

Chapter-18

Immunopharmacology

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ABSTRACT

Immunopharmacology, the study of drugs that influence the immune system, is a critical field in both understanding and manipulating immune responses for therapeutic benefit. This branch of pharmacology encompasses a wide range of substances, including immunosuppressants, immunostimulants, and immunomodulators, each playing a pivotal role in treating various diseases. Immunosuppressants, such as corticosteroids, calcineurin inhibitors, and monoclonal antibodies, are essential in preventing organ transplant rejection and treating autoimmune diseases by dampening overactive immune responses. On the other hand, immunostimulants like vaccines and adjuvants boost the immune system's ability to fight infections and certain cancers by enhancing antigen-specific responses. The advent of biologics, such as monoclonal antibodies and cytokine inhibitors, has revolutionized the treatment of autoimmune diseases, providing targeted approaches that minimize broad immunosuppression. For example, drugs like infliximab and etanercept inhibit tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α), a key cytokine in inflammatory processes, offering significant relief in conditions like rheumatoid arthritis and Crohn's disease. Additionally, checkpoint inhibitors, a class of immunomodulatory drugs, have shown remarkable success in oncology by unleashing the immune system to target cancer cells more effectively. Agents like pembrolizumab and nivolumab block inhibitory pathways, such as PD-1/PD-L1, enhancing T-cell activity against tumors. Immunopharmacology also addresses the challenge of balancing efficacy and safety. Immunosuppressive therapies, while crucial for preventing transplant rejection, can increase susceptibility to infections and malignancies. Similarly, immunostimulatory therapies must be carefully managed to avoid triggering excessive inflammation or autoimmunity. Advances in precision medicine and biomarker research are enabling more personalized approaches, tailoring immunotherapies to individual patient profiles for optimized outcomes. The integration of immunopharmacology with other fields, such as genomics and bioinformatics, continues to drive innovation, paving the way for new treatments that harness the power of the immune system with unprecedented specificity and control.

Introduction

Immunopharmacology is the scientific discipline focused on the study of drugs that modulate the immune system's function. This field is critical for understanding how various pharmacological agents can enhance or suppress immune responses to treat a wide array of diseases. By investigating the interactions between the immune system and therapeutic agents, immunopharmacology provides insights into the mechanisms of action, efficacy, and

potential adverse effects of these drugs. It encompasses a diverse range of substances, including immunosuppressants, which are used to prevent transplant rejection and treat autoimmune disorders; immunostimulants, which boost the immune system to fight infections and cancers; and immunomodulators, which adjust the immune response to achieve a desired therapeutic outcome. The advancements in immunopharmacology have led to significant breakthroughs in medicine, particularly in the areas of oncology, infectious diseases, and chronic inflammatory conditions. As our understanding of the immune system deepens, the field of immunopharmacology continues to evolve, driving the development of innovative treatments that harness the power of the immune system with greater precision and effectiveness.

Immunostimulants

Introduction to Immunostimulants

Immunostimulants are a class of drugs designed to enhance or stimulate the body's immune response. These agents are particularly valuable in conditions where the immune system is weakened or requires a boost to combat infections, cancer, or other diseases. Immunostimulants work by activating or increasing the activity of immune cells, enhancing the body's natural defense mechanisms. They play a crucial role in prophylactic and therapeutic settings, including vaccination, cancer immunotherapy, and treatment of chronic infections. By understanding the mechanisms and applications of immunostimulants, healthcare providers can better utilize these agents to improve patient outcomes in various clinical scenarios.

Classification of Immunostimulants

Immunostimulants can be broadly classified into the following categories:

1. Vaccines

- **Examples:** Hepatitis B vaccine, Influenza vaccine
- **Function:** Stimulate the immune system to produce a specific response against pathogens, providing immunity and preventing disease.

2. Cytokines

- **Examples:** Interferons (IFNs), Interleukins (IL-2)
- **Function:** Enhance the immune response by promoting the activity of immune cells such as T-cells, NK cells, and macrophages.

3. Adjuvants

- **Examples:** Alum, Monophosphoryl lipid A
- **Function:** Enhance the body's immune response to an antigen, often used in combination with vaccines to improve efficacy.

4. Colony-Stimulating Factors (CSFs)

- **Examples:** Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF), Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF)

- **Function:** Stimulate the production and differentiation of bone marrow progenitor cells into mature blood cells.

5. Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors

- **Examples:** Pembrolizumab, Nivolumab
- **Function:** Block inhibitory pathways in immune cells, enhancing the immune system's ability to fight cancer.

