

1 **Title:** Characteristics and Operative Outcomes for Children Undergoing Repair of Truncus  
2 Arteriosus: A Contemporary Multicenter Analysis

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59

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**79 Glossary of Abbreviations**

80 CI: confidence intervals

81 CPB: cardiopulmonary bypass

82 CPR: cardiopulmonary resuscitation

83 ECMO: extracorporeal membrane oxygenation

84 IAA: interrupted aortic arch

85 MACE: major adverse cardiac events

86 OR: odds ratio

87 ROC: receiver operative characteristic

88 RV-PA: right ventricle-to-pulmonary artery

89 STS-CHSD: Society of Thoracic Surgeons Congenital Heart Surgery Database

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105 **Abstract**

106 **Objective:** We sought to describe characteristics and operative outcomes of children who  
107 underwent repair of truncus arteriosus and identify risk factors for the occurrence of major  
108 adverse cardiac events (MACE) in the immediate postoperative period in a contemporary  
109 multicenter cohort.

110 **Methods:** We conducted a retrospective review of children who underwent repair of truncus  
111 arteriosus between 2009 and 2016 at 15 centers within the United States. Patients with  
112 associated interrupted or obstructed aortic arch were excluded. MACE was defined as the need  
113 for postoperative extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO), cardiopulmonary  
114 resuscitation (CPR), or operative mortality. Risk factors for MACE were identified using  
115 multivariable logistic regression analysis and reported as odds ratios (OR) with 95% confidence  
116 intervals (CI).

117 **Results:** We reviewed 216 patients. MACE occurred in 44 patients (20%) and did not vary  
118 significantly over time. Twenty-two patients (10%) received postoperative ECMO, 26 (12%)  
119 received CPR, and 15 (7%) suffered operative mortality. With multivariable logistic regression  
120 analysis (which included adjustment for center effect), factors independently associated with  
121 MACE were failure to diagnose truncus arteriosus prior to discharge from the nursery (OR:3.1;  
122 95%CI:1.3,7.4), cardiopulmonary bypass duration greater than 150 minutes (OR:3.5;  
123 95%CI:1.5,8.5), and right ventricle-to-pulmonary artery conduit diameter greater than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup>  
124 (OR:4.7; 95%CI:2.0,11.1).

125 **Conclusions:** In a contemporary multicenter analysis, 20% of children undergoing repair of  
126 truncus arteriosus experienced MACE. Early diagnosis, shorter duration of cardiopulmonary  
127 bypass, and use of smaller diameter right ventricle-to-pulmonary artery conduits represent  
128 potentially modifiable factors that could decrease morbidity and mortality in this fragile patient  
129 population.

130 **Abstract Word Count:** 246

131 **Central Picture**

132 Modifiable risk factors for major adverse cardiac events after truncus arteriosus repair

133

134 **Central Message**

135 One-fifth of children who underwent repair of truncus arteriosus suffered major adverse cardiac  
136 events. We identified potentially modifiable risk factors for the occurrence of these events.

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138 **Perspective Statement**

139 In a multicenter cohort, 20% of children suffered major adverse cardiac events (MACE)  
140 following repair of truncus arteriosus. Diagnosis after nursery discharge, cardiopulmonary  
141 bypass duration more than 150 minutes, and right ventricle-to-pulmonary artery conduit  
142 diameter greater than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> were identified as independent and potentially modifiable risk  
143 factors for MACE in these children.

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## 152 Introduction

153 Over the past 15 years, survival following surgery for congenital heart disease has  
154 steadily improved.[1] For certain lesions however, surgical mortality and the rate of  
155 postoperative complications remains relatively high.[2-5] For children born with a common  
156 arterial trunk, or truncus arteriosus, surgical mortality between 2005 and 2009 reported from the  
157 Society of Thoracic Surgeons Congenital Heart Surgery Database (STS-CHSD) was 9.2%.[2]  
158 More recently, operative mortality in neonates who underwent repair of truncus arteriosus  
159 between 2013 and 2016 was 10.8%.[3] Another study from the STS-CHSD reported the need  
160 for extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO) after repair of truncus arteriosus to be 9.4%,  
161 which was high relative to other operations, and mortality in this subset was 71%.[4] The  
162 occurrence of other complications following repair of truncus arteriosus are also notably  
163 frequent relative to other lesions.[5]

164 Prior studies have identified moderate-to-severe truncal valve regurgitation or interrupted  
165 aortic arch to be risk factors for mortality and complications following repair of truncus  
166 arteriosus.[6-8] These co-existent lesions however represent a relatively small proportion of  
167 patients. Between 2000-2009, 572 patients were entered into the STS-CHSD as having  
168 surgical repair of truncus arteriosus, yet only 22 underwent concomitant repair of their truncal  
169 valve, 34 underwent concomitant repair of interrupted aortic arch (IAA), and 5 underwent  
170 concomitant repair of both additional lesions.[6] Of the remaining 511 patients, 45 (9%) died.  
171 Thus, a considerable portion of children with truncus arteriosus suffer early mortality despite the  
172 absence of IAA or concomitant truncal valve surgery.

173 To date, most data on operative outcomes following repair of truncus arteriosus are from  
174 single-center studies.[7-15] These data, while useful, are often difficult to interpret and  
175 generalize due to variations in preoperative, surgical, and postoperative management that exist  
176 between centers. We aim to describe characteristics and operative outcomes of children who

177 underwent repair of truncus arteriosus using a contemporary multicenter dataset. From these  
178 data, we aim to identify risk factors for poor outcome after repair of truncus arteriosus, as  
179 defined as the occurrence of major adverse cardiac events (MACE) in the postoperative period.  
180 We hypothesized that analysis of data compiled from multiple centers that includes variables not  
181 recorded in the STS-CHSD would allow us to identify previously unrecognized risk factors for  
182 poor outcome after repair of truncus arteriosus.

183

## 184 **Methods**

### 185 *Study Population*

186 We performed a retrospective review of all patients who underwent primary surgical repair of  
187 truncus arteriosus at fifteen tertiary care pediatric referral centers between 2009 and 2016. A  
188 list of participating institutions is provided in Table 1 (online). The study was approved by the  
189 institutional review boards at all centers and was performed in accordance with the ethical  
190 standards laid down in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki and its later amendments. Due to the  
191 retrospective nature of the data collected, the need for informed consent was waived.

192 The following patients were excluded from the analysis:

- 193 • Children who underwent pulmonary artery banding but died prior to repair
- 194 • Children with hemitruncus (i.e., right pulmonary artery coming off the aorta) or  
195 pseudotruncus (i.e., pulmonary atresia with major aortopulmonary collaterals)
- 196 • Children who underwent concomitant repair of truncus arteriosus with IAA or aortic arch  
197 obstruction (Van Praagh Type A4), which is designated as a STAT mortality category 5  
198 procedure, in contrast to repair of truncus arteriosus (Van Praagh Type A1-A3), which is  
199 a STAT mortality category 4 procedure [1] (Data for children with this lesion will be  
200 reported by our research group elsewhere.)

201



## 202 *Data Collection and Definitions*

203 A comprehensive list of variables and definitions is included in Table 2 (online). Right  
204 ventricle-to-pulmonary artery (RV-PA) conduit diameter was indexed to body surface area  
205 (BSA) to adjust the absolute values for differences in body size across subjects. The primary  
206 outcome of interest was the occurrence of MACE defined as intraoperative or postoperative  
207 cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR), extracorporeal membrane oxygenation (ECMO), or  
208 operative mortality. This composite outcome measure has been utilized elsewhere in the  
209 cardiac surgical literature.[18,19]

210

## 211 *Statistical Analysis*

212 Data are represented as medians with 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles for continuous variables  
213 and absolute counts with percentages for categorical variables unless otherwise noted. To  
214 determine risk factors associated with MACE after repair of truncus arteriosus, we performed a  
215 bivariate analysis using Wilcoxon rank sum test,  $\chi$ -square test and Fisher's exact test as  
216 appropriate for individual variables. All variables with  $P$ -values  $< 0.2$  on bivariate analyses were  
217 considered for inclusion in our multivariate logistic regression model. The multivariable model  
218 was also analyzed as a mixed model with center as a random effect. We treated the effect of  
219 center on the model as a random (as opposed to fixed) variable because the centers involved in  
220 the study represent a random sample of the population of all congenital cardiac centers, with  
221 considerable variation in center volume, preoperative and postoperative care models, and  
222 geographic location. Linearity in the logit was examined for continuous variables prior to model-  
223 building; variables with evidence of non-linearity were converted to categorical variables using  
224 receiver operative characteristics (ROC) analysis to identify optimal cut-points. This approach  
225 (as opposed to transformation of the continuous data) was chosen to facilitate clinical  
226 interpretation of the data analysis. Variables with  $P$ -values  $< 0.05$  after multivariable analysis

227 were identified as independent risk factors for MACE after surgical repair of truncus arteriosus.

