



Optimizing Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension Clinical Trials:

Diagnosis, Challenges, and Breakthroughs



Introduction

Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension (PAH) is a rare but life-threatening condition characterized by elevated blood pressure in the pulmonary arteries, which connect the heart to the lungs.

The increased pressure results from the narrowing and stiffening of these arteries, leading to restricted blood flow. As a consequence, the right side of the heart has to work harder to pump blood through the lungs. Over time, this extra strain can cause right heart failure, a primary cause of death in patients with PAH. If left untreated, PAH can be fatal within a few years of diagnosis.

PAH is classified under Group 1 pulmonary hypertension according to the World Health Organization (WHO), distinct from other forms of pulmonary hypertension that may be caused by heart disease or lung conditions. It's a disease primarily of the pulmonary vasculature, making it unique in its presentation and requiring specific treatment approaches.

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Characteristics and Evolution of Understanding

Key Characteristics

Patients with PAH often present with non-specific symptoms that include:

- Progressive shortness of breath (dyspnea)
- Fatigue
- Chest pain
- Fainting episodes (syncope)
- Leg swelling (edema)

These symptoms are often subtle at the beginning and can be easily mistaken for other conditions, such as asthma or general deconditioning, leading to delays in diagnosis.

The standard diagnostic tool for PAH is right heart catheterization, which directly measures mean pulmonary arterial pressure (mPAP). A diagnosis is confirmed when mPAP is ≥ 25 mmHg at rest, with a pulmonary artery wedge pressure (PAWP) of ≤ 15 mmHg, indicating that the increased pressure is not related to left heart failure.

Historical Perspective

PAH has been recognized for over a century, with the first reports appearing in the late 19th century. However, the disease remained poorly understood for much of the 20th century until the 1950s, when an outbreak of pulmonary hypertension was linked to the use of the appetite suppressant aminorex. This event led to a significant increase in interest in PAH as a clinical entity, and the establishment of clear diagnostic criteria and classifications.

In 1973, the World Health Organization (WHO) held its first symposium on pulmonary hypertension, leading to the first formal classification of the disease. Over time, PAH was distinguished from other forms of pulmonary hypertension by its underlying pathophysiology, which involves vascular remodeling, inflammation, and endothelial dysfunction.

Recent advances in molecular genetics have further refined our understanding of the disease. The discovery of mutations in the BMPR2 gene has been pivotal in explaining many familial and idiopathic cases of PAH. BMPR2 mutations result in excessive proliferation of smooth muscle cells in the pulmonary arteries, contributing to vessel narrowing and increased resistance to blood flow.

Contributing Factors and Future Trends

Contributing Factors

- **Biological Factors:** The development of PAH is strongly influenced by both genetic and biological factors. The most significant genetic risk factor is a mutation in the BMPR2 gene, found in 70–80% of familial PAH cases and about 20% of sporadic cases. BMPR2 is essential in regulating pulmonary vascular smooth muscle cell growth, and mutations lead to uncontrolled cell proliferation and vessel narrowing. Other genetic contributors include mutations in the CAV1 and KCNK3 genes, though these are less common. Additionally, connective tissue diseases such as systemic sclerosis and lupus are known to increase the risk of PAH due to the inflammation and fibrosis they cause in the pulmonary vasculature.
- **Environmental Factors:** Living with PAH imposes a significant psychological burden. Patients often experience depression, anxiety, and stress due to the progressive nature of the disease and the limitations it imposes on daily life. Managing these psychological factors is critical for improving patients' overall quality of life and treatment adherence.
- **Psychological Factors:** PAH can also be triggered by exposure to certain drugs and toxins, with appetite suppressants like fenfluramine being a well-known cause. Chronic exposure to high altitudes, which results in low oxygen levels, can also lead to PAH through sustained pulmonary vasoconstriction. Additionally, HIV infection is associated with a higher risk of developing PAH, though the mechanisms remain unclear.

Prevalence and Future Trends

PAH is considered a rare disease, with an estimated prevalence of 15 to 50 cases per million people globally. In the United States, it is believed that around 15 to 20 cases per million adults are affected by PAH, which translates to a few thousand patients across the country. The disease is more common in women, who account for approximately two-thirds of diagnosed cases, and typically presents in individuals between 30 and 60 years of age.

In recent years, the prevalence of PAH has been increasing due to improvements in diagnostic methods, such as echocardiography and genetic testing, which allow for earlier detection. These advancements have also helped identify cases of familial PAH, further contributing to the increase in diagnosed cases.

However, despite these rising numbers, mortality rates have improved due to the development of targeted therapies that address the underlying vascular abnormalities of the disease. Survival rates have significantly increased, with 3-year survival rates now approaching 75% in treated patients, compared to less than 50% in the early 2000s.

Market Analysis

Market Overview for PAH Treatment

The market for PAH treatments has expanded significantly over the past two decades, driven by the development and approval of novel therapies. In 2022, the global market for PAH treatments was valued at approximately USD 7 billion, and it is expected to continue growing at a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 5-6% over the next decade. This growth is fueled by increased awareness, improved diagnostic capabilities, and the development of new therapeutic options, including combination therapies that target multiple pathways involved in the disease.

In the United States, several drugs dominate the market, including Adcirca (Tadalafil), Tracleer (Bosentan), Letairis (Ambrisentan), Opsumit (Macitentan), and Uptravi (Selexipag). These drugs target the major pathways involved in PAH pathophysiology, such as the endothelin, nitric oxide, and prostacyclin pathways. Their effectiveness in improving exercise capacity, delaying disease progression, and enhancing survival has made them the standard of care for PAH patients.

Key Drugs with Highest Earning Potential

Drug Name	Estimated Annual Revenue (2023)
Adcirca (Tadalafil)	\$500 million
Tracleer (Bosentan)	\$1.5 billion
Letairis (Ambrisentan)	\$600 million
Opsumit (Macitentan)	\$1.2 billion
Uptravi (Selexipag)	\$700 million

These drugs play a vital role in managing the disease by targeting pulmonary vasoconstriction, inflammation, and remodeling. The market for these drugs continues to grow due to the increasing prevalence of PAH and the effectiveness of these therapies in slowing disease progression.

