Gastrointestinal and antiemetic drugs





GI drugs

- Drugs used for:
- Peptic ulcers and gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD)
- Drugs used to control Chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting
- Antidiarrheals
- Constipation
- Irritable bowel syndrome (IBS)
- Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD)



Peptic ulcer

- Causes of peptic ulcer:
- Infection with gram-negative Helicobacter pylori
- Use of nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)
- Increased hydrochloric acid secretion
- Inadequate mucosal defense against gastric acid
- Tumors (rare)



Drugs for peptic ulcer

- Treatment of peptic ulcer
 - 1. Eradicating the H. pylori infection
 - 2. Reducing secretion of gastric acid with the use of proton pump inhibitors or H2-receptor antagonists
 - 3. Providing agents that protect the gastric mucosa from damage such as misoprostol and sucralfate
 - 4. Neutralizing gastric acid with nonabsorbable antacids



Drugs for peptic ulcer/GERD

- Antimicrobials
- H2-receptor antagonists
- Proton pump inhibitors
- Potassium-competitive Acid Blockers
- Prostaglandins
- Antacids

 These medications can be used for GERD except antimicrobials which are not warranted



Antimicrobial agents

- Antimicrobial agents (For H. pylori): several medications can be used depending on resistance patterns and antibiograms. Other factors to consider include patient factors like hypersensitivity, exposure to antimicrobials, kidney and liver functions, etc
- Options include:
 - Metronidazole
 - Amoxicillin
 - Clarithromycin
 - Tetracyclines
 - Bismuth compounds

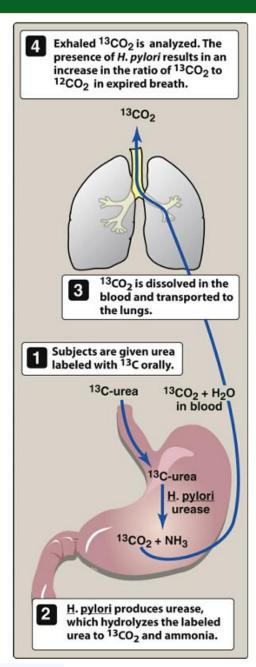


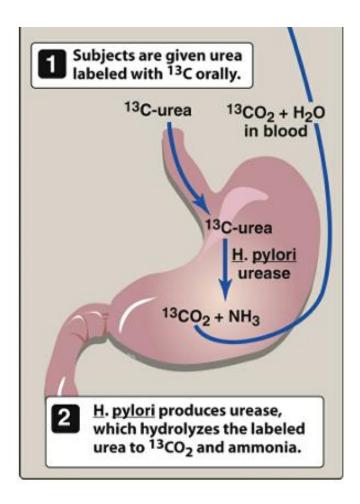
Antimicrobial agents

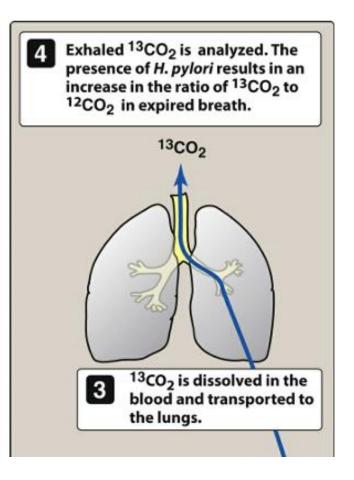
- Optimal therapy for patients with peptic ulcer disease infected with H. pylori requires antimicrobial treatment
- Endoscopic biopsy of the gastric mucosa or various noninvasive methods are used, including serologic tests and urea breath tests to document infection with H. pylori
- Eradication of H. pylori results in rapid healing of active peptic ulcers and low recurrence rates

Not indicated if no H.pylori infection is documented

-









Antimicrobial agents

- GERD is not associated with H. pylori infection and does not respond to treatment with antibiotics
- Triple therapy consisting of a PPI combined with either metronidazole or amoxicillin plus clarithromycin for 2 weeks
 - (Amoxicillin, clarithromycin, omeprazole)
 - Peptipac[®], Triopac[®]
- Quadruple therapy of bismuth subsalicylate and metronidazole plus tetracycline plus a PPI, administered for a 2-week course
- Treatment with a single antimicrobial drug is less effective, results in antimicrobial resistance, and is absolutely not recommended
- Switching antibiotics is not recommended
- Bismuth salts inhibit pepsin and increase the secretion of mucus



Antimicrobial agents

 Currently, quadruple therapy of bismuth subsalicylate, metronidazole, and tetracycline plus a PPI is a recommended first-line option. This usually results in a 90% or greater eradication rate.

 Triple therapy consisting of a PPI combined with amoxicillin (metronidazole may be used in penicillin- allergic patients) plus clarithromycin is a preferred treatment when rates of clarithromycin resistance are low and the patient has no prior exposure to macrolide antibiotics.



- Famotidine (Famodin®, Famo®, Gastrex®)
- Cimetidine (Cemidin®, Cimetag®, Tagamet®)
- Nizatidine

