

## Vitamin D levels and platelet reactivity in diabetic patients receiving dual antiplatelet therapy

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### ABSTRACT

**Background:** Hypovitaminosis D represents an emerging cardiovascular risk factor, and especially among higher-risk subsets of patients, such as in those with diabetes mellitus. The anti-inflammatory and anti-thrombotic properties of vitamin D, in fact, could be even more beneficial among diabetics, where platelet hyperreactivity and suboptimal response to antiplatelet drugs has been associated with poorer outcomes. However, no study has so far evaluated the impact of vitamin D levels on platelet reactivity and high-on treatment platelet reactivity (HRPR) among diabetic patients receiving dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT).

**Methods:** Our population is represented by a consecutive cohort of diabetic patients treated with DAPT (ASA + clopidogrel or ticagrelor or dose-adjusted prasugrel) for an acute coronary syndrome or elective PCI, undergoing platelet reactivity assessment at 30–90 days post-discharge. Aggregation was assessed by multiple-electrode aggregometry. HRPR was defined for values above the lower limit of normality (in non-treated patients).

**Results:** We included 440 patients, that were divided according to quartiles values of vitamin D (< 9.4; 9.4–15.59; 15.6–21.64; ≥ 21.65 ng/ml). Among them, 31 were excluded as chronically treated with vitamin D supplementation. Lower vitamin D quartiles were associated with more advanced age ( $p = 0.01$ ), female gender ( $p = 0.04$ ), renal failure ( $p = 0.005$ ), history of previous MI ( $p = 0.01$ ), CABG and use of diuretics ( $p = 0.003$ ), severe coronary disease ( $p = 0.002$ ), but lower ejection fraction ( $p = 0.001$ ), treatment with statins ( $p = 0.04$ ) and new ADP-antagonists ( $p = 0.002$ ). Vitamin D levels related with higher HbA1c ( $p = 0.001$ ), cholesterol ( $p = 0.02$ ) and creatinine ( $p = 0.004$ ) and lower hemoglobin ( $p = 0.004$ ).

The prevalence of HRPR with ASA was low and not related to vitamin D quartiles (3.4% vs 2.7% vs 1.8% vs 2.1%,  $p = 0.44$ ; adjusted OR[95%CI] = 1.16[0.60–2.26],  $p = 0.67$ ).

The prevalence of HRPR for ADP antagonists was associated to hypovitaminosis D (40.2% vs 29.1% vs 29.4% vs 25.5%,  $p = 0.03$ ; (adjusted OR[95%CI] = 1.76[1.04–2.98],  $p = 0.036$  for I vs II-IV quartile). The impact of vitamin D quartiles, was significant only in patients on new ADP antagonists ( $n = 225$ , of whom 81 on prasugrel 5 mg;  $p = 0.03$ ; adjusted OR[95%CI] = 3.12[1.34–7.49],  $p = 0.009$ ) but not with clopidogrel ( $p = 0.85$ , adjusted OR[95%CI] = 1.05[0.49–2.24],  $p = 0.89$ ).

**Conclusions:** Among diabetic patients receiving dual antiplatelet therapy for an acute coronary syndrome or elective percutaneous coronary intervention, severe vitamin D deficiency is associated with a higher ADP-mediated platelet reactivity and rate of HRPR, and especially for new ADP-antagonists over clopidogrel.

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## 1. Background

Dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT) represents a pillar treatment for patients with coronary artery disease, after an acute cardiovascular event or percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI), preventing periprocedural thrombotic complications and recurrent ischemic events [1–3].

Pharmacological innovations [4], especially in the field of oral antiplatelet agents, have progressively improved the effectiveness of the drugs partnering ASA in the DAPT treatment, with Ticagrelor and Prasugrel providing a faster and more predictable platelet inhibition than the traditional clopidogrel, translating into a positive prognostic impact [5,6].

However, the persistence of an elevated platelet reactivity on DAPT (high-on treatment platelet reactivity, HRPR) has been described in 10 to 30% of patients, being associated with a more than doubled risk of major cardiovascular events [7,8].

Despite the determinants of HRPR have not been, so far, completely defined, several factors, as advanced age, smoking, diabetes mellitus, genetic asset and pro-inflammatory conditions have emerged as potential determinants of a suboptimal response to DAPT [9].

