



Most Promising Therapies in Interventional Cardiology

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Abstract

Purpose of Review The last 40 years of clinical research in interventional cardiology were extraordinarily innovative. This article will review the most promising up and coming interventional cardiovascular therapies, with a primary focus on the treatment of coronary artery disease.

Recent Findings From the first stent, to the first transcatheter aortic valve implantation (TAVI), and the left appendage closure technique, percutaneous interventions revolutionized the treatment of multiple diseases and dramatically improved the prognosis of many patients. While these advances have decreased the risk of mortality in some patients (such as ST-elevation myocardial infarction), 15% of acute coronary syndrome (ACS) patients still experience recurrent ischemic events within the first year, challenging us to develop new pharmaceutical targets and new devices.

Summary The continued emergence of data supporting inflammation as a risk factor and pharmacologic target as well as data supporting the importance of cholesterol efflux have identified novel therapeutic targets that may play a major role in the improvement of prognosis of patients with coronary artery disease. In addition, novel medical devices are being developed to allow even earlier detection of acute cardiac events and to support high-risk percutaneous coronary interventions. Advances in computing and the ability to analyze large datasets will allow us to use artificial intelligence to augment the clinician patient experience, both in and out of the catheterization laboratory, with live procedural guidance as well as pre- and post-operative prognostication tools.

Keywords Percutaneous coronary intervention · Implantable device · Acute coronary syndrome · Coronary artery disease

Abbreviations

ACS	Acute coronary syndrome
AMI	Acute myocardial infarction
CABG	Coronary artery bypass graft surgery
CAD	Coronary artery disease
BMS	Bare-metal stent
BVS	Bioresorbable vascular scaffold
DAPT	Dual anti-platelet therapy
DES	Drug-eluting stent
HDL	High-density lipoprotein
IVUS	Intravascular Ultra sound
LDL	Low-density lipoprotein

OCT	Optical coherence tomography
OMT	Optimal medical therapy
PCI	Percutaneous coronary intervention
STEMI	ST-elevation myocardial infarction
TAVI	Transcatheter aortic valve implantation

Introduction

The last 40 years of clinical research in interventional cardiology were extraordinarily prolific. From the first percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI), to the first transcatheter aortic valve implantation (TAVI), and the left appendage closure technique, percutaneous interventions revolutionized the treatment of multiple diseases and dramatically improved the prognosis of many patients [1–4]. These advances would not have been possible without simultaneous innovation in pharmacotherapy, including development of potent antithrombotic

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agents and therapies that effectively lower low-density lipoprotein (LDL). [5]

While these advances have decreased the risk of mortality, 15% of acute coronary syndrome (ACS) patients still experience recurrent ischemic events within the first year, challenging us to develop new pharmaceutical targets and new devices [6, 7]. The evolution of the residual inflammatory risk model and the cholesterol efflux hypothesis has identified novel therapeutic targets that may play a major role in the improvement of prognosis of patients with coronary artery disease (CAD) [8, 9]. Novel medical devices are being developed to allow early detection of acute cardiac events and to support high-risk PCI [10]. Advances in computing and the ability to analyze large datasets will allow us to use artificial intelligence to augment the clinician patient experience, both in and out of the catheterization laboratory, with live procedural guidance as well as pre- and post-operative prognostication tools [11]. This article will review the most promising interventional cardiovascular therapies in the next 10 years for patients with ACS and CAD.

Will the “Old” PCI Still Be the Recommended Treatment for Stable Single-Vessel CAD in the Next 10 Years?

While there is no doubt that PCI changed the prognosis of patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) over the past 40 years, leading to a 40% absolute reduction in mortality, the evidence supporting the use of PCI has been less robust among patients with stable angina [12]. The COURAGE (Clinical Outcomes Utilizing Revascularization and Aggressive Drug Evaluation) study failed to demonstrate a benefit for PCI on the composite ischemic endpoint compared to optimal medical therapy [13]. In contrast, the FAME 2 (Fractional Flow Reserve (FFR)-Guided Percutaneous Coronary Intervention (PCI) Plus Optimal Medical Treatment (OMT) Verses OMT) trial was stopped prematurely due to overwhelming efficacy of PCI compared to medically treated subjects [14]. Until last year, these conflicting results were interpreted in line with the several studies conducted over the past 20 years, including the ACME (Angioplasty Compared to Medicine) Trial, which demonstrated that revascularization improves angina in severe single-vessel disease [15, 16]. In 2017, the first sham-controlled PCI randomized trial was conducted to shed further light on this question. The ORBITA (Objective Randomized Blinded Investigation With Optimal Medical Therapy of Angioplasty in Stable Angina) trial failed to demonstrate that PCI among patients with stable single-vessel disease (approximately 10% of the PCI volume) was associated with greater symptom relief compared with optimal medical therapy alone [17]. The accompanied editorial entitled “last nail in the coffin for PCI in stable angina”