6. Bacterial Derivatives

- **Examples:** Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG)
- **Function:** Stimulate the immune system through the activation of macrophages and other immune cells, often used in cancer immunotherapy.

Pharmacology of Immunostimulants

Vaccines

- **Mechanism of Action:** Vaccines introduce an antigen (inactivated or attenuated pathogen, or subunit) to the body, prompting the immune system to produce specific antibodies and memory cells that provide long-term immunity.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Usually administered via intramuscular, subcutaneous, or oral routes.
 - **Distribution:** Distributed throughout the body, primarily affecting lymphoid tissues.
 - **Metabolism:** Not applicable; vaccines act by eliciting an immune response.
 - **Excretion:** The antigen is processed and eliminated by the immune system.
- **Adverse Effects:** Local site reactions (redness, swelling), fever, fatigue, allergic reactions (rare).
- **Uses:** Prevention of infectious diseases (e.g., measles, mumps, rubella, influenza).

Cytokines

- **Mechanism of Action:** Cytokines are signaling proteins that modulate immune cell activity. Interferons enhance antiviral responses, while interleukins stimulate T-cell proliferation and activation.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Administered intravenously or subcutaneously.
 - **Distribution:** Widely distributed, particularly in immune tissues.
 - **Metabolism:** Rapidly metabolized in the liver and kidneys.
 - **Excretion:** Primarily renal excretion.
- **Adverse Effects:** Flu-like symptoms (fever, chills, fatigue), myalgia, hypotension, hepatotoxicity.

- **Uses:** Treatment of chronic viral infections (e.g., hepatitis B and C), cancer therapy (e.g., melanoma, renal cell carcinoma).

Adjuvants

- **Mechanism of Action:** Adjuvants enhance the immune response to an antigen by activating innate immune receptors and promoting antigen presentation.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Co-administered with vaccines.
 - **Distribution:** Localized at the injection site, with some systemic distribution.
 - **Metabolism:** Not metabolized; act locally to enhance immune response.
 - **Excretion:** Biodegradable components are phagocytosed and eliminated.
- **Adverse Effects:** Local inflammation, mild systemic reactions.
- **Uses:** Boosting efficacy of vaccines.

Colony-Stimulating Factors (CSFs)

- **Mechanism of Action:** CSFs stimulate the proliferation and differentiation of hematopoietic progenitor cells into mature leukocytes, enhancing the immune response and aiding recovery after chemotherapy-induced myelosuppression.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Administered subcutaneously or intravenously.
 - **Distribution:** Distributed to bone marrow and other tissues.
 - **Metabolism:** Rapidly cleared by the liver and kidneys.
 - **Excretion:** Renal excretion.
- **Adverse Effects:** Bone pain, fever, fatigue, injection site reactions.
- **Uses:** Management of neutropenia in cancer patients, bone marrow transplantation.

Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors

- **Mechanism of Action:** These drugs block inhibitory receptors (e.g., PD-1, CTLA-4) on T-cells, enhancing T-cell activity against cancer cells.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Administered intravenously.
 - **Distribution:** Wide distribution in the body.
 - **Metabolism:** Degraded by proteolytic enzymes.
 - **Excretion:** Not fully characterized; eliminated via natural protein degradation pathways.
- **Adverse Effects:** Immune-related adverse events (colitis, dermatitis, hepatitis, endocrinopathies).
- **Uses:** Treatment of various cancers, including melanoma, non-small cell lung cancer, renal cell carcinoma.

Bacterial Derivatives

- **Mechanism of Action:** BCG and similar agents activate macrophages and other immune cells, leading to a heightened immune response against cancer cells.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Administered intravesically (for bladder cancer) or intradermally.
 - **Distribution:** Localized at the site of administration.
 - **Metabolism:** Not metabolized; act locally to stimulate immune cells.
 - **Excretion:** Phagocytosed and eliminated by immune cells.
- **Adverse Effects:** Local inflammation, fever, allergic reactions.
- **Uses:** Immunotherapy for bladder cancer, potential use in other malignancies and infectious diseases.

Immunosuppressant

Introduction to Immunosuppressant Drugs

Immunosuppressant drugs are essential in medicine for their ability to suppress or modulate the immune system. They are widely used to prevent rejection of transplanted organs and tissues, manage autoimmune diseases, and treat conditions where an overactive immune response causes harm. By dampening immune activity, these drugs help reduce inflammation, control autoimmune reactions, and improve the success of organ transplantation. Understanding their classification and pharmacology is crucial for optimizing their therapeutic benefits while managing potential risks and side effects.

