Thyroid and Antithyroid Drugs

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Reference

Basic & Clinical Pharmacology
BG Katzung, SB Masters, AJ Trevor
McGraw Hill LANGE
12th edition pp 681-694, or 13th edition pp 663-677

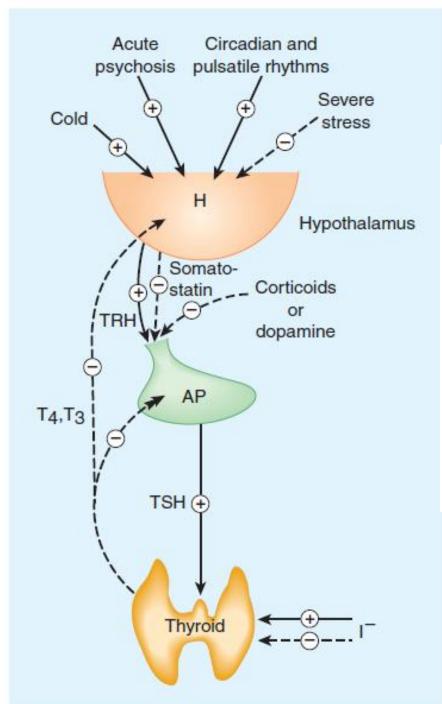


FIGURE 38–3 The hypothalamic-pituitary-thyroid axis. Acute psychosis or prolonged exposure to cold may activate the axis. Hypothalamic thyroid-releasing hormone (TRH) stimulates pituitary thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) release, while somatostatin and dopamine inhibit it. TSH stimulates T₄ and T₃ synthesis and release from the thyroid, and they in turn inhibit both TRH and TSH synthesis and release. Small amounts of iodide are necessary for hormone production, but large amounts inhibit T₃ and T₄ production and release. Solid arrows, stimulatory influence; dashed arrows, inhibitory influence. H, hypothalamus; AP, anterior pituitary.

- Normalize growth and development, body temperature, and energy levels.
- Used as thyroid replacement therapy in hypothyroidism.
- Thyroxine (T₄) is peripherally metabolized to triiodothyronine (T₃) by deiodination (5'deiodinase).

Inhibitors of 5'-deiodinase:

- 1. Amiodarone
- 2. Iodinated contrast media
- 3. Propylthiouracil
- 4. β-Adrenergic blockers
- 5. Corticosteroids
- 6. Severe illness
- 7. Starvation

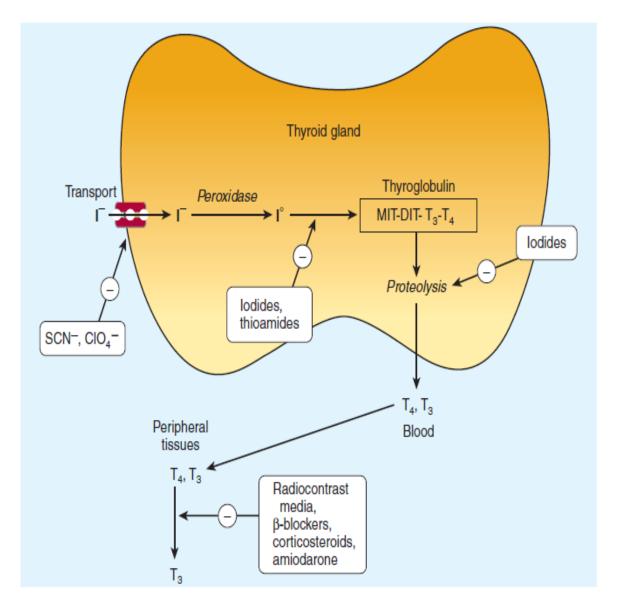


FIGURE 38–1 Biosynthesis of thyroid hormones. The sites of action of various drugs that interfere with thyroid hormone biosynthesis are shown.

Pharmacokinetics:

- Absorption occurs mainly in the duodenum and ileum.
- Absorption is modified by food, drugs, gastric acidity and intestinal flora.
- Absorption is reduced by cholestyramine, ciprofloxacin and aluminum hydroxide..

TABLE 38-3 Drug effects and thyroid function.