questioned the utility of PCI in this setting, suggesting that PCI should not be recommended in stable patients [18]. Despite the strengths of this sham-controlled trial, some limitations should curb its impact on daily practice. First, it is difficult to generalize their findings, as one third of patients had a fractional flow reserve > 0.8, a group that likely would not have been revascularized in real practice settings. Second, patients were called 2–4 times per week during the first 6 weeks to optimize medical therapy, which may be unrealistic in real clinical settings. Third, the difference in baseline exercise time between the PCI and sham group (38 s) was larger than the anticipated effect size of the intervention (30 s). The standard deviation of exercise time was greater than planned, and the trial was therefore underpowered. Finally, the “sham nature” of the trial effectively selected the lowest-risk patients, as one-in-five deemed eligible, declined participation which may explain (at least in part) how the mean baseline exercise time was > 8 min, while 39% of patients in the trial had a class 3 angina. Current guidelines recommend PCI for single-vessel disease only when significant symptoms and ischemia are present, despite maximally tolerated medical therapy [19]. Based on the previous studies and according to these limitations, the next round of guidelines will likely not be impacted by the ORBITA Trial.

The ongoing ISCHEMIA (International Study of Comparative Health Effectiveness With Medical and Invasive Approaches) Trial aims to assess whether an initial invasive strategy of catheterization and revascularization (PCI or coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG)) + optimal medical therapy (OMT) is superior to a conservative strategy of OMT alone, among 8000 patients with CAD and a moderate or severe ischemia [20]. With results expected as late as 2020, the ISCHEMIA trial is expected to shed light on this much-debated issue.

What Future for the Stent?

From the first to the fourth generation of drug-eluting stents, major progress has been made in the reduction of stent-related complications [21]. However, with advances in stent technology, interventional cardiologists have more choices than ever before [22]. New stents with bio-absorbable polymers may increase the safety profile of the stent and improve their efficacy compared to durable polymer drug-eluting stent [23]. Although a drug-eluting stent (DES) may now become “bare-metal stent (BMS)-like” in 3 to 4 months, the complexity of the elution profile still remains a limitation. The development of new polymer-free DES may have several advantages: attenuating late adverse effects that might be related to the polymer, improving the surface integrity since there is no polymer to be sheared from the stent struts, and finally shortening the duration of dual anti-platelet therapy (DAPT) [24].

Different promising technologies to achieve this goal include drug release via a porous-eluting stent (Biosensor) or a drug elution controlled by diffusion physics stent (Medtronic) [25]. Whatever the technology, metallic stents with bio-absorbable polymers or polymer-free systems, the safety and efficacy profiles of new stents will need to be compared to the newest DES with non-erodable polymers and also with fully bio-absorbable stents.

A goal of interventional cardiology is to reduce the risk of complications. This desire was the basis for the radial approach as well as the use of bioresorbable vascular scaffolds (BVS). BVS was developed to overcome the long-term stent-related complications and leave the coronary artery free of any device. The presence of a stent, which limits the vasomotion and promotes chronic inflammation, is a well-known cause of late-stent thrombosis and neoatheroma. The ABSORB III (A Clinical Evaluation of Absorb™ BVS, the Everolimus-Eluting Bioresorbable Vascular Scaffold in the Treatment of Subjects With de Novo Native Coronary Artery Lesions) randomized trial demonstrated that the everolimus-eluting bioresorbable vascular scaffold (Absorb) was non-inferior to the everolimus-eluting cobalt-chromium (Xience) stent with respect to target lesion failure, resulting in FDA regulatory approval [26]. However, 3-year data showed that BVS was associated with higher rates of target vessel myocardial infarction and thrombosis [27]. Similarly, the AIDA (Amsterdam Investigator-initiated Absorb Strategy All-comers Trial) trial was stopped prematurely due to higher rates of thrombosis in the BVS group [28]. Despite this setback, there is still hope for BVS in the future as similar struggles in the development of early generation DES that were subsequently overcome by improvements in technology [29]. Indeed, new BVS (DESolve (Elixir Medical Corporation; Milpitas, CA), ART Pure (Arterial Remodeling Technologies SA; Paris, France), Magmaris and Fantom stents (REVA Medical, Inc.; San Diego, CA)) have been developed with an improved profile which simplifies the delivery of the stent and facilitates the reendothelization process.

