

Short Term Outcome in Patients Presenting with Acute Coronary Syndrome with Left Main Coronary Artery Disease

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Abstract:

Acute coronary syndrome (ACS) is a leading cause of mortality and is linked to negative outcomes. Patients with acute coronary syndrome (ACS) who also have left main (LM) disease may have a higher risk of complications and death. Despite considerable improvements in treatment methods, a small number of Patients still suffer from severe hemodynamic compromise and lethal arrhythmia as a result of left main ACS (LMACS). The obstructive left main (LM) coronary artery disease (occurs in about 6% of ACS Patients who undergo coronary angiography) supplies 75-100% of the left ventricular myocardium. Consequently, significant LM stenosis might lead to potentially fatal consequences. In Patients presenting with ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) requiring rapid revascularization (class IIa recommendation) or unstable angina/non-ST segment elevation myocardial infarction (UA/NSTEMI) who are not candidates for coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG), current guidelines suggest percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) for LM disease. Multivessel coronary artery disease is the most common cause of LM stenosis; yet, only 6-9% of individuals experience it as an isolated lesion. We want to assess the demographics, symptoms, and prognosis of Patients with ACS who receive LM-PCI in this concise study.

Keywords: Acute Myocardial Infarction, Left Main , PCI, Revascularization

Introduction:

The World Health Organization reports that around 16% of all fatalities in 2019 were caused by Ischemic Heart Disease (IHD), making it the top cause of mortality that year. Sudden coronary syndromes (ACS) include a wide range of disorders, including individuals who have recently had changes in their clinical symptoms or signs, changes on their 12-lead ECG, and sudden increases in cardiac troponin (cTn) concentrations, whether or not these alterations are evident [1]. Cardiogenic shock (CS), electrical/hemodynamic instability, Persistent chest pain, and cardiac arrest are among the many clinical manifestations that may accompany acute coronary syndromes (ACS). Revascularization with CABG surgery has been considered the gold standard therapy for obstructive left main coronary artery (LMCA) disease because of the significant morbidity and death rates lin

ked to impaired myocardial blood supply[2].

The Origins of Acute Coronary Syndromes

The breakdown of the fibrous cap, leading to plaque rupture, is thought to be the primary cause of coronary thrombosis. After this happens, the coagulation pathway is activated, vasoconstriction occurs, and platelets clump together [3].

Formation of plaque.

Several signals, including inflammatory reactions to insults like bacterial toxins and more conventional risk factors like dyslipidaemia, hypertension, hyperglycaemia, and obesity, can cause blood cells, or monocytes, to adhere to the endothelium of the arterial lumen, leading to plaque accumulation at the cellular level. The monocytes cling to the vascular wall and then move into the artery intima, the layer of muscle that is closest to the vessel lumen. Once they undergo this transformation, they start ingesting the modified lipoprotein particles

that normally collect in the intima. quickly; These lipid-filled macrophages, also called foam cells, are characteristic of atherosclerotic plaques and are present in individuals with hyperlipidemia. Plaque formation inside the intima is a common occurrence when foam cells assemble [4].

The development of plaque

It is more probable that physically disrupting plaques that have become symptomatic is the cause of plaque advancement, rather than a linear process [5].

Formation of thrombus

When platelets are activated, their glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptors undergo a change. Thrombus development relies on these receptors since they facilitate fibrinogen's connection, which in turn allows a "mesh" or "aggregation" of platelets to develop and set in motion thrombus formation [6].

Algorithm for ACS

In accordance with the fourth definition of myocardial infarction as outlined by the ESC guidelines In cases of acute myocardial damage accompanied with symptoms of acute myocardial ischemia, a rise or decline in cTn values (with at least one value over the 99th

percentile URL) and one of the following seven, the diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction should be made:

Ischemia symptoms, new ischemic ECG changes, pathological Q waves, imaging evidence of new myocardial viability loss or abnormal regional wall motion consistent with an ischemic etiology, and the identification of a coronary thrombus by angiography or autopsy (not for types 2 or 3 MIs) are all criteria for myocardial ischemia.

Type 1 MI criteria are met when acute atherothrombosis is seen in the artery feeding the infarcted myocardium after death. Indications of an unbalanced supply and demand for myocardial oxygen that is unconnected to acute atherothrombosis fulfill the requirements for MI type 2. Type 3MI is met when a patient dies from cardiac problems associated with myocardial ischemia and who has suspected new ischemic ECG alterations prior to the availability or abnormality of cTn values, as shown in table 1 [8].

