Chapter from the book *Coronary Artery Disease - Current Concepts in Epidemiology, Pathophysiology, Diagnostics and Treatment*

Downloaded from: [http://www.intechopen.com/books/coronary-artery-disease-current-concepts-in-epidemiology-pathophysiology-diagnostics-and-treatment](http://www.intechopen.com/books/coronary-artery-disease-current-concepts-in-epidemiology-pathophysiology-diagnostics-and-treatment)

Interested in publishing with InTechOpen?
Contact us at book.department@intechopen.com
1. Introduction

Substantial research and clinical effort has been directed toward the understanding, identification and management of coronary artery disease (CAD). As a result, the processes of cholesterol accumulation and inflammation that lead to large vessel occlusions have been fully elucidated. In contrast to those with CAD, many patients have symptoms of angina and reductions in coronary flow reserve despite normal coronary angiography of the large epicardial arteries. In this situation the vessels that limit flow to myocardium are the more distal epicardial prearterioles and intramyocardial arterioles – vessels typically too small to be directly visualized by conventional coronary angiography. These vessels comprise the coronary microcirculation. Coronary microvascular dysfunction (CMVD), in contrast to CAD, continues to be poorly understood and difficult to manage. In addition, the presence of CMVD can be a confounding factor in the management of patients with CAD.

2. Anatomy and physiology of the coronary microcirculation

The coronary arterial network is generally divided into three sequential morphological zones. The large epicardial coronary arteries decrease in diameter from 2-5 to 500 microns as they branch off of the aorta and travel distally along the epicardium. Distal to the large coronary arteries are epicardial pre-arterioles that decrease in diameter from 500 to 100 microns. Finally, the pre-arterioles give rise to intramyocardial arterioles that measure 100 microns or less in diameter. Coronary arterioles and pre-arterioles dilate and constrict in large part through feedback mechanisms in order to maintain a constant blood flow shear stress across the interior surface of the vessels (Camici & Crea, 2007).

Blood flow shear stress is the average laminar force per unit of cross sectional area of the vessel surface, applied parallel to the vessel wall. The interior surfaces of all blood vessels are lined with endothelial cells. Endothelial cells detect changes in blood flow shear stress and respond with signals to the surrounding smooth muscle cells to either relax in response...
to an increase in shear stress or contract in response to a decrease in shear stress. It remains unclear exactly how endothelial cells are able to detect and respond to these fluctuations in shear stress. Some studies have identified the protein caveolin-1 (CAV-1, which forms caveolae) as a receptor in this process (Traub & Berk, 1998). Other evidence suggests that endothelial cells respond to an increase in shear stress by activating endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) which in turn catalyzes the production and release of nitric oxide (NO), a potent vasodilator (Traub & Berk, 1998). The roles of CAV-1 and of eNOS are examples of many different pathways involved in the process of arteriolar dilatation. Arterioles (500 microns or less) located deep within the myocardium are exposed to a complex milieu of hormones and cytokines, some of which also perform roles essential to the fine autoregulation of vasoconstriction and vasodilatation.

Normal function of the microcirculation is dependent on the production and bioavailability of nitric oxide (NO) (Traub & Berk, 1998). NO is produced in the endothelium by nitric oxide synthase (NOS). There are three isoforms of NOS; endothelial NOS (eNOS), inducible NOS (iNOS) and neuronal NOS (nNOS). NOS converts L-arginine into nitric oxide (NO), which diffuses into surrounding vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMC) and induces relaxation. Relaxation of VSMC is caused by the binding of NO to guanylyl cyclase and subsequent activation of the enzyme. Guanylyl cyclase catalyzes the dephosphorylation of GTP to produce cGMP, which is a second messenger for many cellular functions. Cyclic GMP induces smooth muscle relaxation by suppressing intracellular entry of calcium through voltage-gated calcium channels, by activating (via phosphorylation) ATP-dependent potassium channels, or by activating the enzyme myosin light chain phosphatase, which dephosphorylates myosin light chains and relaxes smooth muscle (Traub & Berk, 1998). Subsequently, vasodilation occurs and blood flow is increased. The bioavailability of NO is critical to normal vascular function.

3. Clinical presentation of coronary microvascular dysfunction

In addition to occlusion of a coronary artery, myocardial ischemia may be caused by resistance to coronary blood flow related to increased vascular tone. In the healthy individual, epicardial coronary arteries contribute minimal resistance to blood flow as long as they are free of occlusive disease (Maseri, Beltrame, & Shimokawa, 2009). The pre-arterioles contribute about 20% of the total resistance to blood flow (Maseri et al., 2009), and the remainder of the coronary microcirculation collectively accounts for 60%–80% of the total resistance to blood flow (John F. Beltrame, Crea, & Camici, 2009). Dysfunction of a single arteriole would not affect overall cardiac function. However, an abnormal increase in resistance to blood flow through an entire network of coronary arterioles could cause ischemia in a large segment of myocardium. In some cases, coronary microvascular dysfunction can cause ischemia to a similar degree as that caused by large epicardial coronary artery occlusions. Indeed, up to 30% of patients who present with angina and myocardial infarction have patent epicardial coronary arteries at the time of cardiac catheterization (Romeo, Rosano, Martuscelli, Lombardo, & Valente, 1993; Vesely & Dilsizian). In some cases, cardiac angiography is able to detect a “slow blood flow phenomenon” based on delayed opacification of the microcirculation (J. F. Beltrame, Limaye, & Horowitz, 2002; Tambe, Zimmerma, Ha, Demany, & Mascaren, 1972), but in general the use of cardiac angiography is limited to the observation of only those vessels that are 500 microns or larger in size (Vesely & Dilsizian). Most studies suggest that
Coronary microvascular dysfunction (CMVD) remains stable over time and is associated with a good overall prognosis in the majority of cases. Nonetheless, as many as 20-30% of patients with CMVD develop progressive symptoms of angina, sustain acute myocardial infarctions, and demonstrate reductions in cardiac function (G. A. Lanza & Crea, 2010). Some markers of ischemia in such patients include increased levels of plasma lactate and lipid peroxidase (both byproducts of anaerobic glucose metabolism), decreased oxygen saturation within the coronary sinus, and a shift in myocardial phosphate utilization on magnetic resonance spectroscopy (G. A. Lanza & Crea, 2010).