Vitamin D deficiency has been recently claimed as a principal cardiovascular risk factor, affecting a broad part of the population worldwide [10]. In fact, the loss of the pleiotropic antioxidant, antithrombotic and cardioprotective effects of vitamin D has been linked to the prevalence and extent of CAD and to an increase of platelet reactivity and cardiovascular mortality, even among DAPT treated patients [11–13].

Moreover, the consequences of hypovitaminosis D could be even more relevant in the settings of diabetes, where hyperglycemia and the pro-inflammatory milieu induce a marked platelet dysfunction and hyper-reactivity [14].

Nevertheless, the impact of vitamin D on platelet function has never been addressed in diabetic patients and especially among those receiving antiplatelet agents. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to evaluate the relationship between vitamin D levels and platelet reactivity or the rate of HRPR among diabetic patients treated with DAPT.

## 2. Methods

We included patients admitted at the Division of Cardiology, “Maggiore della Carità” Hospital, Eastern Piedmont University in Novara, Italy, from September 2011 to June 2017 requiring DAPT for an acute coronary syndrome (ACS) or after PCI for stable CAD. All patients receiving at discharge dual antiplatelet therapy with ASA (100 to 160 mg daily) and an ADP-antagonist (clopidogrel 75 mg daily or ticagrelor 90 mg b.i.d or prasugrel 10 mg daily - or 5 mg daily in case of age  $\geq$  75 years or body weight  $<$  60 Kg) were scheduled for chemistry and platelet function tests evaluation at 30–90 days from discharge. Among them, only the diabetic subgroup of patients was analyzed. Diabetes mellitus was defined as previous diagnosis, specific treatment administration (oral drug or insulin), random glycaemia  $>$  200 mg/dL, fasting glycaemia  $>$  126 mg/dL or HbA1c  $>$  6.5% [15]. Chronic renal failure was considered for history of renal failure or an admission glomerular filtrate (GFR)  $<$  60 ml/min/1.73 m<sup>2</sup> by MDRD (Modification of Diet in renal Disease) formula. Hypertension was defined as systolic pressure  $>$  140 mmHg and/or diastolic pressure  $>$  90 mmHg or if the individual was taking antihypertensive medications.

The study was approved by our local Ethical Committee and informed consent was obtained by all patients. Main demographic, clinical and angiographic data, together with the indication to DAPT were recorded at discharge and included in a dedicated database, protected by password.

## 3. Biochemical measurements

Blood samples were drawn in the early morning, following a fasting period of 12 h. Glucose, creatinine, glycosylated hemoglobin and lipid profile were determined as previously described [18]. Blood cells count was performed in a blood sample collected in tripotassium EDTA (7.2 mg) tubes. These blood samples were analyzed within 2 h of venepuncture by automatic blood cells counter (A Sysmex XE-2100).

Vitamin D measurement was performed by chemiluminescence method through LIAISON® Vitamin D assay (Diasorin Inc). The normal range for 25-OH D3 levels in our laboratory is from 30 to 100 ng/ml, according to literature reference [16]. Hypovitaminosis D was considered for severe deficiency ( $<$  10 ng/ml).

## 4. Platelet function assessment on DAPT

Platelet aggregation was measured at 30–90 days from discharge by impedance aggregometry (Multiplate®- multiple platelet function analyzer; Roche Diagnostics AG). For Multiplate a whole blood sample was stored in Vacutainer standard lithium heparin tubes and analyzed within 1–2 h from collection [17]. Tests with different agonists were performed: arachidonic acid (AA), collagen, ADP and prostaglandin E1 and thrombin receptor activating peptide (TRAP-6). Results were expressed as arbitrary Aggregation Units (AU) and plotted against time, defining platelet function as the area under curve (AUC or AU\*min). HRPR was considered for AU\*min values above lower limit normal for ASA (HAPR), [range: 862–1344] or after ADP stimulation [range: 417–1030], respectively [18,19]. The test was repeated in patients with HRPR to confirm the findings.

