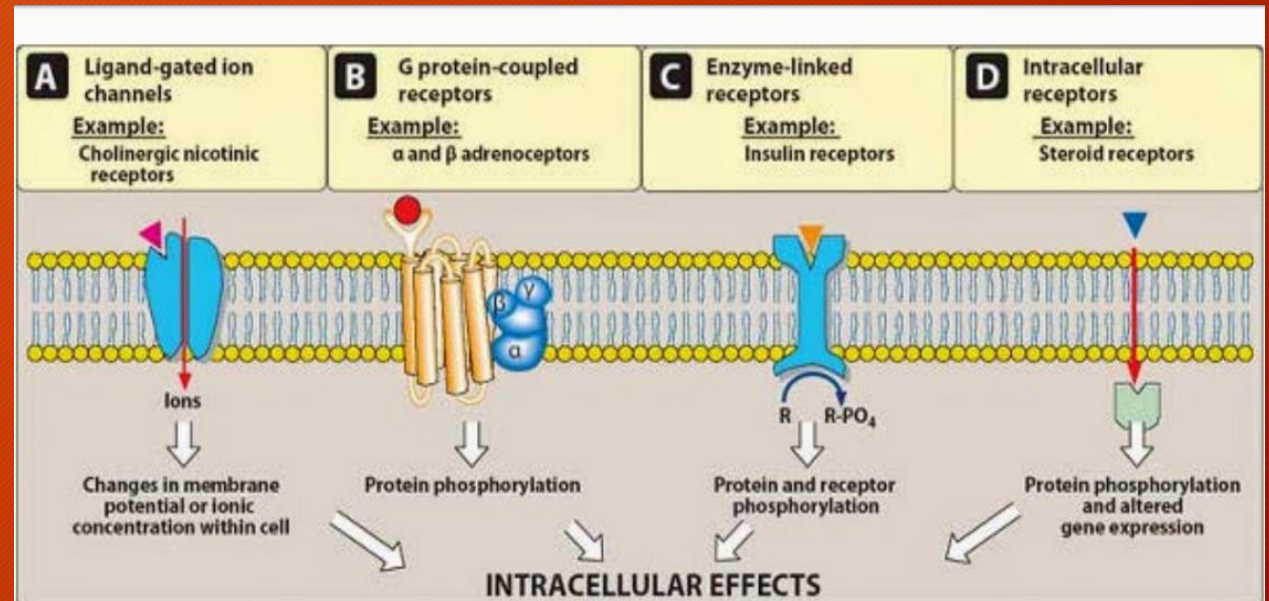
- Depending on the ion conducted through these channels, these receptors mediate **diverse functions**, including neurotransmission, and cardiac or muscle contraction.
- E.g. Stimulation of the **nicotinic receptor** by acetylcholine results in sodium influx and potassium outflux → generating an action potential in a neuron or contraction in skeletal muscle.
- On the other hand, agonist stimulation of the **γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor** → increases chloride influx and hyperpolarization of neurons.

## a) Ligand gated ion channels

- Voltage-gated ion channels may also possess **ligand-binding sites** that can regulate channel function.
- E.g. **local anesthetics** bind to the **voltage-gated sodium channel**, inhibiting sodium influx and decreasing neuronal conduction.