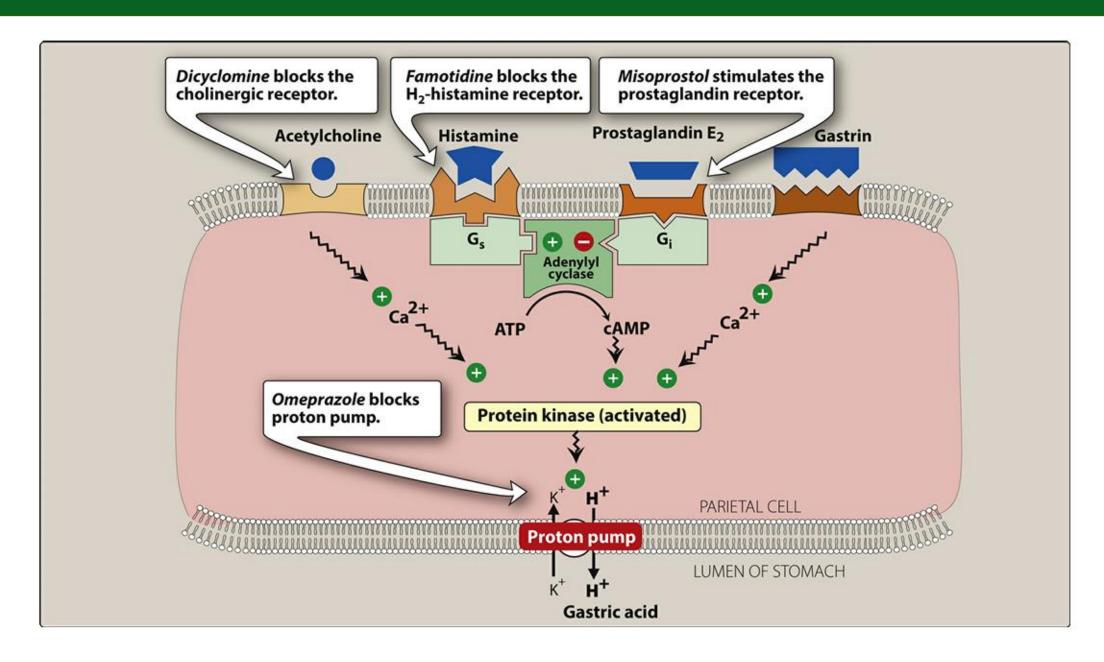


- Gastric acid secretion by parietal cells of the gastric mucosa is stimulated by acetylcholine, histamine, and gastrin
- The receptor-mediated binding of acetylcholine, histamine, or gastrin results in the activation of protein kinases, which stimulates the H+/K+— adenosine triphosphatase (ATPase) proton pump to secrete hydrogen ions in exchange for K+ into the lumen of the stomach
- Receptor binding of prostaglandin E2 and somatostatin diminish gastric acid production
- Histamine binding causes activation of adenylyl cyclase, whereas binding of prostaglandin E2 inhibits it
- Gastrin and acetylcholine act by inducing an increase in intracellular calcium levels



- Antagonists of the histamine H2 receptor are used to inhibit gastric acid secretion
- By competitively blocking the binding of histamine to H2 receptors, these agents reduce the intracellular concentrations of cAMP and, secretion of gastric acid
- Inhibit basal, food-stimulated, and nocturnal secretion of gastric acid after a single dose
- Cimetidine use is limited by its adverse effects and drug—drug interactions







Peptic ulcer

Acute stress ulcers

Gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD)



- Peptic ulcers:
- Effective in promoting the healing of duodenal and gastric ulcers
- Recurrence is common after treatment with H2 antagonists is stopped
- Patients with NSAID-induced ulcers should be treated with PPIs, because these agents heal and prevent future ulcers better than H2 antagonists



- Acute stress ulcers
- H2 blockers are given as intravenous infusion to prevent and manage acute stress ulcers associated with high-risk patients in intensive care units
- PPIs have gained favor for this indication because tolerance may occur with these agents in this setting



- Gastroesophageal reflux disease (GERD):
- Low doses of H2 antagonists is used for the prevention and treatment of heartburn (GERD)
- H2-receptor antagonists act by stopping acid secretion and may not relieve symptoms for at least 45 minutes
- Antacids more quickly and efficiently neutralize secreted acid already in the stomach, but their action is only temporary
- PPIs are now used preferentially in the treatment of GERD



- The dosage of all these drugs must be decreased in patients with hepatic or renal failure
- Cimetidine can interfere in the metabolism of many drugs
- Cimetidine inhibits CYP450 and can slow metabolism and potentiate the action of several drugs resulting in serious adverse effects

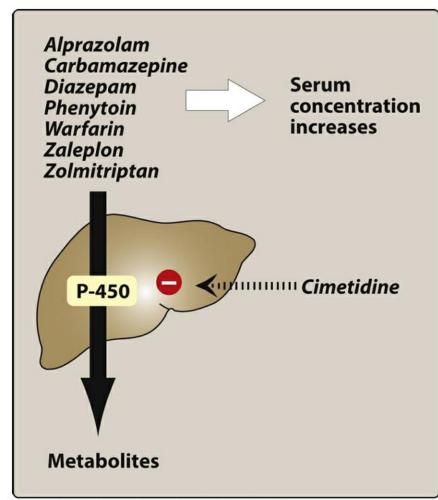


Figure 42.5 Drug interactions with cimetidine.



- Adverse effects:
 - Headache
 - Dizziness
 - Diarrhea
 - Muscular pain
 - Cimetidine can also have endocrine effects because it acts as a nonsteroidal antiandrogen
 - These effects include gynecomastia, and galactorrhea
- Drugs such as ketoconazole, which depend on an acidic medium for gastric absorption, may not be efficiently absorbed if taken with H2 receptor antagonists



Proton pump inhibitors

- Omeprazole (Locid®, Losec®, Marial®, Mepral®, Pepticum®)
- Esomeprazole (Nexium[®], Ezomax[®])
- Lansoprazole (Lanso®, Lanton®, Zoton®)
- Dexlansoprazole
- Pantoprazole (Pantover®, Controloc®)
- Rabeprazole



Proton pump inhibitors

- Bind to the H+/K+-ATPase enzyme system (proton pump) of the parietal cell and suppress the secretion of hydrogen ions into the gastric lumen, inhibiting gastric acid secretion
- The membrane-bound proton pump is the final step in the secretion of gastric acid
- More effective than H2 antagonists in suppressing gastric acid production and healing peptic ulcers