## 5. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 22.0 statistical package. Continuous data were expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD and categorical data as percentage. Analysis of variance and the chi-square test were used for continuous and categorical variables, respectively. Patients were grouped according to vitamin D quartiles. A *p* value  $<$  0.05 was considered statistically significant. Multivariate logistic regression analysis was performed to evaluate the relationship between vitamin D and HRPR, after correction for baseline differences that were entered in the model in block. A linear regression analysis was performed to evaluate the relationship between vitamin D levels and absolute levels of platelet reactivity with different activating stimuli.

## 6. Results

We included in our study 440 diabetic patients, that were divided according to vitamin D quartiles values ( $<$  9.4 ng/ml, 9.4–15.59 ng/ml; 15.6–21.64 ng/ml;  $\geq$  21.65 ng/ml). Among them, 31 patients (7%) were excluded as chronically treated with vitamin D supplementation.

Main clinical and demographic features are reported in Table 1. Lower vitamin D quartiles were associated with more advanced age (*p* = 0.01), female gender (*p* = 0.04), renal failure (*p* = 0.005), history of previous MI (*p* = 0.01), CABG and use of diuretics (*p* = 0.003), severe coronary disease (*p* = 0.002), while inversely to ejection fraction (*p* = 0.001), treatment with statins (*p* = 0.04) and new ADP-antagonists (*p* = 0.002).

Vitamin D levels related with higher HbA1c (*p* = 0.001), cholesterol (*p* = 0.02) and creatinine (*p* = 0.004) and lower hemoglobin (*p* = 0.004). Mean platelet reactivity was non-significantly higher for lower vitamin D levels (Table 1).

At linear regression analysis, we observed a trend for higher ADP-mediated platelet reactivity with lower levels of vitamin D (*r* =  $-0.09$ , *p* = 0.07), but not for other activating stimuli, as shown in Fig. 1A (ASPI test: *r* =  $-0.03$ , *p* = 0.54), 1B (COL test: *r* =  $-0.06$ ; *p* = 0.22) and 1C (TRAP: *r* = 0.05, *p* = 0.31).

