

# Myocardial Infarction

Temporal trends over the past three decades

# myo cardial infarct ion

Sjoerd T Nauta



Myocardial infarction:  
temporal trends over the past three decades

Myocardial infarction: temporal trends over the past three decades

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Myocardial infarction: temporal trends over the past three decades

Ziekten van de kransvaten: temporele ontwikkelingen over de afgelopen drie decennia

**Proefschrift**

**ter verkrijging van de graad van doctor aan de  
Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam  
op gezag van de  
rector magnificus**

Prof.dr. H.A.P. Pols

**en volgens besluit van het College voor Promoties.  
De openbare verdediging zal plaatsvinden op**

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**Sjoerd Toussaint Nauta**

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# Table of Contents

<b>Chapter 1</b>	Introduction	1
<b>Chapter 2</b>	Aim and thesis outline	7

## **PART I Changes in clinical profile, treatment, and mortality**

<b>Chapter 3</b>	Changes in clinical profile, treatment, and mortality in patients hospitalised for acute myocardial infarction between 1985 and 2008	13
------------------	--	----

Sjoerd T Nauta, Jaap W Deckers, Martijn Akkerhuis  
Mattie Lenzen, Maarten L Simoons, Ron T van Domburg

PLoS One. 2011;6(11):e26917

<b>Chapter 4</b>	Decline in 20-year mortality after myocardial infarction in patients with chronic kidney disease: evolution from the prethrombolysis to the percutaneous coronary intervention era	33
------------------	--	----

Sjoerd T Nauta, Ron T van Domburg, Rutger-Jan Nuis  
Martijn Akkerhuis, Jaap W Deckers

Kidney Int. 2013 Aug;84(2):353-8

<b>Chapter 5</b>	Effect of anemia on short- and long-term outcome in patients hospitalized for acute coronary syndromes	53
------------------	--	----

John O Younge, Sjoerd T Nauta, K Martijn Akkerhuis  
Jaap W Deckers, Ron T van Domburg

Am J Cardiol. 2012 Feb 15;109(4):506-10

## **PART II Ageing and glucose metabolisms: emerging risk factors**

<b>Chapter 6</b>	Age-dependent care and long-term (20year) mortality of 14,434 myocardial infarction patients: Changes from 1985 to 2008	73
------------------	---	----

Sjoerd T Nauta, Jaap W Deckers,  
K Martijn Akkerhuis, Ron T van Domburg

Int J Cardiol. 2013 Aug 10;167(3):693-7

<b>Chapter 7</b>	Short- and long-term mortality after myocardial infarction in patients with and without diabetes mellitus: changes from 1985 to 2008	89
	Sjoerd T Nauta, Jaap W Deckers, K Martijn Akkerhuis, Ron T van Domburg Diabetes Care. 2012 Oct;35(10):2043-7	

<b>Chapter 8</b>	Relation of admission glucose levels, short- and long-term (20-Year) mortality after acute myocardial infarction	105
	Jaap W Deckers, Ron T van Domburg, K Martijn Akkerhuis, Sjoerd T Nauta Am J Cardiol. 2013 Nov 1;112(9):1306-10	

### **PART III Gender differences**

<b>Chapter 9</b>	Sex-related trends in mortality in hospitalized men and women after myocardial infarction between 1985 and 2008: equal benefit for women and men	123
	Sjoerd T Nauta, Jaap W Deckers Ron T van Domburg, K Martijn Akkerhuis Circulation. 2012 Oct 30;126(18):2184-9	

<b>Chapter 10</b>	Relative survival estimates provide patients with prior myocardial infarction with additional insight into their long-term (20-year) prognosis	141
	Sjoerd T Nauta, Paul W Dickman, Ron T van Domburg, Liza van Steenbergen, Maryska LG Janssen-Heijnen, Jaap W Deckers, Isabella Kardys Accepted with minor revision. American Heart Journal 2013	

### **PART IV Traditional risk factors**

<b>Chapter 11</b>	Risk factors for coronary heart disease and survival after myocardial infarction	159
	Sjoerd T Nauta, Jaap W Deckers, Robert M van der Boon K Martijn Akkerhuis, Ron T van Domburg Eur J Prev Cardiol. 2012 Sep 13	



## **PART V Percutaneous coronary interventions**

- |                   |   |            |
|-------------------|---|------------|
| <b>Chapter 12</b> | <b>Seven-year safety and efficacy of the unrestricted use of drug-eluting stents in saphenous vein bypass grafts</b>  | <b>179</b> |
|                   | <p>Sjoerd T Nauta, Nicolas M van Mieghem, Michael Magro<br/>Jaap W Deckers, Cihan Simsek, Robert-Jan van Geuns,<br/>Wim J van der Giessen, Peter De Jaegere, Evelyn Regar,<br/>Ron T van Domburg, Patrick W Serruys</p> <p>Catheter Cardiovasc Interv. 2012 May 1;79(6):912-8</p> |            |
| <b>Chapter 13</b> | <b>Weekend versus weekday mortality in ST-segment elevation acute myocardial infarction patients between 1985 and 2008</b>  | <b>199</b> |
|                   | <p>Sanne M Snelder, Sjoerd T Nauta, K Martijn Akkerhuis<br/>Jaap W Deckers, Ron T van Domburg</p> <p>Int J Cardiol. 2013 Sep 30;168(2):1576-7</p>   |            |
| <b>Chapter 14</b> | <b>Value of the SYNTAX score in patients treated by primary percutaneous coronary intervention for acute ST-elevation myocardial infarction: the MI SYNTAXscore study</b>   | <b>209</b> |
|                   | <p>Michael Magro, Sjoerd T Nauta, Cihan Simsek, Yoshinobu Onuma,<br/>Scot Garg, Elco van der Heide, Willem J van der Giessen, Eric Boersma,<br/>Ron T van Domburg, Robert-Jan van Geuns, Patrick W Serruys</p> <p>Am Heart J. 2011 Apr;161(4):771-81</p>                          |            |
| <b>Chapter 15</b> | <b>Usefulness of the SYNTAX score to predict “no reflow” in patients treated with primary percutaneous coronary intervention for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction</b>   | <b>233</b> |
|                   | <p>Michael Magro, Sjoerd T Nauta, Cihan Simsek, Eric Boersma<br/>Elco van der Heide, Evelyn Regar, Ron T van Domburg, Felix Zijlstra<br/>Patrick W Serruys, Robert-Jan van Geuns</p> <p>Am J Cardiol. 2012 Mar 1;109(5):601-6.</p>  |            |
| <b>Chapter 16</b> | <b>The new European Society of Cardiology guidelines on myocardial revascularisation: an appraisal</b>  | <b>249</b> |
|                   | <p>Sjoerd T Nauta, Marcia Gaspersz, Jaap W DeckersW</p> <p>Heart. 2012 Jan;98(1):11-4</p>   |            |
| <b>Chapter 17</b> | <b>ESC-EACTS guidelines: myocardial revascularization</b>   | <b>265</b> |
|                   | <p>Jaap W Deckers, Sharif Khatibi, Yongzhao Feng, Sjoerd T Nauta</p> <p>Hospital Cardiology Europe. 2012;1:9-11</p>   |            |

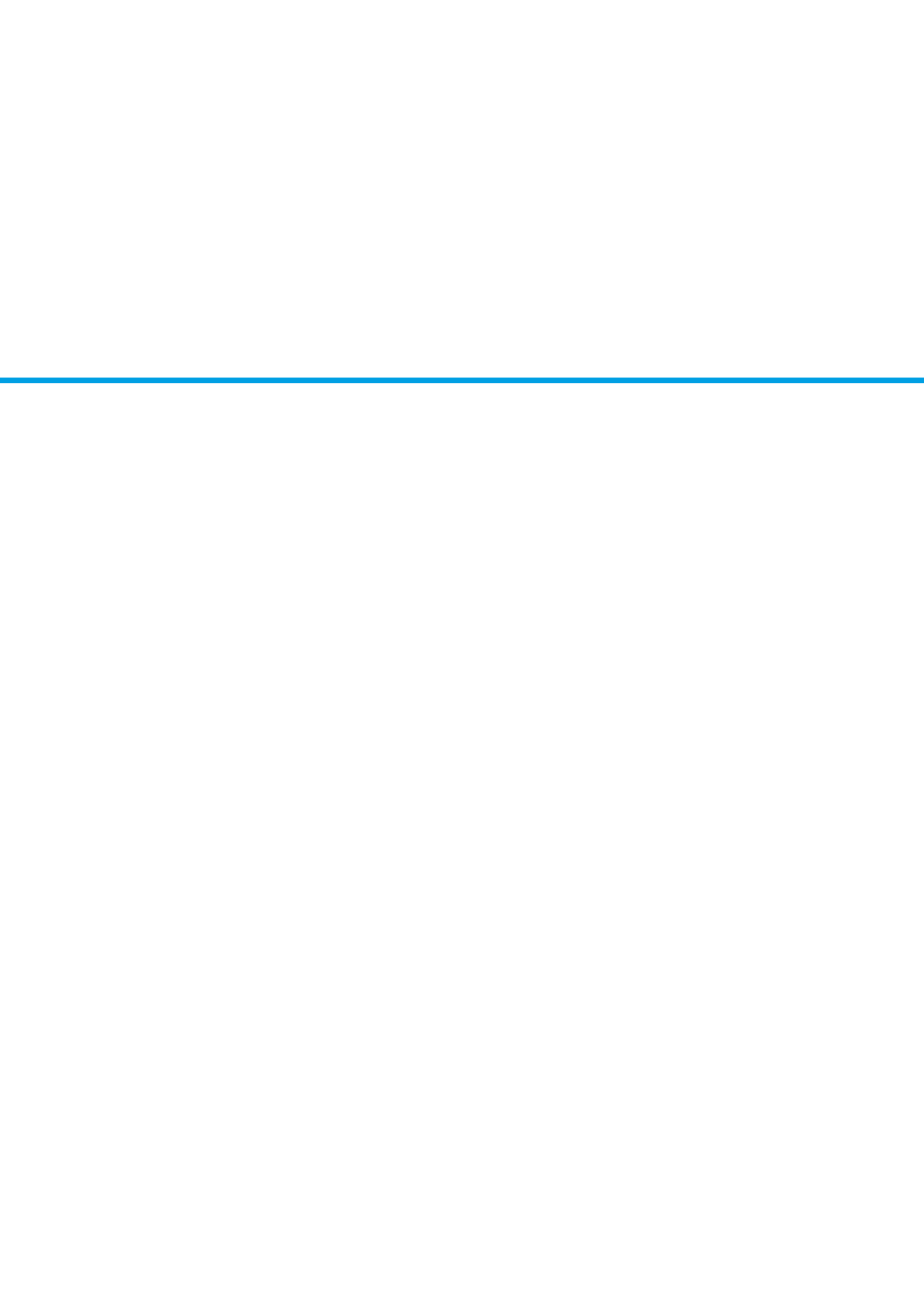
## **PART VI Methodology**

<b>Chapter 18</b>	Choosing an appropriate control group for an observational study design	279
	Sjoerd T Nauta, Ron T van Domburg	
	Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf. 2012 Mar;21(3):341	
<b>Chapter 19</b>	Tools & Techniques: Analysis of clustered data in interventional cardiology – current practice and methodological advice	285
	Hester Lingsma, Sjoerd T Nauta, Nikki van Leeuwen Gerard Borsboom, Nico Bruining, Ewout Steyerberg	
	EuroIntervention. 2013 May 20;9(1):162-4	

## **PART VII Discussion**

<b>Chapter 20</b>	Summary and discussion	307
<b>Chapter 21</b>	Conclusion	317
<b>Chapter 22</b>	About the author	321
<b>Chapter 23</b>	PHD portfolio	325
<b>Chapter 24</b>	List of publications	329





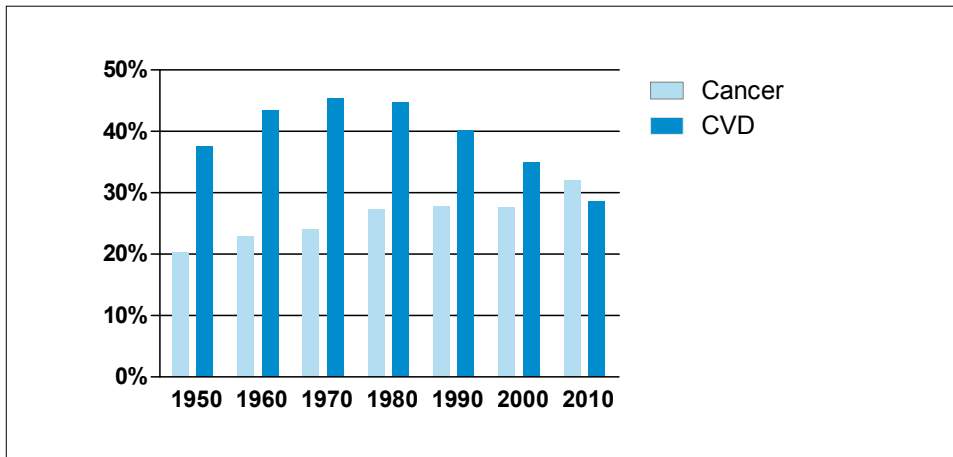
# Chapter 1

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## Introduction

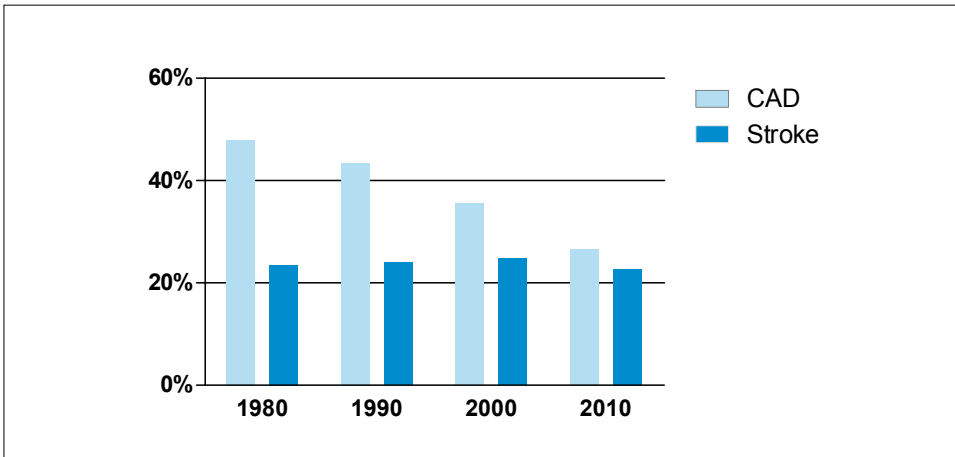
### Background: population based approach

During the past three decades cardiovascular disease has been the primary cause of death in the western world.<sup>[1]</sup> Mortality due to cardiovascular disease was highest in the late 1980s, claiming over 50 000 deaths in the Netherlands each year (>40% of total mortality). From 1985 onwards, however, mortality due to cardiovascular diseases gradually decreased, whereas mortality due to cancer became more prominent (Figure 1).



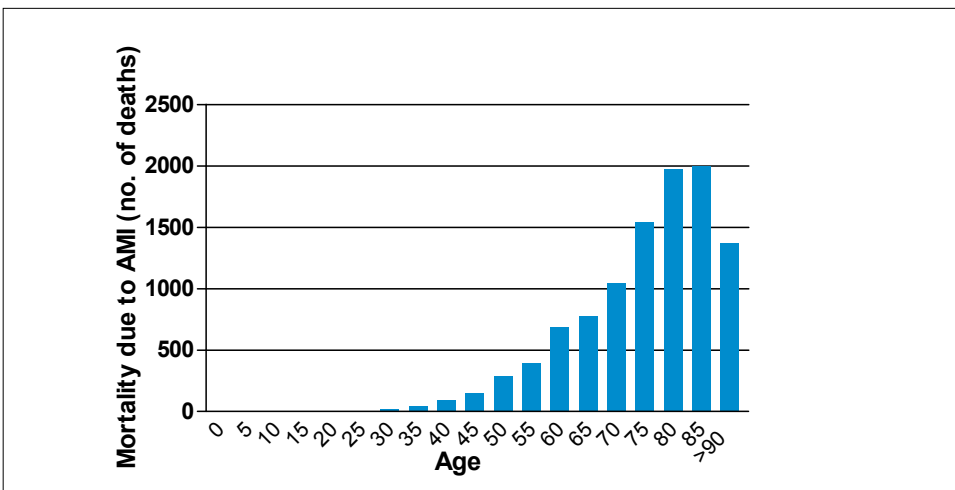
**Figure 1:** Number of deaths due to cancer and cardiovascular disease as a percentage of the total number of deaths for separate years between 1950 and 2010 (source: [www.cbs.nl](http://www.cbs.nl)). CVD, cardiovascular disease.

Coronary artery disease has been and remains the main clinical manifestation of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality: in 1980 half of the cardiovascular mortality was due to coronary artery disease whereas less than a quarter resulted from cerebrovascular disease. In particular, the mortality due to coronary artery disease has decreased over the past decades (Figure 2).

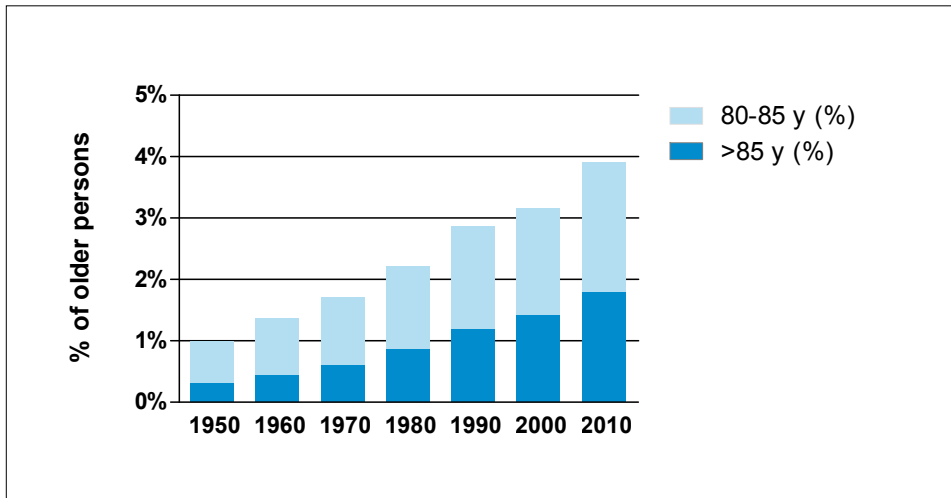


**Figure 2:** Number of deaths due to coronary artery disease and stroke as a percentage of the number of deaths due to cardiovascular disease for separate years between 1980 and 2010 (source: [www.cbs.nl](http://www.cbs.nl)). CAD, coronary artery disease.

Interestingly, deaths from coronary artery disease occur primarily in the elderly (Figure 3). Given that the population is aging (Figure 4), the true (age corrected) mortality reduction is more substantial than the above figures suggest.



**Figure 3:** Number of deaths due to acute myocardial infarction in 2010 for each age group (source: [www.cbs.nl](http://www.cbs.nl)). AMI, acute myocardial infarction.



**Figure 4:** The aging population: number of individuals aged 80 or 85 years or older in the total population for separate years between 1960 and 2010 (source: www.cbs.nl).

## Treatment

During the last 30 years, treatment of coronary artery disease has made substantial progress. The introduction of thrombolysis, percutaneous coronary intervention, aspirin, beta-blockers, ace inhibitors, statins, and novel anticoagulants should be mentioned in particular.<sup>[2]</sup> The effectiveness of these therapies have been extensively demonstrated in randomized controlled trials, however, the combined impact of these treatments remains unknown.

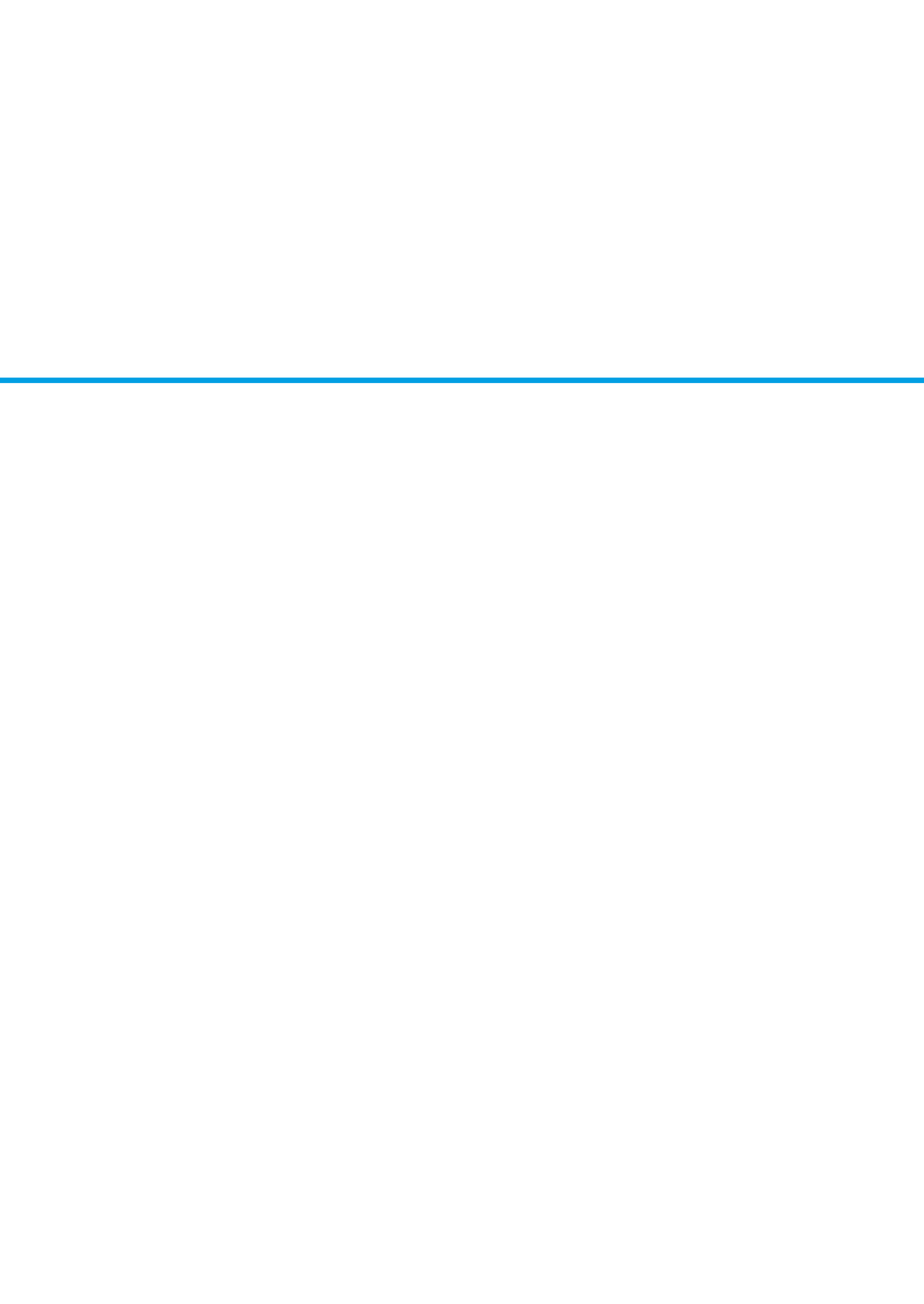
## Risk factors

In addition to changes in treatment and demographical developments (i.e. an aging population), the clinical presenting characteristics and comorbidity of patients with coronary artery disease has changed as well. Clinical characteristics or risk factors can be used to predict adverse events. Also, comorbidity and risk factors can be used to tailor treatment, with more aggressive treatment in high risk patients and alternative treatment modalities for patients at lower risk, with comorbidity or conditions preventing the application of some treatment modality. For these reasons, it remains important to study changes in treatment and outcome in conjunction with changes in such risk factors.