228 All statistical analyses were performed using STATA version 14 and SAS version 9.4.

229

## 230 **Results**

231 We retrospectively enrolled 216 children who underwent surgical repair of truncus  
232 arteriosus (Van Praagh Type A1-A3) between 2009 and 2016 at 15 institutions. Characteristics  
233 of the entire cohort are summarized in Tables 3 – 5. Prenatal diagnosis occurred in 63% of  
234 patients, whereas 21% were not diagnosed prior to discharge from the nursery, with 14 patients  
235 (6%) being diagnosed outside of the neonatal period (>30 days). The distribution of age at  
236 diagnosis is depicted in Figure 1 (online). The proportion of patients diagnosed prenatally and  
237 after discharge from the nursery did not vary significantly over time (Figure 2, online) and did not  
238 vary significantly across centers ( $p=0.131$  and  $p=0.128$ , respectively). On the other hand, 17  
239 patients (8%) in the study were discharged to home after their diagnosis was confirmed, with a  
240 plan of medical management and elective surgery at a later date. Twelve of these patients  
241 (71%) were readmitted prior to their scheduled surgery for acute respiratory failure or  
242 congestive heart failure. Moreover, three of the children developed necrotizing enterocolitis  
243 (one of whom underwent surgical intervention for perforation) and two suffered cardiac arrests  
244 (one of whom received preoperative ECMO support) prior to their surgical repair.

245 Operatively, 191 patients (88%) received one of three types of RV-PA conduits:  
246 pulmonary allograft, aortic allograft, or Contegra<sup>®</sup> bovine jugular vein conduit. Of the remaining  
247 25 patients, 13 patients received femoral vein allografts, 2 patients received Gortex<sup>®</sup> conduits, 1  
248 patient received a conduit created from anterior pericardium, 8 patients underwent direct  
249 anastomosis of their main pulmonary artery segment to their right ventricle (with or without  
250 patch augmentation), and 1 patient with a coexisting unbalanced atrioventricular septal defect  
251 had a systemic-to-pulmonary artery shunt placed. For the 209 patients who received RV-PA  
252 conduits, the range of the absolute values for the RV-PA conduit diameters utilized was

253 relatively narrow, with all but 3 of these patients receiving a conduit with a diameter between  
254 8mm and 14mm. When indexed to BSA, this range of RV-PA conduit diameters was 29mm/m<sup>2</sup>  
255 to 78mm/m<sup>2</sup>.

256 For the entire patient population, median postoperative duration of mechanical  
257 ventilation was 5 days (range: 1,148), median hospital length-of-stay was 23 days (range:  
258 6,282), and operative mortality was 6.9% (n=15). MACE occurred in 44 patients (20%). The  
259 proportions who suffered each type of MACE or other complications are provided in Table 6  
260 (online), and variation in MACE and operative mortality across institutions is provided in Figure  
261 3. Of note, operative mortality in the 22 patients who received ECMO was 36% (n=8). Bivariate  
262 analysis of demographic data, underlying comorbidities, and preoperative and operative  
263 variables is included in Tables 3 – 5. Preoperatively, patients who experienced MACE were  
264 significantly more likely to have been diagnosed after discharge from the nursery and more  
265 likely to have developed shock, though patients who were diagnosed after discharge from the  
266 nursery were not more likely to develop shock preoperatively – 4 of 45 children (9%) – as  
267 compared to 17 of 171 children (10%) diagnosed prenatally or prior to nursery discharge  
268 (p=1.00).

269 We also found that patients with MACE had longer duration of cardiopulmonary bypass  
270 and larger diameter RV-PA conduits (indexed to BSA), while aortic cross clamping duration, use  
271 of deep hypothermic circulatory arrest, and lowest targeted temperature during surgery were not  
272 statistically different between patients with and without MACE. Using ROC analysis, we  
273 identified CPB duration greater than 150 minutes and RV-PA conduit diameter greater than  
274 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> as optimal cut-points for prediction of MACE. The relationships between MACE, RV-  
275 PA conduit diameter, and BSA are illustrated in Figure 4, where the significant increase in the  
276 MACE in patients with RV-PA conduit diameter greater than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> can be visually  
277 appreciated. In contrast, the occurrence of MACE was relatively evenly distributed across  
278 different body sizes. Moreover, we noted a significantly higher proportion of MACE in patients

279 who received Contegra® conduits, though conduit diameter was significantly larger in the 55  
280 patients who received Contegra® conduits, median 54mm/m<sup>2</sup> (48,57), as compared to the 136  
281 patients who received pulmonary or aortic allografts, median 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> (44,54), p=0.002.

282 The results of our mixed effects logistic regression analysis are provided in Table 7,  
283 including odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the fixed effects adjusted for  
284 center. We identified diagnosis after discharge from the nursery, CPB duration greater than 150  
285 minutes, and RV-PA conduit diameter greater than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> as factors independently  
286 associated with MACE after repair of truncus arteriosus in a model that included preoperative  
287 shock. The relationship between the CPB duration and RV-PA conduit diameter with  
288 postoperative complications is further explored in Figure 5. Operative mortality, CPR, delayed  
289 sternal closure, and postoperative tachyarrhythmias were significantly more common in patients  
290 with larger diameter RV-PA conduits (Figure 5A). In contrast, operative mortality, ECMO, and  
291 inhaled nitric oxide use were significantly more frequent in patients with prolonged CPB duration  
292 (Figure 5B).

293 We notably did not find an increased occurrence rate of MACE patients who underwent  
294 concomitant surgical intervention on their truncal valve (Table 3 and 4). It should be noted that  
295 of the six patients who underwent truncal valve replacement at the time of the surgery, MACE  
296 occurred in the three patients who first underwent an attempt at truncal valve repair and then  
297 underwent a second course of CPB and truncal valve replacement during the same operation  
298 (CPB durations: 333, 336, and 356 minutes), while no MACE occurred in the three patients who  
299 underwent truncal valve replacement without a prior attempt at truncal valve repair (CPB  
300 durations: 217, 291, 323 minutes). Accordingly, to better examine whether the association of  
301 MACE and prolonged CPB duration was more related to the duration of CPB itself or the need  
302 for concomitant truncal valve intervention that contributed to the prolonged duration of CPB, we  
303 performed a sensitivity analysis excluding the 37 patients who underwent truncal valve  
304 interventions. In this mixed effects logistic regression analysis, which included adjustments for

305 preoperative shock as a fixed effect and center as a random effect, failure to diagnose truncus  
306 arteriosus prior to nursery discharge (OR: 2.8, 95%CI: 1.1,7.4), CPB duration greater than 150  
307 minutes (OR: 3.0; 95%CI: 1.1,7.7), and RV-PA conduit diameter greater than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> (OR:  
308 3.3, 95%CI: 1.3,8.2) remained independently associated with MACE.

309

## 310 Discussion

311 In this contemporary multicenter dataset, we found that one in five patients who  
312 underwent surgical repair of truncus arteriosus suffered MACE. Furthermore, though operative  
313 mortality was lower than prior reports from the STS-CHSD, especially in patients requiring  
314 ECMO,[2,4] the occurrence of MACE did not decrease appreciably during the study period and  
315 complications were frequent relative to other neonatal operations. For example, 58% of patients  
316 in our study underwent delayed sternal closure (planned or unplanned), in contrast to 21% of all  
317 neonates reported to the STS-CHSD between 2013 and 2016.[3] Similarly, 6% of children in  
318 our study required tracheostomy, in comparison to less than 1% of all patients reported to the  
319 STS-CHSD between 2010 and 2015.[20] In other words, though operative mortality for patients  
320 undergoing surgery for congenital heart disease may be improving, patients with truncus  
321 arteriosus remain at considerable risk for complications and adverse cardiac events including  
322 death after surgery.

323 Fortunately, we identified three independent and potentially modifiable risk factors for  
324 MACE after repair of truncus arteriosus: failure to diagnose truncus arteriosus prior to discharge  
325 from the nursery, CPB duration greater than 150 minutes, and RV-PA conduit diameter greater  
326 than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup>. Interestingly, in our multivariable analysis, diagnosis after discharge from the  
327 nursery (i.e. late diagnosis) was associated with MACE independent of preoperative shock.  
328 Based on this analysis, we speculate that many patients who were diagnosed late presented in  
329 an advanced state of compensated congestive heart failure that had not yet progressed to meet  
330 the STS-CHSD definition of shock, and neonates need not progress to a late stage of shock

331 before their burden of illness will influence their postoperative course. Early diagnosis prior to  
332 the development of shock with lactic acidosis should therefore be the aim of current neonatal  
333 screening protocols.