Fig. 1. Nitric oxide (NO) is produced in endothelial cells using L-arginine as a substrate. NO diffuses readily across plasma membranes to vascular smooth muscle cells. The synthesis of cyclic guanylyl monophosphate (cGMP) from guanylyl triphosphate (GTP) causes relaxation of vascular smooth muscle, and subsequent vasodilation.

4. Classification of coronary microvascular dysfunction

There are several broad categories of CMVD (Camici & Crea, 2007). The first category is classified as CMVD in the absence of obstructive large vessel CAD, based on the macroscopic findings at the time of coronary catheterization. The second category of microvascular dysfunction is defined as CMVD in the presence of cardiomyopathy. The third category is classified as CMVD in the presence of obstructive large vessel CAD. Clearly, in this subtype, the cardiac risk factors that induce the formation of occlusive disease within the large epicardial coronary arteries may also negatively impact blood flow through the small coronary arterioles.

The fourth category is classified as iatrogenic coronary microvascular dysfunction. This type of CMVD refers to the paradoxical “no re-flow phenomenon” associated with reperfusion injury. This occurs in the microcirculation, downstream of arteries recently made patent by thrombolysis, percutaneous angioplasty, stenting, or bypass grafting. This “no re-flow phenomenon” is identified based on persistent low blood flow (according to the TIMI flow scale (Antman et al., 1999)) after successful revascularization procedures. TIMI is an acronym for “thrombolysis in myocardial infarction” (Antman et al., 1999), and the flow scale measures the amount of time it takes (in seconds) for contrast dye to fill the length of a coronary artery during angiography (Camici & Crea, 2007).
One mechanism of reperfusion injury is distal embolization of plaque and thrombin in the small arterioles. Increased adrenergic tone following an acute cardiac event could cause vasoconstriction in the coronary microcirculation. However, in some cases, microvascular blood flow deficits have been measured in small vessels remote from the region of the infarct and revascularization (Gregorini et al., 1999), which are not explained by “no-reflow” or adrenergic stimulation. Moreover, microvascular reperfusion abnormalities can persist for as long as 3-6 months following the revascularization (John F. Beltrame et al., 2009). Myocardial ischemia initially causes a decrease in the level of intracellular ATP, a change from aerobic to anaerobic metabolism, a buildup of toxic byproducts of anaerobic metabolism, and a decrease in the pH. The restoration of oxygenated blood flow to recently ischemic tissue induces a cascade of toxic events. Some of these events might include, but are not limited to, abnormal leukocyte or platelet aggregation, complement activation, osmotic overloading of the mitochondria, and subsequent dysfunction of the microcirculation.

5. Cardiac Syndrome X

“Syndrome X” is the label used to describe an additional clinical phenomenon associated with CMVD. The label “syndrome X” typically refers to the presence of all of the following characteristics: angina or angina-like chest pain with exertion; ST-segment abnormalities during cardiac stress testing; absence of cardiac wall motion abnormalities during stress testing; and normal and patent coronary arteries without coronary artery vasospasm during cardiac catheterization (Bellamy et al., 1998). Therefore, “syndrome X” is a clustering of clinical signs and symptoms that indicate myocardial ischemia on exertion in the absence of evident coronary artery disease.

Most available evidence points to CMVD as the pathology responsible for “syndrome X”. Zeiher et al (1995) found a suboptimal increase in coronary blood flow (CBF) in response to the endothelium-dependent vasodilator acetylcholine compared with an optimal increase in CBF in response to the endothelium-independent vasodilator papaverine, in patients with “syndrome X” (Zeiher, Krause, Schachinger, Minners, & Moser, 1995). In addition, a subsequent study of patients with “syndrome X” showed similar suboptimal CBF response to both endothelium-dependent and endothelium-independent vasodilators (Chauhan, Mullins, Taylor, Petch, & Schofield, 1997).

The central nervous system (CNS) has also been implicated in the process of microvascular angina, “syndrome X”, and CMVD in general. Major CNS events such as massive strokes and subarachnoid hemorrhages sometimes lead to chest pain and diffuse ST-wave abnormalities on ECG thought to be induced in part by alterations in the autonomic adrenergic innervation of the coronary arteries (Kono et al., 1994). In one extreme but rare disease entity called “Stress-Related Cardiomyopathy” or Takotsubo (Japanese for “octopus trap”) Disease, a single event of extreme physical or emotional stress by itself can induce cardiac ischemia characterized by ST-segment abnormalities on electrocardiogram (ECG) and segmental wall akinesis (typically the apical wall) on ECHO giving way to the “octopus trap” appearance of the heart muscle (Bybee & Prasad, 2008; Kume et al., 2005; Tsuchihashi et al., 2001). In addition, several cases of toxic pheochromocytoma have been observed to cause cardiac ischemia and ST-wave abnormalities (Shaw, Rafferty, & Tait, 1987; Yamanaka et al., 1994). Researchers have generally applied the terms “neurogenically-stunned myocardium” or “catecholamine myopathy” to these anecdotal cases.
6. Measurement of coronary microvascular function

Investigators have been using a variety of direct and indirect methods to measure blood flow through the small coronary arterioles in order to facilitate the study of the coronary microcirculation. One direct method for measurement is the passage of a guide wire tipped with a thermistor probe and pressure sensor into the epicardial arteries to measure blood flow by thermodilution (Vesely & Dilsizian). Indirect methods of measurement have included transthoracic echocardiography with doppler flow analysis (TTE-DR), contrast stress echocardiography, thallium scintigraphy, positron emission tomography using $^{82}$rubidium as a marker, and cardiovascular magnetic resonance (CMR) using gadolinium as a flow tracer. Many of these tests are expensive, time-consuming, expose patients to radioactivity, and provide limited information on the microvasculature. Still, the ultimate goal of each modality is to measure coronary perfusion based on several mathematical equations. Coronary blood flow (CBF) is the measurement of the amount of blood that passes through a cross section of the artery per unit of time. Coronary flow reserve (CFR) is a calculation of the ratio of maximally-stimulated CBF within a particular coronary artery to the CBF through the same artery at rest. Flow is maximized using physical or chemical stimuli to cause vasodilation. A ratio of less than 2 – 2.5 is considered abnormal (G. A. Lanza & Crea, 2010). Regional myocardial blood flow (MBF), which equals the amount of blood flow (milliliters/minute/gram) through a segment of myocardium, can also be measured (Vesely & Dilsizian). A normal resting MBF is usually 0.6 – 1.3 ml/min/g and should increase 3 – 4 fold during the peak response (Vesely & Dilsizian). In thallium scintigraphy, the injection of a vasodilator simulates an increase in cardiac stress by preferentially dilating normal vessels that in turn potentially divert blood flow from diseased vessels. A post-stress disparity in blood flow will appear in the form of an abnormal redistribution of thallium, the radioactive marker. Large vessel occlusions typically appear as segmental areas of decreased blood flow corresponding to the perfusion territories of one or more of the main epicardial coronary arteries with or without associated cardiac wall motion abnormalities. By comparison, microvascular disease often appears as patchy isolated areas of decreased blood flow, most often with no evidence of associated wall motion abnormalities (G. A. Lanza & Crea, 2010). All of these imaging modalities carry a certain margin of error, and, while they can be instrumental in locating a large coronary vessel occlusion, they often do not provide helpful information in cases of CMVD (Maseri et al., 2009).