## b) Transmembrane G-Protein Coupled Receptors

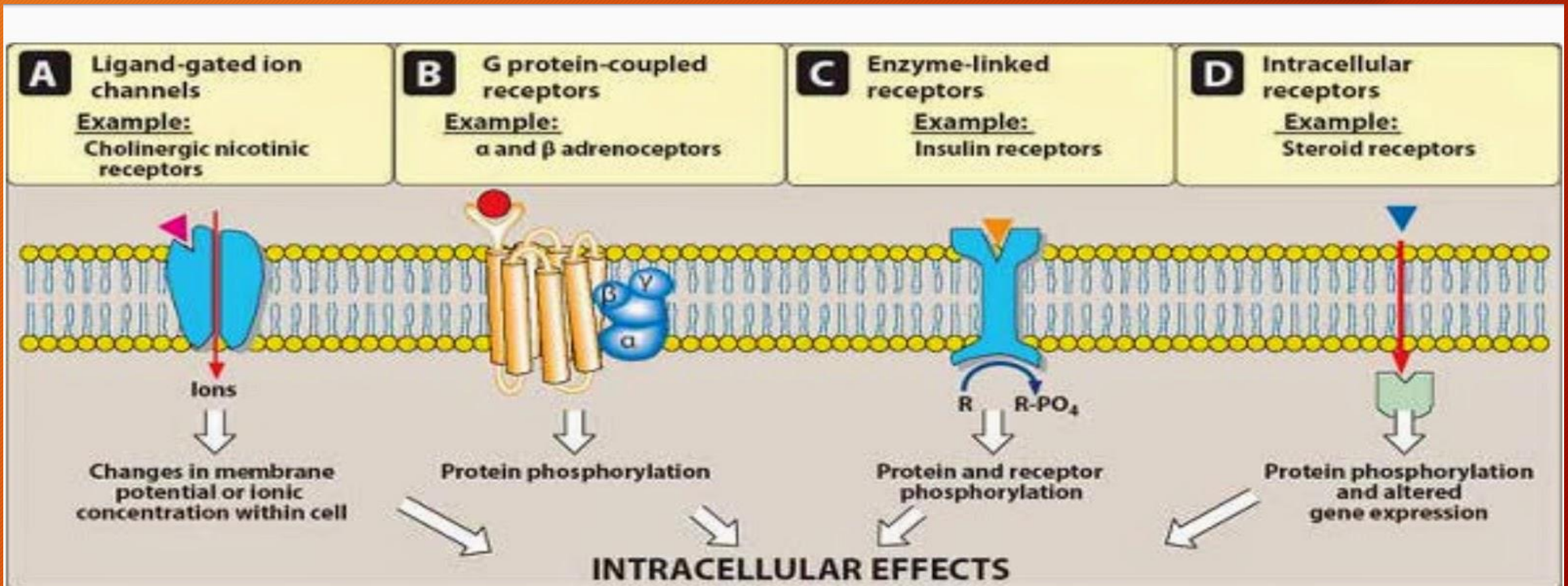
- The **extracellular domain** of this receptor contains the ligand-binding area
- The **intracellular domain** interacts (when activated) with a G protein or effector molecule.



## b) Transmembrane G-Protein Coupled Receptors

- **Kinds of G proteins** (for example, **Gs**, **Gi**, and **Gq**), but they all are composed of three protein subunits (Alpha, beta and gamma)
- **The  $\alpha$  subunit binds** guanosine triphosphate (GTP),
- **the  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits** anchor the G protein in the cell membrane (Figure)

# G-Protein-Coupled receptors



## b) Transmembrane G-Protein Coupled Receptors

- Binding of an agonist to the receptor → GTP binding to the  $\alpha$  subunit → causing dissociation of the  $\alpha$ -GTP complex from the  $\beta\gamma$  complex.
- These two complexes can then interact with other cellular effectors - usually an enzyme, a protein, or an ion channel
- The effectors are responsible for further actions within the cell.
- These responses usually last several seconds to minutes