334 In 2009, the American Academy of Pediatrics and American Heart Association published  
335 a joint statement on pulse oximetry screening as a means to detecting undiagnosed congenital  
336 heart disease prior to nursery discharge.[21] In 2012, the Department of Health and Human  
337 Services endorsed this practice.[22] In 2017, data from the National Center for Health Statistics  
338 showed a significant decrease in infant cardiac deaths between 2007 and 2013 in states that  
339 had implemented statewide mandatory policies for newborn screening for critical congenital  
340 heart disease as compared with states without these policies.[23] As of 2017, all states except  
341 Idaho and Kansas mandate newborn screening for critical congenital heart disease.[24]. Data  
342 on the adherence to these practices at individual centers, however, are sparse. In one recent  
343 report from a center where the practice of routine pulse oximetry screening for congenital heart  
344 disease was adopted and then audited, compliance with their protocol was 88%, which is good  
345 but not optimal.[25] The association of late diagnosis with MACE after repair of truncus  
346 arteriosus in our study and the aforementioned data on the benefits of routine pulse oximetry  
347 screening for congenital heart disease support the further expansion of this practice and the  
348 establishment of infrastructure at the local level to ensure that these programs are operating  
349 appropriately.

350 It should also be noted that 17 patients were discharged to home *after* diagnosis, of  
351 whom 71% were readmitted with life-threatening illnesses prior to repair. This observation  
352 argues against sending these children home without surgical intervention. Indeed, the feasibility  
353 and practicality of performing the surgical repair of truncus arteriosus in the neonatal period  
354 have long been established and confirmed by many single center studies.[7, 9-11] Thus, early  
355 surgical intervention for repair of truncus arteriosus should be pursued whenever possible to  
356 minimize the risk of preoperative morbidity.

357 Prolonged duration of CPB is a well-described risk factor for worse outcomes after  
358 pediatric cardiac surgery.[26,27] Based on the observed association between longer duration of  
359 CPB and use of ECMO or inhaled nitric oxide, we presume that longer durations of CPB in our  
360 patients could have predisposed them to myocardial depression and pulmonary hypertensive  
361 crises that necessitated these adjunctive therapies. Notably, the relationship between  
362 prolonged CPB duration and adverse outcomes persisted when operations with concomitant  
363 truncal valve procedures were excluded. We are not, however, advocating that the quality of  
364 repair be sacrificed in an effort to be more expeditious. Rather, awareness of the association  
365 between MACE and prolonged duration of CPB after repair of truncus arteriosus should  
366 emphasize the importance of minimizing exposure to CPB whenever possible.

367 Perhaps the most compelling and easily modifiable identified risk factor for MACE after  
368 repair of truncus arteriosus is larger diameter of RV-PA conduit, specifically greater than  
369 50mm/m<sup>2</sup>. (For reference, in Figure 6, absolute RV-PA conduit diameters that fall below the  
370 threshold of 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> for body surface areas between 0.15m<sup>2</sup> and 0.25 m<sup>2</sup> are provided.) In a  
371 single-center study of 83 patients, Tlaskal and colleagues also noted a trend toward increase  
372 mortality in patients with larger absolute RV-PA conduit diameters.[12] To our knowledge, our  
373 study represents the first to examine RV-PA conduit diameter indexed to body surface area as  
374 an important variable to consider when planning surgical correction for these children. Based  
375 on our data, the pathophysiologic explanation for this finding cannot be clearly discerned. We  
376 speculate that larger diameter conduits could be associated with increased ventriculotomy size  
377 relative to the size of the neonatal myocardium that could exacerbate restrictive right ventricular  
378 physiology or provide an arrhythmogenic substrate during the recovery period. Larger conduits  
379 could suffer from distortion or compression during sternal closure leading to conduit  
380 insufficiency, pulmonary artery distortion, or prolonged duration of open sternotomy,  
381 predisposing patients to infectious or respiratory complications. A combination of these  
382 possibilities could be responsible for the worse outcomes in patients with conduit diameters



383 greater than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup>. Future studies examining the relationship between conduit size and  
384 postoperative outcomes should be designed to more specifically investigate these or other  
385 potential pathophysiologic mechanisms.

386 Nearly all patients who undergo repair of truncus arteriosus will require replacement of  
387 their RV-PA conduit later in life and, consequently, many surgeons will err on the side of larger  
388 conduit diameters in an attempt to extend the period of time before conduit revision is needed.  
389 Indeed, several studies have associated smaller absolute conduit diameter with earlier need for  
390 reintervention,[28-31] with some authors advocating “oversizing” of the conduit to prevent early  
391 graft failure.[30] In a seminal study from the Congenital Heart Surgery Society of 429 children  
392 with various congenital heart lesions who required RV-PA conduits, use of smaller conduits  
393 were associated with earlier reinterventions, leading the authors to conclude “insertion of the  
394 largest conduit possible (within the constraints of our data and patient size) would be expected  
395 to postpone explantation prompted by the somatic growth of the patient.”[31] Based on our  
396 data, use of larger conduits to promote long-term durability could come at a cost for some  
397 patients. None of the eight patients who underwent direct anastomoses of the pulmonary artery  
398 suffered MACE, and studies have reported longer freedom from reoperation in patients who  
399 underwent direct anastomoses.[32-34] Additionally, a recent study reported the potential of  
400 modified repair of truncus arteriosus in which the branch pulmonary arteries are left in situ and  
401 septated from the truncal root may promote conduit longevity.[35] Further research focused on  
402 these modifications or other innovations could mitigate the impetus to use larger conduits at the  
403 initial repair of truncus arteriosus and, possibly, reduce the risk of MACE. Accordingly,  
404 additional research in children with congenital heart disease who receive RV-PA conduits  
405 should aim to determine a range of conduit diameters that could optimally balance the risks of  
406 short- and long-term morbidity and mortality.

407 This study has the limitations inherent to its retrospective design. For example, data on  
408 RV-PA conduit diameter were obtained retrospectively from operative reports and not confirmed



409 by direct measurement via postoperative echocardiogram. If actual RV-PA conduit diameters  
410 differed from what was provided by the tissue record, the accuracy of our RV-PA conduit  
411 measurements would be affected. We also acknowledge that the components of our  
412 composite primary outcome measure differ in terms of severity (i.e., mortality is a worse than  
413 CPR or EMCO alone). On the other hand, etiologies for the need for CPR, need for ECMO, or  
414 operative mortality were likely similar in many patients (e.g., myocardial depression, pulmonary  
415 hypertensive crises, arrhythmias, multiorgan dysfunction) and most clinicians would agree that  
416 any of the three included outcomes are undesirable. Notably, we did not include long-term  
417 outcomes in this study but rather maintained the focus on early outcomes. Lastly, patients for  
418 this study were identified by institutional surgical databases, which did not allow us to report  
419 data on patients who may have been diagnosed with truncus arteriosus but died before surgical  
420 intervention. The strength of this study is its collaborative multicenter design, which allowed us  
421 to obtain data on variables not entered into current databases such as the STS-CHSD as well  
422 as identify risk factors for MACE after repair of truncus arteriosus that are independent of  
423 center. Future analyses will focus on post-discharge outcomes including freedom from conduit  
424 intervention, truncal valve intervention, or death.

425

## 426 **Conclusions**

427 Operative mortality and other adverse cardiac events after repair of truncus arteriosus  
428 continue to be relatively common. In our contemporary multicenter study, operative mortality  
429 was 6.9% and MACE occurred in one-fifth of patients. We hope that future investigations will  
430 reveal that attention to the independent and potentially modifiable risk factors identified in this  
431 report – diagnosis after discharge from the nursery, duration of CPB greater than 150 minutes,  
432 and RV-PA conduit diameter greater than 50 mm/m<sup>2</sup> – will lead to improvements in the  
433 operative and early postoperative outcomes in these fragile children. We also suggest that  
434 neonatal repair becomes the preferred option for surgical timing at all centers, as patients who

435 are discharged to home with medical management after diagnosis of truncus arteriosus are at  
436 considerable risk of preoperative morbidity.

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474 Hospital, University of Utah

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**607 Figures**

608 Figure 1 (online). Histogram demonstrating the variation in age at diagnosis of patients with  
609 truncus arteriosus included in the study. Most patients (n=188, 87%) were prenatally diagnosed  
610 or diagnosed within the first week of life, while 14 patients (6%) were diagnosed outside the  
611 neonatal period (>30 days), which includes an outlier not represented in the histogram - a child  
612 who was adopted from outside the United States with a presumed diagnosis of Tetralogy of  
613 Fallot but was found have truncus arteriosus upon evaluation on day of life 1275 (3.5 years).

