Effect of remote ischaemic conditioning on platelet 1 reactivity and endogenous fibrinolysis in ST-elevation 2 myocardial infarction- a substudy of the CONDI-2/ERIC-3 **PPCI** randomised controlled trial 4 Short title: Effect of remote ischaemic preconditioning on platelet reactivity and 5 fibrinolysis in PPCI 6 Prof. Diana A Gorog MD, PhD, FRCP^{1,2,3} Dr Mohamed Farag MB, BS, PhD^{2,4}, Dr Nikolaos 7 Spinthakis MB BS, MRCP^{2,3}, Prof. Derek M Yellon DSc⁵, Prof. Hans Erik Bøtker DMSci⁶, 8 9 Prof. Rajesh K. Kharbanda MB, BCh, PhD⁷, Prof. Derek J Hausenloy MBChB PhD FRCP⁸ 10 11 12 1. National Heart & Lung Institute, Imperial College, London, United Kingdom 13 2. Postgraduate Medical School, University of Hertfordshire, Hertfordshire, United 14 Kingdom 15 3. Department of Cardiology, East and North Hertfordshire NHS Trust, Hertfordshire, United Kingdom 16 17 4. Cardiology Department, Royal Papworth Hospital NHS Foundation Trust, Papworth Everard, Cambridge, United Kingdom 18 19 5. The Hatter Cardiovascular Institute, University College London, London, United 20 Kingdom 21 6. Aarhus University Hospital, Department of Cardiology, Aarhus N, Denmark. 22 7. Oxford Heart Centre, Oxford University Hospitals NHS Trust, Oxford, United 23 Kingdom; Department of Cardiovascular Medicine, University of Oxford, Oxford, 24 United Kingdom. 8. The Hatter Cardiovascular Institute, University College London, London, UK;; 25 26 Cardiovascular & Metabolic Disorders Program, Duke-National University of 27 Singapore Medical School, Singapore: National Heart Research Institute 28 Singapore, National Heart Centre, Singapore; Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, 29 National University Singapore, Singapore; Cardiovascular Research Center, 30 College of Medical and Health Sciences, Asia University, Taiwan; Tecnologico de 31 Monterrey, Centro de Biotecnologia-FEMSA, Nuevo Leon, Mexico. 32 33 34 Word count 5531 35 36 **Correspondence:** 37 38 Prof. Diana A Gorog MB BS, MD, PhD, FRCP 39 National Heart and Lung Institute 40 **Dovehouse Street** 41 London SW3 6LR 42 United Kingdom 43 Tel +44 (0)207 034 8934; Fax +44 (0)207 0348935 44 d.gorog@imperial.ac.uk 45 46

47 Abstract

48 Background: Remote ischaemic conditioning (RIC) has been shown to reduce myocardial 49 infarct size in animal models of myocardial infarction. Platelet thrombus formation is a 50 critical determinant of outcome in ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI). 51 Whether the beneficial effects of RIC are related to thrombotic parameters is unclear. 52 Methods and Results: In a pre-specified substudy of the Effect of Remote Ischaemic 53 Conditioning on clinical outcomes in STEMI patients undergoing Primary Percutaneous 54 Coronary Intervention (ERIC-PPCI) trial, we assessed the effect of RIC on thrombotic status. 55 Patients presenting with STEMI were randomised to immediate RIC consisting of an automated autoRICTM cuff on the upper arm inflated to 200mmHg for 5 minutes and deflated 56 57 for 5 minutes for 4 cycles (n=53) or sham (n=47). Venous blood was tested at presentation, 58 discharge (48 h) and 6-8 weeks, to assess platelet reactivity, coagulation and endogenous 59 fibrinolysis using the Global Thrombosis Test and thromboelastography (TEG). Baseline 60 thrombotic status was similar in the 2 groups. At discharge, there was some evidence that the 61 time to in vitro thrombotic occlusion under high shear stress was longer with RIC compared 62 to sham (454±105s vs. 403±105s; mean difference 50.1s; 95% confidence interval [CI] 93.7-6.4, P=0.025), but this was no longer apparent at 6-8 weeks. There was no difference in clot 63 64 formation or endogenous fibrinolysis between the study arms at any time-point. 65 **Conclusion:** RIC may reduce platelet reactivity in the first 48h post-STEMI. Further research is needed to delineate mechanisms through which RIC may reduce platelet reactivity, and 66 67 whether it may improve outcomes in patients with persistent high on-treatment platelet 68 reactivity.

69 Word count: 259 words

71	Abbreviations
72	ADP = adenosine diphosphate
73	DAPT = dual antiplatelet medication
74	GTT = Global Thrombosis Test
75	IPC = ischaemic preconditioning
76	IR = ischaemia-reperfusion
77	IRI = ischaemia-reperfusion injury
78	LT = lysis time
79	OT = occlusion time
80	PPCI = primary percutaneous coronary intervention
81	RIC = remote ischaemic preconditioning
82	STEMI = ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction
83	TEG = thromboelastography

85 Introduction

86 The cause of ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) is most commonly the 87 disruption of a coronary atheromatous plaque, leading to local thrombosis, and culminating in 88 arterial occlusion. The outcome of such a prothrombotic stimulus is determined by the 89 magnitude of the thrombotic response, balanced against the effectiveness of the endogenous 90 fibrinolytic enzymes in overcoming lasting vessel occlusion.¹ Treatment of STEMI patients 91 with primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PPCI) aims to rapidly restore coronary 92 flow, improve myocardial salvage and reduce infarct size. However, reperfusion has also 93 been associated with consequent downstream myocardial reperfusion injury, which may further compound the deleterious effects of the antecedent period of ischaemia. 94 95 to ameliorate the thrombotic response and reduce ischaemic-reperfusion injury (IRI) have been proposed to reduce infarct size.^{1,3-5} 96 97 Ischaemic preconditioning (IPC) refers to the ability of brief, cyclic periods of ischaemia and 98 reperfusion (IR) to render the myocardium more resistant to a subsequent ischaemic insult. In 99 animal models, IPC has been shown to reduce infarct size and to enhance recovery of contractile function of the myocardial region at risk. Remote ischaemic conditioning (RIC) 100 101 involves the application of one or more brief cycles of IR to a "remote" organ (such as the 102 arm or leg) and in animal models, has been shown to reduce infarct size and IRI.⁷⁻⁹ 103 Application of RIC in humans by repeated inflation and deflation of a blood pressure cuff on 104 the upper arm has been shown to reduce the extent of perioperative myocardial injury in patients undergoing cardiac surgery in smaller studies,¹⁰ although it did not improve clinical 105 outcomes in large studies.^{11,12} Compared to standard care, the use of RIC in patients 106 107 undergoing PPCI has been associated with reduction in myocardial injury and increased 108 myocardial salvage, without definitive reduction in infarct size or improvement in