Proton pump inhibitors

- PPIs are prodrugs with an acid-resistant enteric coating to protect them from premature degradation by gastric acid
- The coating is removed in the alkaline duodenum, and the prodrug is absorbed and transported to parietal cells
- There, it is converted to the active form, which forms a stable covalent bond with H+/K+-ATPase
- It takes about 18 hours for the enzyme to be resynthesized
- At standard doses, all PPIs inhibit both basal and stimulated gastric acid secretion by ~90%



Proton pump inhibitors therapeutic uses

- The superiority of the PPIs over the H2 antagonists for suppressing acid production and healing peptic ulcers has made them the preferred drugs for:
 - Stress ulcer treatment and prophylaxis
 - Treating erosive esophagitis and active duodenal ulcer
 - Long-term treatment of pathologic hypersecretory conditions (e.g. Zollinger-Ellison syndrome, in which a gastrin-producing tumor causes hypersecretion of HCl)



Proton pump inhibitors therapeutic uses

- Approved for the treatment of GERD and have gained favor over H2 antagonists
- PPIs reduce the risk of bleeding from an ulcer caused by aspirin and other NSAIDs

• Used with antimicrobial regimens to eradicate H. pylori



Proton pump inhibitors therapeutic uses

- PPIs should be taken 30 to 60 minutes before breakfast or the largest meal of the day
- If an H2-receptor antagonist is also needed, it should be taken well after the PPI for best effect because the H2 antagonists will reduce the activity of the proton pump
- In patients with GERD in whom a once-daily PPI is only partially effective, increasing to a twice-daily regimen or keeping the PPI in the morning and adding an H2 antagonist in the evening may improve symptom control



Proton pump inhibitors adverse effects

- Diarrhea
- Clostridium difficile colitis
- Patients must be counseled to discontinue PPI therapy if they have diarrhea for several days and to contact their physicians
- Possible increased risk of fractures of the hip, wrist, and spine
- The greatest risk is associated with patients taking the PPIs for one year or greater
- Acute interstitial nephritis
- Hypomagnesemia
- Increased incidence of pneumonia



Nausea



Diarrhea



Headache



GI disturbance



Bone Fractures (increased risk with long-term use: hip, wrist, and spine)



Proton pump inhibitors drug interactions

- Omeprazole, esomeprazole inhibit CYP2C19, resulting in significantly reduced antiplatelet activity of clopidogrel.
- Omeprazole inhibits the metabolism of warfarin, phenytoin, diazepam, and cyclosporine through competitive inhibition of CYP450 enzymes
- Prolonged therapy may result in low vitamin B12, because acid is required for its absorption
- Prolonged elevation of gastric pH can cause incomplete absorption of calcium carbonate products
- Use calcium citrate as a source of calcium for patients taking acidsuppressing medications



Potassium-competitive Acid Blockers

- Vonoprazan
- Bind competitively and reversibly to the potassium binding site of the H+/K+-ATPase following protonation and suppress the secretion of hydrogen ions into the gastric lumen, inhibiting gastric acid secretion.
- Therapeutic uses
 - Peptic ulcer
 - GERD
- Adverse effects: diarrhea, nasopharyngitis, dyspepsia, headache, and abdominal pain.



Prostaglandins

 Prostaglandin E, produced by the gastric mucosa, inhibits secretion of HCl and stimulates secretion of mucus and bicarbonate (cytoprotective effect)

 A deficiency of prostaglandins is involved in the pathogenesis of peptic ulcers



Prostaglandins

- Misoprostol (Cytotec®)
 - A stable analog of prostaglandin approved for the prevention of gastric ulcers induced by NSAIDs
 - Less effective than H2 antagonists and the PPIs for acute treatment of peptic ulcers
 - Has cytoprotective actions, but is clinically effective only at higher doses that diminish gastric acid secretion
 - Routine prophylactic use of misoprostol may not be justified except in patients who are taking NSAIDs and are at high risk of NSAID-induced ulcers such as elderly patients and those with ulcer complications



Prostaglandins

- Misoprostol (Cytotec[®])
 - Like other prostaglandins, misoprostol produces uterine contractions, dislodging of the fetus, and is contraindicated during pregnancy
 - Adverse effects: diarrhea and nausea



Antacids

- Weak bases that react with gastric acid to form water and a salt to diminish gastric acidity
- Antacids also reduce pepsin activity because pepsin is inactive at a pH greater than 4



Antacids

- Aluminum hydroxide
- Magnesium hydroxide
- Calcium carbonate
- Systemic absorption of sodium bicarbonate can produce transient metabolic alkalosis and is not recommended for long-term use
- Food delays stomach emptying allowing more time for the antacid to react



Antacids

- Aluminum hydroxide + Magnesium hydroxide (Maalox®)
- Calcium carbonate + Magnesium carbonate (Rennie®)
- Calcium carbonate (Tums®)



Antacids therapeutic uses

- Aluminum- and magnesium-containing antacids are used to:
 - Provide symptomatic relief of peptic ulcer disease and GERD
 - Promote healing of duodenal ulcers
 - Used as last-line therapy for acute gastric ulcers

 Calcium carbonate preparations are also used as calcium supplements for the treatment of osteoporosis



Antacids adverse effects

- Aluminum hydroxide causes constipation
- Magnesium hydroxide causes diarrhea
- The binding of phosphate by aluminum-containing antacids can lead to hypophosphatemia
- Sodium bicarbonate
 - Can cause systemic alkalosis
 - Liberates CO2, causing belching and flatulence
 - The sodium content of antacids can be an important consideration in patients with hypertension or congestive heart failure



