

BLOOD PRESURE

- The **outward pressure of blood against blood vessel wall**
- Product of **blood flow from the heart** and **inward resistance of blood vessel walls**
- Directly proportional** to cardiac output (CO) and peripheral vascular resistance (PVR)

HYPERTENSION

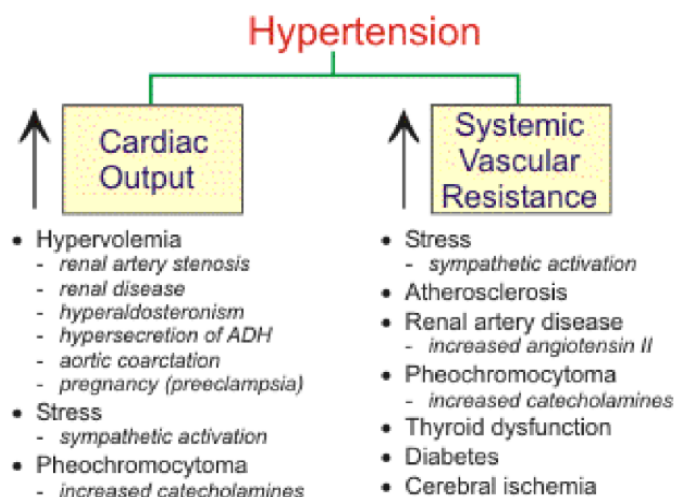
- A sustained **systolic BP** of greater than **140 mm Hg** or a sustained **diastolic BP** of greater than **90 mm Hg**
 - American Heart Association (AHA)**: >140/90 mm Hg
 - World Health Organization (WHO)**: >160/95 mm Hg
- ESSENTIAL/PRIMARY HTN** - no specific cause; heritability is 30%
- SECONDARY HTN** - with a **specific etiology** (*renal artery constriction, coarctation of the aorta, pheochromocytoma, Cushing's disease, and primary aldosteronism*); **multifactorial**

CLASSIFICATION OF HYPERTENSION

JOINT NATIONAL COMMITTEE		ACC/AHA GUIDELINES	
< 120/80	Normal	< 120/80	Normal
120-135/80-89	Pre-HTN	120-129/< 80	Pre-HTN
≥ 140/90	HTN	130-139/80-89	Stage 1
140-159/90-99	Stage 1 HTN	≥140/90	Stage 2
≥ 160/100	Stage 2 HTN	≥ 180/120	Hypertensive Crisis

COMPLICATIONS OF HYPERTENSIONS

- HEART:** Coronary Heart Disease (CHD), Heart Failure (HF), Left Ventricular Hypertrophy (LVH), Cardiomyopathy
- KIDNEY:** Renal Disease/Failure
- ARTERY:** Coronary Artery Disease (CAD), Atherosclerosis, Aneurysm, Peripheral Vascular Disease (PVD)
- BRAIN:** Ischemic Stroke, Stroke
- EYES:** Retinal Disease



BLOOD PRESSURE REGULATION

- RESISTANCE ARTERIOLES** - responsible for controlling blood flow
 - Constriction: ↓ space to pass → resistance → ↑ BP
 - Dilation: ↑ space to pass → ↓ BP

2. **CAPACITANCE VENULES** - responsible for storing blood
 - Constriction: more blood to pump → ↑ BP
 - Dilation: blood stays in the heart → ↓ pump → ↓ BP
3. **PUMP HEART OUTPUT** - faster → ↑ BP
4. **VOLUME KIDNEYS** - ↑ water → ↑ blood volume → ↑ CO → ↑ BP

All actions in the anatomic sites are **directly proportional to blood pressure**.

MECHANISMS OF BLOOD PRESSURE REGULATION

- **BARORECEPTOR REFLEX ARCH** - responsible for **rapid, moment-to-moment adjustments in BP**, such as in transition from a reclining to an upright posture
- **RENIN-ANGIOTENSIN-ALDOSTERONE SYSTEM** - **common** esp. in secondary HTN; by controlling blood volume, the **kidney is primarily responsible for long-term BP control**

BARORECEPTOR REFLEX ARCH

1. Change in BP is detected by baroreceptors
2. Baroreceptors send out signals to the brain
3. Brain changes sympathetic and parasympathetic activity
4. Heart and blood vessels respond, causing BP to return normal

Increasing Pressure

↓ of BP → less stretch of aortic arch and carotid sinus (baroreceptors)
 → less signals go to IX (afferent; glossopharyngeal nerve) and X (efferent; vagus nerve; from aortic arch) → ↓ vasomotor center activity
 → ↑ sympathetic activity, ↓ parasympathetic activity → ↑ heart rate and vasoconstriction → ↑ CO and PVR → ↑ BP