Diagnostic Codes and Criteria

ICD-11 Code: BB01.0

Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension (PAH) is classified under ICD-11 code BB01.0, which refers to Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension within the larger category of pulmonary heart disease and diseases of pulmonary circulation (BB00-BB0Z). This code captures the clinical condition characterized by increased pressure in the pulmonary arteries, causing a significant increase in workload on the right side of the heart, eventually leading to heart failure if untreated.

Diagnostic Criteria According to ICD-11

1. Increased Mean Pulmonary Arterial Pressure (mPAP):

The hallmark feature of PAH is an elevated mean pulmonary arterial pressure of ≥ 25 mmHg at rest, measured by right heart catheterization. This pressure increase occurs due to narrowing and stiffening of the pulmonary arteries, which makes it more difficult for blood to flow through the lungs.

2. Normal Pulmonary Capillary Wedge Pressure (PCWP):

To distinguish PAH from other forms of pulmonary hypertension that may be related to heart failure, the PCWP must be ≤ 15 mmHg. This measurement helps exclude left-sided heart diseases as a cause of increased pressure in the lungs.

3. Pulmonary Vascular Resistance (PVR):

PAH is further characterized by elevated pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR), typically greater than 3 Wood units. Increased PVR indicates that the small arteries in the lungs are contributing to the raised pressure, which is central to the diagnosis of PAH.

4. Exclusion of Other Causes:

Before diagnosing PAH, it is important to rule out other possible causes of elevated pulmonary pressure, including left-sided heart disease and chronic lung diseases like COPD. Diagnostic imaging techniques such as echocardiography or high-resolution CT scans may help in identifying or excluding these other conditions.

5. Associated Symptoms:

Patients often present with a range of symptoms, including progressive shortness of breath (dyspnea), fatigue, chest pain, light-headedness or fainting (syncope), and peripheral edema (swelling in the legs or abdomen). These symptoms arise as the heart struggles to pump blood through the pulmonary arteries, which impacts the flow of oxygen to the rest of the body.

6. Subtypes of PAH:

PAH can be further classified into subtypes, including idiopathic PAH, heritable PAH, and PAH associated with other conditions, such as connective tissue diseases, HIV infection, or congenital heart disease. The ICD-11 classification recognizes these variants, making it easier to tailor treatment approaches to specific etiologies.

Evolution of Classification

Evolution of the ICD Classification for PAH

Over the years, the classification of PAH has undergone significant changes. In the earlier ICD-10 system, PAH was grouped with other forms of pulmonary hypertension, making it difficult to differentiate between the various subtypes. However, ICD-11 has provided a more refined and specific classification. This evolution is crucial, as it allows for better diagnosis and treatment planning, as well as more accurate epidemiological tracking and research efforts into the disease's causes and treatments.

The distinction of PAH as a separate category (BB01.0) highlights the advancements in understanding its pathophysiology, which includes vascular remodeling, inflammation, and endothelial dysfunction. These insights have been critical in developing targeted therapies that can slow disease progression, improve quality of life, and extend survival for patients.

Impact on Clinical & Research Perspectives

The more precise classification of PAH in ICD-11 has several implications for both clinical practice and research. Clinically, the updated diagnostic criteria ensure that patients are more accurately diagnosed and treated. This is particularly important given the availability of therapies that target specific pathways involved in PAH, such as endothelin receptor antagonists, prostacyclin analogs, and phosphodiesterase-5 inhibitors.

For researchers, the clear classification allows for more focused studies on the genetic and molecular mechanisms of PAH. It also supports better design and analysis of clinical trials, as researchers can more easily stratify patients based on specific subtypes of the disease, such as idiopathic or heritable PAH.

Epidemiology

1. Prevalence of PAH

- PAH is classified as a rare disease with an estimated prevalence of 15 to 50 cases per million people in the United States and Europe. This range reflects the difficulty in obtaining precise prevalence data due to the complexities in diagnosing PAH and the rarity of the condition. Idiopathic PAH, which occurs without a known cause, along with heritable PAH and drug-induced PAH (commonly associated with appetite suppressants like fenfluramine), account for approximately 50% of all PAH cases. The remaining cases are often associated with connective tissue diseases, congenital heart diseases, HIV infection, and liver diseases.
- Epidemiological data from contemporary PAH registries, such as the REVEAL Registry in the U.S., have provided significant insights into the incidence and survival of PAH patients. REVEAL (Registry to Evaluate Early and Long-Term PAH Disease Management) recorded over 2,900 patients, with a 1-year survival rate of 91%, highlighting improved outcomes due to advances in treatment. The French PAH registry reported similar findings, with a 1-year survival rate of 82.9% for patients with idiopathic, familial, or anorexigen-induced PAH.

2. Age and Gender Distribution

- PAH is more commonly diagnosed in women, with a female-to-male ratio of approximately 4:1, though men tend to have worse outcomes when diagnosed with the disease. Most individuals are diagnosed between the ages of 30 and 60, with the mean age at diagnosis in many studies ranging from 36 to 53 years. In pediatric populations, PAH is often associated with congenital heart defects and can present earlier, though it remains rarer in children than in adults.

3. Racial and Geographic Variations

- There are racial disparities in the incidence and outcomes of PAH. While the majority of patients in earlier PAH registries, such as the NIH registry (1981-1985), were Caucasian, more recent data suggest that African American people may be disproportionately affected by more severe forms of the disease. African American patients tend to present with more advanced symptoms and worse prognoses compared to their Caucasian counterparts, though the reasons for these differences are not yet fully understood. Factors such as socioeconomic status, healthcare access, and genetic predisposition are thought to contribute to these disparities.

