

Role Of New Antiplatelets In Acute Coronary Syndromes

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACS	: Acute coronary syndrome
ACC	: American colleague of cardiology
ADP	: Adenosine diphosphate
AHA	: American health association
ASA	: Acetyl salicylic acid
ATP	: Adenosine triphosphate
BMS	: Bare-metal stent
CABG	: Coronary artery bypass graft
CAD	: Coronary artery disease
CI	: Confidence interval
COX	: Cyclo-oxygenase
CV	: Cardiovascular
CYPϵ0,	: Cytochrome P ϵ 0,
DES	: Drug eluting stent
FDA	: Food and drug administration
GP	: Glycoprotein
HPR	: High platelet reactivity
HR	: Hazard ratio
LMWH	: Low molecular weight heparin
LTA	: Light transmittance aggregometry

MACE	: Major adverse cardiac events
MDR¹	: Multi-drug resistance protein ¹
MEA	: Multiple electrode aggregometry
MI	: Myocardial infarction
NPR	: Normal platelet reactivity
NSAIDs	: Non steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
NSTEMI	: Non –ST-elevation myocardial infarction
OR	: Odds ratio
PARs	: Protease activated receptors
PCI	: Percutaneous coronary intervention
PFA	: Platelet function analyser
PG	: Prostaglandin
PPI	: Proton pump inhibitor
PRP	: Platelet rich plasma
PTCA	: Percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty
RPA	: Residual platelet aggregation
RR	: Relative risk
STEMI	: ST-elevation myocardial infarction
TEG	: thromboelastogram
TNF-α	: Tumour necrosis factor alpha
TVR	: Target vessel revascularization

TxA₂	: Thromboxane A ₂
UA	: Unstable angina
VASP	: Vasodilator-stimulated phosphoprotein
VWF	: von Willebrand factor

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Introduction

Coronary heart disease is a common cardiovascular disease, affecting millions of patients all over the world, and continues to be the leading cause of death in industrialized countries. Atherothrombosis is the main pathophysiologic mechanism leading to acute coronary syndromes (ACS). Platelet activation is one of the essential mechanisms in the genesis and onset of atherothrombotic complication so antiplatelet therapy is a cornerstone of the management of ACS (*Lloyd-Jones et al., 2004*).

There is a growing body of evidence that there is variability in response to antiplatelet treatments and this represents a potentially important clinical problem. Understanding the mechanisms underlying this phenomenon is important in improving patient care, but due to the diversity of factors involved, a clear predictive model for responsiveness to antiplatelet therapy is still missing. Attempts have been made to characterize the efficacy of antiplatelet therapy using platelet function testing but based on current information, its routine use is not recommended particularly as costs and cost effectiveness have not been established and agreement between laboratory methods is lacking (*Lordkipanidze et al., 2005*).

Dual antiplatelet therapy with aspirin and clopidogrel has provided a foundation for dramatic improvement in outcomes of patients with ACS, however emerging antiplatelet therapy provides more potent and swift platelet inhibition than clopidogrel, as well as the promise of improved clinical outcomes. The ultimate goal remains increased efficacy, without an accompanying increase in bleeding. Indeed defining a therapeutic window that maximizes platelet inhibition while minimizing bleeding remains an elusive goal for individual patients (*Wiviott et al., 2009*).

Aim of The Work

This essay discusses the advantages of recent antiplatelet agents in the treatment of acute coronary syndromes, compared to current antiplatelet therapy.

Chapter 1

Pathophysiology of acute coronary syndromes

Acute coronary syndrome (ACS) refers to a spectrum of conditions that develop from blood flow that is insufficient to meet the metabolic needs of the myocardium, it describes any condition characterized by signs and symptoms of sudden myocardial ischemia-a sudden reduction in blood flow to the heart.

ACS includes a set of clinical presentations with a similar underlying pathophysiology. This description encompasses unstable angina (UA), non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI), and ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI). In each case, the underlying problem is due to disruption of an atherosclerotic plaque and subsequent thrombus formation. This results in a reduction or cessation of blood flow to the myocardium. The ultimate presentation depends on a number of factors, including the extent of thrombus formation, the degree to which blood flow is diminished, the acuity with which the process has developed and the extent of collateral blood flow present within the coronary circulation (*Lloyd-Jones et al., 2010*).

STEMI results from a fully occluded coronary artery which needs urgent thrombolysis, whereas UA and NSTEMI normally result from a partially or intermittently occluded coronary artery, they are traditionally grouped together due to overlap in terms of symptoms, electrocardiogram (ECG) findings, and treatment. The distinction between these two entities can be subtle, but, by and large, depends on demonstrating the presence (NSTEMI) or absence (UA) of myocardial necrosis (*Lloyd-Jones et al., 2004*).

Non modifiable factors that influence risk for coronary artery disease include age, sex, family history and ethnicity or race. Men have a higher risk than women. Men older than age 40, women older than age 50, and anyone with a first-degree male or female relative who developed coronary artery disease before age 50 or 60, respectively, are also at increased risk. Modifiable risk factors include elevated levels of serum cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, and triglycerides; lower levels of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; and the presence of type 2 diabetes, cigarette smoking, obesity, a sedentary lifestyle, hypertension and stress (*Burke et al., 2006*).

The understanding of the pathophysiological mechanisms of atherosclerosis and of ACS has progressed

significantly in recent years. This has allowed for the opportunity for the more precise identification of ACS, development and implementation of more specific therapeutic interventions, in addition to the improved potential for primary intervention (*Bhatt and Topol, 2014*).

Virtually all regional acute myocardial infarcts are caused by thrombosis developing on a culprit coronary atherosclerotic plaque. The very rare exceptions to this are spontaneous coronary artery dissection, coronary arteritis, coronary emboli, coronary spasm, and compression by myocardial bridges. Thrombosis is also the major initiating factor in unstable angina, particularly when rest pain is recent and increasing in severity. Necropsy studies suggest that a new thrombotic coronary event underlies 50–70% of sudden deaths caused by ischaemic heart disease (*Stary et al., 2004*).

Pathophysiology of atherosclerotic plaque

Complex plaques of mature atherosclerosis are the end result of a long pathophysiologic process, which typically begins in early adulthood. Endothelial dysfunction appears to play an initial role in atherosclerosis. Injury to the endothelium results in establishment of the cycle of