Decreasing Pressure

↑ BP → more stretch of aortic arch and carotid sinus (baroreceptors)
 → more signals go to IX (afferent) and X (efferent) → ↑ vasomotor center activity → ↓ sympathetic activity, ↑ parasympathetic activity → ↓ heart rate and vasodilation → ↓ CO and PVR decreases = ↓ BP

RENIN-ANGIOTENSIN-ALDOSTERONE SYSTEM

1. Kidneys release **renin** in response to low BP
2. Renin acts on **angiotensinogen** from the liver and converts it into **Angiotensin I (Ang I)**
3. **Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme (ACE)** converts Ang I to **Angiotensin II (Ang II)**
4. Angiotensin produces the following effects:
 - a. ↑ sympathetic activity
 - b. ↑ tubular NaCl reabsorption, K⁺ secretion, Water retention
 - c. ↑ arteriolar vasoconstriction = ↑ BP
 - d. ↑ ADH secretion
 - e. ↑ Aldosterone secretion

TREATMENT OF HYPERTENSION

THERAPEUTIC GOALS

- Reduction of the sign itself by drugs whose mechanisms of action at the system level are altered:
 - blood volume
 - cardiac output
 - peripheral vascular resistance
- Limit development of subsequent organ pathology

MAJOR CLASSES OF ANTI-HTN AGENTS

1. **Diuretics**
2. **Sympathogenic Agents**
3. **Direct Vasodilators**
 - Older Oral Vasodilators (*Hydralazine*)
 - Calcium Blockers (*Nifedipine*)
 - Parenteral Vasodilators (*Nitroprusside*)
4. **Angiotensin Antagonist/Modifiers**
5. **Renin Inhibitor**
 - Aliskiren

DRUGS ACTING ON THE VASCULAR SMOOTH MUSCLE:

Hydralazine, Minoxidil, Nitroprusside, Diazoxide, Fenoldopam, Verapamil and other calcium channel blockers

[ANTI-HTN DRUGS](#)

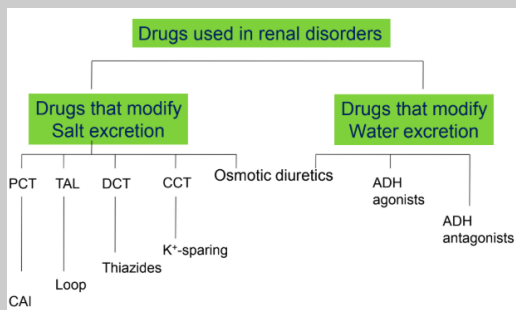
CHOICE OF ANTI-HTN DRUGS

Drugs	Physiologic Play-back Mechanisms	Appropriate Drug combinations
Furosemide Chlorothiazide	Increase renin-angiotensin-aldosterone axis	β-blocker ACE inhibitors
Clonidine Methyldopa	Increase fluid retention	Diuretics
Reserpine Guanethidine	Increase fluid retention	Diuretics
Beta-blockers	Increase plasma volume	Diuretics
Vasodilator	Increase reflex sympathetic stimulation Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone axis	β-blocker Diuretics
ACE inhibitors	No physiologic play-back mechanisms	

PATIENTS	CHOICE OF TREATMENT	AVOID
CKD + Diabetes	Angiotensin Antagonist (to delay diabetic nephropathy)	
CAD	Beta-blocker, Calcium Antagonist	Hydralazine (may cause heart attack and angina)
CHF	ACEIs and/or Diuretics	Beta-blocker, Calcium Antagonist
Athletes		Beta-blockers and Diuretics
Broncho-pulmonary DX	Calcium Antagonist	Beta-blocker
Dyslipidemia		Beta-blocker and Thiazide Diuretics
PV DX	Calcium Antagonist (Nifedipine), Vasodilators or ACEIs	Beta-blocker
End-stage Renal DX	Calcium Antagonist, Diuretics and Centrally-acting Agents	Caution on ACEIs
Stroke	ACEIs and/or Diuretics	
Elderly PX	Diuretics (lower dose)	Be wary on pseudohypertension wherein elevated BP is due to brachial artery atherosclerosis and not HTN per se

DIURETICS

Lower blood pressure by **depleting the body of sodium and reducing blood volume** and perhaps by other mechanisms.