4. Genetic Risk Factors and Heritability

- Heritable PAH (HPAH) accounts for approximately 6-10% of all PAH cases and is typically linked to mutations in the BMPR2 gene (Bone Morphogenetic Protein Receptor Type 2). This gene plays a critical role in regulating cell growth and vascular remodeling. Mutations in BMPR2 lead to abnormal proliferation of smooth muscle cells in the pulmonary arteries, contributing to vessel narrowing and increased resistance.
- Interestingly, not all individuals who inherit a BMPR2 mutation will develop PAH. The penetrance of this genetic mutation is estimated at 42% for females and 14% for males, indicating that other environmental or genetic factors may play a role in triggering the disease in genetically predisposed individuals. Other genetic mutations, such as those in the CAV1 and KCNK3 genes, have also been associated with PAH, though they are far less common.

Epidemiology (cont.)

5. Environmental and Drug-Induced Risk Factors

- Environmental factors and exposure to certain drugs are known to contribute to the development of PAH. One of the most well-documented examples is the association between PAH and anorexigens (appetite suppressants) such as fenfluramine and dexfenfluramine, which were commonly used as weight-loss medications in the 1990s before being withdrawn from the market due to their harmful effects on the pulmonary arteries. Individuals exposed to these drugs have a significantly higher risk of developing PAH(AJMC).
- Other environmental risk factors include chronic exposure to high altitudes, where lower oxygen levels can lead to sustained pulmonary vasoconstriction, eventually resulting in PAH. Additionally, individuals with HIV infection are at an increased risk of developing PAH, though the exact mechanisms behind this association are still being studied. Connective tissue diseases, such as systemic sclerosis and lupus, are also strongly associated with PAH, as the chronic inflammation seen in these conditions can lead to vascular remodeling in the lungs.

Clinical Presentation and Diagnosis

- The onset of PAH symptoms is often gradual, and many patients may not be diagnosed until the disease has progressed significantly. The most common symptoms include progressive shortness of breath, fatigue, chest pain, syncope (fainting), and peripheral edema (swelling in the legs and ankles). These symptoms are nonspecific and can be mistaken for other, more common conditions such as asthma, COPD, or general fatigue, leading to delays in diagnosis.
- Diagnosis of PAH is typically confirmed through right heart catheterization, which measures mean pulmonary arterial pressure (mPAP). A diagnosis of PAH is made when mPAP is ≥ 25 mmHg at rest, and the pulmonary capillary wedge pressure (PCWP) is ≤ 15 mmHg, indicating that the elevated pressure is confined to the pulmonary circulation. Other diagnostic tools, such as echocardiography, pulmonary function tests, and genetic testing, may be used to rule out other conditions and identify specific subtypes of PAH.

Impact of PAH on Survival and Prognosis

- PAH is a progressive disease, and without treatment, survival rates are poor. Historical data from the NIH registry in the 1980s reported a median survival of 2.8 years from the time of diagnosis. However, advancements in treatment over the past two decades, including the development of endothelin receptor antagonists, phosphodiesterase-5 inhibitors, and prostacyclin analogs, have significantly improved survival rates. Contemporary registries, such as REVEAL, report 1-year survival rates of 91%, with 5-year survival rates of approximately 68%, reflecting the effectiveness of modern therapies.

Pivotal Endpoints for PAH Clinical Trials, Key Challenges and Solutions



1. 6-Minute Walk Distance (6MWD)

2. Pulmonary Vascular Resistance (PVR)

3. Time to Clinical Worsening (TTCW)

4. N-terminal pro-B-type Natriuretic Peptide (NT-proBNP) Levels

5. Right Ventricular Function (RVF)

6. World Health Organization (WHO) Functional Class

7. Patient-Reported Outcomes (PROs)

8. Hemodynamic Parameters (mPAP, Cardiac Output)

9. Survival

10. Quality of Life (QoL) Scores

1. Endpoint: 6-Minute Walk Distance (6MWD)

This is the most frequently used endpoint in PAH trials, assessing the functional exercise capacity by measuring how far a patient can walk in six minutes. Improvements in 6MWD correlate with enhanced quality of life and physical endurance, which are critical in PAH.

Challenge:

- Variability in patient effort, as well as comorbidities such as arthritis or muscle weakness, can influence the results.

Solution:

- Standardizing testing protocols and allowing adjustments based on patient-specific factors ensures consistency.

2. Endpoint: Pulmonary Vascular Resistance (PVR)

PVR measures the resistance in the pulmonary arteries, and reductions in PVR signify improved blood flow and reduced strain on the right heart. This is especially useful for evaluating hemodynamic improvements.

Challenge:

- Measuring PVR requires invasive procedures such as right heart catheterization, which may be risky, especially in pediatric patients.

Solution:

- Incorporating non-invasive imaging techniques like echocardiography for continuous monitoring can reduce the reliance on catheterization.

3. Endpoint: Time to Clinical Worsening (TTCW)

TTCW is a composite endpoint encompassing clinical events such as death, hospitalization, or disease progression. A delay in TTCW indicates a longer period of disease stabilization and a better prognosis.

Challenge:

- Variability in the definition of clinical worsening can affect data interpretation.

Solution:

- Establishing a standardized, universally accepted definition of clinical worsening across trials can improve the reliability of this endpoint.

4. Endpoint: N-terminal pro-B-type Natriuretic Peptide (NT-proBNP) Levels

NT-proBNP is a biomarker for right ventricular strain and heart failure. Reductions in NT-proBNP levels suggest reduced cardiac stress and are associated with improved survival and clinical outcomes.

Challenge:

- NT-proBNP levels can be influenced by other cardiovascular conditions, making it difficult to isolate the effects of PAH treatment.

Solution:

- Use NT-proBNP in combination with other clinical and hemodynamic endpoints to improve the overall assessment.

5. Endpoint: Right Ventricular Function (RVF)

Right ventricular function is critical in PAH as increased pressure in the pulmonary arteries directly affects the right side of the heart. Improved RV function correlates with better survival rates and delayed heart failure.

Challenge:

- RV function is difficult to measure accurately, as imaging techniques like echocardiography can vary in precision.

Solution:

- Use advanced imaging technologies such as cardiac MRI, which offers more detailed insights into RV function.