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109 survival.<sup>13,14</sup>
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110 The exact mechanism through which RIC potentially confers cardioprotection in STEMI is still not fully understood.^{15,16} Proposed mechanisms include generation of an endogenous 111 112 substance such as adenosine, bradykinin or other factor, which activates a neural pathway; 113 mediation by an endogenous substance generated in the remote organ which enters the blood 114 stream to affect cardioprotection; or through a systemic protective response, suppressing inflammation and apoptosis.^{15,16} Additionally, IPC has been linked to favourable effects on 115 116 thrombotic markers. In a canine model, IPC was accompanied by down-regulation of plateletfibrinogen binding and formation of neutrophil-platelet aggregates.¹⁷ In stable CAD, remote 117 118 ischaemia was shown to induce protection against an exercise-related increase in platelet reactivity¹⁸ and reduced ADP-stimulated platelet aggregation. In patients undergoing 119 120 radiofrequency ablation for atrial fibrillation, RIC reduced platelet activation and platelet reactivity.¹⁹ Since platelet reactivity, activation of coagulation and endogenous fibrinolytic 121 122 pathways are important drivers and determinants of the outcome of myocardial infarction,²⁰ and may play a role in IRI,²¹ we hypothesised that the benefit of RIC in STEMI may be 123 mediated through anti-thrombotic effects. The aim of this study was to determine whether 124 125 RIC improves thrombotic status in patients with STEMI undergoing PPCI.

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128 Methods

129 *Study design and population*

130 We undertook a substudy of the Effect of Remote Ischaemic Conditioning on clinical 131 outcomes in ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction patients undergoing Primary 132 Percutaneous Coronary Intervention (ERIC-PPCI) multicentre, randomised, single-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial (ClinicalTrials.gov NCT02342522).²² Patients with chest pain 133 134 and suspected ST-segment elevation on the electrocardiogram (ECG) were screened for 135 possible inclusion. Patients were included if they were older than 18 years of age, had ST-136 segment elevation on ECG, were eligible for PPCI and gave consent. Exclusion criteria were 137 previous coronary artery bypass graft surgery, myocardial infarct within the previous 30 days, 138 left bundle branch block on ECG, treatment with therapeutic hypothermia, conditions 139 precluding use of remote ischaemic conditioning (paresis of upper limb or presence of an 140 arteriovenous shunt), and life expectancy of less than 1 year due to a non-cardiac pathology. 141 All patients recruited to ERIC-PPCI in a single centre at the Lister Hospital, East & North 142 Hertfordshire NHS Trust, were included in the substudy. The study was approved by the 143 National Research Ethics Service and was conducted in accordance with the principles of Good Clinical Practice and the trial conformed to the principles outlined in the Declaration of 144 145 Helsinki. All patients provided initial verbal assent before randomisation, which was 146 followed by written informed consent.

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148 Trial treatment protocol

The trial protocol and main clinical results have been previously published.^{22,23} In brief,
patients were randomised in a 1:1 ratio to active treatment with RIC or control treatment with
sham RIC (Figure 1). Randomisation was performed via a secure website using random

permuted blocks. Patients randomised to the interventional arm received RIC protocol using the automated AutoRIC cuff device (CellAegis Devices, Toronto, ON, Canada), comprising of four alternating cycles of cuff inflation to 200 mm Hg for 5 min and deflation for 5 min. The control group received a sham simulated RIC. The PPCI procedure was performed according to standard clinical care and PPCI operators and patients were blinded to treatment allocation. Study team members collecting the data and assessing outcomes were masked to treatment allocation.

All patients received 300 mg aspirin orally and 600 mg clopidogrel or 180 mg ticagrelor orally, and standard weight-adjusted heparin intravenously prior to PPCI. Dual antiplatelet therapy was continued in all patients throughout the substudy.

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163 Blood sampling technique

164 Blood samples were taken at three time points: 1) baseline upon arrival to the cardiac catheterisation laboratory (day 0), prior to heparin or glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitor 165 166 administration and before PPCI, 2) at clinical stabilisation, just prior to hospital discharge, 167 and 3) at 6-8 weeks follow-up. The first blood samples were taken from a 6-F radial or 168 femoral sheath, after the administration of dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT) but before 169 treatment with unfractionated heparin. Prior to insertion, the sheaths were flushed with 170 normal saline, avoiding the use of heparinised saline prior to the first blood draw. The second 171 and subsequent blood samples were taken from an antecubital vein using an 18-G butterfly 172 cannula, taking care to avoid prolonged tourniquet time. All samples were taken using a 2-173 syringe technique, which involved using the first 5 ml blood for routine blood tests, and the 174 subsequent sample for assessment of thrombotic status.

176 Assessment of global thrombotic status

177 <u>Global Thrombosis Test (GTT)</u>

178 The GTT (Thromboquest Ltd., London, UK) assesses both platelet reactivity (occlusion time, 179 OT) and endogenous fibrinolysis (lysis time, LT) from a 4 ml native, non-anticoagulated 180 blood sample. The instrument was positioned in the cardiac catheterisation laboratory. After 181 the blood sample was obtained, it was introduced into the GTT cartridge within 15 seconds of withdrawal and the automated measurement begun. The principle of the GTT has been 182 previously described in detail.^{24,25} The instrument assesses firstly the time taken to form an 183 184 occlusive thrombus under high shear (occlusion time, OT; sec), a marker of platelet 185 reactivity. Shorter OT represents enhanced platelet reactivity. The arrest of flow due to the 186 formation of an occlusive platelet thrombus, is followed by a short stabilisation period, after 187 which the instrument records the time required for spontaneous restart flow due to 188 endogenous thrombolysis of the thrombus formed in the first phase (lysis time, LT; sec). 189 Longer LT represent less effective endogenous fibrinolysis.

