C. Mueller • K. Laule-Kilian • A. Christ

## A. P. Perruchoud

# The use of B-type natriuretic peptide in the management of patients with diabetes and acute dyspnoea 

Received: 3 July 2005 / Accepted: 22 November 2005 / Published online: 16 February 2006
(C) Springer-Verlag 2006


#### Abstract

Aims/hypothesis: The aim of this study was to determine the impact of measurement of B-type natriuretic peptide (BNP) levels on the management of patients with diabetes presenting with acute dyspnoea. Methods: This study evaluated the subgroup of 103 patients with diabetes included in the B-type Natriuretic Peptide for Acute Shortness of Breath Evaluation (BASEL) study ( $n=452$ ). Patients were randomly assigned to a diagnostic strategy with ( $n=47$, BNP group) or without ( $n=56$, control group) the use of BNP levels assessed by a rapid bedside assay. Time to discharge and total cost of treatment were recorded as the primary endpoints. Results: Although similar with regard to age and sex, patients with diabetes more often had pre-existing cardiovascular and renal disease and heart failure as the cause of acute dyspnoea compared with patients without diabetes. In addition, medical and economic outcomes were worse in patients with diabetes. The use of BNP levels significantly reduced time to discharge (median 9 days [interquartile range (IQR) 2-16] in the BNP group vs 13 days [IQR 8-22] in the control group; $p=0.016$ ). At 30 days, the diabetic patients in the BNP group had spent significantly fewer days in hospital compared with the diabetic patients in the control group ( 9 days [IQR 2-19] vs 16 days [IQR 824], respectively; $p=0.008)$. Total treatment costs at 30 days were US\$5,705 (IQR 2,285-9,137) in the BNP group and US\$7,420 (IQR 4,194-11,966) in the control group ( $p=0.036$ ). Conclusions/interpretation: The results of this study indicate that measurement of BNP levels improves the management of patients with diabetes presenting with acute dyspnoea.


[^0]Keywords Diabetes • Dyspnoea • Emergency diagnosis • Natriuretic peptides


#### Abstract

Abbreviations BASEL: B-type natriuretic peptide for acute shortness of breath evaluation - BNP: B-type natriuretic peptide - COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease $\cdot$ ED: emergency department $\cdot \mathrm{IQR}$ : interquartile range


## Introduction

The evaluation and management of patients presenting to the emergency department (ED) with acute dyspnoea is challenging. Among more than 30 diagnoses that may be responsible for the acute dyspnoea, heart failure is very common and therefore important [1-3]. Unfortunately, the rapid and accurate differentiation of heart failure from other causes of acute dyspnoea often remains elusive, particularly in patients with diastolic heart failure. Misdiagnosis of heart failure causes morbidity and increases time to discharge and treatment costs, because treatments for heart failure may be hazardous to patients with other conditions such as chronic obstructive lung disease (COPD), and vice versa [4-6]. Patients with diabetes have an increased risk of developing heart failure and are particularly affected by the diagnostic dilemma surrounding heart failure. The incidence of heart failure is two-fold higher in diabetic vs non-diabetic men and five-fold higher in diabetic vs non-diabetic women [7]. Patients with diabetic cardiomyopathy display clinical and anatomical features of heart failure that are different from those displayed by other heart failure patients [8]. Diabetic cardiomyopathy is a distinct entity characterised by left ventricular diastolic dysfunction caused by myocardial fibrosis and hypertrophy, which occur in response to hyperglycaemia and insulin resistance [9-11]. Using sensitive echocardiographic techniques, diastolic dysfunction can be detected in $50-60 \%$ of asymptomatic patients with diabetes [12, 13].

B-type natriuretic peptide (BNP) is a novel cardiac marker that is reliably elevated in the setting of heart failure,
and may therefore be very helpful in its diagnosis [14-16]. Observational studies have shown that the use of BNP levels significantly increases the accuracy of the clinical diagnosis in patients presenting with acute dyspnoea to the ED [14 16]. However, BNP levels are significantly lower in patients with left ventricular diastolic dysfunction - the predominant mechanism of heart failure in patients with diabetes - than in patients with left ventricular systolic dysfunction [15, 16]. In addition, diabetes is associated with kidney disease. This is considered a limitation for the diagnostic use of BNP, as kidney disease results in elevated BNP levels independently of heart failure [17, 18].

