COMMENTARY ARTICLE

Presymptomatic development of Orally Inhaled Drugs (OIDs)

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ABSTRACT

Respiratory disorders are a major burden in our society, and the worldwide respiratory medicine industry is now growing at a rate of 4% to 6% each year. Inhalation is the recommended form of treatment for respiratory disorders because it I delivers the drug directly to the site of action, resulting in a rapid onset, (ii) is painless, which improves patient compliance; and (iii) avoids first-pass metabolism, which reduces systemic side effects. The medication is inhaled through the mouth, with the majority of its therapeutic activity occurring in the lungs. Orally Inhaled Medicines (OIDs) have recently been proven to be effective in the treatment of systemic illnesses.

However, the development of OIDs currently has a 70% attrition rate, meaning that seven out of ten novel drug candidates never make it to the clinic. Our discussion focuses on the factors that influence the predictive validity of animal preclinical experiments, as well as the reasons for poor OID translation into commercial treatments for the treatment of respiratory and systemic disorders. We next go over the latest developments in overcoming the limitations of animal-based research by developing and implementing in vitro, cell-based New Approach approaches (NAMs) pro-InterLeukin (IL)-1, and IL-6 in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7 cells. TRIF-dependent signalling mechanism that induces interferon In the LPS-induced Acute Lung injury (ALI) animal model, streptochlorin inhibited the infiltration of immune cells such as neutrophils into the lung and the generation of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and TNF- in Broncho-Alveolar Lavage Fluid (BALF).

Key Words: *Respiratory diseases; Inhalation; Preclinical studies; Drug development; Non-animal methods*

INTRODUCTION

Development of OIDs currently has a 70% attrition rate, meaning that seven out of ten novel drug candidates never make it to the clinic. Our discussion focuses on the factors that influence the predictive validity of animal preclinical experiments, as well as the reasons for poor OID translation into commercial treatments for the treatment of respiratory and systemic disorders. We next go over the latest developments in overcoming the limitations of animal-based research by developing and implementing in vitro, cell-based New Approach Methodologies (NAMs).

COVID-19 has also lately gained international recognition as a respiratory disease with a high mortality rate, particularly in high-risk groups [1]. According to studies, the global respiratory medicine industry is now rising at a rate ranging from 4% to 6% per year, with GlaxoSmithKline, AstraZeneca, Merck, Novartis, and Boehringer Ingelheim leading the pack in terms of market share.

However, there is now a 70 percent attrition rate in the development of respiratory drugs [2]. The cumulative probability of reaching the clinical market for medications targeting respiratory diseases has been assessed to be 3%, compared to the 6–14 percent probability for drugs used to treat other ailments [3]. The problem is undoubtedly multifaceted, with multiple contributing factors, including, for example, a general lack of understanding of the underlying mechanisms of respiratory disorders, challenges in drug formulation, and poor drug administration method performance. Nonetheless, the limitations of current preclinical models are thought to have a significant influence in the high attrition rate of respiratory medicines. Our commentary focuses on the current preclinical methods used in the development of Orally Inhaled Drugs (OIDs), their limitations, how they affect the rate of OIDs translation into clinical products, and how in vitro, cell-based New Approach Methodologies (NAMs) could potentially support overcoming the limitations of preclinical methods while reducing, or even completely replacing, the need for animal studies research by developing and implementing in vitro, cell-based New Approach Methodologies (NAMs).

Inhalation therapy

Inhalation is the preferred method of treatment for respiratory diseases, because it I delivers the drug directly to the site of action, resulting in a rapid therapeutic onset with significantly lower drug doses, (ii) is painless and minimally invasive, thus improving patient compliance, and (iii) avoids first-pass metabolism, resulting in optimal

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pharmacokinetic conditions for drug absorption and reducing systemic side effects [4].

For the drug portal-of-entry (PoE) and targeted location of action, inhaling is different from intranasal delivery. Intranasal medicines are sprayed into the nostrils, causing a local effect on the nasal mucosa; however, OIDs, also known as orally inhaled drug products (OIPs), are inhaled through the mouth and have their efficacy in the lungs. In particular, attempts have been made to produce OIDs for the treatment of systemic disorders that function outside of the lungs [5]. Migraine headaches, which are treated with ergotamine or hydroxyergotamine aerosols, and type 1 and type 2 diabetes, for which inhaled insulin products have been created (e.g., Exubera, which was dropped in 2008 owing to poor revenue, and Afrezza, whose uptake has also been hampered).Drugs for the treatment of asthma and COPD, such as 2 adrenergic agonists (e.g., albuterol, formoterol) and muscarinic antagonists (e.g., ipratropium, tiotropium

inducing bronchodilation, or glucocorticosteroids (e.g., fluticasone and budesonide) reducing inflammation, are currently approved for the clinical treatment of OIDs for cystic fibrosis treatment are also available for clinical usage, with the majority of them falling into the therapeutic categories of mucolytics (e.g., saline and acetyl choline), which try to thin the mucus and make it easier to clear from the patient's lungs. Antimicrobial medicines (e.g., tobramycin) and leukocyte DNAse, which reduce inflammation and treat the bacterial infection that is distinctive of this disease, are also used as OIDs. Various devices, such as dry-powder inhalers (DPIs), pressurised metered-dose inhalers (pMDIs), and nebulizers, can be used to administer OIDs to patients. Several recent papers have comprehensively discussed these devices [6]. DPIs deliver drug-carrying powder particles, whereas pMDIs and nebulizers produce drug-carrying liquid droplets. An inhalation device must be simple to operate and forgiving of poor patient compliance while providing repeatable effective dose to be effective.