Drug Effect	Drugs		
Change in thyroid hormone synthesis			
Inhibition of TRH or TSH secretion without induction of hypothyroidism or hyperthyroidism	Dopamine, bromocriptine, levodopa, corticosteroids, somatostatin, metformin		
Inhibition of thyroid hormone synthesis or release with the induction of hypothyroidism (or occasionally hyperthyroidism)	lodides (including amiodarone), lithium, aminoglutethimide, thioamides, ethionamide, tyrosine kinase inhibitors (eg, sunitinib, sorafenib, imatinib), HIV protease inhibitors		
Alteration of thyroid hormone transport and serum total T ₃ and T ₄ levels, but usually no modification of FT ₄ or TSH			
Increased TBG	Estrogens, tamoxifen, heroin, methadone, mitotane, fluorouracil		
Decreased TBG	Androgens, glucocorticoids		
Displacement of T_3 and T_4 from TBG with transient hyperthyroxinemia	Salicylates, fenclofenac, mefenamic acid, furosemide		
Alteration of T_4 and T_3 metabolism with modified serum T_3 and T_4 levels but not TSH levels (unless receiving thyroxine replacement therapy)			
Increased hepatic metabolism, enhanced degradation of thyroid hormone	Nicardipine, bexarotene, phenytoin, carbamazepine, phenobarbital, rifampin, rifabutin, tyrosine kinase inhibitors (eg, sunitinib, sorafenib, imatinib)		
Inhibition of 5'-deiodinase with decreased T_3 , increased rT_3	lopanoic acid, ipodate, amiodarone, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ blockers, corticosteroids, propylthiouracil, flavonoids		
Other interactions			
Interference with T ₄ absorption	Cholestyramine, chromium picolinate, colestipol, ciprofloxacin, proton pump inhibitors, sucralfate, sodium polystyrene sulfonate, raloxifene, sevelamer hydrochloride, aluminum hydroxide, ferrous sulfate, calcium carbonate, bran, soy, coffee		
Induction of autoimmune thyroid disease with hypothyroidism or hyperthyroidism	Interferon- α , interleukin-2, interferon- β , lithium, amiodarone, tyrosine kinase inhibitors (eg, sunitinib, sorafenib, imatinib)		
Effect of thyroid function on drug effects			
Anticoagulation	Lower doses of warfarin required in hyperthyroidism, higher doses in hypothyroidism		
Glucose control	Increased hepatic glucose production and glucose intolerance in hyperthyroidism; impaired insulin action and glucose disposal in hypothyroidism		
Cardiac drugs	Higher doses of digoxin required in hyperthyroidism; lower doses in hypothyroidism		
Sedatives; analgesics	Increased sedative and respiratory depressant effects from sedatives and opioids in hypothyroidism; converse in hyperthyroidism		

- Absorption is reduced in severe hypothyroidism (myxedema with ileus) → switch from oral to pareneteral therapy.
- Clearance is increased and half life is decreased in hyperthyroidism, and the opposite is true in hypothyroidism.
- Bound in the plasma by thyroid binding globulin (TBG).

- Hepatic metabolism is increased by inducers of hepatic microsomal enzymes: Rifampin, Phenobarbital, phenytoin, carbamazepine, tyrosine kinase inhibitors (imatinib), HIV protease inhibitors.
- In this case, normal hormone concentration is maintained in euthyroid patients due to compensatory hyperfunction of the thyroid gland, but patients on thyroid replacement therapy require higher doses.

- A similar compensation occurs if binding sites are altered:
- If TBG sites are increased by pregnancy, estrogens, or oral contraceptives, there is an initial shift of hormone from the free to the bound state and a decrease in its rate of elimination until the normal free hormone concentration is restored.

- Thus, the concentration of total and bound hormone will increase, but the concentration of free hormone and the steady-state elimination will remain normal.
- The reverse occurs when thyroid binding sites are decreased.

TABLE 38–1 Summary of thyroid hormone kinetics.

Variable	T ₄	T ₃
Volume of distribution	10 L	40 L
Extrathyroidal pool	800 mcg	54 mcg
Daily production	75 mcg	25 mcg
Fractional turnover per day	10%	60%
Metabolic clearance per day	1.1 L	24 L
Half-life (biologic)	7 days	1 day
Serum levels		
Total	4.8–10.4 mcg/dL	60-181 ng/dL
	(62–134 nmol/L)	(0.92–2.79 nmol/L)
Free	0.8–2.7 ng/dL	230-420 pg/dL
	(10.3-34.7 pmol/L)	(3.5–6.47 pmol/L)
Amount bound	99.96%	99.6%
Biologic potency	1	4
Oral absorption	80%	95%

70% 13

Mechanism of Action:

- The free forms of thyroid hormones, T₄ and T₃, dissociate from thyroid-binding proteins, enter the cell by the active transporters.
- Within the cell T₄ is converted to T₃ by 5'-deiodinase.
- T₃ enters the nucleus where it binds to a specific T₃ receptor protein.
- The T_3 receptor exists in two forms, α and β .