190 <u>Thromboelastography (TEG)</u>

Blood was also tested using the TEG thromboelastograph (TEG 5000 Hemostasis Analyser
system, Haemonetics, UK). Two tests were carried out per patient in parallel; whole blood
(without the addition of any modifiers) and whole blood plus kaolin (Haemonetics, Watford,
UK). Whole blood testing was performed immediately after sampling, whereas whole blood
plus kaolin was performed within 4 minutes of sampling. The TEG generates a characteristic
curve of thrombus formation and lysis with several indices, and definition of these is shown
in Table 1.²⁶

199 Study end-points

200 The endpoint of the substudy was thrombotic status as measured by GTT and TEG

201 parameters, in the RIC compared to the sham arms, at discharge and at 6-8 weeks. The

202 primary combined endpoint of the main study was cardiac death or hospitalisation for heart

failure at 12 months and these results have been published.²²

204 Data collection and follow-up

205 Patient case-notes were checked throughout the course of the index admission, to allow 206 contemporaneous data collection. Patients were followed up at 6-8 weeks in person including 207 final blood draw for thrombotic status assessment.

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209 Statistical analysis

210 In this pilot, hypothesis-generating substudy, we aimed to compare thrombotic status within groups (between patients on admission and at discharge and follow-up) and between groups 211 212 (between RIC and sham). For a main trial designed with 90% power and two-sided 5% 213 significance, it is recommended that a pilot trial sample size of at least 20 per treatment arm is needed for estimated small (0.2) standardised effect size,²⁷ which was speculated from 214 215 earlier studies.²⁵ Therefore, a study of 100 patients (50 per treatment arm) was felt to be of 216 sufficient size to produce meaningful results. Data are presented as mean and standard 217 deviation (when normally distributed) or median and inter-quartile range [IQR] (non-218 normally distributed). Normality was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Differences in 219 thrombotic variables at differing time-points in the group as a whole were assessed using 220 paired-t-tests and Mann-Whitney U test. Difference between RIC and sham groups at any

- individual time-point were assessed using ANCOVA. Analyses were performed with Stata
 version 11.2 (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA).
- 223
- 224

225 Results

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Between February 2016 and March 2018, 100 patients with STEMI were enrolled into the 227 228 substudy, and randomised to RIC (n=53) or sham RIC (n=47) (Supplementary Figure 1). The 229 main ERIC-PPCI study results have already been published.²² Baseline clinical 230 characteristics are shown in Table 2 and baseline haematological and biochemical profiles in 231 Table 3. There were no patients with atrial fibrillation or patients taking oral anticoagulation 232 included in this substudy. Angiographic, interventional and echocardiographic patient 233 characteristics are shown in Table 4. The RIC and sham groups were well matched for all 234 aforementioned characteristics. In particular, there was no significant difference in either 235 peri-procedural or post-PPCI antithrombotic treatment allocation between the treatment arms. 236 237 Global Thrombosis Test (GTT) results 238 In the whole cohort (n=100), OT increased from baseline to hospital discharge (338±129s vs. 239 430±107s, p<0.001) and further increased at 6-8 weeks (baseline vs. 6-8 weeks 338±129s vs. 493±132s, p<0.001)(Figure 2A). 240 241 Baseline OT was similar in the RIC and sham groups, with mean difference 19.65s (95% 242 confidence interval [CI] 69.41-70.36) (Table 5, Figure 3). However, there was some evidence 243 that OT at hospital discharge was prolonged in RIC group compared to sham (454±105s vs. 244 403 ± 105 s; mean difference 50.1s; 95% CI 6.4-93.7, P = 0.025), but this was less apparent at

245	6-8 weeks follow-up (538±142s vs. 511±142s, mean difference 27.5s; 95%CI 102.5- 47.5,
246	P=0.818) (Table 5, Figure 3).
247	Distribution of LT at the prespecified time points is shown in Figure 2-B. There was no
248	evidence for a difference in LT between the two study arms at any of the time points (Figure

249 4 and Table 5).

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251 Thromboelastography (TEG) results

There was no evidence for a difference in any of the TEG indices using whole blood with or without kaolin between the two study arms at any of the time points, either with respect to

254 coagulation parameters or indices of clot lysis (Table 5).

255

256 **DISCUSSION**

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258 In this small, hypothesis generating substudy, in the group as a whole, OT was higher at 259 discharge compared to admission, presumably reflecting reduction in platelet reactivity, due 260 to onset of action of DAPT. However, although baseline thrombotic status at presentation 261 was similar in patients in both RIC and sham RIC groups, patients receiving RIC exhibited 262 significantly longer OT, representative of reduced platelet reactivity, at the time of hospital 263 discharge compared to patients treated with sham RIC. This is, to our knowledge, the first 264 time that RIC has been linked to reduced occlusive thrombus formation under high-shear 265 stress, in the setting of STEMI in humans.

The encouraging results of this substudy contrast with the neutral results of the main CONDI-2/ERIC-PPCI trial, in which no difference was seen between the RIC and the control groups with respect to the combined primary endpoint of cardiac death or hospitalisation for heart

269 failure at 12 months (HR 1.10; 95% CI 0.91–1.32; P = 0.32), demonstrating that RIC, applied 270 as an adjunct to PPCI, did not improve clinical outcomes in STEMI patients. The discrepancy 271 between the findings of our small substudy and the main trial may simply be due to the play 272 of chance in a small sample. However, if these results are real, and RIC results in reduced 273 platelet reactivity at 48h post-PPCI, it would not be surprising if this in fact had no effect on 274 outcomes. The reduction in platelet reactivity at 48h may be too late to influence reperfusion 275 and infarct size, or to favourably impact on any reperfusion injury following PPCI. This 276 might indicate that earlier application of such RIC may have improved outcomes, although in 277 the main CONDI-2/ERIC-PPCI trial, there were no differences in clinical outcomes whether 278 RIC was performed in the ambulance or in hospital. Another consideration is that platelet 279 reactivity is a strong determinant of ischaemic outcomes, in particular in the highest risk 280 patients. Although acute stent thrombosis is likely multifactorial in aetiology, it has been 281 been related in part to enhanced platelet reactivity, and so it is possible that a beneficial effect 282 in reducing platelet reactivity could reduce the occurrence of acute stent thrombosis, although 283 there was no signal for this in the main CONDI-2/ERIC-PPCI trial, where the occurrence of 284 myocardial infarction at 30 days was similar in the RIC and sham arms. The CONDI-285 2/ERIC-PPCI trial excluded many patients with anterior STEMI, since these often exhibit left 286 bundle branch block, and patients with cardiogenic shock who were unable to give consent. 287 Patients with cardiogenic shock are not only at very high cardiovascular risk with 30-50% 288 risk of death or recurrent ischaemic events over the subsequent 30 days, but shock can also 289 limit the effectiveness of orally-administered antithrombotic medications due to delayed drug 290 administration, reduced gastrointestinal blood flow and motility, delayed gastric emptying and gastrointestinal absorption²⁹- so these patients may have the most to gain from 291 292 approaches that reduce platelet reactivity. Since the effect on platelet reactivity was no longer apparent at 6-8 weeks, this may explain the lack of effect on long term ischaemic outcomes. 293