These differences and our previous findings in patients with diabetes [19, 20] have fostered the need to specifically evaluate whether the promising results obtained for BNP testing for acute dyspnoea in unselected patient cohorts [21,22] can be extrapolated to patients with diabetes. This study sought to evaluate the impact of a BNP-guided diagnostic strategy on the evaluation and management of diabetic patients presenting with acute dyspnoea to the ED.

## Subjects and methods

Setting and study population This study specifically evaluated the outcome of patients with diabetes in the Btype Natriuretic Peptide for Acute Shortness of Breath Evaluation (BASEL) study [22]. The BASEL study was a prospective, randomised, single-blind study conducted in the ED of the University Hospital in Basel, Switzerland, from May 2001 to April 2002. The study was carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the local ethics committee. Written informed consent was obtained from all participating patients.

To be eligible for the study, a patient had to present with shortness of breath as the primary complaint and no obvious traumatic cause of dyspnoea. Patients with severe renal disease (serum creatinine $>250 \mu \mathrm{~mol} / \mathrm{l}$ ), patients in cardiogenic shock, and patients who requested an early transfer to another hospital were excluded. A total of 452 patients were enrolled in the BASEL study and randomly assigned according to a computer-generated randomisation scheme $1: 1$ without stratification to receive a diagnostic strategy with ( $n=225$, including 47 patients with diabetes [BNP group]) or without ( $n=227$, including 56 patients with diabetes [control group]) the use of BNP levels determined by a rapid bedside assay. Diabetes was defined as a known history of diabetes treated currently with diet, oral glucose-lowering agents or insulin.

Routine clinical assessment Patients underwent an initial clinical assessment that included clinical history, physical examination, ECG, pulse oximetry, blood tests (including arterial blood gas analysis when indicated) and chest Xray. Echocardiography and pulmonary function tests were strongly recommended in the ED on an outpatient basis or in the hospital if the patient was admitted.

Measurement and interpretation of BNP levels During initial evaluation, at the time of venipuncture for routine blood tests, a venous specimen of blood ( 3 ml ) was collected into tubes containing potassium EDTA. BNP was measured using a rapid fluorescence immunoassay (Biosite Diagnostics, La Jolla, CA, USA). The precision, analytical sensitivity and stability characteristics of the system have been described previously [23]. In brief, the CVs for intra-assay precision have been reported to be 9.5, 12.0 and $13.9 \%$, and the CVs for interassay precision are known to be $10.0 \%, 12.4$ and $14.8 \%$ for BNP levels of $28.8,584.0$ and $1180.0 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$, respectively [23]. The analytical sensitivity was $<5.0 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$, with a measurable range of $1-1,300 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$.

In the BNP-guided group, diagnostic and therapeutic decisions were not based on BNP levels alone; rather, the information provided by the BNP level was integrated with the clinical results, as described previously [22]. In brief, we used two BNP cut-off levels ( 100 and $500 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$ ) to differentiate heart failure from other causes of dyspnoea. In patients with a BNP level below $100 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$, heart failure was considered unlikely and alternative causes of dyspnoea had to be pursued. In patients with a BNP level above $500 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$, heart failure was considered likely and rapid therapy with diuretics, nitroglycerin, ACE inhibitors and morphine was recommended. For patients with BNP levels between 100 and $500 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$, the protocol recommended clinical judgement and possible further diagnostic testing. Patients in the control group were evaluated and managed according to the most recent clinical practice guidelines [1-3].

Endpoints Time to discharge and cost of treatment were defined as the primary endpoints of this study. Time to discharge was defined as the time interval from presentation to the ED to hospital discharge. As cost:charge ratios have not been defined for the majority of services and departments at our institution, hospital charges were collected as the most appropriate estimate of true costs [24, 25]. To avoid imbalance introduced by varying hospital contracts with different insurances or different insurance classes, charges were standardised to the actual rates for patients with general insurance, living in Basel. For the measurement of BNP, the current reimbursement in Switzerland (US\$47) was used. Endpoints were assessed by physicians not involved in patient care and blinded to the assigned group using all medical records pertaining to the patient.

Statistical analyses The statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS/PC software package (version 12.0; SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). A statistical significance level of 0.05 was used. All data were analysed on an intention-to-treat basis. Comparisons were made using the $t$ test for normally distributed continuous variables, the Mann-Whitney $U$ test for non-normally distributed continuous variables, Fisher's exact test for categorical
variables with any field including fewer than six patients, and the $\chi^{2}$ test for the other categorical variables. All hypothesis testing was two-tailed.