Persistent ST segment elevation on electrocardiogram (ECG) testing distinguishes STEMI from non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI) [9].

Table (1): Classification of UA according to Braunwald (10)

Clinical circumstances			
	(A) Develops in presence of extracardiac condition that intensifies myocardial ischaemia (secondary UA)	(B) Develops in absence of extra- cardiac condition (primary UA)	(C) Develops within 2 weeks of acute myocardial in- farction (post-in farction UA)
Severity			
I- New onset of severe angina or accelerated angina, no rest pain .	IA	IB	IC
II- Angina at rest within past month but not within preceding 48 h (angina at rest, subacute)	IIA	IIB	IIC
III- Angina at rest within 48 h (angina at rest, acute)	IIIA	IIIB-Tneg IIIB-Tpos	IIIC

Health assessment

I. The patient's health status:

Acidosis may manifest in a variety of ways in the clinic. Cardiogenic shock (CS) may be caused by mechanical difficulties such as severe mitral regurgitation or persistent ischemia, or it can be caused by cardiac arrest, electrical instability, or hemodynamic instability; nevertheless, some individuals may be pain-free when they present [11].

The risk of non-ST-elevation acute coronary syndrome (NSTEMI-ACS) increases with age, male gender, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, smoking, hypertension, renal dysfunction, prior signs of coronary artery disease (CAD), and peripheral or carotid artery disease [12].

Physical examination

Pay close attention to systolic murmurs in myocardial infarction patients [13]. These murmurs could be signs of mitral regurgitation or ventricular septal abnormalities.

The ECG results

When evaluating individuals who may have acute coronary syndrome (ACS), the 12-lead electrocardiogram (ECG) at rest is the gold standard. Although over 30% of patients with NSTEMI-ACS may have normal electrocardiograms, there are several hallmark abnormalities to look out for, including ST-segment depression, transient ST-segment elevation, and T-wave alterations [14].

Chemical indicators

According to Thygesen K et al. (2019), it is essential to measure a biomarker of cardiomyocyte damage, ideally hs-cTn, in every patient suspected of having NSTEMI-ACS. When it comes to detecting damage to cardiomyocytes, cardiac troponins outperform creatine kinase (CK), CK-MB, and myoglobin [15].

An inflammatory marker

A higher risk of death is associated with elevated C-reactive protein levels found by a high-sensitivity CRP test. Patients with normal troponin levels were able to be classified into low-risk and high-

risk groups based on CRP levels; this subset had an overall 14-day death rate of just 1.5%. When C-reactive protein levels were high, the death rate for these individuals was 5.8%, whereas it was only 0.4% when C-reactive protein levels were normal. It should be noted that the CRP cutoff value in the ACS condition is about five times higher than in the stable CAD situation (>3 mg/L). An additional straightforward indicator of inflammation is the white blood cell count. Patients with UA/NSTEMI had a greater risk of death and recurrent myocardial infarction (MI) when their counts were raised [16].

• Non-invasive imaging techniques in ACS

• Imaging of the chest:

Chest radiographs are useful for diagnosing cardiomegaly and other ischemia-related problems including pulmonary edema. In addition to ACS, it may help rule out other possible causes of symptoms such as thoracic aneurysm, pneumothorax, or pneumonia [17].

In the context of acute coronary syndrome (ACS), echocardiography is a crucial tool. If the diagnosis is uncertain, echocardiograms may be particularly useful in identifying regional wall-motion abnormalities [18].

Radionuclide myocardial perfusion imaging has a great early sensitivity in detecting AMI that is not seen in other testing modalities, and it has good diagnostic and prognostic utility in the emergency situation. Excluding MI, a typical restin perfusion imaging examination has a negative predictive value of about 99% [19].

The use of computed tomography (CT) coronary angiography and CT coronary artery calcium scoring has made it possible to detect coronary artery disease (CAD) without invasive procedures, allowing for earlier treatment before the arteries become fully blocked. Additionally, it allows for direct viewing

of plaque in side the coronary arteries in addition to the arterial lumen [20].

Intrusive angiography of the heart Cardiac catheterization is useful for determining the degree of a patient's ailment and for characterizing the coronary architecture. It is imperative that Patients who have cardiogenic shock, Persistent chest pain (even after treatment), significant airway narrowing, or right ventricular (RV) infarction proceed cardiac catheterization [a systolic blood pressure (SBP) below 90 mmHg with or without hypoperfusion is referred to as cardiogenic shock] [21].

