Basic principles of chemotherapy. Penicillins, cephalosporins.



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The antiinfective drugs

 Antiinfective agents are drugs that are designed to act selectively on foreign organisms that have invaded and infected the body.

The antiinfective drugs

Antiinfective drugs - range from

- Antibacterials
- Antifungals
- Antiprotozoals
- Antihelminthics
- Antivirals
- Antimycobacterial

History of antibacterial therapy

- 1909 Paul Ehrlich
 - Search for magic bullet that would attack bacterial structures, not ours.
 - Developed salvarsan, arsenic derivative used against syphilis.



Ehrlich's Magic Bullets



Timeline

- 1929 Penicillin discovered by Alexander Fleming
- 1932 Sulfa drugs discovered (Domagk, prontosil)
- 1940 Florey and Chain mass produce penicillin for war time use, becomes available to the public.
- 1943 Streptomycin discovered
- 1949 Chloramphenicol was available
- 1952 Erythromycin discovered
- 1964 Cephalosporins introduced

Fleming and Penicillin





"One sometimes finds what one is not looking for"

Sir Alexander Fleming

Historical distinctions

- Antibiotics: substances produced by organisms that have inhibitory effects on other organisms.
 - Penicillin, streptomycin
- Synthetic drugs: produced in a lab.
 Salvarsan, sulfa drugs
- Nowadays, most antimicrobials are semi-synthetic
 - Chemically modified versions of natural products
 - Distinction between "antibiotics" and "synthetic drugs slowly being abandoned.

Basic criteria for ATB

maximal microbial toxicity

minimal organ toxicity

ATB classifications



Basic terminology

- antibacterial spectrum
- MIC
- resistance
- dysmicrobia
- superinfection
- bactericidal effect
- bacteriostatic effect

Spectrum of activity of antibacterials

- Antibacterials that interfere with the ability of the cell to reproduce/replicate without killing them are called BACTERIOSTATIC drugs.
- Tetracycline is an example.

Spectrum of activity of antibacterials

- Antibiotics that can aggressively cause bacterial death are called BACTERICIDAL.
- PNC is an an example
- These properties (-cidal and –static) can also depend on the ATB concentration in the blood.
- (e.g. Erythromycin and Clindamycin may be bactericidal at higher blood levels)

Mechanisms of action



- interference with cell wall synthesis
 (β-lactams, vancomycin, cycloserin)
- interference with protein synthesis (CMP, TTC, AMG, macrolides)
- influence of cell membrane (polymyxines)
- interference with nucleic acid metabolism (rifampicin, quinolones)
- interference with intermediary metabolism (sulfonamides)



Mechanisms of resistance

- enzymes
- change of cell wall permeability
- **† synthesis of antagonist (folic acid)**
- change of penicilin-binding protein (PBP)



Antibiotic resistance is rising



Toxic effects of ATB

myelosuppresion (CMP) hematotoxicity (sulfonamides) hepatotoxicity (macrolides) nephrotoxicity (aminoglycosides) ototoxicity (aminoglycosides) neurotoxicity (anti-TBC)

Other side effects (SE)

allergy (β-lactams)

dysmicrobia (large spectrum ATB)

superinfection (large spectrum ATB)

Jarisch-Herxheimer (PNC)

sy Hoigné (PNC-retard)

Combinations of ATB

Aims:

- increase of therapeutic effect
 - decrease in AR
 - prophylaxis of resistance



Principles of ATB therapy

- primary focus inf.
- possible inf. agent
- sensitivity
- variability of pacient's response
- kinetics & penetration
- hospitalisation
- ATB SE

- effectiveness of elimination organs
- start therapy in right time
- regular dosing
- optimal ther. period
- don't repeat therapy
- price of ATB

Conclusions

Past

Antibiotics have revolutionised medicine and have saved millions of lives

Present

Increasing bacterial resistance and falling antibiotic production is reducing the efficacy of antibiotics

Future

A continuous supply of new antibiotics is needed, with activity against non-multiplying bacteria

β - lactame ATB

Penicillins

- basic PNC
- anti-staphyloccocal
 - aminoPNC
 - carboxyPNC
 - acylureidoPNC
 - β-lactamase inhib.