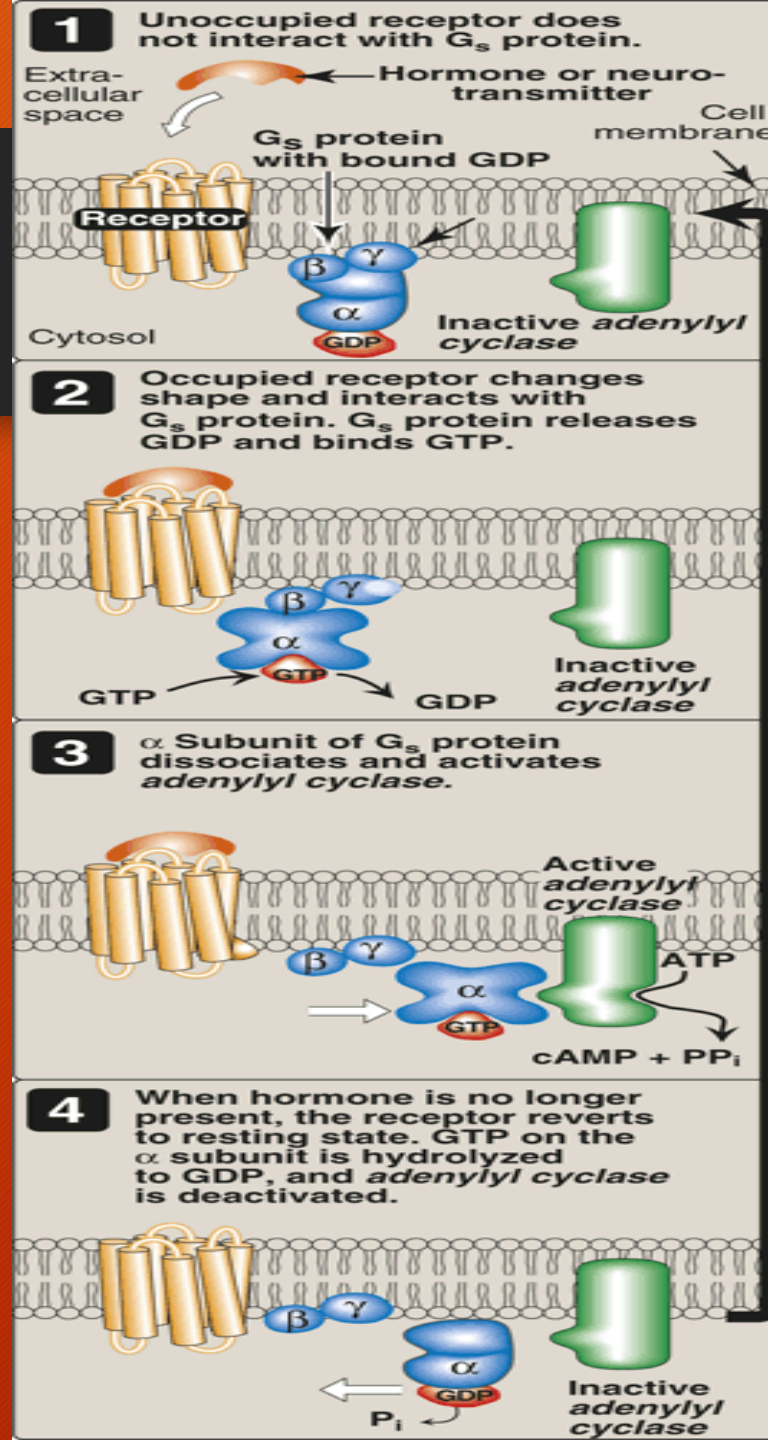
## b) Transmembrane G-Protein Coupled Receptors and the concept of **Second Messengers**

- Sometimes, the activated effectors produce **second messengers** that further activate other effectors in the cell, causing a signal cascade effect.
- A common effector, activated by **G<sub>s</sub>** and inhibited by **G<sub>i</sub>**, is **adenylyl cyclase**, which produces the **second messenger cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP)**.
- **G<sub>q</sub>** activates **phospholipase C**, generating two other **second messengers: inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP<sub>3</sub>) and diacylglycerol (DAG)**.

## b) Transmembrane G-Protein Coupled Receptors and the concept of **Second Messengers**

- **DAG and cAMP** activate different → **protein kinases** within the cell, leading to → a myriad of physiological effects.
- **IP3** regulates intracellular **free calcium concentrations**, as well as some **protein kinases**.

The recognition of chemical signals by G protein-coupled membrane receptors affects the activity of adenylyl cyclase.  $\text{PP}_i$  = inorganic pyrophosphate.



## c) Enzyme Linked Receptors

- This family of receptors consists of a protein that may form **dimers** or **multisubunit complexes**.
- When activated, these receptors undergo **conformational changes** resulting in increased cytosolic enzyme activity, depending on their structure and function (Figure)
- **This response lasts on the order of minutes to hours.**

## c) Enzyme Linked Receptors

- The most common enzyme-linked receptors (epidermal growth factor, platelet-derived growth factor, atrial natriuretic peptide, insulin, and others) possess **tyrosine kinase activity** as part of their structure.
- The activated receptor phosphorylates tyrosine residues on itself and then other specific proteins (figure)