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# Chapter 2

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Aim and thesis outline



The aim of this thesis was to expand the knowledge on treatment, outcome and risk factors for adverse outcome in coronary artery disease patients with focus on changes therein during the past three decades.

The outline of the thesis is as follows. Part I highlights changes in clinical profile, treatment and mortality in patients hospitalized for acute myocardial infarction (Chapter 3). Chapters 4 and 5 evaluate the changes in treatment and outcome of patients with either renal dysfunction or anemia.

Part II focuses on emerging risk factors. During the past decades, the population has been aging with an increase in pre-diabetes (hyperglycemia) and diabetes mellitus type II. These changes are discussed in chapters 6 to 8.

Part III addresses gender issues and focuses on prognosis of myocardial infarction patients compared with age and gender matched patients of the general population.

Part IV focuses on traditional risk factors: diabetes, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, and family history of coronary artery disease. These risk factors are useful in the prediction of cardiovascular disease in patients with no prior history of cardiovascular disease. However, their value in myocardial infarction patients is controversial.

Part V focuses on percutaneous coronary interventions. The results of percutaneous coronary intervention in saphenous bypass grafts is discussed in chapter 12. The predictive value of the SYNTAX risk score is discussed in chapters 13 and 14. Since primary percutaneous coronary interventions might be delayed during the weekend days, chapter 15 focuses on the so called 'weekend effect' with possibly higher mortality rates during the weekend. Chapters 16 and 17 focus on the current revascularization guidelines.

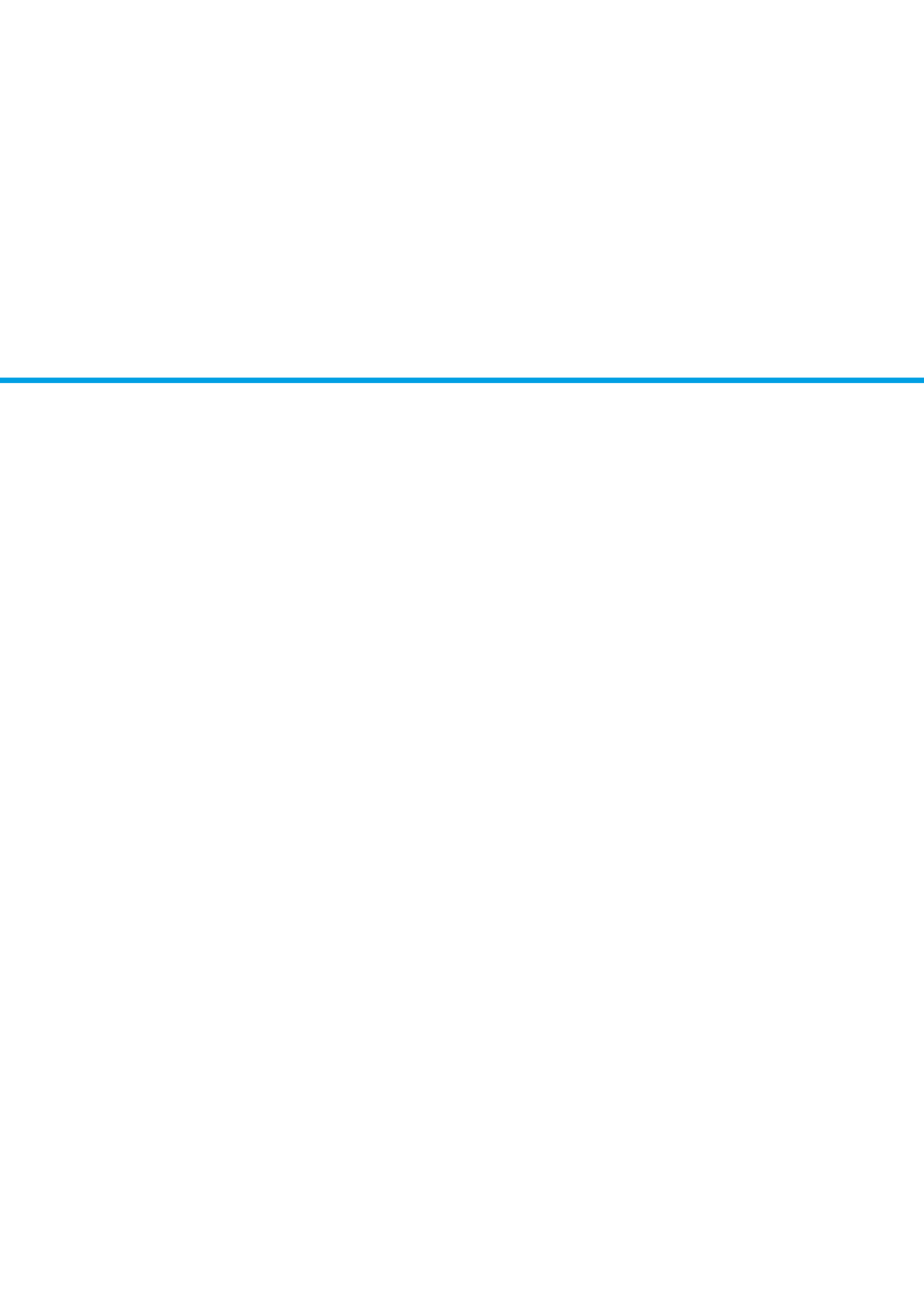
Part VI of this thesis focuses on methodological issues related to clinical research. Specifically, chapter 18 describes how an appropriate control group could be selected and chapter 19 is a tutorial for analyses of clustered data.



Part I

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Changes in clinical  
profile, treatment,  
and mortality





# Chapter 3

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## Changes in clinical profile, treatment, and mortality in patients hospitalised for acute myocardial infarction between 1985 and 2008

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Mattie Lenzen  
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## Abstract

### Objectives

To quantify the impact of the implementation of treatment modalities into clinical practice since 1985, on outcome of patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) or non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI).

### Methods

All consecutive patients admitted for STEMI or NSTEMI at the Thoraxcenter between 1985 and 2008 were included. Baseline characteristics, pharmacological and invasive treatment modalities, and survival status were collected. The study population was categorised in three groups of patients: those hospitalised between 1985-1990; 1990-2000; and 2000-2008.

### Results

We identified 14,434 patients hospitalised for myocardial infarction (MI). Both STEMI and NSTEMI patients were increasingly treated with current guideline based therapy. In STEMI, at 30 days following admission, cumulative mortality rate decreased from 17% in 1985-1990 to 13% in 1990-2000, and to 6% in 2000-2008. Adjusted 30-day and three-year mortality in the last period was 80% and 68% lower than in 1985, respectively. In NSTEMI, at 30 days following admission, cumulative mortality rate decreased from 6% in 1985-1990 to 4% in 1990-2000, and to 2% in 2000-2008. Adjusted 30-day and three-year mortality in the last period was 78% and 49% lower than in 1985, respectively. For patients admitted between 2000 and 2008, 3 year survival of STEMI and NSTEMI patients was 87% and 88%, respectively.

### Conclusions

Our results indicate substantial improvements in acute- and long-term survival in patients hospitalised for MI, related to improved acute- as well as long-term treatment. Early medical evaluation in suspected MI and intensive early hospital treatment both remain warranted in the future.

### Keywords

*ST-segment* elevation myocardial infarction, non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction, Survival, Trends

## Introduction

During the last 25 years, the management of patients presenting with an acute myocardial infarction (MI) has undergone many transformations. Until 1984, treatment was limited to providing symptomatic relief, and management of complications as arrhythmia's, acute heart failure, or post-infarction angina. In the 1980s, the introduction of antithrombotic treatment with aspirin and intravenous (or intra-coronary) fibrinolysis resulted in significant mortality reductions in patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI).<sup>[1]</sup> In the nineties, pre-hospital identification ("triage") of patients with an acute myocardial infarction with an indication for reperfusion therapy and subsequent immediate (pre-hospital) initiation of thrombolytic treatment was introduced in some areas.<sup>[2,3]</sup> Although more effective thrombolytic agents became available,<sup>[4]</sup> reperfusion of the infarct-related vessel often failed,<sup>[5]</sup> and bleeding complications were a limiting factor of fibrinolysis.<sup>[6]</sup> Gradually, mechanical percutaneous techniques improved, and in the last decade primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) became the treatment of choice in patients presenting with a STEMI.<sup>[7,8]</sup>

In the same time period, patients with non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI) benefitted from improved anti-thrombotic and anti-coagulant therapy,<sup>[9]</sup> better risk stratification and tailored treatment with selective coronary revascularization in high risk patients.<sup>[9,10,11,12]</sup> Additionally, effective secondary prevention was introduced with aspirin, beta-blockers, statins, and ACE inhibitors in subjects with LV dysfunction and, subsequently, in high risk MI survivors.<sup>[13,14,15,16,17]</sup> In combination, all these developments reshaped the treatment map of the patient with an MI.<sup>[18,19,20]</sup>

The impact of the implementation of all these treatment modalities into clinical practice on outcome has not yet been fully quantified. Therefore, we analysed changes in clinical practise, treatment, and 30-day as well as three-year outcome in a consecutive series of STEMI or NSTEMI patients admitted at our institution, an academic tertiary referral center, between 1985 and 2008.

## Methods

We included all consecutive patients aged >18 years admitted for STEMI or NSTEMI to the Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU) of the Thoraxcenter, Erasmus University Medical Center between June 1985 and December 2008. The Thoraxcenter was the referral center for all PCIs in the Rotterdam region until 2005 when a second hospital started a PCI programme. Regional arrangements were made such that patients with MI were referred to either hospital according to a pre-arranged schedule.

The primary discharge diagnosis of MI was made in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a serial rise (to at least three times the upper normal value) and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such as creatine kinase-MB and troponin T (as of 2002). Patients were diagnosed as STEMI in the presence of ST-segment elevation > 0.1 mV in at least two peripheral leads, or > 0.2 mV in at least two precordial leads, and as NSTEMI otherwise. For patients admitted more than once, only the first hospitalisation was taken into account.

### **Data collection**

This is a prospective observational study. Trained physicians and nurses accustomed to the use of standardized case report forms collected the data. Demographic characteristics (age, gender), cardiac history (previous MI, PCI or coronary artery bypass surgery (CABG)), risk factors (hypertension, diabetes, family history, smoking status), renal dysfunction (creatinine value >150  $\mu\text{mol/L}$ ), and pharmacological and invasive treatment modalities (thrombolysis and PCI) were collected.

### **Follow-up and endpoints**

The primary endpoint was all cause mortality at 30 days and at three-years. In-hospital mortality was retrieved from the medical records. Survival status was assessed through municipal Civil Registries in 2010 and was available for 99% of all patients.

### **Ethics Statement**

This study has been approved by the Ethical Committee of the Erasmus Medical Center, Rotterdam. According to Dutch laws, informed consent is not required for register-based research of pre-existing personal data. Therefore, the Ethical Committee waived the need for informed consent.

### **Statistical Analysis**

Data are summarized as frequencies and percentages for categorical variables. Continuous variables are presented as mean and standard deviation or median and 25th and 75th percentile. The study population was categorised in three groups of patients, those hospitalised between 1985-1990; 1990-2000; and 2000-2008, respectively. These categories were chosen according to important improvements in therapy with complete introduction of thrombolysis in 1991 and substantial increase in the use of primary PCI in 2001. Categorized variables among the three groups were compared with the chi-square test and continuous variables by ANOVA with Bonferroni corrections. In addition, we compared changes in mortality in time periods of three year, and these changes are presented in Forrest plots.

Cumulative survival and one-minus-survival curves were constructed using the Kaplan-Meier method according to date of hospitalization as presented above. A log-rank test was used to compare survival curves. We examined the independent association between year of hospitalization and mortality using logistic regression for 30-day outcome and the Cox proportional hazards model for long-term outcome, with adjustment for age, gender, previous MI, previous CABG, diabetes, hypertension and smoking status. Results are reported as odds or hazard ratios of mortality and their respective 95% confidence intervals. Proportionality of hazards was tested graphically by inspection of log-log survival curves and by a formal test of proportionality based on Schoenfeld residuals for each variable in the model. Calibration refers to whether the model agrees with the observed probabilities and was assessed with the Hosmer-Lemeshow statistic.

All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were significant at  $<0.05$ . Analysis was performed using SPSS software version 17.0 (SPSS, Chicago, USA).

## Results

We identified 14,434 consecutive patients hospitalised for MI in our center between 1985 and 2008: 6,820 STEMI and 7,614 NSTEMI patients. At three years follow-up, mortality had occurred in 2,190 patients, 1,232 in STEMI and 958 in NSTEMI patients.

### ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction

The characteristics of the STEMI patients are depicted in Table 1. With time, STEMI patients presented older, were more likely to have diabetes, hyperlipidemia, anemia, and a history of PCI. Further, STEMI patients were less likely to present with renal dysfunction or a history of MI.

The percentage of STEMI patients treated with PCI increased gradually. Before 1985, neither intracoronary- nor intravenous thrombolytic therapy was employed, while intravenous fibrinolysis was the main treatment modality from 1985 to 1998. From 1998 onwards, treatment with thrombolysis was gradually replaced by primary PCI (Figure 1). Since our institution was initially the only hospital with PCI facilities in the region, the number of patients with STEMI admitted increased as a result of the decision to offer primary PCI to all STEMI patients in the Rotterdam Region. In the most recent cohort, drug therapy with aspirin, beta-blockers, statins, and ACE inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers was quite common, but calcium antagonists, diuretics or nitrates were prescribed less frequently.

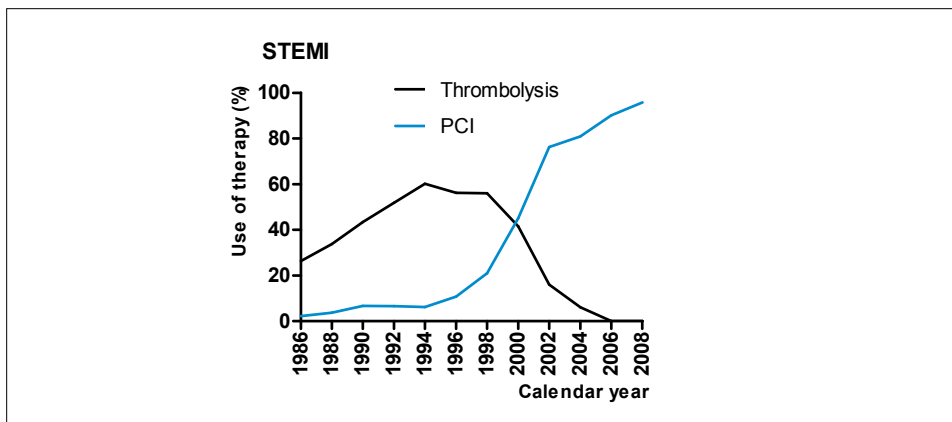


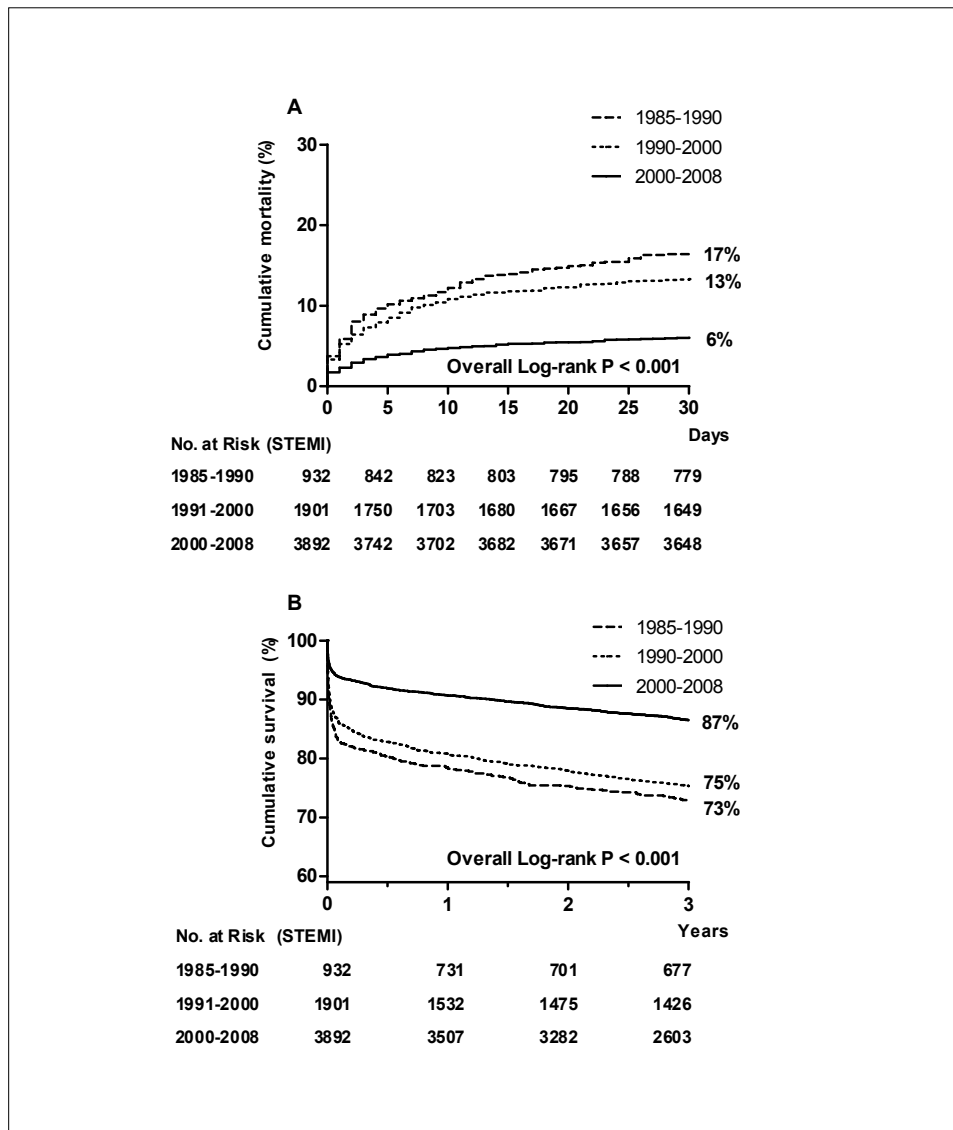
Figure 1: Treatment of STEMI patients over time

**Table 1: Baseline characteristics, clinical presentation, and discharge medication of patients hospitalised for STEMI**

	Period of admission			P
	1985-1990	1990-2000	2000-2008	
No. of patients	947	1928	3945	
<b>Baseline</b>				
Age (years)	60 ±11.6	60 ±12.7	61 ±12.6	0.01
Gender (male)	731 (77%)	1432 (74%)	2937 (75%)	0.20
<b>Cardiac history</b>				
Previous MI	334 (35%)	463 (24%)	1075 (27%)	<0.001
Previous PCI	43 (5%)	127 (7%)	653 (17%)	<0.001
Previous CABG	83 (9%)	124 (6%)	282 (7%)	0.09
<b>Risk factors</b>				
Hypertension	320 (34%)	549 (29%)	1295 (33%)	<0.01
Diabetes	79 (8%)	204 (11%)	571 (14%)	<0.001
Hyperlipidemia	76 (8%)	295 (15%)	919 (23%)	<0.001
Family history	201 (21%)	400 (21%)	1062 (27%)	<0.001
Current smoker	403 (43%)	675 (35%)	1518 (39%)	<0.001
Renal dysfunction	104 (11%)	229 (12%)	179 (5%)	<0.001
Anemia	309 (33%)	818 (42%)	1464 (37%)	<0.001
<b>Medication at ICCU discharge</b>				
Statin	0 (.)	NA	2996 (76%)	<0.001
Aspirin	97 (10%)	1200 (62%)	3510 (89%)	<0.001
Beta-blocker	412 (44%)	958 (50%)	2341 (59%)	<0.001
Calcium antagonist	306 (32%)	315 (16%)	174 (4%)	<0.001
Nitrates	220 (23%)	241 (13%)	190 (5%)	<0.001
Diuretics	334 (35%)	306 (16%)	321 (8%)	<0.001
ACE inhibitor or ARB	0 (.)	403 (21%)	1308 (33%)	<0.001

