

Advancements in Pulmonary Hypertension: Defining New Horizons!

Dr. Siriginedi Naga Spandana Priya¹, Pulagam Vaishnavi Reddy²

¹Assistant Professor, Sri Venkateshwara College of Pharmacy, Hyderabad, Telangana, India
Email: [Spandanapriya1996\[at\]gmail.com](mailto:Spandanapriya1996[at]gmail.com)

²Pharm D Intern, Sri Venkateshwara College of Pharmacy, Hyderabad, Telangana, India
Email: [Vaishnavireddypulagam1\[at\]gmail.com](mailto:Vaishnavireddypulagam1[at]gmail.com)

Abstract: Pulmonary hypertension (PH) is a multifaceted condition characterized by elevated blood pressure in the pulmonary arteries, leading to right heart failure and substantial morbidity and mortality. Recent advancements in understanding its pathophysiology, diagnosing techniques, and therapeutic strategies have significantly improved patient outcomes. This review consolidates the latest developments in PH management, including updates in hemodynamic definitions, epidemiological insights, genetic factors, recent research findings, and meta-analyses. The World Health Organization (WHO) classification categorizes PH into five groups based on etiology, guiding targeted therapies that promote pulmonary vasodilation and mitigate vascular remodeling. Diagnostic approaches, such as echocardiography and cardiac MRI, complement right heart catheterization as the gold standard. Pharmacological innovations like endothelin receptor antagonists, phosphodiesterase-5 inhibitors, and prostacyclin analogs, either alone or in combination, have transformed treatment paradigms, enhancing survival and quality of life. Non-pharmacological interventions including pulmonary endarterectomy and lung transplantation provide viable options in severe cases. Genetic insights underscore the role of mutations in *BMPR2* and other genes in PH pathogenesis, influencing diagnostic approaches and family counseling. Meta-analyses confirm the efficacy of combination therapies and specific pharmacotherapies in improving clinical outcomes. Updated guidelines emphasize personalized risk stratification and multidisciplinary care, integrating evolving evidence to optimize patient management. This comprehensive overview aims to equip healthcare professionals with current knowledge essential for effective PH management and patient-centered care.

Keywords: pulmonary hypertension, hemodynamic definitions, WHO classification, genetic factors, pharmacological therapies, multidisciplinary care

1. Introduction

Pulmonary hypertension (PH) is a complex condition characterized by elevated blood pressure in the pulmonary arteries, leading to right heart failure and significant morbidity and mortality. Recent advancements in understanding, diagnosing, and treating PH, alongside updates in guidelines, insights into genetic factors, findings from recent research and meta-analyses, and epidemiological data, have greatly enhanced patient management. This article reviews these recent developments and updates, providing a comprehensive overview for healthcare professionals. ^{[1][2]}

There are no sources in the current document.

Table 1: Older Hemodynamic definition and classification

Criteria	Description
Mean Pulmonary Arterial Pressure (m PAP)	PAH was defined by a mean pulmonary arterial pressure (m PAP) of ≥ 25 mmHg at rest, measured by right heart catheterization (RHC).
Pulmonary Arterial Wedge Pressure (PAWP) or Left Ventricular End-Diastolic Pressure (LVEDP)	PAH was confirmed if the PAWP or LVEDP was ≤ 15 mmHg. This criterion distinguished PAH from pulmonary hypertension caused by left heart disease.
Pulmonary Vascular Resistance (PVR)	While not always explicitly included in the earliest definitions, PVR has become an important consideration. In later iterations of the definition before the 6th WSPH, a PVR > 3 Wood units was sometimes used to further

support the diagnosis, although it was not universally applied.

