XANTHINE DERIVATIVES

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Source and Medicinal Chemistry

- Caffeine and theophylline
- The compounds contain the purine nucleus and are naturally occurring xanthine derivatives.
- Caffeine is the most active component of coffee, and coffee beans (seeds) of Coffea arabica, a small evergreen shrub abundant in the tropical areas of South America, Central America and the Middle East.
- It is **also found** in *Cola accuminata* and *Cola nitida*, tropical nuts of South America and Africa.

Purine

Caffeine

$$\begin{array}{c|c} H & & \\ \hline \\ N & & \\ N & \\ N$$

Xanthine

Theophylline

Structure of purine and xanthine derivatives

Caffeine and Theophylline Major Properties and Actions

| Chemical | Botanical source | Predominant pharmacological actions | Therapeutic uses |
|--------------|--|---|---|
| Caffeine | Coffea arabica (coffee beans, seeds of the small evergreen shrub) Cola accuminata and Cola nitida (tropical nuts) Thea sinensis (leaves of the tea shrub) Theobroma cacao (seeds of the cocoa plant) | CNS stimulant Cardiac & skeletal muscle stimulant Smooth muscle relaxation Coronary vasodilator Increases BMR | Migraine headaches; weight loss; Wakefulness Improve mental alertness Relieve drug-induced respiratory depression; For short-term treatment of apnea in premature infants; Emergency cardiac stimulant Diuretic |
| Theophylline | Thea sinensis (leaves of the tea shrub) | Bronchodilator, pulmonary smooth muscle relaxation Increases BMR | Treatment of bronchial asthma and other respiratory-related disorders |

Occurrence

- Caffeine is distributed throughout coffee, tea, chocolate, and cola beverages.
- Coffee beans and tea leaves containing equivalent amounts of the stimulant (up to 2%).
- Brewed coffee contains the highest amounts of caffeine (up to 100 mg), instant and decaffeinated coffees contain less (up to 75 mg and 5 mg, respectively), while a cola beverage possesses a significant dose of stimulant (up to 55 mg).

Pharmacology and Clinical Use

- Caffeine exert its pharmacological actions by increasing calcium permeability in sarcoplasmic reticulum. Inhibiting phosphodiesterase, promoting accumulation of cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP). Act as a competitive, nonselective antagonists of adenosine A₁ and A_{2A} receptors.
- Theophylline, in addition, inhibits action of extracellular adenosine (bronchodilation). Stimulates endogenous catecholamines (central stimulant effect). Directly promotes mobilization of intracellular calcium and β-adrenergic agonist activity (airway smooth muscle relaxation).

- Caffeine stimulates cerebral activity, skeletal and cardiac muscle contraction, and general basal metabolic rate, while theophylline has less central stimulation but significant bronchial smooth muscle relaxation properties.
- Caffeine is available in combination with ergotamine, belladonna alkaloids or pentobarbital for the treatment of migraine headaches, for its synergistic action with ephedrine for weight loss and as an aid for wakefulness and restoring mental alertness.

- In combination with sodium benzoate (injectable), caffeine is used in the treatment of drug-induced respiratory depression, and as caffeine citrate (injectable) for the short-term treatment of apnea in premature infants.
- Theophylline is employed in the treatment of bronchial asthma and other respiratory-related disorders.
- Caffeine and theophylline enhance cardiac muscle contraction, induce coronary vasodilation and promote diuresis.

Toxicokinetics

- Xanthine derivatives are well absorbed orally, reaching peak distribution within two hours.
- The compounds are metabolized by the liver to methylxanthine and methyluric acid derivatives.
- Metabolic variability among different age groups, smokers and individuals with pathologic complications is probably due to variable levels of cytochrome P450 and N-acetyltransferase systems.
- The drugs are **eliminated** by the **kidney** with a **half-life** of 3 to 15 hours in nonsmokers (4-5 hr in adult smokers).

Signs and Symptoms and Clinical Management of Caffeine Toxicity

- The estimated **lethal dose** of **caffeine** in humans is **5** to **10** g.
- Although fatalities are unlikely approaching this dose, individuals who ingest up to 10 mg/kg are at risk of developing dysrhythmias or strychnine-like seizures.
- More likely adverse effects of excessive caffeine intake are demonstrable as CNS stimulation, including insomnia, restlessness, sensory disturbances and delirium.

- Increased skeletal muscle tension, tachycardia, premature ventricular contractions, diarrhea, development of peptic ulcers, and GI bleeding complete the detrimental properties of acute and chronic ingestion.
- Myocardial tachyarrhythmias and development of seizures should be monitored in patients after an acute ingestion of 1 g or more of caffeine.
- A short acting β-adrenergic blocker, such as esmolol, is useful in the management of the former.
- Seizures are controlled by a short acting benzodiazepine, such as midazolam.

