COMPETENCY BASED DYNAMIC CURRICULUM FOR THIRD BHMS PROFESSIONAL COURSE

(Applicable from Batch 2022-2023 onwards for 5 years or until further notification by National Commission for Homoeopathy whichever is earlier)

(Essentials of Pharmacology)



HOMOEOPATHY EDUCATION BOARD NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR HOMOEOPATHY

MINISTRY OF AYUSH, GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

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Course: Essentials of Pharmacology

Course Code: HomUG-Mod.Phar

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1. Preamble

Welcome, homeopathy students, to the world of pharmacology! This course will delve into the fascinating realm of medicines and their interactions with the human body. While homeopathy focuses on stimulating the body's natural healing response, understanding conventional medications is crucial for several reasons:

Complementary Care: Homeopathy can sometimes be used alongside traditional medications

Drug Interactions: Being aware of potential interactions between homeopathic remedies and conventional drugs is essential for safe patient care.

Patient Education: Many patients will be taking other medications and understanding how they work can empower you to better educate and guide them.

This course will equip you with a foundational knowledge of pharmacology, covering key areas such as:

Drug classifications and mechanisms of action

Pharmacokinetics: How drugs are absorbed, distributed, metabolized, and excreted

Pharmacodynamics: How drugs produce their effects on the body

Common medications used in various therapeutic areas

By the end of this course, you'll gain a deeper appreciation for the science of pharmacology and its valuable role in healthcare. We'll explore how this knowledge can complement your understanding of homeopathy and ensure you provide the safest and most informed care to your future patients.

Please note: This course is designed to provide a general overview of pharmacology. It is not intended to replace the knowledge and expertise of medical doctors or pharmacists.

2. Course outcomes

Upon successful completion of this pharmacology course, homeopathy students will be able to:

- i. Demonstrate a foundational knowledge of major drug classifications and their mechanisms of action.
- ii. Apply a scientific foundation to their understanding of medication and therapeutics, aligning with core principles of homeopathy.
- iii. Demonstrate a comprehensive understanding of major drug classifications and their mechanisms of action.
- iv. Explain the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of medications, including how drugs are absorbed, distributed, metabolized, excreted, and produce their effects in the body.
- v. Identify common medications used in various treatment areas.
- vi. Apply their understanding of Pharmacology to assess potential interactions between homeopathic remedies and conventional medications to ensure patient safety.
- vii. Communicate medication information effectively to patients, empowering them to make informed decisions about their healthcare.
- viii. Provide safe and complementary care to their patients by understanding conventional medications.
- ix. Educate patients about potential interactions between medications.
- x. Collaborate effectively with other healthcare providers when necessary.
- xi. Treat and solve the adverse drug reactions of the patients with the homeopathy drugs.

Disclaimer: This course is designed to provide a general foundation in pharmacology. It is not a substitute for the expertise of medical doctors or pharmacists.

3. Course content

I. Module 1: Pharmacology

- i. Introduction to Pharmacology
- ii. Definition and Scope of Pharmacology
- iii. Drug Nomenclature and Classification Systems
- iv. Routes of Drug Administration

II. Module 2: Pharmacokinetics

- i. Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism, and Excretion of Drugs (ADME)
- ii. Factors Affecting Pharmacokinetics

III. Module 3: Pharmacodynamics

- i. Mechanisms of Drug Action on Body Systems
- ii. Dose-Response Relationships
- iii. Factors Modifying Drug Action

IV. Module 4: Major Drug Classifications

A. ANS AND AUTACOID

- i. Cholinergic and Anticholinergic drugs,
- ii. Adrenergic and Antiadrenergic Drugs, T/t of Glaucoma
- iii. Autacoids: Serotonin and drugs acting or Serotonergic System+ T/t of Migraine,
- iv. Histamine and Antihistaminic
 - **B.** NSAID- Drugs used in RA and Gout

C. CNS

- i. Anxiolytics
- ii. Antiepileptics
- iii. Antipsychotics and Antidepressants
- iv. Opioid Analgesics

D. Respiratory system

- i. Drugs for cough
- ii. Bronchial asthma and COPD

E. Hormones

- i. Insulin and oral Hypoglycemic drugs
- ii. Adrenocortical steroids
- iii. Estrogens, Progesterone and OCPs
- iv. Vitamin D, Calcium and Drugs affecting Calcium Balance

F. CVS

- i. T/t of Hypertension
- ii. Angina, MI
- iii. Cardiac Glycosides and Drugs for Heart failure
- iv. Hypolipidemic drugs
 - G. Renal system- Diuretics and Antidiuretics
 - H. Blood- Hematinics, T/t of Iron deficiency anaemia and Megaloblastic anemia
 - I. GIT
- i. Drugs for Peptic Ulcer and GERD
- ii. Drugs for constipation and diarrhea
- iii. Antiemetics

J. Chemotherapy

- i. Sulfonamides and Cotrimoxazole,
- ii. Quinolones,
- iii. Beta Lactam Antibiotics,
- iv. Tetracyclines, Chloramphenicol
- v. Aminoglycosides
- vi. Ant tubercular drugs and Antileprosy drugs
- vii. Antimalarial drugs

K. Miscellaneous

- i. Disinfectants
- ii. Vitamins

4. Teaching hours

Year/Subject	Teaching hours- Lectures
III BHMS/ Essentials of Pharmacology	45

4.1.Term-wise teaching hours division:

Sr. No	Topics	Teaching Hours
	Term I	
1	Module 1: Pharmacology (Introduction)	5
2	Module 2: Pharmacokinetics	5
3	Module 3: Pharmacodynamics	5
4	Module 4: Major Drug Classifications	
i	ANS AND AUTACOIDS	4
ii	NSAID, Drugs used in RA and Gout	2
iii	CNS	2
iv	Respiratory System	3
	Term II	
v	Hormones	4

vi	CVS	2
vii	Renal System	2
viii	Blood	1
ix	GIT	4
X	Chemotherapy	4
xi	Miscellaneous	2
	Total	45

5. Content mapping (Competencies tables):

Module 1: Pharmacology-

Sl.No.	Duration of	Mill	Content	1	Bloom/	Priorit	TL MM	Assessment		Integration
	Competency	er		Objectives	Guilber t	y		Formative	Summative	
HomUG- Mod.Phar	Knowledge and scholarship	K	Introduction to Pharmacology	Explain the fundamental principles of pharmacokinetics (absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion). Define key pharmacodynamic terms (agonists, antagonists, therapeutic index).	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	
1.1				Recognize drug classifications and their mechanisms of action	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	

				Participate in clinical settings, reviewing patient medications under supervision	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	
			Definition and Scope of Pharmacology	States the primary components of pharmacology (drug actions, mechanisms, therapeutic uses)	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
HomUG- Mod.Phar 1.2		K		Lists the subdivisions of pharmacology and their relevance.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
	Knowledge and scholarship			Explains how pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics influence drug therapy.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
				Describes how adverse effects or drug interactions impact patient care.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
				Interprets drug concentration- time curves or other pharmacokinetic data.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
		K	Drug Nomenclature and Classification Systems	olol: Beta-blockers (e.g., propranolol, atenolol)	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
	Knowledge and scholarship			pril : ACE inhibitors (e.g., lisinopril, enalapril)	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
HomUG-				Es-: Refers to an S-enantiomer (e.g., esomeprazole)	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
Mod.Phar				Levo- : Refers to a levorotatory isomer (e.g., levothyroxine)	C1	MK	Lecture, Group	Quiz, Written	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology

1.3							discussion	test, MCQ		
				cillin: Penicillin derivatives (e.g., ampicillin)	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
				statin: HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors (e.g., atorvastatin)	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiology
	Knowledge and scholarship	K	Routes of Drug Administration	Drug-Related Factors: Can the drug survive the environment of the GI tract (e.g., oral vs. IV)? Is the drug lipid or watersoluble? Does the drug require bypassing the liver (e.g., sublingual, parenteral)? Does the drug require rapid action (IV) or sustained release (transdermal)? Consciousness: Is the patient conscious and cooperative (oral vs. IV/IM)?	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	
HomUG- Mod.Phar 1.4				Patient-Related Factors: Age: Pediatrics and geriatrics may require specific routes (e.g., rectal for children) Physical Condition: Difficulty swallowing (requires non-oral routes like IV, SC). Preferences and Compliance: Does the patient prefer certain methods for better adherence (e.g., patches over injections)? Vomiting/NPO (Nil Per Os): Oral route is contraindicated	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	

Disease or Condition Factor Site of Action: Does the drug act locally (topical, inhalational) or systemically (oral, IV)? Urgency: Emergency conditions often require IV for rapid effect Target Organ: Routes like intrathecal are used for CNS delivery due to the blood-brat barrier.	cor C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussion	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	
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Module 2: Pharmacokinetics

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content		Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessment		Integrat ion
•	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ e	Summative	_
	Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism, and Excretion of	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Physicochemical Properties of the Drug • Lipophilicity enhances crossing of cell membranes and distribution into fatty tissues. • Polarity limits drug penetration into lipid-rich	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y
Hom UG-			Route of Administration	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y	
Mod.				Gastrointestinal Factors:	C1	MK	Lecture,	Quiz,	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog

DL	- TI - Cal a		1	Споль	Written		Τ
Phar	• pH of the stomach or intestine (affects ionization and			Group			У
2.1				discussio	test, MCQ		
2.1	solubility).			n			
	Gastric emptying time and						
	motility.						
	Presence of food (may						
	enhance or reduce absorption).						
	Drug Formulation :			Lecture,	Quiz,		
	Immediate-release vs. sustained-release		MK	Group	Written	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog
	forms.	C1	WIIX	discussio	test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	у
	Coating to protect against stomach acid			n	test, MCQ		
	(e.g., enteric-coated tablets).						
	Blood Flow to Tissues :			Lecture,	Quiz,		
	1. Highly perfused organs (e.g., brain,		MK	Group	Written	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog
	liver, kidneys) get more drug initially.	C1	WIK	discussio	test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	у
	2.Poorly perfused tissues (e.g., fat,			n	test, MCQ		
	bone) show slower distribution.						
	Plasma Protein Binding:						
	 Albumin binds acidic drugs; 						
	α1-acid glycoprotein binds						
	basic drugs.						
	 Only free (unbound) drug is 						
	pharmacologically active.						
	Tissue Binding:						
	 Some drugs accumulate in 			Lecture,			
	specific tissues (e.g.,				Quiz,		Dhamialas
	tetracyclines in bones/teeth,	C1	MK	Group	Written	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog
	lipophilic drugs in adipose	CI		discussio	test, MCQ		У
	tissue)			n	,		
	Special Barriers:						
	DI 11 1 1 2 2 2						
	Blood-brain barrier: Permits						
	lipophilic and small						
	molecules; restricts polar						
	drugs.						
	 Placental barrier: Filters 						
	certain drugs, but not all.						

Environments.
Litvironnicitts.
Site of Metabolism:
Liver (primary site): Phase I
and Phase II reactions.
Other tissues: Kidneys, lungs,
intestines.
Phase I Reactions:
Oxidation, reduction,
hydrolysis.
Primarily mediated by
cytochrome P450 enzymes.
Phase II Reactions:
Conjugation reactions (e.g., characteristics)
glucuronidation, sulfation).
Make drugs more water-soluble for excretion.
First-Pass Metabolism:
Drug is metabolized by the
liver before reaching systemic
circulation.
Reduces bioavailability (e.g.,
nitroglycerin, propranolol).
Enzyme Induction/Inhibition:
• Induction (e.g., rifampin,
phenobarbital): Increases
metabolism, reducing drug
levels.
Inhibition (e.g., grapefruit
juice, ketoconazole):
Decreases metabolism,
increasing drug levels.
Genetic Polymorphisms:
Variability in enzyme activity (NYPORT CHAPTER 10)
(e.g., CYP2D6, CYP2C19)
affects metabolism rates.
Primary Routes of Excretion Hencetic (bile):
Hepatic (bile):

	T T	-	B 7 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2						1
			Drug Ionization and Solubility						
			Renal Function						
			Factors Affecting Absorption						
			Drug-Related Factors:						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 2.2	Factors Affecting Pharmacokinetics	Knowledge and scholarship	 Solubility: Lipophilic drugs absorb better through cell membranes. Ionization: Non-ionized forms cross membranes more easily. Molecular Size: Smaller molecules are absorbed more rapidly. Formulation: Liquid > Capsule > Tablet (for speed of absorption). Chemical Stability: Drugs degraded by gastric acid or enzymes have reduced absorption (e.g., insulin). Route of Administration: Oral absorption depends on GI environment, while parenteral routes bypass it. Gastrointestinal (GI) Factors: pH: Affects drug ionization (e.g., acidic drugs absorb better in the stomach, basic drugs in the intestine). Gastric Emptying: Faster emptying enhances absorption. Presence of Food: Some 	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

	drugs require food (e.g., fatty meals enhance lipophilic drug
	absorption), while others are
	inhibited.
	Drug Transport Mechanisms:
	Province L'Officiale and the
	Passive diffusion, active transport, facilitated diffusion,
	or endocytosis.
	Physicochemical Properties:
	Lipid solubility and polarity
	affect drug penetration into
	tissues.
	Blood Flow to Tissues:
	Highly perfused organs (brain, liver, kidneys) receive drugs
	faster than less perfused areas
	(e.g., fat, bone).
	Plasma Protein Binding:
	Bound drugs are
	pharmacologically inactive;
	only free drugs can act. • Albumin binds acidic drugs;
	Albumin binds acidic drugs; α1-acid glycoprotein binds
	basic drugs.
	Tissue Binding:
	Drugs like tetracyclines bind

	to calcium in bones/teeth.						
	to carefull in bolico, teetii.						
	Special Barriers:						
	 Blood-Brain Barrier (BBB): Limits polar and large molecules; favors lipophilic drugs. Placental Barrier: Provides partial protection to the fetus but allows passage of some drugs. 						
	Site of Metabolism:						
	Liver is the primary organ (Phase I and Phase II reactions), but other tissues (kidneys, lungs, intestines) also contribute.						
	 Phase I (Functionalization Reactions): Oxidation, reduction, hydrolysis (e.g., CYP450 enzymes). Phase II (Conjugation 						
	Reactions): Of Glucuronidation, sulfation, acetylation (make drugs water- soluble for excretion).						
	Factors Affecting Metabolism Enzyme Activity:	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y
	Induction: Enzyme inducers			415045510			

(e.g., rifampin, carbamazepine) increase metabolism and reduce drug efficacy. • Inhibition: Enzyme inhibitors (e.g., ketoconazole, grapefruit juice) decrease metabolism and increase drug levels. Genetic Variability: • Polymorphisms in CYP enzymes (e.g., CYP2D6, CYP2C19) cause individual variability in drug metabolism. First-Pass Metabolism: • Drugs extensively metabolized in the liver or gut wall before reaching systemic circulation (e.g., propranolol, nitroglycerin).			n			
Age: • Neonates have immature metabolic enzymes; elderly have reduced enzyme activity.						
Factors Affecting Excretion Route of Excretion: Renal Excretion (Primary): • Glomerular Filtration: Free drugs filtered based on molecular size.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

Tubular Secretion: Active process for drug elimination (e.g., penicillin). Tubular Reabsorption: pH-dependent (acidic drugs excreted faster in alkaline urine).
Biliary Excretion:
High molecular weight drugs excreted via bile; may undergo enterohepatic recycling.
Other Routes:
• Lungs (volatile drugs, e.g., anesthetics), sweat, saliva, breast milk.
Drug Properties:
 Lipophilic drugs require metabolism to water-soluble forms for excretion. Ionized drugs are excreted more readily in urine.
Renal Function:
Impaired kidney function (e.g., in elderly or renal disease) reduces drug clearance.
Hepatic Function:

	1		1		1			
		• Liver dysfunction reduces biliary excretion and metabolism.						
		Age:						
		 Neonates have immature kidneys; elderly may have reduced renal function 						
		Age:						
		 Neonates and elderly patients have reduced metabolic and excretory capacity. 						
		Gender:						
		 Hormonal differences can influence metabolism and excretion. 						
		Genetic Variations:						
		 Pharmacogenetics impacts enzyme activity (e.g., poor vs. ultra-rapid metabolizers). 						
		Disease States: Liver disease, kidney disease, heart failure, or other conditions affect ADME processes						
		Patient-Related Factors Drug-Drug Interactions:	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio	Quiz, Written	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

				n	test, MCQ	
		 Competition for enzymes, protein-binding sites, or transporters. 				
		Lifestyle Factors:				
		 Diet (e.g., grapefruit juice inhibits CYP enzymes). Smoking or alcohol use (induces enzymes like CYP1A2). 				