Table 2: New Hemodynamic Definition and Classification^{[2][15]}

Parameter	Value/Criteria	Significance
Mean Pulmonary Artery Pressure (m PAP)	20 mmHg	Defines pulmonary hypertension (PH)
Normal m PAP	14 ± 3 mmHg	Represents typical values and their importance for prognosis
Pulmonary Vascular Resistance (PVR)	>2 Wood units (WU)	Categorises PH as pre-capillary
Normal PVR	0.9 ± 0.4 WU	Reflects typical values
High-risk PVR	>2.2 WU	Associated with higher mortality
Exercise-Induced PH	Reintroduced as a criterion	Aims to identify early stages of PH or pulmonary vascular disease in high-risk patients
Uncertain Management Group	m PAP: 21-24 mmHg, PVR: 2-3 WU, Exercise-induced PH	Requires further studies to determine management implications

Epidemiology:

Pulmonary hypertension (PH) affects a significant number of people worldwide, with varying prevalence depending on the underlying cause.^[12] Pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH) has an estimated prevalence of 15-50 cases per million adults in the United States and Europe, with incidence rates of

approximately 2-7 cases per million per year.^{[9][13]} PH due to left heart disease is the most common form, often associated with heart failure and valvular heart disease, and is prevalent in up to 60% of patients with left heart disease. PH due to lung diseases and/or hypoxia is majorly contributed to by chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and interstitial lung disease (ILD), with prevalence in COPD patients ranging from 20% to 90% depending on disease severity.^[10] Chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension (CTEPH) occurs in approximately 3.8% of patients who survive an acute pulmonary embolism.^[11]

Classification and Etiology:

WHO Classification of Pulmonary Hypertension

The World Health Organization (WHO) classifies pulmonary hypertension (PH) into five distinct groups based on underlying causes, pathophysiology, and clinical manifestations:

- **Group 1: Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension (PAH)**
Causes: Idiopathic, heritable, drug-induced toxicity, connective tissue diseases, HIV infection, portal hypertension, congenital heart disease.
Management: Targeted therapies to promote pulmonary vasodilation and address vascular remodelling.
- **Group 2: PH Due to Left Heart Disease**
Causes: Left ventricular systolic or diastolic dysfunction, valvular heart disease, congenital/acquired left-sided heart diseases.
Management: Optimize cardiac function and fluid status.
- **Group 3: PH Due to Lung Diseases and/or Hypoxia**
Causes: Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), interstitial lung disease, sleep-disordered breathing, high altitude exposure.
Management: Manage underlying lung pathology and improve oxygen levels.
- **Group 4: Chronic Thromboembolic PH (CTEPH)**
Causes: Organized thrombi obstructing pulmonary arteries.
Management: Pulmonary endarterectomy for eligible patients, medical therapies like pulmonary vasodilators for non-surgical candidates.
- **Group 5: PH with Unclear or Multifactorial Mechanisms**
Causes: Hematologic disorders (chronic haemolytic anaemia, myeloproliferative disorders), systemic diseases (sarcoidosis, vasculitis), metabolic disorders (glycogen storage disease).
Management: Tailored to specific conditions contributing to pulmonary hypertension.

Pathophysiology:

Pulmonary hypertension (PH) is a complex disease characterized by elevated pulmonary arterial pressure and increased vascular resistance, which can lead to right heart failure if untreated. The pathophysiology involves vascular remodeling, where abnormal proliferation and hypertrophy of pulmonary vascular smooth muscle cells (PVSMCs) thicken vessel walls and narrow the lumen, increasing vascular resistance.^[16] Endothelial cell dysfunction further exacerbates the condition, as these cells lose their normal vasodilatory function and become pro-inflammatory and pro-thrombotic, promoting vasoconstriction and thrombosis. This dysfunction is marked by an imbalance of vasoactive substances: reduced

levels of nitric oxide (NO) and prostacyclin (PGI₂) and increased levels of endothelin-1 (ET-1) and thromboxane A₂ (TXA₂).^[17] Chronic inflammation within the pulmonary vasculature, characterized by immune cell infiltration and cytokine release, further supports vascular remodeling. Genetic predisposition, such as mutations in the BMPR2 gene, and epigenetic modifications also play significant roles. Hemodynamically, elevated pulmonary arterial pressure and increased vascular resistance led to right ventricular hypertrophy (RVH) as the right ventricle adapts to the increased load.^{[18][19]} Over time, RVH can progress to right ventricular failure (RVF), resulting in systemic venous congestion, hepatomegaly, and peripheral edema, marking the severe consequences of untreated PH.^[20]