7. Treatment

The various etiologies of CMVD as well as the lack of data from clinical trials preclude a definitive treatment regimen. As a result, multiple pharmacologic attempts have been made to limit CMVD induced morbidity and mortality. CMVD is typically treated similarly to coronary artery disease. Beta-blockers, nitrates and calcium channel blockers have long been used for CMVD, but only beta-blockers have shown beneficial effects in clinical trials. Additional agents such as angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors and angiotensin II receptor blockers have also been considered for persistent symptoms despite optimal anti-ischemic drug therapy. Alpha adrenergic antagonists, statins, estrogens, xanthine derivatives, adenosine and tricyclic antidepressants have also been investigated for treatment of CMVD-induced angina. Other experimental therapies include GLP-1, L-arginine, nicorandil, tetrahydrobiopterin and nitrite. This section will examine the evidence in support of the pharmacologic treatment of CMVD.
7.1 Anti-anginals

Beta blockers, nitrates and calcium channel blockers are the conventional anti-anginal drugs used most often for ischemic chest pain with associated ECG changes in the presence or absence of coronary artery lesions. There are no definitive trials indicating a superior anti-anginal therapy for the treatment of CMVD. However, beta blockers seem to be the most effective at decreasing the severity and frequency of chest pain and they are considered first line therapy. One randomized, double-blinded prospective trial found that beta blockers, but not calcium channel blockers or nitrates, significantly reduced chest pain episodes in patients diagnosed with cardiac “syndrome X” (Gaetano Antonio Lanza, Colonna, Pasceri, & Maseri, 1999). Similarly, in 16 patients with transient myocardial ischemia and normal coronary angiography randomized to treatment with propanolol, verapamil or placebo, those patients receiving propanolol had significantly fewer episodes of ischemic chest pain when compared to placebo (Bugiardini, Borghi, Biagetti, & Puddu, 1989).

Nitrates are frequently used to treat chest pain but their effectiveness in coronary microvascular dysfunction is unclear. Radice et al (1994) showed that exercise duration and time to 1-mm ST-segment depression in patients with CMVD improved with nitroglycerin administration, albeit significantly less than in patients with CAD (Radice, Giudici, Albertini, & Mannarini, 1994). Similarly, another study showed an improvement in time to angina and peak ST-segment depression with nitroglycerin administration (Bugiardini et al., 1993). However, approximately 50% of patients CMVD taking sublingual nitrates for chest pain experience minimal relief (J. Kaski et al., 1995) and exercise tolerance tests for patients with CMVD worsened with nitrate use (G. Lanza, Manzoli, Bia, Crea, & Maseri, 1994; Radice et al., 1996).

Similarly, calcium channel blockers (CCB) have limited effectiveness in the treatment of CMVD. A 4 week treatment with nisoldipine (a dihydropyridine CCB) significantly increased exercise duration and time to angina in patients with CMVD (Özçelik, Altun, & Özbay, 1999). Similarly, a 4-week trial of nifedipine or verapamil (a non-dihydropyridine CCB) showed a significant improvement in exercise tolerance and angina (Cannon, Watson, Rosing, & Epstein, 1985). Montorsi et al (1990) showed improvement in ST-segment depression during exercise in patients with CMVD treated with nifedipine for 4 weeks (Montorsi et al., 1990). In contrast, Lanza et al (1999) demonstrated that calcium channel blockers did not decrease the number of episodes of chest pain (Gaetano Antonio Lanza et al., 1999). In addition, a 7-day treatment with verapamil made no difference in the frequency of episodes of ST-segment depression, measured by continuous ECG monitoring over 2 days (Bugiardini et al., 1989).

7.2 Statins

The role of statins in the primary and secondary prevention of cardiovascular events has been well established, as has the improvement of endothelial function via non-cholesterol lowering effects (Rosenson & Tangney, 1998). Statins are beneficial in patients with CMVD and they are commonly used in patients with hypercholesterolemia. In a randomized, placebo-controlled study, pravastatin improved exercise duration and time to ST-segment depression in patients with CMVD (Kayikcioglu et al., 2003). Similar results were reported by Fabian et al (2004) using simvastatin (Fabian et al., 2004). Pizzi et al (2004) found that a 6-
month trial of atorvastatin and ramipril significantly improved exercise tolerance and symptoms of chest pain secondary to CMVD, possibly through the reduction of oxidative stress (Pizzi, Manfrini, Fontana, & Bugiardini, 2004).

7.3 Angiotensin converting enzyme inhibition

As mentioned above, angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors (ACE-I) have been associated with improvement of chest pain and ECG-findings in patients with CMVD (Pizzi et al., 2004). Kaski et al (1994) found an increase in exercise time and time to ST-segment depression in patients with reduced coronary flow taking enalapril (Juan Carlos Kaski, Rosano, Krzyzowska-Dickinson, Martuscelli, & Romeo, 1994). Evidence from Nalbantgil et al (1998) further supported these findings in patients with CMVD taking cilazapril (Nalbantgil et al., 1998). Long-term inhibition of ACE is associated with improved nitric oxide bioavailability (Chen, Hsu, Wu, Lin, & Chang, 2002), which may be one mechanism by which ACE-Is reduce episodes of chest pain in patients with CMVD.