Drug Group	NaCl	NaHCO ₃	K ⁺	Ca ²⁺	Body pH
CAI	↑	↑↑↑	↑	—	Acidosis
Loop	↑↑↑↑	-	↑	↑↑	Alkalosis
Thiazides	↑↑	↑	↑	↓↓	Alkalosis
K ⁺ -Sparing	↑	(+)	↓	—	Acidosis

TYPE	SITE OF ACTION	NORMAL PHYSIOLOGY	MECHANISM OF ACTION	CLINICAL USES	EXAMPLES
Carbonic Anhydrase Inhibitors	Proximal Convoluted Tubule (PCT)	Reabsorption of HCO₃⁻ occur in PCT - Na⁺ enters PCT through Na⁺/H⁺ exchanger, where: - Na⁺ (Lumen) → Cell - H⁺ (Cell) → Lumen - H⁺ combines with HCO₃⁻ in the lumen to form Carbonic Acid (H₂CO₃) Carbonic anhydrase (CA) in the lumen breaks carbonic acid down into CO₂ + H₂O - CO₂ enters PCT, and is converted back into H₂CO₃ by the intracellular CA - HCO₃⁻ dissociates into H⁺ and HCO₃, where: - H⁺ can be used again - HCO₃⁻ is transported into the blood	Inhibition of Carbonic anhydrase (CA) CA Inhibition → ↓ HCO ₃ ⁻ reabsorption (Na ⁺ reabsorption will also decrease) → HCO ₃ ⁻ and Na ⁺ will remain in the urine → Water follows Na ⁺ and HCO ₃ ⁻ → ↑ urine output	Glaucoma - CAIs reduce aqueous humor formation = decrease IOP Urinary alkalinization Metabolic alkalosis Acute mountain sickness - CAIs decrease CSF formation and the pH of CSF and brain = increase ventilation and diminish symptoms of mountain sickness Adjuvants in the treatment of epilepsy - Increase urinary phosphate excretion during severe hyperphosphatemia	Acetazolamide Brinzolamide Dorzolamide

Loop Diuretics	Thick Ascending Limb (TAL)	Reabsorption of Na^+, K^+, and 2Cl^- occur in TAL - TAL reabsorbs Na^+, K^+, and 2Cl^- through the NKCC2 cotransporter from the lumen into the epithelial cell Na^+ is pumped out of the cell into the blood by the Na^+/K^+ ATPase - Some K^+ goes back into the lumen, creating a positive electrical charge - Cations such as Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} can be reabsorbed	Inhibition of Na^+, K^+, and 2Cl^- cotransporter (NKCC2) NKCC2 Inhibition → ↓ Na^+, K^+, 2Cl^-, Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} reabsorption → Na^+ will remain in the urine → Water follows Na^+ and → ↑ urine output	- For severe hypertension Acute Pulmonary edema and other edematous condition - Acute hypercalcemia Hyperkalemia Acute Renal Failure Anion overdose	Ethacrynic Acid Bumetanide Furosemide Torsemide Muzolamide
Thiazide Diuretics	Distal Convoluted Tubule (DCT)	Reabsorption of Na^+ and Cl^- occur in DCT - DCT reabsorbs Na^+ and Cl^- through the NCC Na^+ is pumped out of the cell into the blood by the Na^+/K^+ ATPase Na^+ + Cl^- are reabsorbed, causing water retention	Inhibition of Na^+/Cl^- cotransporter (NCC) NCC Inhibition → ↓ Na^+ and Cl^- reabsorption → Na^+ will remain in the urine → Water follows Na^+ → ↑ urine output NOTE: Thiazides ↑ Ca^{2+} reabsorption	- For mild to moderate hypertension - Mild heart failure Chronic calcium stone formation Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus	Hydrochlorothiazide Chlorthiazide Chlorthalidone Metolazone Indapamide
Potassium-Sparing Diuretics	Collecting Tubule	Aldosterone acts on principal cells and increases the following activities: ENaC → allows Na^+ to	Aldosterone Antagonists Blocks aldosterone receptor	- Useful both to avoid excessive potassium depletion and enhance the natriuretic effects of other diuretics - Hyperaldosteronism - Primary – Conn's syndrome,	Aldosterone Antagonist: Spironolactone Eplerenone