Mucosal protective agents

- Cytoprotective compounds
- Enhance mucosal protection mechanisms, preventing mucosal injury, reducing inflammation, and healing existing ulcers.
 - Sucralfate (Ulsanic®)
 - Bismuth subsalicylate (Pink Bismuth®, Kalbeten®)



Sucralfate

- A complex of aluminum hydroxide and sulfated sucrose
- Binds to positively charged groups in proteins of both normal and necrotic mucosa
- Forms complex gels with epithelial cells creating a physical barrier that impairs diffusion of HCl and prevents degradation of mucus by pepsin and acid
- Stimulates prostaglandin release, mucus and bicarbonate output
- Inhibits peptic digestion
- By these mechanisms, sucralfate effectively heals duodenal ulcers and is used in long-term maintenance therapy to prevent their recurrence
- Does not prevent NSAID-induced ulcers, and does not heal gastric ulcers



Sucralfate

- Requires an acidic pH for activation and should not be administered with PPIs, H2 antagonists, or antacids
- Little of the drug is absorbed systemically
- Very well tolerated, but it can interfere with the absorption of other drugs by binding to them



Bismuth subsalicylate

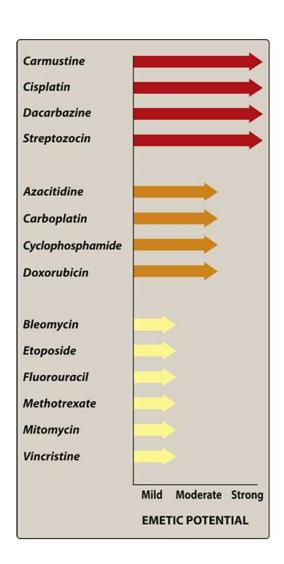
- Effectively heals peptic ulcers
- Has antimicrobial actions
- Inhibits the activity of pepsin
- Increases secretion of mucus, and interact with glycoproteins in necrotic mucosal tissue to coat and protect the ulcer crater



- Nausea and vomiting may occur in a variety of conditions (motion sickness, pregnancy, and hepatitis) and are always unpleasant for the patient
- The nausea and vomiting produced by many chemotherapeutic agents demands especially effective management
- 70% -80% percent of all patients who undergo chemotherapy experience nausea or vomiting



- Several factors influence the incidence and severity of chemotherapy-induced emesis including
- The specific chemotherapeutic drug
- The dose
- Route and schedule of administration
- Patient variables
 - Young patients and women are more susceptible than older patients and men





- 10% 40% of patients experience nausea or vomiting in anticipation of their chemotherapy (anticipatory vomiting)
- Emesis not only affects the quality of life but can also lead to rejection of potentially curative antineoplastic treatment
- Uncontrolled vomiting can produce dehydration, profound metabolic imbalances, and nutrient depletion



- Nausea and vomiting may occur in a variety of conditions (motion sickness, pregnancy, and hepatitis) and are always unpleasant for the patient
- The nausea and vomiting produced by many chemotherapeutic agents demands especially effective management
- 70% -80% percent of all patients who undergo chemotherapy experience nausea or vomiting



Mechanisms that trigger vomiting

- Two brainstem sites have key roles in the vomiting reflex pathway
 - Chemoreceptor trigger zone
 - Found outside the blood-brain barrier, thus can respond directly to chemical stimuli in the blood or CSF
 - The vomiting center
 - Located in the lateral reticular formation of the medulla
 - Coordinates the motor mechanisms of vomiting
 - Responds to afferent input from the vestibular system, the periphery (pharynx and gastrointestinal tract), and higher brainstem and cortical structures
 - The vestibular system functions mainly in motion sickness



Emetic actions of chemotherapeutic agents

- Chemotherapeutic agents can activate the medullary chemoreceptor trigger zone, or vomiting center
- Several neuroreceptors, including dopamine receptor Type 2 (D2) and serotonin Type 3 (5-HT3), play critical roles
- The color or smell of chemotherapeutic drugs and even stimuli associated with chemotherapy can activate higher brain centers and trigger emesis
- Chemotherapeutic drugs can also act peripherally by causing cell damage in the GI tract and releasing serotonin from the enterochromaffin cells of the small intestinal mucosa
- Released serotonin activates 5-HT3 receptors on vagal and splanchnic afferent fibers, which then carry sensory signals to the medulla, leading to the emetic response



- Antiemetics represent a variety of classes with various efficacies
- Anticholinergic drugs like the muscarinic receptor antagonist scopolamine and H1-receptor antagonists, such as dimenhydrinate, meclizine, and cyclizine are very useful in motion sickness but are ineffective against substances that act directly on the chemoreceptor trigger zone



- Scopolamine
- Dimenhydrinate (Dramine®)
- Cyclizine
- Meclizine (Meclozine)
 - Meclozine + pyridoxine (Ancozine®, Paravomine®)



- Phenothiazines
- 5-HT3 receptor blockers
- Substituted benzamides
- Butyrophenones
- Benzodiazepines
- Corticosteroids
- Substance P/neurokinin-1 receptor blocker

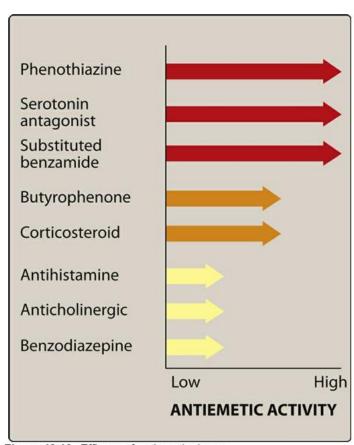


Figure 42.10 Efficacy of antiemetic drugs.