**Table 1**  
Main clinical and demographic features in study population.

Clinical features	Overall population	I quart < 9.4 (n = 116)	II quart 9.4–15.59 (n = 112)	III quart 15.6–21.64 (n = 113)	IV quart ≥21.65 (n = 99)	P value
Age (mean ± SD)	69.2 ± 9.7	70.2 ± 9.8	68.9 ± 9.6	66.1 ± 10.4	67.8 ± 9.3	0.01
Male sex (%)	75.5	68.1	74.1	85	76.5	0.04
BMI (mean ± SD)	28.8 ± 5.8	28.9 ± 4.9	29.1 ± 4.6	29.6 ± 8.3	27.7 ± 4.4	0.13
Hypertension (%)	80.3	84.3	74.1	78.8	79.6	0.54
Active smokers (%)	22.9	27.8	20.5	24.8	21.4	0.08
Hypercholesterolemia (%)	68.9	73.1	70.5	67.3	67.3	0.44
Previous MI (%)	25.5	33.9	25	23.9	18.6	0.01
Previous PCI (%)	44.5	46.1	39.3	47.8	46.9	0.62
Previous CABG (%)	14	22.6	14.3	14.3	7.1	0.003
Renalfailure (%)	23.6	32.8	20	15	18.4	0.005
Ejectionfraction (mean ± SD)	51.5 ± 10.1	47.9 ± 11.6	51.9 ± 10.7	53.4 ± 9.3	51.8 ± 10.1	0.001
Indication to DAPT (%)						0.04
Stable angina /silent ischemia	36.2	34.5	32.1	41.6	38.8	
ACS	55.4	50	62.5	54	55.1	
Dilated CMP/arrhythmias	8.5	15.5	5.4	4.4	6.1	
Therapy atadmission						
ACE inhibitors (%)	48.2	43.1	56.3	39.8	55.1	0.39
ARBs (%)	29	33.6	19.6	37.2	23.5	0.54
Statins (%)	85	78.4	90.2	85.8	89.8	0.04
Beta blockers (%)	81.2	81	83.9	76.1	82.7	0.82
Nitrates (%)	49	58.6	44.6	49.6	42.9	0.05
Ca-antagonists (%)	30	30.2	27.7	35.4	26.5	0.92
Diuretics (%)	44.4	56.9	38.4	39.8	35.7	0.003
P2Y12 inhibitor (%)						0.18
Clopidogrel	42	50.9	46	48.2	50.5	
New P2Y12 inhibitor	58	49.1	60.8	51.8	49.5	
Antidiabetic therapy (%)						0.06
Insulin	32.2	47.1	34.1	24.4	21.3	
Oraldrugs	45.5	28.7	53.4	46.3	54.7	
Multivessel CAD	73.3	77.7	73.4	73.6	68.5	0.15
Left main/trivessel CAD	45.5	56.3	47.7	42.7	34.8	0.002
Main chemistryparameters						
Glycaemia(mean ± SD)	142.7 ± 42.5	160 ± 70.3	142 ± 55.9	155.2 ± 50.2	144.3 ± 41.8	0.76
HbA1c (mean ± SD)	7.2 ± 1	7.7 ± 1.5	7.1 ± 1.2	7.3 ± 1.6	6.9 ± 1	0.001
Creatinine (mean ± SD)	1.1 ± 0.7	1.2 ± 0.85	0.99 ± 0.4	0.98 ± 0.4	0.98 ± 0.4	0.004
Cholesterol total (mean ± SD)	140.3 ± 35.9	148.6 ± 42.7	138 ± 33.8	138.7 ± 34.8	133.8 ± 29.6	0.02
CholesterolHDL(mean ± SD)	40 ± 13.7	41.2 ± 14.1	41.8 ± 17	38.1 ± 12.5	38 ± 10.2	0.08
C reactive protein (mg/dl, ± SD)	0.794 ± 1.7	1 ± 1.5	0.6 ± 0.9	1.1 ± 2.3	0.4 ± 1	0.008
Platelets (10 <sup>5</sup> /ml; mean ± SD)	241.4 ± 72	242.7 ± 69.4	241 ± 75.1	226.7 ± 58.6	251.5 ± 77.1	0.008
Haemoglobin (mean ± SD)	13.2 ± 1.8	13 ± 1.9	13.2 ± 1.7	13.7 ± 1.5	12.9 ± 1.8	0.08
WBC (10 <sup>3</sup> /ml; mean ± SD)	8.3 ± 2.3	8.5 ± 2.4	8.1 ± 2	8.8 ± 2.7	8.2 ± 2.1	0.12
COL test (AUC; mean ± SD)	450.8 ± 163	481.9 ± 168.2	461.4 ± 193	459.1 ± 156	450.6 ± 177	0.61
ASPI test (AUC; mean ± SD)	391.4 ± 207	401 ± 246.3	387.6 ± 198	390.7 ± 196.2	380.4 ± 183.8	0.64
TRAP test (AUC; mean ± SD)	1116 ± 329	1096.7 ± 334	1097.6 ± 304	1090.3 ± 306	1142 ± 335	0.76
ADP test (AUC, mean ± SD)	370.3 ± 204	420.1 ± 228	397.5 ± 228	384.3 ± 205	361.3 ± 195	0.27

The prevalence of HRPR with ASA was low and not significantly related to vitamin D quartiles (3.4% vs 2.7% vs 1.8% vs 2.1%,  $p = 0.44$ ), as shown in Fig. 2. Results were confirmed after correction for baseline differences at multivariate analysis (adjusted OR [95%CI] = 1.16[0.60–2.26],  $p = 0.67$ ).

The prevalence of HRPR for ADP antagonists was associated to hypovitaminosis D (40.2% vs 29.1% vs 29.4% vs 25.5%,  $p = 0.03$ , Fig. 3A).

In a multivariate regression model, the lowest vitamin D quartile (< 9.4 ng/ml) was significantly associated to the occurrence of HRPR (adjusted OR[95%CI] = 1.76[1.04–2.98],  $p = 0.036$ ).