		enter the cell from urine b. Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase → moves Na⁺ into blood c. K⁺ secretion into urine NOTE: Potassium-sparing Diuretics decreases K⁺ secretion which can cause hyperkalemia	↓ ENaC, Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase Activity → ↓ Na⁺ influx and reabsorption → Na⁺ will remain in the urine → Water follows Na⁺ → ↑ urine output ENaC Blockers ENaC Inhibition → ↓ Na⁺ reabsorption → Na⁺ will remain in the urine → Water follows Na⁺ → ↑ urine output	ectopic ACTH production ○ Secondary – evoked by heart failure, hepatic cirrhosis, nephrotic syndrome ● Alternative to loop and thiazide diuretics, if K⁺ wasting is to be avoided ● Eplerenone – reduce myocardial perfusion defects ● Amiloride – Liddle’s syndrome ● Finerenone – Cardioprotectant	ENaC Blockers: Triamterene Amiloride
Osmotic Diuretics	Descending Loop of Henle	Reabsorption of water occurs along the nephron, especially in the PCT and descending limb 1. Water is normally reabsorbed from the tubular fluid into the blood due to osmotic gradients.	Osmotics remains in the tubular lumen → ↑ osmolarity → ↑ solute in the tubular fluid → ↑ water retention → ↑ urine output	● Increase urine volume ● Reduction of ICP and IOP	Mannitol Urea Isosorbide
ADH Antagonists	Collecting Duct	Reabsorption of water occurs in the collecting duct through ADH 1. ADH (vasopressin) binds to the V₂ receptor on the collecting duct epithelial cell. 2. V₂ receptor activation increases cAMP, which signals the cell to insert Aquaporin-2 (AQP2) channels into the membrane. 3. Aquaporin-2 allows water to move from the lumen into the epithelial cell.	Inhibition of ADH action at the V₂ receptor V₂ receptor inhibition → ↓ cAMP → ↓ Aquaporin-2 channels → ↓ water reabsorption → Water remains in the urine → ↑ water excretion/urine output	● To manage SIADH (Syndrome of Inappropriate ADH) ● Used in other conditions where there is elevated ADH (CHF) ● Autosomal Dominant Polycystic Kidney Disease	Demeclocycline Lithium Conivaptan Tolvaptan Lixivaptan Satavapytan

		4. Water then moves into the blood , resulting in water reabsorption and concentrated urine.													
OTHER INFORMATION															
OTHER DIURETICS: • XANTHINE DIURETICS (<i>Caffeine, Theobromine, Theophylline</i>) ○ Caffeine - weak diuretic; nonspecifically and weakly blocks adenosine receptors that participate in the control of proximal tubule Na+ reabsorption • UREARETICS ○ UT-A - located in the inner medullary collecting duct and thin descending limb ○ UT-B - located in the descending vasa recta ○ Aquaretics that increase urea and water excretion but not sodium excretion; these agents may prove to be useful in edematous states and even in SIADH • SODIUM GLUCOSE COTRANSPORTER 2 (SGLT2) INHIBITORS - weak diuretic; third-line therapy for diabetes mellitus • MERCURICAL DIURETICS (<i>Mercaptomerin</i>) • ACIDIFYING SALTS (<i>Ammonium Chloride</i>) • ADH AGONIST (<i>Vasopressin and Desmopressin</i>) DIURETIC COMBINATIONS: • Loop diuretics and Thiazides ○ Can mobilize a large amount of fluid ○ K+-wasting • Loop agents or thiazides and Potassium sparing			ADVERSE EFFECTS: <table><tr><td>Furosemide</td><td>Metabolic alkalosis, hypokalemia, hypocalcemia, hypovolemia, hypotension, hypomagnesemia, hyperuricemia, ototoxicity</td></tr><tr><td>Chlorthiazide</td><td>Metabolic alkalosis, hypokalemia, hypocalcemia, hypovolemia, hypotension, hypocalcemia, hypomagnesemia, hyperuricemia, hyperglycemia, hyperlipidemia</td></tr><tr><td>Spironolactone</td><td>Metabolic acidosis, hyperkalemia, menstrual disorders, impotence, gynecomastia, loss of libido, hirsutism, acute renal failure (triamterene + indomethacin), kidney stones (with triamterene)</td></tr><tr><td>OD</td><td>Extracellular volume expansion, dehydration, hyperkalemia, hyponatremia (when used with patient with diminished renal function), acute renal failure</td></tr><tr><td>ADHs</td><td>Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus, renal failure, dry mouth and thirst</td></tr></table>			Furosemide	Metabolic alkalosis, hypokalemia, hypocalcemia, hypovolemia, hypotension, hypomagnesemia, hyperuricemia, ototoxicity	Chlorthiazide	Metabolic alkalosis, hypokalemia, hypocalcemia, hypovolemia, hypotension, hypocalcemia, hypomagnesemia, hyperuricemia, hyperglycemia, hyperlipidemia	Spironolactone	Metabolic acidosis, hyperkalemia, menstrual disorders, impotence, gynecomastia, loss of libido, hirsutism, acute renal failure (triamterene + indomethacin), kidney stones (with triamterene)	OD	Extracellular volume expansion, dehydration, hyperkalemia, hyponatremia (when used with patient with diminished renal function), acute renal failure	ADHs	Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus, renal failure, dry mouth and thirst
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			CLINICAL USES <table><tr><th>EDEMATOUS STATE</th><th>NON-EDEMATOUS STATE</th></tr><tr><td> • Edema associated with Heart failure • Kidney disease and renal failure • Hepatic cirrhosis • Idiopathic edema </td><td> • High salt intake resulting to Hypertension • Nephrolithiasis • Hypercalcemia • Diabetes Insipidus • Renal & cardiac protection </td></tr></table>			EDEMATOUS STATE	NON-EDEMATOUS STATE	• Edema associated with Heart failure • Kidney disease and renal failure • Hepatic cirrhosis • Idiopathic edema	• High salt intake resulting to Hypertension • Nephrolithiasis • Hypercalcemia • Diabetes Insipidus • Renal & cardiac protection						
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SYMPATHOPLEGICS