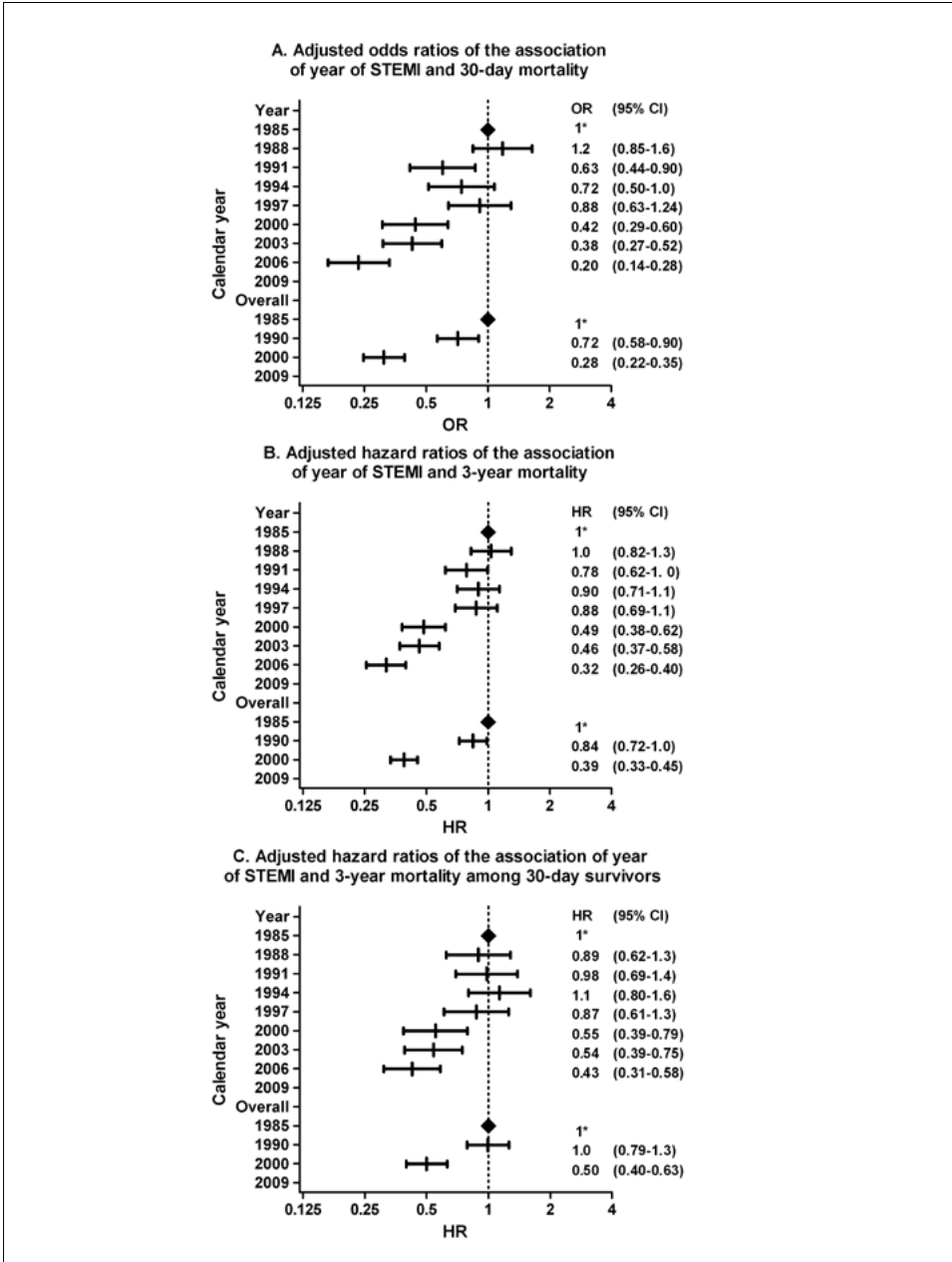
ACE, Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme; ARB, Angiotensin receptor blocker; CABG, coronary artery bypass grafting surgery; ICCU, intensive coronary care unit; MI, myocardial infarction; NA, not available; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; STEMI, ST-elevation MI.

At 30 days following admission, cumulative mortality rate decreased from 17% in 1985-1990 to 13% in 1990-2000, and to 6% in 2000-2008 ( $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 2). Adjusted 30-day mortality in the last period was 80% lower than in 1985 (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 0.20, 95%CI 0.14-0.28,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 3).



**Figure 2:** Kaplan-Meier curves for 30-day cumulative mortality (Figure 2A) or three-year cumulative survival (Figure 2B) according to calendar period of admission





**Figure 3:** Adjusted odds or hazard ratios of secular trends in mortality after STEMI at 30-days (Figure 3A), at 3-year (Figure 3B), and at 3-year among 30-day survivors (Figure 3C). The upper part of the figure compares changes in mortality in time periods of three year, the lower part among patients hospitalised between 1985-1990; 1990-2000; and 2000-2008

\* Reference category for the subsequent ratios CI, confidence interval; HR, Hazard ratio; OR, Odds ratio, STEMI, ST-elevation myocardial infarction

Cumulative three-year survival rate increased from 73% in 1985-1990 to 75% in 1990-2000 and to 87% in 2000-2008 ( $p < 0.001$ ). Adjusted three-year mortality in the last period was 68% lower than in 1985 (adjusted hazard ratio (HR) 0.32, 95%CI 0.26-0.40,  $p < 0.001$ ). In a landmark analysis, including only patients who survived the first 30 days, adjusted three-year mortality was 57% lower in the most recent period than in 1985 (adjusted HR 0.43, 95%CI 0.31-0.58,  $p < 0.001$ , Figure 3).

### **Non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction**

With time, NSTEMI patients presented older, were more likely to have hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, or anemia and less likely to be a smoker (Table 2). Furthermore, NSTEMI patients more often presented with a history of PCI and less often presented with a history of MI in the most recent study period. As in STEMI, prescription of aspirin, beta-blockers, statins, and ACE inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers increased while the use of calcium antagonists and nitrates decreased.

At 30 days following admission, cumulative mortality rate decreased from 6% in 1985-1990 to 4% in 1990-2000, and to 2% in 2000-2008 ( $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 4). Adjusted 30-day mortality in the last period was 78% lower than in 1985 (adjusted OR 0.22, 95%CI 0.13-0.37,  $p < 0.001$ ; Figure 5).

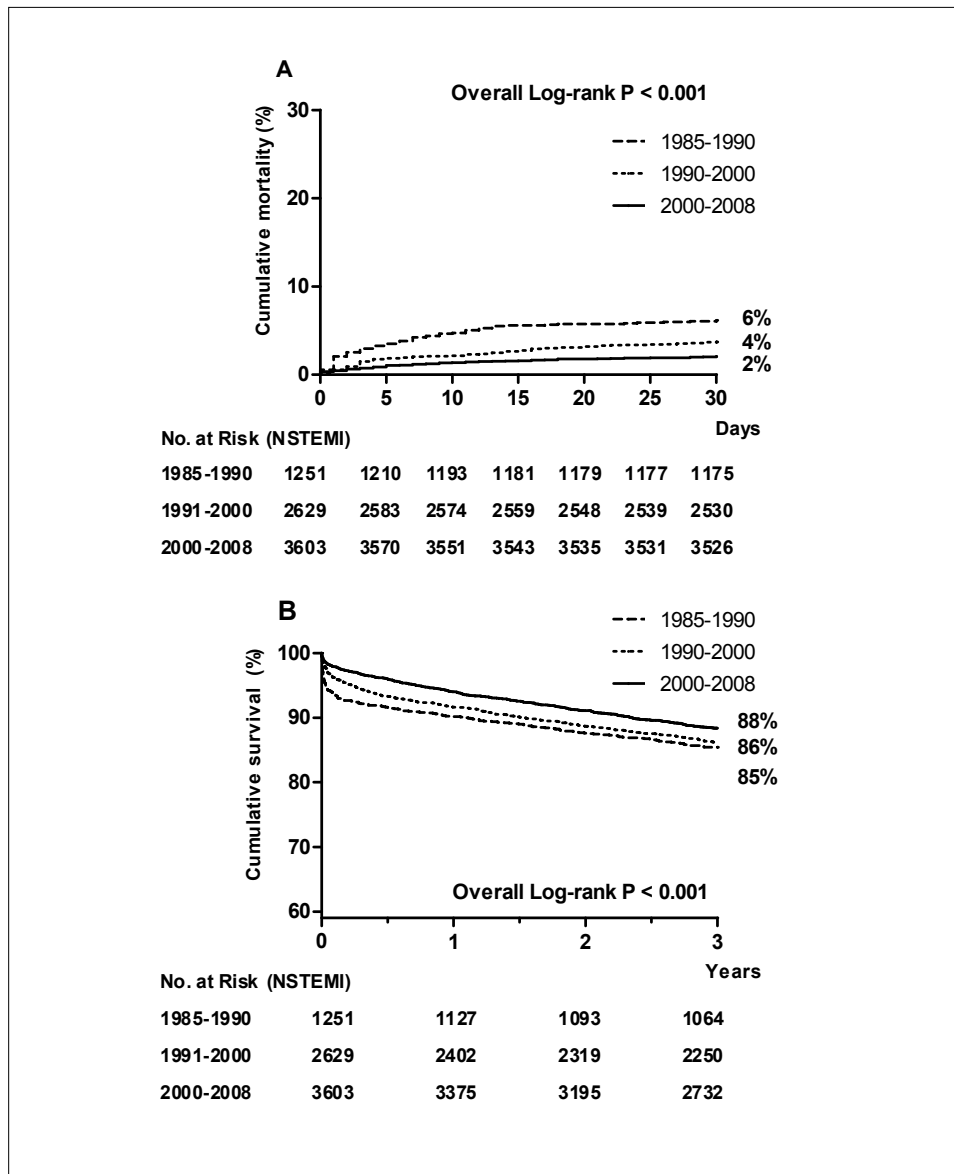
Cumulative three-year survival rate did not significantly change between 1985-1990 (85%) and 1990-2000 (86%). Three-year survival in the last period was 88% ( $p < 0.001$ ). Adjusted three-year mortality in the last period was 49% lower than in 1985 (adjusted HR 0.51, 95%CI 0.39-0.68,  $p < 0.001$ ). In a landmark analysis, including only patients who survived the first 30 days, adjusted three-year mortality was 29% lower in the most recent period than in 1985 (adjusted HR 0.71, 95%CI 0.52-0.99,  $p = 0.042$ , Figure 5).

For patients admitted between 2000 and 2008, long term survival of STEMI and NSTEMI patients was comparable, 87% and 88%, respectively (Figures 2 and 4). The higher subsequent mortality in non-STEMI patients resulted from their older age. After correction for this confounder, the risk of 30-day to three-year mortality was similar in NSTEMI and STEMI (adjusted HR 1.0, 95%CI 0.86-1.2).

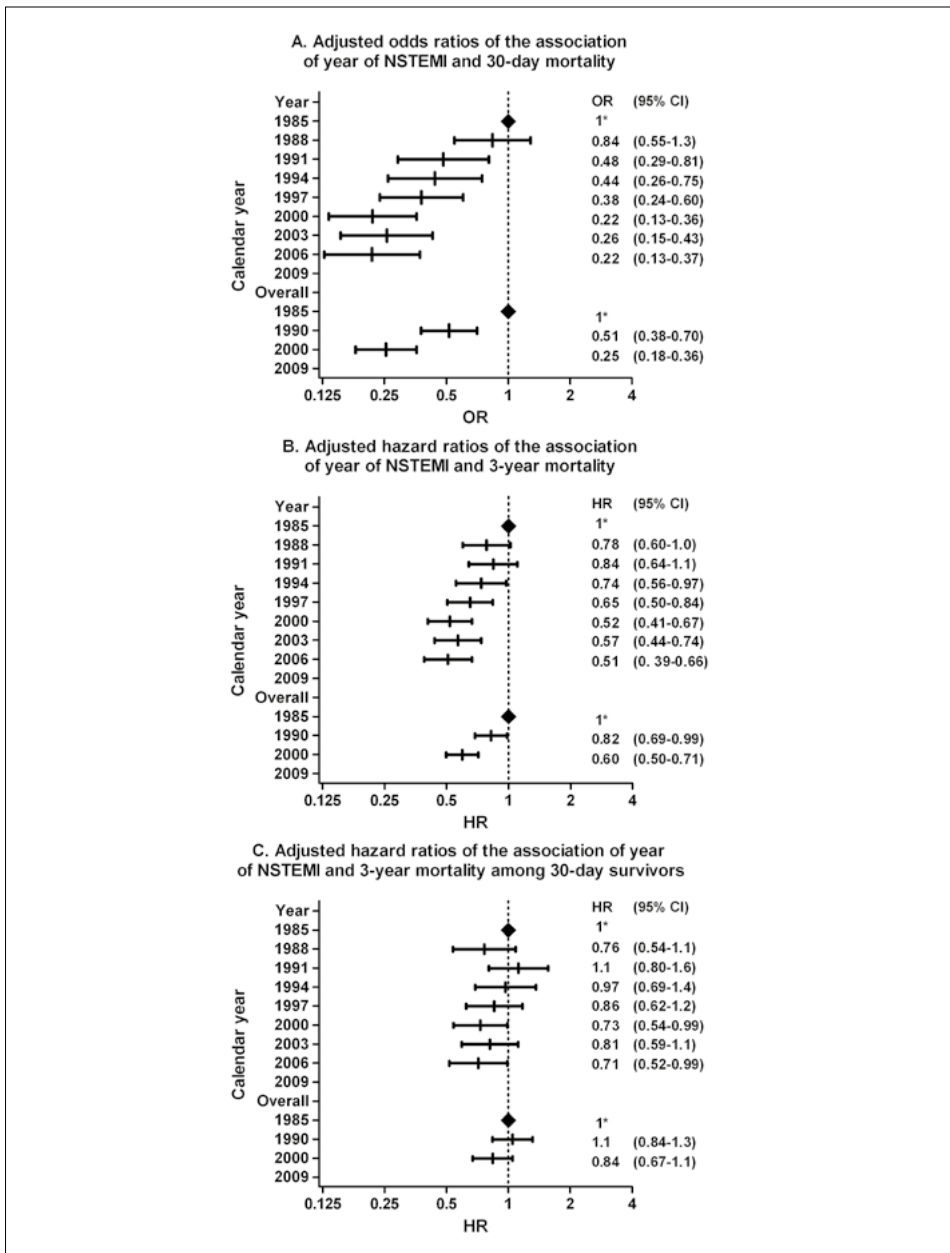
**Table 2: Baseline characteristics, clinical presentation, and discharge medication of patients hospitalised for NSTEMI**

	Period of admission			P
	1985-1990	1990-2000	2000-2008	
No. of patients	1269	2672	3673	
<b>Baseline</b>				
Age (years)	61 ±10.3	63 ±11.7	63 ±11.8	<0.001
Gender (male)	921 (73%)	1806 (68%)	2575 (70%)	<0.01
<b>Cardiac history</b>				
Previous MI	581 (46%)	1050 (39%)	1290 (35%)	<0.001
Previous PCI	130 (10%)	356 (14%)	757 (21%)	<0.001
Previous CABG	196 (15%)	292 (12%)	390 (11%)	<0.001
<b>Risk factors</b>				
Hypertension	455 (36%)	881 (34%)	1604 (44%)	<0.001
Diabetes	95 (8%)	321 (12%)	745 (20%)	<0.001
Hyperlipidemia	159 (13%)	736 (24%)	1785 (49%)	<0.001
Family history	331 (26%)	666 (25%)	1122 (31%)	<0.001
Current smoker	459 (36%)	741 (28%)	880 (24%)	<0.001
Renal dysfunction	102 (8%)	222 (8%)	349 (10%)	0.20
Anemia	489 (39%)	1153 (43%)	1783 (49%)	<0.001
<b>Medication at ICCU discharge</b>				
Statin	0 (.)	NA	1962 (68%)	<0.001
Aspirin	225 (18%)	1169 (55%)	3125 (85%)	<0.001
Beta-blocker	865 (68%)	1271 (60%)	2334 (64%)	<0.001
Calcium antagonist	884 (70%)	972 (46%)	515 (14%)	<0.001
Nitrates	475 (37%)	393 (19%)	335 (9%)	<0.001
Diuretics	240 (19%)	276 (13%)	337 (9%)	<0.001
ACE inhibitor or ARB	0 (.)	191 (7%)	1134 (31%)	<0.001

ACE, Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme; ARB, Angiotensin receptor blocker; CABG, coronary artery bypass grafting surgery; ICCU, intensive coronary care unit; MI, myocardial infarction; NA, not available; NSTEMI, non-ST-elevation MI; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention.



**Figure 4:** Kaplan-Meier curves for 30-day cumulative mortality or (Figure 4A) or three-year cumulative survival (Figure 4B) according to calendar period of admission



**Figure 5:** Adjusted odds or hazard ratios of secular trends in mortality after NSTEMI at 30- days (Figure 5A), at 3-year (Figure 5B), and at 3-year among 30-day survivors (Figure 5C). The upper part of the figures compares changes in mortality in time periods of three year, the lower part among patients hospitalised between 1985-1990; 1990-2000; and 2000-2008 \* Reference category for the subsequent ratios CI, confidence interval; NSTEMI, non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction; HR, Hazard ratio; OR, Odds ratio

## Discussion

We have shown that, during a period of almost 25 years, overall 30 day mortality in patients hospitalised for MI was reduced with 80%. In patients admitted for ST-segment elevation MI (STEMI), 30-day mortality declined from 17% to 6%. In patients with a smaller, non ST-segment elevation MI (NSTEMI) 30-day mortality declined from 6% to 2%. In addition, we demonstrated that this early survival benefit was maintained over three years of follow-up, with long term survival increasing from 73% to 87% and from 85% to 88% in STEMI and NSTEMI, respectively. The reduction in long- term all-cause mortality is illustrative of the strength of the improvement of the combined treatment effects.

There can be little doubt that such improvements have resulted from changes in medical therapy, both pharmacological as well as interventional.<sup>[20]</sup> The most important factors must have been the introduction of reperfusion therapy in the form of fibrinolytic therapy and later primary PCI for STEMI,<sup>[1,8]</sup> as well as the more frequent use of revascularization in selected patients with NSTEMI. Also, the introduction and subsequent employment of medical therapies including statins, and ACE inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers must have played a role. Of course, patient characteristics also gradually changed during the observation period. However, most of the observed alterations in our patient's phenotypes, like increasing age and more co-morbidity such as diabetes and renal dysfunction, have previously been associated with impaired outcomes and do not account for the observed outcome improvement. A reduction in case fatality in spite of treating older patients with co-morbidity has also been observed in other observational studies.<sup>[20,21,22]</sup> Earlier clinical presentation could have contributed to improved prognosis, but we found no evidence for this.

Better primary prevention could have influenced the severity of the acute clinical event, and better secondary prevention must also have contributed significantly. Exact details of the medication use of our patients after discharge are not known, but registries in our region in 1995, 2001 and 2006 indicated that the use of preventive medication significantly intensified during that time.<sup>[14]</sup> For instance, statins were used by 36%, 72% and 93% of the patients respectively, with a subsequent drop in

mean cholesterol level from 6.2 mmol/l in 1995 to 4.2 mmol/l in 2006. Aspirin was used by >90% of the patients from 1995 onwards, and smoking trends decreased from 32% to 15% between 1995 and 2006.<sup>[14]</sup>

With time, the number of patients admitted with myocardial infarction increased. This was mainly the result of changes in referrals: when primary PCI became the treatment of choice in STEMI patients, they were specifically referred to our center from 2000 onwards. Our STEMI patients can therefore be considered to be representative for this syndrome and we thus believe that the decrease in mortality in this group is broadly illustrative of current clinical practice. The number of NSTEMI patients also increased. Most likely, this was also due to changes in referrals, in particular of high risk patients in whom invasive therapy was warranted. Therefore, our population with this type of acute coronary syndrome will probably be less representative for that group at large. Still, given their already low mortality, the further decline in 30-day mortality in this group with time was also impressive.

Other studies, such as The National Registry of Myocardial Infarction, Worcester Heart Attack Study and Minnesota Heart Survey,<sup>[19,20,23,24,25,26,27,28]</sup> have described prognostic time trends after acute MI, but none of these covered both i) secular trends for a period longer than 10 years from 1990 and ii) follow-up data after the first 30-days; as the present study does.

Although the present study thus has unique strengths, some of its limitations must be emphasized. First, the present data are derived from a single center. Although this will have enhanced the quality of the data and the observed secular trends, this could result in a lower external validity. However, this is unlikely, since a nation wide study in Sweden and a state wide study in the US reported quite comparable results.<sup>[21,29]</sup> Second, based on our data, it is not possible to establish changes in MI incidence as other studies have shown. Still, the increasing age of our population provides indirect evidence of a lower incidence rate of myocardial infarction. Lastly, the current report is based on hospitalised patients, and we are therefore unable to assess the changes in mortality of all patients who suffered a myocardial infarction but died before clinical presentation.

## Conclusions

Our results indicate very substantial improvements in acute and long term survival in patients hospitalised for MI, related to improved acute- as well as long-term treatment. Since the early survival benefit is maintained over time, the present results emphasize that efforts to further reduce in-hospital mortality must be rigorously pursued, and that early medical evaluation in suspected MI and intensive early hospital treatment remain warranted. Although one might envisage even lower hospital mortality rates associated with acute MI in the future, absolute treatment benefits will become smaller because of the current low mortality levels. Indirectly therefore, our data emphasize the need for better and more effective primary prevention, as well as the necessity to target high risk MI subgroups such as the elderly and those with heart failure.