Classification of Immunosuppressant Drugs

Immunosuppressants can be classified into several categories based on their mechanism of action:

1. Calcineurin Inhibitors

- **Examples:** Cyclosporine, Tacrolimus
- **Mechanism:** Inhibit calcineurin, a phosphatase necessary for T-cell activation and cytokine production.
- **Uses:** Prevention of organ transplant rejection, treatment of autoimmune diseases like rheumatoid arthritis and psoriasis.

2. Antimetabolites

- **Examples:** Azathioprine, Methotrexate
- **Mechanism:** Interfere with DNA synthesis and cell proliferation, particularly in rapidly dividing immune cells.
- **Uses:** Maintenance therapy post-transplantation, treatment of autoimmune disorders such as systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE).

3. Corticosteroids

- **Examples:** Prednisone, Prednisolone
- **Mechanism:** Act on multiple pathways to suppress inflammation and immune responses.
- **Uses:** Broad spectrum in autoimmune diseases, acute transplant rejection, and as adjunctive therapy in many conditions.

4. Biological Agents (Monoclonal Antibodies)

- **Examples:** Rituximab, Basiliximab
- **Mechanism:** Target specific immune cells or molecules involved in immune activation or modulation.
- **Uses:** Targeted therapy in autoimmune diseases and prevention of rejection in transplant recipients.

5. mTOR Inhibitors

- **Examples:** Sirolimus, Everolimus
- **Mechanism:** Inhibit the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), reducing T-cell proliferation and cytokine production.
- **Uses:** Used in combination with other immunosuppressants in organ transplantation and some autoimmune diseases.

Pharmacology of Immunosuppressant Drugs

Calcineurin Inhibitors (Cyclosporine, Tacrolimus)

- **Mechanism of Action:** Inhibit calcineurin, blocking the transcription of interleukin-2 (IL-2) and other cytokines essential for T-cell activation.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Oral administration; variable bioavailability.
 - **Distribution:** Widely distributed, with significant tissue penetration.
 - **Metabolism:** Hepatic metabolism (CYP3A4 enzymes).
 - **Excretion:** Primarily biliary and renal excretion.
- **Adverse Effects:** Nephrotoxicity, hypertension, hyperglycemia, neurotoxicity.

Antimetabolites (Azathioprine, Methotrexate)

- **Mechanism of Action:** Azathioprine is metabolized into active metabolites that interfere with purine synthesis, inhibiting lymphocyte proliferation. Methotrexate inhibits dihydrofolate reductase, reducing DNA and RNA synthesis.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Oral administration; variable bioavailability.
 - **Distribution:** Wide tissue distribution.

- **Metabolism:** Hepatic metabolism.
- **Excretion:** Renal excretion.
- **Adverse Effects:** Bone marrow suppression, hepatotoxicity, gastrointestinal disturbances.

Corticosteroids (Prednisone, Prednisolone)

- **Mechanism of Action:** Bind to glucocorticoid receptors, modifying gene expression and inhibiting inflammatory pathways.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Oral administration; rapid and complete absorption.
 - **Distribution:** Wide tissue distribution, including the brain.
 - **Metabolism:** Hepatic metabolism.
 - **Excretion:** Renal excretion.
- **Adverse Effects:** Immunodeficiency, osteoporosis, hypertension, hyperglycemia, mood changes.

Biological Agents (Rituximab, Basiliximab)

- **Mechanism of Action:** Rituximab targets CD20 antigen on B-cells, depleting them. Basiliximab binds to IL-2 receptor, inhibiting T-cell activation.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Administered intravenously.
 - **Distribution:** Varies by agent; distributed to tissues.
 - **Metabolism:** Metabolized by proteolytic enzymes.
 - **Excretion:** Metabolites excreted via renal and hepatic pathways.
- **Adverse Effects:** Infusion reactions, increased risk of infections, immunosuppression-related malignancies.

mTOR Inhibitors (Sirolimus, Everolimus)

- **Mechanism of Action:** Inhibit mTOR pathway, blocking T-cell activation and proliferation in response to cytokines.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Oral administration; variable bioavailability.
 - **Distribution:** Extensive tissue distribution.
 - **Metabolism:** Hepatic metabolism.
 - **Excretion:** Renal excretion.
- **Adverse Effects:** Hyperlipidemia, thrombocytopenia, delayed wound healing.