Animal models are not employed in the evaluation of inhalation delivery device efficiency and repeatability. This is because DPIs and pMDIs are breath-actuated and thus incompatible with animal exposure, whereas nebulizers require adjustments in accordance with the animal model used. As a result, our paper, which focuses on the potential reduction and replacement of animal studies in OID development, does not address the impact of inhaler performance on the efficacy of inhalation therapies, a current challenge that has been discussed extensively elsewhere. Despite its significant advantages over intravenous drug administration, inhalation therapy has a number of challenges in reaching an adequate therapeutic dose for the treatment of respiratory and/or systemic disorders. The trip of an OID once injected is described here, as well as the human-specific aspects that, in the authors' perspective, have a significant impact on the existing low OID translation rate, as these are poorly replicated in current preclinical models. our findings.

The life of an OID in a patient and human-specific factors affecting OID translation rates

When a patient is given an OID, the liquid or powder aerosol enters the respiratory system through the oropharynx. OID deposition in the oropharynx is always wasteful, lowering the dose of OID that reaches the lungs. This is, in fact, the first factor to consider when constructing an efficient inhalation therapy. Because rodents are forced to breathe via their noses, they are unable to reproduce this characteristic. Other animal models (such as dogs) can, however, be utilised to circumvent the limitations of rodents. In addition, to avoid significant adverse effects in patients, OID deposition in the oropharynx must be reduced in clinics. Because OIDs accumulate in the mouth and throat and enter the body through swallowing, side effects can be caused through both local and systemic toxicity. The second factor to keep in mind for an efficient inhalation therapy is achieving an ideal OID deposition pattern in the patients' lung. The OID must pass through the extrathoracic (or ET) region of the larynx, enter the tracheobronchial region, and reach the tiny and/or peripheral (alveoli) airways in order to reach its site of action and/or absorption. Medication absorption and translocation into the blood stream can occur in any section of the lung, but it is more common in the alveoli [5], which have a high surface area and a thin layer of epithelial and endothelial cells separating the inhaled drug from the blood flow. High velocity, on the other hand, causes enhanced deposition in the oropharynx and tracheobronchial areas, whereas low velocity causes a peripheral deposition pattern. OIDs, of course, cannot reach regions of the respiratory tract where velocity is zero, such as the parts of the lungs that are not ventilated. This is especially important to keep in mind while creating OIDs for respiratory illnesses, which are defined by partial or complete blockage of the respiratory tract (e.g., asthma, COPD, cystic fibrosis and lung cancer). To control OID velocity and boost the efficacy of inhalation therapy, a combination of medications can be employed in which bronchodilators or mucolytics are used in a synergistic manner with other pharmacological therapies. Droplets/particles of a large aerodynamic size deposit in the oropharynx or just beyond the trachea bifurcation due to impaction or interception mechanisms. Sedimentation causes the smaller droplets/particles to settle in the smaller airways, which is subject to gravity. Diffusion or Brownian motion transports droplets/particles with an aerodynamic size of less than 3 m to the alveoli. It's worth noting that the deposition of droplets/particles follows Stokes' rule. As a result, even though the droplets/particles are geometrically enormous, their aerodynamic size can be modest since they are almost spherical. This occurs when the density of the particles/droplets is low, which is governed by the OID formulation's composition. In vitro, cell-free tests are currently being used to assess OID deposition pattern, with good predictive value [7]. Due to impaction or interception mechanisms, large aerodynamic droplets/particles deposit in the oropharynx or just beyond the trachea bifurcation. Smaller droplets/particles settle in the smaller airways due to sedimentation, which is susceptible to gravity. Droplets/particles with an aerodynamic size of less than 3 m are transported to the alveoli by diffusion or Brownian motion. It's worth mentioning that droplet/particle deposition follows Stokes' rule [8]. As a result, even though the droplets/particles are geometrically massive, their aerodynamic size might be small due to their near-spherical shape. This happens when the particle/droplet density is low, as determined by the OID formulation's composition. Cell-free tests are now being utilised in vitro to assess OID deposition pattern, and they have a high predictive value [8]. Perfusion levels, on the other hand, varied between lung regions. Perfusion levels are highest in the alveoli, and medications have a relatively short half-life; however, perfusion rates are lower in the tracheobronchial region, resulting in a longer drug bioavailability. The third factor to consider when building a successful inhalation therapy is removal processes. dendritic cells, along with macrophages, constitute the lung immune Notably, by using in vitro, cell-based NAMs, the human-specific composition and metabolism of the lung can be mimicked more closely, as explained in the following sections of cell counting, and an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay were used to examine the effects of streptochlorin on cell infiltration and proinflammatory cytokine release in BALF (ELISA)[9]. Inflammatory cells were not discovered in the alveolar gaps of mice in the normal group. After LPS treatment, however, a considerable number of inflammatory cells were attracted into the alveolar gaps. Streptochlorin treatment at the prescribed levels, on the other hand, significantly reduced inflammatory cell infiltration. Furthermore, streptochlorin therapy reduced inflammatory cytokines such as TNF- and IL-6 in the BALF. With the tested levels of streptochlorin treatment, no notable side effects were noted, including body weight loss. These findings suggest that streptochlorin protects against LPS-induced ALI by decreasing inflammatory cells at the site of inflammation, such as neutrophil