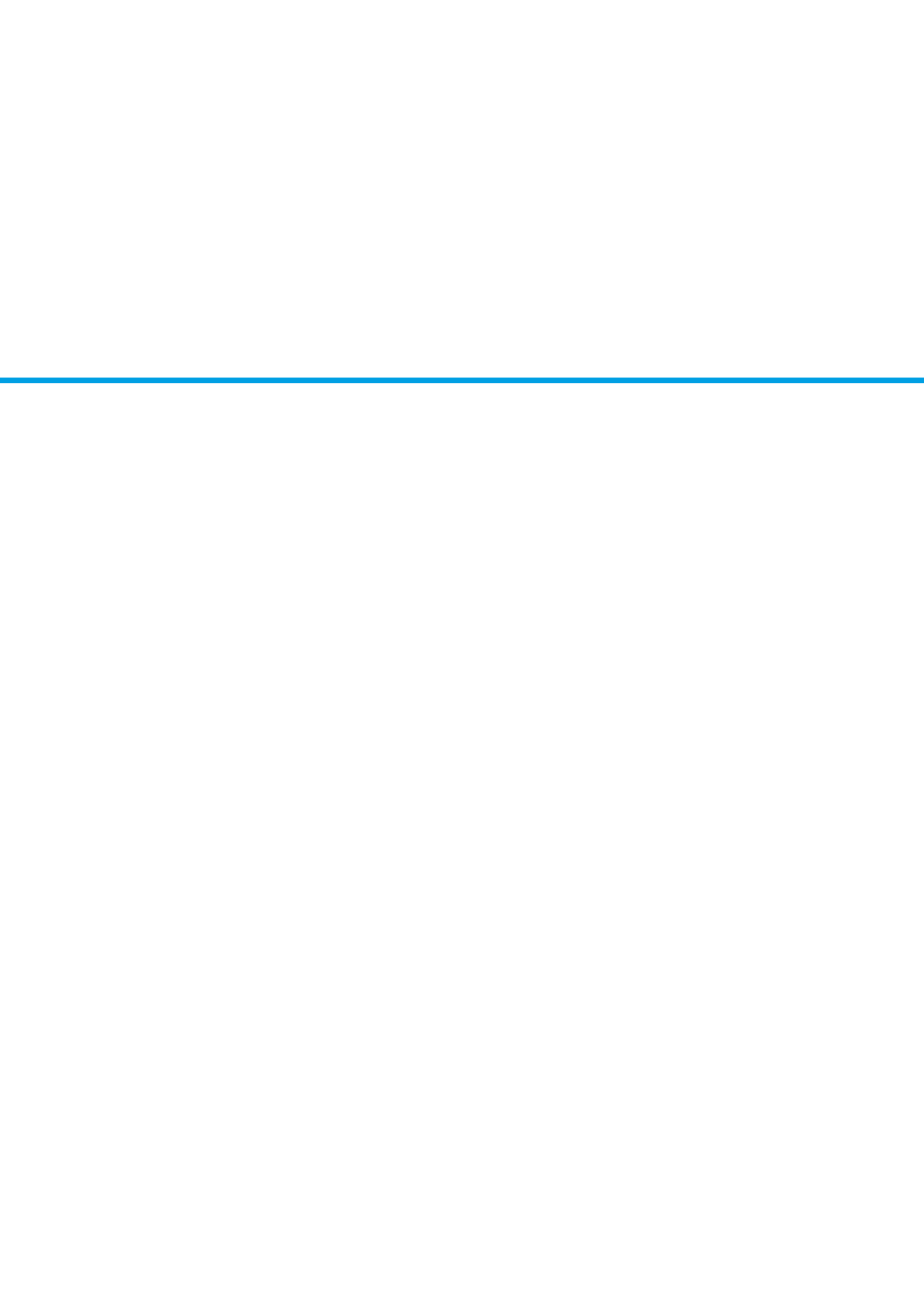


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# Chapter 4

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## Decline in 20-year mortality after myocardial infarction in patients with chronic kidney disease: evolution from the prethrombolysis to the percutaneous coronary intervention era

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## Abstract

Cardiovascular disease is the main cause of death in patients with renal impairment. We examined temporal trends in treatment and mortality after myocardial infarction (MI) depending on renal function at presentation. Therefore, we studied 12 087 patients admitted for MI to a coronary care unit from 1985 to 2008. In line with the Kidney Foundation practice guidelines patients were categorized into normal renal function (eGFR >90 ml/min per 1.73 m<sup>2</sup>) stage 2 (60-89), stage 3 (30-59), and stage 4-5 (<30) chronic kidney disease (CKD). A total of 8632 (71%) of the 12 087 patients had stage 2-5 CKD. Use of evidence-based care increased over time in all groups according to renal function. Mortality rates fell over the period. Adjusted 30-day mortality fell (adjusted odds (2000-2008 vs. 1985-1990) 0.33 (95% CI 0.18-0.60) in patients with stage 4-5 CKD, and 0.21 (95% CI 0.10-0.42) in those without renal impairment). This mortality decrease sustained during long-term follow-up. There was no significant interaction between renal function and decade of admission. Overall, median survival was >20, 15, 8 and 1.8 years for patients with normal renal function, stage 2, stage 3 and stage 4-5 CKD, respectively. In conclusion, during the past 25 years, treatment of patients with an MI improved substantially with a concomitant decline in mortality that was similar for all stages of renal function, however, prognosis remains poor after stage 4-5 CKD.

## Introduction

Cardiovascular disease is the single largest cause of death in patients with renal impairment or progressive primary renal disease, and these cardiovascular deaths often occur before end stage renal failure has been reached.<sup>[1]</sup> Studies of myocardial infarction (MI) have reported that MI patients with renal dysfunction have a worse in-hospital survival.<sup>[1-5]</sup> Furthermore, recent data suggests that such patients are less likely to receive evidence-based therapies, although increased usage of evidence-based medical treatment has significant potential to reduce mortality in MI patients with renal dysfunction.<sup>[6-7]</sup>

Within the past 25 years, major improvements in the treatment of MI have been implemented, including thrombolytic therapy and primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) for ST-elevation MI (STEMI), as well as more intensive management according to individual risk assessment in patients with a non-STEMI (NSTEMI).<sup>[8]</sup> A longitudinal analysis of MI patients with different stages of renal dysfunction will identify temporal changes in the use of treatment modalities, as well as temporal trends in early and late outcomes according to renal function.

Against this background, the aims of our study were threefold. First, to determine inequalities and changes in medical care in patients with MI with different levels of renal dysfunction over a 24-year period. Second, to compare temporal trends in mortality according to renal function for patients admitted with an MI. And third, to quantify the effect of different stages of renal impairment on short- and long-term mortality after MI.

## Results

### Patient characteristics

A total of 12 087 patients were included, of whom, 5 598 (46%), 2 504 (21%) and 530 (4%) had stage 2, stage 3 and stage 4-5 chronic kidney disease (CKD), respectively (Table 1). A total of 92 712 person-years were analyzed. The number of patients and total number of events after MI according to decade of hospitalization and renal function is shown in Table 2.

**Table 1: Baseline characteristics and clinical presentation of patients hospitalized for myocardial infarction according to renal function at hospitalization.**

	Renal function (eGFR) on admission				P for trend
	Normal (>90 ml/ min per 1.73 m <sup>2</sup> )	Stage 2 CKD (60 to 90)	Stage 3 CKD (30 to 60)	Stage 4-5 CKDa (<30)	
No. of patients	3455 (29%)	5598 (46%)	2504 (21%)	530 (4%)	
<b>Baseline</b>					
Age (±SD)	53±10	63±11	69±10	68±11	<0.001
Gender (female)	19%	27%	40%	37%	<0.001
<b>Cardiac history</b>					
Previous MI	30%	34%	39%	40%	<0.001
Previous PCI	15%	15%	12%	12%	<0.01
Previous CABG	7%	10%	13%	12%	<0.001
<b>Risk factors</b>					
Hypertension	31%	35%	41%	56%	<0.001
Diabetes	13%	13%	17%	24%	<0.001
Hyperlipidemia	29%	28%	22%	22%	<0.001
Family history	32%	27%	19%	14%	<0.001
Current smoker	47%	30%	20%	16%	<0.001
Anemia	19%	21%	34%	69%	<0.001
eGFR (median, IQR)	102 (94-114)	76 (69-83)	52 (45-57)	21 (12-27)	<0.001
<b>Diagnosis</b>					
STEMI	53%	43%	44%	49%	<0.001
<b>Medication at ICCU discharge</b>					
Ca-antagonist	19%	26%	30%	32%	<0.001
Diuretics	8%	12%	27%	30%	<0.001
Nitrates	10%	15%	20%	25%	<0.001
Antiarrhythmics	3%	4%	7%	8%	<0.001

CABG, coronary artery bypass surgery; ICCU, intensive coronary care unit; MI, myocardial infarction; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention.

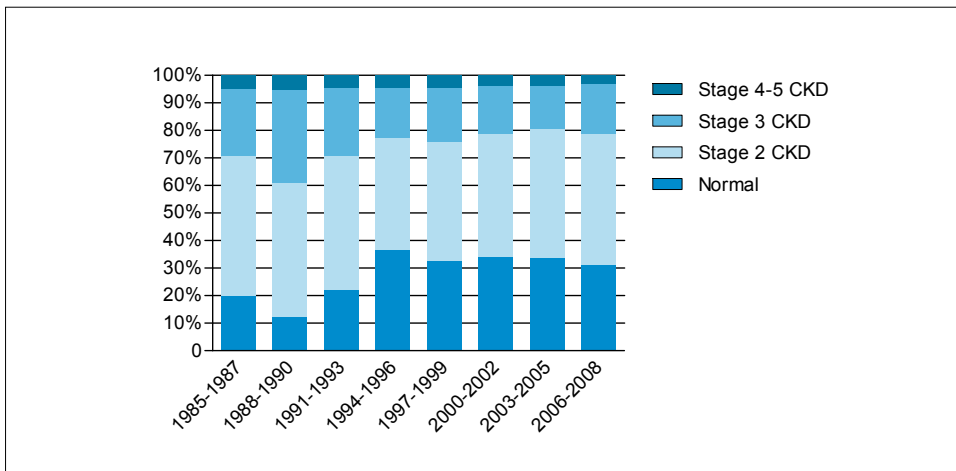


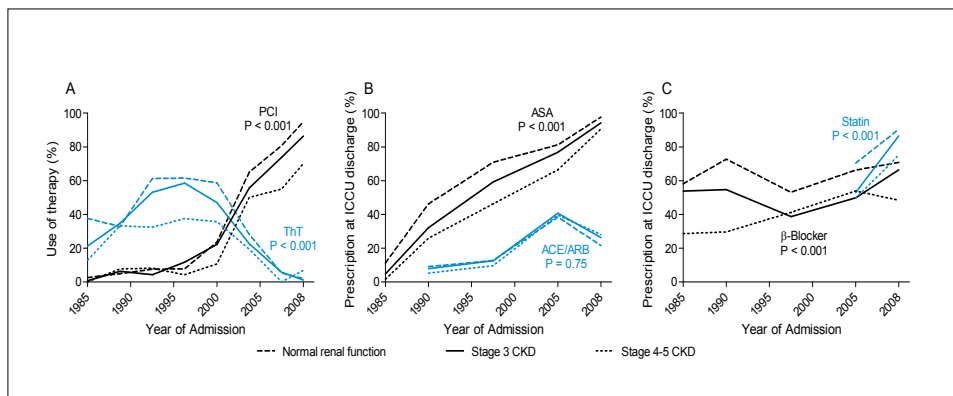
**Table 2: Study population outline: the number of patients at risk and total number of events after myocardial infarction stratified by decade of hospitalization and renal function.**

Renal (dys)function	Decade of hospitalization for myocardial infarction		
	1985-1990	1990-2000	2000-2008
	Total no. events/ No. at risk		
Normal (>90)	172/343	372/1183	179/1929
Stage 2 CKD (60 to 90)	667/1073	953/1824	452/2701
Stage 3 CKD (30 to 60)	520/607	697/900	370/997
Stage 4-5 CKD (<30)	99/105	191/209	139/216

Renal (dys)function in ml/min per 1.73 m<sup>2</sup>.

With increasing renal impairment, patients were older, more often female; more often had a history of MI or coronary artery bypass surgery (CABG), hypertension, diabetes and anemia. In contrast, with increasing renal impairment patients were less often current smokers, less often had hypercholesterolemia, or a family history of previous MI (Table 1). With time, more patients presented with normal renal function and less with moderate to severe renal dysfunction (Figure 1).

**Figure 1: Distribution of study population according to renal function and study period.**



**Figure 2:** Treatment of patients over time: use of reperfusion therapy in ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (A) and use of evidence-based medical care in myocardial infarction patients (B and C). ACE denotes angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor; ASA, aspirin; ARB, angiotensin receptor blocker; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; ThT, thrombolytic therapy. Cochran statistic with correction for calendar period was used to calculate P values between normal and severe renal impairment.

**Table 3:** Temporal trends of 30-day and 5-year mortality for all patients and for subgroups according to renal function at hospitalization for myocardial infarction.

	All patients	Normal (>90 ml/ min per 1.73 m <sup>2</sup> )	Stage 2 CKD (60 to 90)	Stage 3 CKD (30 to 60)	Stage 4-5 CKD (<30)
<b>Calendar period</b>					
<b>Adjusted odds ratios for 30-day mortality</b>					
1985-90	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	0.75 (0.62-0.91)	0.38 (0.19-0.75)	0.61 (0.44-0.84)	1.0 (0.75-1.4)	0.60 (0.35-1.1)
2000-08	0.40 (0.32-0.49)	0.21 (0.10-0.42)	0.33 (0.24-0.47)	0.54 (0.38-0.76)	0.33 (0.18-0.60)
<b>Adjusted hazard for mortality during 5 year among 30-day survivors</b>					
1985-90	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	1.2 (1.1-1.4)	1.1 (0.70-1.7)	1.2 (0.97-1.5)	1.2 (0.97-1.5)	1.23 (0.83-1.8)
2000-08	0.90 (0.78-1.0)	0.85 (0.55-1.31)	0.80 (0.63-1.0)	0.96 (0.76-1.23)	0.90 (0.60-1.4)

Adjusted for age, gender, previous MI, previous CABG, hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, family history, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia and diagnosis.  
P interaction = 0.15 and = 0.68, at 30 days and 5 years, respectively.

### Medical and invasive treatment during the study period

The use of reperfusion therapy (either by thrombolytic therapy or primary PCI) increased over time in all four groups according to renal function with STEMI ( $p < 0.001$ ). However, patients with severe renal impairment in particular were less likely to receive reperfusion therapy during the entire study period as compared to patients with normal renal function ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 2 A). In addition, prescription of evidence-based medical care (class 1A), including aspirin,  $\beta$ -blockers, and statins increased over time, but was less frequent in patients with severe renal impairment ( $p < 0.001$  for all) (Figure 2 B and C). Prescription of other medical therapy with a lower level of evidence for the treatment of MI, including calcium-antagonists, nitrates and diuretics at Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU) discharge was higher in patients with renal impairment (Table 1).

### Temporal trends in mortality

In the overall study population, Kaplan-Meier short-term (30-day) mortality decreased from 10% in 1985-90 to 4% in 2000-08. The magnitude of this decrease was comparable for the merged group of patients with stage 2-5 CKD (estimated Glomerular Filtration Rate (eGFR)  $< 90$  ml/min per  $m^2$ ): their 30-day mortality decreased from 11% in 1985-90 to 6% in 2000-08. Similarly, for the study population as a whole, 5-year Kaplan-Meier mortality decreased from 24% in 1985-90 to 19% in 2000-08; for patients with stage 2-5 CKD a reduction in 5-year mortality was observed from 26% in 1985-90 to 24% in 2000-08.

From 1985 to 2008, the adjusted risk of 30-day mortality decreased by about 60% in the whole study population (adjusted OR 0.40, 95%CI: 0.32-0.49). Although there was no statistical heterogeneity in this temporal mortality decrease among all four subgroups according to renal function ( $p = 0.15$ ), 30-day mortality appeared to decrease less over time in patients with stage 2-5 CKD (Table 3).

The improvement of short-term mortality was sustained during long-term follow-up. Among 30-day survivors, the long-term mortality hazard was 10% lower in 2000-2008 compared to 1985-1990 (adjusted hazard ratio, HR 0.90, 95%CI: 0.78-1.0). Again, there was no statistical heterogeneity in this temporal mortality decrease among all four subgroups according to renal function ( $p = 0.68$ ) (Table 3).

### Renal function and Mortality

Unadjusted mortality at 30 days after MI was much higher in patients with renal impairment (25% in patients with severe renal impairment vs. 2% in those with normal renal function,  $p < 0.001$ ). This was also true during long-term follow-up (92% at 15 year in patients with severe renal impairment vs. 47% at 20 year in those with normal renal function,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 3). Median survival in patients with stage 2, stage 3 and stage 4-5 was 15 years, 8 years and 22 months (1.8 years) respectively, compared to >20 years in patients with normal renal function. Adjusted mortality for stage 2, stage 3 and stage 4-5 CKD was 2.1, 4.3, and 8.6 fold higher at 30 days, while the long-term hazard was 1.0, 1.5, and 3.4, fold higher, respectively, compared to patients with normal renal function (Table 4).

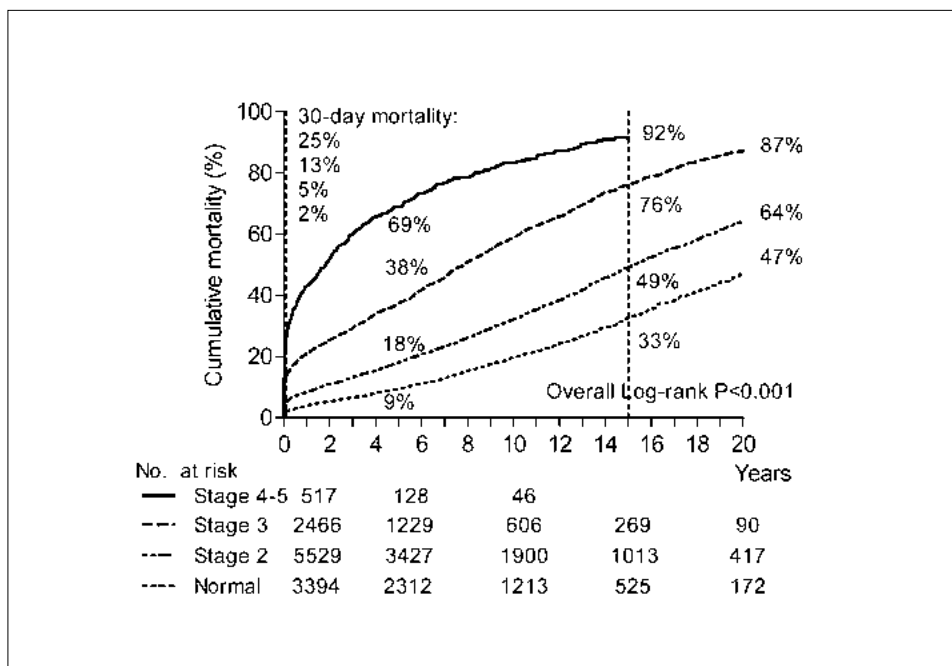


Figure 3: Kaplan-Meier curves of mortality according to renal function.

In a secondary analysis, unadjusted mortality at 30 days was comparable between patients with stage 4 CKD (eGFR 15-30, n = 332) and stage 5 CKD (eGFR<15, n = 198) (26% vs. 22%, respectively, p = 0.28), but, compared to stage 4 CKD, unadjusted 5-year mortality was higher in patients with stage 5 CKD (63% vs. 79%, respectively; p < 0.01). Compared to normal renal function, adjusted 30-day mortality was 8.5 (95%CI: 5.7-13) and 8.8-fold (5.5-14) higher in patients with stage 4 and stage 5 CKD, respectively. The adjusted hazard for mortality between 30 days and 5 year was 3.3 (2.6-4.2) and 8.0-fold (6.3-10) higher in patients with stage 4 and stage 5 CKD, respectively, compared to normal renal function.

**Table 4: Unadjusted and adjusted odds and hazard ratios of mortality depending on renal function at hospitalization for myocardial infarction.**

	Odds ratios for 30-day mortality	
	Unadjusted	Adjusted*
<b>Renal (dys)function</b>		
Normal (>90 ml/min per m <sup>2</sup> )	Reference	Reference
Stage 2 CKD (60 to 90)	2.8 (2.1-3.7)	2.1 (1.5-2.8)
Stage 3 CKD (30 to 60)	8.0 (6.1-10)	4.3 (3.2-5.9)
Stage 4-5 CKD (<30)	17 (13-24)	8.6 (6.0-12)
<b>Hazard for mortality during 20 year among 30-day survivors</b>		
Normal	Reference	Reference
Stage 2	1.7 (1.5-1.8)	1.0 (0.91-1.1)
Stage 3	3.6 (3.2-3.9)	1.5 (1.3-1.6)
Stage 4-5	8.3 (7.2-9.5)	3.4 (2.9-4.0)

\* Adjusted for the same variables as Table 2 and decade of hospitalization.

## Discussion

This analysis of MI patients showed changes in treatment and outcome depending on renal function over 24 years of observation. During the past decades, treatment of MI improved in all groups of renal function, but patients with stage 4-5 renal dysfunction were less likely to receive evidence-based medical treatment and reperfusion therapy. Temporal trends in 30-day mortality reveal impressive mortality reductions during this 24-year period that were comparable for all stages of renal function and were sustained during long-term follow-up. Although the outcome after MI improved across the whole range of renal function, we showed that renal dysfunction remains a strong risk factor for increased both short- and long-term mortality.

Treatment of patients with MI and renal dysfunction is a challenge. As in the present study, previous studies<sup>[2-6, 9-10]</sup> showed that patients with increasing renal dysfunction and MI are less likely to receive cardio-protective therapies, including invasive treatment or reperfusion therapy. Some studies have reported that patients with stage 3-4 CKD and impending dialysis, are less likely to receive percutaneous coronary interventions compared to patients already on dialysis.<sup>[6, 11]</sup> This suggests that fear for contrast-induced nephropathy influences treatment decisions. However, we as well as others<sup>[3-5, 12-13]</sup> observed a proportional decrease in the use of percutaneous coronary interventions and other cardio-protective therapies with decreasing renal function. Other reasons for withholding treatment modalities might include medical uncertainty as most randomized controlled trials of MI have excluded subjects with renal dysfunction.<sup>[14]</sup> In addition, renal dysfunction is associated with anemia and an increased risk of bleeding.<sup>[2, 15]</sup> Furthermore, patients with renal dysfunction more often have a delayed or an atypical presentation.<sup>[16]</sup> All these factors could affect treatment decisions, lead to reduced use of evidence-based reperfusion therapy and, ultimately, result in impaired outcome. The treatment discrepancies provide a window of opportunity to improve care in MI patients with renal impairment.<sup>[17-21]</sup> It is therefore encouraging to observe a persistent temporal increase in the use of such therapies among all groups according to renal function during our 24-year study period, and this provides evidence that improved clinical care in these patients is indeed possible.