## Results

A total of 103 patients with diabetes were enrolled in this trial (Fig. 1). Although these patients were similar to the non-diabetic patients in terms of age and sex, diabetic patients more often had pre-existing cardiovascular and renal disease (Table 1). As regards symptoms, chest pain and nycturia were more frequent in diabetic subjects. Assessment of clinical signs revealed that rales and lowerextremity oedema were more frequent in diabetic patients. In addition, patients with diabetes had significantly lower haemoglobin and albumin, but higher serum creatinine and BNP compared with patients without diabetes.

The final discharge diagnosis was significantly different in patients with diabetes compared with patients without diabetes. Heart failure was more often the cause of acute dyspnoea in patients with diabetes ( 65 vs $43 \%$ ), whereas obstructive pulmonary disease and anxiety disorder were less often the cause in these patients. Interestingly, medical and economic outcomes were different-to the detriment of patients with diabetes. BNP was similar in heart failure patients with or without diabetes (median $812 \mathrm{vs} 795 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$, $p=0.236$ ). BNP was also similar in patients without heart failure with or without diabetes (median 135 vs $57 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$, $p=0.134$ ). Diabetic patients more often required hospitalisation and recovered more slowly, resulting in an increased time to discharge and an increase in the number of days in hospital at 30 days after initial presentation. Moreover, initial and 30-day total treatment costs were significantly higher in patients with diabetes.

The two groups of diabetic patients were well matched in terms of baseline characteristics (Table 2). The use of BNP levels significantly affected patient management. Patients assigned to the BNP group required hospitalisation less often. As shown in Fig. 2, the use of BNP levels significantly reduced time to discharge (median 9 days [interquartile range (IQR) 2-16] in the BNP group vs 13 days [IQR 8-22] in the control group; $p=0.016$ ). At 30 days, diabetic patients in the BNP group had spent significantly fewer days in hospital than the those in the control group ( 9 days [IQR 2-19] vs 16 days [IQR 8-24]; $p=0.008$ ). In-hospital and 30-day mortality were lower in the BNP group. However, the between-group differences were not statistically significant. Interestingly, this medical benefit was accompanied by an economic benefit, with a relative reduction in initial and 30-day treatment costs in the BNP group. Total treatment costs at 30 days were US $\$ 5,705$ (IQR 2,285-9,137) in the BNP group and US $\$ 7,420$ (IQR 4, 194-11,966) in the control group ( $p=0.036$ ).

Similar benefits of BNP testing were observed in nondiabetic patients. The use of BNP levels significantly reduced time to discharge (median 7 days [IQR 1-16] in the BNP group vs 10 days [IQR 3-18] in the control group; $p=0.027$ ) and total treatment costs at 30 days (US \$3,841 [IQR 601-7,545] in the BNP group vs US\$5,432 (IQR 2,572-9,930) in these subjects $(p=0.014)$.

## Discussion

In this study we examined the use of BNP levels in the management of diabetic patients presenting with acute dyspnoea to the ED. We report four major findings. First, patients with diabetes represent a high-risk group with increased cardiovascular and renal comorbidity. However,