7.4 Metformin

Metformin has been shown to have vasculoprotective properties and can improve endothelial function (Mather, Verma, & Anderson, 2001). These vascular effects have proven to be beneficial for patients with CMVD. In a randomized, double blinded, placebo controlled study, Jadhav et al (2006) found that metformin improved vascular function and decreased myocardial ischemia in non-diabetic women with chest pain and angiographically normal coronary arteries (Jadhav et al., 2006). This study found a significant reduction in the incidence of chest pain and ST-segment depression during exercise treadmill testing. Similarly, Kapinya et al (2008) conducted a retrospective, observational study investigating cardiac stress test results in patients with chest pain without cardiac biomarker rise. These investigators found that patients previously taking metformin had significantly less ischemia and infarction compared to patients previously taking insulin or insulin secretagogues (Kapinya, Nijjar, Stanek, & Amanullah, 2008).

7.5 Hormone replacement therapy/estrogen

The high proportion of peri- and post-menopausal women with CMVD raises questions about the lack of estrogen as a pathophysiologic cause of CMVD and its replacement as a potential therapy. Hormone replacement therapy has been shown to improve endothelial function (J C Kaski, 2006; Roque et al., 1998; Sitges et al., 2001) as well as decrease episodes of angina (Rosano et al., 1996) and increase exercise tolerance (Albertsson, Emanuelsson, & Milsom, 1996). However, the risk of breast cancer and thromboembolic disease has limited the possibilities of hormone replacement therapy for CMVD (Committee, 2004; Investigators, 2002).

7.6 Other pharmacologic therapies

7.6.1 Imipramine

Imipramine, a tricyclic antidepressant, has been shown to improve chest pain symptoms but not quality of life in patients with CMVD (Cox, Hann, & Kaski, 1998). The hypothesized
mechanism of this effect is not through vasoactive pathways, but through its visceral analgesic effects (Cannon et al., 1994). The American College of Cardiology recommends imipramine for treatment of CMVD in patients who have failed treatment with risk factor reduction, beta blockers, calcium channel blockers or nitrates (Wright et al., 2011).

7.6.2 L-arginine

L-arginine is a substrate for the production of NO by NOS (Palmer, Ashton, & Moncada, 1988). In patients with angina and normal coronary arteries, intravenous infusion of L-arginine restored nitric oxide activity and resulted in the improvement of endothelial function (Piatti et al., 2003). In addition, chronic L-arginine supplementation enhanced NO synthesis in diabetic animals (Kohli et al., 2004), and improved coronary microvascular endothelial function in humans (Lerman, Burnett, Higano, McKinley, & Holmes, 1998). These findings demonstrate a potential role for L-arginine in the treatment of CMVD.

7.6.3 Tetrahydrobiopterin

Tetrahydrobiopterin (BH$_4$) is a co-factor required for the production of NO from L-arginine and molecular oxygen (Scott-Burden, 1995), and BH$_4$ deficiency causes decreased NO production by diabetic coronary endothelium (Meininger et al., 2000). In addition, intracoronary BH$_4$ improved acetylcholine-induced microvascular dilator responses in patients with endothelial dysfunction in vivo. Thus, supplementation with BH$_4$ may be a novel therapeutic means to increase NO availability for patients with coronary microvascular disease (Setoguchi, Mohri, Shimokawa, & Takeshita, 2001).

7.6.4 Alpha antagonists

Alpha adrenergic antagonists decrease alpha-mediated vasoconstriction and have been hypothesized to improve CMVD symptoms. However, a study by Bøtker et al (1998) proved disappointing. Doxazosin did not increase exercise tolerance or time to ST-segment depression during exercise versus placebo (Bøtker, Sonne, Schmitz, & Nielsen, 1998).

7.6.5 Xanthine derivatives

Xanthine derivatives such as theophylline, bamiphylline and aminophylline have been used to reduce chest pain symptoms related to CMVD. Emdin et al (1989) found that aminophylline had a beneficial effect on exercise induced chest pain and ischemic ECG changes in patients with CMVD (Emdin, Picano, Lattanzi, & L'Abbate, 1989). The proposed mechanism for this is through the inhibition of pain transmission through adenosine receptor blockade. In addition, myocardial flow maldistribution (elicited by inconsistent adenosine release in the presence of increased coronary arteriolar resistance) may also have been prevented, but this was not measured directly (Emdin et al., 1989).

7.6.6 Nicorandil

Nicorandil (nicotinamide nitrate) is a hybrid between a nitrate and an activator of ATP-sensitive potassium channels. Its vasodilatory mechanisms include guanylyl cyclase activation and hyperpolarization (Akai et al., 1995) which preferentially relaxes VSMC in the
microcirculation (Akai et al., 1995). Ito et al demonstrated preservation of microvascular integrity by intravenous nicorandil after coronary ischemia and reperfusion (Ito et al., 1999). Ikeda et al (1994) found that post-angiography treatment with nicorandil improved coronary microvascular function and was associated with earlier recovery of ST segment elevation and greater regional wall motion in the infarcted area after reperfusion (Ikeda et al., 2004). In addition, in a prospective study, patients with end-stage renal disease who were taking oral nicorandil prior to an ischemic coronary event had improved outcomes after revascularization (Ishii et al., 2007).

7.6.7 Nitrite

Until recently, nitrite was typically thought of as a biologically inactive metabolite of nitric oxide metabolism. However, more recent findings have determined that the generation of NO from the reduction of nitrite can occur in vivo, under a variety of physiologic and pathophysiologic conditions (Vitturi & Patel, 2011). Nitrite is cardioprotective after episodes of ischemia and reperfusion in a variety of experimental models, and clinical trials are underway to determine the vasculoprotective and cardioprotective actions of nitrite therapy in patients with cardiovascular disease (Calvert & Lefer, 2009).