However, the impact of vitamin D quartiles, was significant only in patients on new ADP antagonists ( $n = 225$ ), including 81 patients on prasugrel, of whom 16 receiving the low-dose of 5 mg (33.3% vs 10.5% vs 17.2% vs 12.9%,  $p = 0.03$ , Fig. 3B). The results were confirmed at multivariate analysis (adjusted OR[95%CI] = 3.12[1.34–7.49],  $p = 0.009$ ). On the contrary, vitamin D did not affect the effectiveness of clopidogrel (45.8% vs 52.2% vs 45.5% vs 50%,  $p = 0.85$ , adjusted OR[95%CI] = 1.05[0.49–2.24],  $p = 0.89$ ), as shown in Fig. 3C. Results did not change when excluding the subgroup of elderly patients treated with low-dose prasugrel (33.3% vs 8.3% vs 16.7% vs 5%,  $p = 0.03$ ).

(adjusted OR[95%CI] = 1.88[1.01–3.24],  $p = 0.02$  for I vs II-IV quartile) or according to the intensity of statin therapy (high-intensity statins,  $n = 307$ : 43.8% vs 26.1% vs 30.4% vs 27.6%,  $p = 0.11$ ; adjusted OR[95%CI] = 1.84[0.97–3.49],  $p = 0.08$ ).

## 7. Discussion

The present study represents the largest cohorts of diabetic patients where we assessed the impact of vitamin D levels on platelet reactivity and the rate of high-residual platelet reactivity (HRPR) on DAPT.

We found a significant impact of severe vitamin D deficiency on ADP-mediated platelet reactivity, and the rate of HRPR, especially with the newer antiplatelet drugs Ticagrelor and Prasugrel than with clopidogrel.

Diabetics represent the most challenging subpopulation of CAD patients [20–24], displaying a reduced effect of antiplatelet drugs in diabetic patients, with suboptimal platelet inhibition with the different available drugs [25–32].

Therefore, several efforts have been addressed to the identification of those factors modulating platelet reactivity among diabetic patients, aiming at the identification of those patients where a persistent HRPR