294 Whilst current guidelines advocate use of the more potent P2Y₁₂ inhibitors ticagrelor and prasugrel in patients with STEMI,³⁰ this also comes at a greater price of bleeding. 295 296 Clopidogrel continues to be used in a significant number of ACS patients in high income countries.³¹ and also for financial reasons in low income countries.³² Up to a third of ACS 297 patients demonstrate inadequate platelet inhibition in response to clopidogrel.³³ This is 298 299 explained in part by polymorphisms in the gene encoding the hepatic enzyme CYP2C19, 300 which transforms clopidogrel to its active metabolite, that can result in 5-12% variation in platelet inhibition.³⁴ There is ethnic variation in the prevalence of the loss-of-function 301 302 CYP2C19 618G>A*2 allele, affecting some 30% of Caucasians and 50% of East Asians.³³ Homozygotes for the CYP2C19*2 and less common CYP2C19*3 LoF alleles are poor 303 metabolizers, and heterozygotes are intermediate metabolizers of clopidogrel, with high-on 304 clopidogrel platelet reactivity and increased risk of adverse cardiovascular events, including 305 AMI and stent thrombosis.^{35–37} The association of *CYP2C19* genotype with increased 306 307 cardiovascular risk appears greatest in those undergoing PCI, and the risk is greater in Asians than in whites.³⁸ Enhancing platelet inhibition with RIC in patients who are receiving 308 309 clopidogrel may be particularly advantageous in such patients.

310

311 *Possible mechanisms*

A possible mechanism underlying the beneficial effects of RIC is a direct effect on arterial thrombus formation. In humans, marked platelet activation has been demonstrated in patients presenting with acute coronary syndrome^{39,40} and platelets have an important role not only in epicardial coronary thrombosis, but also in the pathophysiology of IRI and IPC.⁴¹⁻⁴³

316 The relationship between RIC and platelet activation is less well explored in patients, with 317 most knowledge derived from animal studies and healthy volunteers. In rats, RIC reduced 318 arterial thrombus formation and embolization under direct visualisation by microscopy following femoral arterial injury⁴⁴ and in rodent hearts *ex vivo*, the extent of myocardial 319 320 injury following IR injury is was directly related to the activation status of platelets, with reduced infarct size in mice treated with platelet-poor plasma.⁴² Platelet-derived 321 322 microparticles may mediate RIC, since platelet microparticles isolated from rats receiving RIC reduced the extent of cerebral infarction when transfused into recipient rats.⁴⁵ In dogs 323 324 subjected to coronary IR injury, IPC attenuated platelet activation and aggregation^{17,46} and 325 was abolished by pre-treatment with an adenosine antagonist, linking preconditioning with 326 platelet thrombus formation.46

Studies in healthy individuals support the concept that RIC inhibits platelet activation. In 327 healthy volunteers, the increase in the circulating concentration of platelet-monocyte 328 aggregates associated with acute IR injury was abolished by RIC.⁴⁷ In normal volunteers, 329 RIC of forearm reduced expression of neutrophil CD11b and platelet-neutrophil 330 complexes.⁴⁸ Studies in patients with cardiovascular disease are limited. In patients with 331 332 stable coronary disease, RIC attenuated platelet activation in response to adenosine diphosphate (ADP) and exercise¹⁸ and in patients with claudication, warm-up (a phenomenon 333 334 akin to IPC) prior to exercise attenuated the exercise-induced increase in platelet-neutrophil 335 and platelet-leukocyte activation.⁴⁹ In patients undergoing ablation for atrial fibrillation, 336 RIPC reduced platelet activation in response to ADP, including the formation of monocyteplatelet aggregates.¹⁹ Other studies found that intermittent upper arm IR reduced platelet 337 338 activation and aggregation in response to ADP in patients with stable angina undergoing angiography or elective angioplasty.⁵⁰ 339

If the effect of RIC is marked in animals, in healthy volunteers and patients with stablecardiovascular disease, why not in patients with myocardial infarction? A key difference

342 between these cohorts, is that patients with myocardial infarction receive DAPT comprising of aspirin and a P2Y₁₂ inhibitor as part of standard of care.³⁰ In healthy male volunteers, pre-343 344 treatment with aspirin did not influence the effect of RIC on platelet aggregation and turnover.⁵¹ However, preclinical studies indicate that P2Y₁₂ inhibitors may have direct 345 346 cardioprotective effects independent of inhibition of platelet-mediated thrombosis. In animal 347 studies, P2Y₁₂ inhibitors were shown to reduce infarct size in rabbits, rats and nonhuman primates.^{52–55} Furthermore, although P2Y₁₂ inhibitors proposed to act on cardiomyocytes and 348 upregulate cardioprotective signaling in a manner analogous to IPC,⁵⁶ these drugs failed to 349 350 reduce infarct size in buffer-perfused hearts, indicating that blood, and specifically platelets, are required to confer cardioprotection.54,57 There are however some data supporting the 351 concept that clopidogrel may reduce infarct size through the attenuation of reperfusion injury 352 353 and the protective effect appeared to add to the benefit afforded by ischaemic postconditioning.^{55,58} It is therefore possible that the benefits of RIC in STEMI may be 354 attenuated by P2Y₁₂ inhibitor treatment^{59,60} and one can postulate that RIC may confer greater 355 356 cardioprotection in patients with persistent high on-treatment platelet reactivity. 357 The lack of effect of RIC on markers of coagulation in TEG are not altogether surprising. 358 Although RIC in patients with subarachnoid haemorrhage appeared to prolong the 359 prothrombin time and international normalised ratio after at least 4 sessions, values remained within normal range.56 360 361 We did not observe an effect of RIC on in vitro endogenous fibrinolysis. In patients with 362 STEMI, pre-infarction angina (thought to provide IPC) was associated with a significant reduction in the time to achieve thrombolysis-induced reperfusion.⁶¹ This was confirmed in 363 animal studies where recombinant tissue-type plasminogen activator -induced thrombolysis 364 was significantly shortened in animals that received brief antecedent IPC.⁶² Our findings of a 365 366 lack of effect of RIC on fibrinolysis is supported by a study in healthy subjects, where IRI

was shown to induce fibrinolytic dysfunction evidenced by reduced tissue plasminogen
activator release that could not be prevented by local IPC or RIC.⁶³ However, global tests of
fibrinolysis, such as performed here, and which give better assessment of global fibrinolytic
status than factorial measures such as tissue-plasminogen activator and plasminogen activator
inhibitor-1 levels,²⁰ have not been studies in either animal or human studies.