614

615 Figure 2 (online). Trends in the diagnosis of truncus arteriosus over time. The percentage of  
616 patients diagnosed with truncus arteriosus prenatally (green bars), postnatally but prior to  
617 discharge from the nursery (yellow bars), and postnatally after discharge from the nursery (red  
618 bars). The variations in the percentage of patients diagnosed prenatally and patients diagnosed  
619 after discharge from the nursery over the duration of the study period were not statistically  
620 significant –  $p=0.48$  and  $p=0.98$ , respectively.

621

622 Figure 3. Variation across centers in the number of patients who underwent repair of truncus  
623 arteriosus and the occurrence of major adverse cardiovascular events (MACE). Each bar  
624 contains the number of patients who suffered operative mortality (black portion), number who  
625 suffered cardiac arrest or received extracorporeal membrane oxygenation but survived (red  
626 portion), and number who did not suffer MACE (grey portion of bars). Centers are arranged in  
627 order of increasing surgical volume of patients who underwent truncus arteriosus repair during  
628 the study period.

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633 Figure 4. Major adverse cardiovascular events (MACE) in relation to body surface area (BSA)  
634 and the diameter of surgically-placed right ventricle-to-pulmonary artery (RV-PA) conduit in  
635 patients who underwent repair of truncus arteriosus. Patients who experienced MACE (n=44,  
636 red circles) were significantly more likely to have RV-PA conduits greater than 50 mm/m<sup>2</sup> in  
637 diameter (dotted reference line) than patients who did not experience MACE. Specifically, 33 of  
638 44 patients (75%) who suffered MACE had RV-PA conduits greater than 50 mm/m<sup>2</sup>, as  
639 compared to 79 of 172 patients (46%) who did not suffer MACE, p=0.001. Importantly, though  
640 smaller patients were more likely to have larger diameter RV-PA conduits, no significant  
641 relationship between the occurrence of MACE and body size was observed.

642

643 Figure 5A. Patients with right ventricle-to-pulmonary artery (RV-PA) conduits greater than  
644 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> in diameter were significantly more likely to suffer operative mortality and receive  
645 cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR) (i.e. major cardiac adverse events (MACE)). Patients with  
646 RV-PA conduits greater than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup> were also more likely to experience tachyarrhythmias or  
647 undergo delayed sternal closure. In contrast, use of extracorporeal membrane oxygenation  
648 (ECMO) or inhaled nitric oxide (iNO) were not significantly more likely to occur in patients with  
649 conduit diameters greater than 50mm/m<sup>2</sup>. \*statistically significant, p<0.05

650

651 Figure 5B. Patients with cardiopulmonary bypass duration (CPB) greater than 150 minutes were  
652 more likely to suffer operative mortality and receive extracorporeal membrane oxygenation  
653 (ECMO) (i.e. major adverse cardiac events (MACE)), and more likely to be administered inhaled  
654 nitric oxide (iNO). The occurrence of cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR), tachyarrhythmias,  
655 and delayed sternal closure, however, were not statistically more likely in patients with CPB  
656 durations greater than 150 minutes. \*statistically significant, p<0.05

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658

659 Figure 6 (online). Absolute right ventricle-to-pulmonary artery (RV-PA) conduit diameters for  
660 patients with body surface areas between 0.15 – 0.25 m<sup>2</sup> (10<sup>th</sup> percentile – 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of  
661 study population) that will result in diameters indexed to body surface area up to 50mm/m<sup>2</sup>. RV-  
662 PA conduit diameters above the green bars at each body surface area may increase the risk of  
663 major adverse cardiovascular events (MACE) after repair of truncus arteriosus.

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685 **Videos**

686 Video. A PowerPoint slideshow accompanied by audio explanations for each slide featuring the  
687 most notable findings of our study.

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Table 3. Comparison of Patients with and without Major Adverse Cardiac Events (MACE) after Repair of Truncus Arteriosus (2009 – 2016) – Demographic information and Baseline Patient Characteristics

Variable <sup>a</sup>	All patients (N=216)	No MACE (n=172)	MACE (n=44)	p-value
Prenatal diagnosis	135 (63%)	111 (65%)	24 (55%)	0.22
Age at diagnosis (days)	0 (0, 2)	0 (0, 1)	0 (0, 3)	0.13
Not diagnosed before discharge	45 (21%)	31 (18%)	14 (32%)	0.04
Sent home after diagnosis	17 (8%)	15 (9%)	2 (5%)	0.29
Not diagnosed before discharge or sent home after diagnosis	62 (29%)	46 (27%)	16 (36%)	0.21
Truncus Type (Van Praagh)				0.15
A1	112 (52%)	94 (55%)	18 (41%)	
A2	90 (42%)	66 (38%)	24 (55%)	
A3	14 (7%)	12 (7%)	2 (5%)	
Prematurity (<37 weeks)	42 (19%)	30 (17%)	12 (27%)	0.14
Female sex	108 (50%)	87 (51%)	21 (48%)	0.74
Race				0.72
White	147 (68%)	119 (69%)	28 (64%)	
Black	33 (15%)	26 (15%)	7 (16%)	
Other / Unknown	36 (17%)	27 (16%)	9 (20%)	
Latino / Hispanic ethnicity	27 (13%)	21 (12%)	6 (14%)	0.80
Chromosomal anomaly, any	83 (38%)	68 (40%)	15 (34%)	0.51
DiGeorge/22q.11 deletion	61 (28%)	53 (31%)	8 (18%)	0.10
Non-cardiac anatomic anomaly	63 (29%)	48 (28%)	15 (34%)	0.42
Year of surgical repair				0.24
2009	17 (8%)	14 (8%)	3 (7%)	
2010	25 (12%)	21 (12%)	4 (9%)	
2011	31 (14%)	21 (12%)	10 (23%)	
2012	30 (14%)	28 (16%)	2 (5%)	
2013	27 (13%)	22 (13%)	5 (11%)	
2014	28 (13%)	23 (13%)	5 (11%)	
2015	34 (16%)	27 (16%)	7 (16%)	
2016	24 (11%)	16 (9%)	8 (18%)	

<sup>a</sup> Continuous variables represented as median (25<sup>th</sup>%, 75<sup>th</sup>%); categorical data represented as absolute counts (%)

Table 4. Comparison of Patients With and Without Major Adverse Cardiac Events (MACE) after Repair of Truncus Arteriosus (2009 – 2016) – Preoperative Clinical Data

Variable <sup>a</sup>	All patients (N=216)	No MACE (n=172)	MACE (n=44)	p-value
Echocardiographic Data				
Ventricular Function				
Depressed RV function	31 (14%)	23 (13%)	8 (18%)	0.42
Depressed LV function	22 (10%)	15 (9%)	7 (16%)	0.17
Truncal Valve anatomy				
Bicuspid	27 (13%)	23 (13%)	4 (9%)	0.85
Tricuspid	114 (53%)	89 (52%)	25 (57%)	
Quadricuspid	73 (34%)	58 (34%)	15 (34%)	
Dysplastic	2 (1%)	2 (1%)	0 (0%)	
Truncus Valve Insufficiency				
None / Trivial	99 (46%)	83 (48%)	16 (36%)	0.38
Mild	51 (24%)	41 (24%)	10 (23%)	
Mild-to-Moderate/Moderate	49 (23%)	36 (21%)	13 (30%)	
Moderate-to-Severe/Severe	17 (8%)	12 (7%)	5 (11%)	
Truncal Valve Stenosis				
None	153 (71%)	121 (70%)	32 (73%)	0.15
Mild/Mild-to-Moderate	50 (23%)	38 (22%)	12 (27%)	
Moderate/Severe	13 (6%)	13 (8%)	0 (0%)	
Coronary artery abnormalities	28 (13%)	21 (12%)	7 (16%)	0.52
Preoperative shock	21 (10%)	12 (7%)	9 (20%)	0.02
Preoperative inotropic infusion <sup>b</sup>	35 (16%)	27 (16%)	8 (18%)	0.69
Preoperative ventilation <sup>c</sup>	45 (21%)	34 (20%)	11 (25%)	0.45
Preoperative infection	27 (13%)	25 (15%)	2 (5%)	0.07
Preoperative seizures	6 (3%)	6 (4%)	0 (0%)	0.35
Preoperative stroke	7 (3%)	7 (4%)	0 (0%)	0.17
Pulmonary artery banding	3 (1%)	3 (2%)	0 (0%)	1.00

<sup>a</sup> Continuous variables represented as median (25<sup>th</sup>%, 75<sup>th</sup>%); categorical data represented as absolute counts (%)

<sup>b</sup> Dopamine, dobutamine, epinephrine, and milrinone infusion(s) within 24 hours of surgery

<sup>c</sup> Includes only patients who required endotracheal intubation at any point preoperatively and remained on mechanical ventilation until to surgery

Table 5. Comparison of Patients With and Without Major Adverse Cardiac Events (MACE) after Repair of Truncus Arteriosus (2009 – 2016) – Operative Data