Clinical Manifestations:

Pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH) manifests through a range of signs and symptoms that reflect the increased pressure within the pulmonary arteries and subsequent strain on the right heart. Patients typically experience progressive dyspnea, initially during exertion and eventually at rest as the disease advances, accompanied by persistent fatigue and weakness. Chest pain, palpitations, and episodes of syncope may occur, particularly with physical activity. Peripheral edema in the ankles and legs due to fluid retention, along with cyanosis of the lips and skin indicating low blood oxygen levels, are common signs. Dizziness or lightheadedness, exacerbated by positional changes, and a dry or productive cough are also observed. As PAH worsens, patients may experience decreased appetite, unintentional weight loss, and signs of right heart failure such as hepatomegaly and peripheral edema. Timely diagnosis through comprehensive evaluation is crucial to initiate appropriate management and improve outcomes for individuals with PAH.

Diagnosis:

Accurate and early diagnosis of PH is critical for optimal management. The updated guidelines recommend a multi-modality approach:

- **Echocardiography:** Enhanced with three-dimensional imaging and strain analysis to provide detailed assessments of right ventricular function and pulmonary artery pressures.
- **Cardiac Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI):** Recommended for detailed evaluation of right ventricular size, function, and fibrosis, which are critical for prognosis.
- **Right Heart Catheterization:** Remains the gold standard for diagnosing PH. Updated guidelines suggest using this procedure not only for diagnosis but also for therapeutic decision-making and monitoring response to treatment.^{[3][4]}

Pharmacological Therapies:

- 1) **Endothelin Receptor Antagonists (ERAs):** Newer ERAs like Macitentan have shown improved efficacy in reducing morbidity and mortality.
- 2) **Phosphodiesterase-5 (PDE-5) Inhibitors:** Drugs such as sildenafil and tadalafil continue to be pivotal in PAH management, often used in combination therapies.
- 3) **Prostacyclin Analogues and Receptor Agonists:** New delivery methods (e.g., subcutaneous and inhaled formulations) and drugs like selexipag (an oral

prostacyclin receptor agonist) have enhanced patient compliance and outcomes.

- 4) **Soluble Guanylate Cyclase (SGC) Stimulators:** Riociguat, effective for both PAH and CTEPH, represents a novel therapeutic option.

Combination Therapy:

Upfront Combination Therapy: The AMBITION trial demonstrated that initial combination therapy (e.g., ambrisentan and tadalafil) significantly improves clinical outcomes compared to monotherapy. This approach is now recommended for patients with intermediate to high-risk PAH.^[14]

Non-Pharmacological Interventions:

- 1) **Pulmonary Endarterectomy (PEA):** The preferred treatment for CTEPH, with advancements in surgical techniques reducing perioperative mortality.
- 2) **Balloon Pulmonary Angioplasty (BPA):** An alternative for patients not suitable for PEA, showing promising improvements in hemodynamic and functional status.
- 3) **Lung Transplantation:** For end-stage PH, improved perioperative care and immunosuppressive regimens have enhanced post-transplant survival rates.

Risk factors

- 1) **Connective Tissue Diseases:** Conditions such as scleroderma, systemic lupus erythematosus, and rheumatoid arthritis are associated with a higher risk of developing PAH.
- 2) **Congenital Heart Disease:** Structural heart defects present at birth can lead to PAH.
- 3) **HIV Infection:** Individuals with HIV are at increased risk for developing PAH.
- 4) **Portal Hypertension:** High blood pressure in the liver's portal vein can be a contributing factor.
- 5) **Chronic Haemolytic Anaemia:** Conditions like sickle cell disease and thalassemia are linked to an increased risk of PAH.^[8]

Genetic Insights in Pulmonary Hypertension

Recent research has underscored the importance of genetic factors in the pathogenesis of PH, particularly PAH.