Intervention in the Left Main

Improvements in stent technology, procedural techniques and refinement, periprocedural anticoagulation, concomitant antiplatelet agents, cardiovascular medication, and PCI have all contributed to significant therapeutic advancements in the past 20 years for the treatment of obstructive CAD [22].

Assessing LMCA illness

Because a big portion of the myocardium isn't getting enough blood, most people with severe LMCA illness have symptoms. Nevertheless, stable people who undergo coronary angiography might unintentionally reveal severe LMCA illness. Additional assessment of the hemodynamic importance of intermediate or incidental LMCA lesions is necessary when there is no major stenosis or pertinent clinical complaints [23].

By using intravascular ultrasonography (IVUS), the LMCA and its daughter branches may have their vessel size and plaque distribution characterized, allowing for precise cross-sectional minimum lumen area (MLA) measurements. A prospective research that evaluated IVUS found that an MLA of 6 mm² or more is a safe threshold for postponing LMCA revascularization. In individuals with isolated ostial and shaft intermediate LMCA stenosis, another research suggested that a reduced MLA of ≤ 4.5 mm² might be a good indicator of

functional importance [23]. To prevent overestimating parameters like the MLA at the LCX ostium from a LAD pullback, for instance, and to adequately define the LMCA bifurcation, it is ideal to utilize a dual pullback from the LAD and the LCX (24).

Endovascular treatment for LMCA illness Patients

According to the 2018 European Guidelines and randomized controlled trials comparing CABG and percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) with drug-eluting stents (DESs), PCI is better than CABG for Patients with left main coronary artery disease (LMCA) when the lesion is ostial, mid shaft, or has a low to intermediate level of anatomical complexity, and there is a synergy between percutaneous coronary intervention and cardiac surgery (SYNTAX) score less than 33.

While percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) is linked to greater rates of revascularization at follow-up but lower rates of stroke, there seems to be no statistically significant difference between CABG and DES implantation in terms of overall major adverse cardiac and cerebrovascular event (MACCE) rates (Ahn et al., 2015). In addition, when it comes to composite safety results, transradial PCI seems to be just as well as CABG for ACS Patients who present with LMCA illness. When dealing with distal LM lesions, the stenting approach is a critical factor that determines the result. A greater incidence of in-stent restenosis and target-lesion revascularization was related with both the necessity for numerous stents and the T-stenting approach [26].

PCI approach and methodology

One clinically relevant concern in the modern percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) context of left main coronary artery disease (LMCA) is the wide variation in effectiveness and safety results across modern DES. In a combined examination of 4,470 Patients with

LMCA illness who had percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) with DES of the second generation, there were no statistically significant differences in the 3-year risk of target-vessel failure across the various DES. Furthermore, with one exception, no DES had an extraordinarily low rate of definite stent thrombosis (<1.0%) [27].

Operators with more expertise (defined as those who have done 15 or more LMCA PCIs annually for three years in a row) are related with better short- and long-term results when conducting LMCA PCIs. Compared to PCI of the distal LMCA bifurcation, PCI of the ostium or shaft of the LMCA is an easier technique and is linked with a reduced need for recurrent revascularization. The ostium of the LMCA is more densely packed with elastic tissue and smooth muscle cells than the rest of the LMCA and its branches, therefore it's important to pay attention to this area to make sure the stent expands enough [28].

Since it is both technically easier and produces results that are comparable to or even better than a systematic 2-stent method, provisional stenting has traditionally been recommended for bifurcation lesions. Up to 60% of LMCA bifurcation procedures have made use of the single-stent crossover approach in practice. Two randomised controlled trials (RCTs) evaluating techniques for treating real distal LMCA bifurcations compared the double-kissing crush method to culotte and provisional stenting, casting doubt on this. The main composite ischemia endpoint was substantially decreased using the double-kissing crush approach in both investigations [29].

Because of the high incidence of side-branch impairment after crossover stenting, the LCX ostium's disease involvement should inform the decision to use a single-or 2-stent method. Thus, intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) accurately measures the disease state in LMCA bifurcation lesions,

both in the main and side branches, allowing for the determination of whether a single or two stent approach should be used. Carina shift, reduced MLA, increased eccentricity of the external elastic membrane, and carina angle between the LAD and the LCX were the primary geometric alterations in the LCX ostium after main-stent crossing from the proximal LAD to the LM. Prior to proceeding with further LCX therapy, FFR assessment should be evaluated in situations where the ostium is substantially damaged (>50%) after provisional stenting [30].