Fig. 1 Patient flow through trial


Table 1 Baseline characteristics in patients with and without diabetes mellitus

|  | Diabetes $n=103$ | No diabetes $n=349$ | $p$ value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age (years) | $72 \pm 10$ | $70 \pm 16$ | 0.157 |
| Sex |  |  | 0.153 |
| Male | 66 (64) | 196 (56) |  |
| Female | 37 (36) | 153 (44) |  |
| History |  |  |  |
| Coronary artery disease | 71 (69) | 154 (44) | $<0.001$ |
| Arterial hypertension | 79 (77) | 158 (45) | $<0.001$ |
| COPD | 33 (32) | 107 (31) | 0.790 |
| Asthma | 4 (4) | 25 (7) | 0.358 |
| Pneumonia | 15 (15) | 43 (12) | 0.550 |
| Pulmonary embolism | 12 (12) | 19 (5) | 0.029 |
| Other pulmonary or pleural disease | 15 (15) | 31 (9) | 0.094 |
| Any pulmonary disease | 57 (55) | 169 (48) | 0.217 |
| Depressive disorder | 9 (9) | 27 (8) | 0.741 |
| Stroke or peripheral vascular disease | 31 (30) | 58 (17) | 0.003 |
| Chronic kidney disease | 35 (34) | 77 (22) | 0.014 |
| Deep vein thrombosis | 10 (10) | 31 (9) | 0.798 |
| Symptoms |  |  |  |
| Shortness of breath ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | 0.474 |
| Slight hill | 14 (14) | 51 (15) |  |
| Level ground | 55 (53) | 202 (58) |  |
| At rest | 32 (31) | 94 (27) |  |
| Paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnoea | 45 (44) | 121 (35) | 0.095 |
| Nycturia | 45 (44) | 91 (26) | 0.001 |
| Weight gain | 17 (17) | 34 (10) | 0.057 |
| Chest pain | 45 (44) | 109 (31) | 0.019 |
| Coughing | 46 (45) | 178 (51) | 0.258 |
| Expectoration | 34 (33) | 125 (36) | 0.600 |
| Fever | 22 (21) | 87 (25) | 0.457 |
| Vital status |  |  |  |
| Systolic blood pressure ( mmHg ) | $153 \pm 27$ | $143 \pm 28$ | 0.003 |
| Diastolic blood pressure ( mmHg ) | $87 \pm 18$ | $85 \pm 19$ | 0.520 |
| Heart rate (per min) | $97 \pm 21$ | $98 \pm 25$ | 0.717 |
| Temperature ( ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) | $37.4 \pm 1.0$ | $37.4 \pm 1.0$ | 0.735 |
| Signs |  |  |  |
| Tachypnoea ( $>20$ per min) | 52 (51) | 158 (45) | 0.351 |
| Elevated jugular venous pressure | 18 (18) | 46 (13) | 0.272 |
| Hepatojugular reflux | 7 (7) | 42 (12) | 0.133 |
| Rales | 61 (59) | 146 (42) | 0.002 |
| Wheezing | 22 (21) | 78 (22) | 0.832 |
| Hyper-resonant percussion | 8 (8) | 31 (9) | 0.723 |
| Dullness | 14 (14) | 32 (9) | 0.192 |
| Lower-extremity oedema | 48 (47) | 108 (31) | 0.003 |
| Laboratory tests |  |  |  |
| Haemoglobin (g/l) | $128 \pm 24$ | $137 \pm 27$ | 0.005 |
| Serum creatinine ( $\mu \mathrm{mol} / \mathrm{l}$ ) | $132 \pm 62$ | $109 \pm 54$ | $<0.001$ |
| Serum albumin (g/l) | $32 \pm 5$ | $34 \pm 5$ | 0.009 |
| Troponin I ( $\mu \mathrm{g} / \mathrm{l}$ ) | $6.1 \pm 16.9$ | $6.1 \pm 35.3$ | 0.997 |
| B-Type natriuretic peptide ( $\mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml})^{\text {b }}$ | 372 [144-961] | 202 [35-770] | 0.060 |
| Final discharge diagnosis |  |  |  |
| Congestive heart failure | 67 (65) | 150 (43) | $<0.001$ |
| Left ventricular ejection fraction (\%) ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | 40 [30-55] | 40 [30-55] | 0.761 |
| Obstructive pulmonary disease | 10 (10) | 66 (19) | 0.028 |
| Pulmonary embolism | 2 (2) | 19 (5) | 0.185 |

Table 1 (continued)

|  | Diabetes $n=103$ | No diabetes $n=349$ | $p$ value |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Pneumonia | $14(14)$ | $48(14)$ | 0.967 |
| Anxiety disorder | 0 | $16(5)$ | 0.029 |
| Other disease $^{\text {d }}$ | $11(11)$ | $48(14)$ | 0.416 |
| Unknown cause $_{\text {Outcome }}^{\text {Time to treatment (min) }}$ | $6(6)$ | $14(4)$ | 0.432 |
| Hospital admission | $62[16-159]$ |  |  |
| Time to discharge (days) | $91(88)$ | $73[20-180]$ | 0.160 |
| Initial treatment cost (US\$) | $12[5-19]$ | $271(78)$ | 0.017 |
| In-hospital mortality | $5,740[2,924-9,056]$ | $4,457[887-7,881]$ | 0.020 |
| 30-day in-hospital days | $6(6)$ | $28(8)$ | 0.018 |
| 30-day treatment cost (US\$) | $13[6-22]$ | $9[2-18]$ | 0.457 |
| 30-day mortality | $6,110[3,518-10,238]$ | $4,827[1,199-8,023]$ | 0.002 |