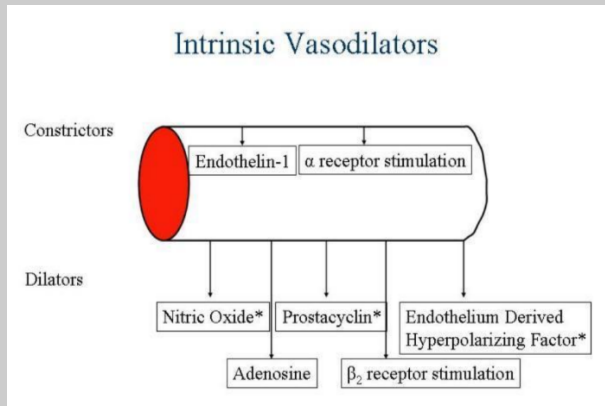
Lower blood pressure by **reducing peripheral vascular resistance, inhibiting cardiac function, and increasing venous pooling in capacitance vessels.**

NORMAL PHYSIOLOGY	1. Sympathetic nerves releases Norepinephrine 2. NE binds to receptors that produces the following effects: a. ↑ HR b. ↑ CO c. ↑ PVR d. ↑ Contractility e. Vasoconstriction									
TYPE	MECHANISM OF ACTION	EXAMPLES								
Centrally Acting Sympathoplegic Drugs	α₂ receptor activation → ↓ sympathetic activity → ↓ NE release → ↓ HR, contractility, CO, vasodilation, PVR	Methyldopa - Converted to α-methyldopamine and α-methylnorepinephrine - Potential advantage is that it causes reduction in renal vascular resistance - TX HTN during pregnancy (Category B)								
		Clonidine - Initial effect: Brief hypertension - Prolonged effect: Hypotension - Taken sublingually; used for sudden rise of BP Guanabenz Guanfacine	<table><thead><tr><th></th><th>Pharmacologic actions</th><th>Toxicity/Undesirable effects</th></tr></thead><tbody><tr><td>METHYLDOPA</td><td> - decrease PVR - variable reduction in HR and CO - reduce renal vasculature resistance (adv.) </td><td> - sedation - nightmares, vertigo, and extrapyramidal signs* - lactation* - Positive Coomb's test </td></tr><tr><td>CLONIDINE</td><td> ↓ BP due to ↓ CO and decr. PVR - decr. renal vasculature resistance - reduce BP in supine position, rarely cause postural hypotension (same as methyldopa) </td><td> - dry mouth and sedation are common - Should not be given to patients who are at risk for mental depression </td></tr></tbody></table>		Pharmacologic actions	Toxicity/Undesirable effects	METHYLDOPA	- decrease PVR - variable reduction in HR and CO - reduce renal vasculature resistance (adv.)	- sedation - nightmares, vertigo, and extrapyramidal signs* - lactation* - Positive Coomb's test	CLONIDINE
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Adrenergic Neuron-Blocking Agents	NE release inhibition → ↓ postganglionic sympathetic activity → ↓ HR, contractility, vasodilation	Guanethidine - Rarely used because of its toxicity (pharmacologic sympathectomy) - Marked postural hypotension, diarrhea, and impaired ejaculation Guanadrel (Guanethidine-like drug) Reserpine - Alkaloid from <i>Rauwolfia serpentina</i> - First drug used in large scale for treatment of hypertension (rarely used today) - Low doses: little postural hypotension - High doses: sedation, lassitude, nightmares and severe mental depression - Extrapyramidal effects (less frequent): Parkinsonism (Common)								