372

373 Limitations

374 An important limitation of our study is the small sample size. Any observed differences over 375 time or between groups could be due to the play of chance. Furthermore, the exact timeline of 376 effect of RIC on thrombotic status is difficult to conclude, due to the paucity of sampling 377 times. Although a weakness of our study is that mechanistically, we cannot elucidate the 378 cause of the reduced platelet reactivity in patients with RIC, a strength of our work is that we 379 used tests of global thrombotic status, assessing whole blood and in particular, non-380 anticoagulated blood at high-shear, akin to that in a stenosed coronary vessel, making the 381 findings in vitro much more physiologically-relevant, than tests on anticoagulated blood at 382 low shear. With respect to the timing of RIC, a recent meta-analysis showed that RIC 383 protocols that are conducted predominantly before the initiation of reperfusion as opposed to protocols with frequent RIC cycles conducted after reperfusion, conferred more 384 cardioprotection.⁶⁴ Although in the ERIC-PPCI study, the start of RIC was before 385 386 reperfusion, the whole protocol was not always complete before the reperfusion occurred. Upstream start of RIC earlier in the pathway may have improved the outcomes. 387

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389 Conclusions

- 390 Compared to sham treatment, there is a suggestion that RIC may exert a favourable effect on
- 391 global thrombotic status in patients with STEMI undergoing PPCI, likely through a
- 392 favourable effect on platelet reactivity. Further research is needed to delineate mechanisms
- 393 through which RIC may attenuate thrombus formation at high shear stress, and to identify
- 394 patients who may benefit most from this approach.

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724 Figure legends

725 Figure 1. ERIC-PPCI study flowchart

726 Flowchart in black represents the ERIC-PPCI main study, whereas in blue represents the

thrombosis substudy. Blood samples were taken at three time points, 1) baseline upon arrival

to the catheterisation laboratory and at randomisation 2) at clinical stabilisation, just prior to

hospital discharge, and 3) at 6-8 weeks follow-up.

PIS: patient information sheet, SAEs: serious adverse events, NSAEs: non-serious adverse
events

732

733 Figure 2. Distribution of OT and LT at the pre-specified time points

734 OT= occlusion time, LT= lysis time. *P<0.01 compared to baseline. OT at baseline vs.

735 discharge (paired t-test: mean difference 92s, [95%CI 66.61-117.57], p<0.001). OT at

baseline vs. 30 days (Mann-Whitney U test: mean difference 193s, [95%CI 158.29-229.61],

737 p<0.001).

738

739 Figure 3. Distribution of OT at the pre-specified time points between the study arms

740 Occlusion time (OT) was significantly prolonged at hospital discharge in RIC group

compared to sham RIC group. * Comparison between RIC and sham, P <0.05. † difference

742 within group compared to baseline P<0.001. Comparison made using ANCOVA.

743

Figure 4. Distribution of LT at the pre-specified time points between the study arms

745 There was no significant difference in lysis time (LT) between the two study arms at any time

746 point. Comparison made using ANCOVA.

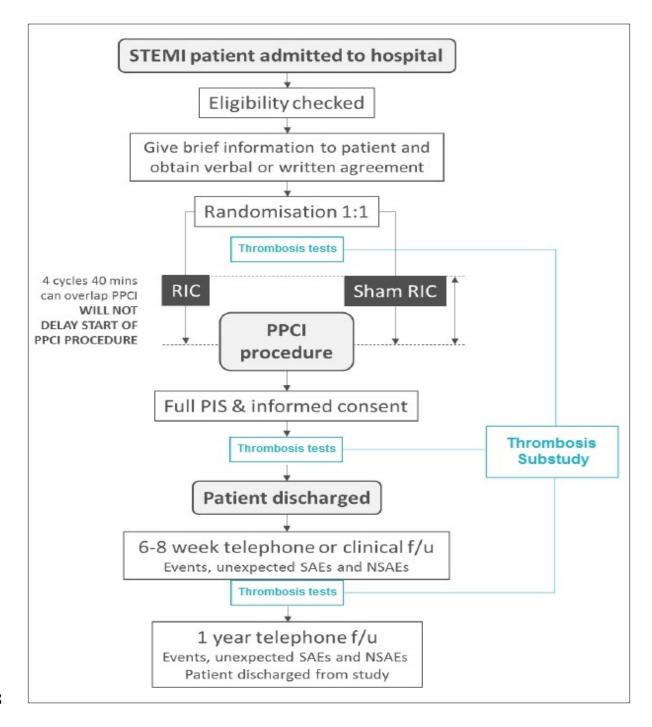


Figure 2.



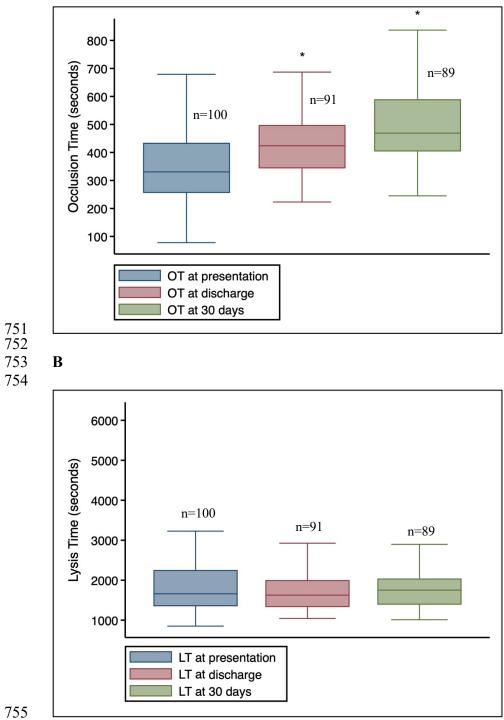




Figure 3.