Phenothiazines

- Prochlorperazine
- Act by blocking dopamine receptors
- Effective against low or moderately emetogenic chemotherapeutic agents (e.g. fluorouracil and doxorubicin)
- Side effects:
 - Hypotension and restlessnes (Dose limiting)
 - Extrapyramidal symptoms
 - Sedation



5-HT3 receptor blockers

- Ondansetron
- Granisetron
- Palonosetron
- Dolasetron



5-HT3 receptor blockers

- Important in treating emesis linked with chemotherapy, because of their longer duration of action
- Selectively block 5-HT3 receptors in the periphery (visceral vagal afferent fibers) and in the brain (chemoreceptor trigger zone)
- Can be administered as a single dose prior to chemotherapy (intravenously or orally)
- Efficacious against all grades of emetogenic therapy
- Extensively metabolized by the liver, doses should be adjusted in patients with hepatic insufficiency
- Side Effects:
 - Headache
 - Electrocardiographic changes, such as a prolonged QT interval, can occur with dolasetron



Substituted benzamides

- Metoclopramide (Emistop®, Pramin®)
- Effective at high doses against the emetogenic cisplatin, preventing emesis in 30%-40% percent of patients and reducing emesis in the majority
- Antidopaminergic side effects like sedation, diarrhea, and extrapyramidal symptoms, limit its high-dose use



Butyrophenones

- Droperidol
- Haloperidol
- Act by blocking dopamine receptors
- Moderately effective antiemetics
- Droperodol may prolong the QT interval, and is reserved for patients with inadequate response to other agents
- High-dose haloperidol was found to be nearly as effective as highdose metoclopramide in preventing cisplatin-induced emesis



Benzodiazepines

- Lorazepam (Lorocare[®], Lorivan[®])
- Alprazolam (Xanax[®], Xanagis[®], Prazolex[®])
- The antiemetic potency of lorazepam and alprazolam is low
- Their beneficial effects may be due to their sedative, anxiolytic, and amnesic properties
- These same properties make benzodiazepines useful in treating anticipatory vomiting



Corticosteroids

- Dexamethasone
- Methylprednisolone
- Effective against mildly to moderately emetogenic chemotherapy
- Most frequently used in combination with other agents
- Their antiemetic mechanism is not known
- Can cause insomnia and hyperglycemia in patients with diabetes mellitus



Substance P/neurokinin-1 receptor blocker

- Aprepitant
- Targets the neurokinin receptor in the brain and blocks the actions of the natural substance
- Aprepitant administered orally with dexamethasone and palonosetron
- Undergoes extensive metabolism, primarily by CYP3A4
- Affect the metabolism of other drugs
- Induce CYP3A4
 - Concomitant use with warfarin can shorten its half life
- Side effects: constipation and fatigue
- Only indicated for highly or moderately emetogenic chemotherapy regimens



- Combination regimens:
- Antiemetic drugs are often combined to increase antiemetic activity or decrease toxicity
- Corticosteroids, most commonly dexamethasone, increase antiemetic activity when given with highdose metoclopramide, a 5-HT3 antagonist, phenothiazine, butyrophenone, or a benzodiazepine
- Antihistamines, such as diphenhydramine, are often administered in combination with high-dose metoclopramide to reduce extrapyramidal reactions or with corticosteroids to counter metoclopramide induced diarrhea

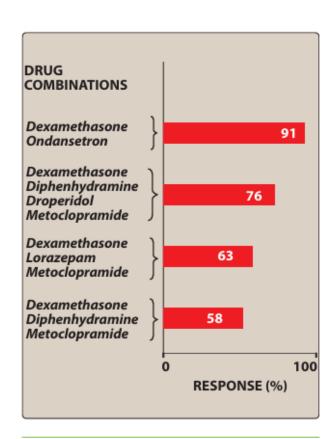


Figure 42.12

Effectiveness of antiemetic activity of some drug combinations against emetic episodes in the first 24 hours after *cisplatin* chemotherapy.



Antidiarrheal drugs

- Increased motility of the gastrointestinal tract and decreased absorption of fluid are major factors in diarrhea
- Antidiarrheal drugs used to treat acute diarrhea include
 - Antimotility agents
 - Adsorbents
 - Agents that modify fluid and electrolyte transport

DRUGS USED IN DIARRHEA

Oral rehydration therapy (ORS)
Probiotics
Zinc

ANTIMOTILITY AGENTS

Diphenoxylate + atropine Loperamide

ADSORBENTS

Aluminum hydroxide Methylcellulose

AGENTS THAT MODIFY FLUID AND ELECTROLYTE TRANSPORT

Bismuth subsalicylate

Figure 42.13

Summary of drugs used to treat diarrhea.



Antimotility agents

- Diphenoxylate
- Loperamide (Diacare®, Imodium®)
- Both are analogs of meperidine and have opioid-like actions on the gut
- Activate presynaptic opioid receptors in the enteric nervous system to inhibit acetylcholine release and decrease peristalsis
- At the usual doses, they lack analgesic effects
- Side effects: drowsiness, abdominal cramps, and dizziness
- Contribute to toxic megacolon and should not be used in young children or in patients with severe colitis



Adsorbents

- Aluminum hydroxide
- Methylcellulose
- Used to control diarrhea
- Act by adsorbing intestinal toxins or microorganisms and/or by coating or protecting the intestinal mucosa
- Much less effective than antimotility agents and
- Can interfere with the absorption of other drugs



Agents that modify fluid and electrolyte transport

- Bismuth subsalicylate
- Used for traveler's diarrhea
- Decreases fluid secretion in the bowel
- Its action may be due to its salicylate component as well as its coating action
- Adverse effects may include black tongue and black stools



Constipation

- Common condition caused by
- Diminished fluid intake
- Slow motility of waste material through large intestine
- Certain foods, medications, diseases