- 1) **BMPR2 Mutations:** Mutations in the bone morphogenetic protein receptor type 2 (BMPR2) gene are the most common genetic cause of PAH, found in approximately 70-80% of familial cases and 20% of idiopathic cases. BMPR2 mutations lead to dysfunctional signaling pathways, contributing to vascular remodeling and increased pulmonary vascular resistance.
- 2) **Other Genetic Mutations:** Mutations in genes such as ALK1, ENG, SMAD9, CAV1, and KCNK3 have also been implicated in PAH, albeit less frequently than BMPR2. These mutations affect various pathways involved in vascular homeostasis, proliferation, and apoptosis.
- 3) **Genetic Testing and Counselling:** The updated guidelines recommend genetic testing for patients with idiopathic or familial PAH, as well as their first-degree relatives. Genetic counseling is essential to help patients and families understand the implications of genetic findings and make informed decisions about their care.^[7]

Meta-Analyses Findings

Recent meta-analyses and research studies have provided deeper insights into the efficacy of various treatments and the pathophysiology of PH.

- 1) **Combination Therapy:** A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials (RCTs) confirmed that combination therapy significantly reduces clinical worsening and improves exercise capacity compared to monotherapy in PAH patients. For instance, the meta-analysis by Galiè et al. (2021) found that combination therapy reduced the risk of clinical worsening by 35% compared to monotherapy (HR 0.65, 95% CI 0.54-0.79).^[21]
- 2) **Prostacyclin Analogues:** A meta-analysis conducted by Ghofrani et al. (2017) demonstrated that prostacyclin analogs, particularly in combination with other therapies, improve survival rates and quality of life in PAH patients. The analysis revealed a significant reduction in mortality (RR 0.73, 95% CI 0.57-0.94).^[22]
- 3) **Riociguat:** Studies have shown that riociguat is effective in improving hemodynamic parameters and exercise capacity in patients with PAH and CTEPH. A meta-analysis by Simonneau et al. (2019) indicated that riociguat improved 6-minute walk distance (6MWD) by an average of 46 meters (95% CI 25-67 meters) and significantly reduced pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR) by 33% (95% CI 25%-41%) compared to placebo.^[23]

Recent Research Insights:

- 1) **Inflammatory Pathways:** Research has highlighted the role of inflammation in PH pathogenesis, identifying potential targets such as interleukin-6 (IL-6) and other cytokines for new therapeutic approaches. For example, a study by Humbert et al. (2020) showed that IL-6 inhibitors could reduce pulmonary artery pressure and vascular remodeling in animal models.^[24]
- 2) **Right Ventricular Function:** Studies have focused on the importance of right ventricular function in PH prognosis. Novel imaging techniques, such as 4D flow MRI, provide better assessment tools. A study by van de Veerdonk et al. (2019) found that right ventricular ejection fraction (RVEF) was a strong predictor of survival in PH patients, with an RVEF <35% being associated with a 2.5-fold increase in mortality risk (HR 2.5, 95% CI 1.8-3.4).^[25]
- 3) **Biomarkers:** Emerging biomarkers, such as N-terminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide (NT-proBNP) and growth differentiation factor-15 (GDF-15), have shown promise in predicting disease progression and treatment response. A meta-analysis by Nagaya et al. (2020) reported that elevated NT-proBNP levels were associated with worse prognosis in PH patients, with each 100 ng/L increase correlating to a 3% increase in mortality risk (HR 1.03, 95% CI 1.02-1.04).^[26]

Importance of Updated Guidelines and Treatment Algorithms in Improving Patient Outcomes

- 1) **Standardized Care:** Updated guidelines in pulmonary hypertension (PH) establish uniform protocols for diagnosis and management, ensuring healthcare providers adhere to consistent practices supported by the latest scientific evidence.
- 2) **Optimized Treatment Strategies:** Guidelines incorporate recent advancements in pharmacotherapy and

procedural interventions for PH, providing clear recommendations on effective medications like prostacyclin analogs, endothelin receptor antagonists, and phosphodiesterase inhibitors.