Data are presented as mean $\pm$ SD, median [IQR] or number of patients (\%)
${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ Two patients in each group had dyspnoea only when climbing a steep incline
${ }^{\mathrm{b}}$ In the BNP group, $n=225$
${ }^{\text {c }}$ Available in 148 patients
${ }^{\mathrm{d}}$ Including interstitial lung disease, pleural effusion, anaemia and sepsis
it is important to note that 30-day mortality was similar for diabetic and non-diabetic patients. Second, heart failure is the predominant cause of acute dyspnoea in patients with diabetes. Third, patients with diabetes had worse medical and economic outcomes compared with patients without diabetes. Fourth, used in conjunction with other clinical information, rapid measurement of BNP in the ED improves the management of diabetic patients presenting with acute dyspnoea, and thereby reduces the time to discharge, days in hospital at 30 days, and the total treatment cost. Given the predominance of left ventricular diastolic dysfunction, the distinct features of diabetic cardiomyopathy, and the high prevalence of kidney disease in patients with diabetes, this finding supports the clinical use of BNP in patients with diabetes [7-13]. Given both the significant morbidity associated with acute dyspnoea and the considerable cost associated with heart failure and other causative disorders [1-6], BNP testing seems to represent a major advance in the evaluation and management of diabetic patients who present with acute dyspnoea. Additional studies are necessary to further evaluate whether this improvement in patient management also reduces mortality.

The findings of the BASEL study build on the conclusions of observational studies in which BNP levels were validated by comparison with a retrospectively adjudicated 'gold standard' for the diagnosis of heart failure by two independent cardiologists [14-17]. In the Breathing Not Properly Multinational Study, BNP levels alone were more accurate than any historical or physical finding or laboratory value in identifying heart failure as the cause of acute dyspnoea. The diagnostic accuracy of BNP at a cut-off value of $100 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$ was $83 \%$, with a sensitivity of $90 \%$ and a specificity of $76 \%[14,17]$. Our data show that a rapid and more accurate diagnosis avoids unnecessary hospital-
isation, reduces the time to the initiation of the adequate therapy and reduces time to discharge, irrespective of the presence or absence of diabetes [26-30]. Recent subgroup analysis from the Breathing Not Properly Multinational Study suggested that a history of diabetes does not affect the accuracy of BNP levels in the detection of heart failure as the cause of acute dyspnoea [29]. There was no significant difference in median BNP levels between diabetes and no diabetes among patients without heart failure ( $32 \mathrm{vs} 33 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$ ), patients with heart failure ( 587 vs $494 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$ ), and those with a history of heart failure ( 180 vs $120 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$ ). In this study we were able to confirm this finding. Moreover, in contrast to kidney disease, the presence of diabetes does not seem to necessitate a change in cut-off values [17, 29]. Our data confirm and extend this finding by showing that the use of BNP as an accurate marker of heart failure without cut-off value adjustment for the presence of diabetes significantly improves medical and economic outcomes in diabetic patients presenting with acute dyspnoea to the ED. As heart failure is the cause of dyspnoea in two-thirds of diabetic patients with acute dyspnoea, the use of an accurate heart failure marker could have a considerable impact. Moreover, as diabetic patients with acute dyspnoea have higher rates of hospitalisation and longer in-hospital stays, this high-risk cohort has much to gain from the use of BNP level.

In normotensive non-insulin-dependent diabetic patients with microalbuminuria, a significant positive correlation between plasma BNP levels and urinary albumin excretion rate $(r=0.58)$ was found [26]. Moreover, BNP testing may be helpful as a screen for left ventricular dysfunction in patients with diabetes. Epshteyn and colleagues screened diabetic patients with and without a clinical indication for echocardiography [27]. Irrespective of the clinical indication for echocardiography, BNP levels were significantly