No previous study compared temporal improvement in outcome according to different stages of renal function for almost a quarter of a century. We observed comparable temporal reductions in adjusted 30-day and long-term mortality across all stages of renal function. There can be little doubt that such improvements have resulted from changes in medical therapy, both pharmacological as well as interventional.<sup>[4, 17-21]</sup> The most important factors must have been the introduction of reperfusion therapy in the form of fibrinolytic therapy and later primary PCI for STEMI, as well as the more frequent use of revascularization in selected patients with NSTEMI.<sup>[8]</sup> Also, the introduction and subsequent employment of medical therapies including aspirin, statins, and ACE inhibitors or angiotensin receptor blockers must have played a role. In our study, there was no statistically significant heterogeneity for temporal trends according to renal function. The observation that the mortality reduction in the contemporary era was least prominent in patients with moderate renal impairment was probably due to chance. Our results are encouraging and the application of evidence-based MI therapies to appropriate patients regardless of renal function may even further improve these outcomes in the future.

Short-term mortality after MI deteriorated with every decline in renal function, including the decline from normal to mild renal (dys-)function (i.e. to stage 2 CKD). Patients with stage 4-5 CKD had a more than eight fold increased mortality rate compared to normal renal function after adjustment for baseline characteristics. These findings are consistent with previous studies.<sup>[3, 6, 22]</sup> Our data is unique in that it comprises survival data for up to 20 years after MI which is a whole life course for patients with stage 4-5 CKD. On the long-term, renal dysfunction remained associated with increased mortality.

### **Limitations**

There are some limitations to the present study. First, because the data is derived from a hospital-based registry, patients who died before admission to the hospital were by definition excluded from the registry. This might be in particular NSTEMI patients with advanced renal disease because in those patients the diagnosis of NSTEMI may be problematic due to the absence of “typical” symptoms and uninterpretable ECGs.<sup>[16]</sup> Therefore, the detrimental effect of stage 4-5 CKD on short-term mortality could have been underestimated. However, this has unlikely affected our temporal

trend analyses because these diagnostic issues were present during all past decades studied. Second, the assessment of creatinine at admission for MI might have resulted in unfavorable renal function estimates due to the effect of the acute event—including acute kidney injury—on the creatinine concentration. However, this is unlikely, since hemodynamic instability leading to renal dysfunction typically occurs later during the course of MI. Also, renal function was estimated using creatinine-based GFR equations, and these estimates might not perfectly correlate with actual renal function.<sup>23</sup> Still, this should not affect the validity of our results since these estimates are central for clinical assessment of kidney function. Third, the present data are derived from a single center. Although this could result in a lower external validity, we think that this is unlikely because the observed association between renal impairment and 30-day mortality corresponds well with that in previous reports. The relatively high proportion of patients with STEMI reflects the function of our center as referral center for these patients. Fourth, information on left ventricular ejection fraction or Killip class is unavailable for analyses.

## **Conclusion**

Renal function is an important and independent predictor for both short- and long-term mortality after acute MI. Even though patients with stage 4-5 CKD remained less likely to receive evidence-based medical care and reperfusion therapy, temporal reductions in 30-day and long-term mortality during the past decades were substantial and were independent of renal function. Thus, patients with renal impairment also benefitted from improved outcomes over the past decades. This encouraging observation should stimulate the use of evidence based treatment in MI patients regardless of renal dysfunction.



## Methods

We considered all 14 434 consecutive patients aged >18 years admitted with STEMI or NSTEMI to the ICCU of the Thoraxcenter, Erasmus University Medical Center between June 1985 and December 2008. Of these 12 087 patients (84%) had at least one baseline creatinine value, and these patients thus constitute the study population.

The diagnosis of MI was made by the attending physician in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a serial rise (to at least three times the upper normal value) and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such as creatine kinase-MB and troponin-T (as of 2002). Patients were diagnosed as STEMI in the presence of ST-segment elevation > 0.1 mV in at least two peripheral leads, > 0.2 mV in at least two precordial leads or new left bundle branch block, and as NSTEMI otherwise. The proportion of patients with STEMI or NSTEMI was about 50% in each decade of study. For patients admitted more than once, only the first hospitalization was taken into account.

In line with the US National Kidney Foundation practice guidelines,<sup>[24]</sup> patients were categorized as having normal renal function (eGFR > 90 ml/min per 1.73 m<sup>2</sup> body surface area), stage 2 (60-89), stage 3 (30-59), and stage 4-5 (<30) CKD. In a secondary analysis, patients with severe renal impairment were recategorized into those with stage 4 (eGFR 15-30) and stage 5 (eGFR < 15) CKD.

Serum creatinine was assessed by a nonkinetic alkaline picrate (Jaffe) method.<sup>[25]</sup> GFR was estimated with the CKD-EPI equation<sup>[23]</sup>:  $eGFR \text{ (ml/min per } 1.73 \text{ m}^2 \text{ body surface area)} = 141 \times \min(\text{creatinine}/\kappa, 1) \alpha \times \max(\text{creatinine} / \kappa, 1)^{-1.209} \times 0.993^{\text{age}} \times 1.018$  (if female)  $\times 1.159$  (if black), where  $\kappa$  is 0.7 for females and 0.9 for males,  $\alpha$  is -0.329 for females and -0.411 for males, min indicates the minimum of creatinine/ $\kappa$  or 1, and max indicates the maximum of creatinine/ $\kappa$  or 1. All analyses were also performed using the Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD) equation,<sup>[26]</sup> this did not result in significantly different results (not shown).

Trained physicians and nurses accustomed to the use of standardized case report forms collected the data, using definitions that have previously been described.<sup>[27]</sup> The study endpoint was all-cause mortality at 30 days and at 20 years. Survival status was assessed through municipal Civil Registries in 2010 and was available for 99% of all patients.

This project was carried out in accordance with current rules of ethics and legislature. No additional actions involving the study participants were undertaken because of this registry. Register-based studies are approved by the ethical committee of the Erasmus Medical Center.

### **Statistical Analysis**

Categorical variables were summarized as percentages and the chi-square test for trend was used to calculate p-values. Age was normally distributed according to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and therefore summarized as mean and 95% confidence interval. The analysis of variance test (ANOVA) was used to calculate a p-value for age differences. Renal function values were presented as medians and interquartile range and compared with the Kruskal-Wallis test.

Patients were stratified in three groups according to decade of hospitalization: 1985-1990; 1990-2000; 2000-2008. We assessed temporal trends in outcome by comparing these three periods. We examined the independent association between decade of hospitalization and mortality, for each stage of renal function, using logistic regression for 30-day outcome and the Cox proportional hazards model for long-term outcome (among 30-day survivors). Adjustment was performed for age, gender, previous MI, previous CABG, hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, family history, smoking status, anemia and STEMI/NSTEMI diagnosis. Information on anemia was missing in 324 of the patients (2.7%). The influence of decade on mortality was examined with a formal interaction test by adding decade crossed with renal function to the model. In addition, we examined the independent association between renal function and mortality using the analyses described above.

Results are reported as odds ratios (OR) -for 30-day mortality- and hazard ratios (HR) -for long-term mortality- and their respective 95% confidence intervals. All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were considered significant at  $<0.05$ . Analysis was performed using SPSS software version 20.0 (SPSS, Chicago, Ill).

## Disclosure

All the authors declared no competing interests.

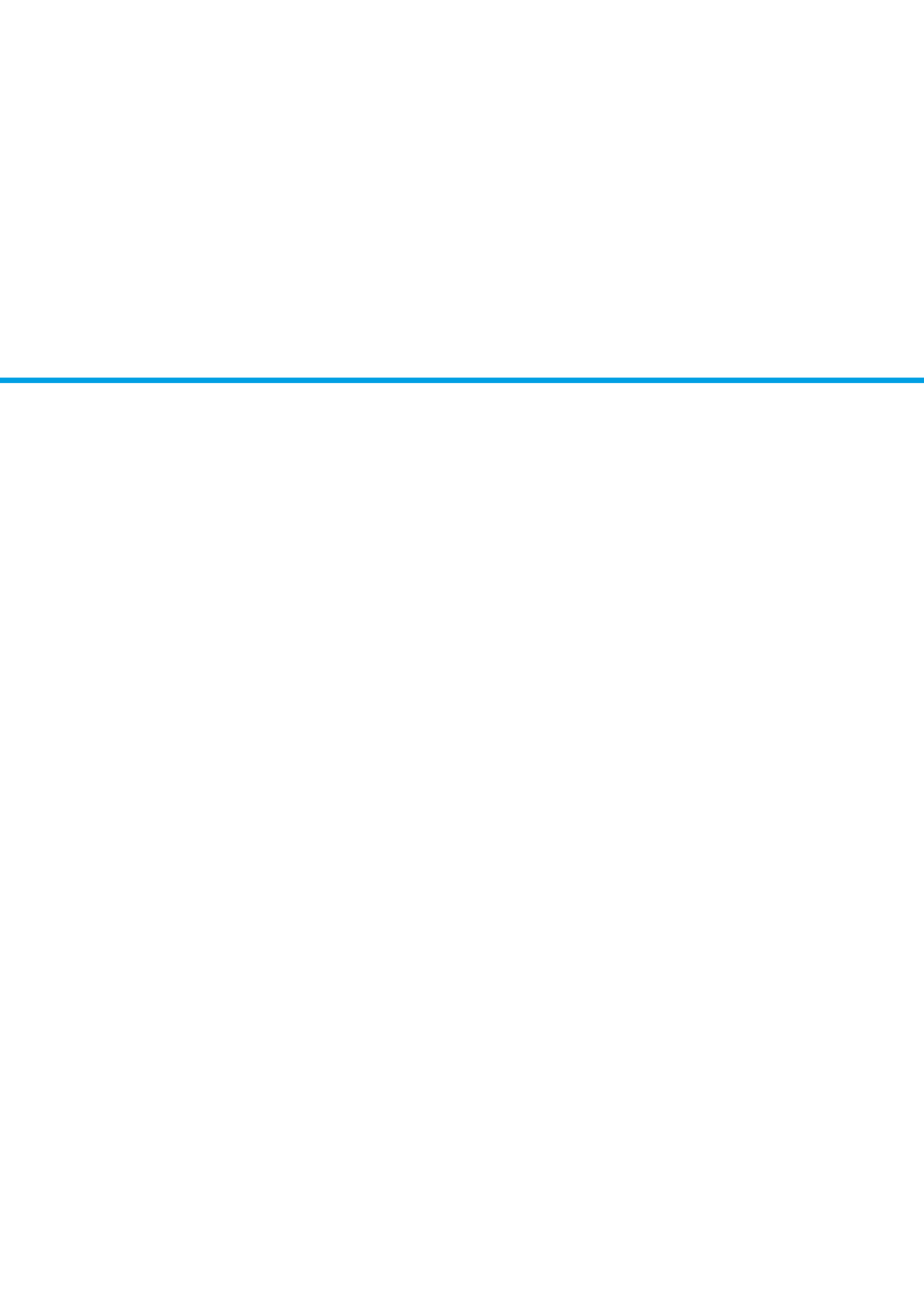
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# Chapter 5

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## Effect of anemia on short- and long-term outcome in patients hospitalized for acute coronary syndromes

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## Abstract

Anemia is not uncommon in hospitalized cardiac patients and is associated with adverse outcomes. The aim of this study was to identify the association of anemia with early and long-term outcome in patients with Acute Coronary Syndromes (ACS). A total of 5304 consecutive patients (73% men, 61 ±12 years of age) admitted to a coronary care unit between 1985 and

2008 for ACS, were included. According to the WHO, anemia was defined as serum hemoglobin levels <13 g/dl for men and <12 g/dl for women. Anemia was divided into tertiles to compare mild, moderate and severe anemia with nonanemia. With respect to trend analyses, the study population was categorized in three groups: 1985-1990; 1991-2000; and 2001-2008. Outcome measurements were all-cause mortality at 30-days and 20 years.

Anemia was present in 2016 (38%) patients, of whom 655 had mild anemia, 717 moderate anemia and 646 severe anemia. Median follow-up duration was 10 years and ranged from 2 to 25 years. When comparing to nonanemia, adjusted hazard ratios for mortality at 30-days were 1.40 for moderate anemia (95%CI 1.04-1.87) and 1.67 for severe anemia (95%CI 1.25-2.24). At 20-year, hazard ratios were 1.13 for moderate anemia (95%CI 1.01-1.27), and 1.39 for severe anemia (95%CI 1.23-1.56). Additionally, survival during hospitalization improved over time. Compared to 1985-1990 adjusted hazard ratios were 0.52 for 1991-2000 (95%CI 0.41-0.66) and 0.36 for 2001-2008 (95%CI 0.25-0.51). In conclusion, the presence and severity of anemia is an important predictor of higher in-hospital- and long-term-mortality after ACS. Additionally, since the 1980's, in-hospital outcome of ACS patients with anemia has improved.

### Keywords

Anemia, acute coronary syndromes, trends, prognosis.

## Introduction

Anemia is not uncommon in patients hospitalized for Acute Coronary Syndromes (ACS) and its prevalence ranges from 6.4% to 45%.<sup>[1-5]</sup> It is associated with adverse outcomes during hospitalisation.<sup>[2,4-6]</sup> Although adverse outcomes in other populations due to anemia have been described,<sup>[7-11]</sup> only a very few studies have examined the long-term effects of anemia in ST-elevation Myocardial Infarction (STEMI) and nothing is yet known whether this association changed over the last 25 years. In the past decades, new therapeutical and medical treatment interventions were introduced that reduced morbidity and enhanced survival after acute myocardial infarction. These strategies include the use of reperfusion therapy, antiplatelet agents, ACE- inhibitors, and  $\beta$ -blockers.<sup>[12-15]</sup> Furthermore, percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) became the therapeutic modality of first choice in STEMI patients.<sup>[13,16,17]</sup> The effect of anemia in these patients has not been studied yet. And therefore, the main goal of this study was to identify the association of anemia on early and long-term outcome in a cohort of ACS patients hospitalized between 1985 and 2008 and whether this association is independent of renal insufficiency.

## Methods

All patients aged >18 years admitted with a first admission for STEMI or Non-ST-elevated Myocardial Infarction (NSTEMI) in the Coronary Care Unit (CCU) of the Thorax-center, Erasmus University Medical Center between January 1985 and December 2008, from whom the first haemoglobin value was obtained, were included.

The primary discharge diagnosis of STEMI was made in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a serial rise and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such as creatine kinase-MB and troponin T. Patients were diagnosed as STEMI in the presence of ST-segment elevation > 0.1 mV in at least two extremity leads, or > 0.2 mV in at least two precordial leads, and as NSTEMI otherwise.

Data was acquired retrospectively by retrieving the hospital medical records. Demographic characteristics (age, gender), cardiac history (previous MI, PCI or CABG), risk factors (hypertension, diabetes, hypercholesterolemia, family history, smoking status, renal dysfunction), discharge diagnosis (STEMI or NSTEMI), and therapy (PCI, antithrombotic treatment), were collected.

The primary endpoint was mortality at 30-days and at 20 years follow-up. Survival status was assessed through municipal Civil Registries.

Haemoglobin value was determined on first admission. We adopted the definition of anemia by the World Health Organization, which defines anemia as a serum hemoglobin level <13 g/dl for men and a level <12 g/dl for women.<sup>[18]</sup> Patients with anemia were divided into tertiles to compare to prognosis of patients with mild (12.2-13.0 g/dl men, 11.2-12.0 g/dl women), moderate (10.9-12.1 g/dl men, 10.3-11.1 g/dl women) and severe anemia ( $\leq$ 10.8 g/dl men,  $\leq$ 10.2 g/dl women) to subjects without anemia.

Patient's characteristics were given as mean $\pm$  standard deviation for continuous variables, compared by one-way ANOVA test and Bonferroni correction. Pearson chi-squared test was used for categorical variables and were presented in percentages. Cumulative survival was constructed using the Kaplan-Meier method. Logrank tests were used to compare curves. Logistic regression analyses were performed to adjust anemia for the other baseline characters of 30-day outcome. Cox regression analyses were performed to identify 20-year outcome. Adjustments were made for the variables age, gender, hypertension, diabetes, renal insufficiency defined in patients who had a creatinine value >150 mmol/L, hypercholesterolemia, smoking, clinical presentation, treatment, prior CABG, prior myocardial infarction, prior PTCA, and trends. Results are reported as hazard ratios of mortality and their respective 95% confidence intervals. All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were significant at <0.05. When analysing for trends, the study population was categorised in three groups of patients hospitalized between 1985-1990; 1991-2000; and 2001-2008. Furthermore, when analysing for trends, we tried to find a possible interaction with anemia or renal insufficiency. All data were analyzed with SPSS software (SPSS 17.0, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

## Results

Of the 5304 patients included in the study, 73% were men. Mean age was 61 years. In total, 38% of the patients were anemic. When this last group was divided in tertiles, 655 had mild anemia (12.3%), 717 moderate anemia (13.5%) and 646 severe anemia (12.2%). Mean haemoglobin levels were  $14.2 \pm 1.2$  g/dL in nonanemic patients and  $11.0 \pm 1.6$  g/dL in patients with anemia.

Patients with anemia were more likely to be older, male, smoking, to have more renal insufficiency, diabetes or hypertension, family history, prior MI and arrhythmia (Table 1). Patients with anemia were more often treated with aspirin, antiarrhythmics, digitalis, diuretics and less with  $\beta$ -blockers oral anticoagulants as compared with nonanemic patients. Furthermore, patients with anemia received less additional therapy at admission. The prevalence of mild anemia increased from 8.5% in 1985-1990 to 12.6% in 1991-2000 and 16.0% in 2001-2008 ( $p < 0.001$ ). The prevalence of moderate anemia increased from 10.2% in 1985-1990 to 14.2% in 1991-2000 and 15.6% in 2001-2008 ( $p < 0.001$ ). The prevalence of severe anemia increased from 10.5% in 1985-1990 to 13.3% in 1991-2000, and to 11.8% in 2001-2008 ( $p < 0.05$ ).

In the total study population, mean follow-up duration was 10 years and ranged from 2 to 25 years. Overall cumulative survival was 91% at 30 days, and 49% at 20-years. Cumulative 30-day survival was 93% in nonanemic patients and 88% in anemic patients ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 1A). Cumulative 30-day survival rate, in patients with anemia increased from 87.2% in 1985-1990 to 91.3% in 1991-2000 ( $p = 0.002$ ) and 94.1% in 2001-2008 ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 2A).

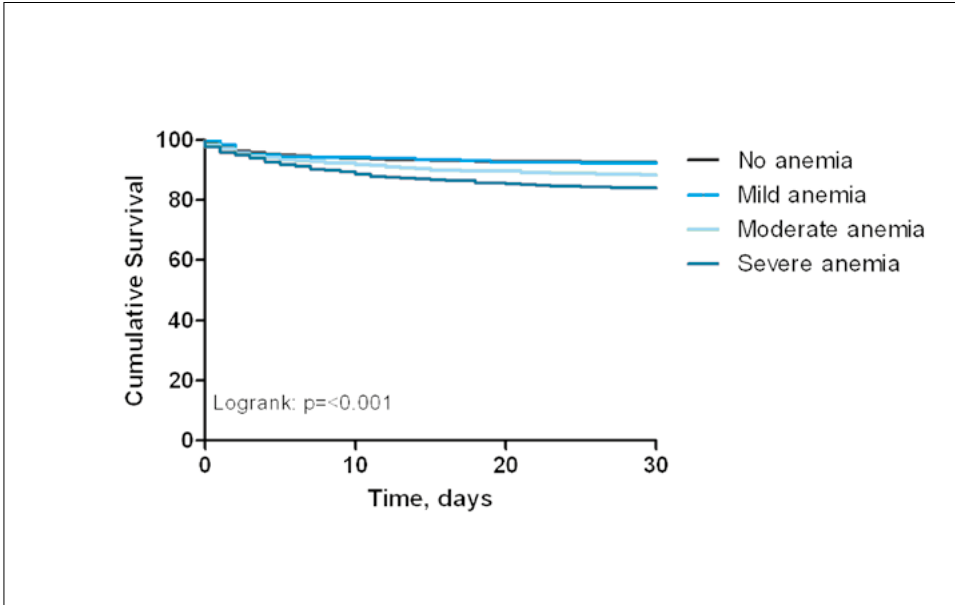
Cumulative 20-year survival was 52.9% for nonanemic patients and 42.8% in anemic patients ( $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 1B). The difference was predominantly made in the first year. Thereafter, the curves were parallel. Over time, cumulative 20-year survival rate was 33.8% in 1985-1990, which decreased to 33.7% in 1991-2000 and in 2001-2008 66.8% (Figure 2B).