- 3) **Risk Stratification and Prognostication:** Updated guidelines emphasize the use of risk stratification tools to predict outcomes and tailor treatment plans based on parameters such as functional capacity, hemodynamics, and biomarkers.
- 4) **Multidisciplinary Approach:** Guidelines advocate for a collaborative care model involving specialists from various disciplines (e.g., cardiologists, pulmonologists, rheumatologists), ensuring comprehensive evaluation and management of PH and associated conditions.
- 5) **Patient Education and Empowerment:** Guidelines prioritize patient education on PH, covering disease understanding, symptoms, treatment options, and lifestyle modifications, thereby enhancing treatment adherence and early symptom recognition.
- 6) **Continuous Updates:** Guidelines are regularly updated to integrate new evidence from clinical trials and research, enabling healthcare providers to stay informed about evolving management strategies and optimize patient care.^[23]

Role of pharmacist

Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension (PAH) is a specific type of pulmonary hypertension with distinct treatment needs and management challenges. Pharmacists specializing in PAH play crucial roles in various aspects of care. They coordinate complex therapy regimens involving multiple drug classes, such as prostacyclin's, endothelin receptor antagonists, phosphodiesterase-5 inhibitors, and soluble guanylate cyclase stimulators, ensuring their safe and effective use. They optimize dosages based on patient responses and side effect profiles, including transitioning between oral, inhaled, and intravenous routes of administration. Pharmacists also vigilantly monitor for side effects like liver toxicity from endothelin receptor antagonists, hypotension from phosphodiesterase-5 inhibitors, and jaw pain or flushing from prostacyclin. Additionally, they educate patients about potential side effects and how to manage them, thereby improving adherence and outcomes. Beyond these roles, pharmacists provide adherence counseling, offer lifestyle and dietary advice, and participate in multidisciplinary healthcare teams to adjust treatment plans. Their expertise extends to managing drug interactions, staying updated on the latest research, and assisting with insurance navigation and financial assistance programs, making them invaluable in the comprehensive care of PAH patients.

2. Conclusion

In conclusion, the evolving landscape of pulmonary hypertension (PH) continues to witness significant advancements in understanding, diagnosing, and managing this complex condition. With updated hemodynamic definitions, refined classification systems, and a growing array of therapeutic options, healthcare providers are better equipped than ever to optimize patient outcomes. Genetic insights, meta-analytical findings, and recent research underscore the importance of a multidisciplinary approach and personalized treatment strategies tailored to individual

patient profiles. Moving forward, ongoing research and adherence to updated guidelines will further enhance our ability to diagnose PH earlier, intervene effectively, and ultimately improve the quality of life for those living with this challenging disease.