Signs and Symptoms and Clinical Management of Theophylline Toxicity

- Theophylline shares similar properties with caffeine, although its toxicity is more acute and more common. Chronic toxicity, however, is unlikely.
- Therapeutic blood levels are strictly regulated at 10 to 20 μg/mL.
- Seizures occur between 25 to 40 μg/mL.
- Rapid IV administration of theophylline is associated with headache, hypotension, dizziness, restlessness, agitation and arrhythmias.

Tolerance and Withdrawal

- Caffeine withdrawal is associated with chronic use, and is demonstrated abruptly within 12 to 24 hours after the last dose.
- Initial symptoms include headache, anxiety, fatigue and craving behavior, last for about one week.
- There is demonstrated **tolerance** to the **diuretic action** and the **insomnia** produced with **theophylline**, but **no tolerance** develops to the **CNS stimulation** or **bronchodilation**.

Cardiovascular Drugs

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DIGITALIS GLYCOSIDES

Digitalis glycosides (DGs) have played a prominent role in the therapy of congestive heart failure.

Digoxin in particular remains **widely** used today **despite increasing** rates in **heart failure** and **atrial fibrillation** and the emergence of newer medications.

Medicinal Chemistry

DGs is a **steroid nucleus** containing an **unsaturated lactone** at the **C17** position and **three glycoside** residues at the **C3** position.

Digoxin differs from **digitoxin** only by the presence of a **hydroxyl** group at **C12**, which makes **digitoxin** more **lipophilic** than digoxin.

Although digitoxin is still available, **digoxin** is the most **widely prescribed** drug of this class in the United States.

This is principally **because** the **techniques** for **measuring serum levels** are **readily available**, it possesses **flexible routes** of **administration**, it has an **intermediate duration** of action, and it has a **long history** of therapeutic use.

Pharmacology and Clinical Use

DGs have been widely **used** for more than **two centuries** as therapeutic agents for **congestive heart failure**.

The drugs have a **positive inotropic** effect on **failing myocardium** and **consequently** increase the ability to **control ventricular rate** in response to **atrial fibrillation**.

DGs at **therapeutic doses** selectively bind and **partially inhibit** the intrinsic membrane protein **Na⁺ – K⁺ -ATPase**.

This **partial inhibition** of the Na⁺ – K⁺ -ATPase **leads** to an **increase** in the **intracellular Na** + concentration.

This will lead to **reduce Ca²⁺ extrusion** via the **Na⁺/Ca²⁺ exchange** system in the sarcolemma.

The resulting increase in cytosolic and sarcoplasmic Ca²⁺ concentrations enhances the force of cardiac muscle contraction.

It was recently recognized that DGs are **also** able to **modulate sympathetic nerve system activity**, an **additional mechanism** contributing to their efficacy in the **treatment** of patients with **heart failure**.

Toxicokinetics

Absorption of DGs occurs in the gastrointestinal tract.

Because digoxin has **greater polarity** than digitoxin, GI **absorption** of digoxin is **less rapid** and **less complete** than the latter.

DGs bind to plasma proteins, especially albumin.

Highly protein-bound substances **displace** DGs from circulating **albumin** and **increase** the levels of **free DGs** in blood, **thus** potentially **increasing** their **toxicity**.

Once absorbed into the systemic circulation, DGs are widely distributed throughout the body, with the highest concentrations in muscular tissues.

Concentrations of DGs **in** the **myocardium** are about **30 times** higher **than** those in **blood**.

DGs are mainly **metabolized** in the **liver** and in the **GI tract**.

Routes of **elimination** include **urine** and **bile**.

The **half-life** of **digoxin** is about **36 hours**, whereas that of **digitoxin** is **five** to **seven days**.

Digitoxin's **high lipid solubility** and **recirculation** through the **enterohepatic pathway** is partially responsible for its **long half-life**.

Because the **liver and kidneys** are significantly **involved** in the **metabolism and excretion** of DGs, the half-life of DGs may be significantly prolonged, with an **increased** likelihood of **intoxication** in patients with **impaired renal and hepatic function**.

These features contribute to its **narrow therapeutic index** (\sim 1.2–1.7 ng/mL), thus creating a slight partition between effective therapeutic concentrations and toxic manifestations.

Clinical Manifestations of Toxicity

Because signs and symptoms of digoxin toxicity are mostly nonspecific, a high index of suspicion is crucial for early recognition and appropriate management.

