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B.PHARM SEMESTER I

Pharmaceutical Inorganic and Analytical Chemistry

(Course Code: BP106T)



UNIT IV

Gastrointestinal Agents and Radiopharmaceuticals

SHORT NOTES

Condensed Study Notes for Quick Revision (PCI Syllabus, NEP 2020)

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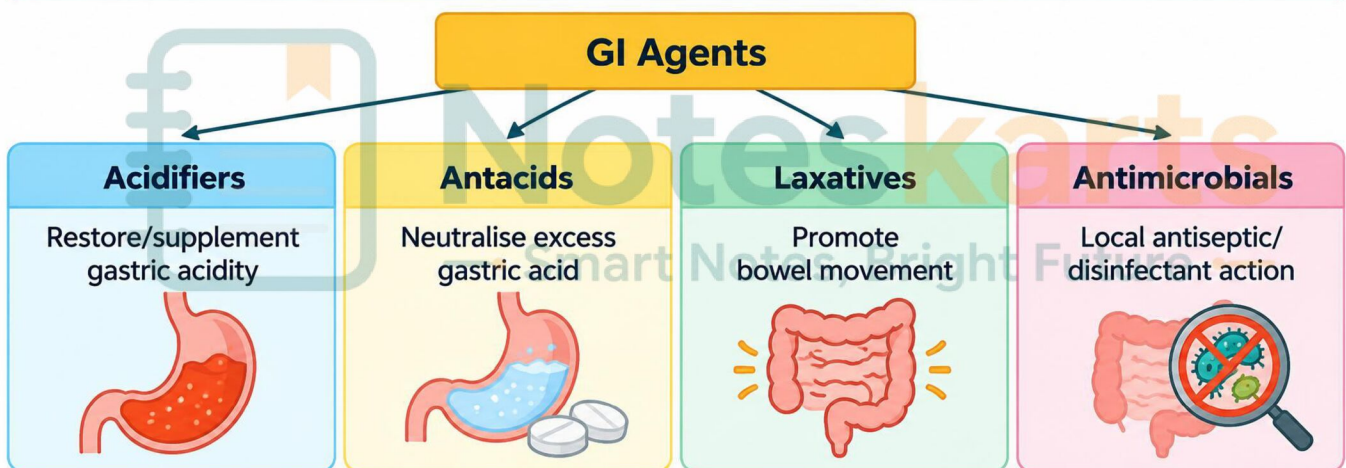
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Short notes for Unit IV, covering gastrointestinal agents and radiopharmaceuticals. Condensed bullets, tables and key diagrams for fast revision.

4.1 Gastrointestinal Agents

- Gastrointestinal (GI) agents are **pharmaceutical substances used to prevent, treat, or manage disorders of the gastrointestinal tract**, including the stomach and intestines.
- They are widely used to relieve symptoms such as **acidity, heartburn, indigestion, nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, constipation, and abdominal discomfort**.
- The gastrointestinal tract normally maintains a balance between **gastric acid, digestive enzymes, mucus, bicarbonate, intestinal secretions, and gastrointestinal motility**.
- Disturbance of this balance can lead to conditions such as **hyperacidity, peptic ulcer disease, gastro-oesophageal reflux disease (GERD), diarrhoea, and constipation**.
- Gastrointestinal agents act by restoring or modifying these physiological processes.