Differentiating Acute Coronary Syndrome Patients' Risks

Acute coronary syndrome (ACS) Patients' prognoses have greatly improved during the last several decades. Nonetheless, attempts to forecast the prognosis of ACS Patients are ongoing. Angiographic data, rating systems, and many biomarkers all point to encouraging outcomes [31].

Biological markers

While left ventricular systolic dysfunction is not always present, it has been proposed that transient myocardial ischemia might be the source of an increased N-terminal fraction of brain natriuretic peptide (NT-proBNP) level. An improved prognosis (death, onset of left ventricular systolic dysfunction) is reliably predicted by an increased NT-proBNP level in Patients with ACS. Patients with acute coronary syndrome (ACS) (Class IIa, level B) should be considered for prognosis based on NT-proBNP, according to current recommendations from the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) [32].

An elevated troponin level is associated with a higher mortality risk, and compared to high-sensitivity troponin (hs-Tn)-I, hs-Tn-T seems to be the more accurate predictor. For individuals with ACS (Class I, level B), the current ESC recommendations include repeated troponin measurements to ascertain

prognosis [32]. In those who do not have acute coronary syndrome (ACS), troponin is thought to be a risk factor for death from any cause. Patients with slightly increased troponin who were brought to the emergency room for suspected ACS but were later released without an acute cardiovascular event had a higher death rate. To ascertain the mortality risk in ACS Patients, a panel of several biomarkers has been suggested. There is an increase in prognostic value when Patients are stratified based on the number of increased biomarkers [33].

Assessing Danger Levels

In their work, Califf et al. presented one of the first methods of scoring. The angina score includes a handful of straightforward clinical factors that have independent predictive value, including the angina course, angina frequency, and ST-T alterations [34]. After that, Braunwald suggested a clinical presentation-based categorization for UAP. The groups were further classified based on whether or not UAP developed within two weeks after myocardial infarction (MI) [35], or whether there were any extra-cardiac factors, including infection or hypoxia, that might worsen myocardial ischemia.

Rigid data gathered from 94 hospitals in 14 countries formed the basis of the GRACE research. There are nine factors that contribute to the risk score. Upgraded GRACE 2.0 for enhanced discrimination and user-friendliness. Thirty days after admission, the PURSUIT score estimates the likelihood of mortality or death with MI. Low-risk, intermediate-risk, and high-risk categories were established for ACS Patients. Patients with STE-ACS who undergo PCI alone are the first to have their prognosis assessed using the PAMI scoring method, which uses a one-year follow-up period. Being above the age of 75 is the single most important factor. One potential drawback is the limited data

obtained from the catheterization laboratory [36].

Risk of Bleeding and Other Considerations

There is an increased risk of bleeding associated with treatment with dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT). For the purpose of predicting the likelihood of bleeding in DAPT Patients, the PRECISE-DAPT score was suggested. The effectiveness of reducing DAPT duration (<12 months) in higher-risk Patients (PRECISE-DAPT >25) was shown in an evaluation of over 15,000 individuals. In these individuals, there is no anti-ischemic benefit to prolonged DAPT. On the other hand, Patients with a low risk of bleeding (PRECISE-DAPT <25) could benefit from extending DAPT (>12 months) without increasing the risk of bleeding. Hence, if a significant risk of bleeding is present, the PRECISE-DAPT score could identify Patients with ACS who are at high risk and would benefit from a shortened DAPT. Hospital and post-discharge bleeding risk as well as in-hospital mortality may be predicted using the HAS-BLED scoring system. A higher score indicates a greater probability of hemorrhage or death while hospitalized [37].

Standard scoring systems have been the subject of several evaluation efforts. There may be a value for the CHA₂DS and CHA₂DS₂-VASc scores in Patients with ACS, despite their primary usage in atrial fibrillation. In Patients with any kind of ACS, the CHA₂DS₂-VASc score stands alone as a predictor of future MACE. The chance of major adverse cardiac event (MACE) is 3.8 times higher in the extremely high-risk category compared to the low-risk group. There is some agreement between the CHA₂DS₂-VASc score and other well-established risk measures, such as TIMI and GRACE (38).

Conclusions

Even after a successful percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI), this research

found that adverse cardiac events (ACS) caused by severe left ventricular stenosis are associated with a significant death rate. The greatest independent predictors of in-hospital complications in Patients with acute coronary syndrome who received primary intervention to the sick left main artery were abnormal troponin and CKMB values, as well as stent length. These days, LM-ACS Patients who have had prior revascularization are better off when it comes to percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI).

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