Protein Drugs

Introduction to Protein Drugs

Protein drugs represent a class of pharmaceuticals derived from proteins or peptides that play crucial roles in regulating biological processes. These drugs are designed to mimic or augment natural protein functions in the body, offering targeted therapeutic effects for a wide range of diseases and conditions. Due to their specificity and biological activity, protein drugs have revolutionized treatment approaches, particularly in areas such as oncology, immunology, and endocrinology. Understanding their classification and pharmacology is essential for their effective utilization in clinical practice.

Classification of Protein Drugs

Protein drugs can be classified into several categories based on their structure and therapeutic targets:

1. Monoclonal Antibodies (mAbs)

- **Examples:** Rituximab, Trastuzumab, Infliximab
- **Function:** Target specific antigens or receptors on cells, modulating immune responses or inhibiting signaling pathways involved in disease progression.
- **Uses:** Treatment of cancer, autoimmune disorders, and inflammatory diseases.

2. Cytokines and Growth Factors

- **Examples:** Interferons (IFNs), Interleukins (ILs), Erythropoietin (EPO)
- **Function:** Regulate immune responses, cell growth, and differentiation.
- **Uses:** Immunotherapy, hematopoietic support, treatment of chronic diseases.

3. Enzyme Replacement Therapies (ERTs)

- **Examples:** Alglucosidase alfa, L-asparaginase
- **Function:** Replace deficient or absent enzymes in metabolic disorders, facilitating normal biochemical processes.
- **Uses:** Treatment of lysosomal storage disorders, enzyme deficiencies.

4. Hormones and Hormone Antagonists

- **Examples:** Insulin, Growth hormone, Gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) agonists
- **Function:** Regulate physiological processes such as metabolism, growth, and reproduction.
- **Uses:** Diabetes management, growth disorders, fertility treatments.

5. Fusion Proteins and Therapeutic Peptides

- **Examples:** Etanercept, Abatacept, GLP-1 agonists

- **Function:** Combine functional domains of different proteins to target specific disease pathways or receptors.
- **Uses:** Treatment of autoimmune diseases, diabetes, and metabolic disorders.

Pharmacology of Protein Drugs

Protein drugs exhibit distinct pharmacological characteristics compared to small molecule drugs:

- **Mechanism of Action:** Protein drugs typically exert their effects by binding to specific receptors or molecules, modulating biochemical pathways, or replacing deficient proteins/enzymes.
- **Pharmacokinetics**
 - **Absorption:** Administered via injection (intravenous, subcutaneous) due to poor oral bioavailability.
 - **Distribution:** Distribution varies depending on protein size, charge, and receptor binding.
 - **Metabolism:** Metabolized by proteolytic enzymes or cleared by the reticuloendothelial system.
 - **Excretion:** Excreted primarily via renal clearance or metabolism in the liver.
- **Adverse Effects:** Common adverse effects include immune reactions (e.g., infusion reactions for mAbs), hypersensitivity reactions, and potential immunogenicity leading to neutralizing antibodies.
- **Uses and Therapeutic Considerations:** Protein drugs are used for targeted therapy due to their specificity, often requiring careful dosing, monitoring of immune responses, and management of potential adverse effects. They are pivotal in personalized medicine approaches, tailoring treatment to individual patient profiles and disease characteristics.

Monoclonal Antibodies

Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are laboratory-produced molecules that are engineered to mimic the immune system's ability to fight off harmful pathogens, such as viruses or cancer cells. These antibodies are designed to recognize and bind to specific proteins, and they have become a crucial class of therapeutic agents in various medical fields. Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are a class of protein therapeutics produced from identical immune cells that are clones of a unique parent cell. These antibodies are designed to target specific antigens, receptors, or proteins in the body, offering precise therapeutic effects across a wide range of medical conditions. Here's an overview covering their development, mechanism of action, therapeutic applications, and challenges:

Development of Monoclonal Antibodies: Monoclonal antibodies are developed through hybridoma technology or recombinant DNA technology:

- **Hybridoma Technology:** Involves fusing a specific antibody-producing B cell with a myeloma cell to create immortalized hybrid cells that produce identical antibodies.

- **Recombinant DNA Technology:** Utilizes genetic engineering to produce monoclonal antibodies by inserting DNA sequences encoding the antibody into host cells such as mammalian cells or yeast.