**Table 1: Baseline characteristics according to anemia categories.**

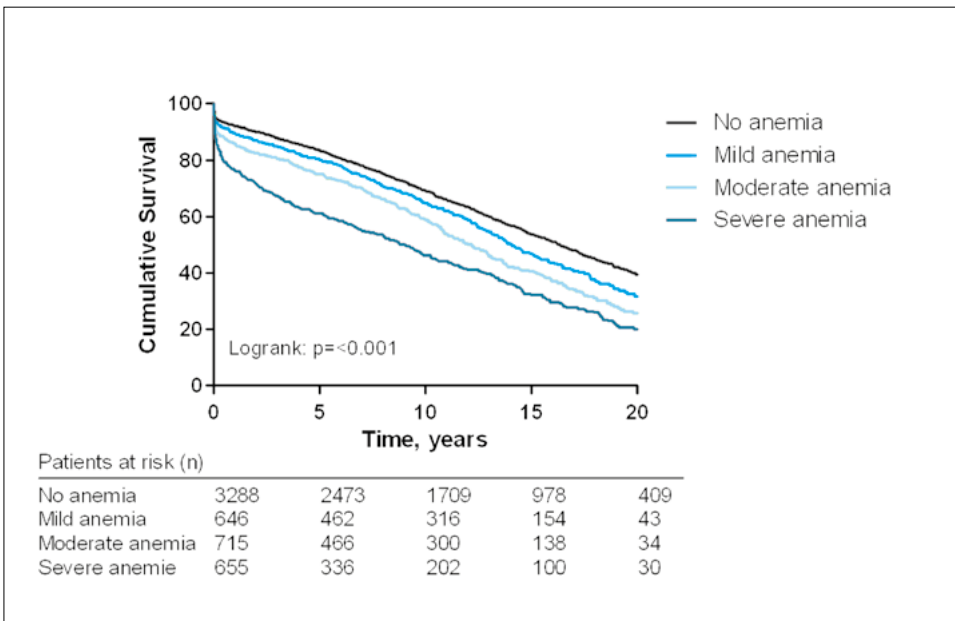
Variable	Nonanemia (n=3288) (61.9%)	Mild anemia (n=655, (12.3%)	Moderate anemia (n=715) (13.5%)	Severe anemia (n=646) (12.2%)	P
<b>Demographic</b>					
Age (years), mean±sd	60±12.0	63±11.6	64±11.3	65±11.8	<0.001
Gender (male), %	76	65	72	68	<0.001
<b>Risk factors, %</b>					
Diabetes Mellitus	11	12	14	16	0.001
Hypertension	33	32	35	40	0.01
Hypercholesterolemia	29	21	22	22	0.2
Smoking	40	33	31	25	<0.001
Family history	27	24	23	20	<0.001
Renal insufficiency	4	6	14	27	<0.001
<b>History, %</b>					
Prior MI	29	34	34	36	<0.001
Prior PCI	8	9	11	10	0.1
Prior CABG	8	8	9	8	0.6
Arrhythmia	1.7	2.6	2.7	3.4	0.02
<b>Clinical presentation, %</b>					
STEMI	53	50	49	49	0.1
NSTEMI	47	50	51	51	
<b>Medication, %</b>					
Aspirin	54	57	56	51	0.05
ACE inhibitor	20	19	21	22	0.5
Antiarrhythmics	5	6	7	9	0.004
Beta blocker	64	60	56	52	<0.001
Calcium antagonist	33	34	35	33	0.7
Digitalis	5	6	7	8	0.01
Diuretics	16	18	21	25	<0.001
Oral anticoagulant	57	57	56	51	0.03
<b>Treatment, %</b>					
PCI	35	43	42	36	<0.001
Antithrombotic treatment	16	15	12	9	
None	49	41	45	55	

\* P calculated with ANOVA for continuous variables and with chi-square for categorical variables. MI, myocardial infarction; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; CABG, coronary artery bypass grafting surgery.

Anemia was divided into tertiles by; mild anemia (12.2-13.0 g/dl men, 11.2-12.0 g/dl women), moderate (10.9-12.1 g/dl men, 10.3-11.1 g/dl women) and severe anemia (≤ 10.8 g/dl men, ≤ 10.2 g/dl women)



**Figure 1A:** Cumulative survival of severity of anemia at 30-days follow-up.



**Figure 1B:** Cumulative long-term survival according to severity of anemia.

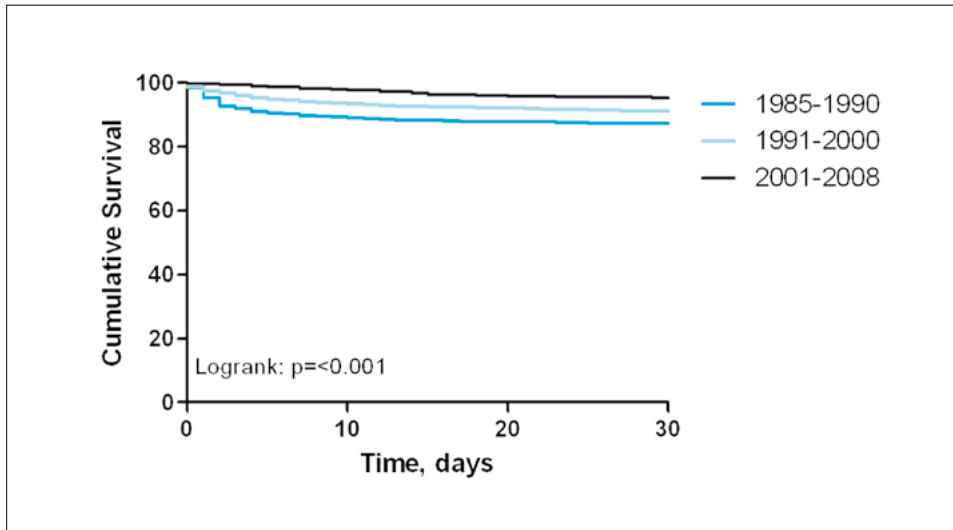


Figure 2A: Cumulative survival of trends in anemia patients at 30-days follow-up.

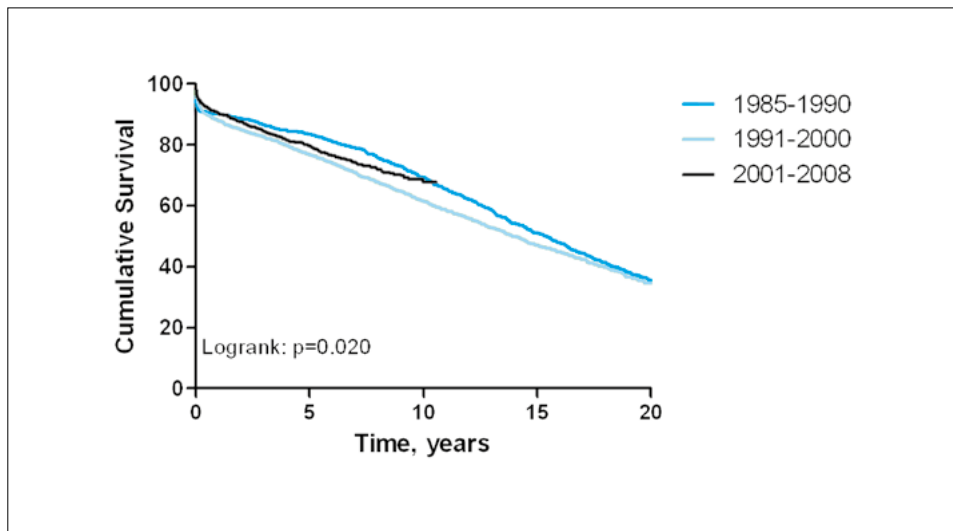


Figure 2B: Long-term cumulative survival of trends in anemia patients.



**Table 2: Univariate and multivariate logistic hazards regression 30-day outcome**

	<b>Univariate HR (95% CI)</b>	<b>Multivariate* HR (95% CI)</b>
Nonanemia	Reference	Reference
Mild anemia	0.82(0.60-1.11)	0.99(0.71-1.39)
Moderate anemia	1.40(1.09-1.80)	1.40 (1.04-1.87)
Severe anemia	2.16(1.71-2.73)	1.67(1.25-2.24)
Renal insufficiency	3.31(2.96-3.70)	4.11(3.14-5.38)
1985-1990	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	1.10(1.02-1.18)	0.52(0.41-0.66)
2000-2008	0.86(0.77-0.97)	0.36(0.25-0.51)

\* Adjusted for: age, gender, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hypercholesterolemia, smoking, prior MI, PCI, CABG, Renal insufficiency, trends and tertiles anemia.

MI = myocardial infarction; PCI= percutaneous coronary intervention; CABG= coronary artery bypass grafting; HR= Hazard Ratio; 95% CI= 95% Confidence Interval

**Table 3: Univariate and multivariate cox proportional hazards regression for twenty-year outcome**

	<b>Univariate HR (95% CI)</b>	<b>Multivariate* HR (95% CI)</b>
Nonanemia	Reference	Reference
Mild anemia	1.01(0.90-1.13)	1.05(0.93-1.18)
Moderate anemia	1.29 (1.16-1.44)	1.13 (1.01-1.27)
Severe anemia	1.83(1.65-2.01)	1.39 (1.23-1.56)
Renal insufficiency	3.31(2.96-3.70)	2.28 (2.02-2.57)
1985-1990	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	1.10(1.02-1.18)	0.99(0.90-1.08)
2000-2008	0.86(0.77-0.97)	0.85(0.73-0.99)

\* Adjusted for: age, gender, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hypercholesterolemia, smoking, prior MI, PCI, CABG, Renal insufficiency, trends and tertiles anemia.

MI = myocardial infarction; PCI= percutaneous coronary intervention; CABG= coronary artery bypass grafting; HR= Hazard Ratio; 95% CI= 95% Confidence Interval

After adjusting for baseline characteristics including renal insufficiency, moderate and severe anemia were associated with an increased risk of 30 day-mortality (adjusted HR 1.40, 95% CI 1.04-1.87 and adjusted HR 1.67, 95% CI 1.25-2.24) (Table 2).

Hospital mortality during the 1990s and 2000s was lower than in the 1980s (adjusted HR 0.52, 95% CI 0.41-0.66 and adjusted HR 0.36, 95% CI 0.25-0.51).

On the long-term outcome, respectively moderate and severe anemia were associated with higher mortality (adjusted HR 1.13, 95% CI 1.01-1.27 and adjusted HR 1.39, 95% CI 1.23-1.56) despite the predictor renal insufficiency on mortality (HR 2.28, 95% CI 2.02-2.57). (Table 3)

Long-term mortality in 1991-2000 was similar with 1985-1990 (adjusted HR 0.99, 95% CI 0.99-1.08). However, between 2001-2008 the mortality was lower (adjusted HR 0.85, 95% CI 0.73-0.99). No interaction was found between the time trends and anemia, nor with renal insufficiency.

## Discussion

Our results show that the extent of anemia at hospital admission and renal dysfunction is associated with in hospital and long-term mortality. Despite renal insufficiency, a higher mortality was observed both in moderate and severe anemia. In addition, we showed that over the years in-hospital survival of patients with anemia has improved from 83% in the 1980s to 88% in the 1990s and 92% in the 2000s.

Anemia has the potential to worsen the myocardial ischemic insult in acute MI and other acute coronary syndromes, both by decreasing the oxygen content of the blood supplied to the endangered myocardium and by increasing myocardial oxygen demand through necessitating a higher cardiac output to maintain adequate systemic oxygen delivery.<sup>[19,20]</sup> The origin of anemia is mostly multifactorial. The cause of anemia in heart failure patients is understood to be caused by malnutrition, iron deficiency, bone marrow depression and certain medication.<sup>[8,21-23]</sup> Renal dysfunction is a known marker with adverse prognosis in patients with ischemic

heart disease,<sup>[24]</sup> especially in those who have anemia.<sup>[25]</sup> Also demographic factors like age and gender have an important role. Furthermore, anemia is associated with changes in left ventricular anatomy among patients with chronic kidney disease and it is possible that these changes could contribute to worsening left ventricular diastolic and/or systolic dysfunction and consequent increased risk of death.<sup>[26]</sup> Westenbrink et al.<sup>[27]</sup> also showed that besides impaired renal perfusion and blunted erythropoietin production, fluid retention can cause anemia as well in chronic heart failure patients. The effect is caused by an increase in plasma volume which leads to pseudo-anemia due to hemodilution. Anemia is a modifiable clinical marker. Haemotransfusion is considered for Hb values > 10gr/dL.<sup>[28]</sup> Studies with regard to blood transfusion show different results on 30-day mortality in patients with ACS.<sup>[2,5]</sup> But since the absence of randomized controlled trials the negative and positive effects of blood transfusion are not fully established. Other treatment approaches, like epoetin- $\alpha$  and darbepoetin- $\alpha$ , are showing promising results. Silverberg et al.<sup>[29]</sup> randomized 32 patients with mild anemia. One group was given rhEPO and intravenous iron, while the comparing group didn't receive any treatment. Results showed an significant improvement in New York Heart Association (NYHA) functional class, left ventricular function, renal function and heart failure hospitalisations. Ponikowski et al.<sup>[30]</sup> randomized 41 patients in a placebo controlled trial. The group which was given darbepoetin- $\alpha$  had an improvement in quality of life. Van Veldhuisen et al.<sup>[31]</sup> randomized chronic heart failure patients with anemia and they also found an improvement in certain quality of life indexes in those who received darbepoetin- $\alpha$ . A gradually rise in haemoglobin levels was achieved. Still, it is uncertain whether these treatment options will decrease mortality and morbidity in ACS patients.

Our findings support the results from prior studies which showed an association between anemia and adverse outcomes on short and long-term follow-up. Wu et al.<sup>[5]</sup> found, in an elderly population, an association between low hematocrit level on admission and 30-day mortality. The results were graded, a lower survival was found in a lower degree of anemia. Sabatine et al.<sup>[2]</sup> examined 40,000 ACS patients and concluded that anemia is a powerful and independent predictor of major cardiovascular events on 30-day outcome, whereas STEMI patients were more at risk. In a study of 1,122 STEMI patients, treated with PCI, results showed that prior chronic anemia was an independent predictor for intra-hospital mortality. Patients

with new anemia showed a higher mortality rate and incidence of major bleedings.<sup>[4]</sup> Dunkelgrun et al. reported that, in patients, scheduled for elective vascular surgery, anemia was an independent predictor for perioperative and long-term cardiovascular outcome (30-day and 5 year), regardless of underlying heart failure or renal disease.<sup>[7]</sup>

On the long-term the effect of anemia is still unclear, with different results. In STEMI patients anemia was associated with an increased 1 and 5-year mortality.<sup>[1,3]</sup> Aronson et al.<sup>[1]</sup> found a hazard ratio of 1.27 (95% CI 1.16-1.40;  $p < 0.001$ ) of anemia at 48 months. Salisbury et al.<sup>[3]</sup> founds similar results, whereas moderate-severe hospital acquired anemia had a higher mortality at 1-year (HR 1.82, 95% CI 1.11-2.98). On the contrary, Falluji et al.<sup>[32]</sup> found similar outcome at 1-year mortality in the anemia and nonanemia group in 1986 (RR 1.005,  $p = 0.93$ ) and 1996 (RR 1.084,  $p = 0.11$ ) and concluded there was no difference in survival between anemic and non anemic patients.

Our study shows that also severity of anemia is associated with long-term outcome. The higher mortality in patients with anemia is predominantly made in the first year. Beyond one year the survival of both patients with and without anemia are similar. Our study showed for the first time that hospital mortality in ACS patients with anemia has improved. However, after hospital discharge, no improvements in the treatment of anemia was observed over the years. The improvements over time must, without any doubt, be attributed to improvements in treatment and changes in high profile of these patients during hospital admission. New medical treatment options made their attendance such as antiplatelet agents, ACE- inhibitors,  $\beta$ -blockers. Furthermore, fibrinolytic therapy and anti-coagulation improved survival significantly.<sup>[12,14,15,33]</sup> Also interventions like primary PCI improved survival in STEMI patients.<sup>[13,16,17]</sup>

In conclusion, the presence and severity of anemia is an important predictor of higher in hospital and long-term mortality after ACS. However, beyond one year the increased mortality stabilizes. Additionally, we showed that since the 1980's, in-hospital outcome of ACS patients with anemia has been improved.

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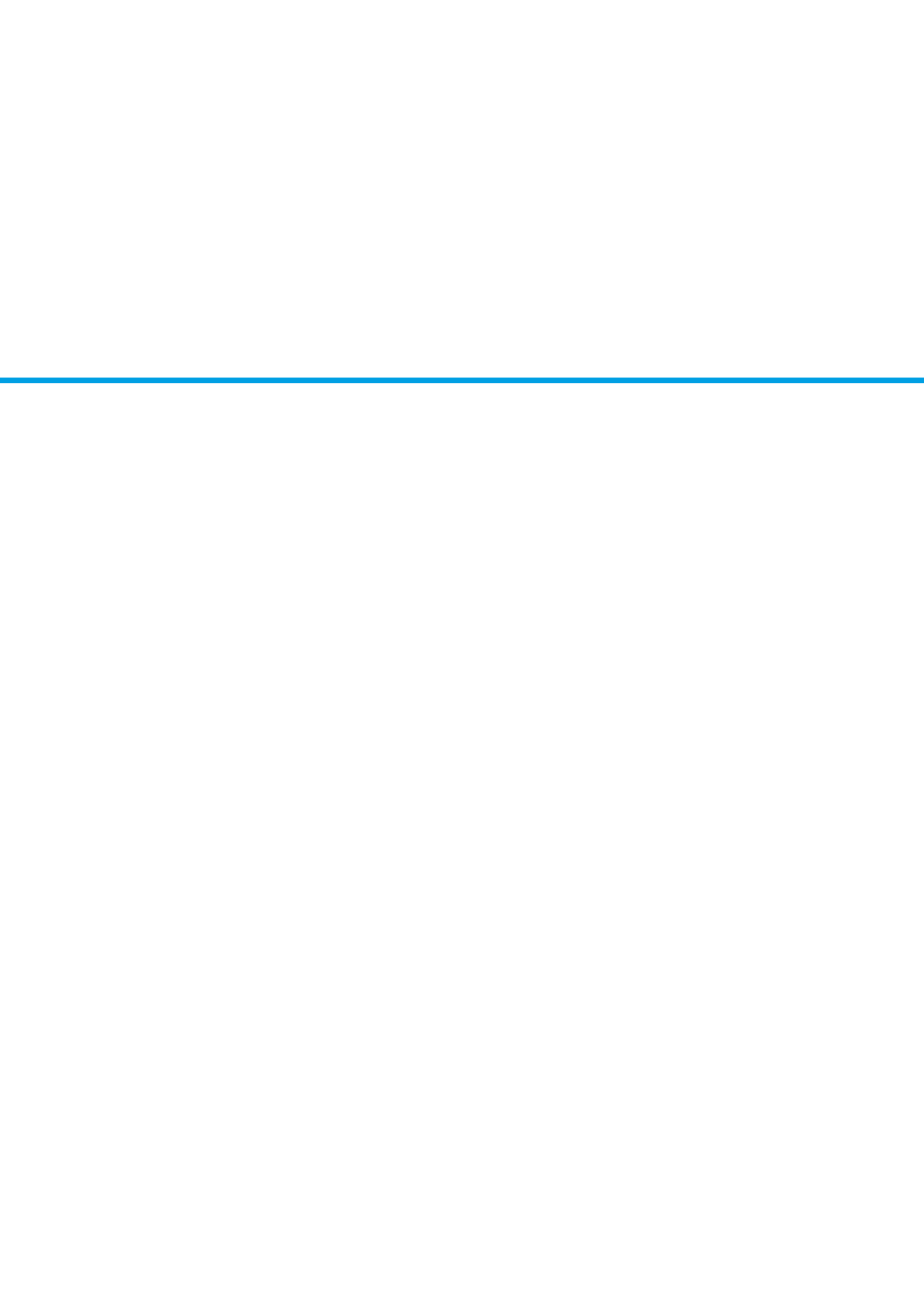




Part II

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Ageing and  
glucose metabolism:  
emerging risk factors



# Chapter 6

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## Age-dependent care and long-term (20year) mortality of 14,434 myocardial infarction patients: Changes from 1985 to 2008

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## Abstract

### Objectives

To determine whether age-dependent inequalities in care and outcome changed over a 24 year period for patients admitted with a myocardial infarction (MI).

### Methods

We examined four age groups (<55, 55-65, 65-75, and >75 years) and treatment and mortality in 14 434 consecutive patients admitted for MI to an intensive coronary care unit from 1985 to 2008. Temporal trend analyses were performed by comparing decades of admission (1985-1990 vs. 1990-2000 vs. 2000-2008).

### Results

A total of 2040 (14%) of the patients were >75 years of age. Older patients more often were female and less often presented with an ST-segment elevation MI (STEMI). Systematic differences in care were present between the age groups: older patients were less likely to receive evidence-based medical care and reperfusion therapy during the last 24 years, although the differences became smaller over time. In 2000-2008, 30-day (adjusted OR 0.28, 95%CI: 0.23-0.34) and 5-year (adjusted HR 0.61, 95%CI: 0.54-0.68) mortality were lower compared to 1985-1990. These temporal trends were equal across all age groups. Hence, the change in mortality over the 24-year study period is similar among the spectrum of ages. Patients aged <55, 55-65, 65-75, and >75 years had a 20-year mortality of 38, 63, 87 and >95%, respectively.

### Conclusions

Older patients with an MI remained less likely to receive evidence-based care during 24 years of observation. Temporal reductions in mortality were similar among all age groups. The application of proven MI therapies to appropriate patients regardless of age may even further improve these outcomes.

## Introduction

Due to ageing of the general population in the Western world, more elderly patients present to hospital with a myocardial infarction (MI).<sup>[1]</sup> Previous studies have suggested that elderly patients with an MI are less likely to receive evidence-based therapies and have a worse survival after hospitalization compared to younger patients.<sup>[2-4]</sup> Recent data has underlined the need for increased use of evidence-based management among the elderly and has shown potential for a reduction in mortality in this age group.<sup>[3,5]</sup>

Within the past 25 years, substantial improvements in the treatment and outcome of MI have been made with, for example the implementation of thrombolytic therapy in the 1990s, primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) in the beginning of the new century and tailored treatment according to individual risk.<sup>[6-10]</sup> A long-term analysis of patients admitted to hospital with an MI might identify changes in the use of treatment modalities, and early and late outcomes for the whole spectrum of ages. Therefore, the aims of this study were threefold. First, to determine whether, in accordance with the guideline recommendations,<sup>[11-12]</sup> age-dependent inequalities in care changed over a 24-year period. Second to compare temporal trends in mortality according to age for patients admitted with an MI. And third, to quantify the effect of age on 30-day and long-term mortality.

## Methods

We included all consecutive patients aged >18 years admitted for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) or non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI) to the Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU) of the Thoraxcenter, Erasmus University Medical Center between June 1985 and December 2008.

The primary discharge diagnosis of MI was made in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a typical serial rise (to at least three times the upper normal value) and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such

as creatine kinase-MB or troponin-T (as of 2002). Patients were diagnosed as STEMI in the presence of ST-segment elevation  $> 0.1$  mV in at least two peripheral leads, or  $> 0.2$  mV in at least two contiguous precordial leads, and as NSTEMI otherwise. For patients admitted more than once, only the first hospitalization was taken into account.

### **Data collection**

Trained physicians and nurses accustomed to the use of standardized case report forms collected the data. Demographic characteristics (age, gender), cardiac history (previous MI, PCI or coronary artery bypass surgery (CABG)), risk factors (hypertension, diabetes, family history, smoking status), anemia (Hemoglobin level  $< 13.0$  g/dl men,  $< 12.0$  g/dl women), renal dysfunction (creatinine  $> 150$   $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ), and pharmacological and invasive treatment modalities (thrombolysis and PCI) were collected. The decision to use or not use specific pharmacological and invasive treatment modalities was made according to the level of evidence and recommendations in the guidelines available at that time.