Laxatives

- Laxatives are commonly used for constipation to accelerate the movement of food through GIT
- Increase the potential for loss of pharmacologic effect of poorly absorbed, delayed acting, and extended-release oral preparations by accelerating their transit through the intestines
- May cause electrolyte imbalances when used chronically
- All of these drugs, except for the chloride channel activator lubiprostone, have a risk of dependency for the user



Laxatives

- Irritants and stimulants
- Bulk laxatives
- Saline and osmotic laxatives
- Stool softeners
 - (emollient laxatives or surfactants)
- Lubricant laxatives
- Chloride channel activators

IRRITANTS and STIMULANTS

Bisacodyl CORRECTOL, DULCOLAX

Castor oil GENERIC ONLY

Senna EX-LAX, SENOKOT

BULK LAXATIVES

Methylcellulose CITRUCEL
Psyllium METAMUCIL

SALINE and OSMOTIC LAXATIVES

Lactulose CONSTULOSE, ENULOSE

Magnesium citrate CITROMA

Magnesium hydroxide MILK OF MAGNESIA

Polyethylene glycol GOLYTELY, MIRALAX

STOOL SOFTENERS

Docusate COLACE

LUBRICANT LAXATIVES

Glycerin suppositories GENERIC ONLY
Mineral oil GENERIC ONLY

Figure 42.12 Summary of drugs used to treat constipation.



Irritants and stimulants

- Senna
- Bisacodyl
- Castor oil



Irritants and stimulants: Senna

- Senna (Laxikal Forte[®], Agiolax[®])
- Its active ingredient is a group of sennosides, a natural complex of anthraquinone glycosides
- Taken orally, senna causes evacuation of the bowels within 8 to 10 hours
- Also causes water and electrolyte secretion into the bowel
- In combination products with a docusate-containing stool softener, it is useful in treating opioid-induced constipation



Irritants and stimulants: Bisacodyl

- Bisacodyl (Dilax®, Laxadin®)
- Potent stimulant of the colon
- Acts directly on nerve fibers in the mucosa of the colon
- Adverse effects include abdominal cramps and the potential for atonic colon with prolonged use
- Milk and drugs that may increase the gastric pH, such as antacids, PPIs, and H2-receptor antagonists, should not be taken at the same time as the enteric-coated tablets
 - These agents may cause the enteric coating to dissolve prematurely in the stomach, resulting in stomach irritation and pain



Irritants and stimulants: Castor oil

- Castor oil
- Broken down in the small intestine to ricinoleic acid, which is very irritating to the stomach and increases peristalsis
- Pregnant patients should avoid castor oil because it may stimulate uterine contractions



Bulk laxatives

- The bulk laxatives include hydrophilic colloids (from indigestible parts of fruits and vegetables)
- Form gels in the large intestine, causing water retention and intestinal distension, thereby increasing peristaltic activity
- Similar actions are produced by methylcellulose, psyllium seeds, and bran
- Should be used cautiously in patients who are immobile because of their potential for causing intestinal obstruction



Saline and osmotic laxatives

- Magnesium citrate
- Magnesium hydroxide
- Sodium phosphate
 - Nonabsorbable salts that hold water in the intestine by osmosis
 - This distends the bowel, increasing intestinal activity and producing defecation in a few hours
- Electrolyte solutions containing PEG are used as colonic lavage solutions to prepare the gut for radiologic or endoscopic procedures
 - PEG powder for solution is available as a laxative
- Lactulose is a semisynthetic disaccharide sugar that also acts as an osmotic laxative
 - It cannot be hydrolyzed by intestinal enzymes
 - Oral doses are degraded in the colon by colonic bacteria into lactic, formic, and acetic acids
 - This increases osmotic pressure, causing fluid accumulation, colon distension, soft stools, and defecation



Stool softeners

- Stool softeners (emollient laxatives or surfactants)
 - Docusate sodium
 - Docusate calcium
 - Docusate potassium
- Surface-active agents that become emulsified with the stool produce softer feces and ease passage
- May take days to become effective and are often used for prophylaxis rather than acute treatment



Lubricant laxatives

- Include mineral oil and glycerin suppositories
- Act by facilitating the passage of hard stools
- Mineral oil should be taken orally in an upright position to avoid its aspiration and potential for lipid or lipoid pneumonia



Chloride channel activators

- Lubiprostone
- Activate chloride channels to increase fluid secretion in the intestinal lumen
- This eases the passage of stools and causes little change in electrolyte balances
- Used in the treatment of chronic constipation
- Minimal drug—drug interactions because metabolism occurs quickly in the stomach and jejunum
- Side effect: Nausea, Diarrhea



Irritable Bowel Syndrome (IBS)

- IBS is characterized by chronic abdominal pain and altered bowel habits in the absence of an organic cause.
- IBS may be classified as constipation predominant (IBS-C), diarrhea predominant (IBS-D), or a combination of both.
- Diet and psychosocial modifications play an important role in management of the disease, as well as drug therapy



IBS-C AGENTS

Linaclotide LINZESS

Lubiprostone AMITIZA

Plecanatide TRULANCE

Tegaserod ZELNORM

Tenapanor ISBRELA

IBS-D AGENTS

Alosetron LOTRONEX

Eluxadoline VIBERZI

Rifaximin XIFAXAN

AGENTS FOR IBS-C AND IBS-D

Dicyclomine BENTYL

Hyoscyamine ANASPAZ, LEVBID, LEVSIN

Figure 42.13 Summary of drugs used to treat irritable bowel syndrome.IBS-C = irritable bowel syndrome with constipation; IBS-D = irritable bowel syndrome with diarrhea.



