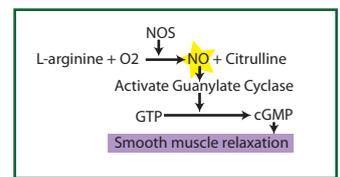


DRUG CLASS & APPLICATION	MODE OF ACTION	PHARMACOKINETICS	VARIABILITY / SIDE-EFFECTS
<b>Endothelin Receptor Antagonists</b> Dual action - (Bosentan) is used for patients who are New York Heart Association II-III. Drugs selective for ETA (sitaxsentan) are not currently in use.	In addition to exerting a <b>direct vasoconstrictor effect</b> , endothelin-1 stimulates <b>proliferation of vascular smooth muscle cells</b> , acts as a co-mitogen, induces fibrosis and acts a proinflammatory mediator by enhancing adhesion molecule expression. Bosentan is a <b>dual action ETA / ETB endothelin receptor antagonist</b> with a higher affinity for ETA.	Bosentan is delivered <b>orally</b> and achieves approximately <b>50% bioavailability</b> . It has a volume of distribution of 18 litres. <b>Hepatic metabolism</b> via CYP3A4 and 2C9 into three metabolites, one with 10-20% pharmacological activity. The time to <b>peak plasma concentration is 3-5 hours</b> and the <b>half life is 5 hours</b> although this may be prolonged in heart failure patients. Most of the metabolites are excreted in the faeces.	The major issue with Bosentan is there is <b>dose dependent deranged liver function</b> with transaminitis of up to eight times the normal levels. This necessitates <b>monthly monitoring of LFTs</b> in patients on Bosentan. It <b>strongly induces CYP3A4 and 2C9</b> and therefore may reduce the efficacy of other drugs metabolised by this pathway.

<b>Phosphodiesterase type 5 inhibitor</b> Sildenafil is used for patients who are NYHA II-III other PDE 5 inhibitors include vardenafil and tadalafil	Like theophylline, Sildenafil is a phosphodiesterase inhibitor, however <b>sildenafil is selective for type 5 (PDE5) inhibition</b> . This results in a <b>reduction in hydrolysis of cyclic GMP</b> , and a subsequent increase in <b>pulmonary vasculature relaxation through increased sensitivity to nitrous oxide actions</b> . It uses the same mechanism when used for erectile dysfunction.	Sildenafil is taken <b>orally</b> and has an onset of action within 60 minutes and <b>duration of 2-4 hours</b> . It is absorbed rapidly with a <b>bioavailability of 40%</b> . There is a large <b>volume of distribution of 105 litres</b> . It undergoes <b>hepatic metabolism via CYP3A4</b> and forms an <b>active metabolite</b> . <b>Half life is around four hours</b> and it is excreted 80% in the <b>faeces</b> and the remainder in the urine.	Due to its action in sensitising the vasculature response to NO, it is <b>contraindicated in patients taking nitrates</b> as this may lead to a dramatic loss in tone and subsequent profound hypotension. The most common side effect with this treatment is <b>headaches</b> which may occur in up to half of all patients.
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<b>Prostacycline therapies</b> Prostaglandin I <sub>2</sub> (prostacycline) is delivered in several different forms and has the <b>most beneficial effect in patients with PAH</b> even those which have failed other therapies and is thus <b>used in patients with NYHA III-IV</b> . Unfortunately the pharmacokinetics limits the use of this class of drugs. IV <b>Epoprostenol</b> , IV or SC <b>Treprostinil</b> and Inhaled <b>Iloprost</b> are the main drugs in this class.	Prostacycline is the <b>main product of arachidonic acid</b> in the vascular endothelium, induces <b>relaxation of vascular smooth muscle</b> by stimulating the production of cAMP and <b>inhibits the growth of smooth muscle cells</b> . In addition it is a <b>powerful inhibitor of platelet aggregation</b> .	<b>Epoprostenol</b> may only be delivered by <b>IV infusion</b> , it has a <b>very short half life of only 3-6 minutes</b> , and is often delivered via infusion pump through a central line. It is rapidly metabolised by hydrolysis and mostly excreted in the urine. <b>Iloprost</b> is a chemically stable prostacycline analogue delivered by inhaler. It has a <b>short half life of approximately 30 minutes</b> therefore requiring frequent dosing (q2hr).	Common side effects include jaw pain and cramps. Sudden or <b>abrupt withdrawal of the prostacyclines</b> may lead to <b>rebound pulmonary hypertension</b> . Prostacyclines are <b>inhibitors of platelet aggregation</b> and caution may be required in patients with a bleeding diathesis.
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**Nitric Oxide therapy** Nitric oxide is a powerful modulator of many aspects of bodily function. It is synthesised from **L-arginine** and molecular **O<sub>2</sub>** by **NO synthase (NOS)**. There is usually an abundance of L-arginine so it is the NOS that limits the reaction. NOS exists in three isoforms endothelial - eNOS (also found in platelets), inducible - iNOS (induced by macrophages and interferon gamma) and neuronal - nNOS. The main action of nitric oxide is to **activate soluble guanylyl cyclase, which in turn activates cGMP**. This leads to the main effects which include vasodilation, inhibition of platelet and monocyte adhesion and aggregation, as well as inhibition of smooth muscle proliferation.