7.6.8 Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1)

GLP-1 is an incretin hormone that regulates post-prandial metabolism and blood glucose concentration. GLP-1 is also more recently found to improve endothelial function in vivo (Basu et al., 2007; T. Nystrom, 2008; Thomas Nystrom et al., 2004), attenuates the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines (Liu, Hu, Simpson, & Dear, 2008) and adhesion molecules (Liu, Dear, Knudsen, & Simpson, 2009) in cultured endothelial cells, decreases inflammatory injury in intact endothelium (Dozier et al., 2009), and protects myocardium from ischemia/reperfusion injury in isolated heart models and in vivo (Ban et al., 2008; Bose, Mocanu, Carr, Brand, & Yellon, 2004, 2005; Bose, Mocanu, Carr, & Yellon, 2007; B. B. Dokken, Labonte, Davis-Gorman, & McDonagh, 2007; Huisamen, Genade, & Lochner, 2008; Sonne, Engstrom, & Treiman, 2008; Timmers et al., 2009). The mechanisms of GLP-1 in the vasculature are not well-understood, but preliminary findings suggest that it may decrease endothelial production of ROS (Bloomgarden; Brownlee, 2006) and enhance endothelium-dependent vasodilation through nitric oxide (NO) signaling (Ban et al., 2008; Basu et al., 2007; Tesauro et al., 2009). We recently reported that GLP-1 prevents coronary microcirculatory dysfunction in swine when administered after cardiac arrest and resuscitation (Betsy B Dokken et al., 2009). Endogenous GLP-1 is decreased in patients with type 2 diabetes, who incidentally are more likely to have CMVD. GLP-1-receptor agonists are currently FDA approved for the treatment of hyperglycemia in patients with type 2 diabetes. Substantial effort is currently underway to determine the mechanisms of the protective effects of GLP-1 and its related peptides.

In summary, the optimal therapy for CMVD is far from defined. In a recent study investigating the long-term prognoses of patient’s with CMVD, Lamendola et al (2010) found that chest pain episodes remained unchanged in one-third of patients and worsened significantly in 14% despite treatment with either beta-blockers, calcium channel blockers, nitrates, ACE inhibitors or statins (Lamendola et al., 2010).
8. Conclusion

The coronary microcirculation modulates blood flow throughout the heart, and thus is of major importance in both health and disease. The presence of CMVD complicates the presentation and management of patients with CAD. Due to the multifactorial nature of CMVD and to the difficulty associated with accurately measuring its function, the coronary microcirculation has received limited attention. In order to determine appropriate strategies for the diagnosis and management of CMVD, the physiology, pathophysiology and pharmacology of the coronary microcirculation demands further investigation.

9. References

Akai, K., Wang, Y., Sato, K., Sekiguchi, N., Sugimura, A., Kumagai, T., et al. (1995). Vasodilatory Effect of Nicorandil on Coronary Arterial Microvessels: Its Dependency on Vessel Size and the Involvement of the ATP-Sensitive Potassium Channels. *Journal of Cardiovascular Pharmacology, 26*(4), 541-547.

Albertsson, P. A., Emanuelsson, H., & Milsom, I. (1996). Beneficial effect of treatment with transdermal estradiol-17-[beta] on exercise-induced angina and ST segment depression in syndrome X. *International Journal of Cardiology, 54*(1), 13-20.

Antman, E. M., Giugliano, R. P., Gibson, C. M., McCabe, C. H., Coussment, P., Kleiman, N. S., et al. (1999). Abciximab Facilitates the Rate and Extent of Thrombolysis : Results of the Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction (TIMI) 14 Trial. *Circulation, 99*(21), 2720-2732.

Ban, K., Noyan-Ashraf, M. H., Hoefer, J., Bolz, S. S., Drucker, D. J., & Husain, M. (2008). Cardioprotective and vasodilatory actions of glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor are mediated through both glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor-dependent and -independent pathways. *Circulation, 117*(18), 2340-2350.

Basu, A., Charkoudian, N., Schrage, W., Rizza, R. A., Basu, R., & Joyner, M. J. (2007). Beneficial effects of GLP-1 on endothelial function in humans: dampening by glyburide but not by glibenpiride. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab, 293*(5), E1289-1295.

Bellamy, M. F., Goodfellow, J., Tweddel, A. C., Dunstan, F. D. J., Lewis, M. J., & Henderson, A. H. (1998). Syndrome X and endothelial dysfunction. *Cardiovascular Research, 40*(2), 410-417.

Beltrame, J. F., Crea, F., & Camici, P. (2009). Advances in Coronary Microvascular Dysfunction. *Heart, Lung and Circulation, 18*(1), 19-27.

Beltrame, J. F., Limaye, S. B., & Horowitz, J. D. (2002). The Coronary Slow Flow Phenomenon: A New Coronary Microvascular Disorder. *Cardiology, 97*(4), 197-202.

Bloomgarden, Z. T. Incretin Concepts. *Diabetes Care, 33*(2), e20-e25.

Bose, A. K., Mocanu, M. M., Carr, R. D., Brand, C. L., & Yellon, D. M. (2004). Myocardial infarct size attenuation by glucagon like peptide-1 (GLP-1) in both in vivo and in vitro rat heart.

Bose, A. K., Mocanu, M. M., Carr, R. D., Brand, C. L., & Yellon, D. M. (2005). Glucagon-like peptide 1 can directly protect the heart against ischemia/reperfusion injury. *Diabetes, 54*(1), 146-151.

Bose, A. K., Mocanu, M. M., Carr, R. D., & Yellon, D. M. (2007). Myocardial ischaemia-reperfusion injury is attenuated by intact glucagon like peptide-1 (GLP-1) in the in...
Coronary Microvascular Dysfunction in CAD: Consequences and Potential Therapeutic Applications

Bøtker, H. E., Sonne, H. S., Schmitz, O., & Nielsen, T. T. (1998). Effects of doxazosin on exercise-induced angina pectoris, ST-segment depression, and insulin sensitivity in patients with syndrome X. *The American Journal of Cardiology*, 82(11), 1352-1356.

Brownlee, M. (2006). GLP-1 (9-36) Methods and Compositions, http://www.wipo.int/pctdb/en/wo.jsp?IA=WO2005060986 (Vol. Patent EP1701731).

Bugiardini, R., Borghi, A., Biagetti, L., & Puddu, P. (1989). Comparison of verapamil versus propranolol therapy in syndrome X. *The American Journal of Cardiology*, 63(5), 286-290.

Bugiardini, R., Borghi, A., Pozzati, A., Ottani, F., Morgagni, G. L., & Puddu, P. (1993). The paradox of nitrates in patients with angina pectoris and angiographically normal coronary arteries. *The American Journal of Cardiology*, 72(3), 343-347.

Bybee, K. A., & Prasad, A. (2008). Stress-Related Cardiomyopathy Syndromes. *Circulation*, 118(4), 397-409.

Calvert, J. W., & Lefer, D. J. (2009). Myocardial protection by nitrite. *Cardiovascular Research*, 83(2), 195-203.