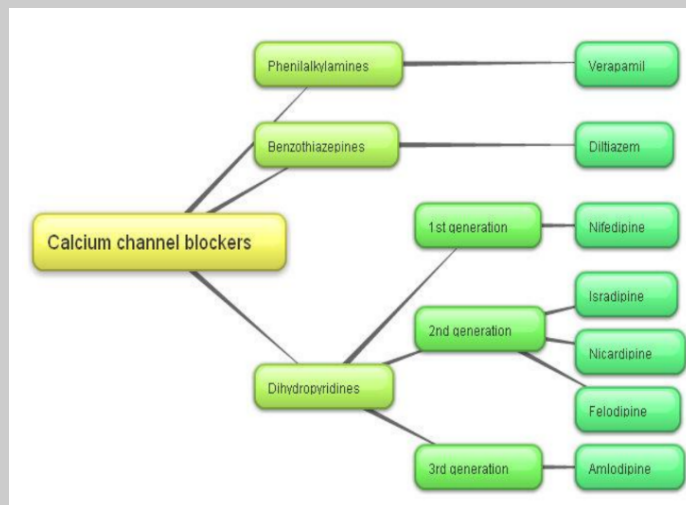
		- Contraindicated to patient with gastric ulcer - Produces GI cramps, increases gastric acid secretion, and mild diarrhea		
Ganglion-Blocking Agents	Blocked nicotinic receptors → ↓ autonomic nerve function → ↓ sympathetic activity → ↓ HR, contractility, CO, vasodilation, PVR	Mecamylamine Trimethaphan Hexamethonium	ADVERSE EFFECTS OF GANGLIONIC BLOCKERS	
			Tissues predominantly under parasympathetic (cholinergic) tone - Myocardium (atrium; S-A node) – Tachycardia - Eye (Iris; Ciliary muscle) – Mydriasis - GI tract – decrease in tone and motility; constipation - Urinary bladder – urinary retention - Salivary gland – dry mouth	Tissues predominantly under sympathetic (adrenergic) tone - Myocardium (ventricles) – decrease in contractile force - Arterioles – increase in peripheral blood flow; hypotension - Veins – pooling of blood; decrease in venous return; decrease in cardiac output - Sweat glands – decrease in secretion
Adrenoreceptor Antagonists	Blocked adrenergic receptors = NE cannot bind → ↓ sympathetic activity → ↓ HR, contractility, CO, vasodilation, PVR	β₁-selective blockers Bisoprolol, Betaxolol, Esmolol (<i>9-10 minute HL - IV Infusion; used for intraoperative and postoperative HTN</i>), *Acebutolol, *Metoprolol (<i>*Cardioselective</i>) Atenolol, Nebivolol Non-selective β-adrenergic antagonists Nadolol, Sotalol, Timolol, Propanolol β-blockers with ISA Acebutolol, Pindolol β-blockers with α-blocking capacity Labetalol, Carvedilol (<i>Mixed Antagonists</i>) Long half-lives Nadolol, Carteolol, Bisoprolol, Betaxolol Partial agonists with ISA Pindolol, Acebutolol, Penbutolol β-blocking and vasodilating effects Labetalol, Carvedilol, Nebivolol (<i>not mediated by alpha blockade</i>) α blockers Prazosin, Phentolamine, Phenoxybenzamine (<i>activate RAAS, causing fluid retention; cause first-dose phenomenon</i>)		

VASODILATORS

Reduce pressure by **relaxing vascular smooth muscle**, thus dilating resistance vessels and—to varying degrees—**increasing capacitance** as well.



Mechanism of Vasodilation	Drug
Release of nitric oxide (from drug or endothelium)	Hydralazine, Nitroprusside, Nitrates, Histamine, Acetylcholine
Opening of potassium channels and hyperpolarization	Minoxidil, Diazoxide
Block L-type calcium channels	Calcium channel blockers (Nifedipine, Diltiazem, Verapamil)
Activation of dopamine receptors	Fenoldopam



TYPE	NORMAL PHYSIOLOGY	MECHANISM OF ACTION	CLINICAL USES	EXAMPLES
Calcium Channel Blockers	Ca²⁺ enters vascular smooth muscle cells through L-type Ca²⁺ channels 1. Ca²⁺ enters the vascular smooth muscle cell through L-type Ca²⁺ channels. 2. Ca²⁺ binds to calmodulin, activating myosin light-chain kinase (MLCK). 3. MLCK promotes interaction between actin and myosin, causing smooth muscle contraction. 4. Contraction of vascular smooth muscle causes vasoconstriction → ↑ PVR → ↑ BP.	Inhibition of L-type Ca²⁺ channels L-type Ca²⁺ channel inhibition → ↓ Ca²⁺ entry → ↓ smooth muscle contraction → vasodilation → ↓ PVR → ↓ BP	• Hypertension • Angina ○ Prophylactic therapy in both effort and vasospastic angina ○ Abort acute anginal attacks ○ Atheroslerotic angina – in combination with nitrates • Supraventricular tachycardia ○ Verapamil, diltiazem (not FDA approved) • Migraine • Preterm labor • Stroke • Hemorrhagic stroke associated with subarachnoid hemorrhage – • Raynaud's syndrome	1st Generation: (Non-dihydropyridines except Nifedipine – cardioselective; intermediate effects) Diltiazem (<i>intermediate action</i>) Verapamil (<i>greatest depressant effect on the heart</i>) Bepridil Nifedipine (<i>dihydropyridine; ultra short acting used in emergency management of severe hypertension</i>) 2nd Generation: (Dihydropyridines – vasoselective) Amlodipine Felodipine Isradipine Nicardipine Nisoldipine Nimodipine Clevudipine