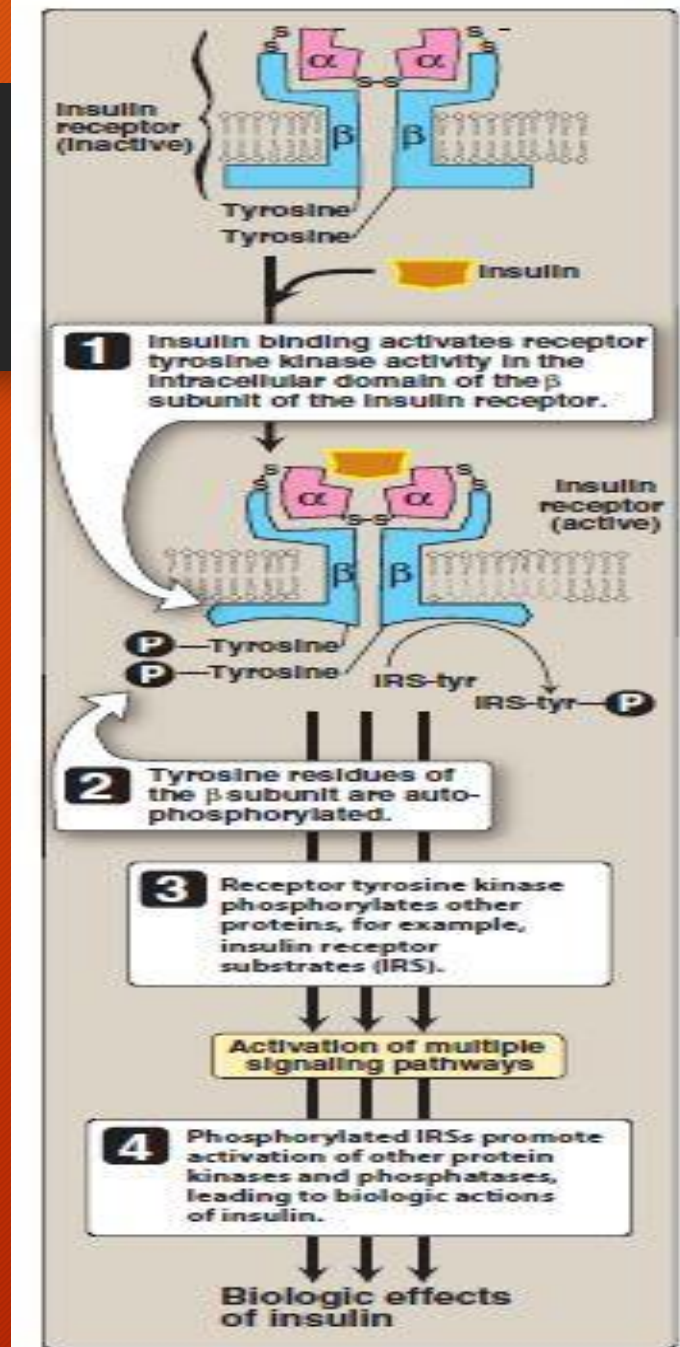
## c) Enzyme Linked Receptors

- **Phosphorylation** can substantially **modify the structure of the target protein**, thereby acting as a molecular switch.
- E.g. when the peptide hormone insulin binds to two of its receptor subunits, their intrinsic tyrosine kinase activity causes **autophosphorylation** of the receptor itself.

## c) Enzyme Linked Receptors

- In turn, the phosphorylated receptor phosphorylates other peptides or proteins that subsequently activate other important cellular signals.
- This **cascade of activations** results in a **multiplication of the initial signal**, much like that with G protein-coupled receptors.