Classification of Gastrointestinal Agents

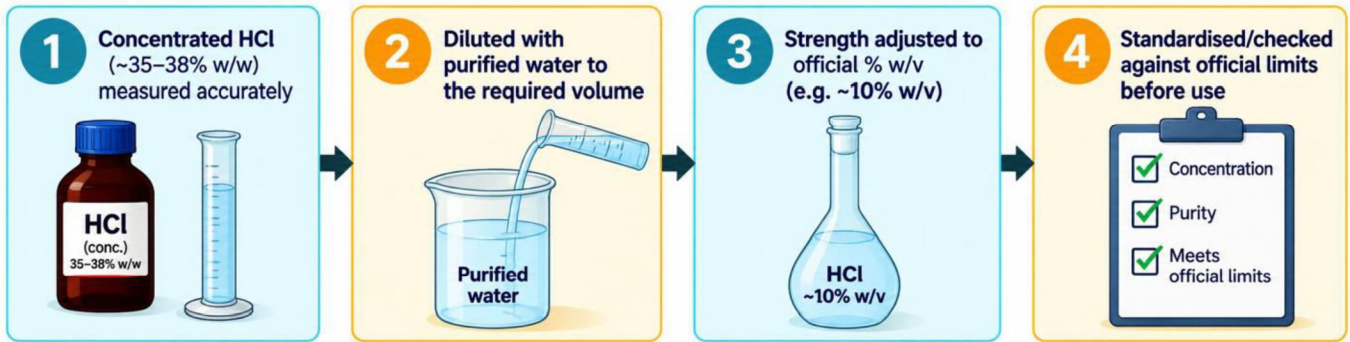


Classification of gastrointestinal agents

Acidifiers

- Sodium acid phosphate: urinary/mild gastric acidifier — enhances methenamine antiseptics, helps dissolve phosphate calculi.

Preparation of Dilute Hydrochloric Acid



Preparation of dilute hydrochloric acid

- Dilute HCl: gastric acidifier for achlorhydria — given diluted, via straw to protect teeth.

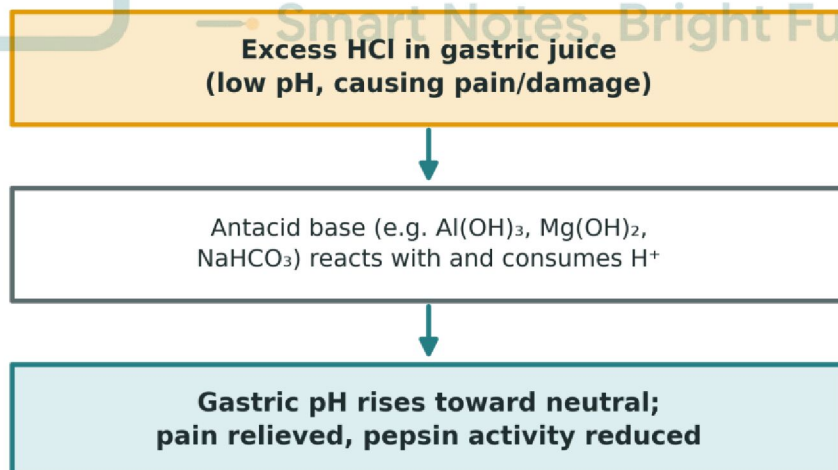
COMMON MISTAKE

Sipping dilute HCl undiluted or without a straw is a serious error — even at pharmacopoeial dilution, it is strongly erosive to dental enamel with repeated direct contact.

- Sodium acid phosphate is also used to enhance methenamine (hexamine) urinary antiseptics, which release formaldehyde only in acidic urine.

Antacids

How an Antacid Neutralises Gastric Acid



How an antacid relieves hyperacidity

Ideal Properties of an Antacid

Fast onset of action	Sustained duration of effect
High acid-neutralising capacity	Not systemically absorbed
No acid-rebound effect	Does not cause gas (CO ₂)
No laxative or constipating effect	Palatable and low cost

Ideal properties of an antacid

- Ideal properties: fast onset, sustained action, high ANC, non-systemic, no acid-rebound, no gas, no bowel effect, palatable.