DRUG	INDICATION	MECHANISM OF ACTION	ADVERSE EFFECTS
Linaclotide Plecanatide	IBS-C*	Guanylate cyclase-C agonist	Diarrhea Do not use in GI obstruction
Lubiprostone	Women with IBS-C*^	Chloride channel activator	Nausea and vomiting, diarrhea Do not use in GI obstruction
Tegaserod	Women with IBS-C and < 65 years old	5-HT ₄ partial agonist	Diarrhea Do not use in GI obstruction or history of MI, stroke, or angina
Tenapanor	IBS-C	Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 3 (NHE3) inhibitor	Diarrhea Do not use in GI obstruction
Alosetron	Women with severe IBS-D	5-HT ₃ antagonist	Constipation, nausea and vomiting, heartburn, ischemic colitis (rare)
Eluxadoline	IBS-D	μ-Opioid receptor agonist	Constipation, abdominal pain, nausea, pancreatitis (rare) Avoid use in pancreatitis or alcoholism
Rifaximin	Short-term use in IBS-D	Decreases bacterial load (structural analog of rifampin)	Nausea, fatigue, headache, dizziness, peripheral edema, and risk of <u>Clostridium</u> <u>difficile</u> infection
Dicyclomine	IBS-C and IBS-D	Antimuscarinic; decreases GI spasms and motility	Anticholinergic effects such as drowsiness and dry mouth
Hyoscyamine	IBS-C and IBS-D	Antimuscarinic; decreases GI spasms and motility	Anticholinergic effects such as drowsiness and dry mouth Overdose may produce hallucinations, arrhythmias, and nausea and vomiting



Drugs used for Irritable Bowel Disease (IBD)

- IBD is a group of idiopathic chronic intestinal conditions characterized by immune-mediated GI tract inflammation in response to bacterial antigens in the intestinal lumen.
- Most common subtypes of IBD are Crohn disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC).
- CD can affect any portion of the GI tract from the mouth to the anus in a noncontinuous fashion and is characterized by transmural inflammation.
- UC usually affects the rectum. It may extend continuously to affect other parts of the colon and is characterized by inflammation limited to the mucosal layer
- Severity, extent of disease, and risk of complications guide treatment of IBD.



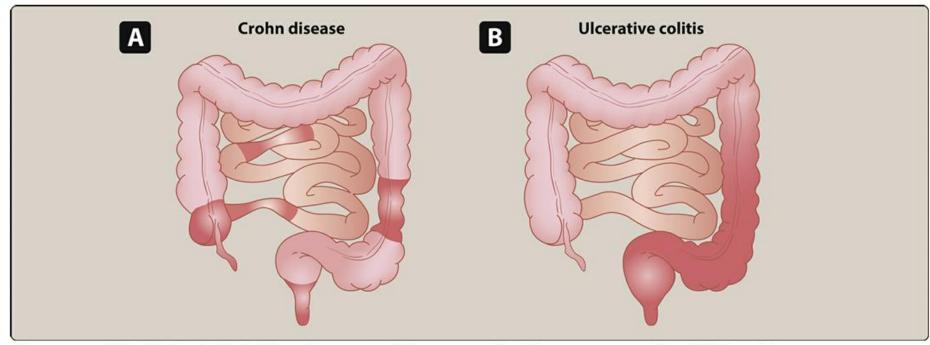


Figure 42.15 Distribution patterns of disease with (A) skip lesions in Crohn disease and (B) continuous involvement of the colon, beginning with the rectum, in ulcerative colitis.

Drugs used for Irritable Bowel Disease (IBD)

- Remission of IBD can be induced with the use of:
 - Rectal and oral 5-aminosalicylates (5-ASAs)
 - Corticosteroids (rectal, oral locally delivered, and systemic)
 - Biologic agents
 - TNF- α inhibitors
 - α-4 integrin inhibitors
 - IL-12/23 inhibitor: ustekinumab
 - Janus kinase inhibitor: tofacitinib.
 - Immunomodulators are additional agents used in the maintenance of remission in IBD
 - Azathioprine
 - 6-mercaptopurine
 - Methotrexate
- Drugs used to maintain remission are the same as those used for induction



Oral Formulation

Balsalazide COLAZAL

Mesalamine ASACOL HD, PENTASA

Olsalazine DIPENTUM

Sulfasalazine AZULFIDINE

Rectal Formulation

Mesalamine enema ROWASA

Mesalamine suppository CANASA

CORTICOSTEROIDS

Oral Formulation

Budesonide delayed-release

ENTOCORT EC

Budesonide extended-release UCERIS

Hydrocortisone CORTEF

Prednisone DELTASONE

Methylprednisolone MEDROL

Intravenous Formulation

Hydrocortisone SOLU-CORTEF

Methylprednisolone SOLU-MEDROL

Rectal Formulation

Budesonide foam UCERIS RECTAL

Hydrocortisone suppository

ANUCORT-HC

Hydrocortisone enema CORTENEMA

Hydrocortisone foam CORTIFOAM

BIOLOGIC AGENTS

TNF-\alpha Inhibitors

Adalimumab HUMIRA

Certolizumab CIMZIA

Golimumab SIMPONI

Infliximab REMICADE

α4-Integrin Inhibitors

Vedolizumab ENTYVIO

IL-12/23 Inhibitor

Ustekinumab STELARA

JANUS KINASE INHIBITORS

Tofacitinib XELJANZ

IMMUNOMODULATORS

Azathioprine IMURAN

6-Mercaptopurine GENERIC ONLY

Methotrexate VARIOUS





5-Aminosalicylates

- 5-ASA agents include:
 - Sulfasalazine
 - Mesalamine
 - Balsalazide
 - Olsalazine



5-Aminosalicylates

- The 5-ASAs exhibit anti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive properties that are the main determinants of their efficacy in IBD.
- The exact mechanism of action of 5-ASA is unknown but is thought to be due to
 - inhibition of cytokine and prostaglandin synthesis
 - inhibition of leukotriene release
 - scavenging of free radicals
 - inhibition of T-cell proliferation, activation, and differentiation
 - impairment of leukocyte adhesion and function.
 - 5-ASA is thought to act via topical interaction with the intestinal mucosa
- Mechanisms are the same with both oral and rectal administration.