Mechanism of Action: Monoclonal antibodies exert their therapeutic effects through several mechanisms:

- **Binding and Neutralization:** Bind to specific antigens or receptors on cells, blocking their function or neutralizing harmful effects.
- **Cellular Depletion:** Trigger immune responses to eliminate cells expressing the target antigen, such as cancer cells or pathogen-infected cells.
- **Signal Blockade:** Inhibit signaling pathways involved in disease progression, such as inflammatory cytokines or growth factor receptors.

Therapeutic Applications: Monoclonal antibodies have diverse therapeutic applications across various medical fields:

- **Cancer Treatment:** Target cancer-specific antigens (e.g., HER2 in breast cancer) or immune checkpoints (e.g., PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors) to enhance immune responses against tumors.
- **Autoimmune Diseases:** Suppress immune activity by targeting cytokines (e.g., TNF-alpha inhibitors for rheumatoid arthritis) or immune cells (e.g., B-cell depletion in multiple sclerosis).
- **Infectious Diseases:** Neutralize pathogens (e.g., SARS-CoV-2 antibodies for COVID-19) or enhance immune responses against viral infections.
- **Other Conditions:** Treatments for cardiovascular diseases, transplantation, and neurological disorders are also being explored.

Challenges and Considerations

- **Immunogenicity:** Some monoclonal antibodies may induce immune responses, leading to neutralizing antibodies that reduce efficacy over time.
- **Manufacturing Complexity:** Production requires advanced biotechnological processes, leading to high costs and potential supply chain challenges.
- **Administration Route:** Most monoclonal antibodies are administered via intravenous infusion or subcutaneous injection due to their large size and poor oral bioavailability.

Future Directions: Ongoing research focuses on improving monoclonal antibody therapies by:

- **Enhancing Specificity:** Developing antibodies with higher target specificity to minimize off-target effects.
- **Reducing Immunogenicity:** Engineering antibodies to reduce immunogenic responses and prolong therapeutic efficacy.
- **Expanding Applications:** Exploring new targets and combinations with other therapies to enhance treatment outcomes and patient responses.

Target Drugs to Antigen, Similar

Targeting drugs to specific antigens or antigens that are similar involves leveraging the specificity of monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) and other targeted therapies. Here's how drugs can be targeted to antigens or similar molecules:

1. Monoclonal Antibodies (mAbs)

- **Specific Binding:** mAbs are designed to bind to specific antigens on cells or soluble antigens in the bloodstream.
- **Therapeutic Applications:** Targeting cancer-specific antigens (e.g., HER2 in breast cancer, CD20 in lymphoma), immune checkpoint inhibitors (e.g., PD-1/PD-L1), and inflammatory cytokines (e.g., TNF-alpha).
- **Mechanism:** By binding to these targets, mAbs can block signaling pathways, induce cellular responses (e.g., antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity, ADCC), or deliver payloads (e.g., toxins, radioisotopes) directly to the antigen-expressing cells.

2. Antibody-Drug Conjugates (ADCs)

- **Design:** Combines a monoclonal antibody with a cytotoxic drug or payload.
- **Targeting:** The antibody component targets specific antigens on cancer cells, while the drug component delivers a cytotoxic payload directly to the target cells.
- **Examples:** Trastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1) targets HER2-positive breast cancer cells, delivering a cytotoxic agent.

3. Bispecific Antibodies

- **Structure:** Engineered to bind simultaneously to two different antigens or epitopes.
- **Applications:** Redirect T cells to target specific cells (e.g., CD19/CD3 bispecific antibodies in leukemia), or simultaneously block two different signaling pathways.

4. Vaccines

- **Antigen-Specific:** Stimulate the immune system to produce antibodies against specific antigens, providing immunity against infectious diseases (e.g., SARS-CoV-2 vaccines targeting the spike protein).

5. Small Molecule Drugs

- **Targeted Therapies:** Designed to inhibit specific molecules or pathways that are overactive in diseases, such as kinase inhibitors in cancer therapy targeting specific mutant kinases.

6. Peptide Therapeutics

- **Design:** Peptides can be designed to mimic antigenic epitopes or bind specifically to receptors on cells.
- **Applications:** Used in diagnostics (e.g., peptide-based imaging agents) or therapeutics (e.g., peptide hormones).

Targeting drugs to antigens or similar molecules enhances specificity and reduces off-target effects, leading to improved therapeutic outcomes and reduced toxicity compared to traditional treatments. This approach is central to precision medicine, where treatments are tailored to individual patient characteristics and disease profiles.