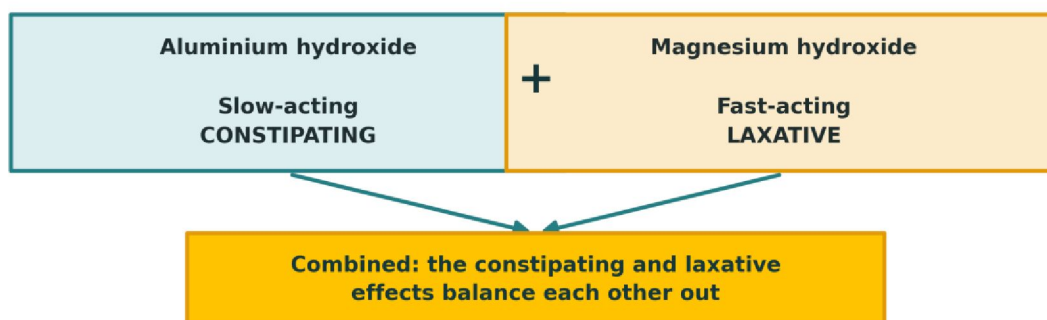
Agent	Type	Key Feature
Sodium bicarbonate	Systemic, fast	CO ₂ gas; risk of alkalosis, Na ⁺ overload
Aluminium hydroxide gel	Non-systemic, slow	Constipating; binds phosphate

ADVERSE EFFECTS

Sodium bicarbonate: systemic alkalosis with repeated use; significant sodium load (caution in hypertension, heart failure, renal impairment); gastric distension.

Aluminium hydroxide: constipation; also binds dietary phosphate (used deliberately in hyperphosphataemia); aluminium accumulation risk in renal impairment.

Why Antacids Are Combined



Why Al(OH)₃ and Mg(OH)₂ are combined

- Al(OH)₃ (constipating) + Mg(OH)₂ (laxative) combined — bowel effects cancel out.
- Calcium carbonate: fast but causes acid-rebound (stimulates gastrin release).

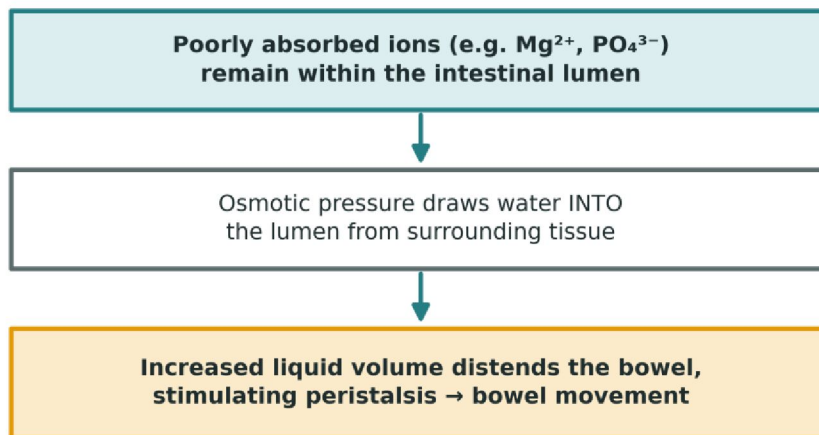
WORKED EXAMPLE — ACID-NEUTRALISING CAPACITY (ANC)

One antacid tablet added to 30 mL of 1 N HCl (excess). Back-titrated with 1 N NaOH, requiring 12 mL.

Total acid = 30 mEq; Unreacted acid = 12 mEq; Acid neutralised (ANC) = 30 – 12 = 18 mEq

Agents Promoting Bowel Movement (Saline Laxatives)

Mechanism of a Saline (Osmotic) Laxative



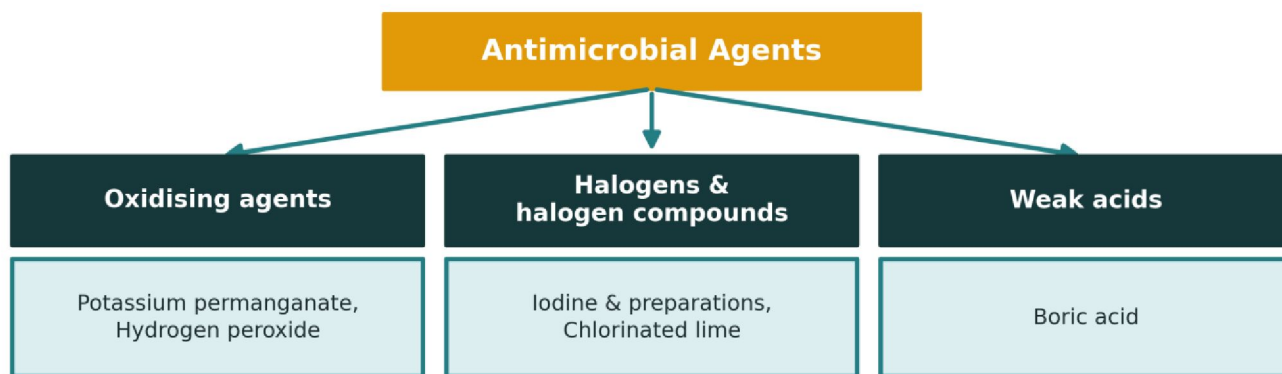
Mechanism of a saline (osmotic) laxative