Module 3: Pharmacodynamics

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/ Guilbert	Priority	TL	Assessmer	nt	Integrat
•	Competency				Guinert		MM	Formativ e	Summative	ion
Hom	Mechanisms of Drug Action on Body Systems	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Receptor Interaction Agonists, antagonists (e.g., β-blockers, opioids) Enzyme Modulation Inhibition, activation (e.g., statins, aspirin). Ion Channel Modulation	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

UG- Mod. Phar 3.1				Blockers, openers (e.g., calcium channel blockers, sodium channel blockers). Neurotransmitter Systems Reuptake inhibitors, enzyme inhibitors (e.g., SSRIs, MAO inhibitors). Hormonal Systems Agonists, antagonists, synthesis inhibitors (e.g., insulin, tamoxifen) Immune Modulation Vaccines, monoclonal antibodies (e.g., rituximab) DNA/RNA Interaction Anticancer agents, antivirals (e.g.,						
Hom UG-	Dose-Response Relationships	K	Knowledge and scholarship	ryclophosphamide, AZT). Physical/Chemical Action Osmotic agents, antacids (e.g., mannitol, sodium bicarbonate) Agonists, Antagonists, and Modulators Full Agonist: Produces the maximum possible response (e.g., epinephrine on beta-adrenergic receptors). Partial Agonist: Produces a submaximal	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

Mod. Phar 3.2	response, even at full receptor occupancy (e.g., buprenorphine). Antagonist: Binds to receptors but does activate them, blocking agonist effects (e.g., nalox for opioid overdose). Inverse Agonist: Produces the opposite effer an agonist (e.g., propranole a beta-blocker). Allosteric Modulators: Bind to a site other than the active site and modify receptors activity (e.g., benzodiazepositivity) (e.g., benzodiazepositivity)	e ptor					
	on GABA-A receptors). Variability in Dose-Response Inter-Individual Variability: Genetics, age, gender, dise states, and drug interaction can alter responses. Tachyphylaxis: Rapid decrease in drug	ase s C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y
	Rapid decrease in drug response with repeated dos	es					

(e.g., nitrates for angina).						
Tolerance:						
Gradual decrease in drug effect over time, requiring higher doses (e.g., opioids).						
Hypersensitivity:						
Exaggerated response to a small dose.						
Drug Toxicity and Overdose Indicators:						
Toxic Dose (TD50):						
Dose at which 50% of individuals experience toxic effects.						
Lethal Dose (LD50):			Lecture,	Quiz,		
Dose that is lethal to 50% of the population (typically studied in animals).	C1	MK	Group discussio n	Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y
Margin of Safety:						
Difference between the therapeutic dose and the toxic dose.						
Dose Adjustments: • Based on individual patient						

				responses (e.g., warfarin dosing guided by INR levels). Applications in Clinical Practice Monitoring Therapeutic Effect: • Measuring drug levels to ensure they are within the therapeutic range (e.g., digoxin, lithium). Avoiding Toxicity: • Monitoring for signs of toxicity and adjusting doses as needed.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 3.3	Factors Modifying Drug Action	K	Knowledge and scholarship	PhysiologicalFactors Age:Neonates: Immature liver enzymes affect metabolism (e.g., chloramphenicol toxicity leads to "gray baby syndrome"). Reduced renal clearance in newborns (e.g., aminoglycoside toxicity). Elderly: Decreased liver and kidney function reduces drug clearance (e.g., accumulation of digoxin) Gender: Hormonal differences	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

	1 1	-		1	T	1	1		
			influence drug metabolism (e.g., women metabolize						
			benzodiazepines slower than						
			men).						
			men).						
			Body Weight:						
			Dosage adjustments are based						
			on weight or body surface area						
			(e.g., chemotherapy drugs).						
			(18)						
			Pathological Factors						
			Genetic Factors:						
			• Genetic polymorphisms affect						
			drug metabolism (e.g., slow						
			acetylators for isoniazid).						
			Liver Disease:						
			 Reduced metabolism of drugs 						
			(e.g., prolonged half-life of			Lecture,	0-:-		
			warfarin in hepatic		3.417	Group	Quiz,		Physiolog
			dysfunction).	C1	MK	discussio	Written	SAQ, MCQ	у
						n	test, MCQ		
			Kidney Disease:						
			 Impaired excretion of renally 						
			eliminated drugs (e.g.,						
			accumulation of						
			aminoglycosides or lithium).						
			Cardiovascular Disease:						
			D. Joseph G. C. L. L. L.						
			Reduced perfusion delays drug distribution and alimination						
			distribution and elimination						

			,			•	_	
		(e.g., digoxin in heart failure).						
		Thyroid Function:						
		 Hyperthyroidism increases drug metabolism (e.g., rapid clearance of β-blockers). Hypothyroidism decreases drug metabolism (e.g., longer half-life of digoxin) 						
		Pharmacogenetic Factors Indicators: Cytochrome P450 Enzymes:						
		Variants like CYP2D6 or CYP3A4 alter drug metabolism (e.g., poor metabolizers of codeine may have reduced analgesic effects).						
		Drug Transporters:	C1	MK	Lecture, Group	Quiz, Written	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog
		Genetic variations in P- glycoprotein (e.g., altered absorption of digoxin).	Cı		discussio n	test, MCQ		У
		Enzyme Deficiency:						
		Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) deficiency leads to hemolysis with certain drugs (e.g., sulfonamides).						

	Environmental Factors Indicators: Diet • Grapefruit inhibits CYP3A4, increasing levels of drugs like statins. • High-fat meals delay drug absorption (e.g., delayed effect of antacids). Smoking: • Induces CYP1A2, increasing clearance of drugs like theophylline. Alcohol: • Acute alcohol use inhibits drug metabolism (e.g., potentiates sedatives). • Chronic alcohol use induces enzymes, accelerating metabolism (e.g., warfarin). Temperature: • Heat increases peripheral blood flow, enhancing drug absorption.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y
	Drug Interactions Indicators:	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

			n			
Pharmacokinetic Interactions:						
Absorption:						
About publi.						
 Antacids reduce absorption of tetracyclines. 						
Metabolism:						
 Enzyme inducers like rifampin increase clearance of oral contraceptives. Enzyme inhibitors like ketoconazole reduce metabolism of midazolam. 						
Excretion:						
 Probenecid inhibits renal excretion of penicillin, prolonging its action. 						
Pharmacodynamic Interactions:						
 Synergism (e.g., sulfonamides and trimethoprim). Antagonism (e.g., naloxone reversing opioid effects). 						
Tolerance and Dependence Indicators: Tolerance: • Gradual decrease in drug effect with repeated use (e.g.,	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

opioids, nitrates). Cross-tolerance (e.g., benzodiazepines and alcohol). Dependence: Physical or psychological need for a drug (e.g., opioids, benzodiazepines). Route of Administration Indicators: Oral Route: First-pass metabolism reduces bioavailability (e.g., propranolol). Intravenous Route: Rapid onset and complete bioavailability. Intramuscular/Subcutaneous: Rate of absorption depends on blood flow and drug solubility	Cl	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y
Disease-Specific Factors Indicators: Infection and Inflammation: • Alters drug distribution (e.g., reduced effectiveness of aminoglycosides in acidic	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

abscesses). Malnutrition: Reduced plasma proteins (e.g., hypoalbuminemia increases free drug levels of phenytoin).						
Psychological Factors Indicators: Placebo Effect: Positive therapeutic response due to patient belief in treatment. Nocebo Effect: Negative outcomes due to patient expectations of adverse effects.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

Module 4: Major Drug Classifications

HomUG-Mod.Phar-4.1 (ANS AND AUTACOIDS)

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessment		Integrat
	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ Summative		ion
								Tomativ	Summative	

								е		
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.1.1	Cholinergic and Anticholinergic drugs	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Cholinergic Drugs Define Cholinergic and Anticholinergic Drugs: Understand the pharmacological basis of these drugs, their receptors, and physiological actions. Explain Mechanisms of Action: Describe how these drugs influence parasympathetic activity by either mimicking or blocking acetylcholine. List Clinical Applications: Identify the therapeutic uses of cholinergic and anticholinergic drugs, such as in glaucoma, myasthenia gravis, COPD, or motion sickness. Assess Adverse Effects: Recognize side effects such as dry mouth, tachycardia (anticholinergics), or diarrhea, bradycardia (cholinergics). Compare Drug Classes: Differentiate between directacting, indirect-acting cholinergic drugs, and muscarinic antagonists.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y
	Adrenergic and Antiadrenergic Drugs,	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Miller Principles for Antiadrenergic Drugs: • Selective Blockade: Selective	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

	T	1		T	1	T	
			α\alphaα or β\betaβ blockers		n		
			minimize side effects and				
			target specific conditions (e.g.,				
			β1\beta_1β1 blockers for heart				
			conditions).				
			• Sympathetic Inhibition:				
			These drugs decrease heart				
TT			rate, reduce cardiac output,				
Hom			and lower blood pressure by				
UG-			opposing SNS activity.				
Mod.			 Receptor Affinity and 				
			Potency: Drugs with higher				
Phar			selectivity (e.g., atenolol for				
			$\beta1$ \beta_1 $\beta1$) are preferred in				
4.1.2			specific populations to				
			minimize adverse effects (e.g.,				
			bronchospasm).				
			hypertension, arrhythmias,				
			angina, heart failure, and				
			conditions like				
			pheochromocytoma.				
			Adverse Effects: Monitor for				
			bradycardia, hypotension, and fatigue,				
			particularly in elderly or heart-				
			compromised patients.				ļ
			rr				ļ
			Antiadrenergic Drugs:				ļ
			 Understand the roles of 				
			adrenergic receptors and how				
			drugs modulate their activity.				ļ
			• Explain Mechanisms of				
			Action: Describe how				
			adrenergic drugs stimulate				
			SNS activity, while				
			antiadrenergic drugs inhibit it.				
			• Classify Adrenergic Agents:				
L			Classify Harener Sie Higelies.				

				Differentiate between direct, indirect, and mixed-acting adrenergic agonists and selective/non-selective adrenergic blockers. • Identify Therapeutic Applications: Highlight uses in conditions such as asthma (β2\beta_2β2 agonists), hypertension (β1\beta_1β1 blockers), and shock (α\alphaα-agonists). • Discuss Adverse Effects: Recognize potential side effects like tachycardia (adrenergics) or bradycardia (antiadrenergics).						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.1.3	Autacoids: Serotonin and drugs acting or Serotonergic System+ T/t of Migraine,	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitors (SSRIs): Serotonin-Norepinephrine Reuptake Inhibitors (SNRIs): 5-HT1_11 Agonists 5-HT3_33 Antagonists: 5-HT4_44 Agonists: Serotonin Modulators: Understand the Serotonergic System: • Describe serotonin's role in neurotransmission and its physiological functions in the	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

				CNS and periphery. Classify Serotonergic Drugs: Differentiate between SSRIs, SNRIs, triptans, serotonin receptor agonists/antagonists, and modulators. Explain Mechanisms of Action: Discuss how drugs alter serotonin signaling to treat conditions like depression, migraines, and IBS. Identify Clinical Applications: Match drug classes to appropriate therapeutic uses, such as SSRIs for depression or 5-HT1_11 agonists for migraines.						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.1.4	Histamine and Antihistaminic	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Acute Treatments Nonsteroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs (NSAIDs): Ergot Alkaloids: Anti-Nausea Medications: Preventive Treatments Beta-Blockers	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog y

Anticonvulsants: Calcium Channel Blockers:
CGRP (Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide) Antagonists:
Tricyclic Antidepressants (TCAs)
Understand Pathophysiology:
Explain the neurovascular basis of migraines and the role of serotonin and CGRP pathways.
Differentiate Migraine Types:
Identify different migraine presentations (e.g., with aura, without aura) and their implications for treatment.
Classify Therapies:
Categorize acute and preventive migraine treatments based on their mechanisms of action.

HomUG-Mod.Phar-4.2 (NSAID)

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessmen	Assessment	
	Competency				Guilbert		MM			ion
•	Competency				Guibert		141141	Formativ	Summative	1011
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								e		

Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.2.1	Drugs used in RA and Gout	K	Knowledge and scholarship	1. Rheumatoid Arthritis 1. Understand Pathophysiology: Explain the autoimmune nature of RA and the role of cytokines (e.g., TNF-α\alphaα, IL-6) in joint destruction. 2. Classify RA Drugs: Differentiate between NSAIDs, corticosteroids, DMARDs, and biologics. 3. Select Appropriate Therapies: Design treatment plans based on disease severity and progression. 4. Monitor for Adverse Effects: Recognize side effects of DMARDs (e.g., hepatotoxicity with methotrexate) and biologics (e.g., infection risks).	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolog
				2. Gout 1. Identify Pathophysiology: Explain the role of hyperuricemia and urate crystal deposition in gout						

	pathogenesis.			
	2. Classify Gout Drugs:			
	Differentiate between acute (NSAIDs, colchicine) and chronic (xanthine oxidase inhibitors, uricosurics) treatments.			
	3. Manage Comorbidities:			
	Incorporate renal and cardiovascular considerations into gout therapy.			

HomUG-Mod.Phar-4.3 (CNS)

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessmer	nt	Integrat
•	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ e	Summative	ion
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.3.1	Anxiolytics	K	Knowledge and scholarship	 Treatment should be individualized Minimize long-term use Balance between efficacy and safety Combination with other treatments Educate patients on safe use. Understanding the pharmacology of anxiolytics: Learners should be able to explain the different types of anxiolytics (e.g., 	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Neorology Medicine Physiolog y

Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.3.2	Antiepileptics	K	Knowledge and scholarship	(SSRIs), buspin mechanisms of their clinical in their clinical in Personalized Appropriate M Dose Titration Minimize Dru Long-Term M Monitoring Consideration Pharmacologic Patient Educat Adherence Seizure-Free Discontinuati i. Understanding pharmacolog Learners shou explain the meaction of varied drugs, their phand how they in different tylic. Identifying ap choices: Learn able to select to appropriate Al type of epilepsi	ptake inhibitors rone), their of action, and ndications. Treatment Monotherapy n and Monitoring nug Interactions Itanagement and of Non- cal Treatments tion and Goal Itan of AEDs: Id be able to echanisms of ous antiepileptic narmacokinetics, control seizures pes of epilepsy. Interactions C1 C1 C1 C1 C1 C1 C1 C1 C1 C	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y
				in different tyl ii. Identifying ap choices: Learn able to select t appropriate A type of epileps	pes of epilepsy. ppropriate drug mers should be the most ED for a given sy or seizure d on factors such e, patient age, and previous eatment. rug levels and es: Learners					

				iv.	importance of therapeutic drug monitoring and how to interpret serum drug levels to adjust dosages of AEDs to maintain efficacy while minimizing toxicity. Recognizing side effects and drug interactions: Learners should be able to identify the common and serious side effects associated with AEDs, including those related to cognitive function, liver and kidney toxicity, and hematologic effects. They should also understand the potential for drug-drug interactions and how these affect treatment decisions.						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.3.3	Antipsychotics and Antidepressants	K	Knowledge and scholarship		Early and Accurate Diagnosis Choice of Medication Personalized Treatment Minimizing Side Effects Non-Pharmacological Support Ongoing Monitoring and Adjustments Patient Education and Adherence Consideration for Tapering First-Line Use of SSRIs and SNRIs: Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) and serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) Tailored Treatment Start Low, Go Slow Pharmacology of	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

				Antipsychotics and Antidepressants: Learners should understand the mechanisms of action, pharmacokinetics, and clinical indications for both						
				antipsychotics and antidepressants, including the differences between various drug classes (e.g., atypical vs. typical antipsychotics, SSRIs vs. SNRIs).						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.3.4	Opioid Analgesics,	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Accurate Pain Assessment 1: intensity, location, and underlying cause, is essential. Pain assessment tools, such as the Numeric Pain Rating Scale or Visual Analog Scale Appropriate Indications: • Acute pain (e.g., postoperative or trauma-related pain). • Chronic pain related to cancer or palliative care. • Severe pain unresponsive to non-opioid therapies. Individualized Treatment Plans: Risk Mitigation: Monitoring and Follow-Up Side Effect Management: • Constipation: Prophylactic use of laxatives. • Nausea/Vomiting: Use of antiemetics if needed. • Sedation: Adjust doses or switch medications if excessive.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