<b>Inhaled Nitric Oxide</b> Is used as to <b>test response in patients with PHTN</b> . It is also used in paediatric populations to <b>improve oxygenation</b> when patients have <b>respiratory distress</b> . There may be an indication in patients with acute respiratory failure.	As stated above Nitric Oxide works by increasing the expression of <b>guanylate cyclase which in turn increases production of cGMP</b> . The result is <b>increased smooth muscle relaxation</b> . Other effects include <b>decreased platelet aggregation and angiogenesis</b> . When inhaled it preferentially dilates the vessels of the well perfused alveoli which leads to an <b>improvement of V/Q matching</b> .	Nitric oxide is <b>rapidly inactivated by haemoglobin in blood</b> (hence its <b>limited systemic effects</b> ). NO forms methemoglobin and nitrate on reaction with oxyhemoglobin. Almost 70% of inhaled NO is <b>excreted as nitrate in the urine</b> within 48hrs. When high conc O <sub>2</sub> is combined with NO it forms the toxic NO <sub>2</sub> , therefore <b>delivering it with a high FIO<sub>2</sub> is not recommended</b> .	The <b>response</b> of the patient to inhaled NO is <b>dependent on the degree of VQ mismatching</b> is contributing to decreased oxygenation. Doses <b>need to be titrated</b> with worsened oxygenation at both high and low doses. There is some concern about <b>environmental contamination</b> to health care professional although this is minimal in a well ventilated room. Very high doses may lead to significantly <b>increased methemoglobin levels</b> .
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**Pharmacology of oxygen** oxygen may be regarded as a drug. It is a **colourless, odourless and tasteless drug** which is present in normal air at a approximately 21% of the total pressure. The delivery of oxygen is determined primarily by a decrease down the **oxygen cascade** from a normal pO<sub>2</sub> at sea level of 158 mmHg down to the mitochondrial level where the partial pressure may be as low as 2-3 mmHg. Oxygen is primarily transported throughout the body **bound to Hb** but a small percentage is **dissolved** in the blood. The **dissolved component may be increased at supranormal pressures** such as those observed in hyperbaric oxygenation. The main purpose of O<sub>2</sub> in the body is to **participate in oxidative phosphorylation** which produces the high levels of energy required for cellular function. Oxygen may delivered in a range of methods, either via nasal prongs or a face mask where the inspired amount is variable on tidal volumes and rates, or in fixed amounts via closed circuits or fixed intake valves such as venturi valves which entrain air at a set proportion. Oxygen has a range of therapeutic uses, by far the most common is **treatment of hypoxia**. Other less common treatments are usually delivered at increased pressures and include treatment of air embolism, non healing diabetic foot ulcers, osteoradionecrosis of the jaw, and infections such as myonecrosis. Delivered at high doses results in several physiological and potentially harmful changes. From a respiratory perspective there may be a **decrease in respiratory drive**, which is usually only significant in patients with a desensitised hypercapnic drive such as those with CO<sub>2</sub> retention. Breathing high doses of oxygen also leads to the washout of nitrogen which may lead to **absorption atelectasis** and a subsequent shunt with a paradoxical decrease in oxygenation. Longer term high dose may also lead to **oxygen toxicity**, which is characterised by parenchymal damage and diffuse lung injury and is likely due to **increased reactive oxygen species** (Lorraine Smith Effect). Cardiovascular changes are minor and consist of a **slight reduction in heart rate and cardiac output**. CNS effects are noted at very high levels are characterised by **seizures** (Paul Bert Effect) and **visual changes**.