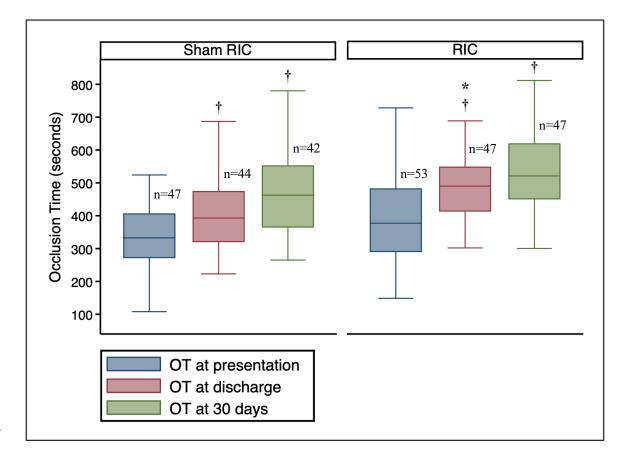
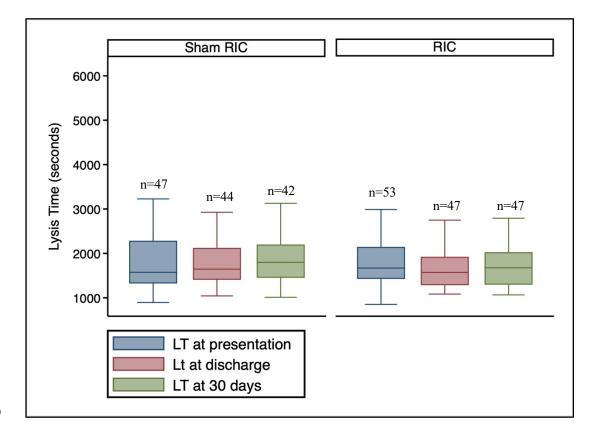


Figure 4.



760 Table 1. TEG indices and definitions

Reaction Time (R) [min]	Measures the time from the start of a sample run until the first
	significant level of detectable clot formation. R is shortened by
	hypercoagulable conditions
Kinetics (K) [min]	Measures the time from R until a fixed level of clot strength is
	reached. K is shortened by hypercoagulable conditions. When MA
	<20 mm, K is undefined
Angle [degrees]	Represents the rate of clot formation and reflects fibrinogen activity.
	Angle relates to K, since both are a function of the rate of clot
	formation. Angle is larger by hypercoagulable conditions
Maximum Amplitude (MA) [mm]	Represents whole clot strength and reflects many aspects of clot
	formation including platelet number and function as well as the
	fibrin contribution to clot strength. MA is larger by hypercoagulable
	conditions
LY30 [%]	Represents the percentage of clot which has lysed after 30 minutes
	of MA
LY60 [%]	Represents the percentage of clot which has lysed after 60 minutes
	of MA
Time to Maximum Amplitude (TMA)	Measures the time to form maximum clot strength
[min]	
761	

762 Table 2. Baseline Patient Characteristic	762	Table 2. Baseline Patient Characteristics
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	Whole Group	Sham RIC	RIC	P Value
	(n=100)	(n=47)	(n=53)	
Age, yrs	65.2±13.6	65.1±13.1	65.4±14.1	0.903
Male	79 (79.0)	37 (78.7)	42 (79.2)	1.000
Caucasian	93 (93.0)	46 (97.9)	47 (88.7)	0.117
BMI	26.7±4.2	26.9±4.8	26.6±3.6	0.673
TIMI score	3.1±2.4	2.9±2.3	3.3±2.5	0.467
Diabetes mellitus	20 (20.0)	7 (14.9)	13 (24.5)	0.317
Active smoker	27 (27.0)	15 (31.9)	12 (22.6)	0.369
Hypertension	44 (44.0)	20 (42.6)	24 (45.3)	0.842
Family history of premature IHD	26 (26.0)	13 (27.7)	13 (24.5)	0.820
Prior MI	9 (9.0)	3 (6.4)	6 (11.3)	0.495
Prior PCI	8 (8.0)	3 (6.4)	5 (9.4)	0.719
Renal insufficiency	4 (4.0)	2 (4.3)	2 (3.8)	1.000
PVD	3 (3.0)	3 (6.4)	0	0.100
Prior CVA	4 (4.0)	1 (2.1)	3 (5.7)	0.620
Prior statin use	26 (26.0)	14 (29.8)	12 (22.6)	0.496
Prior aspirin use	16 (16.0)	5 (10.6)	11 (20.8)	0.186
Prior P2Y ₁₂ inhibitor use	1 (1.0)	0	1 (1.9)	1.000
Initial P2Y12 inhibitor loading agent				
Clopidogrel	76 (76.0)	37 (78.7)	39 (73.6)	0.642
Ticagrelor	20 (20.0)	8 (17.0)	12 (22.6)	0.618
Cangrelor	4 (4.0)	2 (4.3)	2 (3.8)	1.000
Morphine prior to blood sample	59 (59.0)	26 (55.3)	33 (62.3)	0.544
Time from $P2Y_{12}$ inhibitor loading to first	46.9±21.9	46.9±19.1	46.9±24.2	0.979
plood sample (min)				
Medications prior to hospital discharge				
Aspirin	94 (94.0)	45 (95.7)	49 (92.5)	1.000
Clopidogrel	12 (12.0)	7 (14.9)	5 (9.4)	0.540
Ticagrelor	82 (82.0)	38 (80.9)	44 (83.0)	0.800
Beta-blocker	91 (91.0)	44 (93.6)	47 (88.7)	1.000
ACE inhibitor	93 (93.0)	45 (95.7)	48 (90.6)	1.000
Calcium antagonist	6 (6.0)	1 (2.1)	5 (9.4)	0.206
Statin	92 (92.0)	45 (95.7)	47 (88.7)	0.496
Nitrate	2 (2.0)	0	2 (3.8)	0.497
Insulin	3 (3.0)	2 (4.3)	1 (1.9)	0.599

- 764 Values are mean \pm standard deviation or n (%). Renal insufficiency was defined as creatinine levels >177 μ mol/L.
- 765 Prior statin, aspirin or P2Y₁₂ inhibitor use defined as regular statin, aspirin or P2Y₁₂ inhibitor use before
- hospitalisation. Family history of premature IHD was defined as a diagnosis of IHD in a first-degree relative under
- 767 the age of 60.
- 768 ACE: angiotensin-converting enzyme, BMI: body mass index, CVA: cerebrovascular accident, IHD: ischaemic
- 769 heart disease, MI: myocardial infarction, PCI: percutaneous coronary intervention, PVD: peripheral vascular
- 770 disease, TIMI: Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction.