Avoiding Long-Term Use When Possible
Understanding Pharmacology: Demonstrate knowledge of opioid receptor mechanisms, pharmacokinetics, and pharmacodynamics, including the differences between full agonists, partial agonists, and antagonists.
Clinical Indications: Identify appropriate clinical scenarios for opioid use and contraindications to their prescription. Recognizing Risks: Understand the risks of opioid use, including tolerance, dependence, addiction, and respiratory depression. Pain Management: Effectively assess and classify pain to guide the appropriate use of opioids. Dosing and Titration: Accurately calculate and titrate opioid doses, ensuring adequate pain relief while minimizing side effects. Side Effect Management: Develop strategies to anticipate, recognize, and manage opioid-induced side effects. Naloxone Use: Educate patients and caregivers on the use of

	naloxone for opioid overdose prevention. • Patient-Centered Care: Communicate effectively with patients about the benefits, risks, and goals of opioid therapy, fostering shared decision-making.
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HomUG-Mod.Phar- 4.4 (Respiratory System)

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessmen	nt	Integrat
•	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ e	Summative	ion
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.4.1	Drugs for cough	K	Knowledge and scholarship	1. Accurate Diagnosis of the Cough's Underlying Cause • A thorough assessment is necessary to identify the underlying cause of the cough, such as a respiratory infection (e.g., viral or bacterial), asthma, post-nasal drip, or more severe conditions like chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) or heart failure. • Treatment should focus on the underlying cause when possible (e.g., antibiotics for bacterial infections,	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

bronchodilators for asthma),
rather than merely masking
the symptom.
the symptom.
2. Classification of Cough Type
2. Classification of Cought type
Dry Cough: Typically non-
productive, can be treated with
antitussives like
dextromethorphan or
codeine.
Productive Cough: Involves
the production of mucus or
phlegm and is usually treated
with expectorants like
guaifenesin to facilitate
mucus clearance.
Acute vs. Chronic Cough:
Coughs lasting less than three
weeks are usually acute and
often self-limited, whereas
coughs persisting for more
than eight weeks may indicate
an underlying chronic
condition.
3. Symptomatic Treatment
• Use antitussives for
suppressing persistent dry
interiering with dailyactivities.
Use expectorants or mucolytics for
clearance of mucus.
suppressing persistent dry cough that is uncomfortable or interfering with dailyactivities. Use expectorants or mucolytics for productive coughs to aid in the

				Pharmacological Understanding: Demonstrate an understanding of the pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics, and mechanisms of action of drugs used for cough, including antitussives (e.g., dextromethorphan, codeine) and expectorants (e.g., guaifenesin). Cough Etiology: Identify and differentiate the						
				causes of acute and chronic cough and understand the role of drugs in treating these causes based on the type of cough (dry vs. productive). Drug Safety and Side Effects: Recognize the potential side effects and safety concerns of commonly used cough medications, such as opioids, and other non-opioid alternatives, ensuring safe use in different patient populations						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.4.2	Bronchial asthma and COPD	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Accurate Diagnosis and Differentiation Asthma is typically characterized by reversible airway obstruction and inflammation, often triggered by allergens, irritants, or	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

exercise.
COPD is characterized by
progressive, irreversible
airflow limitation, most
commonly caused by long-
term exposure to smoking or
environmental pollutants.
Early diagnosis, based on
clinical symptoms, spirometry,
and patient history, is essential
for effective treatment.
2. Individualized Pharmacological
Treatment
Asthma treatment often
involves controlling
inflammation and
bronchoconstriction, with a
focus on symptom control and
COPD treatment emphasizes
symptom management,
reducing exacerbations, and
slowing disease progression.
The choice of medication
should be tailored to the
patient's age, disease severity,
of exacerbations.
3. Stepwise Approach to Asthma
Management
• Sten 1 (Mild Asthma): Use
preventing exacerbations. COPD treatment emphasizes symptom management, reducing exacerbations, and slowing disease progression. The choice of medication should be tailored to the patient's age, disease severity, comorbidities, and frequency of exacerbations. Stepwise Approach to Asthma

with ICS to enhance bronchodilation and reduce inflammation. • Step 4 (Severe Asthma): Add leukotriene receptor antagonists (LTRAs) like montelukast or consider biologics like omalizumab or dupilumab for severe cases. 4. COPD Pharmacological Management • Short-Acting Bronchodilators: SABA (e.g., salbutamol) and short-acting muscarinic antagonists (SAMA) (e.g., ipratropium) provide quick relief for symptoms. Long-Acting Bronchodilators: LABA (e.g., formoterol) and long- acting muscarinic antagonists (LAMA) (e.g., tiotropium) are used for long- term management of airflow obstruction.
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Inhaled Corticosteroids
(ICS): Used in combination
with bronchodilators for
patients with frequent
exacerbations (e.g.,
fluticasone).
nutrasone).
5. Monitoring and Adjusting Treatment
Monitor lung function (using
spirometry), symptoms, and
exacerbation frequency to
assess the efficacy of
treatment and adjust
medications accordingly.
For asthma, adjust treatment in
response to symptom control
or frequency of exacerbations,
considering a step-up or step-
down approach based on
disease control.
disease control.
For COPD, monitor symptoms,
exacerbation history, and comorbidities
to adjust the therapeutic regimen.
Knowledge Peced Outcomes
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
Pathophysiology:
Demonstrate understanding of
the underlying
pathophysiological
mechanisms of asthma and
COPD, including
inflammation, airway
remodeling, and
bronchoconstriction.
pronchoconstriction.

Pharmacological Principles: Understand the classes of drugs used in asthma and COPD, including bronchodilators, corticosteroids, and other adjunctive therapies, and their mechanisms of action. Diagnosis and Differentiaton: Differentiate between asthma and COPD based on clinical presentation, diagnostic tests (spirometry, chest imaging), and patient history. Exacerbation Management: Recognize the appropriate use of medications in managing asthma and COPD exacerbations, including the role of systemic corticosteroids, bronchodilators, and antibiotics. Inhaler Technique and Patient Education: Educate patients on the proper use of inhalers, ensuring correct technique to maximize drug efficacy, and provide
use of inhalers, ensuring correct technique to maximize

HomUG-Mod.Phar- 4.5 (Hormones)

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessment		Integrat
	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ	Summative	- ion
								е		-
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.5.1	Insulin and oral Hypoglycemic drugs	K	Knowledge and scholarship	 1. Accurate Diagnosis and Classification of Diabetes Type 1 Diabetes (T1D): An autoimmune disorder where the pancreas produces little to no insulin, requiring lifelong insulin therapy. Type 2 Diabetes (T2D): Characterized by insulin resistance and eventual pancreatic beta-cell dysfunction, managed with a combination of lifestyle changes and pharmacological therapy. 	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y
				2. Insulin Therapy in Diabetes Management Insulin for Type 1 Diabetes:						

Basal Insulin: Provides a constant level of insulin, mimicking the body's natural insulin secretion (e.g., insulin glargine, insulin detemir). Bolus Insulin: Used to control postprandial blood glucose levels (e.g., insulin aspart, insulin lispro). Continuous Insulin Infusion (Insulin Pump): For some Type 1 diabetic patients, especially those who need more precise control of their blood sugar. Insulin for Type 2 Diabetes: Initially, T2D patients may be managed with oral hypoglycemic agents but may eventually require insulin as the disease progresses and pancreatic function declines. Combination Therapy: Insulin may be combined with oral hypoglycemic drugs like metformin or sulfonylureas for enhanced control. 3. Oral Hypoglycemic Agents (OHAs) in Type 2 Diabetes Biguanides (e.g., Metformin):
 First-line therapy for T2D. Works by decreasing hepatic

glucose production and improving insulin sensitivity, without increasing insulin sersitivity, without increasing insulin secretion (reducing the risk of hypoglycemia). Sulfonylureas (e.g., Glibenclamide, Glimepiride): • Stimulate the pancreas to secrete more insulin. • Typically used when metformin alone is not enough to control blood sugar. Thiazolidinediones (TZDs) (e.g., Pioglitazone): • Improve insulin sensitivity by acting on the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR-7) in the muscles and adipose tissue. Dipeptidyl Peptidase-4 Inhibitors (DPP-4 inhibitors) (e.g., Sitagliptin, Saxagliptin): • Enhance the action of incretin hormones, which increase
hormones, which increase insulin release and decrease glucagon secretion in a glucose-dependent manner. SGLT2 Inhibitors (e.g.,

Empagliflozin, Dapagliflozin):
Work by inhibiting sodium- glucose cotransporter 2 in the kidneys, leading to increased glucose excretion in the urine and lowering blood glucose levels.
GLP-1 Receptor Agonists (e.g., Exenatide, Liraglutide):
Increase insulin secretion in response to meals, reduce glucagon secretion, and delay gastric emptying, leading to weight loss.
4. Monitoring and Adjusting Treatment
Self-Monitoring of Blood Glucose (SMBG): Regular blood glucose testing is essential to assess treatment efficacy and guide adjustments. Hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c): A key long-term marker used to assess the effectiveness of treatment. The target for most diabetic patients is usually an A1c below 7%, but individual goals may vary. Renal Function: Regularly monitor renal function in patients on drugs like metformin, SGLT2

inhibitors, or insulin to avoid complications, particularly in those with compromised kidney function. 5. Prevention and Management of Hypoglycemia
Insulin Therapy: Hypoglycemia is a common risk, especially with insulin or sulfonylureas. Patients should be educated on recognizing early signs of hypoglycemia (e.g., sweating, dizziness) and how to correct it (e.g., consuming glucose). Oral Hypoglycemics: Drugs like SGLT2 inhibitors and DPP-4 inhibitors are less likely to cause hypoglycemia compared to insulin or sulfonylureas. Patient Education: Teach patients about diet, medication timing, and how exercise can affect blood sugar levels, helping them avoid hypoglycemic episodes.
Cardiovascular Disease: Many diabetic patients have comorbid cardiovascular conditions. SGLT2 inhibitors and GLP-1 agonists have

shown cardiovascular benefits.
Kidney Disease: Monitor
kidney function regularly,
especially in patients receiving metformin, SGLT2
inhibitors, or insulin.
minortors, or misum.
7. Long-Term Management and
Lifestyle Support
Diabetes is a chronic condition
requiring long-term management. Lifestyle
support (including diet,
exercise, and weight
management) should be
integrated into therapy.
Encourage patient engagement and
regular follow-ups to ensure proper
management and prevent
complications.
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Pharmacodynamics and
Pharmacokinetics:
Demonstrate an understanding of the mechanisms of action,
pharmacokinetics, and
therapeutic use of insulin and
oral hypoglycemic drugs
such as metformin,
sulfonylureas, SGLT2
inhibitors, and GLP-1
receptor agonists.
2. Diabetes Classification and

				Pathophysiology: Understand the different types of diabetes (Type 1, Type 2) and the pathophysiological mechanisms underlying insulin resistance and betacell dysfunction. Drug Safety: Recognize the adverse effects, contraindications, and precautions of insulin and oral hypoglycemics, including the risk of hypoglycemia and kidney impairment						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.5.2	Adrenocortical and Androgenic steroids	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Adrenocortical Steroids 1. Differentiating Glucocorticoids and Mineralocorticoids Glucocorticoids (e.g., Prednisone, Dexamethasone): • Primary role: Antiinflammatory and immunosuppressive effects. • Used for: Asthma, rheumatoid arthritis, autoimmune diseases, and allergies. • Adverse effects: Long-term use can lead to osteoporosis, diabetes, and adrenal suppression. Mineralocorticoids (e.g., Fludrocortisone): • Primary role: Regulation of	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

electrolyte and water balance
via actions on renal tubules.
Used for: Addison's disease
and other conditions involving
adrenal insufficiency.
Adverse effects: Sodium
retention, hypokalemia, and
hypertension.
2. Rational Use in Therapy
Select drugs based on their potency ,
duration of action, and specific indications:
Indications:
Short-acting glucocorticoids:
Hydrocortisone.
Intermediate-acting:
Prednisone,
Methylprednisolone.
Long-acting: Dexamethasone,
Betamethasone.
3. Managing Adverse Effects
Monitor for iatrogenic
Cushing's syndrome with
long-term glucocorticoid
therapy.
Prevent complications such as
osteoporosis by
supplementing calcium and
vitamin D.
Regularly check for
hypertension,
hyperglycemia, and

infections.
4. Anti-Inflammatory and Immunosuppressive Therapy
 Glucocorticoids are used to manage inflammatory and autoimmune diseases such as lupus, rheumatoid arthritis, and inflammatory bowel disease. Their use in transplantation helps prevent graft rejection through immunosuppressive effectsfor Androgenic Steroid Drugs
1. Therapeutic Indications
 Primary or Secondary Hypogonadism: Use testosterone or its esters to restore normal androgen levels. Anabolic Effects: Promote nitrogen retention and muscle growth in catabolic states such as severe burns or chronic illnesses.
Other Uses: Certain androgenic steroids are used for endometriosis, hereditary angioedema, or as part of hormone therapy in transgender men.

				Knowledge-Based Outcomes Pharmacology: Understand the mechanism of action, pharmacokinetics, and therapeutic uses of glucocorticoids, mineralocorticoids, and androgenic steroids.						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.5.3	Estrogens, Progesterone and OCPs	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Estrogens • Regulate the development of female secondary sexual characteristics. • Essential for the menstrual cycle and maintaining bone density. • Common examples: Estradiol, Ethinyl Estradiol, and Conjugated Estrogens. Progesterone: • Regulates the menstrual cycle and maintains pregnancy. • Plays a role in the endometrial transformation required for implantation. • Common examples: Progesterone, Medroxyprogesterone	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

acetate, and Norethindrone.
3. Therapeutic Applications
Estrogens:
Used for hormone
replacement therapy (HRT)
in menopausal women.
Management of
hypogonadism in females.
Treatment of osteoporosis and
certain cancers (e.g., prostate
cancer in men).
Progesterone:
Used in combination with
estrogens in HRT to prevent
endometrial hyperplasia.
Indicated for abnormal
uterine bleeding,
amenorrhea, and
endometriosis.
3. Rational Use
3. National osc
Combine estrogens and
progestins in women with an
intact uterus to prevent
endometrial carcinoma.
Use the lowest effective dose
for the shortest duration to
minimize risks like
thromboembolism or cancer.
For menopausal women, use
HRT only for vasomotor