The Future Intracoronary Imaging

The quality of the stent is only one of the factors that can be improved to help reduce the risk of complication and recurrent events. The sizing, the apposition, and the early recognition of any mechanical complication, such as dissection, are also strong predictors of acute ischemic events [30]. There is a growing body of evidence which supports the clinical use of intravascular imaging to reduce the risk of recurrent ischemic events and guide the placement of the stent [19]. However, intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) or optical coherence tomography (OCT) remains markedly underused in the USA and Europe [31].

There are many reasons that may be contributing to the low rate of use of these techniques. The large number of images acquired by OCT can make it difficult to interpret and requires a high level of training to be adequately comprehended. Therefore, it can be difficult to make a clinical decision based on these images. However, new-generation OCT systems have software which automates some tasks and reduces some of the burden imposed by manual processes. For example, the Iliumien Optis I System (St. Jude Medical, St. Paul, Minnesota) has automated luminal profile measurements which facilitate selection of stent diameter and length and aids in the real-time assessment of stent deployment combined with tracking-based angiography to allow co-registration. The inability of programs to automatically identify different plaque characteristics has also hampered widespread use of these tools, as it can be time consuming. To our knowledge, automated plaque characterization with OCT is still not available. Progress is being made, however, with respect to the development of algorithms for automated classification using tissue characteristics on OCT [32].

Other reasons for the underuse of OCT include the increased amount of radio-contrast needed for each run of OCT (15–30 ml), which increases the risk of contrast-induced nephropathy [33]. This is particularly undesirable in patients with chronic kidney disease. Alternative biocompatible non-contrast flush media with adequate optical transparency are needed to limit the risk of renal insufficiency [34]. Lastly, the additional cost of intravascular imaging may limit its use in some countries. Reimbursement of IVUS and OCT in Japan resulted in widespread utilization [31]. Cost-effectiveness studies are needed to justify the costs to health insurers and increase the use of this technology.

New Devices Can Improve the Symptom to Balloon Time

Both American and European guidelines recommended a reperfusion strategy based on a network of primary PCI-capable and non-PCI-capable hospitals [34]. The ultimate goal of this recommendation is to decrease the transfer time of patients with ACS to the catheterization laboratory. In contrast, little is done to reduce the delay in time from patient's onset of symptoms to reporting to an emergency room, known as symptom-to-door time. Currently, recommendations rely solely on patient education and patient recognition of symptoms. This is particularly difficult as patients may experience atypical symptoms or no symptoms at all [35]. An implantable medical device, the AngelMed Guardian system, was recently approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA). The device, designed for use in ACS patients at high risk for a

recurrent event, detects rapidly progressive ST segment deviations and subsequently alerts the patient to seek medical attention via an internal and an external device [36]. The ultimate goal of this device is to detect potentially silent MIs and decrease event-to-door time in an effort to improve clinical outcomes. In a clinical trial (AngelMed Early Recognition and Treatment of STEMI), subjects with the AngelMed Guardian System is being evaluated to determine if there is a decrease in a composite of cardiac/unexplained death, development of new Q-Wave MI, and late arrival at a medical facility for an ACS event (time-to-door >2 h) compared to subjects with the device implanted, but deactivated. Further, the device is being evaluated to determine if it increases the positive predictive value for presentation at emergency room for an MI compared to presentation for symptoms alone coupled with a decrease in the false-positive rate.