# Enzyme Linked Receptors





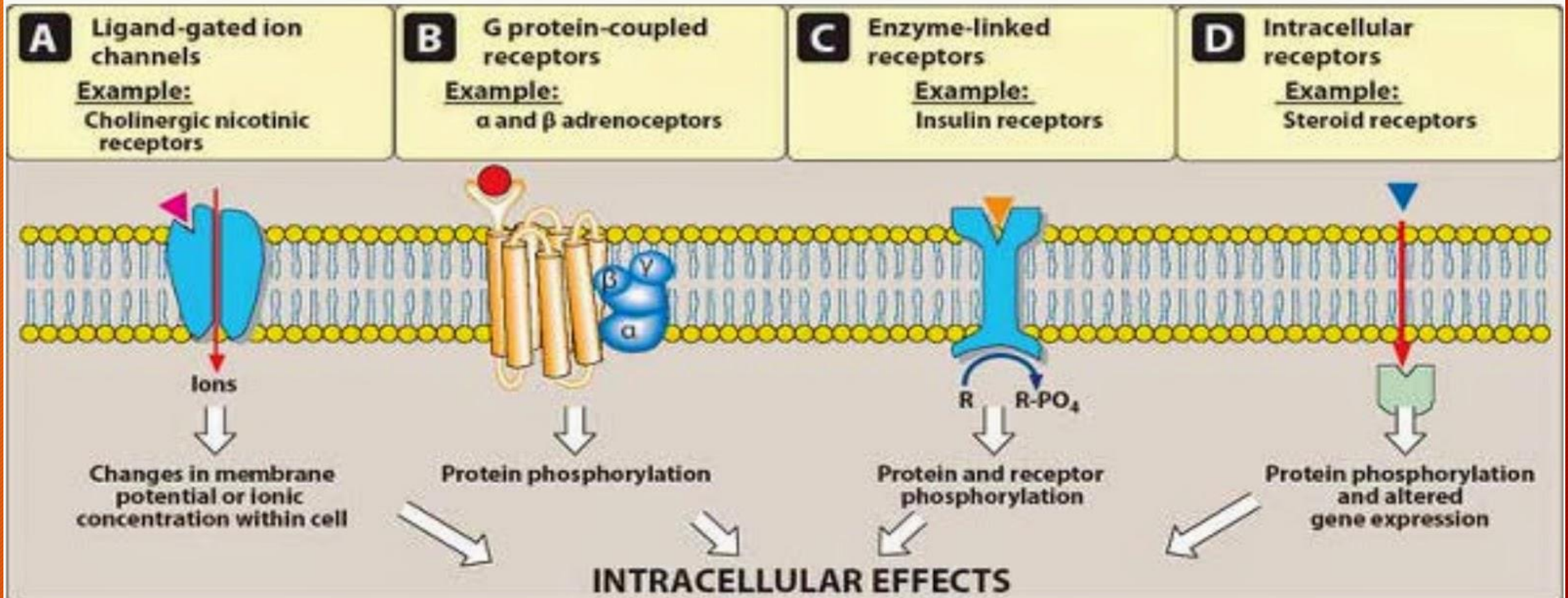
## d) Intracellular Receptors

- Differs considerably from the other three
- The receptor is **entirely intracellular**, and, therefore, the ligand must diffuse into the cell to interact with the receptor (Figure).
- In order to move across the target cell membrane, the ligand must have sufficient **lipid solubility**.
- The primary targets of these ligand-receptor complexes are transcription factors in the cell nucleus.

## d) Intracellular Receptors

- Binding of the ligand with its receptor generally activates the receptor via **dissociation from a variety of binding proteins**.
- The **activated ligand-receptor complex** then translocates to the nucleus, where it often dimerizes before binding to transcription factors that regulate gene expression

# Intracellular Receptors



## d) Intracellular Receptors

- The activation or inactivation of these factors causes the transcription of DNA into RNA and translation of RNA into an array of proteins.
- The time course of activation and response of these receptors is on the order of hours to days.