T T		1	
	symptoms, vaginal atrophy, or		
	osteoporosis prevention.		
	4. Monitoring and Adverse Effects		
	4. Worttoning and Adverse Effects		
	Estrogona		
	Estrogens:		
	Risks include		
	thromboembolism, breast		
	cancer, and endometrial		
	hyperplasia.		
	Monitor liver function, lipid		
	profile, and coagulation		
	parameters.		
	Durantanana		
	Progesterone:		
	Can cause mood changes,		
	weight gain, and irregular		
	bleeding.		
	Monitor for symptoms of		
	depression and cardiovascular		
	risks.		
	Oral Contraceptive Pills (OCPs)		
	1. Types of OCPs		
	Combined Oral Contraceptives		
	(COCs):		
	• Contain both estrogen (e.g.,		
	Ethinyl Estradiol) and a		
	progestin (e.g., Levonorgestrel ,		
	Drospirenone).		
	Mechanism: Suppress		
	1.1ccnaiisii. 5abbicss		

	ovulation, thicken cervical
	mucus, and alter the
	endometrium.
	Progestin-Only Pills (POPs):
	Contain only progestins.
	Mechanism: Thicken cervical
	mucus and inhibit ovulation.
	Preferred for women who are
	breastfeeding or have
	contraindications to estrogens.
	2. The armount is Applications
	2. Therapeutic Applications
	Contraception:
	• Drimony yea of OCDs to
	Primary use of OCPs to
	prevent pregnancy.
	Non-Contraceptive Uses:
	Management of menstrual
	disorders like dysmenorrhea
	or menorrhagia.
	• Treatment of endometriosis .
	Reduction in the risk of
	ovarian and endometrial
	cancers.
	3. Selection of OCPs
	Choose based on patient needs, medical
	history, and side effect profile.
	Low-dose COCs: Preferred
L	

for minimizing estrogen-	٦
related side effects.	
POPs: Recommended for	
women with risk factors like	
thromboembolism.	
4. Safety and Monitoring	
Screen for contraindications to OCPs,	
including:	
Thromboembolic disorders.	
Breast cancer or other	
estrogen-dependent cancers.	
• Uncontrolled hypertension or migraine with aura.	
Monitor for breakthrough	
bleeding, mood changes, and	
weight gain.	
5. Managing Side Effects	
Adjust the estrogen or	
progestin dose for symptoms	
like nausea , headaches , or	
irregular bleeding.	
Educate on the importance of	
adherence and steps to take if a dose is	
missed.	
Knowledge-Based Outcomes	
1. Pharmacodynamics and	
Pharmacokinetics:	
Understand the mechanisms of	
action, absorption,	╛

				metabolism, and elimination of estrogens, progesterone, and OCPs. Indications and Contraindications: Learn the therapeutic uses of these drugs, along with contraindications like a history of thromboembolism or breast cancer.						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.5.4	Vitamin D, Calcium and Drugs affecting calcium Balance	K	Knowledge and scholarship	1.Physiological Roles Vitamin D: Regulates calcium and phosphate absorption from the gut. Facilitates bone mineralization and remodeling. Active forms: Calcitriol (1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D) and Cholecalciferol (Vitamin D3). Calcium: Essential for bone structure, muscle contraction, nerve transmission, and blood clotting. Daily requirement depends on age, gender, and physiological state (e.g., pregnancy, lactation).	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

2. Therapeutic Applications
Vitamin D:
 Treats rickets, osteomalacia, hypocalcemia, and secondary hyperparathyroidism. Used for osteoporosis prevention and treatment.
Calcium:
 Supplementation for hypocalcemia, osteoporosis, and dietary insufficiency. Adjunct in cardiac arrest (calcium chloride or calcium gluconate).
3. Rational Use
 Ensure adequate calcium intake (dietary or supplemental) alongside vitamin D therapy. Use the active form (Calcitriol) in cases of renal impairment, where vitamin D activation is impaired.
 Tailor dosage to patient needs, age, and comorbidities: Vitamin D: Typically
400–800 IU/day for adults, higher doses for deficiency. Calcium: 1,000–
1,200 mg/day for

T. T.		<u> </u>	<u> </u>	
	adults.			
	4. Monitoring and Adverse Effects			
	Monitor serum calcium and			
	vitamin D levels to avoid			
	hypercalcemia and toxicity.			
	Watch for symptoms of			
	excess, such as nausea ,			
	constipation, and renal			
	calculi.			
	In high-risk populations (e.g., elderly),			
	ensure supplements do not exceed			
	tolerable upper intake levels.			
	Knowledge-Based Outcomes			
	Knowledge-Dased Outcomes			
	1 25 2 1 0 1 1			
	1. Mechanisms of Action:			
	Understand how vitamin D,			
	calcium, and calcium-			
	modulating drugs affect bone			
	remodeling and calcium			
	homeostasis.			
	2. Indications and Dosage:			
	Learn the appropriate			
	indications, dosages, and			
	formulations for conditions			
	like osteoporosis , rickets , and			
	hypercalcemia.			
	Adverse Effects:			
	Recognize common side effects,			
	including hypercalcemia , renal			
	complications, and osteonecrosis.			
	complications, and osteoliectosis.			

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HomUG-Mod.Phar- 4.6 (CVS)

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessment		Integrat
	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ e	Summative	ion
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.6.1	T/t of Hypertension	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Hypertension Management 1. Etiology and Pathophysiology Identify the cause of hypertension: • Primary (essential) hypertension: Idiopathic but influenced by genetic and lifestyle factors. • Secondary hypertension: Caused by conditions such as renal artery stenosis, endocrine disorders, or	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

medication use.
 Understand the pathophysiological mechanisms: Increased systemic vascular resistance, volume overload, and sympathetic nervous system activation.
2. Therapeutic Goals
The primary goal is to reduce blood pressure to recommended targets: <140/90 mmHg for most adults. <130/80 mmHg for patients with diabetes, chronic kidney disease, or a history of cardiovascular disease. Prevent complications such as stroke, myocardial infarction, and organ damage.
3. Pharmacological Treatment Options
Hypertension treatment requires patient-specific drug selection based on comorbidities, age, and ethnicity:
1. First-Line Agents:
• Thiazide Diuretics (e.g.,

Hydrochlorothiazide,
Chlorthalidone):
Reduce blood volume by
increasing urinary excretion of
sodium and water.
• ACE Inhibitors (e.g.,
Enalapril, Ramipril):
Inhibit the renin-angiotensin-
aldosterone system (RAAS),
reducing vasoconstriction and
aldosterone secretion.
Angiotensin II Receptor
Blockers (ARBs) (e.g.,
Losartan, Valsartan):
Block angiotensin II receptors,
reducing vasoconstriction.
Calcium Channel Blockers (CCPa) (a gas Amla digina)
(CCBs) (e.g., Amlodipine,
Nifedipine):
Cause vasodilation by
inhibiting calcium influx in vascular smooth muscle.
vasculai sinootii muscie.
2. Second-Line and Add-On
Agents:
Beta-Blockers (e.g.,
Metoprolol, Atenolol):
Reduce heart rate and cardiac
output.
Aldosterone Antagonists
(e.g., Spironolactone,
Eplerenone):
Effective in resistant
hypertension.
Alpha-Blockers (e.g.,
Doxazosin):
Relax vascular smooth muscle

to lower BP.
3. Other Agents:
Centrally Acting Drugs (e.g.,
Clonidine, Methyldopa):
Reduce sympathetic outflow.
Direct Vasodilators (e.g.,
Hydralazine, Minoxidil):
Reserved for severe or
refractory hypertension.
4. Non-Pharmacological Measures
Emphasize lifestyle modifications for
all patients:
Dietary Approaches to Stop
Hypertension (DASH) diet:
Rich in fruits, vegetables, and
low-fat dairy.
• Salt reduction: <2.3 grams of
sodium/day.
Regular exercise: At least
150 minutes of moderate-
intensity aerobic activity per
week.
Weight loss: Aim for BMI
<25 kg/m².
Smoking cessation and
limiting alcohol intake.
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Understanding

				Pathophysiology: Describe the mechanisms contributing to hypertension and the pharmacological targets of antihypertensive drugs. 2. Therapeutic Principles: Understand the indications, mechanisms, and contraindications of different antihypertensive drugs. 3. Risk Stratification: Learn to assess cardiovascular risk and tailor treatment to reduce complications. Skill-Based Outcomes Blood Pressure Measurement: Accurately measure and interpret blood pressure values using standard techniques.						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.6.2	Angina, MI	K	Knowledge and scholarship	 Angina 1. Types of Angina Stable Angina: Caused by a fixed coronary artery obstruction. Unstable Angina: Part of acute coronary syndrome (ACS), often due to plaque rupture. Prinzmetal (Variant) Angina: Caused by coronary 	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

	vasospasm.
	2. Goals of Therapy
	2. Godis of Therapy
	Alleviate symptoms by
	improving oxygen supply-
	demand balance.
	Prevent progression to MI or
	sudden cardiac death.
	Improve quality of life and
	physical activity tolerance.
	2 David Channel for Assistan
	3. Drug Classes for Angina
	1. Nitrates (e.g., Nitroglycerin,
	Isosorbide Dinitrate):
	Mechanism: Reduce
	preload and afterload
	by venodilation;
	improve coronary
	blood flow.
	o Indication: Acute
	relief (sublingual
	nitroglycerin) and
	long-term
	prophylaxis (oral or
	transdermal nitrates).
	o Adverse Effects:
	Headache,
	hypotension, reflex
	tachycardia.
	2. Beta-Blockers (e.g.,
	Metoprolol, Atenolol):
	Mechanism: Reduce
	heart rate and
	contractility,
	lowering myocardial

oxygen demand.
o Indication: First-line
for stable angina;
reduce mortality in
post-MI patients.
o Adverse Effects:
Bradycardia, fatigue,
bronchospasm.
3. Calcium Channel Blockers
(CCBs) (e.g., Amlodipine,
Verapamil):
Mechanism: Reduce
afterload by
vasodilation and
decrease myocardial
oxygen demand.
o Indication:
Prinzmetal angina,
stable angina in
patients intolerant to
beta-blockers.
o Adverse Effects:
Hypotension,
peripheral edema,
constipation.
4. Antiplatelet Agents (e.g.,
Aspirin, Clopidogrel):
Mechanism: Prevent
platelet aggregation
and thrombus
formation.
o Indication: Prevent
acute coronary
syndromes.
o Adverse Effects:
Bleeding,
gastrointestinal
irritation.
5. Ranolazine:

o Mechanism: Inhibits
late sodium currents,
reducing ischemia.
o Indication: Chronic
stable angina
refractory to standard
therapy.
o Adverse Effects: QT
prolongation.
protonguion.
Down Hard in Managed and the formation
Drugs Used in Myocardial Infarction
(MI)
1. Pathophysiology
MI is sound by somelets or
MI is caused by complete or
partial coronary artery
occlusion, leading to ischemia
and myocardial necrosis.
2. Goals of Therapy
Restore coronary perfusion
and limit infarct size.
Prevent complications such as
arrhythmias, heart failure, and
reinfarction.
Reduce mortality and improve
long-term outcomes.
3. Drug Classes for MI
1. Thrombolytics
(Fibrinolytics) (e.g.,
Alteplase, Streptokinase):
thrombi by activating

	plasminogen to
	plasmin.
	o Indication: STEMI
	when percutaneous
	coronary intervention
	(PCI) is unavailable.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Bleeding, intracranial
	hemorrhage.
2.	Antiplatelet Agents:
	o Aspirin: Irreversible
	COX-1 inhibition
	reduces thromboxane
	A2, preventing
	platelet aggregation.
	o P2Y12 Inhibitors
	(e.g., Clopidogrel,
	Ticagrelor): Block
	ADP-mediated
	platelet activation.
	Used in dual
	antiplatelet therapy
	(DAPT) for ACS and
	post-PCI.
	Anticoagulants (e.g.,
	Enoxaparin, Heparin):
	o Mechanism: Prevent
	clot propagation by
	inhibiting clotting
	factors.
	o Indication: Acute
	phase of MI to reduce
	thrombotic risk.
	Adverse Effects:
	Bleeding, heparin-
	induced
	thrombocytopenia
	(HIT).
	Beta-Blockers:
1 1 4.	DUM-DIVERCIS.

Reduce myocardial
oxygen demand,
preventing
arrhythmias and
infarct expansion. 5. ACE Inhibitors/ARBs:
Prevent ventricular
remodeling and
reduce afterload.
o Indication: Post-MI
with heart failure or
reduced ejection
fraction.
o Adverse Effects:
Cough (ACE
inhibitors),
hyperkalemia.
6. Statins (e.g., Atorvastatin,
Rosuvastatin):
o Mechanism: Lower
LDL cholesterol and
stabilize plaques.
o Indication: All MI
patients irrespective
of baseline
cholesterol levels.
7. Nitrates:
o Relieve ischemic
pain by improving
coronary perfusion.
8. Aldosterone Antagonists
(e.g., Spironolactone):
Indication: Post-MI with heart failure
or reduced ejection fraction.
Knowledge-Based Outcomes

1. Pathophysiology Understanding: Describe the mechanisms underlying angina and MI, including the role of oxygen
supply-demand mismatch and thrombosis. 2. Drug Mechanisms and Indications: Understand the mechanism of action, indications, and contraindications of drugs
used in angina and MI. 3. Guideline Awareness: Familiarity with current guidelines for managing stable angina, unstable angina, and MI.
Skill-Based Outcomes
4. Drug Selection: Select the most appropriate therapy for angina or MI based on patient-specific factors, such as comorbidities and contraindications. 5. Acute Management Skills:
Administer appropriate acute therapies for MI (e.g., thrombolysis, dual antiplatelet therapy). 6. Monitoring and Adjustment:
Monitor therapy effectiveness (e.g., relief of chest pain, BP control) and adjust based on patient response and side

				effects. Attitude-Based Outcomes 7. Patient-Centered Care: Prioritize patient preferences and risk factors in designing treatment plans. 8. Preventive Focus: Educate patients on lifestyle changes (e.g., smoking cessation, diet, exercise) to prevent angina and recurrent MI. 9. Ethical Prescribing: Avoid polypharmacy and adhere to evidence-based practices for reducing cardiovascular morbidity and mortality.						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.6.3	Cardiac Glycosides and Drugs for Heart failure	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Cardiac Glycosides 1. Mechanism of Action • Digoxin, the primary cardiac glycoside, works by: ○ Inhibiting the Na ⁺ /K ⁺ -ATPase pump, leading to increased intracellular sodium. ○ Increased sodium decreases calcium extrusion via the sodium-calcium exchanger, leading to	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

higher intracellular calcium and stronger myocardial contractions (positive inotropy). Slowing conduction through the atrioventricular (AV) node and increasing vagal tone (negative chronotropy).
2. Indications
 Symptomatic relief in chronic heart failure (especially in patients with reduced ejection fraction). Management of atrial fibrillation with rapid ventricular rates, especially in heart failure patients.
3. Adverse Effects
 Cardiac: Arrhythmias (e.g., ventricular tachycardia, AV block). Gastrointestinal: Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea. Neurological: Visual disturbances (e.g., yellow vision), confusion. Toxicity: Narrow therapeutic index necessitates careful monitoring of drug levels

(normal range: 0.5–2 ng/mL).
4. Monitoring
Regular assessment of digoxin
levels, renal function, and
electrolytes (hypokalemia and
hypomagnesemia increase toxicity risk).
Drugs Used in Heart Failure
Heart failure management varies based on the type:
on the type.
Heart Failure with Reduced
Ejection Fraction (HFrEF):
EF ≤40%. • Heart Failure with
Preserved Ejection Fraction
(HFpEF): EF >50%.
1. Goals of Therapy
Alleviate symptoms (e.g.,
dyspnea, fatigue).
Reduce hospitalizations and
mortality.
Prevent disease progression and improve quality of life.
2. Drug Classes
1. First-Line Drugs:
1. I II St-Diffe D1 ugs.
Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme

	(ACE) Inhibitors (e.g., Enalapril,
	Ramipril):
	Kamipin/.
	Mechanism: Reduce afterload
	and preload by blocking the
	renin-angiotensin-aldosterone
	system (RAAS).
	Benefits: Decrease mortality
	and slow disease progression.
	Adverse Effects: Cough,
	hyperkalemia, angioedema.
	nyperkarenia, angrecenia.
	Angiotensin II Receptor Blockers
	(ARBs) (e.g., Losartan, Valsartan):
	(ARBs) (e.g., Losartan).
	Alternative to ACE inhibitors
	in patients with intolerance.
	Beta-Blockers (e.g.,
	Bisoprolol, Carvedilol,
	Metoprolol):
	sympathetic overactivation.
	Benefits: Reduce mortality
	and improve left ventricular
	function.
	Adverse Effects: Bradycardia,
	fatigue, hypotension.
1	
	Mineralocorticoid Receptor
	Antagonists (MRAs) (e.g.,
	Spironolactone, Eplerenone):
	Spironolactone, Epictenole).
1	Mechanism: Block
	aldosterone, reducing fluid
	aldoserone, reducing mild
	retention and fibrosis.
1	Benefits: Mortality reduction
	in HFrEF.
L	III III I.

Adverse Effects: Hyperkalemia, gynecomastia (spironolactone). 2.Symptomatic Relief: Loop Diuretics (e.g., Furosemide, Torsemide): Mechanism: Increase urinary excretion of sodium and water. Indication: Relieve fluid overload symptoms (e.g., pulmonary congestion, peripheral edema). Adverse Effects: Hypokalemia, hypovolemia. Thiazide Diuretics (e.g., Hydrochlorothiazide): Used in mild fluid retention or combination therapy. 3.Novel Therapies: Sodium-Glucose Cotransporter-2 (SGLT2) Inhibitors (e.g., Dapagliflozin, Empagliflozin): Benefits: Mortality reduction, symptom improvement, regardless of diabetes status. 4.Other Agents: Ivabradine:
Ivantaunic.