Lowering LDL Cholesterol

Despite maximal medical therapy, recurrent ACS events have been related, in part, to elevated levels of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) [37]. Studies consistently demonstrated a reduction in risk when LDL-C is lowered with statin therapy compared with placebo [5]. This efficacy of LDL-C-lowering therapy has been shown both with high-intensity statin therapy compared with moderate-intensity statin therapy, and finally with ezetimibe (a non-stating therapy), compared with placebo, when added to a statin [38, 39]. A recent meta-analysis demonstrated that LDL-C lowering below the lowest current targets (as low as 21 mg/dL) was associated with a 20% reduction in cardiovascular risk for every 38.7 mg/dL reduction in LDL-C, independent of baseline levels [40].

Additional avenues for LDL-C reduction include Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9 (PCSK9), which is a validated target for risk reduction in stable atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease [41, 42]. A fully human monoclonal antibody against PCSK9 produces substantial and sustained reductions in LDL-C and other atherogenic lipoproteins [42]. Studies of PCSK9 inhibitors have demonstrated that it is safe and well-tolerated [43]. In the ODYSSEY (Evaluation of Cardiovascular Outcomes After an Acute Coronary Syndrome During Treatment With Alirocumab) Trial, enrolling approximately 19,000-patient placebo-controlled trial, including many patients treated for ≥ 3 years, there was no safety signal with alirocumab other than injection site reactions. Further, compared with placebo in ACS patients, alirocumab 75 or 150 mg subcutaneous targeting LDL-C levels 25–50 mg/dL, and allowing levels as low as 15 mg/dL, was associated with a reduction of the composite endpoint of major

cardiac events (MACE), MI, and ischemic stroke. It was also associated with a lower rate of all-cause death as a secondary endpoint [44]. Similarly, the FOURIER trial randomized 27,564 subjects to receive subcutaneous injections of evolocumab, another PCSK9 inhibitor, or a matched placebo. Evolocumab was associated with a reduced incidence of major adverse cardiovascular events, MI, and stroke but a similar rate of mortality compared to placebo [40]. In a secondary analysis of FOURIER, evolocumab demonstrated a 42% relative reduction in major adverse limb events including acute limb ischemia, major amputation, or urgent peripheral revascularization for ischemia compared to placebo [45].

Improving HDL Function

High-density lipoprotein (HDL) has historically demonstrated an inverse relation with the occurrence of MACE, such that patients with low HDL are at an increased risk of experiencing a MACE event compared to patients with normal or elevated HDL levels [46, 47]. This observation became the basis for the “HDL hypothesis,” which suggested HDL was a potential modifiable risk factor, and therefore, a possible pharmacologic target. Surprisingly, therapies that invoked a substantial increase in HDL concentrations consistently failed to demonstrate efficacy on hard outcomes [48, 49]. Lack of efficacy in these trials was attributed to the agents not influencing the function of HDL, leading to an evolution in the HDL hypothesis [50]. Subsequent therapies have since focused the attention on raising HDLs cholesterol efflux capacity, instead of simply raising concentrations of HDL [51]. Cholesterol efflux capacity is the HDL molecule ability to effectively transport cholesterol from atherosclerotic plaque to the liver [52].

CSL112 is a human plasma-derived apolipoprotein A1 (ApoA1) that has been tested in subjects post-acute myocardial infarction (AMI), when cholesterol efflux is substantially impaired [53]. The AEGIS-I phase 2b trial demonstrated that four weekly infusions of CSL112 with either a 2 or 6 g dose was not associated with hepatotoxicity or renal toxicity compared to placebo among subjects with normal renal function or mild renal impairment [54••]. CSL112 administered was also associated with increases in plasma ApoA1, and total cholesterol efflux capacity and ATP-binding cassette A1-dependent cholesterol efflux capacity. CSL112 may influence future HDL therapies pending an adequately powered phase 3 trial on hard MACE endpoints.