- Mechanism: poorly absorbed ions (Mg^{2+} , PO_4^{3-}) osmotically draw water into the gut lumen → distension → peristalsis.
- Magnesium hydroxide: antacid (low dose) / laxative (high dose) — dose-dependent dual action.
- Sodium orthophosphate (oral + enema/bowel prep); Sodium potassium tartrate (Seidlitz powder component); Magnesium trisilicate (slow antacid + mild laxative + mild adsorbent).
- Laxative classes for context: bulk-forming (ispaghula), stimulant (bisacodyl, senna), lubricant (liquid paraffin), osmotic/saline (this unit).

Class	Example	General Mechanism
Bulk-forming	Ispaghula husk	Absorbs water, increasing stool bulk and softness
Stimulant	Bisacodyl, senna	Directly stimulates intestinal wall, increasing motility
Lubricant	Liquid paraffin	Coats and softens stool, easing passage
Osmotic (saline)	$\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$, sodium orthophosphate	Draws water into the lumen osmotically

Antimicrobials

Classification of Antimicrobial Agents Covered

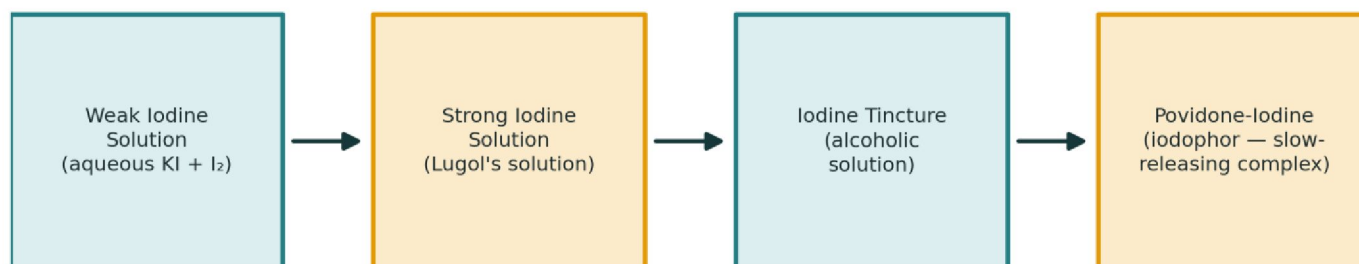


Classification of antimicrobial agents

- Mechanisms: oxidation, halogenation (protein iodination/chlorination), protein denaturation, mild chemical irritation.

Agent	Mechanism/Use
Potassium permanganate	Oxidising agent; dilute (1:4000–1:10000) wet dressings; concentrated causes burns
Boric acid	Weak, bacteriostatic; restricted in infants (systemic toxicity risk)
Hydrogen peroxide	Releases nascent O ₂ (catalase); wound cleaning; "10 volume" ~3% typical
Chlorinated lime	Releases Cl ₂ /HOCl; water & surface disinfection, not skin
Iodine preparations	Weak/Strong (Lugol's) solution, tincture, povidone-iodine (iodophor)

Common Preparations of Iodine



Common preparations of iodine

- Oligodynamic action: certain metal ions (Ag, Hg, Cu) are antimicrobial at extremely low concentration by binding microbial enzyme –SH groups.