Mechanism: Reduces heart rate by inhibiting the If current in the sinoatrial node. Indication: HFrEF with resting heart rate >70 bpm despite beta-blocker use.
Hydralazine and Isosorbide Dinitrate:
Indication: HFrEF in African- American patients or those intolerant to ACE inhibitors/ARBs.
5.Anticoagulation and Antiplatelets:
Indicated in HF patients with atrial fibrillation or thromboembolic risk.
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Understanding Mechanisms: Describe the pharmacological actions of cardiac glycosides and other HF drugs. 2. Pathophysiology: Understand the role of neurohormonal dysregulation in HF and the impact of pharmacotherapy. 3. Evidence-Based Practices: Learn to apply current guidelines in the pharmacological management of HF.

				Skill-Based Outcomes						
				4. Drug Selection: Select appropriate drugs for HFrEF, HFpEF, and symptom management. 5. Toxicity Monitoring: Identify and manage digoxin toxicity and other drug-related adverse effects. Patient Counseling: Educate patients on medication adherence, recognizing symptoms of fluid overload, and dietary restrictions.						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.6.4	Hypolipidemic drugs	K	Knowledge and scholarship	1. Classes of Hypolipidemic Drugs A. HMG-CoA Reductase Inhibitors (Statins) • Examples: Atorvastatin, Rosuvastatin, Simvastatin. • Mechanism: Inhibit HMG- CoA reductase, the rate- limiting enzyme in cholesterol synthesis, reducing LDL cholesterol. • Benefits: • Decrease LDL by 20–60%. • Modest increase in HDL and decrease in triglycerides. • Anti-inflammatory and plaque- stabilizing effects.	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

• Indications: O Primary and secondary prevention of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD). O Hypercholesterolemi a.
B. Fibrates
• Examples: Fenofibrate, Gemfibrozil. • Mechanism: Activate peroxisome proliferator- activated receptor-alpha (PPAR-a), increasing fatty acid oxidation and lipoprotein lipase activity, leading to reduced triglycerides. • Benefits: □ Decrease triglycerides by 30- 50%. □ Modest increase in HDL. • Indications: Hypertriglyceridemia, prevention of pancreatitis.
C. Bile Acid Sequestrants
Examples: Cholestyramine, Colestipol. Mechanism: Bind bile acids in the intestine, preventing reabsorption and promoting

cholesterol excretion. • Benefits:
D. Cholesterol Absorption Inhibitors Example: Ezetimibe. Mechanism: Inhibits Niemann-Pick C1-Like 1 (NPC1L1) protein in the intestine, reducing dietary and biliary cholesterol absorption. Benefits: Reduces LDL by 18—25%. Additive effect with statins. Indications: Hypercholesterolemia, adjunct to statins.
Examples: Evolocumab, Alirocumab. Mechanism: Monoclonal antibodies that inhibit PCSK9, increasing LDL receptor recycling and reducing LDL levels.

Benefits: Colower LDL by 50-70%. Reduce Cardiovascular Events. Indications: Severe Reduce Severe Reducesterolemia, familial Reducesterolemia, and Patients with ASCVD. F. Nicotinic Acid (Niacin) Mechanism: Reduces hepatic Synthesis of triglycerides and VLDL, increasing HDL. Benefits: Reduces triglycerides and LDL. Significantly Increases HDL. Adverse Effects: Flushing, Reduces triglycerides Adverse Effects: Flushing, Reduces triglycerides Adverse Effects: Flushing, Reduces triglycerides Adverse Adverse Effects: Flushing, Reduces triglycerides Adverse Adverse Acids G. Omega-3 Fatty Acids
Examples: Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). Mechanism: Reduce hepatic triglyceride synthesis. Benefits:

	and anti-arrhythmic
	properties.
	• Indications:
	Hypertriglyceridemia.
	2. Principles of Therapy
	T'0 4 1 34 100 4
	Lifestyle Modifications:
	Emphasize diet, exercise, and
	smoking cessation alongside
	pharmacotherapy.
	3. Monitoring and Safety
	Lipid Levels: Monitor
	baseline and follow-up lipid
	profiles to assess efficacy.
	Liver Function: Regularly
	check liver enzymes,
	especially with statins and
	niacin.
	Muscle Toxicity: Monitor for
	myalgia or rhabdomyolysis in
	statin-treated patients.
	Glycemic Control: Be
	cautious of hyperglycemia in
	susceptible individuals on
	statins or niacin.
	Adverse Effects of Hypolipidemic
	Adverse Effects of Hypolipidemic
	Drugs
	Statins: Myopathy,
	rhabdomyolysis,
	hepatotoxicity, increased
	diabetes risk.
	• Fibrates: Myopathy
	- 1101111111

HomUG-Mod.Phar- 4.7 (Renal System)

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessmer	nt	Integrat
	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ e	Summative	ion
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.7.1	Diuretics and Antidiuretics	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Diuretics: Classes and Mechanism of Action Diuretics are classified based on their site of action in the nephron and their mechanism of action. A. Thiazide Diuretics • Examples: Hydrochlorothiazide,	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

Chlorthalidone. Mechanism: Inhibit sodium-chloride symporters in the distal convoluted tubule, promoting sodium and water excretion. Effects: Decrease blood volume and lower blood pressure. Indications: Hypertension, mild heart failure, edema due to kidney disease, and nephrolithiasis (calcium-containing stones). Adverse Effects: Hypokalemia, hyponatremia, hyperglycemia, hyperuricemia. B. Loop Diuretics
 Examples: Furosemide, Bumetanide, Torsemide. Mechanism: Inhibit the sodium-potassium-chloride co-transporter in the thick ascending limb of the loop of Henle, preventing sodium reabsorption. Effects: Cause significant diuresis, lowering fluid overload rapidly. Indications: Acute heart failure, pulmonary edema, chronic kidney disease, severe edema. Adverse Effects: Hypokalemia, dehydration,

hypotension, ototoxicity.	
C. Potassium-Sparing Diuretics	
• Examples: Spironolactone,	
Eplerenone, Amiloride, Triamterene.	
Mechanism:	
o Aldosterone	
antagonists (e.g.,	
Spironolactone,	
Eplerenone) block	
the effects of	
aldosterone in the collecting ducts,	
preventing sodium	
retention and	
potassium excretion.	
o Epithelial sodium	
channel blockers	
(e.g., Amiloride, Triamterene) inhibit	
sodium reabsorption	
in the collecting	
tubules.	
Effects: Reduce sodium	
retention without causing	
significant potassium loss. • Indications:	
Indications: Hyperaldosteronism, heart	
failure (as adjunct),	
hypertension, and cirrhosis	
with ascites.	
Adverse Effects:	
Hyperkalemia, gynecomastia	
(with spironolactone), metabolic acidosis.	
inclavone acidosis.	

D. Carbonic Anhydrase Inhibitors
 Examples: Acetazolamide. Mechanism: Inhibit carbonic anhydrase in the proximal convoluted tubule, preventing bicarbonate reabsorption and increasing urine output. Effects: Mild diuresis, alkalinization of urine. Indications: Glaucoma, metabolic alkalosis, altitude sickness. Adverse Effects: Metabolic acidosis, kidney stones,
hypokalemia.
E. Osmotic Diuretics
 Examples: Mannitol. Mechanism: Increase osmolarity of the filtrate, preventing water reabsorption in the proximal tubule and descending loop of Henle. Effects: Draw water into the renal tubules, promoting diuresis. Indications: Cerebral edema, increased intraocular pressure, acute renal failure. Adverse Effects: Dehydration, hyperkalemia, electrolyte imbalances.
2. Antidiuretics: Mechanism and Use

Antidiuretics, or diuretic inhibitors, are used to reduce urine output, typically by increasing water reabsorption in the kidneys.
A. Antidiuretic Hormone (ADH) Analogs
 Examples: Desmopressin, Vasopressin. Mechanism: Mimic the action of endogenous ADH, promoting water reabsorption in the collecting ducts by activating V2 receptors. Indications: Diabetes insipidus, nocturnal enuresis. Adverse Effects: Hyponatremia, water retention, hypertension.
B. Vasopressin Receptor Antagonists
 Examples: Tolvaptan, Conivaptan. Mechanism: Block the V2 receptors, inhibiting water reabsorption and promoting diuresis. Indications: Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone (SIADH), hypervolemic hyponatremia.
Adverse Effects: Hypernatremia, thirst, dehydration.

HomUG-Mod.Phar- 4.8 (Blood)

Sl.No	Duration of Competency	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/ Guilbert	Priority	TL MM	Assessment Formativ e	Summative	Integrat ion
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.8.1	Hematinics	K	Knowledge and scholarship	T/t of Iron deficiency anemia and Megaloblastic anemia	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Physiolo gy

$HomUG\text{-}Mod.Phar\underline{-4.9\ (GIT)}$

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessmen	nt	Integrat
	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ	Summative	ion
								e		
Hom UG-	Drugs for Peptic Ulcer and GERD	К	Knowledge and	Peptic Ulcer Disease (PUD) Peptic ulcers are lesions in the mucosal	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio	Quiz, Written	SAQ, MCQ	Gastro Depratmer nt

Mod.	scholarship	lining of the stomach, duodenum, or	n	test, MCQ		Medicine
Phar		esophagus caused by an imbalance			P	Physiolog
1 1141		between aggressive factors (e.g., gastric			у	7
4.9.1		acid, pepsin) and protective factors				
		(e.g., mucus, bicarbonate). Common				
		causes include Helicobacter pylori				
		infection, long-term NSAID use, and				
		excess gastric acid production.				
		A. Drug Classes Used for PUD				
		1. Proton Pump Inhibitors (PPIs)				
		• Examples:				
		Omeprazole,				
		Lansoprazole,				
		Esomeprazole,				
		Pantoprazole,				
		Rabeprazole.				
		o Mechanism : PPIs				
		irreversibly inhibit				
		the H+/K+ ATPase				
		(proton pump) in				
		parietal cells, which				
		reduces gastric acid				
		secretion.				
		o Indications: First-				
		line therapy for				
		peptic ulcers, H.				
		pylori eradication (as part of combination				
		therapy), GERD,				
		Zollinger-Ellison				
		syndrome.				
		o Adverse Effects:				
		Long-term use may				
		lead to vitamin B12				
		deficiency,				

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	hypomagnesemia,
	osteoporosis, and
	increased
	susceptibility to
	Clostridium difficile
	infections.
	2. H2-Receptor Antagonists
	(H2RAs)
	o Examples:
	Ranitidine,
	Famotidine,
	Cimetidine,
	Nizatidine.
	o Mechanism: H2RAs
	block histamine
	receptors (H2
	receptors) on parietal
	cells, reducing gastric
	acid secretion.
	o Indications: Used in
	the treatment of mild
	to moderate PUD,
	GERD, and
	Zollinger-Ellison
	syndrome. They are
	also used in the
	prevention of stress
	ulcers in critically ill
	patients.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Headache, dizziness,
	fatigue, and
	gastrointestinal
	symptoms.
	Cimetidine has
	significant drug
	interactions due to its
	inhibition of
	cytochrome P450
	cytochrome P450

	enzymes.
	3. Antacids
	o Examples:
	Magnesium
	hydroxide,
	Aluminum
	hydroxide, Calcium
	carbonate, Sodium
	bicarbonate.
	o Mechanism:
	Antacids neutralize
	gastric acid,
	increasing gastric pH
	and providing
	symptomatic relief.
	o Indications: Short-
	term relief of
	symptoms in PUD
	and GERD, as
	adjunctive therapy in
	combination with
	other agents.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Constipation
	(aluminum-based),
	diarrhea (magnesium-
	based), and metabolic
	alkalosis with
	overuse of sodium
	bicarbonate.
	4. Mucosal Protective Agents
	o Examples:
	Sucralfate,
	Misoprostol.
	o Mechanism:
	Sucralfate forms a
	protective barrier
	over the ulcer, while
	Misoprostol, a

	prostaglandin analog,
	increases mucus and
	bicarbonate secretion
	to protect the gastric
	mucosa.
	o Indications: Used in
	the healing of ulcers,
	particularly NSAID-
	induced ulcers
	(Misoprostol), and in
	combination with
	other drugs for H.
	pylori eradication.
	O Adverse Effects: Sucralfate can cause
	constipation and
	nausea, while
	Misoprostol may
	cause diarrhea,
	abdominal cramping,
	and is contraindicated
	in pregnancy due to
	its abortifacient
	effects.
	5. Antibiotics (for H. pylori
	infection)
	o Examples:
	Amoxicillin,
	Clarithromycin,
	Metronidazole,
	Tetracycline.
	o Mechanism:
	Antibiotics target and
	eradicate
	Helicobacter pylori,
	which is a primary
	cause of peptic
	ulcers.
	o Indications: Used in
	O Indicators. Osci III

	combination therapy
	with PPIs for the
	eradication of H.
	pylori in PUD.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Nausea, vomiting,
	diarrhea, and the risk
	of developing
	antibiotic resistance.
	antibiotic resistance.
	2. Gastroesophageal Reflux Disease
	(GERD)
	GERD is a chronic condition where
	gastric contents, including acid, reflux
	into the esophagus, causing symptoms
	such as heartburn, regurgitation, and
	potential esophageal damage (e.g.,
	esophagitis, Barrett's esophagus).
	esophagius, Daneit s'esophagus).
	A. Drug Classes Used for GERD
	1. Proton Pump Inhibitors
	(PPIs)
	o Indications: First-
	line therapy for
	GERD to heal
	esophagitis, provide
	symptomatic relief,
	and prevent
	complications like
	strictures or Barrett's
	esophagus.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Similar to those seen
	in PUD therapy,
	including risk of
	long-term

	complications like
	vitamin B12
	deficiency and
	osteoporosis.
	2. H2-Receptor Antagonists
	(H2RAs)
	o Indications: Used for
	mild GERD
	symptoms or in
	patients who do not
	require more potent
	acid suppression
	(PPIs).
	o Adverse Effects: As
	noted above,
	particularly with
	cimetidine due to its
	interaction with
	cytochrome P450
	enzymes.
	3. Antacids
	o Indications: Provide
	short-term relief from
	heartburn symptoms
	in GERD.
	O Adverse Effects: As
	noted in PUD
	treatment,
	particularly with
	overuse leading to
	metabolic alkalosis,
	constipation, or
	diarrhea.
	4. Prokinetic Agents
	o Examples:
	Metoclopramide,
	Domperidone.
	o Mechanism: These
	drugs increase lower
	urugs increase lower

according and anti-investor
esophageal sphincter tone and enhance
gastric emptying,
reducing acid reflux.
o Indications: Used in
GERD with delayed
gastric emptying or in
patients with
esophageal motility
issues.
o Adverse Effects:
Metoclopramide can
cause extrapyramidal
symptoms, tardive
dyskinesia, and
sedation.
5. Alginate-based Products
o Examples: Gaviscon.
o Mechanism:
Alginate forms a gel-
like barrier that floats
on the stomach
contents, preventing
acid from refluxing
into the esophagus.
o Indications: Used for
mild to moderate
GERD and in
combination with
other agents.
Advance Effects: Typically well
Adverse Effects: Typically well-tolerated but may cause bloating or
discomfort.
uiscomfort.
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Mechanisms of Action:

Understand how PPIs, H2RAs,
and other drugs reduce gastric
acid secretion, promote ulcer
healing, and protect the
gastrointestinal mucosa.
2. Indications and
Contraindications:
Identify when to use PPIs,
H2RAs, antacids, and mucosal
protectants based on the
underlying etiology of PUD or
GERD.
3. Adverse Effects and Drug
Interactions:
Recognize the potential side
effects of each class of drug
(e.g., bleeding risks with
mucosal protectants, infection
risks with PPIs, or drug
interactions with cimetidine).
Skill-Based Outcomes
4. Therapeutic Decision
Making:
Select appropriate drug
therapy based on the clinical
scenario, balancing the
severity of the condition with
the potential for adverse
effects and long-term
complications.
5. Monitoring and Adjustment:
Monitor patient progress,
adjust therapy as needed based
on symptom control, adverse
effects, and response to
treatment (e.g., for H. pylori

				eradication or healing of ulcers). 6. Patient Education: Educate patients on the importance of adherence to therapy, lifestyle modifications (e.g., diet, weight management), and potential side effects. Attitude-Based Outcomes 7. Patient-Centered Care: Address patient concerns regarding long-term treatment (e.g., PPI use) and emphasize the importance of managing GERD and PUD to prevent complications. 8. Rational Prescribing: Prescribe drugs for PUD and GERD based on current guidelines, considering the risk of complications, especially with long-term therapy. 9. Preventive Approach: Advocate for preventive measures such as H. pylori screening and eradication, lifestyle modifications, and careful monitoring of patients at risk for complications.						
Hom UG- Mod.	Drugs for constipation and diarrhoea	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Drugs for Constipation Constipation is characterized by	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