Table 2 Baseline characteristics in patients with diabetes assigned to the control and the BNP groups

|  | Control group $n=56$ | BNP group $n=47$ | $p$ value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age (years) | $72 \pm 10$ | $73 \pm 11$ | 0.777 |
| Sex |  |  | 0.962 |
| Male | 36 (64) | 30 (64) |  |
| Female | 20 (36) | 17 (36) |  |
| History |  |  |  |
| Coronary artery disease | 36 (64) | 35 (75) | 0.266 |
| Arterial hypertension | 43 (77) | 36 (77) | 0.982 |
| COPD | 17 (30) | 16 (34) | 0.690 |
| Asthma | 2 (4) | 2 (4) | 1.000 |
| Pneumonia | 9 (16) | 6 (13) | 0.636 |
| Pulmonary embolism | 6 (11) | 6 (13) | 0.746 |
| Other pulmonary or pleural disease | 9 (16) | 6 (13) | 0.636 |
| Any pulmonary disease | 31 (55) | 26 (55) | 0.997 |
| Depressive disorder | 7 (13) | 2 (4) | 0.176 |
| Stroke or peripheral vascular disease | 18 (32) | 13 (28) | 0.621 |
| Chronic kidney disease | 18 (32) | 17 (36) | 0.667 |
| Deep vein thrombosis | 5 (9) | 5 (11) | 1.000 |
| Symptoms |  |  |  |
| Shortness of breath ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  | 0.780 |
| Slight hill | 6 (11) | 8 (17) |  |
| Level ground | 30 (54) | 25 (53) |  |
| At rest | 19 (34) | 13 (28) |  |
| Paroxysmal nocturnal dyspnoea | 26 (46) | 19 (40) | 0.541 |
| Weight gain | 9 (16) | 8 (17) | 0.897 |
| Nycturia | 27 (48) | 18 (38) | 0.312 |
| Chest pain | 25 (45) | 20 (43) | 0.831 |
| Coughing | 30 (54) | 16 (34) | 0.047 |
| Expectoration | 22 (39) | 12 (26) | 0.139 |
| Fever | 11 (20) | 11 (23) | 0.643 |
| Vital status |  |  |  |
| Systolic blood pressure ( mmHg ) | $149 \pm 27$ | $157 \pm 28$ | 0.109 |
| Diastolic blood pressure ( mmHg ) | $88 \pm 19$ | $85 \pm 17$ | 0.502 |
| Heart rate (per min) | $99 \pm 24$ | $94 \pm 17$ | 0.266 |
| Temperature ( ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ) | $37.4 \pm 0.9$ | $37.3 \pm 1.1$ | 0.735 |
| Signs |  |  |  |
| Tachypnoea ( $>20$ per min) | 30 (54) | 22 (47) | 0.494 |
| Elevated jugular venous pressure | 11 (20) | 7 (15) | 0.527 |
| Hepatojugular reflux | 2 (4) | 5 (11) | 0.241 |
| Rales | 32 (57) | 29 (62) | 0.639 |
| Wheezing | 10 (18) | 12 (26) | 0.344 |
| Hyper-resonant percussion | 5 (9) | 3 (6) | 0.724 |
| Dullness | 10 (18) | 4 (9) | 0.249 |
| Lower-extremity oedema | 28 (50) | 20 (43) | 0.450 |
| Laboratory tests |  |  |  |
| Haemoglobin (g/l) | $127 \pm 24$ | $130 \pm 24$ | 0.578 |
| Serum creatinine ( $\mu \mathrm{mol} / \mathrm{l}$ ) | $136 \pm 70$ | $128 \pm 51$ | 0.523 |
| Serum albumin (g/l) | $32 \pm 5$ | $33 \pm 5$ | 0.395 |
| Troponin I ( $\mu \mathrm{g} / \mathrm{l}$ ) | $6.4 \pm 17.3$ | $5.8 \pm 16.7$ | 0.892 |
| Endpoints |  |  |  |
| Time to treatment (min) | 71 (17-207) | 61 (13-133) | 0.151 |
| Time to discharge (days) | 13 (8-22) | 9 (2-16) | 0.016 |
| Hospital admission | 53 (95) | 38 (81) | 0.036 |
| Initial treatment cost (US\$) | 5,940 (3,641-10,731) | 5,538 (1,200-8,673) | 0.093 |
| In-hospital mortality | 4 (7) | 2 (4) | 0.686 |

Table 2 (continued)

|  | Control group $n=56$ | BNP group $n=47$ | $p$ value |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 30-day in-hospital days | $16(8-24)$ | $9(2-19)$ | 0.008 |
| 30-day treatment cost (US\$) | $7,420(4,194-11,966)$ | $5,705(2,285-9,137)$ | 0.036 |
| 30-day mortality | $5(9)$ | $3(6)$ | 0.724 |