771 Table 3. Haematological and biochemical profiles

	Whole Group	Sham RIC	RIC	P Value
	(n=100)	(n=47)	(n=53)	
Haemoglobin (g/L)	138±19	136±19	139±19	0.400
Haematocrit (%)	41±6	40±6	41±5	0.516
Neutrophil count (x10 ⁹ /L)	8.6±2.9	$8.6{\pm}2.8$	8.6±3.1	0.938
Platelet count (x10 ⁹ /L)	259±77	258±78	260±77	0.923
Serum albumin (g/L) *	43±3.7	42±3.8	43±3.7	0.243
Sodium (mmol/L)	138±3	138±2	138±3	0.789
Creatinine (µmol/L)	91±37	94±49	89±23	0.513
Peak troponin T (ng/L) *	2223 [1072-3796]	2014 [993-3606]	2301 [1074-3945]	0.474
Fibrinogen (g/L)	4.6±1.3	4.6±1.1	4.7±1.5	0.605
PT (sec)	11.8±1.1	$11.8{\pm}1.0$	11.9±1.2	0.728
aPTT (sec)	28.1±3.6	27.5±3.4	28.6±3.7	0.175
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.1±1.2	4.9±1.2	5.3±1.1	0.121
LDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	$2.9{\pm}0.8$	2.9±0.9	$2.9{\pm}0.7$	0.867
Hs C-reactive protein (mg/l) *	3 [1-8]	3 [2-8]	2 [1-8]	0.273

772

773 Values are mean ± standard deviation, except * where values are median [IQR]. aPTT: activated partial 774 thromboplastin time; LDL: low-density lipoprotein; PT: prothrombin time. All values measured at presentation,

775 except peak troponin T.

776 Normal values: haemoglobin 130-180 g/L (males) and 115-165 g/L (females); haematocrit 40-52% (males) and 777 36-47% (females); neutrophil count 2-7.5 x10⁹/L; platelet count 150-400 x10⁹/L; serum albumin 34-54 g/L; serum 778 sodium 135-145 mmol/L, creatinine 60-110 µmol/L (males) and 45-90 µmol/L (females); troponin T <14 ng/L 779 (Elecsys high-sensitivity assay, Roche Diagnostics); fibrinogen 2-4 g/L; PT 11-13.5 seconds; aPTT 25-35 780 seconds; total cholesterol ≤4.0 mmol/L; LDL cholesterol ≤2.0 mmol/L; high sensitivity C-reactive protein 0-3 781 mg/l.

	Whole Group	Sham RIC	RIC	P Value
	(n=100)	(n=47)	(n=53)	
Complete (>70%) ST-segment resolution on	9 (9.0)	5 (10.6)	4 (7.5)	0.731
ECG pre-PPCI				
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) on arrival *	130±24	133±26	128±23	0.338
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg) on arrival *	78±16	80±16	76±15	0.275
Heart rate (bpm) on arrival *	79±18	78±18	80±19	0.752
Killip classification score >2	4 (4.0)	2 (4.3)	2 (3.8)	1.000
Radial access	93 (93.0)	42 (89.4)	51 (96.2)	0.249
1-vessel disease	54 (54.0)	23 (48.9)	31 (58.5)	0.422
2-vessel disease	31 (31.0)	17 (36.2)	14 (26.4)	0.387
3-vessel disease	15 (15.0)	7 (14.9)	8 (15.1)	1.000
Culprit vessel LAD	44 (44.0)	16 (34.0)	27 (50.9)	0.107
GPI (Tirofiban) use	32 (32.0)	16 (34.0)	16 (30.2)	0.830
Thrombus aspiration	7 (7.0)	3 (6.4)	4 (7.5)	1.000
DES implantation	95 (95.0)	43 (91.5)	52 (98.1)	0.184
Stent diameter <3 mm	31 (31.0)	16 (34.0)	15 (28.3)	0.388
TIMI 2/3 angiographic flow pre-PPCI	23 (23.0)	10 (21.3)	13 (24.5)	0.813
TIMI 2/3 angiographic flow post-PPCI	99 (99.0)	47 (100)	52 (98.1)	1.000
Myocardial blush grade 2/3 post-PPCI	95 (95.0)	46 (97.9)	49 (92.5)	1.000
Door to first device time, min	29 [23-36]	29 [21-33]	30 [24-53]	0.179
Call to first device time, min	101 [76-134]	98 [76-131]	103 [75-136]	0.882
Pain to first device time, min	162 [118-263]	170 [119-276]	155 [117-235]	0.519
Left ventricular function				
Normal (EF≥55%)	34 (34.0)	16 (34.0)	18 (33.9)	1.000
Mildly impaired (EF 45–54%)	36 (36.0)	16 (34.0)	20 (37.8)	0.835
Moderately impaired (EF 36–44%)	23 (23.0)	13 (27.7)	10 (18.9)	0.346
Severely impaired (EF ≤35%)	7 (7.0)	2 (4.3)	5 (9.4)	0.442

783 Table 4. Angiographic, Interventional and Echocardiographic Patient Characteristics

784

Values are median [IQR] or n (%), except * where values are mean ± standard deviation. Left ventricular function

786 was assessed by echocardiography prior to hospital discharge.

787 DES: drug eluting stent, EF: ejection fraction, GPI: glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitor, LAD: left anterior descending

788 coronary artery, MI: myocardial infarction, PPCI: primary percutaneous coronary intervention, TIMI:

789 Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction.

790 Door to first device time was the time interval between the arrival of a patient at the hospital and the time of first

intracoronary device use (defined as time of first balloon or stent inflation; or use of thrombectomy or angioplasty

wire if these re-established flow). Call to device time was the time interval between the first call for help and first

- device time. Pain to device time was the time interval between the onset of symptoms and the first intracoronary
- 794 device use.