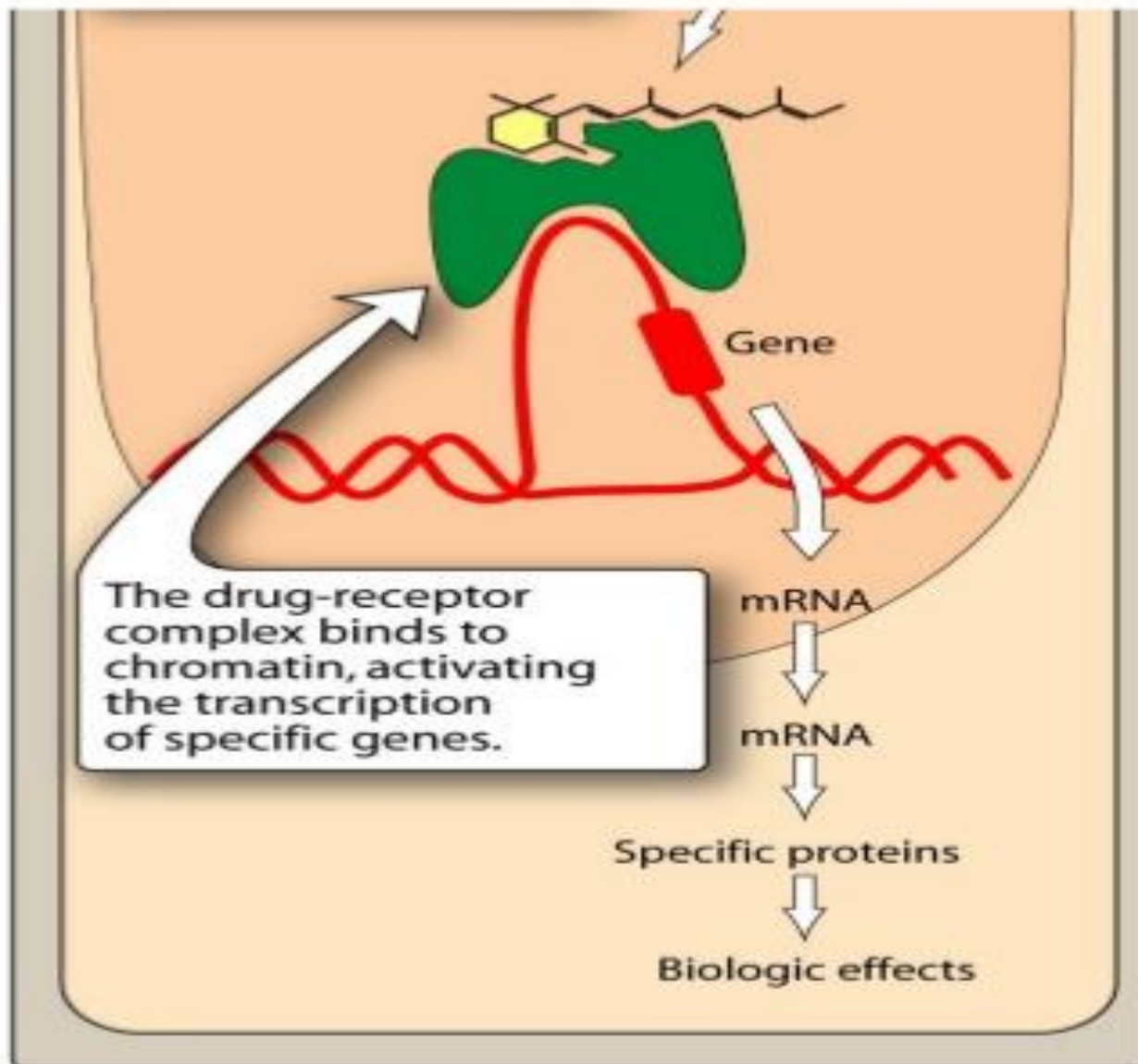
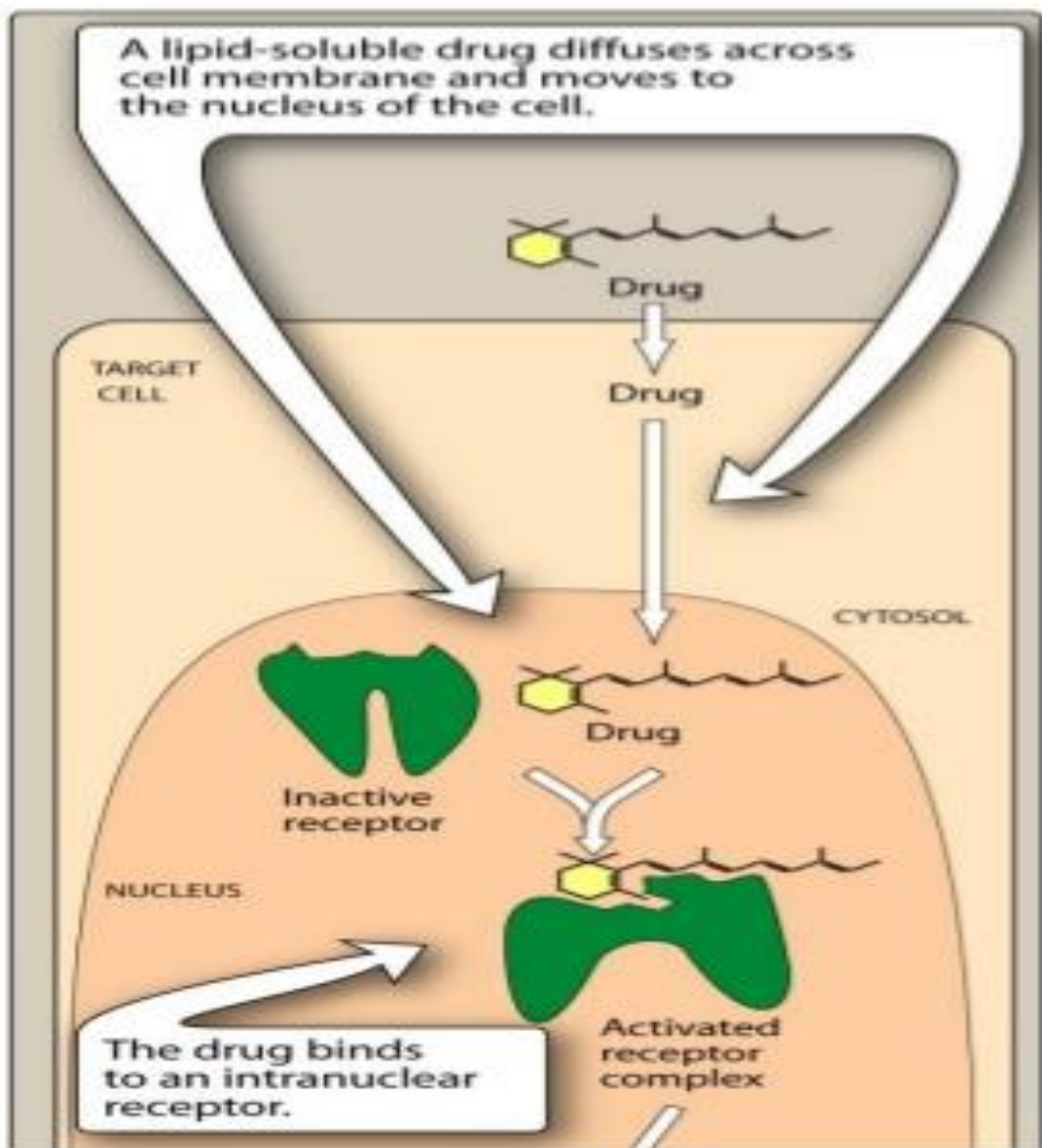
## d) Intracellular Receptors