6. Endpoint: World Health Organization (WHO) Functional Class

The WHO functional class system assesses the severity of PAH symptoms based on patient-reported limitations during physical activity. Improvement in WHO functional class reflects better overall health and capacity for daily activities.

Challenge:

- Subjectivity in patient-reported outcomes can introduce variability in class assignments.

Solution:

- Combining this endpoint with more objective measures like 6MWD or biomarkers can validate functional improvements.

7. Endpoint: Patient-Reported Outcomes (PROs)

PROs focus on how PAH impacts the patient's symptoms, daily functioning, and overall quality of life. Instruments like the PAH-SYMPACT questionnaire capture these dimensions.

Challenge:

- PROs are subjective and may not always align with clinical or hemodynamic improvements.

Solution:

- Develop standardized PRO tools specifically for PAH, ensuring consistent data collection and interpretation across trials.

8. Endpoint: Hemodynamic Parameters (mPAP, Cardiac Output)

Hemodynamic measures such as mean pulmonary artery pressure (mPAP) and cardiac output are essential for evaluating the heart's response to PAH treatments. Improvements in these parameters are closely tied to reduced symptoms and enhanced exercise capacity.

Challenge:

- Like PVR, hemodynamic measurements require invasive procedures.

Solution:

- Non-invasive alternatives like cardiac MRI or continuous echocardiography should be explored.

9. Endpoint: Survival

While not always a primary endpoint, overall survival remains a key outcome, especially for advanced-stage PAH patients. Demonstrating a significant increase in survival is the gold standard for efficacy.

Challenge:

- PAH is a chronic disease, making it difficult to measure survival benefit in short-term studies.

Solution:

- Longer follow-up periods and post-market surveillance help in collecting meaningful survival data.

10. Endpoint: Quality of Life (QoL) Scores

QoL scores assess the patient's well-being, mental health, and ability to perform daily activities. Improvements in QoL are significant as PAH drastically affects the quality of life.

Challenge:

- These scores are subjective and may fluctuate due to non-disease-related factors.

Solution:

- Integrating QoL scores with clinical data ensures a more comprehensive understanding of the patient's overall response to treatment.

Expanding Success Through Combination Endpoints

In PAH trials, combination endpoints are becoming more common to capture a broader picture of treatment efficacy. For example, Winrevair (sotatercept), a recent FDA-approved drug, demonstrated success across multiple endpoints including 6MWD, NT-proBNP, and PVR.

This multi-faceted approach ensures that improvements in exercise capacity are supported by objective biomarker changes and long-term survival outcomes.

Top 5 Most Commonly Prescribed Drugs for PAH

Drug Name	Year of Approval	Sponsor	Mechanism of Action	Therapeutic Effects
Bosentan (Tracleer)	2001	Actelion (J&J)	Endothelin receptor antagonist (Dual)	Reduces vasoconstriction in pulmonary arteries
Sildenafil (Revatio)	2005	Pfizer	PDE-5 inhibitor	Increases cGMP, causing vasodilation
Ambrisentan (Letairis)	2007	Gilead Sciences	Endothelin receptor antagonist (Selective A)	Reduces vasoconstriction in pulmonary arteries
Opsynvi (Macitentan and Tadalafil)	2023	J&J	Endothelin receptor antagonist and PDE-5 inhibitor	Reduces vasoconstriction and increases cGMP
Selexipag (Uptravi)	2015	Actelion (J&J)	Selective prostacyclin receptor agonist	Reduces pulmonary arterial pressure

Pivotal Trials that Demonstrated the Efficacy of FDA Approved Drugs

Drug Name	Study Name	Clinical Identifier/ Trial Acronym	Key Findings	Statistical Data
Tracleer (Bosentan)	BREATHE-1	213	Improved exercise capacity and delayed clinical worsening	Significant increase in 6MWD (6-minute walk distance) by 44m
Revatio (Sildenafil)	SUPER-1	278	Enhanced exercise capacity	51m increase in 6MWD
Letairis (Ambrisentan)	ARIES-1 & ARIES-2	393	Improved 6MWD, reduced time to clinical worsening	Mean baseline 6-minute walk distance in the six groups ranged from about 340 to 355 minutes
Opsumit (Macitentan)	SERAPHIN	742	Reduced morbidity and mortality by 45%	Hazard ratio for morbidity/mortality: 0.55 ($p < 0.001$)
Uptravi (Selexipag)	GRIPHON	1,156	Slowed disease progression, reduced hospitalization rate	Risk reduction of hospitalization: 39%, p -value < 0.001

Approved Product Analysis: TRACLEER (bosentan) tablets

14.1 Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
WHO Functional Class III-IV (BREATHE-1)	6-minute walk distance (exercise ability)	6-minute walk distance	16 weeks	N=213 (144 Tracleer, 69 placebo)	Tracleer (125 mg twice daily): +27m; Tracleer (250 mg twice daily): +46m; Placebo: -8m. Significant improvement ($p<0.01$ for 125 mg; $p=0.001$ for 250 mg)
WHO Functional Class III-IV (Study 351)	6-minute walk distance (exercise ability)	6-minute walk distance	12 weeks	N=32 (21 Tracleer, 11 placebo)	Tracleer: +70m; Placebo: -6m. Significant improvement ($p=0.001$)
WHO Functional Class III-IV (BREATHE-1)	Clinical worsening	Kaplan-Meier estimate (event-free rate)	28 weeks	N=213 (144 Tracleer, 69 placebo)	Tracleer: 89% event-free; Placebo: 63% event-free. Significant reduction in clinical worsening ($p=0.0038$)
WHO Functional Class II	Time to clinical worsening, 6-minute walk distance, PVR, mPAP, TPR, CI	6-minute walk distance, WHO functional class	6 months	N=185 (93 Tracleer, 92 placebo)	6-minute walk distance: +19m ($p=0.08$); Significant reduction in worsening of functional class ($p=0.03$)
WHO Functional Class III-IV (Study 351)	Hemodynamic changes	Cardiac Index (CI), PAP, PVR, RAP	12 weeks	N=30 (20 Tracleer, 10 placebo)	CI: +1.02 L/min/m ² ($p<0.001$); PAP: -6.7 mmHg ($p<0.001$); PVR: -415 dyn·sec·cm ⁻⁵ ($p=0.001$); RAP: -6.2 mmHg ($p=0.02$)
Pediatric Patients (3-15 years, PAH)	Hemodynamic changes	CI, PAP, PVR, RAP	12 weeks	N=19 (17 Tracleer)	CI: +0.5 L/min/m ² ; PAP: -8 mmHg; PVR: -389 dyn·sec·cm ⁻⁵ ; RAP: -0.5 mmHg
Adults with Congenital Heart Disease (Eisenmenger syndrome)	Long-term exercise and safety	N/A	Up to 40 weeks	N=54	Demonstrated efficacy and safety over 40 weeks in open-label extension