WORKED EXAMPLE — PREPARING A DILUTE KMnO₄ SOLUTION

Prepare 500 mL of 1:5000 w/v potassium permanganate solution.

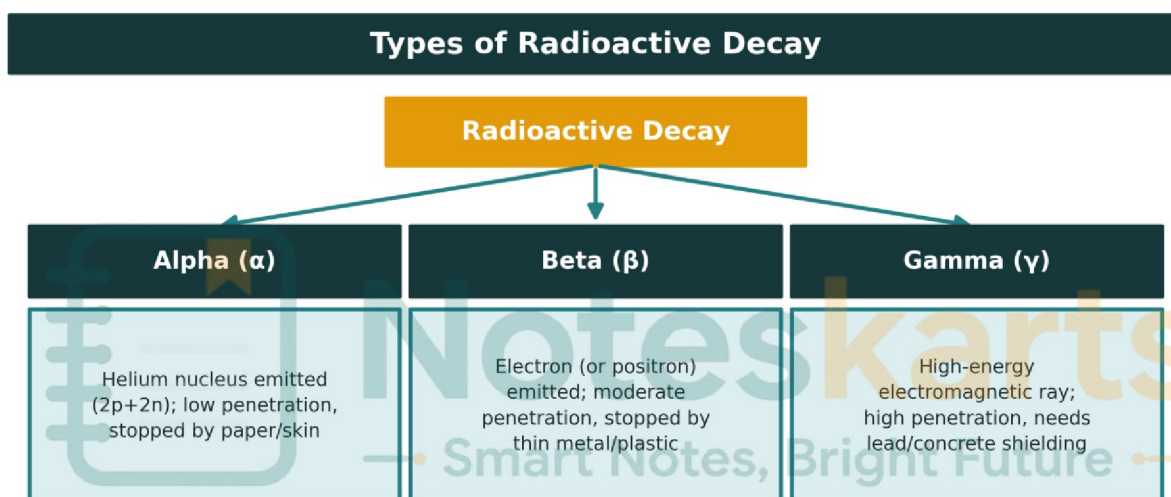
1:5000 means 1 g in 5000 mL. For 500 mL: weight = $(1 \times 500) / 5000 = 0.1$ g

Dissolve 0.1 g KMnO₄ in water and make up to 500 mL.

4.2 Radiopharmaceuticals

Introduction

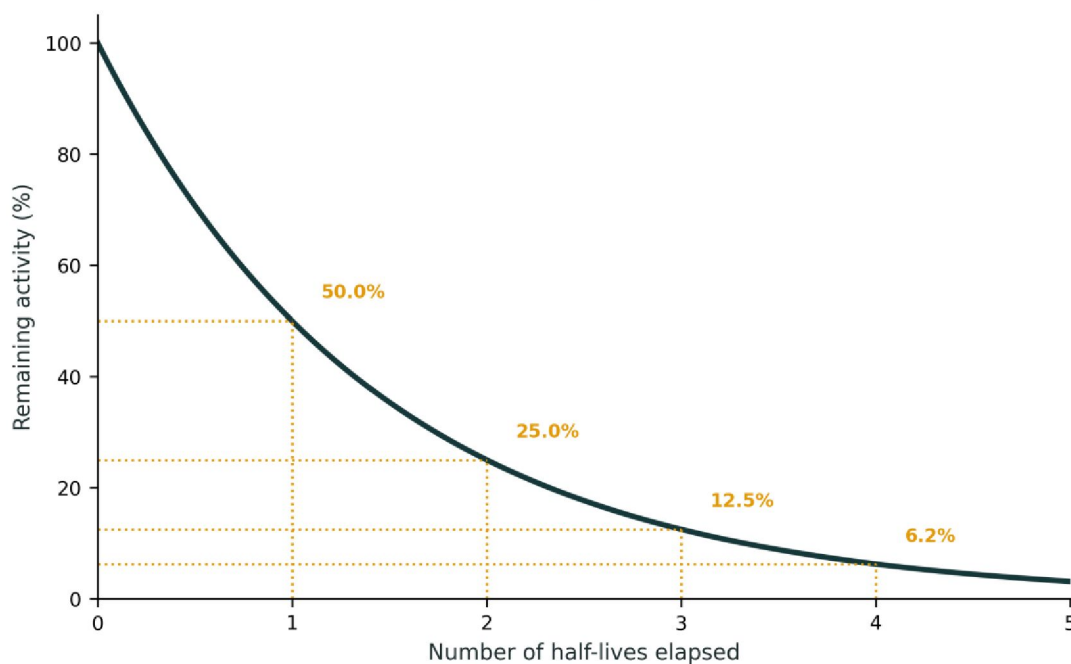
- **Radiopharmaceuticals** are medicinal preparations that contain a **radioactive isotope (radionuclide)** and are used for the **diagnosis, treatment, or monitoring of diseases**.
- They consist of two main components:
 - **Radionuclide** – produces radiation that can be detected or used therapeutically.
 - **Pharmaceutical carrier** – directs the radionuclide to a specific organ, tissue, or biological process.
- Radiopharmaceuticals are administered in very small quantities, usually by **intravenous injection**, although some may be given orally or by other routes.