Cephalosporins

- 1. -
- II. -
- 111. -
- IV. -
- V.-
- generation

Carbapenems Monobactams

Penicillins (bactericidal)

Penicillium notatum

 6-aminopenicillanic acid penem





penicil4.cdr

Mechanism of action

They act by inhibition of bacterial cell wall synthesis The β-lactam binds to Penicillin Binding Protein (PBP)

- PBP is unable to crosslink peptidoglycan chains
- The bacteria is unable to synthesize a stable cell wall
- This cause lysis of bacterial cell wall
- These agents are bactericidal
- Active against multiplying and not resting bacteria Inactive against mycobacteria, protozoa, fungi and viruses

Gram positive & Gram Negative

- Gram positive bacteria have a thick cell wall
 - Peptidoglycan directly accessible from environment
- Gram negative bacteria have a different wall
 - Thin layer of peptidoglycan
 - Surrounded by an outer membrane (OM) composed of lipopolysaccharide, phospholipids, and proteins
 - OM is a barrier to diffusion of molecules including many antibiotics
 - Only some antibiotics are that hydrophobic
 - 27 Porins allow passage of only some antibiotics

Mechanism of action



• Gram +

←peptidoglycane

← PBP← lipidic bilayer

Mechanism of action



Gram ← LPS & lipids

← membrane & porines
 ← peptidoglycane
 ← PBP
 ← membrane

There is no molecule similar to peptidoglycan in humans, making drugs that target cell wall synthesis very selective in their toxicity against bacteria.

Basic PNC





 benzylpenicilline (PNC G)

 phenoxymethyl-PNC (PNC V)

- procain-benzyl-PNC
- benzatine-PNC

penamecilline

Pharmacokinetics



- I.V. benzylpenicilline PNC G
- i.m. Pc-PNC, benzatine-PNC
- extracellular distribution
- renal excretion of active substance (probenecide)



- acidostabile
- incomplete absorption (60%)
- hydrolytic cleavage, activation, prolonged effect

(penamecilline)

Antimicrobial spectrum

- gram + cocci (St. pyogenes, St.viridans, St. pneumoniae)
- staphylococci (β-lactamase-negative)
- gram + bacilly (B. anthracis, Clostridium spp., L. monocytogenes,)

- gram bacilly (Pasteurella)
 - spirochetes (Treponema pallidum)
- borelia, leptospira



Side effects



- anaphylaxis
- Jarisch-Herxheimer
- sy Hoigné
- neurotoxicity



- allergy
- pregnancy & breast feeding are not contraindicted

Disadvantages of penicillin G

A. Destroyed by gastric HCIB. Inactivated by penicillinaseC. Narrow spectrum of activity

Antistaphylococcal PNC (penicillinase-resistant)



- meticilline (acidolabile)
- oxacilline
- cloxacilline
- dicloxacilline

- acidostabile
- strong alb. binding
- good diffusion in parenchym. org.
- weak BBB passage

Antistaphylococcal PNC (penicillinase-resistant)

Sensitivity:

Resistance:

• *staphylococci* (β-lactamase-positive)

enterococci

gram - bacteries





MRSA

- Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus
- Most frequent nosocomial (hospital-

acquired) pathogen

Usually resistant to several other antibiotics

Amino-PNC

(penicillinase-non-resistant)



- ampicilline
- amoxicilline
- combination with clavulanic acid

- acidostabile
- absorption variable
- low albumine binding
- good inflammatory tissue diffusion
- increased bile concentration
- mild nephrotoxicity

Amino-PNC

(penicillinase-non-resistant)

Sensitivity:

- G⁺ cocci
- enterococci
- **G⁻ COCCi** (N.meningitis & gonorrhoeae)
 - H. influenzae
- aerobic G⁻ bacilly (E.coli, Salmonella, Shigella)

Resistance:

- enterobacteriaceae
 - staphylococci (β-lactamase-positive)
 - Pseudomonas sp.
 - B. fragilis





Uses

- H. Influenza infections (otitis media, sinusitis, bronchitis, pneumonia)
- E. coli infections (Urinary & biliary infections).
- Samonella infections (typhoid fever)
- Shigella infections (ampicillin)
- Gonococcal infections (alternative for penicillin in the treatment of gonorrhea)
- Prophlaxis of infective endocarditis

Disadvantages

Amoxicillin & ampicillin alone are readily destroyed by Staph. penicillinase.