Approved Product Analysis: TRACLEER (bosentan) tablets (cont.)

14.2 Lack of Benefit in Congestive Heart Failure

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
NYHA Class III-IV Heart Failure, Left Ventricular Ejection Fraction <35%	Global patient assessment, mortality	Global patient assessment (primary endpoint)	70 weeks	N=1613	No benefit on global assessment or mortality. Increased hospitalization for heart failure in the first 4-8 weeks of Tracleer treatment due to weight gain and leg edema.

Approved Product Analysis: REVATIO (sildenafil)

Studies of Adults with Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
PAH patients (WHO functional class II-III)	Change from baseline in 6-minute walk distance	6-minute walk distance	12 weeks	N=277 (Placebo: 70, REVATIO 20 mg: 69, 40 mg: 67, 80 mg: 71)	Increase of 45-50 meters across all doses of REVATIO (significantly different from placebo, but no difference between REVATIO doses)
PAH patients on epoprostenol (Study 2)	Change from baseline in 6-minute walk distance	6-minute walk distance	16 weeks	N=267 (Placebo: 131, REVATIO: 134)	Mean increase of 30 meters (REVATIO) vs. 4 meters (placebo); Adjusted treatment difference: +26 meters (p=0.0009)
PAH patients on epoprostenol (Study 2)	Change from baseline in mPAP	mPAP	16 weeks	N=267 (Placebo: 131, REVATIO: 134)	Reduction of -3.9 mmHg with REVATIO (p=0.00003)
PAH patients (Study 3, prematurely terminated)	Change from baseline in 6-minute walk distance	6-minute walk distance	12 weeks	N=129	Mean increase of 38-41 meters in the 5 and 20 mg groups (significantly better than the 1 mg group)
PAH patients on bosentan therapy (Study 4)	Change from baseline in 6-minute walk distance	6-minute walk distance	12 weeks	N=103 (Placebo and REVATIO 20 mg)	No significant difference in 6MWD improvement between placebo and combination therapy

Approved Product Analysis: LETAIRIS (ambrisentan) tablets

14.1 Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension (PAH)

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
PAH patients (WHO Group 1, Functional Class I-IV)	6-minute walk distance (submaximal exercise ability)	6-minute walk distance	12 weeks	N=393 (ARIES-1: Placebo: 67, 5 mg: 67, 10 mg: 67; ARIES-2: Placebo: 65, 2.5 mg: 64, 5 mg: 63)	ARIES-1: Placebo-adjusted mean change: +31m (5 mg) and +51m (10 mg); ARIES-2: Placebo-adjusted mean change: +32m (2.5 mg) and +59m (5 mg); Significant improvements ($p < 0.05$)
PAH patients (WHO Group 1, Functional Class I-IV)	Clinical worsening (time to event)	Kaplan-Meier event-free rate	12 weeks	N=393 (ARIES-1: Placebo: 67, Letairis: 134; ARIES-2: Placebo: 65, Letairis: 127)	ARIES-1: 97% event-free (Letairis) vs. 89% (Placebo), $p=0.030$; ARIES-2: 94% event-free (Letairis) vs. 79% (Placebo), $p=0.005$

Key Findings:

- 6-Minute Walk Distance:** Both ARIES-1 and ARIES-2 demonstrated significant improvements in exercise ability with Letairis, with the higher doses providing greater benefit. In ARIES-1, placebo-adjusted improvements were +31 meters for 5 mg and +51 meters for 10 mg. In ARIES-2, placebo-adjusted improvements were +32 meters for 2.5 mg and +59 meters for 5 mg. These improvements were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).
- Time to Clinical Worsening:** Letairis delayed clinical worsening compared to placebo. In ARIES-1, 97% of Letairis patients were event-free versus 89% of placebo patients ($p=0.030$). In ARIES-2, 94% of Letairis patients were event-free versus 79% of placebo patients ($p=0.005$). The hazard ratios were 0.28 and 0.30, respectively, indicating a lower risk of clinical worsening with Letairis.

Approved Product Analysis: LETAIRIS (ambrisentan) tablets (cont.)

14.2 Combination Treatment of PAH

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
PAH patients (WHO Functional Class II-III)	Time to first occurrence of death, hospitalization for worsening PAH, or clinical worsening	Kaplan-Meier event-free survival	Up to 192 weeks	N=605 (Letairis + tadalafil: 302, Letairis monotherapy: 152, Tadalafil monotherapy: 151)	Combination therapy had a 49% reduction in risk of clinical worsening compared to Letairis monotherapy (HR: 0.507, p=0.0002) and 45% reduction compared to tadalafil monotherapy (HR: 0.551, p=0.0023)
PAH patients (WHO Functional Class II-III)	6-minute walk distance	6-minute walk distance	24 weeks	N=605 (Letairis + tadalafil: 302, Letairis monotherapy: 152, Tadalafil monotherapy: 151)	Combination therapy showed a median increase of 43 meters, Letairis monotherapy: +23 meters, Tadalafil monotherapy: +22 meters. Combination therapy resulted in a median difference of +24 meters vs. Letairis (p=0.0004) and +20 meters vs. tadalafil (p=0.0016)

Key Findings:

- **Time to Primary Endpoint Event (Clinical Worsening):** Combination therapy (Letairis plus tadalafil) significantly delayed clinical worsening compared to monotherapy. The hazard ratios for combination vs. Letairis and combination vs. tadalafil were 0.507 and 0.551, respectively, indicating a 49-45% reduction in the risk of clinical worsening.
- **6-Minute Walk Distance:** At 24 weeks, combination therapy led to greater improvement in exercise capacity (median increase of 43 meters), compared to monotherapy with Letairis (+23 meters) or tadalafil (+22 meters). The combination therapy demonstrated a statistically significant advantage over both monotherapies.