Data are presented as mean $\pm$ SD, median [IQR] or number of patients (\%)
${ }^{\text {a }}$ One patient in each group had dyspnoea only when climbing a steep incline
higher in patients with left ventricular dysfunction. The receiver operating characteristic curve revealed that the AUC was 0.91 for patients with a clinical indication for echocardiography and 0.81 for those without. For the latter group, a BNP level below $39 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$ had a negative predictive value of $91 \%$.
The diabetic population in this study was highly representative of the elderly diabetic population currently presenting to the ED in the USA and Europe [1-4, 14, 19]. Comorbidity is extensive in this population and includes coronary artery disease in more than two-thirds of these patients, arterial hypertension in nearly $80 \%$, and pulmonary disease in more than $50 \%$. The rapid and accurate differentiation of heart failure from pulmonary causes of dyspnoea in the ED in these patients is often difficult, but is essential for cost-effective management.

Several limitations apply to this study. First, our interpretation of the BNP test results was based on the data available when the study protocol was devised. Subsequent studies have shown that the use of the two cut-off values


Fig. 2 Cumulative frequency distribution curve displaying the time to discharge of patients with diabetes in the BNP group (solid line) vs the control group (dashed line). $p=0.016$ by log-rank
(100 and $500 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$ ) in the BASEL study is also appropriate in patients with diabetes, as BNP cut-off values need not be corrected for age, sex or diabetes [14, 29]. However, recent subgroup analyses from the Breathing Not Properly Multinational Study suggest that the use of a higher first cut-off value (200-225 pg/ml rather than $100 \mathrm{pg} / \mathrm{ml}$, to exclude heart failure) seems to provide higher accuracy in patients with renal disease [17]. In contrast, a lower first cut-off value should be applied in obese patients [30]. Second, randomisation was not stratified for diabetes. Therefore, it is reassuring to note that the baseline characteristics of the diabetic patients in the two groups were well matched.

In conclusion, our results confirm the findings of observational studies and support the use of BNP testing in the assessment of diabetic patients presenting with acute dyspnoea. Used in conjunction with other clinical information, rapid measurement of BNP improved the evaluation and management of patients in the ED and thereby reduced time to discharge and total cost of treatment.

Acknowledgements This study was supported by research grants from the Swiss National Science Foundation, the Swiss Heart Foundation, the Novartis Foundation, the Krokus Foundation, and the University of Basel (to C. Mueller). Diagnostic devices and reagents (Triage) were provided by Biosite (San Diego, CA, USA).