Arteriolar (Direct) Vasodilators	1. Contraction of arteriolar smooth muscle causes vasoconstriction 2. Vasoconstriction increases the resistance against blood flow, causing $\uparrow$ PVR $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ BP.	Direct relaxation of arteriolar smooth muscle Direct arteriolar vasodilation $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ PVR $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ BP		Hydralazine • Dilates arterioles but not veins • Effective in severe hypertension • When combined with nitrates, it is effective in heart failure • Minoxidil • Orally active vasodilator • Dilates arterioles but not veins • Used topically as a stimulant to hair growth for correction of baldness Diazoxide • Effective and relatively long-acting parenterally administered arteriolar dilator • Occasionally used to treat hypertensive emergencies • Also used to treat hypoglycemia secondary to insulinoma
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Arterial And Venous (Nonselective) Vasodilators	1. Contraction of arterial and venous smooth muscle increases BP	Direct relaxation of arterial and venous smooth muscle Arterial + venous vasodilation → ↓ PVR → ↓ BP	Sodium Nitroprusside • Parenterally administered vasodilator • Dilates both arterial and venous vessels • Reduced peripheral vascular resistance and venous return Organic nitrates α-adrenoceptor blockers
OTHER INFORMATION			
<u>VASODILATION BY NO</u> NO causes vascular smooth muscle relaxation 1. Nitric oxide (NO) enters the vascular smooth muscle cell. 2. NO activates guanylyl cyclase (GC). 3. Guanylyl cyclase converts GTP → cGMP. 4. ↑ cGMP causes vascular smooth muscle relaxation. 5. Smooth muscle relaxation causes vasodilation → ↓ PVR → ↓ BP. Activation of NO–cGMP pathway NO → ↑ guanylyl cyclase → GTP → ↑ cGMP → smooth muscle relaxation → vasodilation → ↓ PVR → ↓ BP		<u>FENOLDOPAM: D1 RECEPTOR AGONIST</u> • Dilation of peripheral arteries* • D1 receptor activation in the renal vasculature may also induce natriuresis • Used for hypertensive emergencies and postoperative hypertension • Half-life is 10 minutes (Administered by continuous IV infusion) • Toxicities ○ Reflex tachycardia ○ Headache and flushing ○ Increases IOP	
ADVERSE EFFECTS			
Calcium Channel	Constipation, Pretibial edema, Dizziness, nausea and vomiting, Flushing, fatigue, confusion, Allergic reactions With verapamil - bradycardia, CHF, AV block, sinus node depression		

Blockers	With Bepridil - torsade de pointes (an uncommon and distinctive form of polymorphic ventricular tachycardia (VT) characterized by a gradual change in the amplitude and twisting of the QRS complexes around the isoelectric line)
Minoxidil	Edema due to sodium and water retention, Reflex tachycardia, flushing, Headache, Hirsutism/Hypertrichosis
Hydralazine	Lupus-like syndrome, Cardiovascular effects (Hypotension, Reflex tachycardia, Palpitation, Angina), CNS effects (headache, nausea, anorexia)
Sodium Nitroprusside	Hypotension, Metabolic acidosis, Arrhythmias, Methemoglobinemia may also develop during infusion, Accumulation of Cyanide* Cyanide Toxicity TX: • Sodium thiosulfate - A sulfur donor that facilitates the metabolism of cyanide (by rhodanase enzyme) into less toxic thiocyanate ◦ May accumulate (thiocyanate) over prolonged administration characterized by weakness, • Hydroxocobalamin combines with cyanide*
Diazoxide	Excessive hypotension, Reflex tachycardia. Hyperglycemia (inhibit insulin release)