Carboxy-PNC (antipseudomonas PNC)



- carbenicilline
 - ticarcilline
- combination with clavulanic acid

- Pseudomonas
- Proteus
- anaerobs
- severe infections
- septicemies
- meningitis
- endocarditis
- urogenital & respiratory infections

Acylureido-PNC (wider spectrum against gram – bacilly)



- gram + cocci
- gram bacteries
- Pseudomonas

- piperacilline
 - azlocilline
- combination with tazobactam

- severe infections
- septicemies
- meningitis
- endocarditis
- abdominal cavity inf.
- pneumonia

Carbapenems (β-lactams with the widest spectrum)



imipenem combination with cilastatin

- good tissue penetration
- good BBB difusion
- renal excretion-70% of active substance
- rest as metabolites

Cilastin: inhibitor of renal dehydropeptidase I - enzyme responsible for hydrolysis of imipenem to nephrotoxic metabolites with no antibacterial activity. Does not increase plasma levels of imipenem but does prevent nephrotoxicity and maintains urinary levels of the intact drug.

Carbapenems

G⁺ cocci, staphylococci (even producing penicillinase)
Enterococcus faecalis, L. monocytogenes

G⁻ aerobs
enterobacteries
anaerobic bacteries

Monobactams



aztreonam

- good tissue & body fluid penetration
- good BBB difusion
- good bone penetration
- renal elimination

Monobactams

Sensitivity:

 exclusively G⁻ aerobic bacteries

(N.meningitis a gonorrhoeae, H. influenzae)

- aerobic G⁻ bacilly (E.coli, Salmonella, Shigella)
 - Pseudomonas aeruginosa



Resistance:

- G⁺ bacteries
 - anaerobs



β-lactamase inhibitors





- clavulanic acid •
 - sulbactam \bullet
 - tazobactam \mathbf{O}

- irreversible inhibition
- combination with **β-lactame ATB**
- similar kinetics & tissue penetration

 with no antibacterial activity

ADME

Oral absorption of most penicillins is poor Exception: penicillin v Amoxicillin Food interfer with absorption

Distribution Widely distributed Relatively insoluble in lipid Hence, have poor penetration into cells and BBB Inflammation (eg. meningitis) permits entrance into CSF

ADME(cont.)

Protein binding differs Ampicillin and penicillin G

20% bound

Nafcillin, oxacillin, cloxacillin , dicloxacillin

90% bound

Metabolism and excretion Not metabolized in human

Excreted mostly unchanged in urine(except. oxacillin, cloxacillin, dicloxacillin)

Probenecid blocks their secretion Half-life 30-60 min (increased in renal failure)

Cephalosporins (bactericidal)

• Acremonium chrysogenum

 7- aminocephalosporanic acid cefem





- First generation cephalosporins
- Second generation cephalosporins
- Third generation cephalosporins
- Fourth generation cephalosporins
- Fifth generation cephalosporins

- First generation cephalosporins are largely effective against the same gram-positive organisms affected by penicillin.
- Second generation cephalosporins are effective against those strains as well as H. influenza, Entreobacter aerogenes and Nesseria sp. These drugs are less effective against gram positive bacteria

- Third generation cephlosporins- are relatively weak against gram-positive bacteria but more potent against gramnegative bacteria, to include Serratia marcescens.
- Fourth generation cephalosporins- are developed to fight against the resistant gram-negative bacteria (G+ are also sensitive). The first drug is cefepime.