Camici, P. G., & Crea, F. (2007). Coronary Microvascular Dysfunction. *N Engl J Med*, 356(8), 830-840.

Cannon, R. O., Quyyumi, A. A., Mincemoyer, R., Stine, A. M., Gracely, R. H., Smith, W. B., et al. (1994). Imipramine in Patients with Chest Pain Despite Normal Coronary Angiograms. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 330(20), 1411-1417.

Cannon, R. O., Watson, R. M., Rosing, D. R., & Epstein, S. E. (1985). Efficacy of calcium channel blocker therapy for angina pectoris resulting from small-vessel coronary artery disease and abnormal vasodilator reserve. *The American Journal of Cardiology*, 56(4), 242-246.

Chauhan, A., Mullins, P. A., Taylor, G., Petch, M. C., & Schofield, P. M. (1997). Both endothelium-dependent and endothelium-independent function is impaired in patients with angina pectoris and normal coronary angiograms. *European Heart Journal*, 18(1), 60-68.

Chen, J.-W., Hsu, N.-W., Wu, T.-C., Lin, S.-J., & Chang, M.-S. (2002). Long-term angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibition reduces plasma asymmetric dimethylarginine and improves endothelial nitric oxide bioavailability and coronary microvascular function in patients with syndrome X. *The American Journal of Cardiology*, 90(9), 974-982.

The Women's Health Initiative Steering Committee (2004). Effects of Conjugated Equine Estrogen in Postmenopausal Women With Hysterectomy. *JAMA: The Journal of the American Medical Association*, 291(14), 1701-1712.

Cox, I. D., Hann, C. M., & Kaski, J. C. (1998). Low dose imipramine improves chest pain but not quality of life in patients with angina and normal coronary angiograms. *European Heart Journal*, 19(2), 250-254.

Dokken, B. B., Huebner, K., Rogers, D. C., Allen, D., Teachey, M. K., Panchal, A. R., et al. (2009). Abstract P87: Glucagon-like Peptide-1 Attenuates Post-resuscitation Myocardial Microcirculatory Dysfunction in a Swine Model of Prolonged Ventricular Fibrillation. *Circulation*, 120(18_MeetingAbstracts), S1459-c-1460.
Dokken, B. B., Labonte, L. R., Davis-Gorman, G., & McDonagh, P. F. (2007). Postconditioning with GLP-1 in vivo decreases myocardial infarct size in rats.

Dozier, K. C., Cureton, E. L., Kwan, R. O., Curran, B., Sadjadi, J., & Victorino, G. P. (2009). Glucagon-like peptide-1 protects mesenteric endothelium from injury during inflammation. *Peptides, 30*(9), 1735-1741.

Emdin, M., Picano, E., Lattanzi, F., & L’Abbate, A. (1989). Improved exercise capacity with acute aminophylline administration in patients with syndrome X. *J Am Coll Cardiol, 14*(6), 1450-1453.

Fábián, E., Varga, A., Picano, E., Vajo, Z., Rónaszéki, A., & Csanády, M. (2004). Effect of simvastatin on endothelial function in cardiac syndrome X patients. *The American Journal of Cardiology, 94*(5), 652-655.

Gregorini, L., Marco, J., Kozáková, M., Palombo, C., Anguissola, G. B., Marco, I., et al. (1999). Alpha-Adrenergic Blockade Improves Recovery of Myocardial Perfusion and Function After Coronary Stenting in Patients With Acute Myocardial Infarction. *Circulation, 99*(4), 482-490.

Huisamen, B., Genade, S., & Lochner, A. (2008). Signalling pathways activated by glucagon-like peptide-1 (7-36) amide in the rat heart and their role in protection against ischaemia. *Cardiovascular Journal of Africa, 19*(2), 77-83.

Ikeda, N., Yasu, T., Kubo, N., Hashimoto, S., Tsuruya, Y., Fujii, M., et al. (2004). Nicorandil versus isosorbide dinitrate as adjunctive treatment to direct balloon angioplasty in acute myocardial infarction. *Heart, 90*(2), 181-185.

Investigators, W. G. f. t. W. s. H. I. (2002). Risks and Benefits of Estrogen Plus Progestin in Healthy Postmenopausal Women. *JAMA: The Journal of the American Medical Association, 288*(3), 321-333.

Ishii, H., Toriyama, T., Aoyama, T., Takahashi, H., Yamada, S., Kasuga, H., et al. (2007). Efficacy of oral nicorandil in patients with end-stage renal disease: A retrospective chart review after coronary angioplasty in Japanese patients receiving hemodialysis. *Clinical Therapeutics, 29*(1), 110-122.

Ito, H., Taniyama, Y., Iwakura, K., Nishikawa, N., Masuyama, T., Kuzuya, T., et al. (1999). Intravenous nicorandil can preserve microvascular integrity and myocardial viability in patients with reperfused anterior wall myocardial infarction. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology, 33*(3), 654-660.

Jadhav, S., Ferrell, W., Greer, I. A., Petrie, J. R., Cobbe, S. M., & Sattar, N. (2006). Effects of Metformin on Microvascular Function and Exercise Tolerance in Women With Angina and Normal Coronary Arteries: A Randomized, Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled Study. *J Am Coll Cardiol, 48*(5), 956-963.

Kapinya, K., Nijjar, P. S., Stanek, M., & Amanullah, A. (2008). Insulin-sensitizing antihyperglycaemic medications are associated with better outcome in patients with diabetes undergoing cardiac stress testing. *Internal Medicine Journal, 38*(4), 259-264.

Kaski, J., Rosano, G., Collins, P., Nihoyannopoulos, P., Maseri, A., & Poole-Wilson, P. (1995). Cardiac syndrome X: clinical characteristics and left ventricular function. Long-term follow-up study. *J Am Coll Cardiol, 25*(4), 807-814.

Kaski, J. C. (2006). Cardiac syndrome X in women: the role of oestrogen deficiency. *Heart, 92*(suppl 3), iii5-iii9.
Kaski, J. C., Rosano, G. M. C., Krzyzowska-Dickinson, K., Martuscelli, E., & Romeo, F. (1994). "Syndrome X" as a consequence of acute myocardial infarction. *The American Journal of Cardiology, 74*(5), 494-495.