Types of radioactive decay

- Alpha (α): He nucleus, low penetration (stopped by paper/skin). Beta (β): electron, moderate penetration. Gamma (γ): EM radiation, high penetration (needs lead/concrete).
- Half-life: time for activity to fall to half; follows first-order/exponential decay.

Radioactive Decay: Activity vs Number of Half-Lives



Radioactive decay: activity vs half-lives

WORKED EXAMPLE — HALF-LIFE

Tc-99m ($t_{1/2} = 6$ h), initial activity 80 mCi. Activity after 24 h?

$24/6 = 4$ half-lives; Remaining = $80 \times (1/2)^4 = 5$ mCi

Basics of Radioactivity

- **Radioactivity** is the spontaneous disintegration of an unstable atomic nucleus with the emission of **ionising radiation**.
- The unstable atom is called a **radioactive isotope or radionuclide**.
- The major types of nuclear radiation are:
 - **Alpha (α) particles** – heavy, positively charged particles with low penetrating power but high ionising ability.
 - **Beta (β) particles** – high-speed electrons or positrons with moderate penetrating power.
 - **Gamma (γ) rays** – electromagnetic radiation with high penetrating power and no electrical charge.
- **Half-life** is the time required for the activity of a radioactive substance to decrease to **50% of its original value**.
- Radioactive decay is measured in units such as:
 - **Becquerel (Bq)** – one nuclear disintegration per second.
 - **Curie (Ci)** – an older unit of radioactivity.

Key Radioisotopes and Their Applications

Na-131I	99mTc	60Co	32P
Iodine-131	Technetium-99m	Cobalt-60	Phosphorus-32
Thyroid uptake studies; thyroid cancer therapy	Most widely used diagnostic imaging agent	External beam radiotherapy; sterilisation	Polycythemia vera; bone metastases therapy

Key radioisotopes and their applications

Applications of Important Radioisotopes

Sodium Iodide I-131 (^{131}I)

- ^{131}I is a radioactive isotope of iodine that is selectively taken up by the **thyroid gland**.
- It emits **beta and gamma radiation**.
- **Major applications:**
 - Treatment of **hyperthyroidism**.
 - Treatment of **differentiated thyroid cancer** after appropriate clinical evaluation.
 - Thyroid function and imaging applications in selected settings.
- Its beta radiation provides the main **therapeutic effect**, while gamma radiation can be detected for imaging.
- Because it has a relatively long physical half-life, appropriate radiation-safety precautions are required.