Variable <sup>a</sup>	All patients (N=216)	No MACE (n=172)	MACE (n=44)	p-value
Age at surgery (days)	10 (7, 24)	9.5 (7, 23)	11 (6.5, 32)	0.38
Time from diagnosis to surgery (days)	8 (5.5, 15)	7.5 (5.5, 15)	9 (5.5, 18)	0.46
Weight at surgery (kg)	3.1 (2.7, 3.5)	3.1 (2.7, 3.5)	3 (2.5, 3.5)	0.39
Body surface area (m <sup>2</sup> )	0.21 (0.19,0.23)	0.21 (0.19,0.23)	0.21 (0.18,0.23)	0.60
Cardiopulmonary bypass (min)	150 (124, 186)	144 (122, 182)	165 (141, 235)	0.001
Cardiopulmonary bypass > 150 min	107 (50%)	78 (45%)	29 (66%)	0.015
Aortic cross clamp (min)	86 (73, 111)	87 (70, 110)	85 (78, 116)	0.34
Hypothermic circulatory arrest	31 (14%)	24 (14%)	7 (16%)	0.74
Lowest temperature (°C)	25 (21, 28)	25 (22, 28)	25 (21, 28)	0.95
Modified Ultrafiltration	139 (64%)	113 (66%)	26 (59%)	0.41
Intraoperative steroids	161 (75%)	132 (77%)	29 (67%)	0.14
Intraoperative Factor VIIa	34 (16%)	26 (15%)	8 (18%)	0.62
RV-PA conduit type				0.04
Aortic allograft	53 (25%)	42 (24%)	11 (25%)	
Pulmonary allograft	83 (38%)	72 (42%)	11 (25%)	
Contegra conduit	55 (26%)	37 (22%)	18 (41%)	
Other / None	25 (12%)	21 (12%)	4 (9%)	
RV-PA conduit size (mm) <sup>b</sup>	11 (9, 12)	10 (9, 12)	12 (9, 12)	0.22
RV-PA conduit size (mm/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>	51 (45.6, 56.4)	49.9 (44.9, 55.5)	52.9 (49, 57.3)	0.01
RV-PA conduit size > 50 mm/m <sup>2</sup>	112 (52%)	79 (46%)	33 (75%)	0.001
Truncal valve repaired	34 (16%)	25 (15%)	9 (21%)	0.34
Truncal valve replaced	6 (3%)	3 (2%)	3 (7%)	0.10

<sup>a</sup> Continuous variables represented as median (25<sup>th</sup>%, 75<sup>th</sup>%); categorical data represented as absolute counts (%)

<sup>b</sup> n=207 patients; excludes eight patients who underwent direct anastomoses of main pulmonary artery segment and one patient who underwent placement of systemic-to-pulmonary artery shunt

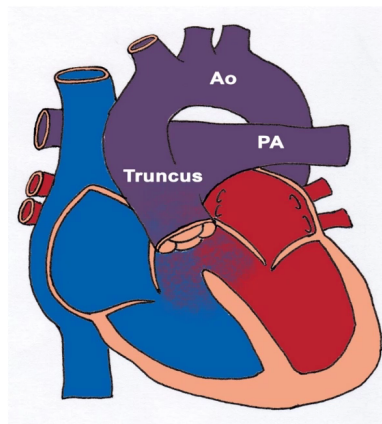
Table 7. Multivariable Logistic Regression Analysis for Predictors of Operative Mortality after Repair of Truncus Arteriosus (Analyzed as a Mixed Model with a Random Effect of Center)

Fixed Effects	odds ratio	95% confidence interval	p-value
Preoperative shock	3.0	0.97, 9.5	0.056
Undiagnosed at discharge from nursery	3.1	1.3, 7.4	0.012
Cardiopulmonary bypass > 150 min	3.5	1.5, 8.5	0.005
RV-PA conduit size > 50 mm/m <sup>2</sup>	4.7	2.0, 11.1	<0.001



## Background

- **Truncus arteriosus**
  - Complex defect most commonly diagnosed in the neonatal period or early infancy
  - Operative morbidity and mortality continues to be significant
  - Risk factors for poor outcomes following surgical repair have been reported in single-center studies



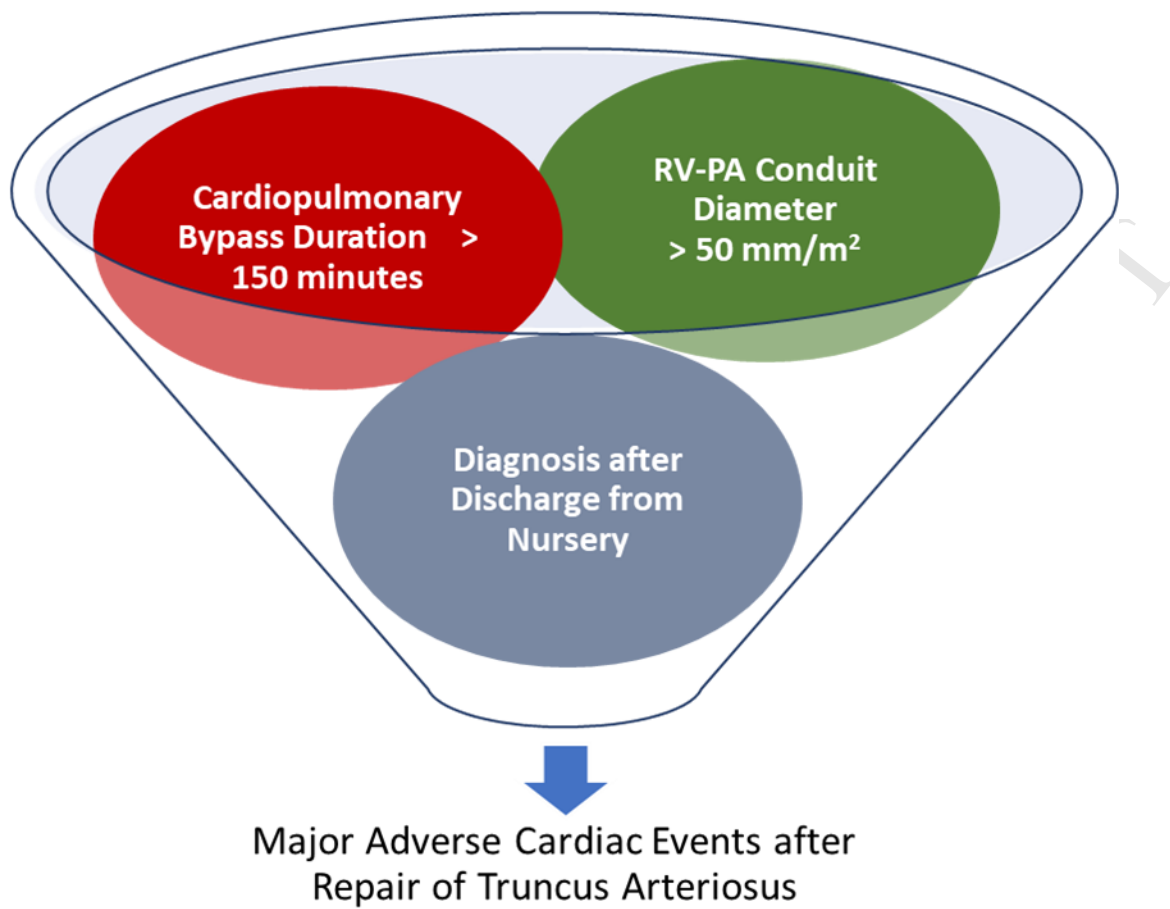
Mastropietro et al. *Pediatric Emergency Medicine Practice*, May 2008.