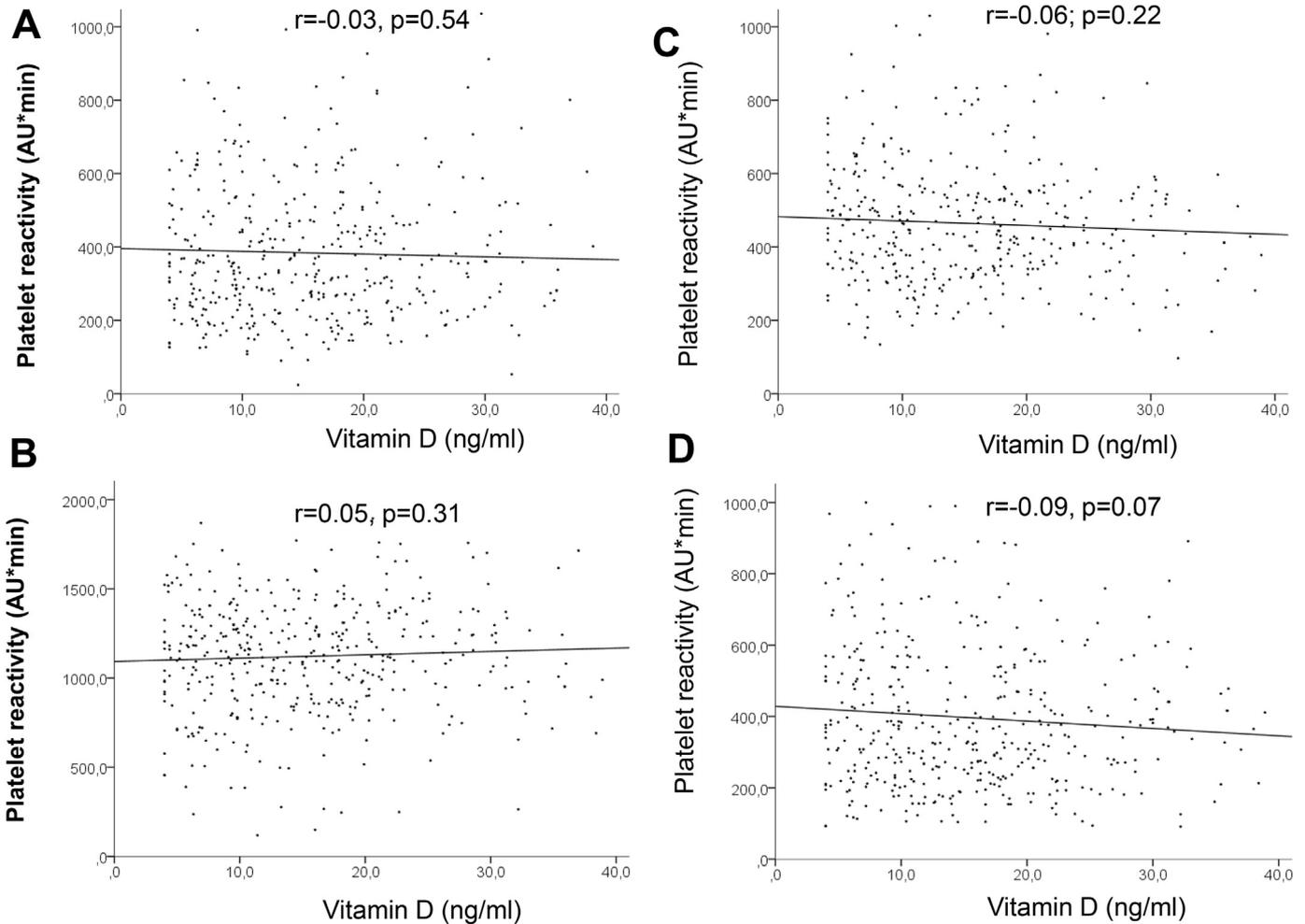


Fig. 1. Linear relationship between vitamin D levels and platelet reactivity at ASPI test (1A, upper left), COL test (1B, upper right), TRAP test (1C, lower left) and ADP (1D, lower right).

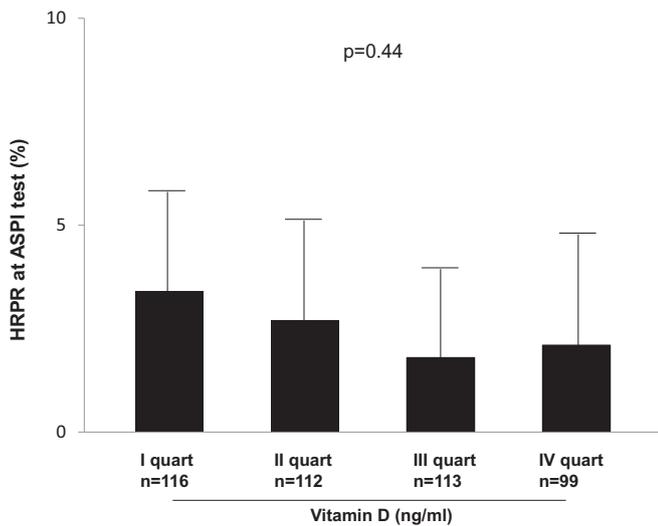


Fig. 2. Bar graph displaying the prevalence of residual high-on treatment platelet reactivity (HAPR) for Acetylsalicylic acid (ASA) in diabetic patients according to vitamin D quartiles.

could condition the risk of major thrombotic events [14]. However, inconclusive results have been achieved when focusing on platelet morphology and turnover [33,34]. Moreover, the evaluation of