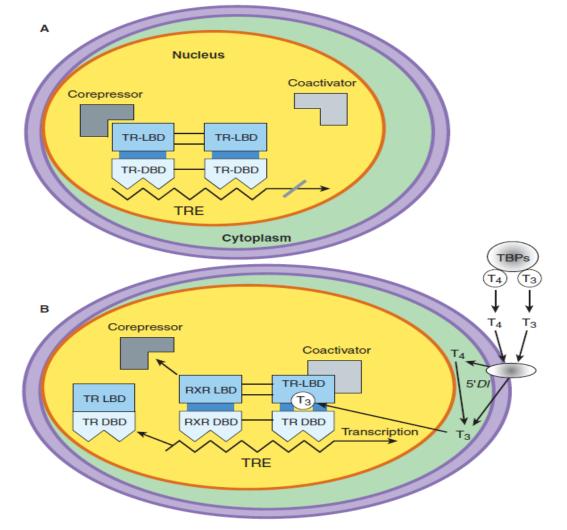


FIGURE 38–4 Model of the interaction of T₃ with the T₃ receptor. **A:** *Inactive phase*—the unliganded T₃ receptor dimer bound to the thyroid hormone response element (TRE) along with corepressors acts as a suppressor of gene transcription. **B:** *Active phase*—T₃ and T₄ circulate bound to thyroid-binding proteins (TBPs). The free hormones are transported into the cell by a specific transport system. Within the cytoplasm, T₄ is converted to T₃ by 5'-deiodinase (5'DI); T₃ then moves into the nucleus. There it binds to the ligand-binding domain of the thyroid receptor (TR) monomer. This promotes disruption of the TR homodimer and heterodimerization with retinoid X receptor (RXR) on the TRE, displacement of corepressors, and binding of coactivators. The TR-coactivator complex activates gene transcription, which leads to alteration in protein synthesis and cellular phenotype. TR-LBD, T₃ receptor ligand-binding domain; TR-DBD, T₃ receptor DNA-binding domain; RXR-LBD, retinoid X receptor ligand-binding domain; RXR-DBD, retinoid X receptor DNA-binding domain; T₄, tetraiodothyronine, L-thyroxine. (Modified and reproduced, with permission, from Gardner DG, Shoback D [editors]: *Greenspan's Basic & Clinical Endocrinology*, 8th ed. McGraw-Hill, 2007.)

- Activation of nuclear receptor leads to increased formation of mRNA and subsequent protein synthesis (delay in onset of action hours-days).
- Affinity of the receptor for T₄ is about 10 times lower than T_{3.}
- The number of nuclear receptors may be altered to preserve body homeostasis.

- Starvation lowers both circulating T₃ hormone and cellular T₃ receptors.
- T₄ & T₃ are available for replacement therapy as levothyroxine and liothyronine, respectively.
- T₃ is not recommended for routine replacement therapy because of its shorter half-life (24 hours), requiring multiple daily doses, and difficulty in its monitoring by conventional laboratory tests. It is also more cardiotoxic.

 Synthetic levothyroxine is the preparation of choice for thyroid replacement and suppression therapy because of its stability, content uniformity, low cost, lack of allergenic foreign protein, easy laboratory measurement of serum levels, and long halflife (7 days), which permits once-daily to weekly administration.

Antithyroid Drugs

 Agents which reduce hyperactive thyroid activity interfere with the production of thyroid hormones, or modify the tissue response to thyroid hormones, or cause glandular destruction with radiation or surgery.

Antithyroid Drugs

1. Thionamides

Propylthiouracil (PTU)

Methimazole

Carbimazole \rightarrow methimazole

- 2. lodides.
- 3. Radioactive iodine
- 4. Iodinated Contrast Media
- 5. β-Adrenergic Blockers

- Are major drugs for treatment of hyperthyroidism
- Methimazole is ~ 10x more potent than propylthiouracil and is the drug of choice in adults and children.
- Propylthiouracil should be reserved for use during the first trimester of pregnancy, in thyroid storm, and in those experiencing adverse reactions to methimazole (other than agranulocytosis or hepatitis).

Pharmacokinetics:

- Bioavailability of methimazole is better than PTU.
- Both accumulate in thyroid gland
- Vd ~ total body water.
- PTU is excreted by the kidney as inactive glucuronide.
- Methimazole is excreted by the kidney slowly.

- t½:
 - PTU 1.5 hours → given every 6-8 hours Methimazole 6 hours → given once daily
- Both can cross placenta and accumulate in fetal thyroid and cause hypothyroidism, but PTU less readily so because of high protein binding.
- Not secreted in sufficient quantity in breast milk to preclude breast feeding.

