

THE EFFECT OF EXOGENOUS SURFACTANT REPLACEMENT THERAPY ON LUNG FUNCTION*

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SUMMARY: Yüksel B, Greenough A. (Department of Child Health, King's College Hospital, London, England). The effect of exogenous surfactant replacement therapy on lung function. *Turk J Pediatr* 35: 53-57, 1993.

Exogenous surfactant replacement therapy, regardless of type, reduces mortality and morbidity. We have reviewed the existing data to determine the effect this form of treatment has on lung function. Several studies have demonstrated that surfactant replacement therapy improves compliance, but the timing and magnitude of the effect is variable. The effect is dependent firstly on the type of surfactant used, natural surfactant being associated with a more rapid effect than artificial surfactant; secondly whether the surfactant is given as rescue or therapy as prophylaxis and thirdly the gestational age of the infant treated. Preliminary evidence also suggests that surfactant replacement therapy may influence lung function in the long term, since infants treated with surfactant rather than a placebo have lower airways resistance and higher specific conductance at follow-up. These preliminary reports are encouraging because they suggest that exogenous surfactant replacement therapy may have the additional benefit of reducing chronic respiratory morbidity associated with premature birth. *Key words: lung function, premature birth, respiratory distress syndrome, surfactant.*

Surfactant deficiency was recognized as the cause of respiratory distress syndrome many years ago¹. Unfortunately, early studies of surfactant replacement therapy yielded disappointing results^{2, 3}. In the early 1980s, however, both a natural⁴ and a artificial surfactant⁵ were used apparently with good clinical effect. Over the last decade there has been an explosion in the number of surfactants available⁴⁻¹⁰. Their efficacy has been assessed in a large number of trials, which have demonstrated that exogenous surfactant replacement therapy, regardless of type, reduces mortality¹¹⁻¹⁴ and morbidity^{9, 14-16}. We have reviewed the existing data on the effect of surfactant replacement therapy on lung function. Our aims were firstly to determine factors influencing the acute effects of exogenous surfactant on lung function and secondly to assess if this therapy was likely to affect the long term respiratory morbidity frequently associated with premature birth¹⁷.

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Lung function abnormalities in surfactant deficient infants

Surfactant is a surface tension lowering agent which promotes alveolar stability¹⁸ and protects epithelial surfaces¹⁹. As a consequence, the presence of an adequate surfactant monolayer reduces the work of breathing¹⁹. In surfactant deficiency, the lungs become atelectatic, with a decrease in lung compliance¹⁹. Lung function measurements reveal affected infants to have both a low compliance and low functional residual capacity (FRC)²⁰. Thus surfactant replacement therapy would be predicted to improve both these lung function abnormalities.

Acute changes in lung function following surfactant replacement therapy

A variety of studies have demonstrated that surfactant replacement therapy is associated with an improvement in compliance, but that the timing and magnitude of the effect is variable²¹⁻²⁴. Natural surfactant has an immediate effect on lung function, with the improvement in compliance occurring at the same time as the reduction in requirement for respiratory support²². These rapid effects may occur as a consequence of natural surfactant being recruited into the existing alveolar monolayer and thus immediately "functional". In contrast, artificial surfactants have a slower onset of action^{5, 9, 21, 25}. No significant difference was noted between infants given an artificial lung expanding compound (ALEC) or placebo in the resuscitation period²⁶ or one hour after treatment²⁷. The administration of ALEC was associated with an improvement in lung compliance only six hours after the initial therapy had been given. The improvement in lung function became more significant at 24 hours²¹. Artificial surfactants, rather than being recruited into the monolayer, may instead be taken up into the Type II pneumocytes where they are utilized to produce the infant's own surfactant which subsequently affects lung function. This sequence is likely to explain the apparent delay in effect of the artificial surfactant; as endogenous surfactant is recycled with a "cycle-time"²⁸ which is similar to the duration of the delay of action of ALEC on lung compliance.

Whether surfactant is given as prophylaxis or as rescue therapy, it also influences its effect on lung function. The administration of ALEC is only associated with an improvement in compliance when given as prophylaxis²¹, but not as rescue therapy²⁹. The latter trial, however, was small and the possibility of a type II error cannot be ignored. The effect of exogenous surfactant on lung function is also influenced by gestational age. A significant improvement in compliance following ALEC was only noted in infants of less than 30 weeks of gestation, but not in those greater than that level of maturity⁹.

More recently, the effect of surfactant on FRC has been assessed. One study demonstrated, in response to human surfactant, an immediate increase in FRC

but, surprisingly, a reduction in respiratory compliance³⁰. This combination of changes in lung function was explained by the possible alteration in the shape of the static recoil pressure characteristics of the diseased lungs which could occur as a result of treatment³¹. The FRC of the surfactant-deficient ventilated infant, however, would be predicted to be low. Thus, it is surprising that any single treatment could increase the FRC to such a level that the position on the pressure/volume curve would be so shifted as to be associated with a reduction in compliance.

Longer term effects of surfactant replacement therapy on lung function

Measurements of compliance at 7 and 28 days after treatment have suggested that the effect of surfactant on lung function may be short-lived^{24, 32}. No significant differences in compliance were noted at 7 days following administration of ALEC or placebo²¹. Similarly, pulmonary resistance was significantly decreased at 2, 3 and 14 days following surfactant, but there was no difference at 28 days, compared to controls²⁴. In contrast, a recent study has found that lung function measured by plethysmography at 7 months of age was better in infants given Exosurf than those administered placebo. The former group had significantly lower airways resistance and higher specific conductance³³. These apparently conflicting results may be explained by the known effects of surfactant. The lower survival rate of the placebo groups may suggest that the "control" infants with severe lung function abnormalities die during the perinatal period. Thus, this would bias the lung function data obtained immediately outside the perinatal period in favour of the controls. Surfactant replacement therapy also, however, reduces acute respiratory complications, such as air leak, an important determinant of the degree of abnormality of lung function in the first year of life³⁴. Thus it is not surprising that Exosurf-treated infants were found to have significantly better lung function at 7 months of age³³. Abnormal lung function at 6 months of age is a highly specific predictor of chronic respiratory morbidity persisting into the second year of life³⁴. Thus, these preliminary reports³³ are extremely encouraging because they suggest that exogenous surfactant replacement therapy may reduce the chronic respiratory morbidity associated with premature birth¹⁷.

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