Table 5. Tests of thrombotic status

	Whole Group	Sham RIC	RIC	P value
	(n=100)	(n=47)	(n=53)	
Global Thrombosis Test (GTT)				
Baseline				
OT [sec] *	337±129	329±98	349±151	0.444
LT [sec]	1660[1348-2255]	1574[1323-2284]	1670[1426-2146]	0.777
At discharge				
OT [sec] *	430±107	403±105	454±105	0.025
LT [sec]	1626[1328-2002]	1646[1406-2123]	1571[1284-1924]	0.241
At 6-8 weeks				
OT [sec] *	493±132	471±132	512±130	0.144
LT [sec]	1752[1387-2042]	1799[1451-2199]	1675[1296-2026]	0.227
Thromboelastography (TEG)				
Baseline (native blood sample)				
Reaction Time (R) [min]	8.2[5.9-9.5]	8.2[5.9-9.6]	8.2[6.1-9.3]	0.841
Kinetics (K) [min]	2.5[1.9-3.8]	2.2[1.8-3.4]	2.7[2.1-3.9]	0.124
Angle [degrees]	56[45-64]	59[47-66]	53[39-62]	0.204
Maximum Amplitude (MA)	73[67-78]	72[69-78]	73[66-78]	0.889
[mm]				
LY30 [%]	0.2[0-1.6]	0.7[0-3.5]	0.1[0-1.1]	0.099
LY60 [%]	2.8[0.9-5.1]	3.5[1.2-7.2]	2.5[0.6-4.5]	0.279
Time to Maximum Amplitude	28.2[24.2-34.8]	26.2[23.4-32.9]	30.5[24.8-36.9]	0.242
(TMA) [min]				
At discharge (native blood				
sample)				
Reaction Time (R) [min]	9.1[6.3-11.8]	10.6[6.3-11.8]	8.9[6.5-11.4]	0.865
Kinetics (K) [min]	3.2[1.9-4.0]	3.5[1.9-3.9]	2.7[1.9-4.4]	0.864
Angle [degrees]	53[46-65]	52[49-65]	58[41-64]	0.884
Maximum Amplitude (MA)	73[68-77]	73[69-77]	72[66-79]	0.990
[mm]				

LY30 [%]	0.8[0-4.7]	0.6[0.1-8.0]	1.1[0-3.9]	0.741
LY60 [%]	3.5[1.2-9.7]	3.5[1.9-13.4]	3.7[1.2-9.5]	0.576
Time to Maximum Amplitude	30.6[22.2-33.6]	31.6[22.2-34.3]	27.0[22.2-32.1]	0.444
(TMA) [min]				
At 6-8 weeks (native blood				
sample)				
Reaction Time (R) [min]	9.8[7.6-12.3]	9.7[8.0-12.3]	10.0[7.2-12.3]	0.882
Kinetics (K) [min]	2.6[1.9-3.6]	2.8[1.9-3.5]	2.6[1.9-3.8]	0.974
Angle [degrees]	58[49-65]	58[49-65]	61[49-64]	0.691
Maximum Amplitude (MA)	75[71-79]	76[69-79]	74[72-79]	0.817
[mm]				
LY30 [%]	1.0[0.1-2.2]	1.2[0.1-2.1]	0.6[0.1-2.9]	0.855
LY60 [%]	4.0[1.6-6.1]	4.0[1.8-6.1]	3.3[1.6-6.3]	0.585
Time to Maximum Amplitude	29.1[22.1-34.8]	27.0[20.6-33.7]	29.7[24.9-35.8]	0.260
(TMA) [min]				
Baseline (Kaolin added)				
Reaction Time (R) [min]	5.1[3.2-5.9]	5.2[3.2-6.1]	5.0[3.5-5.9]	0.750
Kinetics (K) [min]	1.2[1.1-1.4]	1.2[1.0-1.6]	1.2[1.1-1.4]	0.873
Angle [degrees]	72[67-74]	71[67-75]	72[69-74]	0.811
Maximum Amplitude (MA)	76[72-81]	76[71-81]	76[74-79]	0.812
[mm]				
LY30 [%]	1.1[0.2-4.3]	1.2[0-3.7]	1.0[0.3-5.4]	0.404
LY60 [%]	4.5[2.0-8.1]	3.6[1.5-7.7]	5.4[2.3-8.2]	0.439
Time to Maximum Amplitude	20.8[17.7-23.8]	21.5[18.4-24.4]	19.6[16.9-23.8]	0.300
(TMA) [min]				
At discharge (Kaolin added)				
Reaction Time (R) [min]	5.3[3.6-7.2]	5.9[3.8-7.2]	5.2[3.6-7.3]	0.919
Kinetics (K) [min]	1.3[1.1-1.5]	1.3[1.1-1.5]	1.2[1.2-1.5]	0.859
Angle [degrees]	72[67-75]	71[68-75]	72[67-74]	0.841
Maximum Amplitude (MA)	78[74-81]	76[75-80]	78[74-82]	0.606
[mm]				
LY30 [%]	2.1[0.7-4.9]	1.8[0.6-4.8]	3.1[0.9-5.2]	0.624
LY60 [%]	5.9[3.3-10.5]	5.1[3.2-9.5]	7.3[4.2-12.0]	0.473

Time to Maximum Amplitude	20.7[17.9-23.4]	21.1[17.8-23.4]	20.2[18.4-23.2]	0.753
(TMA) [min]				
At 6-8 weeks (Kaolin added)				
Reaction Time (R) [min]	5.7[3.9-7.3]	5.0[3.3-7.3]	6.6[4.3-7.3]	0.706
Kinetics (K) [min]	1.4[1.1-1.7]	1.4[1.0-1.6]	1.4[1.2-1.8]	0.490
Angle [degrees]	71[66-74]	71[69-75]	71[66-74]	0.544
Maximum Amplitude (MA)	78[75-82]	78[77-82]	77[74-82]	0.530
[mm]				
LY30 [%]	2.0[0.5-3.8]	2.1[0.1-3.1]	2.0[0.5-4.4]	0.367
LY60 [%]	5.0[2.4-7.5]	5.3[2.1-7.4]	3.7[2.5-7.5]	0.786
Time to Maximum Amplitude	21.0[17.4-25.8]	21.0[17.9-23.7]	20.7[17.4-25.9]	0.858
(TMA) [min]				

797 Values are median [IQR] except * where are mean \pm standard deviation.

798 LT: lysis time, OT: occlusion time. For explanation of abbreviation of TEG indices, see

799 Table 2.