Pharmacodynamics:

- 1. Prevention of thyroid hormone synthesis by inhibiting thyroid peroxidase and blockade of iodine organification.
- 2. Block coupling of iodotyrosines.
- 3. PTU also blocks the peripheral conversion of T_4 into T_3 by 5'-deiodinase.
- The effect is slow requiring 3-4 weeks before stores of T₄ are depleted.

Adverse Effects:

Occur in 3-12% of patients.

- 1. Most reactions occur early, especially nausea and gastrointestinal distress.
- 2. Altered sense of taste or smell may occur with methimazole.
- 3. Maculopapular pruritic rash with or without fever most common (4-6%).

- 4. Rare adverse effects include an urticarial rash, vasculitis, a lupus-like reaction, lymphadenopathy, hypoprothrombinemia, exfoliative dermatitis, polyserositis, and acute arthralgia.
- 5. Severe may be fatal hepatitis reported with propylthiouracil, so it should be avoided in children and adults
- 6. Cholestatic jaundice is more common with methimazole than propylthiouracil.

- 7. Agranulocytosis (< 500 cells/mm³) most dangerous:
- Infrequent (0.1 0.5 % of patients) but potentially fatal, but rapidly Reversible.
- More frequent in the elderly and at doses more than 40 mg.
- G-CSF may speed recovery of granulocytes.
- Cross-sensitivity between PTU and methimazole is ~ 50%

lodides

- At pharmacological doses (> 6 mg/day), the major action is inhibition of organification and thyroid hormone release, possibly by inhibition of thyroglobulin proteolysis -> rapid improvement in 2-7 days.
- Reduces vascularity, size, fragility of the hyperplastic thyroid glands

 useful for preoperative preparation for surgery.

lodides

Disadvantages:

- 1. Increased intraglandular stores of iodine:
 - A. Delay the onset of thionamide therapy.
 - B. Prevent use of radioactive iodine therapy for several weeks.
- Should be initiated after onset of thionamide therapy.
- Should be avoided if treatment with ¹³¹I is planned.

Iodides

- 2. Should not be used alone for treatment of hyperthyroidism, because the gland will escape from iodine block in 2-8 weeks.
- 3. Its withdrawal may precipitate thyrotoxicosis because the gland is iodine- enriched.
- 4. Should be avoided during pregnancy, because it may produce fetal goiter and hypo- or hyperthyroidism.

Iodides

Toxicity:

• Iodism: uncommon, reversible:

Acneiform rash, swollen salivary glands, mucus membrane ulceration, conjunctivitis, rhinorrhea, drug fever, metallic taste, bleeding, anaphylactoid reactions.

Radioactive Iodine (131)

- Administered orally as Na¹³¹I solution.
- Rapidly absorbed, concentrated by the thyroid gland and incorporated into storage follicles.
- Its effect is due to emission of β -rays (t½ ~ 5 days, penetration 400-2000 μ m).
- The thyroid parenchyma is destroyed within 6-12 weeks.

Radioactive Iodine (131)

Advantages:

- 1. Easy administration
- 2. Effectiveness
- 3. Low expense
- 4. Painless

Radioactive Iodine (131)

Disadvantages:

- 1. Major complication is hypothyroidism (80% of patients) which requires T₄ replacement.
- 2. Fears of radiation-induced genetic damage, leukemia and neoplasia which made some clinics to restrict its use for patients < 40 years of age. (No evidence over 50 years of use).
- 3. Should not be administered to pregnant women or nursing mothers.

Iodinated Contrast Media

Ipodate and Iopanoic acid \rightarrow PO
Diatrizoate \rightarrow PO, Iohexol \rightarrow PO & IV

- Provide useful adjunctive therapy in the treatment of thyroid storm.
- Valuable alternatives when iodides or thionamides are contraindicated.
- Relatively nontoxic, toxicity is similar to iodides.

Iodinated Contrast Media

- Rapidly inhibit the conversion of T_4 into $T_3 \rightarrow$ within 3 days they decrease heart rate and normalize T_3 .
- Also inhibit hormone release.
- Safety in pregnancy is undocumented.

β-Adrenergic Blockers

- Those <u>without</u> intrinsic sympathomimetic activity such as propranolol.
- Many manifestations of thyrotoxicosis are due to hyperactivity of the sympathetic nervous system, which may be due to increased number of β-adrenergic receptors or amplification of β-adrenergic receptor signal (cAMP).
- Do not typically alter thyroid hormone levels.

β-Adrenergic Blockers

- They also inhibit 5'-deiodinase which converts T₄ into T₃.
- Control tachycardia, hypertension and atrial fibrillation associated with hyperthyroidism.
- In patients with bronchial asthma or when βadrenergic blockers are contraindicated, diltiazem is an alternative.