Approved Product Analysis: LETAIRIS (ambrisentan) tablets (cont.)

14.3 Long-term Treatment of PAH

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
PAH patients treated with Letairis (2.5 mg, 5 mg, or 10 mg once daily)	Long-term survival	Kaplan-Meier survival estimates	1, 2, and 3 years	N=383	Kaplan-Meier survival estimates: 93% at 1 year, 85% at 2 years, 79% at 3 years. Majority of patients remained on Letairis without additional PAH treatment for up to 3 years.

Key Findings:

- **Survival Rates:** Long-term follow-up of patients treated with Letairis showed survival rates of 93% at 1 year, 85% at 2 years, and 79% at 3 years.
- These are uncontrolled observations, so comparisons to patients not receiving Letairis were not made, and no conclusions about its effect on long-term mortality could be drawn.

14.4 Adverse Effects in Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis (IPF)

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
IPF patients, with or without pulmonary hypertension (WHO Group 3)	Disease progression or death	Mortality, respiratory hospitalization, FVC/DLCO decline	34 weeks (study terminated early)	N=492 (Letairis: 329, Placebo: 163)	Higher rates in Letairis group: Death (8% vs. 4%), Respiratory hospitalization (13% vs. 6%), FVC/DLCO decline (17% vs. 12%)

Key Findings:

- The study was terminated after 34 weeks due to lack of efficacy and an increased risk of disease progression or death with Letairis.
- Patients on Letairis experienced worse outcomes: higher mortality (8% vs. 4%), more respiratory hospitalizations (13% vs. 6%), and greater declines in lung function (FVC/DLCO: 17% vs. 12%).

Approved Product Analysis: OPSUMIT (macitentan)

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
PAH patients (WHO Functional Class II-IV)	Time to first occurrence of death, PAH-related hospitalization, or clinical worsening	Kaplan-Meier event-free survival	Up to 36 months	N=742 (Placebo: 250, OPSUMIT 10 mg: 242)	OPSUMIT 10 mg reduced risk of clinical worsening by 45% (HR 0.55, $p<0.0001$). Event-free rate: OPSUMIT: 63.18% vs. Placebo: 47.04% at 36 months
PAH patients (WHO Functional Class II-IV)	Death or hospitalization due to PAH	Kaplan-Meier event-free survival	Up to 36 months	N=742 (Placebo: 250, OPSUMIT 10 mg: 242)	OPSUMIT reduced risk of PAH-related death or hospitalization by 50% (HR 0.50, $p<0.0001$). Event-free rate: OPSUMIT: 70.63% vs. Placebo: 55.40%
PAH patients (WHO Functional Class II-IV)	6-minute walk distance (exercise capacity)	6-minute walk distance	6 months	N=742 (Placebo: 250, OPSUMIT 10 mg: 242)	Placebo-corrected mean increase in 6MWD of 22 meters at Month 6 ($p=0.0078$). Greater improvement in patients with worse WHO Functional Class (37m increase in FC III/IV)

Key Findings:

- **Primary Endpoint (Clinical Worsening):** OPSUMIT 10 mg significantly delayed the time to clinical worsening, reducing the risk by 45% compared to placebo (HR 0.55, $p<0.0001$). At 36 months, 63.18% of OPSUMIT patients were event-free, compared to 47.04% of placebo patients.
- **PAH-Related Death or Hospitalization:** OPSUMIT 10 mg reduced the risk of PAH-related death or hospitalization by 50% (HR 0.50, $p<0.0001$).
- **6-Minute Walk Distance:** OPSUMIT led to a significant increase in exercise capacity, with a placebo-corrected increase of 22 meters at Month 6 ($p=0.0078$), and greater improvements were observed in patients with worse baseline functional status.
- **Long-Term Survival:** In long-term follow-up, Kaplan-Meier estimates of survival at 1, 2, 5, and 7 years were 95%, 89%, 73%, and 63%, respectively, with OPSUMIT treatment.

Approved Product Analysis: UPTRAVI (selexipag) tablets

14.1 Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension

Population	Endpoint	Scales Used	Time Point	Sample Size	Magnitude of Improvement
PAH patients (WHO Functional Class II-IV)	Time to first morbidity-mortality event (death, PAH hospitalization, worsening PAH)	Kaplan-Meier event-free survival	Up to 36 months	N=1,156 (Placebo: 582, UPTRAVI: 574)	UPTRAVI reduced risk of first morbidity-mortality event by 40% (HR 0.60, $p<0.0001$); 36-month event-free rate: 71% (UPTRAVI) vs. 55% (placebo)
PAH patients (WHO Functional Class II-IV)	Hospitalization for PAH	Kaplan-Meier event-free survival	Up to 36 months	N=1,156 (Placebo: 582, UPTRAVI: 574)	UPTRAVI reduced risk of hospitalization for PAH by 27% (13.6% vs. 18.7%)
PAH patients (WHO Functional Class II-IV)	6-minute walk distance (exercise capacity)	6-minute walk distance	26 weeks	N=1,156 (Placebo: 582, UPTRAVI: 574)	Placebo-corrected median increase in 6MWD of 12 meters ($p=0.005$)

Key Findings:

- **Primary Endpoint (Morbidity-Mortality Event):** UPTRAVI significantly reduced the risk of the first morbidity-mortality event by 40% compared to placebo (HR 0.60, $p<0.0001$). The event-free rate at 36 months was 71% for UPTRAVI patients compared to 55% for placebo.
- **Hospitalization for PAH:** The risk of hospitalization for PAH was reduced by 27% in the UPTRAVI group compared to placebo (13.6% vs. 18.7%).
- **6-Minute Walk Distance:** UPTRAVI led to a placebo-corrected median increase in 6MWD of 12 meters by Week 26 ($p=0.005$).