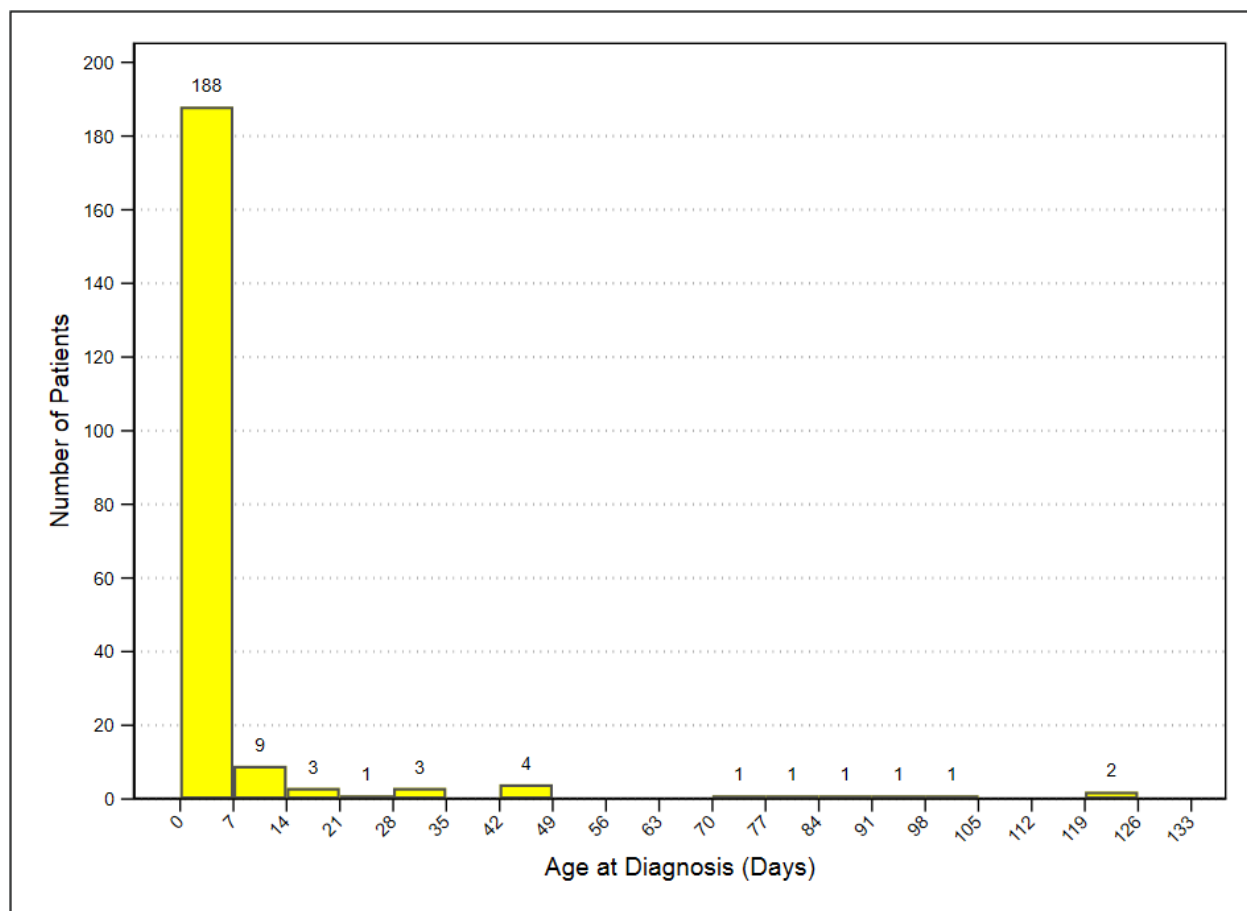
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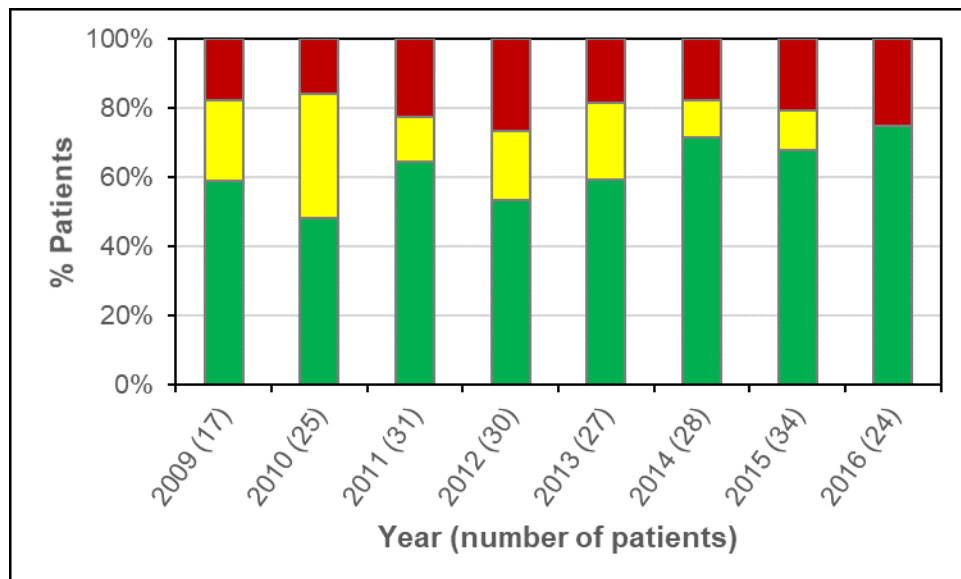


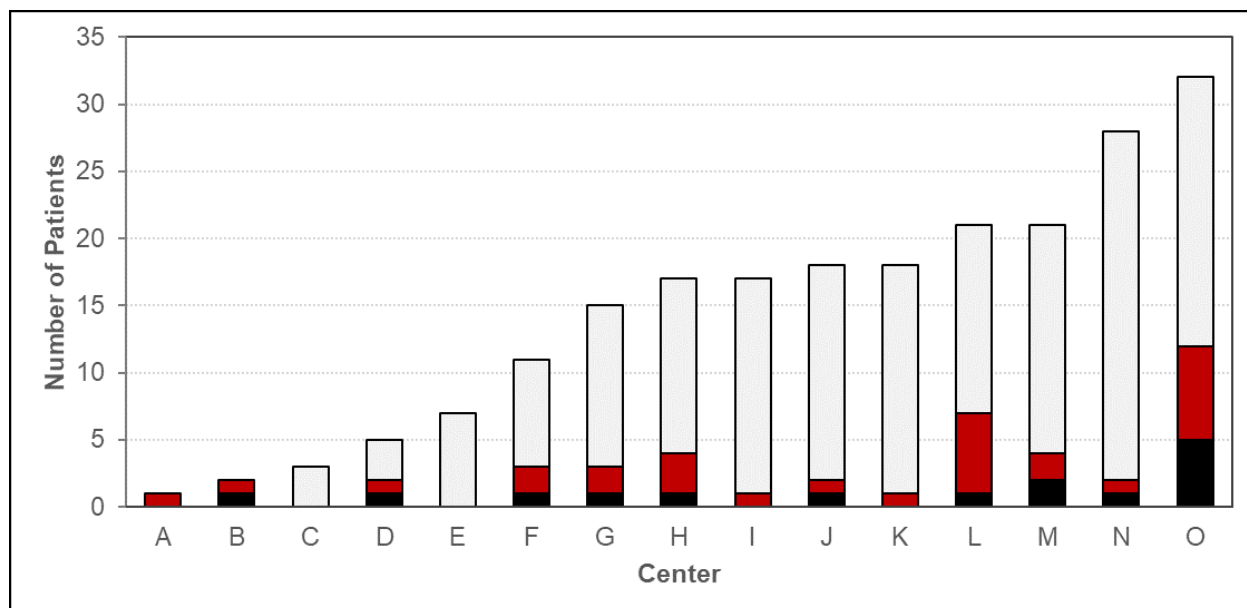
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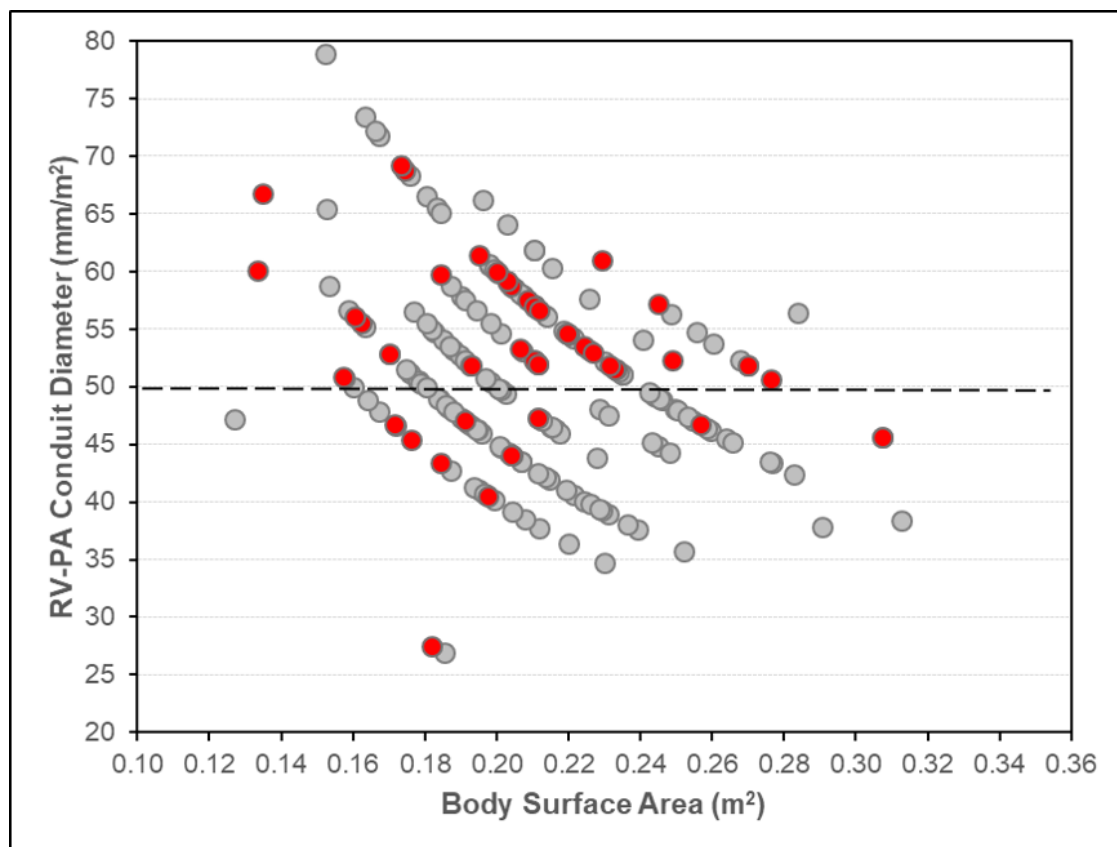