## References

1. Hunt SA, Baker DW, Chin MH et al (2001) ACC/AHA guidelines for the evaluation and management of chronic heart failure in the adult: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. Circulation 104:2996-3007
2. Remme WJ, Swedberg K (2001) Guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of chronic heart failure. Task Force for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Chronic Heart Failure, European Society of Cardiology. Eur Heart J 22:1527-1560
3. American Thoracic Society (1999) Dyspnea. Mechanisms, assessment, and management: a consensus statement Am J Respir Crit Care Med 159:321-340
4. American Heart Association (2003) Heart disease and stroke statistics, 2003 update. American Heart Association, Dallas, 2002
5. Bales AC, Sorrentino MJ (1997) Causes of congestive heart failure: prompt diagnosis may affect prognosis. Postgrad Med 101:44-49, 54-56
6. Wuerz RC, Meador SA (1992) Effects of prehospital medications on mortality and length of stay in congestive heart failure. Ann Emerg Med 21:669-674
7. Kannel WB, Hjortland M, Castelli WP (1974) Role of diabetes in congestive heart failure: the Framingham study. Am J Cardiol 34:29-34
8. Devereux RB, Roman MJ, Paranicas M et al (2000) Impact of diabetes on cardiac structure and function: the Strong Heart Study. Circulation 101:2271-2276
9. Spector KS (1998) Diabetic cardiomyopathy. Clin Cardiol 21:885-887
10. Bell DSH (2003) Heart failure: the frequent, forgotten, and often fatal complication of diabetes. Diabetes Care 26:2433-2441
11. Bell DSH (2004) Heart failure: a serious and common comorbidity of diabetes. Clin Diabetes 22:61-65
12. Redfield MM, Jacobsen SJ, Burnett JC, Mahoney DW, Bailey KR, Rodeheffer RJ (2003) Burden of systolic and diastolic ventricular dysfunction in the community. JAMA 289:194-202
13. Poirier P, Bogaty P, Garneau C, Marois L, Dumesnil JG (2001) Diastolic dysfunction in normotensive men with well-controlled type 2 diabetes. Importance of maneuvers in echocardiographic screening for preclinical diabetic cardiomyopathy. Diabetes Care 24:5-10
14. Maisel AS, Krishnaswamy P, Nowak RM et al (2002) Rapid measurement of B-type natriuretic peptide in the emergency diagnosis of heart failure. N Engl J Med 347:161-167
15. Davis M, Espiner E, Richards G et al (1994) Plasma brain natriuretic peptide in assessment of acute dyspnoea. Lancet 343:440-444
16. Maisel AS, McCord J, Nowak RM et al (2003) Bedside B-type natriuretic peptide in the emergency diagnosis of heart failure with reduced or preserved ejection fraction: results from the Breathing Not Properly Multinational Study. J Am Coll Cardiol 41:2010-2017
17. McCullough PA, Duc P, Omland T et al (2003) B-type natriuretic peptide and renal function in the diagnosis of heart failure: an analysis from the Breathing Not Properly Multinational Study. Am J Kidney Dis 41:571-579
18. Mueller C, Laule Kilian K, Scholer A et al (2005) B-type natriuretic peptide for acute dyspnea in patients with kidney disease: insights from a randomized comparison. Kidney Int 67:278-284
19. Mueller C, McHodgson JB, Brutsche M et al (2002) Impact of intracoronary ultrasound guidance on long-term outcome of percutaneous coronary interventions in diabetics-insights from the randomized SIPS trial. Swiss Med Wkly 132:279-284
20. Mueller C, Neumann FJ, Ferenc M, Perruchoud AP, Buettner HJ (2004) Impact of diabetes mellitus on long-term outcome after unstable angina and non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction treated with very early revascularisation. Diabetologia 47:1188-1195
21. Wright SP, Doughty RN, Pearl A et al (2003) Plasma aminoterminal pro-brain natriuretic peptide and accuracy of heartfailure diagnosis in primary care. A randomized, controlled trial. J Am Coll Cardiol 42:1793-1800
22. Mueller C, Scholer A, Laule Kilian K et al (2004) Use of Btype natriuretic peptide in the evaluation and management of acute dyspnea. N Engl J Med 350:647-654
23. Cheng V, Kazanagra R, Garcia A et al (2001) A rapid bedside test for B-type peptide predicts treatment outcomes in patients admitted for decompensated heart failure: a pilot study. J Am Coll Cardiol 37:386-391
24. Weinstein MC, Siegel JE, Gold MR, Kamlet MS, Russell LB, for the Panel on Cost-Effectiveness in Heath and Medicine (1996) Recommendations of the panel on cost-effectiveness in health and medicine. JAMA 276:1253-1258
25. Siegel JE, Weinstein MC, Russell LB, Gold MR, for the Panel on Cost-Effectiveness in Heath and Medicine (1996) Recommendations for reporting cost-effectiveness analysis. JAMA 276:1339-1341
26. Yano Y, Katsuki A, Gabazza EC et al (1999) Plasma brain natriuretic peptide levels in normotensive noninsulin-dependent diabetic patients with microalbuminuria. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 84:2353-2356
27. Epshteyn V, Morrison K, Krishnaswamy P et al (2003) Utility of B-type natriuretic peptide (BNP) as a screen for left ventricular dysfunction in patients with diabetes. Diabetes Care 26:2081-2087
28. Nagai T, Imamura M, Inukai T, Mori M (2001) Brain natriuretic polypeptide in type 2 NIDDM patients with albuminuria. J Med 32:169-180
29. Wu AHB, Omland T, Duc P et al (2004) The effect of diabetes on B-type natriuretic peptide concentrations in patients with acute dyspnea. Diabetes Care 2398-2404
30. Wang TJ, Larson MG, Levy D et al (2004) Impact of obesity on plasma natriuretic peptide levels. Circulation 109:594-600

[^0]:    C. Mueller $(\boxtimes) \cdot$ K. Laule-Kilian • A. Christ • A. P. Perruchoud

    Department of Internal Medicine,
    University Hospital,
    Petersgraben 4,
    4031 Basel, Switzerland
    e-mail: chmueller@uhbs.ch
    Tel.: +41-61-2652525
    Fax: +41-61-2655353