<b>Oxygen</b> Is used to primarily to <b>treat hypoxia</b> . Alternative uses include treatment of <b>CO poisoning, diabetic foot ulcers, infections such as clostridial myonecrosis, air gas embolism, decompression sickness and radiotherapy injury</b> .	Oxygen <b>diffuses passively throughout the body down a concentration gradient</b> . It reverses hypoxia by increasing the partial pressure and improving O <sub>2</sub> delivery to mitochondria. It is believed to improve chronic ulcers by creating a <b>steep oxygen gradient at wound margins similar to an acute wound</b> . In decompression illness is replaces nitrogen bubbles with O <sub>2</sub> bubbles which are consumed.	Oxygen is inhaled by <b>passive diffusion in the lungs</b> and is bound to Hb and dissolved in plasma. <b>Extracorporeal oxygenation</b> is an alternative delivery method. O <sub>2</sub> is <b>metabolised with glucose to form energy, CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O</b> . The precise mechanism is a three step process of glycolysis, the krebs cycle which are anaerobic (and produce 4 ATP) and finally <b>oxidative phosphorylation in the mitochondria which results in 34 ATP units</b> .	Harmful effects of hyperoxia include include <b>dry mucous membranes, absorption atelectasis, acute lung injury, depressed respiratory drive, and seizures and visual changes</b> at hyperbaric doses. <b>Delivery may be impaired in patients</b> with reduced haemoglobin capacity either due to anaemia, or dysfunctional Hb such as the thalassaemias or poisoning due to CO, or damage to the oxidative phosphorylation process seen in cyanide poisoning.
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**Pharmacology of Surfactant** is formed from **type II alveolar cells**. It is **mostly phospholipid with the principle component DPPC** which equates to roughly 80% content. There are also **four surfactant proteins "SP" A to D**. These are believed to be important in the stabilisation of the surfactant, its activation and release from alveolar cells. Surfactant **forms a mono layer** due to its structure with a hydrophilic head adjacent to the cell wall and the hydrophobic tail facing inwards towards the air. Surfactant has a **15-30 hour half life** and in addition to its primary role of reducing surface tension **also prevents transudation into the the alveolus (less pressure inside alveolus)** and has an **immunological role**. The exact mechanism of how it reduces surface tension is unknown but the **main hypothesis is that as it packs closer together** when the alveolus reduces in size the action is accentuated, causing a greater decrease in surface tension with decreases in radius.

<b>Surfactant</b> Is currently only indicated in <b>neonatal respiratory distress syndrome</b> and severe meconium aspiration syndrome in newborns. There is <b>some research supporting its use in ARDS</b> although no benefit in outcome has yet been proven. Most surfactant in use are <b>bovine or porcine derived</b> . <b>Artificial surfactant</b> also exists.	It is believed that surfactant acts by packing closer together and causing a paradoxical decrease in surface tension as the radius of the alveolus decreases. It also has immunological role and reduces exudation into the alveolus due to the decrease intra alveolar pressure.	The <b>half life of human surfactant is 15-30 hours</b> . Surfactant replacement therapy is currently delivered <b>via endotracheal tube</b> although it is possible to deliver in a <b>aerosolised form</b> . Upon delivery much of the surfactant becomes 'lung associated' and not recoverable by BAL. It is believed that exogenous delivered surfactant is enters the <b>normal recycling pathways</b> and provides substrate for endogenous production.	The main issues with surfactant administration are the <b>transient hypoxia, hypotension and bradycardia</b> and the risk of <b>blockage of the ETT</b> . There is some association with <b>pulmonary haemorrhage</b> .
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