Kayikcioglu, M., Payzin, S., Yavuzgil, O., Kurtulsay, H., Can, L. H., & Soydan, I. (2003). Benefits of statin treatment in cardiac syndrome-X. *European Heart Journal, 24*(22), 1999-2005.

Kohli, R., Meininger, C. J., Haynes, T. E., Yan, W., Self, J. T., & Wu, G. (2004). Dietary L-Arginine Supplementation Enhances Endothelial Nitric Oxide Synthesis in Streptozotocin-Induced Diabetic Rats. *J. Nutr., 134*(3), 600-608.

Kono, T., Morita, H., Kuroiwa, T., Onaka, K., Takatsuka, H., & Fujiwara, A. (1994). Left-ventricular wall-motion abnormalities in patients with subarachnoid hemmorrhage: Neurogenic stunned myocardium. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology, 24*(3), 636-640.

Kume, T., Akasaka, T., Kawamoto, T., Yoshitani, H., Watanabe, N., Neishi, Y., et al. (2005). Assessment of coronary microcirculation in patients with takotsubo-like left ventricular dysfunction. *Circulation Journal, 69*(8), 934-939.

Lamendola, P., Lanza, G. A., Spinelli, A., Sgueglia, G. A., Di Monaco, A., Barone, L., et al. (2010). Long-term prognosis of patients with cardiac syndrome X. *International Journal of Cardiology, 140*(2), 197-199.

Lanza, G., Manzoli, A., Bia, E., Crea, F., & Maseri, A. (1994). Acute effects of nitrates on exercise testing in patients with syndrome X. Clinical and pathophysiological implications. *Circulation, 90*(6), 2695-2700.

Lanza, G. A., Colonna, G., Pasceri, V., & Maseri, A. (1999). Atenolol versus amlodipine versus isosorbid-5-mononitrate on anginal symptoms in syndrome X. *The American Journal of Cardiology, 84*(3), 600-608.

Lanza, G. A., & Crea, F. (2010). Primary Coronary Microvascular Dysfunction Clinical Presentation, Pathophysiology, and Management. *Circulation, 121*(21), 2317-2325.

Lerman, A., Burnett, J. C., Higano, S. T., McKinley, L. J., & Holmes, D. R. (1998). Long-term L-Arginine Supplementation Improves Small-Vessel Coronary Endothelial Function in Humans. *Circulation, 97*(21), 2123-2128.

Liu, H., Dear, A., Knudsen, L., & Simpson, R. (2009). A long-acting GLP-1 analogue attenuates induction of PAI-1 and vascular adhesion molecules. *J Endocrinol, 201*, 59-66.

Liu, H., Hu, Y., Simpson, R. W., & Dear, A. E. (2008). Glucagon-like peptide-1 attenuates tumour necrosis factor-[alpha]-mediated induction of plasmogen activator inhibitor-1 expression. *J Endocrinol, 196*(1), 57-65.

Masri, A., Beltrame, J. F., & Shimokawa, H. (2009). Role of Coronary Vasoconstriction in Ischemic Heart Disease and Search for Novel Therapeutic Targets (vol 73, pg 399, 2009). *Circulation Journal, 73*(4), 780-788.

Mather, K. J., Verma, S., & Anderson, T. J. (2001). Improved endothelial function with metformin in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *J Am Coll Cardiol, 37*(5), 1344-1350.

Meininger, C. J., Marinos, R. S., Hatakeyama, K., Martinez-Zaguiian, R., Rojas, J. D., Kelly, K. A., et al. (2000). Impaired nitric oxide production in coronary endothelial cells of the spontaneously diabetic BB rat is due to tetrahydrobiopterin deficiency. *Biochemical Journal, 349*, 353-356.
Montorsi, P., Cozzi, S., Loaldi, A., Fabbriocchi, F., Polese, A., De Cesare, N., et al. (1990). Acute coronary vasomotor effects of nifedipine and therapeutic correlates in syndrome X. *The American Journal of Cardiology, 66*(3), 302-307.

Nalbantgil, I., Önder, R., Altintig, A., Nalbantgil, S., Kiliccioglu, B., Boydak, B., et al. (1998). Therapeutic Benefits of Cilazapril in Patients with Syndrome X. *Cardiology, 89*(2), 130-133.

Nystrom, T. (2008). The potential beneficial role of glucagon-like peptide-1 in endothelial dysfunction and heart failure associated with insulin resistance. *Hormone and Metabolic Research, 40*(9), 593-606.

Nystrom, T., Gutniak, M. K., Zhang, Q., Zhang, F., Holst, J. J., Ahren, B., et al. (2004). Effects of glucagon-like peptide-1 on endothelial function in type 2 diabetes patients with stable coronary artery disease. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab, 287*(6), E1209-1215.

Özçelik, F., Altun, A., & Özbay, G. (1999). Antianginal and anti-ischemic effects of nisoldipine and ramipril in patients with syndrome X. *Clinical Cardiology, 22*(5), 361-365.

Palmer, R. M. J., Ashton, D. S., & Moncada, S. (1988). Vascular endothelial cells synthesize nitric oxide from L-arginine. *Nature, 333*(6174), 664-666.

Piatti, P., Fragasso, G., Monti, L. D., Setola, E., Lucotti, P., Fermo, I., et al. (2003). Acute Intravenous L-Arginine Infusion Decreases Endothelin-1 Levels and Improves Endothelial Function in Patients With Angina Pectoris and Normal Coronary Arteriograms. *Circulation, 107*(3), 429-436.

Pizzi, C., Manfrini, O., Fontana, F., & Bugiardini, R. (2004). Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme Inhibitors and 3-Hydroxy-3-Methylglutaryl Coenzyme A Reductase in Cardiac Syndrome X. *Circulation, 109*(1), 53-58.

Radice, M., Giudici, V., Albertini, A., & Mannarini, A. (1994). Usefulness of changes in exercise tolerance induced by nitroglycerin in identifying patients with syndrome X. *American Heart Journal, 127*(3), 531-535.

Radice, M., Giudici, V., Pusineri, E., Brehgi, L., Nicoli, T., Peci, P., et al. (1996). Different effects of acute administration of aminophylline and nitroglycerin on exercise capacity in patients with syndrome X. *The American Journal of Cardiology, 78*(1), 88-90.