New Strategies that Target Inflammation

Twenty years ago, atherosclerosis was first hypothesized to be, at least partly, a modifiable inflammatory disease [9]. Inflammation has consistently been associated with cardiovascular disease in

apparently healthy adults [55]. It was not until the JUPITER trial was conducted 10 years ago that clinicians understood that in patients without hyperlipidemia but with elevated inflammatory markers, statins impacted clinical outcomes by reducing inflammation, independently of lipid lowering [56]. The CANTOS trial validated this finding and demonstrated that Canakinumab, which targets the interleukin-1 β innate immune pathway and has no effect on LDL, was associated with significant 15% relative reduction in MACE compared with placebo, independently of baseline LDL levels [57••]. Additional anti-inflammatory trials, such as the Cardiovascular Inflammation Reduction Trial (NCT01594333), which is evaluating low-dose methotrexate compared to placebo among 7000 stable coronary artery disease patients, are currently underway.

Research is also being conducted on the role of inflammation in the acute coronary setting. Two small phase II trials demonstrated a reduction in hsCRP with anakinra, an interleukin-1 receptor inhibitor, among subjects with AMI [58, 59]. Other inflammatory pathways such as T cell activation signaling, synthetic inhibitors of tyrosine phosphatase, low doses of IL-2, and infusion of autologous regulatory T cells have risen as potential targets for reduction of residual inflammatory risk in ACS patients.

Factor XI and XII Inhibitors: Promising Drugs?

Current research and development of new thrombosis agents are focusing on more specific and direct anticoagulant therapies, which are expected to have improved efficacy and safety. Recent investigations are targeting factor XI and XII (FXI and FXII), which are part of the intrinsic and contact pathways for coagulation and play an important role in thrombus stabilization and growth. Interestingly, deficiencies in FXI and FXII are associated with a low hemorrhagic risk [60, 61]. Further epidemiological studies established a link between low concentrations of FXI and FXII and low rates of arterial or venous thromboembolism. As a result, recent trials are evaluating new anticoagulant drugs, antibodies, or peptides or antisense oligonucleotides (ASO), which directly inhibit of FXI and FXII. The proof of concept for FXI and FXII inhibitors was established for thromboprophylaxis after surgery, with the FXI-ASO-IONIS trial, which demonstrated superiority on hard outcomes with a 300-mg dose regimen of IONIS-FXIRx compared to enoxaparin [62]. Notably, bleeding events were similar between the two treatment groups. Additional research and trials are required to fully evaluate FXI and FXII inhibitor's potential benefits in acute coronary syndrome and periprocedural anticoagulation. However, it should be noted that FXI and FXII inhibitors could offer a wide range of pharmacological possibilities: with a peptide form in the acute setting allowing a quick on-off action or a

longer effect with antibodies or ASO suitable for chronic situations.

Artificial Intelligence

One would be remiss to review the future of the interventional cardiology without mentioning the potential role of “big data.” Indeed, “artificial intelligence” or “machine learning” were words unknown or only used by a limited number of statisticians and mathematicians just a few years ago. Facebook, Google, and Amazon have disseminated these concepts, which are now broadly used across various industries. Although their application in medicine is still in an early stage, many researchers are trying to figure out how exactly big data and artificial intelligence can improve healthcare [11]. Utilization of powerful computing to find structure in large datasets may transform the role of clinicians in the next 10 years. Artificial intelligence (AI) offers the possibility of identifying patients with high-risk profiles, and to estimate treatment effects according to their characteristics. Diagnostic and imaging applications of machine learning algorithms have shown the most promise [63]. In the cath lab, AI has the potential to provide live procedural guidance for angiography, intravascular imaging, and to provide real-time support to interventional cardiologists. Like most innovations, advancements in technology precede the clinical application. Bringing complex AI algorithms to clinical practice requires a concerted effort to standardize reporting of AI performance metrics in the scientific literature and to objectively assess their implementation on patient outcomes.

Conclusion

For patients with CAD, many promising therapies are under development including innovative devices, pharmacological therapies, and data solutions. The identification of novel pharmacologic targets has the potential to modify the residual risk of major adverse cardiovascular events. Further development of intravascular imaging and stent technology are expected to further improve outcomes. Widespread use of novel therapeutics is often challenged by identification of a target population that would derive the largest treatment benefit and the least harm. Powerful computational techniques now allow us to utilize complex machine learning algorithms for early diagnostics, prognostication, and derivation of personalized benefit-risk profiles that enable the delivery of targeted therapeutics based on individualized benefit-risk profiles. This review showcases the most promising ongoing advancements in coronary interventions and highlights a promising future for our patients.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

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- Of importance
- Of major importance

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