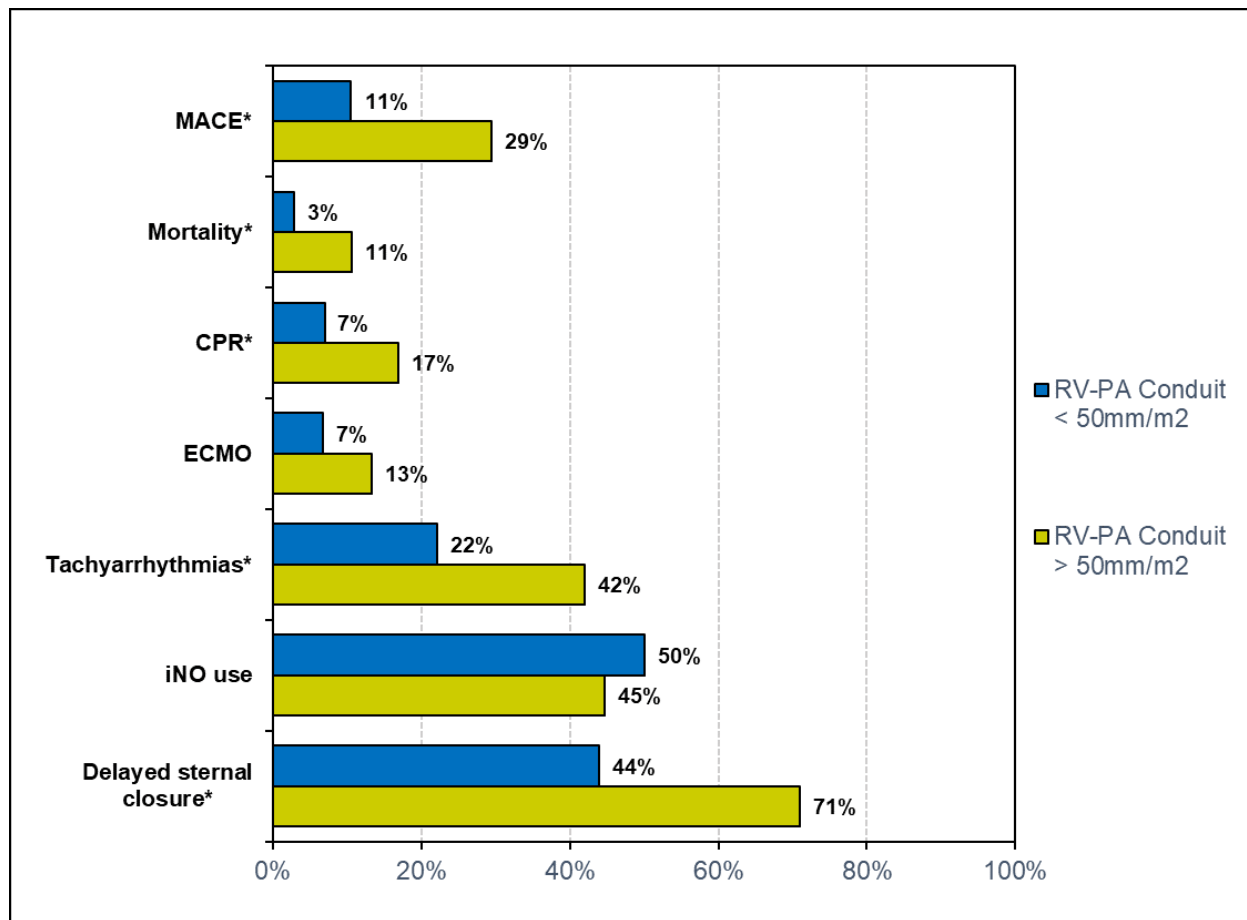
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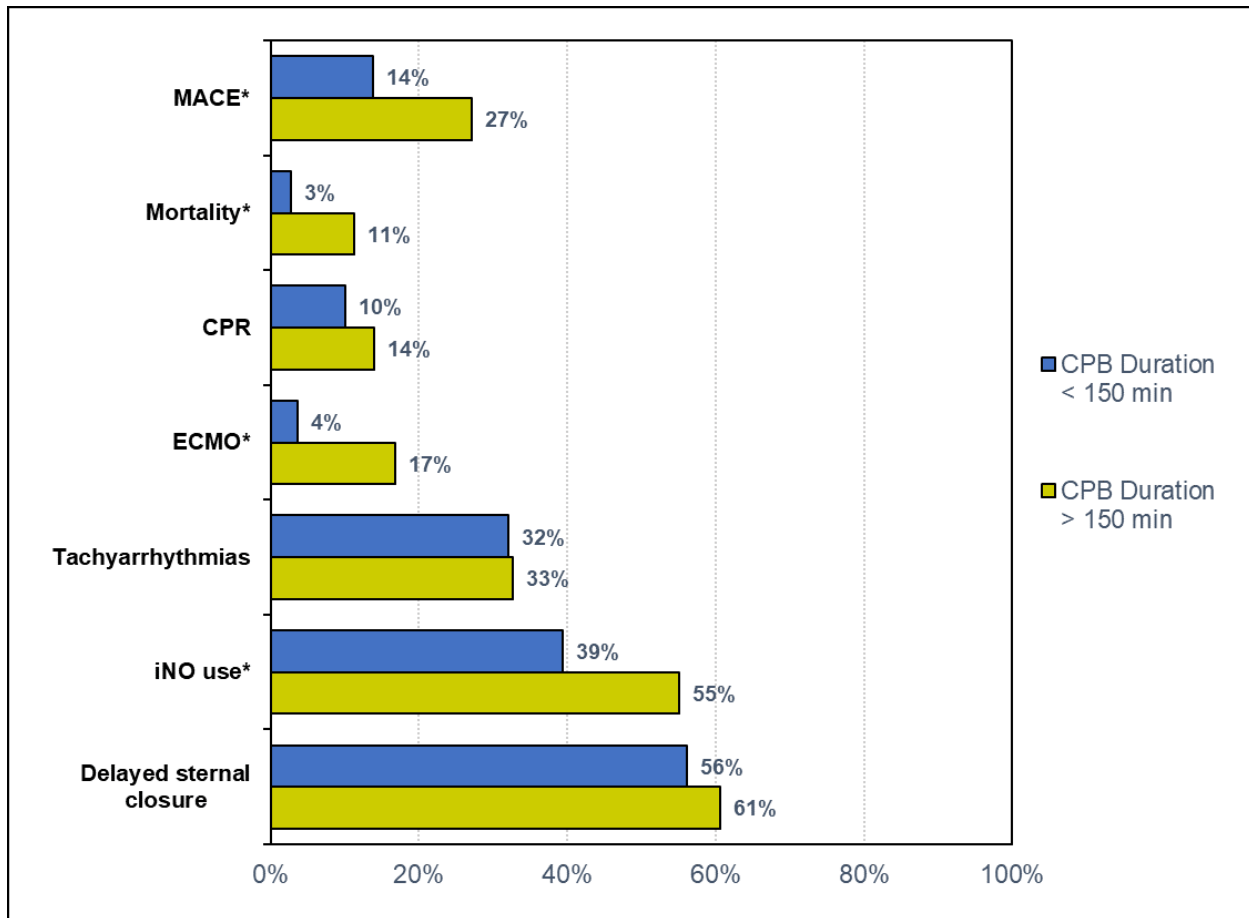