Romeo, F., Rosano, G. M. C., Martuscelli, E., Lombardo, L., & Valente, A. (1993). Long-term follow-up of patients initially diagnosed with syndrome-X. *American Journal of Cardiology, 78*(8), 669-673.

Roque, M., Heras, M., Roig, E., Masotti, M., Rigol, M., Betriu, A., et al. (1998). Short-term effects of transdermal estrogen replacement therapy on coronary vascular reactivity in postmenopausal women with angina pectoris and normal results on coronary angiograms. *J Am Coll Cardiol, 31*(1), 139-143.

Rosano, G., Peters, N., Lefroy, D., Lindsay, D., Sarrel, P., Collins, P., et al. (1996). 17-beta-Estradiol therapy lessens angina in postmenopausal women with syndrome X. *J Am Coll Cardiol, 28*(6), 1500-1505.

Rosenson, R. S., & Tangney, C. C. (1998). Antiatherothrombotic Properties of Statins. *JAMA: The Journal of the American Medical Association, 279*(20), 1643-1650.

Scott-Burden, T. (1995). Regulation of Nitric Oxide Production by Tetrahydrobiopterin. *Circulation, 91*(1), 248-250.
Setoguchi, S., Mohri, M., Shimokawa, H., & Takeshita, A. (2001). Tetrahydrobiopterin improves endothelial dysfunction in coronary microcirculation in patients without epicardial coronary artery disease. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology, 38*(2), 493-498.

Shaw, T. R. D., Rafferty, P., & Tait, G. W. (1987). Transient shock and myocardial impairment caused by pheochromocytoma crisis. *British Heart Journal, 57*(2), 194-198.

Sitges, M., Heras, M., Roig, E., Duran, M., Masotti, M., Zurbaro, M. J., et al. (2001). Acute and mid-term combined hormone replacement therapy improves endothelial function in post-menopausal women with angina and angiographically normal coronary arteries. *European Heart Journal, 22*(22), 2116-2124.

Sonne, D. P., Engstrom, T., & Treiman, M. (2008). Protective effects of GLP-1 analogues exendin-4 and GLP-1(9-36) amide against ischemia-reperfusion injury in rat heart. *Regulatory Peptides, 146*(1-3), 243-249.

Tambe, A. A., Zimmerman, A., Demany, M. A., & Mascaren, E. (1972). Angina-pectoris and slow flow velocity of dye in coronary arteries—a new angiographic finding. *American Heart Journal, 84*(4), 66-68.

Tesauro, M., Schinzari, F., Rovella, V., Mores, N., Pitocco, D., Ghirlanda, G., et al. (2009). Abstract 5147: GLP-1 Improves Insulin-Stimulated Nitric Oxide-Dependent Vasodilator Responsiveness in Patients With Metabolic Syndrome. *Circulation, 120* (Meeting Abstracts), S1060-d-1061.

Timmers, L., Henriques, J. P. S., de Kleijn, D. P. V., DeVries, J. H., Kemperman, H., Steendidk, P., et al. (2009). Exenatide Reduces Infarct Size and Improves Cardiac Function in a Porcine Model of Ischemia and Reperfusion Injury. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology, 53*(6), 501-510.

Traub, O., & Berk, B. C. (1998). Laminar shear stress - Mechanisms by which endothelial cells transduce an atheroprotective force. *Arteriosclerosis Thrombosis and Vascular Biology, 18*(5), 677-685.

Tsuchihashi, K., Ueshima, K., Uchida, T., Oh-mura, N., Kimura, K., Owa, M., et al. (2001). Transient left ventricular apical ballooning without coronary artery stenosis: A novel heart syndrome mimicking acute myocardial infarction. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology, 38*(1), 11-18.

Vesely, M., & Dilsizian, V. Microvascular Angina: Assessment of Coronary Blood Flow, Flow Reserve, and Metabolism. *Current Cardiology Reports, 13*(2), 151-158.

Vitturi, D. A., & Patel, R. P. (2011). Current perspectives and challenges in understanding the role of nitrite as an integral player in nitric oxide biology and therapy. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine, 51*(4), 805-812.

Wright, R. S., Anderson, J. L., Adams, C. D., Bridges, C. R., Casey, D. E., Jr, Ettinger, S. M., et al. (2011). 2011 ACCF/AHA Focused Update Incorporated Into the ACC/AHA 2007 Guidelines for the Management of Patients With Unstable Angina/Non-ST-Elevation Myocardial Infarction: A Report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol, 57*(19), e215-367.

Yamanaka, O., Yasumasa, F., Nakamura, T., Ohno, A., Endo, Y., Yoshimi, K., et al. (1994). Myocardial stunning-like phenomenon during a crisis of pheochromocytoma. *Japanese Circulation Journal-English Edition, 58*(9), 737-742.
Zeiher, A. M., Krause, T., Schachinger, V., Minners, J., & Moser, E. (1995). Impaired endothelium-dependent vasodilation of coronary resistance vessels is associated with exercise-induced myocardial ischemia. *Circulation, 91*(9), 2345-2352.
Coronary Artery Disease is ranked as the leading cause of death worldwide, responsible for 17.1 million deaths globally each year. Such numbers are often difficult to comprehend. Heart disease kills one person every 34 seconds in the USA alone. Although the leading killer, the incidence of cardiovascular disease has declined in recent years due to a better understanding of the pathology, implementation of lipid lowering therapy new drug regimens including low molecular weight heparin and antiplatelet drugs such as glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor inhibitors and acute surgical intervention. The disease burden has a great financial impact on global healthcare systems and major economic consequences for world economies. This text aims to deliver the current understanding of coronary artery disease and is split into three main sections: 1. Epidemiology and pathophysiology of coronary artery disease 2. Coronary artery disease diagnostics and 3. Treatment regimens for coronary artery disease

How to reference
In order to correctly reference this scholarly work, feel free to copy and paste the following:

Alan N. Beneze, Jeffrey M. Gold and Betsy B. Dokken (2012). Coronary Microvascular Dysfunction in CAD: Consequences and Potential Therapeutic Applications, Coronary Artery Disease - Current Concepts in Epidemiology, Pathophysiology, Diagnostics and Treatment, Dr. David Gaze (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-51-0262-5, InTech, Available from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/coronary-artery-disease-current-concepts-in-epidemiology-pathophysiology-diagnostics-and-treatment/coronary-microvascular-dysfunction-in-cad-consequences-and-potential-therapeutic-approaches