5-Aminosalicylates therapeutic uses

- The 5-ASA drugs are the mainstay of treatment in UC for induction and maintenance of remission.
- Current guidelines recommend mesalamine, balsalazide, or olsalazine as first line for mild-moderate disease.
- Patients with moderate—severe UC may require use of biologic agents and immunomodulators.
- Use of 5-ASA drugs in CD is limited due to a general lack of efficacy.



5-Aminosalicylates adverse effects

- Sulfasalazine (due to the sulfapyridine component)
 - Headache, nausea, and fatigue (most common, dose related)
 - Serious reactions include hemolytic anemia, myelosuppression, hepatitis, pneumonitis, nephrotoxicity, fever, rash, and Stevens–Johnson syndrome.
 - Treatment should be discontinued at the first sign of skin rash or hypersensitivity.
 - Sulfasalazine reversibly impairs male fertility.
 - Sulfasalazine inhibits folate absorption
 - Folate supplementation is recommended with chronic use.
- Mesalamine (well tolerated)
 - Headache and dyspepsia are the most common adverse effects
 - Acute interstitial nephritis (Rare); renal function should be monitored
- Olsalazine: Watery diarrhea
- Coadministration of drugs that increase pH (PPIs, H2 receptor antagonists, and antacids)
 may result in increased systemic absorption of mesalamine
 - Olsalazine, balsalazide are non-pH dependent



Corticosteroids

- Corticosteroids are used in IBD for their anti-inflammatory effects
- Very effective at inducing remission in IBD, but longterm maintenance with corticosteroids should be avoided due to the deleterious effects of chronic use.
- Rectal formulations (hydrocortisone enema and budesonide foam) have fewer adverse effects than systemic steroids, but use is limited to left-sided disease in UC.
- Enteric-release preparations of oral budesonide deliver corticosteroid to a portion of inflamed intestine.
- This agent has minimal systemic adverse effects due to low bioavailability resulting from extensive first-pass hepatic metabolism.



Biologic agents

- Biologic agents used in the management of IBD.
 - TNF-α inhibitors
 - α-4 integrin inhibitors
 - IL-12/23 inhibitor: ustekinumab
- Associated with an increased risk for infection.
 - Patients should be evaluated for tuberculosis, and treatment for latent TB should be considered prior to use of these drugs.
- Many have other indications such as rheumatoid arthritis or psoriasis



TNF- α inhibitors

- Infliximab
- Adalimumab
- Certolizumab
- Golimumab
- Parenteral monoclonal antibodies effective for both induction and maintenance of remission in IBD.
- Indicated for moderate—severe CD and UC
- Second-line agents in patients with UC who have failed 5-ASAs, unresponsive to or dependent on corticosteroids, or who present with more severe disease.
- In CD, the TNF- α inhibitors have a first-line role in patients with moderate—severe disease and those at higher risk of progression and worse outcomes.
- Associated with the development of immunogenicity and antidrug antibodies that can result in loss of response



α -4 integrin inhibitors

- Vedolizumab
- A humanized monoclonal to α -4/ β -7 integrin
- Indicated in moderate—severe UC and CD for induction of remission and maintenance.
- α -4 Integrins are adhesion molecules that promote leukocyte migration to sites of inflammation.
- α -4 integrin inhibitors reduce lymphocyte migration into the intestinal mucosa and inflammation
- Adverse effects: headache, arthralgia, nausea, fatigue, and musculoskeletal pain.



IL12/23 inhibitors

- Ustekinumab
- Inhibits IL-12 and IL-23 involved in lymphocyte activation.
- Indicated for psoriasis, psoriatic arthritis, and induction and maintenance of remission in CD in patients refractory to or intolerant of TNF- α inhibitors, immunomodulators, or corticosteroids.
- Adverse effects: headache, arthralgia, infection, nausea, and nasopharyngitis.



Janus Kinase inhibitors

Tofacitinib

- Recommended as monotherapy in moderate—severe UC in patients who are refractory to or intolerant of TNF- α inhibitors.
- Also used for rheumatoid arthritis, psoriasis
- Interference with the JAK-STAT signaling pathway result in decreased proliferation and differentiation of macrophage and T cells.
- Can be used for induction and maintenance of remission
- As with the use of biologic drugs, tofacitinib is associated with increased risk for infection, including a specific increased risk of herpes zoster infection.
- Patients should be evaluated for herpes zoster immunization prior to beginning therapy with tofacitinib.
- Adverse effects: nasopharyngitis, arthralgia, and headache.



Immunomodulators in IBD

- Methotrexate
- Azathioprine
- 6-mercaptopurine (6-MP)



Methotrexate (MTX)

- Also used in cancer, rheumatoid arthritis, psoriasis
- A structural analogue of folic acid that inhibits the production of folinic acid.
- The exact mechanism of action in CD is unknown.
- Only intramuscular or subcutaneous administration of MTX has efficacy in CD.
- MTX is a recommended monotherapy option for maintenance of remission in CD but is not recommended in maintenance for UC.
- Adverse effects: headache, nausea, vomiting, abdominal discomfort, serum aminotransferase elevations, and rash.
 - Administration of folic acid is effective at reducing the incidence of GI adverse effects and is recommended in patients receiving MTX.



Thiopurines

- Azathioprine
- 6-mercaptopurine (6-MP)
- Oral medications that have corticosteroid-sparing effects in patients with UC and CD.
- They are considered first line as monotherapy for maintenance of remission.
- Use is limited by concerns of toxicity, including: bone marrow suppression and hepatotoxicity
 - Monitoring of complete blood counts and liver function tests is recommended