ANGIOTENSIN ANTAGONISTS Reduce peripheral vascular resistance and (potentially) blood volume.				
TYPE	NORMAL PHYSIOLOGY	MECHANISM OF ACTION	CLINICAL USES	EXAMPLES
Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme Inhibitors (ACEIs)	ACE converts Angiotensin I → Angiotensin II 1. Renin converts angiotensinogen → Angiotensin I (Ang I). 2. ACE converts Ang I → Ang II 3. Ang II binds to AT ₁ receptors → vasoconstriction → ↑ PVR → ↑ BP 4. Ang II also stimulates aldosterone secretion.	Inhibition of Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme (ACE) ACE inhibition → ↓ Ang II formation + ↑ bradykinin → ↓ vasoconstriction + ↓ aldosterone → ↓ PVR + ↓ Na ⁺ /water retention → ↓ blood volume → ↓ BP	• Mild to moderate hypertension • Can be used safely in ischemic heart disease patients • Most effective in conditions associated with high renin activity	Captopril Enalapril (<i>A prodrug converted to enalaprilat</i>) Lisinopril Alacepril Cilazapril Zopenopril Benazepril Fosinopril Moexipril Perindopril

	5. Aldosterone causes $\uparrow$ Na^+ reabsorption, and water follows $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ blood volume $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ BP 6. ACE also normally breaks down bradykinin. 7. Therefore, ACE inhibition causes $\uparrow$ bradykinin, which promotes vasodilation.		• Useful in treating patients with chronic kidney disease • CHF • Diabetes mellitus	Quinapril Ramipril Randolapril
Angiotensin II-Receptor Blockers	Angiotensin II binds to AT_1 receptors $\rightarrow$ vasoconstriction and aldosterone secretion 1. Angiotensin II (Ang II) normally binds to AT_1 receptors on vascular smooth muscle. 2. AT_1 receptor stimulation causes vasoconstriction. 3. Vasoconstriction causes $\uparrow$ peripheral vascular resistance (PVR) $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ BP. 4. Ang II also stimulates aldosterone secretion from the adrenal cortex. 5. Aldosterone causes $\uparrow$ Na^+ reabsorption in the kidney $\rightarrow$ water follows Na^+ $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ blood volume $\rightarrow$ $\uparrow$ BP.	Inhibition of Angiotensin II binding to AT_1 receptors AT_1 receptor blockade $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ vasoconstriction + $\downarrow$ aldosterone secretion $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ PVR + $\downarrow$ Na^+/water retention $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ blood volume $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ BP	• In patients with heart failure and chronic kidney disease	Saralasin Losartan Valsartan Telmisartan Olmesartan Irbesartan Candesartan Eprosartan Azilsartan
Renin Inhibitor	Renin converts angiotensinogen $\rightarrow$ Angiotensin I 1. When BP or renal perfusion decreases, the kidney releases renin.	Inhibition of Renin Renin inhibition $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ Angiotensin I formation $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ Angiotensin II $\rightarrow$ $\downarrow$ vasoconstriction + $\downarrow$	<u>Cardiorenal Effects of Renin Inhibitors</u> • Vasodilation (arterial & venous)	Aliskiren • Approved for TX HTN by the US FDA in 2007

	2. Renin acts on angiotensinogen. 3. Angiotensinogen is converted into Angiotensin I. 4. Ang I is then converted into Ang II by ACE. 5. Ang II causes: a. Vasoconstriction → ↑ PVR → ↑ BP b. Aldosterone secretion → ↑ Na⁺/water retention → ↑ blood volume → ↑ BP	aldosterone → ↓ PVR + ↓ Na ⁺ /water retention → ↓ blood volume → ↓ BP	○ reduce arterial & venous pressures ○ reduce ventricular afterload and preload ● Decrease blood volume ○ Natriuretic ○ Diuretic ● Depress sympathetic activity ● Inhibit cardiac and vascular hypertrophy	● Orally active, half-life of about 24 hours (once daily dosing) ● Side effects ○ GI disturbances ○ Cough and angioedema (lesser incidence than ACEIs and ARBs) ○ Hyperkalemia
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OTHER INFORMATION

ADVERSE EFFECTS

ARBs Hemophilia, Headache, Fever, Hyperkalemia, Allergy, Orthostatic hypotension, Cough and Angioedema* (Bradykinin and Substance P seems to be responsible), Renal damage in nondiabetic renal vascular disease, Teratogenic* = Fetal hypotension, anuria, and renal failure, Hypotension, Hyperkalemia*, Altered taste, allergic skin rashes, and drug fever in 10% of patients

DRUG INTERACTION: Potassium-sparing Diuretics – hyperkalemia

ACEIs DRUG INTERACTION: NSAIDs – May impair the hypotensive effects of ACE inhibitors by blocking the bradykinin-mediated vasodilation (partly prostaglandin mediated)