Phar	infrequent, difficult, or painful bowel	n	
1 1141	movements, often associated with hard		
4.9.2	stools. Treatment typically involves		
	dietary and lifestyle changes, but		
	pharmacotherapy is used in more		
	severe or chronic cases.		
	A. Drug Classes Used for Constipation		
	A. Drug classes osea for constipution		
	1 Dully Founding Longtines		
	1. Bulk-Forming Laxatives		
	• Examples: Psyllium,		
	Methylcellulose,		
	Polycarbophil.		
	o Mechanism: These		
	drugs increase stool		
	volume by absorbing		
	water, which softens		
	the stool and		
	promotes peristalsis.		
	o Indications: First-		
	line therapy for		
	chronic constipation,		
	especially in patients		
	with low fiber intake.		
	o Adverse Effects:		
	Bloating, flatulence,		
	and abdominal		
	discomfort. Rarely,		
	they can cause		
	obstruction if not		
	taken with adequate		
	water.		
	2. Stool Softeners		
	o Examples : Docusate		
	sodium, Docusate		
	calcium.		
	o Mechanism : These		
	agents increase the		

	water content of the
	stool, making it softer
	and easier to pass.
	o Indications: Used for
	mild constipation,
	particularly in
	patients with
	hemorrhoids or post-
	operative patients
	who should avoid
	straining.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Generally well
	tolerated but may
	cause mild abdominal
	cramping.
	3. Osmotic Laxatives
	o Examples:
	Lactulose,
	Polyethylene glycol
	(PEG), Magnesium
	hydroxide.
	o Mechanism: These
	agents draw water
	into the colon
	through osmosis,
	softening the stool
	and promoting bowel
	movement.
	o Indications: Used in
	chronic constipation,
	fecal impaction, and
	in patients with
	hepatic
	encephalopathy
	(lactulose).
	o Adverse Effects:
	Bloating, flatulence,
	diarrhea, and
 <u> </u>	

	electrolyte
	imbalances
	(especially with
	magnesium-based
	agents).
	4. Stimulant Laxatives
	o Examples:
	Bisacodyl, Senna,
	Castor oil.
	Mechanism: These
	drugs stimulate the
	smooth muscle of the
	colon, enhancing
	peristalsis and
	accelerating bowel
	movements.
	o Indications: Used in
	cases of acute
	constipation or as a
	second-line treatment
	for chronic
	constipation.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Cramping,
	dehydration, and
	long-term use may
	lead to dependence or
	bowel atony.
	5. Chloride Channel Activators
	• Examples:
	Lubiprostone,
	Linaclotide.
	Mechanism: These
	agents increase
	chloride secretion
	into the intestinal
	lumen, enhancing
	water secretion and
	improving stool

consistency.
o Indications: Used for
chronic idiopathic
constipation (CIC)
and constipation-
predominant irritable
bowel syndrome
(IBS-C).
o Adverse Effects:
Nausea, diarrhea,
bloating, and
abdominal
discomfort.
6. Guanylate Cyclase-C
Agonists
o Examples:
Plecanatide,
Linaclotide.
o Mechanism : These
drugs increase cyclic
GMP levels in the
intestines, stimulating
fluid secretion and
promoting bowel
motility.
o Indications: Used for
chronic constipation
and IBS-C.
o Adverse Effects:
Diarrhea, flatulence,
and abdominal pain.
2. Drugs for Diarrhea
Diarrhag is defined as the passage of
Diarrhea is defined as the passage of
loose or watery stools more than three
times a day and can be caused by
infections, medications, or

	and the stired discoulant. The seed of
	gastrointestinal disorders. The goal of
	treatment is to restore fluid balance,
	relieve symptoms, and treat the
	underlying cause.
	A. Drug Classes Used for Diarrhea
	1. Antidiarrheal Agents
	• Examples:
	Loperamide,
	Diphenoxylate with
	atropine (Lomotil).
	Mechanism: These
	drugs work by
	slowing intestinal
	motility, allowing
	more time for fluid
	absorption in the
	colon.
	o Indications: Used for
	acute diarrhea
	(including traveler's
	diarrhea), chronic
	diarrhea (e.g., in
	IBS), and to reduce
	the frequency of stool
	in conditions like
	inflammatory bowel
	disease (IBD).
	o Adverse Effects:
	Constipation,
	bloating, and
	abdominal cramps.
	Loperamide should
	be avoided in cases
	of dysentery or
	bacterial infections
	involving the gut.
	m totting the gate

2. Adsorbents
o Examples: Activated
charcoal, Kaolin,
Pectin.
o Mechanism:
Adsorbents bind to
toxins or pathogens
in the gut, preventing
them from causing
diarrhea.
o Indications: Used for
mild diarrhea and
toxin-related diarrhea
(e.g., from bacterial infections).
o Adverse Effects:
Constipation,
bloating, and reduced effectiveness of other
medications if used
concurrently.
3. Bismuth Subsalicylate Framples Parts
O Examples: Pepto-Bismol.
antimicrobial, anti-
inflammatory, and
antacid properties,
which help reduce
diarrhea, nausea, and
abdominal
discomfort.
o Indications: Used for
acute diarrhea
(including traveler's
diarrhea), indigestion,
and nausea.
o Adverse Effects:
Blackened stools,

T T	
	tongue discoloration,
	and in large doses,
	salicylate toxicity.
	4. Probiotics
	o Examples:
	Lactobacillus,
	Saccharomyces
	boulardii.
	o Mechanism:
	Probiotics restore the
	natural balance of gut
	flora, which can be
	disrupted in diarrhea.
	o Indications : Used for
	antibiotic-associated
	diarrhea,
	gastroenteritis, and
	inflammatory bowel
	disease (IBD).
	o Adverse Effects:
	Generally well
	tolerated but may
	cause bloating and
	gas in some
	individuals.
	5. Octreotide
	o Mechanism:
	Octreotide is a
	somatostatin analog
	that inhibits the
	secretion of various
	gastrointestinal
	hormones, slowing
	motility and reducing
	secretions.
	o Indications: Used for
	diarrhea caused by
	neuroendocrine
	tumors,
	tumors,

chemotherapy, and
certain
gastrointestinal
disorders.
o Adverse Effects:
Nausea, abdominal
cramps, and
flatulence.
6. Antibiotics (for Infectious
Diarrhea)
o Examples:
Ciprofloxacin,
Metronidazole,
Rifaximin.
o Mechanism: These
drugs treat bacterial
infections causing
diarrhea by targeting
the pathogen directly.
o Indications : Used for
diarrhea caused by
specific bacterial
infections, such as
Salmonella, Shigella,
or Clostridium
difficile.
o Adverse Effects:
Diarrhea, nausea, and
potential
development of
antibiotic resistance.
3. Monitoring and Safety
Constinution, Decules
Constipation: Regular was iteria a few advances of feats
monitoring for adverse effects
with long-term laxative use,
especially stimulant laxatives,

Г	
	to avoid dependency and
	bowel atony.
	Diarrhea: Close monitoring of
	hydration status, especially in children
	and elderly patients, to prevent
	complications like electrolyte
	imbalances and dehydration.
	Knowledge-Based Outcomes
	Milowicuge-Dascu Outtonies
	1. Mechanisms of Action:
	Understand how each class of
	drug for constipation and
	diarrhea works to alleviate
	symptoms and restore normal
	bowel function.
	2. Indications and
	Contraindications:
	Recognize the appropriate use
	of bulk-forming agents,
	laxatives, antidiarrheals, and
	probiotics based on the
	underlying cause and clinical
	scenario.
	3. Adverse Effects and Drug
	Interactions:
	Identify potential side effects
	and interactions of these drugs
	(e.g., electrolyte imbalances
	with osmotic laxatives,
	constipation with
	antidiarrheals).
	unidaminedis).
	Skill-Based Outcomes
	4. Therapeutic Decision

Making:
Be able to select the
appropriate pharmacotherapy
based on the type of
constipation or diarrhea and its
underlying cause (e.g.,
osmotic laxatives for chronic
constipation, loperamide for
acute diarrhea).
5. Monitoring and Adjustment:
Monitor patients for adverse
effects, treatment response,
and the resolution of
underlying causes (e.g.,
adjusting therapy based on
stool frequency and
consistency).
6. Patient Education:
Provide guidance on proper
use of medications, potential
side effects, and lifestyle
modifications (e.g., increasing
fluid and fiber intake for
constipation).
Attitude-Based Outcomes
Treature Duscu Outcomes
7. Patient-Centered Care:
Ensure that treatment
decisions are tailored to the
individual patient, taking into
account their preferences,
lifestyle, and specific medical
conditions.
8. Rational Prescribing:
Prescribe drugs for
constipation and diarrhea
based on the clinical severity,

				while minimizing risks of adverse effects, especially in vulnerable populations (e.g., the elderly). 9. Preventive Approach: Advocate for preventive measures like diet modification (increasing fiber intake), hydration, and regular exercise for constipation, and proper sanitation to prevent infections that cause diarrhea.						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.9.3	Antiemetics	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Nausea and vomiting are complex physiological processes that involve multiple pathways and brain regions, including: • Central mechanisms: Activation of the vomiting center in the medulla oblongata via signals from the chemoreceptor trigger zone (CTZ), vestibular system, and higher brain centers. • Peripheral mechanisms: Inflammation or irritation of the gastrointestinal tract, involving neurotransmitters like serotonin (5-HT), dopamine, and substance P. Key Neurotransmitters Involved: 1. Serotonin (5-HT): Plays a central role in chemotherapy-	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

induced nausea and vomiting
(CINV) and post-operative
nausea.
2. Dopamine (D2 receptors):
Involved in motion sickness,
CINV, and gastroparesis.
3. Histamine (H1 receptors):
Responsible for motion
sickness and vestibular
nausea.
4. Substance P (NK1
receptors): Involved in
chemotherapy-induced and
post-operative nausea.
2. Drug Classes Used for Nausea and
Vomiting (Antiemetics)
1 Soustonin (5 HT2)
1. Serotonin (5-HT3)
Antagonists
o Examples:
Ondansetron,
Granisetron,
Dolasetron,
Palonosetron.
o Mechanism: These
drugs block serotonin
receptors in the
central and peripheral
nervous system,
specifically 5-HT3
receptors, which are
involved in triggering
nausea and vomiting.
o Indications:
Primarily used for
chemotherapy-
induced nausea and
vomiting (CINV),

postoperative nausea, and radiation therapy-	
radiation therapy-	
induced nausea.	
O Adverse Effects:	
Headache,	
constipation,	
dizziness, and	
potential QT	
prolongation.	
2. Dopamine (D2) Antagonists	
© Examples:	
Metoclopramide,	
Prochlorperazine,	
Domperidone.	
o Mechanism: These	
drugs block	
dopamine receptors	
in the CTZ and	
gastrointestinal tract,	
which helps control	
nausea and vomiting.	
o Indications: Used for	
gastrointestinal	
disorders (e.g.,	
gastroparesis),	
postoperative	
nausea, motion	
sickness, and CINV.	
o Adverse Effects:	
Extrapyramidal Extrapyramidal	
symptoms (EPS) like	
dystonia,	
parkinsonism, and	
tardive dyskinesia,	
sedation, and	
increased prolactin	
levels (domperidone	
is less likely to cause	

		77.0	
		EPS).	
		ine (H1) Antagonists	
	0	Examples:	
		Diphenhydramine,	
		Meclizine,	
		Promethazine.	
	0	Mechanism: These	
		drugs block	
		histamine receptors	
		in the vestibular	
		system, helping	
		prevent nausea	
		related to motion	
		sickness and vertigo.	
		Indications: Used for	
		motion sickness,	
		vertigo,	
		postoperative nausea, and as	
		adjunct therapy in	
		CINV.	
	0	Adverse Effects:	
		Sedation, dry mouth,	
		blurred vision, and	
		urinary retention.	
		kinin (NK1) Receptor	
	Antago		
	0	-	
		Aprepitant,	
		Fosaprepitant,	
		Rolapitant.	
	0	Mechanism: These	
		drugs block	
		substance P at the	
		NK1 receptors in the	
		brain, reducing the	
		signal that triggers	
		vomiting.	
		Indications: Mainly	
L			

	used in combination
	with 5-HT3
	antagonists and
	corticosteroids for
	CINV, especially for
	highly emetogenic
	chemotherapy
	regimens.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Fatigue, dizziness,
	diarrhea, and liver
	enzyme elevation.
	5. Corticosteroids
	o Examples:
	Dexamples:
	exact mechanism of
	action is unclear, but
	corticosteroids may
	reduce inflammation
	and affect the central
	nervous system's
	response to nausea.
	o Indications: Used in
	combination with 5-
	HT3 antagonists and
	NK1 receptor
	antagonists for CINV
	and postoperative
	nausea.
	o Adverse Effects:
	Increased appetite,
	weight gain,
	insomnia, and
	elevated blood
	glucose levels.
	6. Cannabinoids
	o Examples:
	Dronabinol,

Nabilone.
o Mechanism: These
agents act on the
cannabinoid receptors
in the brain, which
play a role in the
regulation of nausea
and vomiting.
o Indications: Used for
CINV in patients
who do not respond
to standard
antiemetics or in
cases of appetite
stimulation in
patients with cancer
or HIV/AIDS.
o Adverse Effects:
Euphoria, sedation,
dizziness, dry mouth,
and psychosis in
susceptible
individuals.
7. Anticholinergic Agents
o Examples:
Scopolamine.
o Mechanism: These
drugs block
acetylcholine
receptors in the
vestibular system and
gastrointestinal tract,
helping prevent
nausea and vomiting
caused by motion
sickness.
o Indications: Used for
motion sickness and
postoperative

nausea.
Adverse Effects: Dry mouth, blurred
vision, urinary retention, and
confusion.
Knowledge Pered Outcomes
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Mechanism of Action:
Understand how different
classes of antiemetic drugs act
on the various pathways
involved in nausea and
vomiting, such as serotonin,
dopamine, histamine, and
substance P.
2. Clinical Indications:
Recognize the appropriate
indications for the use of
specific antiemetic drugs,
including CINV, PONV,
motion sickness, and
gastrointestinal disorders.
3. Adverse Effects:
Identify the potential adverse
effects and safety concerns
associated with antiemetic
drugs, such as sedation,
extrapyramidal symptoms, and
electrolyte imbalances.
Skill-Based Outcomes
4. Therapeutic Decision-
Making:
Be able to select the most
appropriate antiemetic
appropriate anticinetic

treatment based on the type of nausea/vomiting (e.g., CINV, motion sickness) and the patient's clinical condition. 5. Combination Therapy: Develop the ability to combine antiemetics (e.g., 5-HT3 antagonists with NK1 antagonists and corticosteroids) to provide effective control of nausea and vomiting in complex conditions like CINV. 6. Monitoring and Adjustment: Monitor patients for adverse effects, especially in chemotherapy and postoperative settings, and adjust treatment based on the patient's response and side effects.
Attitude-Based Outcomes
7. Patient-Centered Care: Ensure that antiemetic therapy is tailored to the individual patient's needs, considering factors such as chemotherapy regimens, comorbidities, and personal preferences. 8. Rational Prescribing: Prescribe antiemetics based on the severity and cause of nausea and vomiting, while minimizing side effects and drug interactions, especially in vulnerable populations.

		9.	Patient Education: Provide thorough education to patients about the appropriate use of antiemetics, potential side effects, and when to seek medical attention for any adverse reactions.			