Summary of Failed Drug Candidates for PAH in the Last 10 Years

Name of Drug	Name of Trial	Reason for Failure	Trend Analysis
Sitaxentan	STRIDE-1, STRIDE-2	Severe liver toxicity, leading to withdrawal from the market	Hepatotoxicity highlighted the need for better safety measures.
Imatinib	IMPRES	Safety concerns, severe adverse events (e.g., edema, heart failure)	Highlighted the difficulty of repurposing oncology drugs for PAH.
Ubenimex	LIBERTY-PAH	Failed to show efficacy in reducing pulmonary artery pressure	Stopped in Phase 2 due to poor efficacy results.
Seralutinib	TORREY	Interim analysis showed insufficient efficacy	Focus is now shifting to novel pathways and combination therapies.
Ataciguat (HMR-1766)	N/A (trial was in early-stage research)	Lack of efficacy in improving exercise capacity and hemodynamic outcomes	Shifted focus away from soluble guanylate cyclase activation alone.

Unique Failure Points in Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension Clinical Trials

1. Increased Vascular Remodeling and Right Heart Strain:

PAH is characterized by excessive remodeling of the pulmonary arteries, which leads to increased pressure and eventual right heart failure. Clinical trials targeting vascular remodeling have often struggled because the extent of remodeling varies greatly among patients.

For example, drugs that focus on relaxing the vasculature often show limited efficacy in reversing the underlying structural damage in advanced cases of PAH, as seen in trials for prostacyclin analogs like treprostinil.

2. High Mortality and Disease Progression:

PAH trials face the challenge of high patient mortality, which can prematurely terminate studies. Trials aimed at reducing mortality often struggle to show significant improvements, as was the case in the SERAPHIN trial, which studied macitentan. Despite showing a reduction in clinical worsening, the drug had limited impact on long-term mortality due to the rapid progression of the disease in many patients.

3. Failure to Reverse Vascular Changes:

Many therapeutic approaches in PAH focus on halting disease progression rather than reversing established vascular changes. The failure to reverse vascular damage is a critical endpoint that has led to the discontinuation of several drug candidates.

The IMPRES trial, which repurposed imatinib (a cancer drug), failed because, while it showed initial efficacy in reducing pulmonary pressures, it could not reverse the remodeling of pulmonary arteries, limiting its clinical benefits.

4. Epigenetic Complexity:

PAH involves complex epigenetic dysregulation that affects gene expression in vascular cells. Trials targeting these epigenetic changes, such as those involving inhibitors of histone deacetylase (HDAC), have often failed due to incomplete understanding of how these modifications influence disease progression across different patient subgroups.

For instance, targeting DNA methylation has shown promise in animal models, but translating these findings into successful human trials has proven difficult.

Key Safety Concerns in Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension Treatment

Safety Concerns of Emerging Therapies

In addition to the above-established treatments, emerging therapies are undergoing clinical evaluation. For instance, sotatercept (Winrevair) has shown promise in recent clinical trials by reducing pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR) and improving functional outcomes. However, like many PAH drugs, it presents notable safety concerns such as thrombocytopenia (low platelet count), which can increase the risk of serious bleeding.

Another notable failure in PAH treatments involves imatinib, originally used for chronic myeloid leukemia. Despite promising preclinical data, the IMPRES trial found that the drug caused significant adverse effects such as subdural hematomas (bleeding in the brain) and had a high dropout rate due to intolerances.

Long-term Safety Considerations

PAH therapies generally aim to delay disease progression and improve QoL, but the long-term management of side effects is a significant concern. Due to the chronic nature of PAH, patients often require lifelong treatment, and the cumulative burden of side effects such as liver dysfunction, edema, and infection risks can significantly impact their QoL.

Moreover, combination therapy, where patients are treated with multiple PAH drugs targeting different pathways, has become a standard approach, as it has been shown to improve outcomes more effectively than monotherapy. However, this also increases the risk of drug-drug interactions and cumulative toxicity, necessitating careful monitoring and individualized treatment plans.

Ongoing Challenges

Despite the advances in PAH treatment, prognosis remains poor for many patients. While current therapies can slow disease progression, they do not reverse the vascular damage caused by PAH. Furthermore, patients who are refractory to conventional therapies, or who experience rapid disease progression, have limited options beyond lung transplantation.

Clinical trials for new drugs, such as elafin and serralutinib, are exploring novel pathways like elastin degradation and tyrosine kinase inhibition, which are implicated in pulmonary vascular remodeling. These approaches hold promise, but safety profiles and long-term efficacy must be thoroughly evaluated.

The management of PAH has come a long way, with a variety of treatment options now available that can improve exercise capacity, delay clinical worsening, and enhance quality of life. However, safety concerns remain a critical issue, especially with newer, more aggressive therapies. Patients require close monitoring to manage side effects, prevent complications, and optimize long-term outcomes. As new treatments emerge, balancing efficacy with safety will remain a top priority in the ongoing battle against this devastating disease.

Standard of Care Treatment for Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension

The standard treatment of PAH is based on targeted therapies that focus on the molecular pathways involved in the disease. These therapies typically target three major pathways:

1. Endothelin Receptor Antagonists (ERAs):

- Drugs like bosentan, ambrisentan, and macitentan block the effects of endothelin-1, a potent vasoconstrictor that contributes to pulmonary arterial hypertension. These drugs are used to reduce blood vessel constriction and improve blood flow.
- Safety Concerns: ERAs are known to cause liver toxicity, and patients on these drugs require regular liver function monitoring. Additionally, they can lead to anemia, nasal congestion, and peripheral edema.