### **Follow-up and endpoints**

The primary endpoint was all cause mortality at 30 days and at 20 years. In-hospital mortality was retrieved from the medical records. Long-term survival status was assessed through municipal Civil Registries in 2010 and was available for 99% of all patients.

### **Ethics**

The authors of this manuscript have certified that they comply with the Principles of Ethical Publishing in the International Journal of Cardiology.<sup>[13]</sup>

### **Statistical Analysis**

The study patients were categorized in four groups of patients according to age: those aged  $< 55$ , 55-65, 65-75, and  $> 75$  years. Categorical variables were summarized as percentages and chi-square test for trend was used to calculate p-values. Patients were stratified in three groups according to decade of hospitalization: 1985-1990; 1990-2000; 2000-2008. We assessed temporal trends in outcome by comparing these three periods. Cumulative survival curves were constructed using the Kaplan-Meier method for patients aged  $> 75$  years. The log-rank test was used to compare survival



curves. We examined the independent association between decade of hospitalization and mortality, for the whole study population and for the elderly, respectively, using logistic regression for 30-day outcome and the Cox proportional hazards model for long-term outcome. Since complete long-term (20-year) follow-up of patients admitted after 1991 is unavailable, we used 5-year outcomes for comparing the influence of decades of hospitalization on outcome. Adjustment was performed for gender, previous MI, previous CABG, hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, family history, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia and discharge diagnosis. In addition, we examined the independent association between age and mortality using the analyses described above.

Results are reported as odds ratios (OR) -for 30-day mortality- and hazard ratios (HR) -for long-term mortality- and their respective 95% confidence intervals. All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were considered significant at  $<0.05$ . Analysis was performed using SPSS software version 17.0 (SPSS, Chicago, USA).

## Results

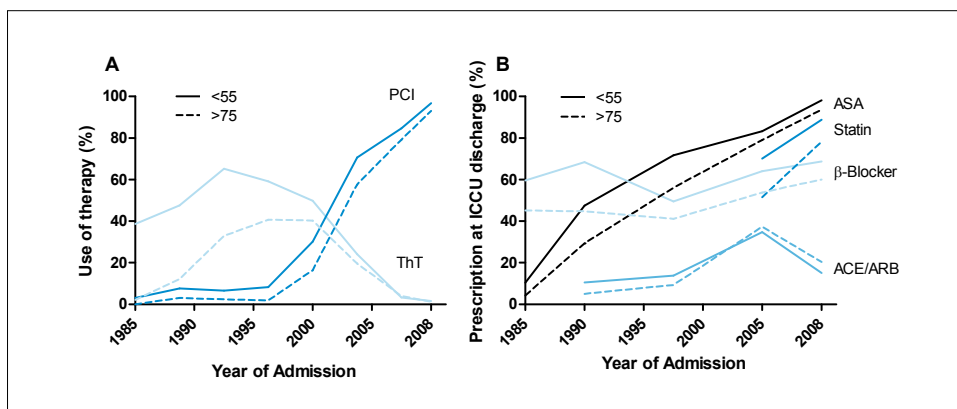
We included 14,434 patients, of whom 2,040 (14%) were >75 years of age. The distribution of age categories is shown in Table 1. A total of 110,690 person-years were analyzed.

### Patient characteristics

Patient characteristics are shown in Table 1. Older patients were more often female; more often had a history of CABG, anemia and renal impairment. Older patients were less often current smokers, less often had hypercholesterolemia, a family history of previous MI, or a discharge diagnosis of STEMI. For each decade of age, the odds of presenting with a STEMI decreased by 15% (odds ratio, OR 0.85, 95%CI: 0.83-0.88).

### Medical and invasive care during the study period

Age-dependent inequalities in care were present in 1985 and persisted during the 24-year study period. While use of reperfusion therapy (either by thrombolytic therapy or PCI) increased over time in all groups with STEMI ( $p < 0.001$ ), older patients were less likely to receive reperfusion therapy ( $p < 0.001$ ), although the differences appeared to become smaller during the study period (Figure 1A). Prescription of evidence-based medical care (class 1A), including aspirin,  $\beta$ -blockers, and statins was and remained lower in the elderly during the whole study period ( $p < 0.001$  for all). The prescription of ACE-inhibitors/ angiotensin-receptor blockers was lower for older patients in the



**Figure 1:** Treatment of patients over time: use of reperfusion therapy in STEMI (A) and use of evidence-based medical care in MI patients (B). ACE denotes angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor; ASA, aspirin; ARB, angiotensin receptor blocker; ThT, thrombolytic therapy.

1990s, but not thereafter (Figure 1B). Prescription of other medical therapy with a lower level of evidence for the treatment of MI, including calcium-antagonists, nitrates and diuretics at ICCU discharge was higher in the elderly (Table 1).

**Table 1: Baseline characteristics and clinical presentation of patients hospitalized for MI according to age on admission.**

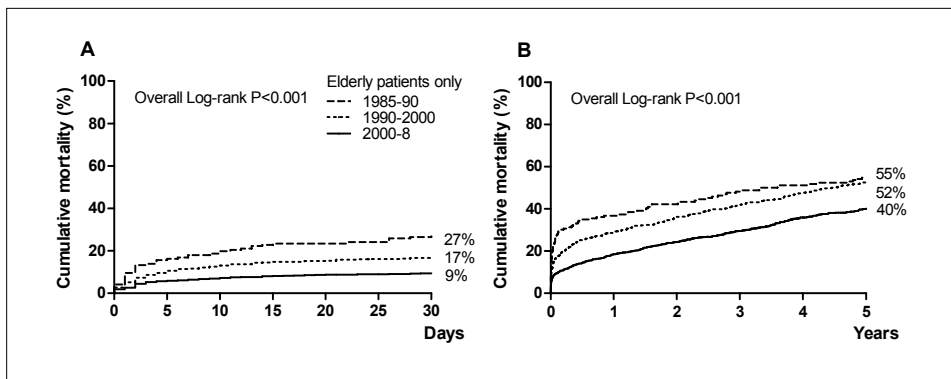
	Age on admission				P for trend
	<55	55-65	65-75	>75	
No. of patients	4319 (30%)	4113 (29%)	3962 (27%)	2040 (14%)	
<b>Baseline</b>					
Gender (female)	20%	23%	32%	45%	<0.001
<b>Cardiac history</b>					
Previous MI	30%	34%	36%	34%	<0.001
Previous PCI	14%	15%	15%	15%	0.37
Previous CABG	7%	10%	12%	10%	<0.001
<b>Risk factors</b>					
Hypertension	29%	37%	39%	39%	<0.001
Diabetes	11%	14%	16%	17%	<0.001
Hyperlipidemia	29%	30%	26%	21%	<0.001
Family history	35%	29%	21%	14%	<0.001
Current smoker	51%	35%	21%	11%	<0.001
Renal dysfunction	5%	7%	12%	14%	<0.001
Anemia	30%	39%	50%	58%	<0.001
<b>Discharge diagnosis</b>					
STEMI	54%	47%	41%	45%	<0.001
<b>Medication at ICCU * discharge</b>					
Ca-antagonist	19%	24%	27%	21%	<0.001
Diuretics	8%	11%	16%	20%	<0.001
Nitrates	11%	13%	14%	16%	<0.001
Antiarrhythmics	4%	4%	4%	4%	0.20

\* ICCU, intensive coronary care unit.

### Temporal trends in mortality

In the total study population, the risk of 30-day mortality decreased between 1985 and 2008 from 11% in 1985-90 to 4% in 2000-8. This decrease was more pronounced for patients aged >75 years, from 27% in 1985-90 to 9% in 2000-8 (Figure 2A). Also, for the study population as a whole, 5-year mortality decreased between 1985 and 2008, from 24% in 1985-90 to 17% in 2000-8, and for patients aged >75 years from 55% in 1985-90 vs. 40% in 2000-8 (Figure 2B).

From 1985 to 2008, the adjusted risk of 30-day mortality decreased by nearly 75%, in both the overall study population (adjusted OR 0.28, 95%CI: 0.23-0.34) as well as in the elderly (adjusted OR 0.29, 95%CI: 0.18-0.45; Table 2). The risk of 5-year mortality decreased by nearly 40% in both the overall study population (adjusted hazard ratio, HR 0.61, 95%CI: 0.54-0.68) and in the elderly (adjusted HR 0.63, 95%CI: 0.49-0.80; Table 2). Hence, the relative risk reduction in 30-day and long-term mortality over the 24-year study period was similar among the spectrum of ages.



**Figure 2:** Temporal trends: Kaplan-Meier curves of mortality according to decade of admission in elderly patients (aged >75).

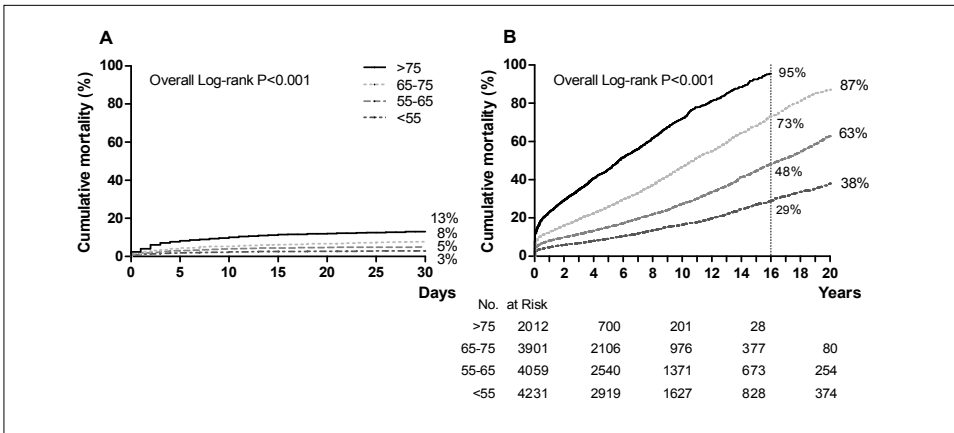
**Table 2:** Temporal trends of 30-day and 5-year mortality in MI patients.

Calendar period	All patients	>75
<b>Odds ratios for 30-day mortality</b>		
1985-90	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	0.61 (0.51-0.74)	0.59 (0.38-0.91)
2000-08	0.28 (0.23-0.34)	0.29 (0.18-0.45)
<b>Hazard ratios for 5-year mortality</b>		
1985-90	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	0.93 (0.83-1.0)	0.98 (0.77-1.2)
2000-08	0.61 (0.54-0.68)	0.63 (0.49-0.80)

Adjusted for gender, previous MI, previous CABG, hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, family history, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia and discharge diagnosis.

## Age and Mortality

As expected, the risk of mortality was higher in older MI patients at 30 days follow-up (13% for patients >75 years vs. 3% for those <55 years,  $p<0.001$ ) and during long-term follow-up (Figure 3: after 16 years, 95% for patients >75 years vs. 29% for those <55 years,  $p<0.001$ ). The (adjusted) mortality rates for 30-day and 20-year outcomes are presented in Table 3. There were no significant interactions between the baseline characteristics and age and mortality. One in seven of the patients were >75, but one third of the deaths within 30 days occurred in this group.



**Figure 3:** Kaplan-Meier curves of mortality according to age.

**Table 3:** Unadjusted and adjusted odds and hazard ratios of mortality according to age at hospitalization.

Age category	Unadjusted	Adjusted*
<b>Odds ratios for 30-day mortality</b>		
<55	Reference	Reference
55-65	1.8 (1.4-2.2)	1.6 (1.3-2.1)
65-75	2.8 (2.3-3.5)	2.5 (2.0-3.1)
>75	5.0 (4.0-6.2)	4.6 (3.6-5.8)
<b>Hazard ratios for 20-year mortality</b>		
<55	Reference	Reference
55-65	1.9 (1.7-2.1)	1.8 (1.7-2.0)
65-75	3.6 (3.4-4.0)	3.5 (3.2-3.8)
>75	7.3 (6.6-8.0)	7.3 (6.6-8.1)

\*Adjusted for the same variables as Table 2 and decade of hospitalization.

## Discussion

In this study conducted in a cohort of 14,434 MI patients, we showed that systematic differences in care were present between patients from different age groups: older patients were less likely to receive evidence-based medical care and reperfusion therapy during all 24 years of observation, although the differences became smaller over time. Furthermore, temporal trends in 30-day and long-term mortality showed substantial improvements in outcome during this 24-year period that were independent of age. Thus, these improvements in outcome were similar for all age groups. Finally, we demonstrated the association between age and mortality with follow-up data up to 20 years.

The better outcomes in younger patients could in part be due to the fact that effective therapies are better implemented among these patients. Previous studies<sup>[11, 14]</sup> showed that older patients with an STEMI who are eligible for reperfusion therapy, actually less often receive this treatment. Furthermore, other studies<sup>[11]</sup> showed that elderly patients with a NSTEMI are substantially less likely to undergo an invasive treatment strategy, while individual trials<sup>[15-16]</sup> have suggested that the benefit from an invasive strategy is mainly observed in patients >65 years of age (the “risk-treatment paradox”). Other proven therapies are also underused in the elderly<sup>[2, 17]</sup>, even in the absence of contra-indications.<sup>[18]</sup> These age-related treatment patterns persisted in the present study, although the overall temporal increase in the use of evidence-based therapies (especially primary PCI for STEMI) among the elderly is encouraging and confirms other recent observations in older patients with STEMI.<sup>[19]</sup>

Thirty-day and long-term mortality after MI have decreased during the past decades.<sup>[10, 20]</sup> However, two recent studies suggest that temporal mortality improvements did not occur in older patients.<sup>[21-22]</sup> However, data from our study clearly demonstrates that, in our center, similar reductions in 30-day and long-term mortality have occurred across all age groups. In fact, the i) numerically similar relative reductions over time and ii) the higher absolute mortality in the elderly, imply that in absolute terms, elderly patients benefit most from improved medical care during the past 24 years. Still, the application of evidence-based MI therapies to appropriate patients regardless of age may even further improve these outcomes.

Age is one of the most important predictors of risk in MI patients.<sup>[23]</sup> Relative odds of 6.2 to 7.8 for in-hospital mortality in patients >75 years compared to <55 years have previously been reported,<sup>[3, 22, 24]</sup> figures similar to that of the present study. Relative hazards for long-term mortality in the elderly are presented in this study, with follow-up data comprising almost a whole life course.

### **Strengths and limitations**

To our knowledge, this is the first paper investigating temporal trends in clinical characteristics, treatment and outcome of older patients (>75 years) with an MI over a time period of 24 years and with follow-up data for up to 20 years. Although the present study has unique strengths, some limitations should be mentioned. First, the discharge diagnosis of MI was based on the diagnosis of the attending physician. Newer definitions of MI have been published within the study period; these might interfere with the probability of an acute coronary syndrome patient to be diagnosed with MI. Still, these inconsistencies reflect clinical practice during these transitional periods. Second, given the nature of ageing this study reveals important associations but cannot prove causation. Finally, the present data are derived from a single center. Although this could result in a lower external validity, we think that this is unlikely to be the case since the definition of myocardial infarction and its therapeutic modalities are quite uniform, certainly in the Western world.

### **Conclusion**

The elderly contribute a substantial proportion to MI mortality. Subjects > 75 years of age were less likely to receive evidence-based medical care and reperfusion therapy over the 24-year study period. Despite this, improvements in the application of evidence-based MI care were evident across all age groups from 1985 to 2008. There were significant temporal reductions in 30-day and long-term mortality, that were equal across all age groups. In absolute terms, therefore, older patients benefit most from the improved medical care for MI during the last 24 years. It is likely that a further increase in the application of evidence-based therapies for MI in the elderly will further improve their short- and long term outcome.

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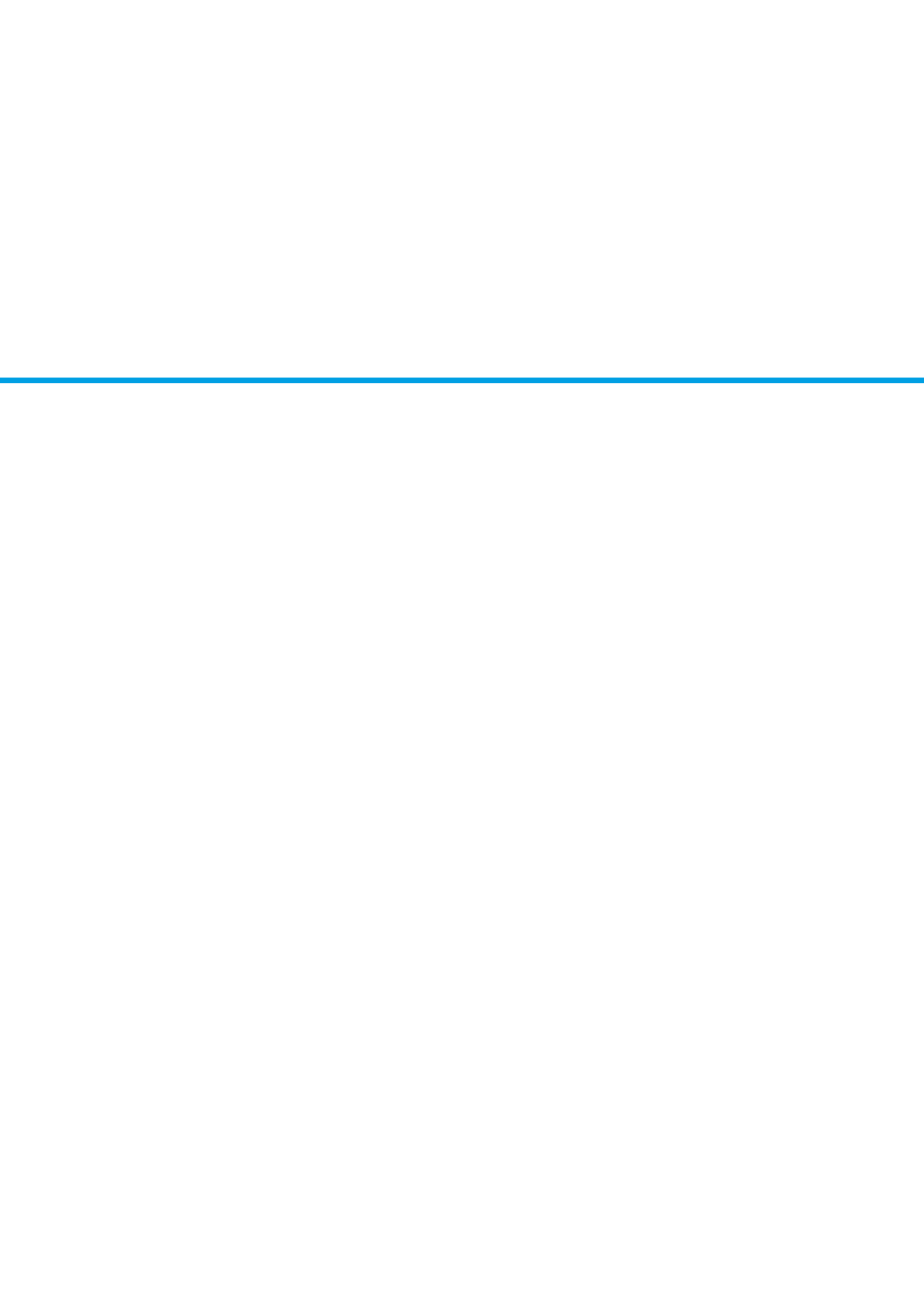
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# Chapter 7

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## Short- and long-term mortality after myocardial infarction in patients with and without diabetes mellitus: changes from 1985 to 2008

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## Abstract

### Objectives

To study temporal trends in short- and long-term outcome after myocardial infarction according to diabetes status.

### Research Design and Methods

We included all 14,434 consecutive patients admitted for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) or non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI) at our center between 1985 and 2008. The study patients were compared according to prevalent diabetes. Temporal trend analyses were performed by comparing decades of admission (1985-1990 vs. 1990-2000 vs. 2000-2008).

### Results

A total of 2,015 (14%) of the patients had prevalent diabetes. The risk of presenting with diabetes increased from 8% to 17% from 1985 to 2008. Diabetic patients presented with a higher prevalence of cardiovascular risk factors. With time, the use of evidence-based therapies increased in both patients with and without diabetes. Diabetes is associated with an 1.5-fold increased risk of mortality at 20 year follow-up. Ten-year mortality decreased over time, in patients with diabetes from 53% in 1985-90 to 39% in 2000-8 (adjusted HR 0.56, 95%CI: 0.43-0.73) and in those without diabetes from 38% in 1985-90 to 29% in 2000-8 (adjusted HR 0.66, 95%CI: 0.60-0.73; p interaction = 0.83). Patients with diabetes benefitted from a higher 30-day and 10-year absolute survival increase.

### Conclusions

Temporal mortality reductions after myocardial infarction between 1985 and 2008 were at least as high in patients with diabetes compared to those without. However, long-term mortality remained higher in diabetic patients. Awareness of the high risk profile of diabetic patients is warranted and might stimulate optimal medical care and their outcome.

Over the last decades, the prevalence of diabetes mellitus in patients with a myocardial infarction (MI) has increased significantly.<sup>[1-3]</sup> Current figures indicate that cardiovascular events are responsible for 80% of all deaths in patients with diabetes.<sup>[3]</sup> Within the past 25 years, the management and prognosis of MI has shown substantial progress; clinical evidence and guidelines have introduced thrombolytic therapy, primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI), tailored treatment according to individual risk, as well as improved secondary prevention.<sup>[1,4-8]</sup> However, some studies have shown that patients with diabetes suffering from acute MI are less likely to receive evidence-based therapies.<sup>[9-11]</sup> Furthermore, recent data have also suggested that patients with diabetes have not benefitted from the temporal long-term mortality reductions after MI, as opposed to patients without diabetes.<sup>[9]</sup> Therefore, the need for management that improves long-term post MI survival in patients with diabetes has been underlined.<sup>[9]</sup>

We aimed to investigate the effect of diabetes on (20 year) mortality, in a cohort of consecutive MI patients hospitalized from 1985 to 2008. Further, we aimed to determine whether temporal improvements in survival after MI have occurred equally in patients with and without diabetes.