<u>HomUG-Mod.Phar- 4.10 (Chemotherapy)</u>

Sl.No	Duration of	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/	Priority	TL	Assessment		Integrat
	Competency				Guilbert		MM	Formativ e	Summative	ion
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.10.1	Sulfonamides + Cotrimoxazole	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Sulfonamides Definition Sulfonamides are bacteriostatic agents that inhibit the synthesis of dihydropteroic acid, an essential precursor in the folate pathway of bacteria. Mechanism of Action Sulfonamides act as competitive inhibitors of the enzyme dihydropteroate synthase. They block the incorporation of para-aminobenzoic acid	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

<u> </u>	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	(PABA) into folic acid,
	preventing bacterial
	replication.
	Examples
	1. Short-acting sulfonamides:
	Sulfisoxazole.
	2. Intermediate-acting
	sulfonamides:
	Sulfamethoxazole.
	3. Long-acting sulfonamides:
	Sulfadoxine.
	4. Topical sulfonamides:
	Sulfacetamide (eye
	infections), Silver sulfadiazine
	(burn infections).
	Clinical Uses
	Urinary tract infections
	(UTIs).
	Nocardiosis.
	• Trachoma.
	Toxoplasmosis (in
	combination with
	pyrimethamine).
	Burn wound infections
	(topical silver sulfadiazine).
	Adverse Effects
	Auverse Lijects
	Hypersensitivity reactions:
	Rash, Stevens-Johnson
	syndrome.
	Hematologic effects:

П	1	Hamilet and the first the last
		Hemolytic anemia (especially in G6PD-deficient patients).
		to bilirubin displacement.
		Crystalluria: Formation of
		crystals in urine leading to
		renal damage.
		2. Cotrimoxazole
		Definition
		Cotrimoxazole is a combination of
		sulfamethoxazole (SMX) and
		trimethoprim (TMP) in a 5:1 ratio.
		The combination provides synergistic
		bactericidal activity.
		Mechanism of Action
		Sulfamethoxazole: Inhibits
		dihydropteroate synthase,
		blocking folic acid synthesis.
		Trimethoprim: Inhibits
		dihydrofolate reductase,
		further blocking folate
		metabolism.
		Together, they inhibit two
		consecutive steps in folate
		synthesis, leading to bacterial
		cell death.
		Clinical Uses
		Respiratory infections:
		Pneumocystis jirovecii
		pneumonia (PCP).
		1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

Urinary tract infections
(UTIs): First-line treatment.
Gastrointestinal infections:
Shigellosis, Traveler's
diarrhea (caused by <i>E. coli</i>).
Nocardiosis and
toxoplasmosis (alternative to
sulfonamides and
pyrimethamine).
pyrimetrialimic).
Adverse Effects
Same as sulfonamides
(hypersensitivity, hematologic
effects, crystalluria).
Trimethoprim-specific
effects: Hyperkalemia (due to
potassium-sparing effects),
megaloblastic anemia,
leukopenia (due to folate
deficiency).
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
Milowicuge-Dascu Outcomes
1. Machanisma of Action.
1. Mechanisms of Action:
O Understand how
sulfonamides and
trimethoprim target
bacterial folate
synthesis.
2. Spectrum of Activity:
o Recognize the broad
spectrum of
sulfonamides and the
synergistic effects of
Cotrimoxazole.
3. Therapeutic Applications:

o Know the specific	
indications for	
sulfonamides and	
Cotrimoxazole,	
including bacterial,	
parasitic, and	
opportunistic opportunistic	
infections.	
4. Adverse Effects:	
o Identify common side	
effects and	
contraindications,	
including their use in	
neonates, pregnant	
women, and G6PD-	
deficient individuals.	
Skill-Based Outcomes	
Skiii-Dascu Outcomes	
5. Rational Drug Selection:	
o Select appropriate	
sulfonamide or	
Cotrimoxazole	
therapy based on	
infection type,	
organism	
susceptibility, and	
patient factors.	
6. Therapeutic Monitoring:	
o. The apetate Women ing. o Monitor for clinical	
efficacy and adverse	
effects, including	
renal function,	
electrolyte levels, and	
signs of	
hypersensitivity.	
7. Drug Interactions:	
o Manage potential	

				interactions, such as the displacement of warfarin or methotrexate by sulfonamides, increasing their toxicity. Attitude-Based Outcomes 8. Patient Education:						
Hom UG- Mod.	Quinolones	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Quinolones Definition	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

Phar	
4.10.2	Quinolones are synthetic antibiotics that inhibit bacterial DNA replication by targeting DNA gyrase (topoisomerase II) and topoisomerase IV.
	2. Mechanism of Action
	1. DNA Gyrase Inhibition: O Primarily in gramnegative bacteria, it prevents the unwinding of supercoiled DNA, which is essential for replication. 2. Topoisomerase IV Inhibition: O Predominantly in gram-positive bacteria, it interferes with the separation of replicated DNA strands during cell division.
	3. Classification and Examples
	First-Generation Quinolones
	 Examples: Nalidixic acid. Spectrum: Limited to gramnegative bacteria. Use: Uncomplicated urinary tract infections (UTIs).

Second-Generation Fluoroquinolones
 Examples: Ciprofloxacin, Norfloxacin, Ofloxacin. Spectrum: Broad spectrum, effective against gram- negative bacteria and some gram-positive organisms. Use: UTIs, gastroenteritis, prostatitis, bone/joint infections.
Third-Generation Fluoroquinolones
 Examples: Levofloxacin. Spectrum: Improved activity against gram-positive bacteria (e.g., Streptococcus pneumoniae). Use: Respiratory tract infections (e.g., community-acquired pneumonia, bronchitis).
Fourth-Generation Fluoroquinolones
 Examples: Moxifloxacin, Gemifloxacin. Spectrum: Broad spectrum, effective against anaerobes and atypical pathogens. Use: Respiratory tract infections, intra-abdominal infections.
4. Adverse Effects

1. Gastrointestinal:
o Nausea, vomiting,
diarrhea.
2. Central Nervous System
(CNS):
o Headache, dizziness,
insomnia, seizures
(rare).
3. Tendinopathy:
Risk of tendonitis and
Achilles tendon
rupture, especially in
older adults or those
on corticosteroids.
4. QT Prolongation:
o Particularly with
moxifloxacin, leading
to arrhythmias.
5. Photosensitivity:
o Increased sensitivity
to sunlight.
6. Resistance Development:
Widespread use has
led to significant
bacterial resistance.
6. Contraindications and Precautions
o. Contraindications and Frecautions
1. Pregnancy and
Breastfeeding:
o Contraindicated due
to potential cartilage
damage in the fetus
or neonate.
2. Children (<18 years):
Avoid unless benefits
outweigh risks (e.g.,

5. Rational Drug Selection: O Prescribe appropriate quinolones based on infection type, bacterial susceptibility, and patient factors. 6. Therapeutic Monitoring: O Monitor for adverse effects such as tendinopathy, QT prolongation, or photosensitivity. 7. Resistance Management: O Avoid overuse or inappropriate prescribing to
8. Patient Counseling: O Educate patients on proper usage, adherence, and the need to avoid direct sunlight.
9. Ethical Prescribing: O Limit use to infections where quinolones are clearly indicated, reducing unnecessary exposure.

				 10. Safety Awareness: Prioritize patient safety by considering contraindications and drug interactions. 8. Clinical Pearls Ciprofloxacin is highly effective for UTIs and gastrointestinal infections but has limited activity against gram-positive cocci. Levofloxacin and moxifloxacin are preferred for respiratory infections due to better activity against <i>S. pneumoniae</i>. Resistance is a growing concern; restrict use to confirmed or strongly 						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.10.3	Beta Lactam Antibiotics	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Penicillins • Natural Penicillins: Penicillin G, Penicillin V. ○ Spectrum: Grampositive bacteria (Streptococcus spp., Treponema pallidum). • Penicillinase-Resistant Penicillins: Methicillin, Nafcillin, Oxacillin. ○ Spectrum:	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

Penicillinase-
producing
Staphylococcus
aureus.
Aminopenicillins:
Amoxicillin, Ampicillin.
Spectrum: Broader
gram-negative
activity (e.g., E. coli,
H. influenzae).
• Extended-Spectrum
Penicillins: Piperacillin,
Ticarcillin.
o Spectrum: Includes
Pseudomonas Pseudomonas
aeruginosa.
2. Cephalosporins
2. Cepitalosporitis
Classified into five
generations:
o 1st Generation:
Cefazolin,
Cephalexin (Gram-
positive activity).
o 2nd Generation:
Cefuroxime (Broader
gram-negative
coverage).
o 3rd Generation:
Ceftriaxone,
Ceftazidime
(Expanded gram-
negative activity,
some penetrate CNS).
Cefepime

(Pseudomonas coverage). • 5th Generation: Ceftaroline (MRSA coverage). 3. Carbapenems • Examples: Imipenem, Meropenem, Ertapenem. • Spectrum: Broadest among beta-lactams, covering grampositive, gram-negative, and anaerobes. 4. Monobactams • Example: Aztreonam. • Spectrum: Gram-negative aerobes, including Pseudomonas. 5. Beta-Lactamase Inhibitors • Examples: Clavulanic acid, Sulbactam, Tazobactam. • Used in combination with beta-lactams to inhibit
beta-lactams to inhibit bacterial beta-lactamase enzymes.
4. Clinical Applications
Gram-Positive Infections
Penicillin: Streptococcus,

Enterococcus, Listeria.
Cephalosporins (1st
generation): Skin infections
caused by Staphylococcus
aureus.
Gram-Negative Infections
Aminopenicillins: H.
influenzae, E. coli.
Cephalosporins (3rd and 4th
generations): Severe gram-
negative infections.
Carbapenems: ESBL-
producing organisms.
Anaerobic Infections
Carbapenems and penicillins
with beta-lactamase inhibitors.
Special Cases
Maninaidia Cofficienza an
Meningitis: Ceftriaxone or Of the interpretation of the inte
Cefotaxime (good CNS
penetration).
Pseudomonas infections:
Piperacillin-tazobactam,
Ceftazidime, Cefepime.
MRSA: Ceftaroline.
Knowledge-Based Outcomes

	1. Mechanism of Action: O Understand how beta-lactams inhibit
	bacterial cell wall synthesis. 2. Spectrum of Activity: O Differentiate between
	various classes and their antibacterial coverage. 3. Resistance Mechanisms:
	O Recognize common mechanisms of resistance and strategies to overcome them.
	4. Adverse Effects: O Identify common and serious side effects associated with betalactams.
S	Skill-Based Outcomes
	5. Rational Drug Selection: O Prescribe appropriate beta-lactams based on infection type, organism
	susceptibility, and patient-specific factors. 6. Therapeutic Monitoring: Monitor for signs of efficacy and toxicity, including
	hypersensitivity and

GI disturbances. 7. Combination Therapy:
Use beta-lactamase inhibitors
appropriately to
enhance the efficacy of beta-lactam
antibiotics.
Attitude-Based Outcomes
8. Antimicrobial Stewardship:
 Avoid unnecessary or prolonged use to
reduce resistance
development. 9. Patient Education:
 Counsel patients on completing the
course of antibiotics
and recognizing signs of adverse effects.
10. Ethical Prescribing:
Balance effective treatment
with the need to minimize resistance and preserve
antibiotics for future use.
8. Clinical Pearls
Cephalosporins have a
generation-specific
spectrum, with newer generations covering more
gram-negative organisms.
Carbapenems are last-resort

				antibiotics, reserved for multidrug-resistant infections. • Avoid beta-lactams in patients with a history of severe hypersensitivity reactions. • Combining beta-lactams with beta-lactamase inhibitors significantly broadens their spectrum against resistant bacteria.	
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.10.4	Tetracyclines, Chloramphenicol	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Tetracyclines Mechanism of Action Tetracyclines inhibit bacterial protein synthesis by binding to the 30S ribosomal subunit, preventing the attachment of aminoacyl-tRNA to the mRNA-ribosome complex. This action halts bacterial growth, making them bacteriostatic. Classification and Examples 1. Short-acting: Tetracycline. 2. Intermediate-acting: Demeclocycline. 3. Long acting: Doxycycline, Minocycline. Clinical Uses 1. Respiratory Infections: O Atypical pathogens (Mycoplasma)	

pneumoniae,
Chlamydia
pneumoniae).
2. Zoonotic Infections:
Rickettsial diseases
(e.g., Rocky
Mountain spotted
fever), Lyme disease
(Borrelia
burgdorferi).
3. Sexually Transmitted Infections:
O Chlamydia, syphilis
(alternative to
penicillin).
4. Acne:
o Long-term therapy
for severe acne.
5. Malaria Prophylaxis:
o Doxycycline.
Adverse Effects
1. Gastrointestinal:
Nausea, vomiting,
diarrhea.
2. Photosensitivity:
Increased sensitivity
to sunlight.
3. Teeth Discoloration:
o Avoid in children <8
years and pregnant
women.
4. Hepatotoxicity:
O Rare but severe in
high doses.
5. Fanconi Syndrome:
o Result of using
o resource of using

expired tetracycline.
Resistance Mechanisms
1. Efflux Pumps:
O Actively expel
tetracyclines from
bacterial cells.
2. Ribosomal Protection
Proteins:
o Prevent tetracycline
binding.
2. Chloramphenicol
Mechanism of Action
Chloramphenicol inhibits bacterial
protein synthesis by binding to the 50S
ribosomal subunit, preventing peptide
bond formation during translation. This
action is primarily bacteriostatic but
may be bactericidal at high
concentrations against certain
pathogens.
Clinical Uses
CHIRCAL USCS
1. Serious Infections:
o Meningitis
(Haemophilus
influenzae, Neisseria
meningitidis).
o Typhoid fever
(Salmonella typhi).
2. Rickettsial Infections:
O Alternative for
5 American 101

tetracyclines in pregnant women or children. 3. Topical Use: • Eye infections (conjunctivitis).
Adverse Effects
1. Bone Marrow Suppression: O Reversible suppression (dosedependent). Aplastic anemia (idiosyncratic and potentially fatal). 2. Gray Baby Syndrome: O In neonates due to immature liver enzymes, leading to toxicity. 3. Gastrointestinal: O Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea.
Resistance Mechanisms
1. Chloramphenicol Acetyltransferase: o Inactivates the drug via acetylation. 2. Efflux Pumps:
Reduce intracellular drug concentration.
Knowledge-Based Outcomes

1. Mechanisms of Action: o Explain how
tetracyclines target
the 30S ribosome and chloramphenicol
targets the 50S
ribosome to inhibit
protein synthesis.
2. Spectrum of Activity: o Recognize their
broad-spectrum
activity, covering
gram-positive, gram-
negative, atypical,
and intracellular pathogens.
3. Clinical Applications:
o Identify appropriate
conditions for their
use, such as rickettsial infections,
typhoid fever, and
acne.
4. Adverse Effects:
O Understand the risks of bone marrow
suppression, gray
baby syndrome, and
photosensitivity.
Skill-Based Outcomes
5. Rational Drug Selection:
o Select tetracyclines
or chloramphenicol
based on the infection
type, pathogen

susceptibility, and
patient factors.
6. Therapeutic Monitoring:
o Monitor for toxicity,
such as
hepatotoxicity
(tetracyclines) or
bone marrow
suppression
(chloramphenicol).
7. Resistance Management:
o Prescribe only when
indicated to avoid
resistance
development.
development.
Attitude-Based Outcomes
8. Antimicrobial Stewardship:
o Promote responsible
use to prevent
resistance.
9. Patient Counseling:
o Educate patients on
completing therapy,
avoiding sunlight
exposure
(tetracyclines), and
recognizing signs of
adverse effects.
10. Safety Considerations:
Avoid use in vulnerable
populations (e.g., pregnant
women, neonates, and
children) unless absolutely
necessary.

Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.10.5	Aminoglycosides	K	Aminoglycosides Overview Mechanism of Action • Aminoglycosides irreversibly bind to the 30S ribosomal subunit, leading to: 1. Misreading of mRNA. 2. Production of defective proteins. 3. Disruption of bacterial cell membrane integrity, resulting in bactericidal activity. Unique Feature • Aminoglycosides exhibit a concentration-dependent killing effect and postantibiotic effect (PAE), meaning bacterial suppression continues even after drug levels drop below the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC). Common Aminoglycosides 3. Clinical Applications 1. Gram-Negative Infections • Effective against					
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Enterobacteriaceae (e.g., E. coli, Klebsiella), Pseudomonas aeruginosa, and other gramnegative aerobes.
2. Combination Therapy
Used synergistically with beta-lactams or glycopeptides for: 1. Endocarditis(Entero coccus spp., Staphylococcus spp.). 2. Serious grampositive infections (e.g., MRSA).
3. Tuberculosis
Streptomycin as a second-line agent.
4. Topical/Local Use
 Neomycin for skin infections. Gentamicin in ophthalmic or otic preparations.
4. Adverse Effects
1. Ototoxicity (Cochlear and Vestibular): o Irreversible damage to auditory and vestibular function. o Risk increases with prolonged therapy,

high doses, and renal
impairment.
2. Nephrotoxicity:
o Reversible renal
tubular damage.
Risk factors include
high trough levels,
prolonged therapy,
and co-administration
with other
nephrotoxic drugs.
3. Neuromuscular Blockade:
Rare but can cause respiratory
paralysis, especially in patients with
myasthenia gravis.
myasticina gravis.
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Markovina of Astina
1. Mechanism of Action:
o Explain how
aminoglycosides
disrupt bacterial
protein synthesis by
binding to the 30S
ribosomal subunit.
2. Spectrum of Activity:
o Recognize their
primary activity
against aerobic gram-
negative bacteria and
synergistic potential
with other antibiotics.
3. Pharmacokinetics:
Understand their poor
oral bioavailability,
renal elimination, and
concentration-

dependent killing.
4. Adverse Effects:
o Identify key toxicities
(ototoxicity,
nephrotoxicity) and
their risk factors.
Skill-Based Outcomes
5. Rational Prescribing:
Select appropriate
aminoglycosides
based on infection
type, pathogen
susceptibility, and
patient-specific
factors.
6. Therapeutic Monitoring:
Use therapeutic drug
monitoring (TDM) to
maintain effective
peak levels while
minimizing toxic
trough levels.
7. Resistance Management:
o Apply appropriate
combination therapy
to minimize
resistance.
Attitude-Based Outcomes
8. Patient-Centered Care:
o Educate patients on
potential toxicities
and monitor closely
for early signs of
adverse effects.

				 9. Antimicrobial Stewardship: Avoid overuse or misuse of aminoglycosides aminoglycosides to prevent resistance and toxicity. 10. Ethical Use: Reserve aminoglycosides for serious infections to preserve their efficacy. Clinical Pearls Monitor renal function (serum creatinine, urine output) and auditory/vestibular function during therapy. Avoid aminoglycosides in patients with pre-existing renal or auditory impairment unless absolutely necessary. Use combination therapy for gram-positive infections to enhance efficacy and reduce resistance. 						
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.10.6	Antitubercular drugs and Antileprosy drugs	К	Knowledge and scholarship	Antitubercular Drugs Mechanism of Action and Classification Antitubercular drugs are classified into first-line and second-line agents based on their efficacy, safety, and	C1	MK	Lecture, Group discussio n	Quiz, Written test, MCQ	SAQ, MCQ	Medicine Physiolog y

tolerability. Second-Line Drugs Used for multidrug-resistant TB (MDR-TB):
 Fluoroquinolones (e.g., Levofloxacin, Moxifloxacin). Aminoglycosides (e.g., Amikacin, Kanamycin). Linezolid, Bedaquiline, Delamanid.
Clinical Uses 1. Active TB: Initial phase: Combination of 4 drugs (INH, RIF, PZA, EMB) for 2 months. Continuation phase: Combination of 2 drugs (INH and RIF) for 4-7 months.
2. Latent TB: O Monotherapy (e.g., INH for 6-9 months) or combination (RIF + INH for 3 months). 3. Drug-Resistant TB: O Individualized regimens with second-line drugs.
Adverse Effects

	1. Isoniazid: Peripheral neuropathy (prevented with pyridoxine), hepatotoxicity, 2. Rifampin: Hepatotoxicity, red-orange body fluids, drug interactions (CYP inducer). 3. Pyrazinamide: Hyperuricemia, hepatotoxicity, 4. Ethambutol: Optic neuritis, reversible with discontinuation. 5. Streptomycin: Ototoxicity, nephrotoxicity, Resistance Mechanisms 1. Mutations in drug targets (e.g., katG for INH, rpoB for RIF). 2. Efflux pumps. 3. Enzymatic inactivation of drugs. 2. Antileprosy Drugs Mechanism of Action and Classification Antileprosy drugs are used in combination therapy to prevent resistance and ensure effective eradication of Mycobacterium leprae. Clinical Uses 1. Multibacillary Leprosy
--	---

(MB): O Dapsone + Rifampin + Clofazimine for 12 months. 2. Paucibacillary Leprosy (PB): O Dapsone + Rifampin for 6 months.
3. Reactions in Leprosy: Type I Reaction: Use corticosteroids. Type II Reaction (Erythema Nodosum Leprosum): Use thalidomide or corticosteroids.
Adverse Effects 1. Dapsone: Hemolysis (especially in G6PD deficiency), methemoglobinemia. 2. Rifampin: Hepatotoxicity, red-orange body fluids.
Clofazimine: Skin pigmentation (reddish-brown), gastrointestinal symptoms. Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Mechanisms of Action: O Describe how antitubercular and antileprosy drugs target bacterial cell walls, protein

synthesis, and
metabolic pathways.
2. Drug Regimens:
O Understand standard
treatment regimens
for TB (e.g., DOTS
strategy) and leprosy.
3. Adverse Effects:
o Recognize potential
toxicities and their
prevention (e.g.,
pyridoxine for INH-
induced neuropathy).
4. Drug Resistance:
o Explain the
mechanisms and
management of drug-
resistant TB.
Tesistant 13.
State Parad Outromos
Skill-Based Outcomes
5. Rational Prescribing:
o Prescribe appropriate
combinations of
drugs to avoid
resistance and ensure
efficacy.
6. Monitoring:
o Monitor liver
function (for
hepatotoxicity),
vision (ethambutol),
and other toxicities
during therapy.
7. Public Health
Implementation:
O Apply national TB
control program

		1			
				guidelines and	
				strategies for leprosy	
				eradication.	
				Attitude-Based Outcomes	
				8. Patient Education:	
				o Educate patients on	
				the importance of	
				adherence to long-	
				term therapy to	
				prevent resistance.	
				9. Antimicrobial Stewardship:	
				o Promote the rational	
				use of drugs in TB	
				and leprosy	
				management.	
				10. Community Engagement:	
				Advocate for early diagnosis and	
				treatment in endemic regions to reduce	
				transmission.	
				Classification of Antimalarial Drugs	
				Based on Mechanism of	
				Action	
Hom					
UG-			1	Blood Schizonticides	
Mod.	Antimalarial		Knowledge	Tissue Schizonticides	
	drugs	K	and	Gametocides	
Phar	arago		scholarship	Sporontocides	
4.10.7				Key Antimalarial Agents	
				Chloroquine	
				Artemisinin Derivatives	
				Quinine/Quinidine	
		1		\(\frac{\partial}{\partial}\)	

Mefloquine
Primaquine
Proguanil and Pyrimethamine
Atovaquone
Atovaquone
Clinical Applications
Treatment of Malaria
1. Uncomplicated Malaria:
o P. vivax and P. ovale:
Chloroquine +
Primaquine.
o P. falciparum
(chloroquine-
resistant):
Artemisinin-based
Combination Therapy Combination Therapy
(ACT).
2. Severe Malaria:
O IV Artesunate is the
drug of choice.
o Alternatives: IV
Quinine or Quinidine.
3. Radical Cure:
o Primaquine or
Tafenoquine to
eradicate hypnozoites
in relapsing malaria
(P. vivax and P.
ovale).
Prophylaxis of Malaria
1 Tophylanis of Malatia
1. Casual Prophylaxis (prevents
hepatic infection):
Atovaquone-Proguanil.
Attoraquone-1 roguanti.

2. Suppressive Prophylaxis
(prevents blood-stage
infection): Mefloquine,
Doxycycline.
Drug-Resistant Malaria
A CVTD (A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A
ACTs (e.g., Artemether-
Lumefantrine, Artesunate-
Mefloquine).
Mechanisms of Resistance
1. Chloroquine: Mutations in
the PfCRT (Plasmodium
falciparum chloroquine
resistance transporter) gene.
reductase (DHFR) enzyme
Adverse Effects
Standard Learning Outcomes (SLO)
Knowledge-Reced Outcomes
Milowicuge-Dascu Outcomes
lifecycle.
Standard Learning Outcomes (SLO) Knowledge-Based Outcomes 1. Mechanisms of Action: © Explain how antimalarial drugs target specific stages of the parasite

	Drug Selection:
2.	
	and alternative
	therapies for
	uncomplicated,
	severe, and relapsing
	malaria.
3.	
	 Understand
	mechanisms of
	resistance and how
	they influence
	therapy.
4.	Adverse Effects:
	Recognize common
	toxicities and
	preventive measures
	(e.g., testing for
	G6PD deficiency).
Skill-I	Based Outcomes
5.	Rational Prescribing:
]	o Prescribe appropriate
	antimalarials based
	on species, resistance
	patterns, and patient
	factors.
6	
6.	
	effects, such as QT
	prolongation and
	hemolysis.
7.	Preventive Strategies:
	Develop prophylactic
	regimens tailored to
	travel destinations

		and patient risks.			
	Atti	tude-Based Outcomes			
	Use	8. Patient Education:			

HomUG-Mod.Phar<u>- 4.11 (Miscellaneous)</u>

Sl.No	Duration of Competency	Miller	Content	Specific Learning Objectives	Bloom/ Guilbert	Priority	TL MM	Assessment		Integrat ion
	Competency				Gunbert		IVIIVI	Formative	Summative	IOII
Hom UG- Mod.	Disinfectants,	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Classification of Disinfectants Based on Chemical Composition						

Phar	
4.11.1	Ethanol/Isopropanol Sodium Hypochlorite Glutaraldehyde Hydrogen Peroxide Quaternary Ammonium Compounds
	Mechanism of Action
	Targeting Microbial Structures: Disinfectants act on cell walls, membranes, or intracellular components to inhibit or kill microbes. Broad-Spectrum Activity: Effective against bacteria, viruses, fungi, and spores (depending on the type and concentration).
	Commonly Used Disinfectants and Applications
	Principles of Disinfectant Use
	Selection Based on Purpose
	1. High-Level Disinfection: Required for medical instruments that contact mucous membranes (e.g., glutaraldehyde, peracetic acid). 2. Intermediate-Level Disinfection: For surfaces that come in

contact with intact skin (e.g., alcohols, chlorine compounds).
3. Low-Level Disinfection:
Suitable for general cleaning
of floors, walls, and furniture
(e.g., QACs).
Concentration and Contact Time
• Alcohols: Effective at 60–
90%, with optimal contact
time of 10–15 minutes.
Sodium Hypochlorite:
Typically used in 0.1–0.5%
solutions for surface
disinfection.
Hydrogen Peroxide: Usually
applied in 3% solutions for
general use.
general use.
Adverse Effects and Precautions
Adverse Effects and Precautions
Standard Learning Outcomes (SLO)
Standard Learning Outcomes (SLO)
Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Classification:
Categorize
disinfectants based
on chemical
composition and use.
2. Mechanism of Action:
O Explain how
disinfectants kill or
inhibit microbes.
3. Application:
э. аррисации.

Recognize the
appropriate
disinfectant for
specific situations
(e.g., surgical
instruments vs.
general surfaces).
Skill-Based Outcomes
4. Preparation:
Demonstrate correct
preparation and
dilution of
disinfectants.
5. Application Techniques:
 Apply disinfectants
effectively to achieve
optimal microbial
control.
6. Monitoring:
Evaluate the
effectiveness of
disinfection and
identify potential
failures.
Attitude-Based Outcomes
7. Judicious Use:
o Encourage
responsible use of
disinfectantsdisinfect
ants to prevent
resistance and
environmental harm.

				8. Safety Practices: Adhere to safety guidelines to protect users and patients.	
Hom UG- Mod. Phar 4.11.2	Vitamins	K	Knowledge and scholarship	Vitamins Classification and Sources Fat-Soluble 1. Deficiency Disorders Vitamin A Vitamin D Vitamin E Vitamin K Vitamin C B-complex Supplementation Principles • Deficiency-Based: Supplementation is used to address deficiencies. • Therapeutic Use: High-dose vitamins for specific conditions (e.g., Vitamin D for osteoporosis). Safety Considerations: Avoid hypervitaminosis, particularly for fat-soluble vitamins.	

Knowledge-Based Outcomes
1. Understand the role of vitamins in metabolism and disease prevention. 2. Identify deficiency disorders and their management.
Skill-Based Outcomes
Prescribe appropriate vitamin supplements for specific needs. Educate patients about dietary sources of vitamins.
Attitude-Based Outcomes
Promote balanced nutrition to prevent deficiencies.
Encourage responsible use of vitamin supplements.

6.Teaching Learning Methods

- Lectures (including AV aid), Small group discussion, Integrated lectures, Library reference, Self directed learning etc.
- While lectures can provide a foundation, they shouldn't be the sole method Incorporate active learning strategies such as engage students through case studies, problem-based learning (PBL). PBL challenges students to solve real-world scenarios.
- Utilize online resources, explore online learning modules, simulations, and interactive quizzes to reinforce concepts at the student's pace.

7. Details of assessment

7.1. Overall Scheme of Assessment (Summative)

Sr. No	No Professional Course		Term I (1-6 Months)		Term II(7-12 Months)		
1	Third Profe BHMS	essional	PA I (end of 3 months)	TT I (end of 6 months)	PA II (end of 9 months)	FUE (end of 12 months)	
			05 Marks Viva	25 Marks Viva voce	05 Marks Viva	50 marks theory	50 marks (Viva+ IA)

PA: Periodical Assessment; TT: Term Test; FUE: Final University Examinations; IA: Internal Assessment

7.2. Number of papers and Marks Distribution for Final University Examination (FUE)

Sr. No.	Course Code	Papers	Theory	Viva	Internal	Grand Total
				Voce	Assessment*	
1	Hom.UG-Mod. Phar-I	01	50 marks	40 marks	10 marks	100 marks
	Fnar-1				(Marks of PA	
					I + TTI + PA	
					II)	

 ${\bf *Method\ of\ Calculation\ of\ Internal\ Assessment\ Marks\ for\ Final\ University\ Examination:}$

Marks of IA- (Marks of PA-1 + Marks of TT + Marks of PA-2) / 35 X 10

7.3.Paper Layout Summative assessment (FUE): <u>Theory- 50 marks</u>

MCQ	5 marks (5 questions each of 1mark)
SAQ	15 marks (3 questions each of 5 marks)
LAQ	30marks (3 questions each of 10 marks)

7.4. Theme-wise distribution of questions for theory paper:

Theme	Topics	Marks	MCQ's	SAQ's	LAQ's	
A	Introduction to Pharmacology	2	02	0	0	
В	Pharmacokinetics	5	0	01	0	
В	Pharmacodynamics	J	0	01	U	
C	ANS and Autacoids	10	0	0	01	
D	NSAID	2	02			
	CNS	10	0	0	01	
	Respiratory system	10	U	U	01	
F	Renal system	1	01	0	0	
G	Blood	5		01		
Н	GIT	10	0	0	01	
	Hormones					
т	CVS	5	0	01	0	
1	Chemotherapy	3	U		U	
	Miscellaneous					
	Total	50	05	03	03	

7.5. Question paper blueprint

A	В	Question Paper Format
Question Serial	Type of Question	(Refer Table 2 for themes)
Number		
Q.1	Multiple choice Questions (MCQ)	Theme A
	5 Questions	Theme D
	1 mark each	Theme F
	All compulsory	
Q.2	Short Answer Questions (SAQ)	Theme B
	3 Questions	Theme G
	5 marks each	Theme I
	All compulsory	
Q.3	Long Answer Questions (LAQ)	Theme C
	3 Questions	Theme E
	10 marks each	Theme H
	All compulsory	

8. List of recommended Books

- Rang & Dale's Pharmacology
- Goodman & Gilman's The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics
- K.D. Tripathi Essentials of Medical Pharmacology
- Katzung's Basic & Clinical Pharmacology

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