- E.g. Steroid hormones exert their action on target cells via **intracellular receptors**.
- Other targets of intracellular ligands are structural proteins, **enzymes, RNA, and ribosomes**.

## d) Intracellular Receptors

- For example, **tubulin** is the target of antineoplastic agents such as *paclitaxel*
- The **enzyme dihydrofolate** reductase is the target of antimicrobials such as *trimethoprim*
- And the **50S subunit of the bacterial ribosome** is the target of macrolide antibiotics such as *erythromycin*

# Mechanism of intracellular receptors (e.g. nuclear receptors).



# Regulation of Receptors





# Upregulation of Receptors

- Repeated exposure to certain drugs causes increase in the number of receptors
- E.g. propranolol given over a long period of time causes increase in number of B-Receptors

# Downregulation of Receptors

- Repeated exposure to certain drugs for prolonged period of time causes decrease in number of receptors for the drug
- E.g. levodopa given for more than 3-5 years can cause irreversible decrease in dopaminergic receptors by internalization and lysosomal degradation of receptors.

# Desensitization of Receptors

- This is due to the repeated exposure to an agonist
- Like allergen which initially results in activation of receptors and later decreased response.
- On continuous exposure, activation of certain kinases and phosphorylation of receptor protein occurs.
- The receptor is internalized and finally degraded or recycled to the cell surface.



**Thank  
You!!!**