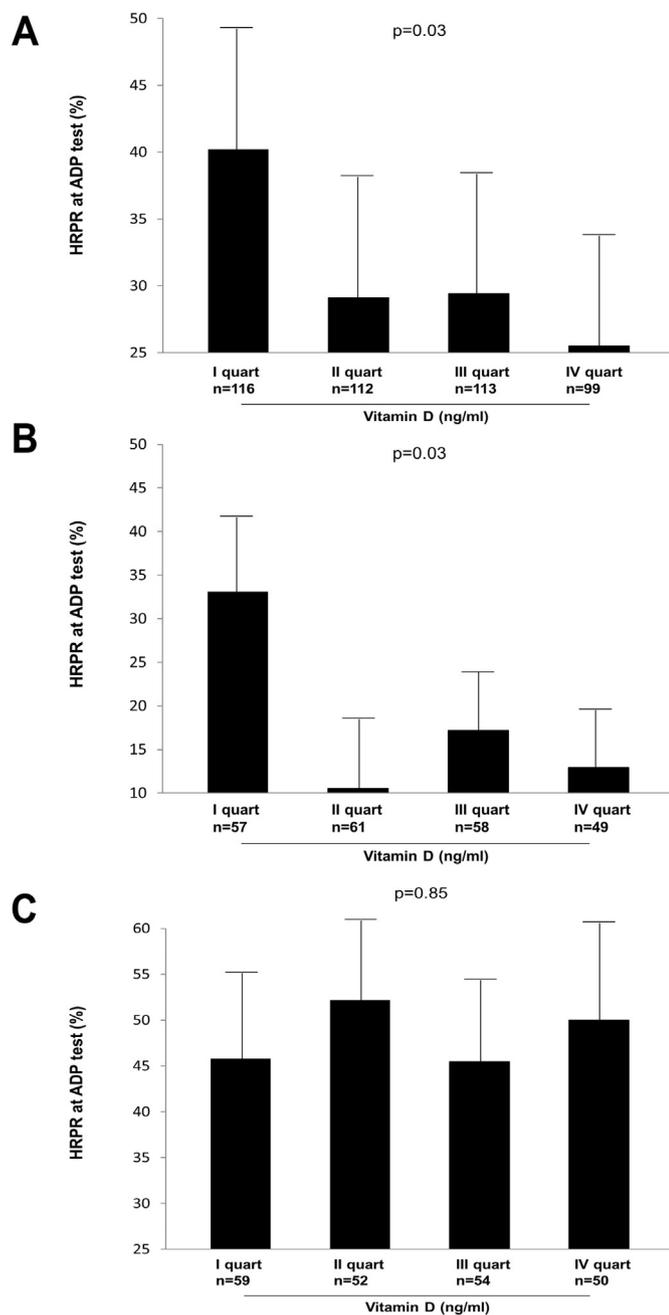
hypoglycemic therapy and aggressive glucose control [35] has not provided so far the expected benefits, therefore shifting the attention to other modulators of platelet function in diabetic patients.

Vitamin D deficiency represents a rising pandemic social problem, affecting up to 50% of the healthy population worldwide [36].

Moreover, an emerging link has been established between hypovitaminosis D and cardiovascular risk, since the pleiotropic, non-calcium related, effects of vitamin D on the cardiovascular system could modulate those inflammatory, oxidant and immunitary processes leading to the progression of atherosclerosis and its acute thrombotic complications [37,38].

In fact, vitamin D could exert a regulatory effect also on platelets, since its deficiency has been associated to endothelial dysfunction and the levels of nitric oxide and moreover, vitamin D receptor (VDR) has been recently identified also in platelets [39], where studies in vitro and in vivo have demonstrated that the vitamin D-VDR system plays a pivotal role in antithrombogenicity [40]. In a previous study, Lopez-Farré et al. [41] reported higher vitamin D binding protein (DBP) levels in ASA resistant subjects. Moreover, Verdoia et al. [42] showed a significantly higher ADP-mediated platelet aggregation in patients with lower vitamin D levels, despite the use of DAPT.

In addition, diabetic patients could display even more reduced levels of vitamin D. In fact, its deficiency has been related to the pathogenesis of metabolic disorders and especially to those inflammatory or immuno-mediated processes leading to the development of diabetes mellitus [43,44].



**Fig. 3.** Bar graph displaying the prevalence of residual high-on treatment platelet reactivity (HRPR) to ADP antagonists in diabetic patients according to vitamin D quartiles (overall population- A, upper graph; new ADP-antagonists- B, mid graph and clopidogrel- C, lower graph).

Therefore, an even more relevant role of vitamin D in conditioning platelet reactivity and the thrombotic risk could be expected among diabetic patients. However, this issue has not been addressed so far, especially among patients treated with antiplatelet agents.

In the present study we documented in a large cohort of diabetic patients a high rate of poor responders to DAPT, despite a large use of the new ADP-antagonists.