Acute poisoning occurs **in adults** following an **intentional ingestion** of a large dose or **unintentional ingestion** in **children**.

Chronic poisoning is more common in the elderly or heart failure patients receiving DGs and usually results from either inadvertent medication error or faulty patient compliance.

The incidence and **severity of DG toxicity** have been substantially **reduced** in the past two decades **due** partially to the **development** of **alternative drugs** for the treatment of heart failure as well as to the **improved management** of **DG intoxication**.

Manifestations of DG **toxicity involve** the CV, the CNS, and the GI tract.

The hallmark of **cardiac toxicity** is an **increased automaticity** coupled with concomitant **conduction delay**.

Premature ventricular beats, bradyarrhythmia, paroxysmal atrial tachycardia with block, junctional tachycardia, and bidirectional ventricular tachycardia are common.

DG toxicity is also manifest as **dysfunction** of **CNS**, including delirium, fatigue, malaise, confusion, dizziness, abnormal dreams, blurred or yellow vision, and halos.

Disturbances of color vision are frequently reported, a patient's complaint of a "whitish, yellowish halo vision" is a suspicious sign of digoxin intoxication.

GI disturbances may include anorexia, nausea, vomiting and abdominal pain.

Mechanisms of Toxicity

The toxic effects of DGs are, at least partially, the **extensions** of their **pharmacological actions**.

At therapeutic, nontoxic doses, digoxin increases vagal tone and decreases sympathetic activity, resulting in decreased SA and AV node automaticity.

At higher concentrations, toxicity progresses to induction of bradycardia, prolongation of AV conduction, or heart block.

It is **also** noteworthy that **toxic doses** of **digoxin** can **increase both** intracellular Ca²⁺ loading and sympathetic nerve system activation, precipitating **atrial** and **ventricular dysrhythmias**, including the life threatening **ventricular fibrillation**.

DGs may cause vasoconstriction as a result of increased intracellular Ca²⁺ in smooth muscle of the vessel wall.

CNS toxicity of DGs appears to be **related** to the **inactivation** of **Na⁺ –K⁺ - ATPase**, resulting in **altered ionic transport** across excitable **neuronal membranes** with consequent **membrane irritability** and **instability**.

Clinical Management of Intoxication

Successful management of DG intoxication **depends** on **early recognition**.

Treatment depends on the clinical conditions rather than serum drug levels.

Management varies from temporary withdrawal of the medication, general supportive care and proper treatment of the DG-induced cardiac arrhythmias to administration of digoxin-specific Fab fragments (i.e., Digibind) for life threatening CV compromise.

Digoxin-specific Fab fragments are **antigen-binding fragments** of **antidigoxin antibody** derived from **immunized sheep**.

Its high volume of distribution, which promotes entry into extracellular spaces, coupled with an elevated half-life (15–20 hours), and the antibody's significantly higher competitive affinity for digoxin, fashions a molecule that competitively binds and removes circulating and receptor-bound digoxin.

The antitoxin is indicated when serum digoxin concentrations are greater than 10 ng/mL (about 10 mg oral dose in adults, 4 mg in children) and serum potassium concentrations reach 5 meq/L or higher.

The usual **dose** of **Digibind** is **calculated** according to the number of **digoxin tablets ingested**.

Adults receive **20 vials** (10 vials for children) of **40 mg/vial intravenously**, and the **dose** is **repeated** as needed **until signs** and **symptoms** or **serum digoxin levels fall**.

Chronic intoxication requires about **six vials** of **Digibind** and administered as above.

The effect is demonstrated within minutes. Each **vial** (40 mg) **binds 0.6 mg** of **digoxin**; thus the number of Digibind vials (N) required for neutralization of DG toxicity is calculated on the basis of the total amount of digoxin, or number of digoxin tablets ingested (times 80% for incomplete absorption).

The number of vials required can also be calculated from the known SDC:

$$N = \frac{\text{SDC(ng/mL)} \times \text{patient weight (kg)}}{100}$$

Since **Digibind** is a **biological product** of **immune origin**, its major **adverse drug reactions** are consistent with therapeutic agents of that class, predominantly manifested as **erythema**, **rash** and **urticaria**.

Methods of Detection

Detection of the **serum levels** of DGs is of **critical importance** for the diagnosis of DG **intoxication**.

Drug-specific radioimmunoassays are the most widely used methods for detecting DGs in serum, with relatively new immunoassays currently available (Digoxin III, Abbott Laboratories, Illinois, U.S.).

Enzyme, chemiluminescence, and fluorescence polarization immunoassays are also available.