migration and proinflammatory cytokine production.

Current preclinical inhalation testing strategy's limitations in assessing therapeutic efficacy

Although high-throughput cell-based assays can provide useful information during the early stages of preclinical development, the cell models utilised do not accurately reflect the complex interactions between different cell types and tissues/organs that occur in humans. Conventional in vitro models are made up of a single cell type cultivated in a flat, two-dimensional culture, and so reflect the human lung tissue in a simplified way. In addition, many in vitro studies use transformed cell lines with gene and protein expression that differs significantly from their parent counterpart.Pierce Chemical provided Western blot chemiluminescence reagent kits (Super Signal West Pico Stable Peroxide and Super Signal West Pico Luminol/Enhancer solutions) (Rockford, IL, USA). Millipore Corporation supplied the PolyVinyliDene Fluoride (PVDF) membrane (Bedford, MA, USA). Sigma–Aldrich provided LPS (E. coli 026:B6) and other compounds (St. Louis, MO, USA). All of the other compounds we employed in our research were of the greatest possible grade.

Culture of Cells

The RAW 264.7 murine macrophage cell line was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Rockville, MD, USA) and kept at 37 °C in humidified 5 percent CO2 and 95 percent air in DMEM supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS and antibiotics (100 U/mL penicillin, 100 g/mL streptomycin). 8-week-old C57BL/6 and MyD88 mutant mice were used to isolate peritoneal macrophages. Mice were injected with 2 mL of 4 percent thioglycollate broth and peritoneal macrophages were collected by peritoneal lavage (BD Diagnostic Systems; Sparks, MD, USA). Three days following injection, thioglycollate-elicited peritoneal macrophages were collected from the peritoneal cavity of mice.

LPS-induced ali mouse model and animals

Orient Bio sold female BALB/c mice (22–25 g, 8 weeks old) to us (Seoul, Korea). MyD88-deficient (MyD88/) C57BL/6 mice have been characterised. They were kept in groups of five in regular settings (temperature 22 °C, humidity 55 %, 12-hour light/dark cycle), with food and water available at all times. The Konkuk University Committee on the Ethics of Animal Experiments examined and approved the study protocol.

Streptochlorin inhibits antigen-induced degranulation in RBL-2H3 cells

The anti-allergic action of steptochlorin was evaluated and its molecular processes were elucidated using RBL-2H3 mast cells as an in vitro model. The cytotoxicity of streptochlorin was initially assessed using an MTT-based viability assay. For 24 hours, RBL-2H3 cells were exposed to various doses of streptochlorin. The viability of RBL-2H3 cells was unaffected by streptochlorin doses up to 100 M. Mast cells secrete prepared allergic mediators in granules, such as histamine and different proteases, which is a critical step in local allergic reactions. The amount of -hexosaminidase produced from cells has been utilised as a marker for mast cell degranulation. Streptochlorin was used to see if it could stop antigen-stimulated degranulation in RBL-2H3 cells. In RBL-2H3 cells, DNP-HSA-induced degranulation was significantly and dose-dependently inhibited Streptochlorin inhibits allergy and pro-inflammatory cytokine expression and production. TNF- and IL-4 are important cytokines for generating delayed type hypersensitive allergy and inflammatory reactions. As a result, we investigated whether streptochlorin could decrease TNF- and IL-4 production in antigen-induced RBL-2H3 cells. Streptochlorin inhibited TNF- and IL-4 secretion from RBL-2H3 cells induced by DNP-HSA, as well as the expression levels of the related mRNA. Streptochlorin reduces the generation of TNF- and IL-4 in FcRI-stimulated RBL-2H3 cells by preventing their transcription, according to these findings. Streptochlorin significantly lowered TNF- protein and mRNA levels, but not IL-4 levels, which were not statistically significant. Streptochlorin strongly inhibited LPS-induced proinflammatory mediators such as NO, pro-IL-1β, and IL-6 in RAW264 cells through inhibition of the TRIF-dependent signaling pathway. Streptochlorin inhibited TRIF-dependent signaling from LPS-primed TLR4, leading to reduced activation of IRF3 and STAT1. Streptochlorin also attenuated LPS-induced ALI via suppression of neutrophil infiltration and proinflammatory cytokine production, such as TNF-α and IL-6.

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