Technetium-99m ($^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$)

- $^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$ is one of the most widely used radionuclides in **diagnostic nuclear medicine**.
- It emits **gamma radiation**, which is suitable for detection by a gamma camera.
- It has a short physical half-life of approximately **6 hours**, reducing radiation exposure while allowing imaging.
- It can be attached to different pharmaceutical compounds to image different organs and physiological processes.
- **Applications include:**
 - Bone imaging
 - Renal imaging
 - Hepatobiliary imaging
 - Cardiac imaging
 - Lung imaging
 - Other organ and functional studies

Cobalt-60 (^{60}Co)

- ^{60}Co is a radioactive isotope that emits **high-energy gamma radiation**.
- It has a relatively long half-life of approximately **5.27 years**.
- **Applications:**
 - Historically used in **cobalt teletherapy** for cancer treatment.
 - Used as a radiation source in certain specialised medical and industrial applications.

- Because of its highly penetrating gamma radiation, **shielding and strict radiation protection** are essential.

Phosphorus-32 (^{32}P)

- ^{32}P is a **beta-emitting radionuclide**.
- It can be incorporated into biological molecules and is therefore useful in certain therapeutic applications.
- **Applications include:**
 - Selected treatment of **myeloproliferative disorders**.
 - Historically used in certain forms of therapeutic radiopharmaceutical treatment.
 - Laboratory and research applications involving radioactive phosphorus.
- Because it is primarily a beta emitter, appropriate contamination-control and radiation-protection measures are particularly important.

Safe Handling of Radiopharmaceuticals

- Radiopharmaceuticals must be handled only by **appropriately trained and authorised personnel**.
- Radiation exposure should follow the basic principle of **ALARA — As Low As Reasonably Achievable**.
- The three fundamental methods of reducing external radiation exposure are:
 - **Time:** minimise the time spent near radioactive sources.
 - **Distance:** maximise the distance from the radioactive source.
 - **Shielding:** use appropriate shielding between the worker and the source.
- Use appropriate **personal protective equipment (PPE)** and contamination-control procedures.
- Avoid direct contact with radioactive materials and use appropriate handling devices where required.
- Clearly label radioactive materials with:
 - Radionuclide
 - Activity
 - Date/time
 - Appropriate radiation warning information
- Monitor work areas and personnel according to the applicable radiation-safety programme.
- Maintain accurate records of **receipt, preparation, administration, storage, and disposal**.

Storage of Radiopharmaceuticals

- Store radiopharmaceuticals in **designated, controlled areas** with restricted access.
- Appropriate **shielding** should be provided according to the radionuclide and activity.
- Containers should be securely closed and clearly labelled.
- Storage conditions such as **temperature, light protection, and sterility requirements** should follow the product and institutional specifications.
- Radioactive materials should be segregated from non-radioactive medicines where appropriate.
- Access should be limited to **authorised personnel**.
- Inventory and activity records should be maintained to ensure proper control of radioactive materials.

Disposal of Radiopharmaceuticals

- Radioactive waste must **not be disposed of as ordinary pharmaceutical or domestic waste**.
- Disposal must follow the requirements of the relevant **national and institutional radiation-safety regulations**.

- Short-lived radioactive waste may be managed using an authorised **decay-in-storage** procedure where permitted.
- Radioactive waste should be:
 - Properly identified and labelled.
 - Segregated according to radionuclide and waste type.
 - Stored in designated shielded areas when required.
 - Monitored before release or disposal according to applicable regulations.
- Sharps and contaminated materials require appropriate radioactive-waste procedures.
- Records of radioactive waste disposal should be maintained as required by the regulatory authority.

Regulatory and Safety Guidelines

- The use of radiopharmaceuticals must comply with applicable **radiation-protection, pharmaceutical, nuclear-medicine, and radioactive-waste regulations**.
- In India, facilities handling radioactive materials operate under the regulatory framework of the **Atomic Energy Regulatory Board (AERB)** and applicable atomic-energy and radiation-safety requirements.
- Important principles include:
 - **Justification** – use radiation only when the expected benefit outweighs the risk.
 - **Optimisation** – keep radiation exposure **ALARA**.
 - **Dose limitation** – apply applicable occupational and public exposure limits.
 - Proper **training, documentation, monitoring, and emergency procedures**.
- Patients should receive appropriate instructions regarding radiation safety after administration, particularly with therapeutic radionuclides.



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