 Fifth generation cephalosporins - broadspectrum activity against G+ and Gorganisms; against MDR G+ (e.g. MRSA, VRSA); ceftaroline

Cephalosporins - I. generation

cephazolin cephalotin



- cephalexin
- cephadroxil



- good GI absorption
- higher levels & activity (parent.)
- renal elimination of active substance
- allergies, flebitis, blood cell formation

Cephalosporins - I. generation

Sensitivity:

- high effectiveness G⁺ cocci
 - resistance to
 - β-lactamases of staphylococci

Resistance:

- G⁻ bacteries
- weak resistance to β-lactamases of gram - bacteries





Cephalosporins - II. generation

- cefuroxim
- cephamandol



- current G– infections with good sensitivity
- renal elimination 85-95%
 (50% in cefuroxim-axetil)
- risk of bleeding; disulfiram-like reactions (cephamandol)

- cefuroxim-axetil
- cephaclor



Cephalosporins - II. generation

Sensitivity:

- high effectiveness G⁺ cocci
- good effectiveness some G⁻ bacteries

Resistance:

- Proteus vulgaris
- Providencia spp.
 - Serratia spp.





Cephalosporins - III. generation

- cephotaxim
- cephtrizoxim
- cephtriaxom
- cephtazidine



- cephixim
- cephtibutem
- cephetametpivoxil



- rare G⁻ infections
- mixed G⁻ & G⁺
- G⁻ meningitis
- severe pseudomonas infections
- severe *Haemophilus inf.* infections
- renal elimination in dependence on substance
- pseudomembranous colitis, bleeding, allergy

Cephalosporins - III. generation

Sensitivity:

- lower effectiveness:
 - G⁺ cocci
 - the highest
 effectiveness G⁻
 bacteries
 - majority of pseudomonas

Resistance:

- Klebsiella
 pneumoniae
 (produces
 cephotaximases)
- some E.coli, Proteus mirabilis, Salmonella Spp. (chromosome encoding β-lactamases)





Cephalosporins - IV. generation



- cefpirom
- cefepim

- high effectiveness
 G+ & G
 - **bacteries**
- Pseudomonas aer.
- enterobacter spp.
 & citrobacter spp.
 resist. to III. gen.



Cephalosporins - V. generation

Ceftaroline - approved for the treatment of: community-acquired pneumonia (CAP) acute bacterial skin and skin structure infections caused by susceptible G- and G+ bacteria, including (MRSA).

It is the first "5th-generation cephalosporin" and has a broader G+ spectrum of activity than all other cephalosporins due to its activity against MRSA

Therapeutic uses of CFS

- 1. Upper respiratory tract infections and otitis media cefaclor, cefuroxime axetil cefixime, cefprozil
- 2. Septicaemia caused by Gbacteria (P.aeruginosae)
- A cephalosporin(eg. ceftazidime) + AG
- 3. Urinary tract infections Cefuroxime, Cefixime

- 4. Prophlaxis in surgery Appendectomy (bowel anaerobes) eg. Cefoxitin Obstetrical &gynecological, urological, orthopedic procedures, etc
 (S. aureus & S. epidermidis) eg. Cefazoline
- 5. Meningitis- N. Meningitidis Ceftriaxone Cefotaxime(pref. in neonate)
- 6. Gonococcal infections Ceftriaxone

Adverse effects

- 1. Hypersensitivity reactions- most common Anaphylaxis, bronchspasm, urticaria Maculopapular rash- more common
- 2. Nephrotoxicity ; esp. cephradine
- 3. Thrombophlebitis (i.v admin.)
- 4. Superinfections
- 5. Diarrhea-oral cephalosporins, cefoperazone, ceftriaxone & moxalactam.
- 6. cefamandole, moxalactam & cefoperazone may cause:
 - a) bleeding disorders
 - b) Flushing, tachycardia, vomiting with alcohol intake

CFS - bleeding

The second-generation cephalosporinscefamandole, cefotetan, and cefoperazone, contain an N-methylthiotetrazole (NMTT) side chain.

□ NMTT group can:

❑ dissociate from the parent antibiotic and competitively inhibit vitamin K action ⇒ prolongation of the prothrombin time and bleeding

NMTT is also associated with a disulfiram-like reaction to alcohol

clinical bleeding has been less frequently reported with cefotetan than with cefoperazone or cefamandole



Careers : Become a Microbiologist.