Vitamin D levels among our diabetic patients did not affect ASA response, but were independently associated, when severely reduced, with an increased ADP-mediated platelet reactivity and rate of HRPR with new ADP-antagonists but not Clopidogrel. Indeed, it could be argued that Clopidogrel response is much depending on metabolic and genetic factors conditioning its hepatic transformation, while the action

of new agents, that are not pro-drugs, could be more dependent from baseline platelet reactivity. In addition, patients with more severe vitamin D deficiency displayed a higher inflammatory status and a poorer control of glucose homeostasis. Indeed, the relationship between the levels of glycosylated hemoglobin and platelet function has been previously reported in several studies, as in Singla et al. [45] for levels of HbA1c  $\geq 7$  g/dl. Moreover, Vivas et al., [46] showed a significant reduction of platelet ADP-mediated aggregation in post-ACS patients receiving intensive glucose control treatment with insulin. However, in our population, patients with lower vitamin D were more often receiving insulin than on oral drugs, suggesting either a more complex and inveterate diabetic disease or a potential interaction of vitamin D levels in modulating insulin levels and the sensitivity to insulin.

In fact, vitamin D has been shown to condition directly and indirectly insulin secretion and effectiveness in diabetic patients. In Kumar et al., the administration of supplemental vitamin D to subjects with elevated blood glucose levels has resulted in an improvement in insulin secretion [47] and similarly, von Hurst et al. reported in a randomized trial that improving vitamin D status in insulin resistant women resulted in improved insulin resistance [48]. In fact, insulin sensitivity is often impaired among diabetic patients, enhancing their thrombotic risk [49].

Therefore, it could be hypothesized that vitamin D might counteract insulin resistance and increase the response to insulin in diabetic platelets, reducing then their activated status and preventing HRPR during DAPT treatment.

However, future dedicated studies are certainly needed to define the interactions between vitamin D and diabetes on platelet function and the potential benefits of its supplementation, especially in higher cardiovascular risk subsets of patients as among diabetics.

## 8. Limitations

A first limitation could be considered the absence of a clinical follow-up. Therefore, we could not evaluate the impact of diabetes or vitamin D levels on the occurrence of thrombotic or bleeding events. In addition, interindividual clinical variability in our study population could certainly have conditioned our study results. In particular, we did not consider the duration of diabetes or the impact of antidiabetic therapies in our patients, and in particular of more recent oral drugs, whose anti-inflammatory and anti-thrombotic effects could have modulated platelet reactivity [50,51]. However, insulin was used in the majority of our vitamin D deficient patients, and data were confirmed interindividual. Moreover, despite the positive association of hypovitaminosis D with C reactive protein, we did not consider other parameters of inflammation and oxidative stress, that are known to condition platelet reactivity, as isoprostanes of soluble NOX2-dp [52].

In addition, we could not provide data on the role of vitamin D supplementation, since treated patients represented only a minor part of our population, and extremely heterogeneous for the dosing and the adequacy of the levels reached with the supplementation. Neither, as now stated in our limitations, we could provide data on the genetic variants associated to vitamin D polymorphisms, since genotyping was not performed in the overall cohort of the patients but only in part of them. Therefore, we preferred not to perform such analysis to avoid the risk of underpowered analysis and false negative results. However, such evaluation certainly represents a future implementation of our studies.

Despite the intensity of statin treatment did not affect platelet reactivity in our study population, the majority of our diabetic patients were receiving high-intensity statins, and whether the differential use of statins could affect the levels of vitamin D, as suggested in our previous studies [53], could not be assessed.

Finally, being our study one of the first exploratory study on this issue, we did not perform a sample size calculation. However, based on an expected prevalence of severe hypovitaminosis D of 30%, with an anticipated two-sided test for differences in independent binomial

proportions at the 5% significance level, with a power of 80%, a total of 353 patients would have been needed to show a significant increase in HRPR from 25% to 40%. The inclusion of final population of > 400 patients may have limited the risk of underpower, based on this clinically reasonable assumption.

## 9. Conclusions

Among diabetic patients receiving dual antiplatelet therapy for an acute coronary syndrome or elective percutaneous coronary intervention, lower vitamin D levels are associated with a higher ADP-mediated platelet reactivity and rate of HRPR, and especially for new ADP-antagonists over clopidogrel.

## Disclosures

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