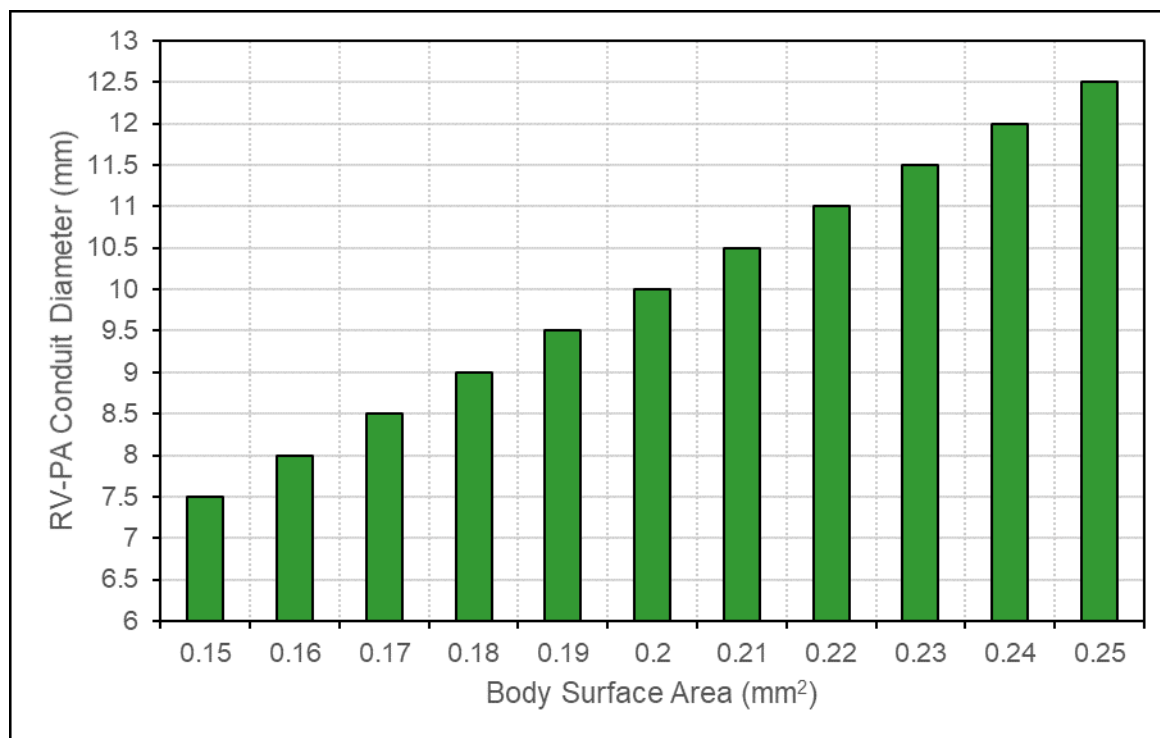


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**CoRe PCIC**Collaborative Research  
In Pediatric Cardiac  
Intensive Care**INDIANA UNIVERSITY**  
SCHOOL OF MEDICINE**Riley Children's Health**  
Indiana University Health

## Characteristics and Operative Outcomes for Children Undergoing Repair of Truncus Arteriosus: A Contemporary Multicenter Analysis

Christopher W. Mastropietro; Venu Amula; Peter Sassalos; Jason R. Buckley; Arthur J. Smerling; Ilias Iliopoulos; Aimee Jennings; Christine M. Riley; Katherine Cashen; Sukumar Suguna Narasimhulu; Keshava Murty Narayana Gowda; Adnan Bakar; Michael Wilhelm; Aditya Badheka; Elizabeth A.S. Moser; John M. Costello

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Table 1 (online only). Collaborative Research in Pediatric Cardiac Intensive Care (CoRe-PCIC) Participating Institutions

- 
- Riley Hospital for Children, Indianapolis, IN
  - Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, OH
  - Children's Hospital of Michigan, Detroit, MI
  - Morgan Stanley Children's Hospital of New York, New York, NY
  - Cohen Children's Medical Center, New Hyde Park, NY
  - Medical University of South Carolina Children's Hospital, Charleston, SC
  - Children's National Health System, Washington, DC
  - Arnold Palmer Hospital for Children, Orlando, FL
  - Seattle Children's Hospital, Seattle, WA
  - Ann & Robert H. Lurie Children's Hospital of Chicago, IL
  - University of Iowa Stead Family Children's Hospital, Iowa City, IA
  - Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati
  - Primary Children's Hospital, Salt Lake City, UT
  - University of Michigan C.S. Mott Children's Hospital, Ann Arbor, MI
  - American Family Hospital, Madison, WI
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Table 2 (online). Data Collection and Definitions

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*Preoperative Data*

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- Age, sex, race, ethnicity, and anthropometric data
- Estimated gestational age at birth
- Prematurity – less than 37 weeks gestation
- Presence of genetic anomalies or non-cardiac anatomic anomalies
- Age and setting of diagnosis, i.e. prenatal diagnosis, diagnosis after birth but prior to discharge from the nursery, or diagnosis after discharge from the nursery
- Type of truncus arteriosus (Van Praagh) [16]
  - Type A1: Identifiable main pulmonary artery segment
  - Type A2: Branch pulmonary arteries come off separately from posterior aorta
  - Type A3: Pulmonary blood flow to one lung is supplied by ductal or collateral blood flow
- Preoperative echocardiography data – ventricular function, truncal valve anatomy, degree of stenosis or regurgitation
- Need for preoperative mechanical ventilation or inotropic infusion(s)
- Preoperative shock – pH less than 7.2 or lactate greater than 4 mg/dL, as defined by the Society of Thoracic Surgeons-Congenital Heart Surgery Database [17]
- Preoperative infection or necrotizing enterocolitis
- Stroke or seizure – patients with clinical or sub-clinical seizure activity were recorded as having seizures
- Pulmonary artery banding prior to surgical repair

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*Operative Data*

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- Age, weight, height, and body surface area at surgery
- Duration of cardiopulmonary bypass and aortic cross clamping
- Use of deep hypothermic circulatory arrest

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Table 2 (online). Data Collection and Definitions (*continued*)

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*Operative Data (continued)*

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- Lowest intraoperative temperature
- Use of intraoperative systemic corticosteroids, modified ultrafiltration, or factor VIIa
- Right ventricle-to-pulmonary artery conduit size and type
- Truncal valve intervention, e.g. repair or replacement

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*Postoperative Data*

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- Use of delayed sternal closure
- Use of extracorporeal membrane oxygenation
- Use of cardiopulmonary resuscitation
- Use of inhaled nitric oxide therapy
- Occurrence of postoperative arrhythmia
- Occurrence of unplanned cardiac catheterization or operation
- Postoperative infection (includes necrotizing enterocolitis)
- Postoperative stroke or seizure
- Occurrence of postoperative respiratory complications - extubation failure, chylothorax, paralyzed diaphragm, vocal cord paralysis, or tracheostomy

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*Outcome Data*

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- Initial and total duration of postoperative mechanical ventilation
- Duration of intensive care unit and hospital length-of-stay
- Operative mortality [17]
  - Mortality occurring before discharge from the hospital where the index cardiac operation took place or any secondary acute care facility
  - Any out-of-hospital deaths occurring within 30 days of the index cardiac operation,
  - Any deaths occurring in a secondary chronic care facility (or rehabilitation facility) within 180 days following the index cardiac operation.

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Table 6 (online). Postoperative Complications after Repair of Truncus Arteriosus

Variable	All patients (N=216)
Delayed Sternal Closure – Planned	119 (55%)
Delayed Sternal Closure – Unplanned	7 (3%)
CPR	26 (12%)
ECMO	22 (10%)
Initiated in OR	13
Initiated in ICU	9
Inhaled nitric oxide use	102 (47%)
Initiated in OR	69
Initiated in ICU	33
Tachyarrhythmia	63 (29%)
Treated with medication	45
Treated with temporary pacing wires	18
Bradyarrhythmia	7 (3%)
Treated with medication	1
Treated with temporary pacing wires	6
Unplanned cardiac catheterization	25 (12%)
Unplanned reoperation for bleeding	37 (17%)
Unplanned reoperation not for bleeding <sup>a</sup>	17 (8%)
Truncal valve repair / replacement	6
Residual VSD closure	5
Coronary artery revision	3
Pulmonary arterioplasty	3
RV-PA conduit revision	3
Aortopexy	2
Other	9
Infection <sup>b</sup>	42 (19%)
Sepsis/Bacteremia	9
Endocarditis	2
Pneumonia / Tracheitis	16
Urinary tract infection	5
Wound infection / dehiscence	12
Mediastinitis	3
Other	4
Necrotizing enterocolitis	10 (5%)
Extubation failure	22 (10%)
Chylothorax	22 (10%)
Paralyzed diaphragm	6 (3%)
Vocal cord paresis	2 (1%)
Tracheostomy	11 (5%)
Seizures	17 (8%)
Stroke	12 (6%)
Operative mortality	15 (7%)

<sup>a</sup>17 patients required 33 cardiothoracic reoperations for an indication other than bleeding / hemorrhage

<sup>b</sup>42 patients were diagnosed with 51 postoperative infections