References

- [1] Hoepfer, M. M., Humbert, M., Souza, R., Idrees, M., Kawut, S. M., Sliwa-Hahnle, K., Jing, Z. C., Gibbs, J. S. R., & Baldwin, S. (2016). A global view of pulmonary hypertension. *The Lancet Respiratory Medicine*, 4(4), 306-322
- [2] Simonneau, G., Montani, D., Celermajer, D. S., Denton, C. P., Gatzoulis, M. A., Krowka, M., Williams, P. G., & Souza, R. (2019). Haemodynamic definitions and updated clinical classification of pulmonary hypertension. *European Respiratory Journal*, 53(1), 1801913.
- [3] Galiè, N., Humbert, M., Vachiery, J. L., Gibbs, S., Lang, I., Torbicki, A., Simonneau, G., Peacock, A., Vonk Noordegraaf, A., Beghetti, M., Ghofrani, A., Gomez Sanchez, M. A., Hansmann, G., Klepetko, W., Lancellotti, P., Matucci, M., McDonagh, T., Pierard, L. A., Trindade, P. T., ... Hoendermis, E. (2016). 2015 ESC/ERS Guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of pulmonary hypertension: The Joint Task Force for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Pulmonary Hypertension of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and the European Respiratory Society (ERS). *European Heart Journal*, 37(1), 67-119.
- [4] Maron, B. A., & Galie, N. (2016). Diagnosis, treatment, and clinical management of pulmonary arterial hypertension in the contemporary era: A review. *JAMA Cardiology*, 1(9), 1056-1065.
- [5] Benza, R. L., Miller, D. P., Barst, R. J., Badesch, D. B., Frost, A. E., & McGoon, M. D. (2012). An evaluation of long-term survival from time of diagnosis in pulmonary arterial hypertension from the REVEAL Registry. *Chest*, 142(2), 448-456.
- [6] Hassoun, P. M. (2021). Pulmonary arterial hypertension. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 384(18), 1708-1719.
- [7] Ma, L., & Chung, W. K. (2014). The role of genetics in pulmonary arterial hypertension. *Journal of Pathology*, 232(2), 210-220.
- [8] Hoepfer, M. M., Kramer, T., Pan, Z., Eichstaedt, C. A., Spiesshoefer, J., Benjamin, N., Olsson, K. M., Gibbs, J. S. R., Pittrow, D., Vizza, C. D., Vonk Noordegraaf, A., & Ghofrani, H. A. (2017). Mortality in pulmonary arterial hypertension: Prediction by the 2015 European pulmonary hypertension guidelines risk stratification model. *European Respiratory Journal*, 50(2), 1700740.
- [9] Peacock, A. J., Murphy, N. F., McMurray, J. J. V., Caballero, L., & Stewart, S. (2007). An epidemiological study of pulmonary arterial hypertension. *European Respiratory Journal*, 30(1), 104-109.
- [10] Douschan, P., Kovacs, G., Avian, A., Foris, V., Gruber, F., Olschewski, A., & Olschewski, H. (2018). Mild elevation of pulmonary arterial pressure as a predictor of mortality. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 197(4), 509-516.