2. Phosphodiesterase Type 5 Inhibitors (PDE5i):

- Sildenafil (Revatio) and Tadalafil (Adcirca) enhance nitric oxide (NO) signaling, leading to vasodilation in the lungs. These drugs are primarily used to improve exercise capacity and quality of life in PAH patients.
- Safety Concerns: Common side effects include flushing, headaches, dyspepsia, and visual disturbances. Severe cases of hypotension and erectile dysfunction have also been reported, particularly when PDE5 inhibitors are combined with nitrates.

3. Prostacyclin Analogues:

- These drugs, such as epoprostenol (Flolan) and treprostinil (Remodulin), mimic prostacyclin, a naturally occurring substance in the body that dilates blood vessels and inhibits blood clotting. Prostacyclin analogues are often used in patients with advanced PAH and have shown the most significant improvements in long-term outcomes.
- Safety Concerns: The continuous intravenous or subcutaneous administration required for these drugs is a major hurdle, as it poses risks of infection at catheter sites and sepsis. Additionally, patients often experience jaw pain, nausea, and diarrhea. Inhaled formulations like iloprost also cause coughing and respiratory irritation.

4. Soluble Guanylate Cyclase (sGC) Stimulators:

- Riociguat (Adempas) is another key drug that stimulates the NO-sGC-cGMP pathway, causing vasodilation. It is effective in both PAH and chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension (CTEPH).
- Safety Concerns: Hypotension, dizziness, and gastrointestinal discomfort are common side effects. Riociguat also carries a teratogenic risk, meaning it can cause birth defects, so it is contraindicated in pregnancy.

Enhancements to Clinical Trial Protocols

The complexity of PAH demands innovative approaches to trial design and endpoint selection. The following enhancements are essential for improving trial success rates and ensuring meaningful drug approvals.

By incorporating these advanced strategies, clinical trials for PAH therapies will not only improve the chances of FDA approval but also ensure that new treatments offer substantial and lasting benefits to patients.

1. Combination of Multiple Endpoints:

Rather than relying solely on one endpoint like 6MWD, trials should use composite endpoints that include both functional measures (e.g., 6MWD) and clinical outcomes (e.g., TTCW). This approach ensures that improvements in exercise capacity are corroborated by reductions in disease progression.

2. Adaptive Trial Designs:

Given the challenges of recruiting large cohorts for a rare disease like PAH, adaptive trial designs allow for modifications based on interim results, optimizing strategies without compromising the trial's statistical power. This design was successfully implemented in trials such as the PULSAR study for sotatercept, enabling rapid adjustments based on early efficacy signals.

3. Biomarker Integration:

Incorporating biomarkers such as NT-proBNP or emerging molecular markers like BMPR2 signaling can provide early indications of drug efficacy, reducing trial duration and improving patient stratification. Biomarkers can serve as surrogate endpoints, especially in cases where invasive measures like PVR are not feasible.

4. Focus on Long-Term Outcomes:

Future trials should prioritize real-world outcomes like survival, hospitalization rates, and quality of life. Regulatory bodies increasingly emphasize these outcomes as they provide clearer insights into how drugs perform outside controlled trial settings.

Notable Key Opinion Leaders in PAH Research

Name	Specialty	Designation	Location	Brief Bio
Dr. Melanie A Lavender (MBChB (Hons), FRACP)	Pulmonology/ Pneumology	Consultant, Fiona Stanley Hospital	Western Australia	Dr. Melanie Lavender has extensive expertise in respiratory medicine, particularly in advanced lung diseases. She is the lead physician for the Western Australia Pulmonary Hypertension Service, which is part of the Advanced Lung Disease Unit at Fiona Stanley Hospital. Dr. Lavender also oversees lung transplantation cases and participates in numerous clinical trials focusing on pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH) and other chronic lung conditions.
Eli Gabbay (MBBS, MD, FRACP)	Pulmonology/ Pneumology	Professor, University of Notre Dame	Western Australia	Professor Eli Gabbay is a leader in the management and treatment of pulmonary hypertension, one of the most complex pulmonary conditions. He directs the Pulmonary Hypertension Service at Fiona Stanley Hospital and is involved in advanced research on targeted therapies for pulmonary vascular diseases. He was awarded the Pulmonary Hypertension Association (PHA) Australia Research Award for innovative research and is a leading investigator in the PHIRST study (Pulmonary Hypertension Investigational Research in Systemic Therapies), which has influenced global treatment standards.
Dr. Fiona Kermeen (MBBS, FRACP)	Thoracic Surgery; Pulmonology/ Pneumology	Consultant, The Prince Charles Hospital	Queensland, Australia	Dr. Fiona Kermeen is a senior consultant specializing in pulmonary hypertension and advanced lung disease, including interstitial lung disease and chronic thromboembolic pulmonary hypertension (CTEPH). As the Director of the Pulmonary Hypertension Unit at The Prince Charles Hospital, she oversees one of Australia's leading centers for managing this condition. Kermeen is involved in both clinical practice and translational research, focusing on improving outcomes for patients with complex pulmonary vascular diseases.
Daniel C Chambers (MBBS, MD, MRCP, FRACP)	Pulmonology/ Pneumology; Transplantation Medicine	Professor, University of Queensland	Queensland, Australia	Professor Daniel C Chambers is a renowned expert in advanced lung disease, particularly in the field of lung transplantation. He leads the largest lung transplant program in Queensland and has made groundbreaking advancements in the management of end-stage lung disease, cystic fibrosis, and pulmonary fibrosis. His work has played a pivotal role in improving lung transplant survival rates.
Dr. Tamera J Corte (MBBS (Hons), BSc (Med), FRACP, PhD)	Pulmonology/ Pneumology	Clinical Professor, University of Sydney	New South Wales, Australia	Dr. Corte is a Professor at The University of Sydney, lead investigator of the Centre of Research Excellence in Pulmonary Fibrosis, Chair of the Australasian Interstitial Lung Disease Registry and a member of multiple committees for interstitial lung disease clinical trials and guidelines. Dr. Corte has been the recipient of multiple research grants and awards for her work in advancing treatment for chronic lung diseases.

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