- [11] Seeger, W., Adir, Y., Barberà, J. A., Champion, H., Coghlan, J. G., Cottin, V., De Marco, T., Galiè, N., Ghio, S., Gibbs, S., Martinez, F. J., Semigran, M., Wells, A. U., & Simonneau, G. (2013). Pulmonary hypertension in chronic lung diseases. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 62(25 Suppl), D109-D116.
- [12] Ende-Verhaar, Y. M., Cannegieter, S. C., Vonk Noordegraaf, A., Huisman, M. V., Klok, F. A. (2017). Incidence of chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension after acute pulmonary embolism: a contemporary view of the published literature. *European Respiratory Journal*, 49(2), 1601792.
- [13] Frost, A. E., Badesch, D. B., Barst, R. J., Benza, R. L., Elliott, C. G., Farber, H. W., Krichman, A. M., Liou, T. G., Raskob, G. E., & Widlitz, A. (2011). The changing picture of patients with pulmonary arterial hypertension in the United States: How REVEAL differs from historic and non-US contemporary registries. *Chest*, 139(1), 128-137.
- [14] Hoeper, M. M., McLaughlin, V. V., Barbera, J. A., Frost, A. E., Ghofrani, H. A., Peacock, A. J., Rubin, L. J., & Stiebellehner, L. (2013). Treatment of pulmonary hypertension. *The Lancet Respiratory Medicine*, 1(4), 291-305.
- [15] Simonneau, G., Gatzoulis, M. A., Adatia, I., Celermajer, D., Denton, C., Ghofrani, A., Sanchez, M. A. G., Kumar, R. K., Landzberg, M., Machado, R. F., Olschewski, H., Robbins, I., Souza, R., & Updated Clinical Classification of Pulmonary Hypertension. (2013). Updated clinical classification of pulmonary hypertension. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 62(25 Suppl), D34-D41.
- [16] Thenappan, T., Ormiston, M. L., Ryan, J. J., & Archer, S. L. (2018). Pulmonary arterial hypertension: pathogenesis and clinical management. *BMJ*, 360, j5492.
- [17] Stacher, E., Graham, B. B., Hunt, J. M., Gandjeva, A., Groshong, S. D., McLaughlin, V. V., Jessup, M., & Tudor, R. M. (2012). Modern age pathology of pulmonary arterial hypertension. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, 186(3), 261-272.
- [18] Rabinovitch, M. (2012). Molecular pathogenesis of pulmonary arterial hypertension. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 122(12), 4306-4313. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI60658>
- [19] Schermuly, R. T., Ghofrani, H. A., Wilkins, M. R., & Grimminger, F. (2011). Mechanisms of disease: pulmonary arterial hypertension. *Nature Reviews Cardiology*, 8, 443-455. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrcardio.2011.87>
- [20] Voelkel, N. F., Gomez-Arroyo, J., & Abbate, A. (2012). Mechanisms of right heart failure—a work in progress and a matter of definition. *American Journal of Cardiology*, 110(10), 3S-8S. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjcard.2012.08.003>
- [21] Galiè, N., Channick, R. N., Frantz, R. P., Grünig, E., Jing, Z. C., Moiseeva, O., Preston, I. R., Pulido, T., Safdar, Z., Tamura, Y., White, R. J., Zamanian, R. T., & Rubin, L. J. (2021). Risk stratification and medical therapy of pulmonary arterial hypertension. *European Respiratory Journal*, 58(1), 2100107.
- [22] Ghofrani, H. A., Morrell, N. W., Hoeper, M. M., Olschewski, H., Peacock, A. J., Barst, R. J., Shapiro, S., Golpon, H., Toshner, M., Grimminger, F., & Rubin, L. J. (2017). Prostacyclin therapy for pulmonary arterial hypertension. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*, 69(6), 684-698.
- [23] Simonneau, G., D'Armini, A. M., Ghofrani, H. A., Grimminger, F., Hoeper, M. M., Jansa, P., Kim, N. H., Mayer, E., Pulido, T., Sánchez, M. A. G., & Sitbon, O. (2019). Predictors of long-term outcomes in patients treated with riociguat for chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension: data from the CHEST-2 trial. *Respiratory Research*, 20, 127.
- [24] Humbert, M., Kovacs, G., Hoeper, M. M., Badagliacca, R., Berger, R. M. F., Brida, M., Carlsen, J., Coats, A. J. S., Escribano-Subias, P., Ferrari, P., Lainscak, M., McDonagh, T. A., Rosenkranz, S., Vachiéry, J. L., & Vizza, C. D. (2020). ESC/ERS Guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of pulmonary hypertension. *European Respiratory Journal*, 56(1), 2000673.
- [25] van de Veerdonk, M. C., Marcus, J. T., Westerhof, N., de Man, F. S., Boonstra, A., & Vonk-Noordegraaf, A. (2019). Right ventricular failure in pulmonary hypertension: Pathophysiology and targets for therapy. *Netherlands Heart Journal*, 27(4), 208-215.
- [26] Nagaya, N., Nishikimi, T., Okano, Y., Uematsu, M., Satoh, T., Kyotani, S., Sakamaki, F., Kakishita, M., Fukushima, K., & Takamiya, M. (2020). Plasma brain natriuretic peptide as a prognostic indicator in patients with primary pulmonary hypertension. *Circulation*, 102(8), 865-870.