## Research design and Methods

We included all consecutive patients aged >18 years admitted for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) or non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI) to the Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU) of the Thoraxcenter, Erasmus University Medical Center between June 1985 and December 2008.<sup>[1]</sup>

The primary discharge diagnosis of MI was made in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a typical serial rise (to at least three times the upper normal value) and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such as creatine kinase-MB or troponin-T (as of 2002). Patients were diagnosed as STEMI in the presence of ST-segment elevation > 0.1 mV in at least two contiguous peripheral leads, or > 0.2 mV in at least two contiguous precordial leads, and as NSTEMI otherwise.

For patients admitted more than once, only the first hospitalization was taken into account.

### **Data collection**

Diabetes was defined as previously diagnosed by a physician or as receiving medication to lower glucose levels. Trained physicians and nurses accustomed to the use of standardized case report forms collected the data. Demographic characteristics (age, gender), cardiac history (previous MI, PCI or coronary artery bypass surgery (CABG)), risk factors (hypertension, family history, smoking status), anemia (Hemoglobin level <13.0 g/dl in men, <12.0 g/dl in women), renal dysfunction (creatinine >150  $\mu\text{mol/l}$ ), and pharmacological and invasive treatment modalities (thrombolysis and PCI) were collected. Hypertension was defined as previously diagnosed by a physician or receiving medication to lower blood pressure. Family history was defined as one or more relatives (parent or sibling) with an MI diagnosed before the age of 60 years.

### **Follow-up and endpoints**

The primary endpoint was all-cause mortality. Survival status and date were assessed through municipal Civil Registries in 2010 and were available for 99% of all patients.

### **Ethics**

This project was carried out in accordance with current rules of ethics and legislature. No additional actions involving the study participants were undertaken because of this registry. Register based studies are approved by the ethical committee of the Erasmus MC and do not require informed consent according to Dutch laws ('WMO').

### **Statistical Analysis**

The study patients were categorized in two groups of patients according to prevalent DM. Patients were stratified in three groups according to the year of hospitalization: 1985-1990; 1990-2000; 2000-2008. These strata were chosen according to important improvements in therapy with complete introduction of thrombolytic therapy in 1990 and a substantial increase in the use of primary PCI since 2000. Categorical variables were summarized as frequencies and percentages. Cochran's statistic with correction for study period was used to calculate p-values. We assessed temporal



mortality trends by comparing one-minus-survival curves that were constructed using the Kaplan-Meier method. The log-rank test was used to compare survival curves. We examined the independent association between decade of hospitalization and mortality according to DM status, using logistic regression for 30-day outcome and the Cox proportional hazards model for long-term outcome. Adjustment was performed for age, gender, previous MI, previous CABG, hypertension, dyslipidemia, family history, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia and discharge diagnosis.

Results are reported as odds ratios (OR) -for 30-day mortality- and hazard ratios (HR) -for long-term mortality- and their respective 95% confidence intervals. For all analyses that compared decades of hospitalization we analyzed up to 10 years of follow-up, since longer follow-up is unavailable for patients hospitalized in the last decade (2000-2008). Interaction between DM status and study period and mortality was assessed using multivariable regression models. All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were considered significant at  $<0.05$ . Analysis was performed using SPSS software version 17.0 (SPSS, Chicago, USA).

## Results

### Patient characteristics

We included 14,434 patients, of whom 2015 (14%) had prevalent DM. For each calendar year, the relative risk of presenting with DM increased by 5%, from a prevalence of 8% in the 1980s to 17% in the last decade. The distribution of risk factors at baseline varied according to DM status and according to decade of admission (Table 1). Patients with DM were older and more often female, and more often had a history of previous MI, hypertension, dyslipidemia, anemia and renal impairment. Patients with DM were less often current smokers, and more often had a discharge diagnosis of NSTEMI.

### Medical and invasive care during the study period

The medical care provided to MI patients with and without DM was comparable, with no clinically relevant sex-differences. The use of reperfusion therapy (either by thrombolytic therapy or PCI) increased over time in both groups with STEMI ( $p<0.001$ ), and STEMI patients with DM were equally likely to receive primary PCI as

**Table 1: Baseline characteristics and clinical presentation of patients hospitalized for MI according to diabetes mellitus status**

	Diabetes			No diabetes			Overall P*
	1985-90	1990-2000	2000-8	1985-90	1990-2000	2000-8	
No. of patients	174	525	1316	2042	4075	6302	
(% of total in decade)	(8%)	(11%)	(17%)	(92%)	(89%)	(83%)	
<b>Baseline</b>							
Elderly (>65 year)	47%	45%	50%	37%	42%	41%	<0.001
Gender (female)	40%	40%	34%	24%	28%	26%	<0.001
<b>Cardiac history</b>							
Previous MI	49%	39%	32%	41%	32%	31%	<0.01
Previous PCI	11%	13%	18%	8%	10%	19%	0.47
Previous CABG	13%	12%	10%	13%	9%	9%	0.03
<b>Risk factors</b>							
Hypertension	41%	50%	59%	34%	29%	34%	<0.001
Dyslipidemia	9%	30%	50%	11%	21%	32%	<0.001
Family history	20%	21%	28%	24%	23%	29%	0.10
Current smoker	25%	26%	25%	40%	31%	33%	<0.001
Renal dysfunction	11%	15%	13%	9%	9%	6%	<0.001
Anemia	40%	47%	52%	34%	42%	42%	<0.001
<b>Discharge diagnosis</b>							
NSTEMI	55%	41%	57%	57%	58%	46%	<0.001
<b>Reperfusion therapy**</b>							
Primary PCI	8%	14%	82%	4%	12%	85%	0.45
Thrombolytic therapy	25%	47%	7%	32%	54%	8%	0.03
<b>Medication at ICCU discharge</b>							
Statin	0%	N.A.	74%	0%	N.A.	72%	0.12
Aspirin	17%	57%	85%	14%	61%	87%	0.02
Beta-blocker	49%	45%	62%	58%	54%	61%	0.02
ACE inhibitor or ARB	0%	15%	40%	0%	13%	27%	<0.001
Ca-antagonist	52%	30%	10%	54%	31%	9%	0.44
Nitrates	33%	13%	11%	31%	14%	6%	<0.001
Diuretics	41%	21%	16%	25%	12%	7%	<0.001
Antiarrhythmics	7%	3%	4%	7%	4%	3%	0.04

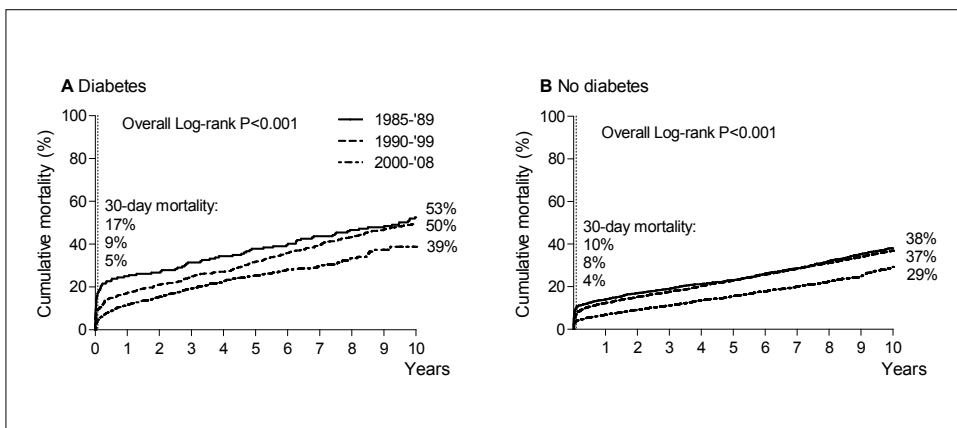
\* The overall P-value compares patients with and without diabetes with adjustment for calendar decade of admission.

\*\* STEMI patients only, n=6820.

those without DM. Prescription of evidence-based medical care (class 1A), including aspirin,  $\beta$ -blockers, statins and ACE-inhibitors/angiotensin-receptor blockers (ARBs) also increased over time in both groups. Overall, patients with DM were more likely to receive ACE-inhibitors/ ARBs, and less likely to receive aspirin and  $\beta$ -blockers. However, these differences were small and did not persist over time. Prescription of diuretics was higher in patients with DM. Other medical therapies with a lower level of evidence for the treatment of MI, including calcium-antagonists were prescribed at equal rates in both study groups (Table 1).

### Temporal trends in mortality

A total of 106,517 person-years were analyzed. At 10-year follow-up a total of 663 patients with and 3,285 patients without baseline DM had died. The unadjusted risk of 30-day mortality decreased between 1985 and 2008, both in the DM group from 17% in 1985-90 to 5% in 2000-8, and from 10% in 1985-90 to 4% in 2000-8 in the non-DM group (Figure 1). Also, unadjusted 10-year mortality decreased between 1985 and 2008, both in the DM group from 53% in 1985-90 vs. 39% in 2000-8, and in the non-DM group from 38% in 1985-90 to 29% in 2000-8. Patients with DM benefitted from a higher 30-day and long-term absolute survival increase (Figure 1).

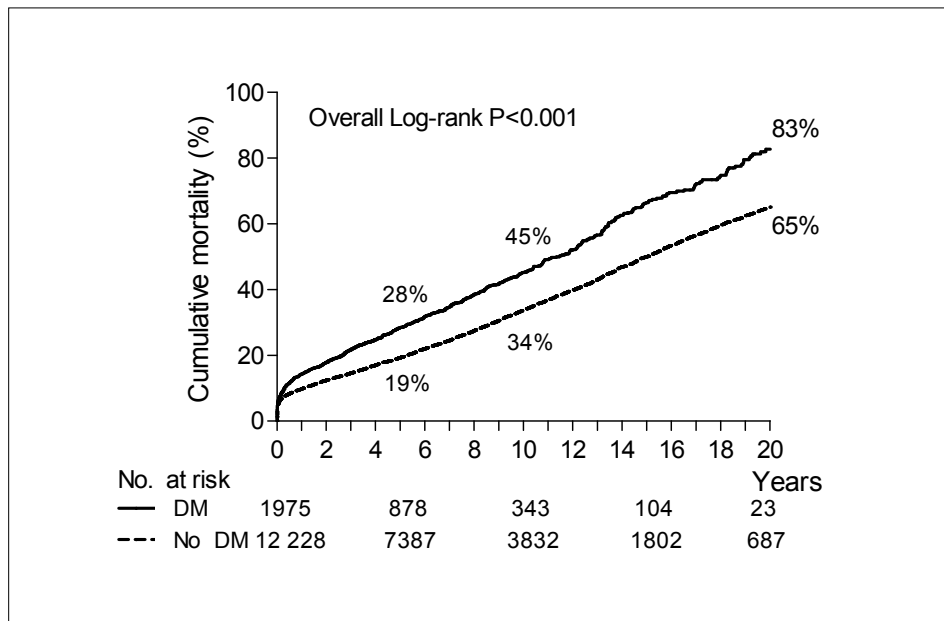


**Figure 1:** Temporal trends: Kaplan-Meier curves of mortality according to decade of hospitalization in patients with and without diabetes.

**Table 2: Temporal trends in 30-day and 10-year mortality in MI patients.**

Calendar period	Diabetes		No diabetes	
	Unadjusted	Adjusted	Unadjusted	Adjusted
<b>Odds ratios for 30-day mortality</b>				
1985-90	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	0.49 (0.30-0.81)	0.40 (0.23-0.69)	0.73 (0.60-0.88)	0.63 (0.52-0.78)
2000-08	0.23 (0.14-0.37)	0.17 (0.10-0.30)	0.37 (0.31-0.45)	0.29 (0.24-0.37)
<b>Hazard ratios for 10-year mortality</b>				
1985-90	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	0.88 (0.69-1.1)	0.83 (0.65-1.1)	0.96 (0.88-1.0)	0.96 (0.88-1.1)
2000-08	0.63 (0.50-0.80)	0.56 (0.43-0.73)	0.64 (0.58-0.70)	0.66 (0.60-0.73)

Adjusted for age, gender, previous MI, previous CABG, hypertension, dyslipidemia, family history, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia and discharge diagnosis.

**Figure 2: Kaplan-Meier curves of mortality according to diabetes for all MI patients.**

From 1985 to 2008, the adjusted risk of 30-day mortality decreased by about 80%, both in the DM group (adjusted OR 0.17, 95%CI: 0.10-0.30), and in the non-DM group (adjusted OR 0.29, 95%CI: 0.24-0.37; Table 2). The risk of 10-year mortality decreased by about 40%, both in the DM group (adjusted HR 0.56, 95%CI: 0.43-0.73) and in the non-DM group (adjusted hazard ratio, HR 0.66, 95%CI: 0.60-0.73; Table 2). There was no significant interaction between DM status and study period ( $p = 0.39$ , and  $p = 0.83$  for interaction for 30-day and 10-year mortality, respectively). Hence, the relative risk reductions in 30-day and long-term mortality over the 24-year study period were at least as high for MI patients with diabetes compared to those without.

### Diabetes and Mortality

As expected, the risk of mortality was higher in MI patients with prevalent diabetes. The increased mortality risk persisted up to 20-year follow-up (Figure 2). Patients with diabetes had a median survival of 11 years compared to 15 years for those without. Patients in the diabetes group had a 50% increased adjusted long-term mortality risk in all three decades studied (adjusted HR for 10-year mortality = 1.5, 1.5, and 1.4 in 1985-90, 1990-2000, and 2000-8, respectively,  $p < 0.001$  for all).

## Conclusions

In this study comprising a cohort of 14,434 patients with acute MI, studied over a period of 24 years, we showed that there is an increasing prevalence of diabetes mellitus in patients with an acute MI. More important, we showed that the temporal reductions in all-cause mortality in patients suffering acute MI, achieved between 1985 and 2008, were at least as high in patients with diabetes as in those without diabetes. This improvement in outcome is most likely related to the fact that, during the study period, the use of MI related medical care improved significantly, both for patients with and without diabetes. Indeed, in the most recent decade, diabetes was not associated with underuse of treatment any more. Finally, we demonstrated that the increased mortality risk associated with diabetes persisted up to 20 years follow-up.

A previous study<sup>[12]</sup> demonstrated the increasing burden of diabetes in relation to cardiovascular disease mortality in the general population. Relatively few studies have evaluated temporal trends in (long-term) mortality of MI patients with and without diabetes.<sup>[9, 11, 13]</sup> Moreover, the results of these studies were inconsistent. Two studies<sup>[11, 13]</sup> show temporal mortality reductions in patients with and without diabetes, while one study<sup>[9]</sup> concludes that patients with diabetes do not benefit from a reduction in long-term post MI mortality over time.

### **Treatment**

The awareness of the higher cardiovascular risk associated with diabetes has probably intensified cardioprotective treatment in these patients over time. We and others<sup>[9-10, 14]</sup> showed that from 1985 to 2000 the use of thrombolytic therapy and  $\beta$ -blockers was lower in patients with diabetes compared to those without. Studies<sup>[14-15]</sup> have shown the effectiveness of these therapies in patients with diabetes. It is therefore encouraging to observe that these inequalities in medical care are no longer present in the last decade of observation. Further, our data showed that in the last decade approximately 40% of diabetic patients were treated with ACE-inhibitors/ARBs at ICCU discharge (a median of 1 to 2 days after admission), a percentage higher than that for non-diabetic patients. ACE-inhibitors/ARBs slow myocardial remodeling and the progression of diabetic nephropathy.<sup>[16]</sup> This finding is consistent with other recent data.<sup>[10, 14]</sup> Diabetic patients received diuretics more often compared to non-diabetics, probably due to the higher risk profile in diabetic patients with more frequent hypertension and heart failure.<sup>[9]</sup>

### **Mortality**

We found a reduction in both 30-day and long-term mortality rates over time for MI patients with and without diabetes. Patients with diabetes benefitted from a higher 30-day and long-term absolute mortality reduction. The relative mortality reductions were statistically equal for patients with and without diabetes, which is consistent with another study reporting on patients hospitalized with an MI between 1979 and 1998.<sup>[11]</sup> Furthermore, other studies in the general population have shown that mortality from coronary heart disease has decreased over the past decades, and some of these studies speculated that patients with diabetes have also benefited

from this reduction.<sup>[17-19]</sup> The temporal mortality reduction observed in the present study may be a result of several factors, including improved treatment in the acute phase of MI, and increased long-term survival resulting from aggressive secondary prevention.<sup>[1,4-5,7-8,20]</sup> Although patients with diabetes benefitted at least equally from improved mortality rates over the last 25 years, their absolute long-term mortality remained about 1.5 fold higher compared to patients without diabetes. Therefore optimal medical care for diabetes patients and awareness of their high risk profile remains warranted, and may even further improve outcomes in these patients in the future.

### **Strengths and limitations**

To our knowledge, this is the first paper investigating temporal trends in clinical characteristics, treatment and outcome of MI patients with diabetes over a time period of 24 years and with follow-up data up to 20 years.

Although the present study has unique strengths, some limitations should be mentioned. First, the present data are derived from a single center. Although this could result in a lower external validity, we think that this is unlikely to be the case given the uniform definition and therapeutic modalities of MI. Second, we did not distinguish patients with type I and type II diabetes. Also, our definition of diabetes did not include patients who were diagnosed on the basis of glucose values during hospitalization for acute MI only. Therefore, the real prevalence of diabetes might have been underestimated, alternatively, our definition is not biased by altered glucose levels resulting from the acute event,<sup>[21]</sup> and allows for better comparison of our results with previous studies. Last, given the nature of diabetes this study reveals important associations but cannot prove causation.

In conclusion, we show that there is an increasing prevalence of diabetes in patients with an MI. Medical care improved substantially for MI patients both with and without diabetes during the 24 years of observation. In the most recent decade, diabetes was not associated with underuse of evidence-based therapies any more, including primary PCI for STEMI. In the study period, outcome improved, and temporal mortality reductions were at least as high in patients with diabetes compared to those without

diabetes. However, the absolute long-term mortality rate remained about 1.5 fold higher in patients with diabetes compared those without. Therefore, optimal medical care for diabetes patients and awareness of their high risk profile remains warranted.

## Author contributions

S.N., J.D., K.A. and R.v.D.: conception and design of the study, analysis and interpretation of data, drafting of the manuscript, revising the manuscript critically for important intellectual content and final approval of the manuscript submitted.

S.N. and R.v.D. are the guarantors of this work and, as such, had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

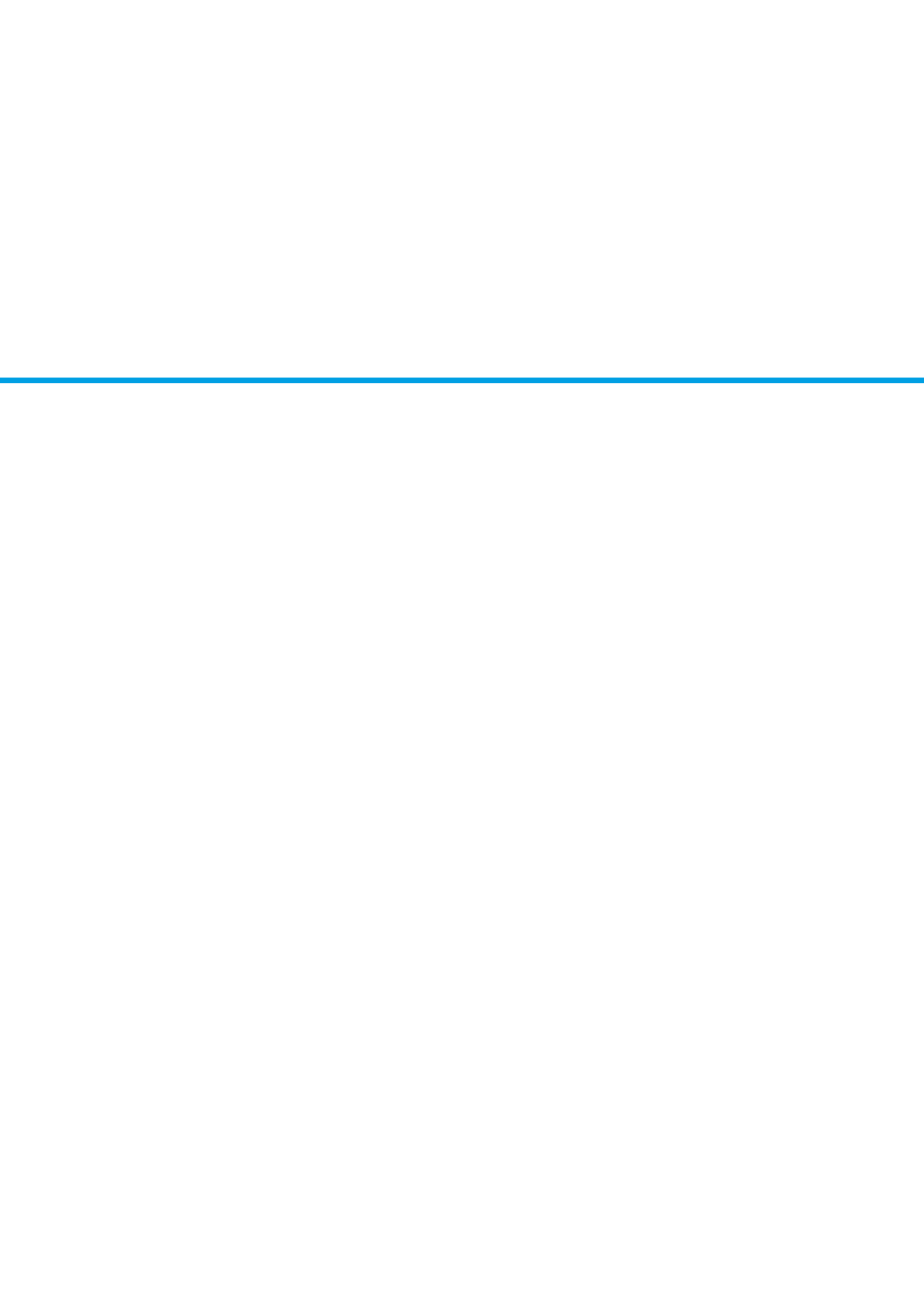


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# Chapter 8

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## Relation of admission glucose levels, short- and long-term (20-Year) mortality after acute myocardial infarction

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## Abstract

We examined temporal trends in mortality after myocardial infarction from 1985 to 2008 depending on admission glucose levels. We included 11,324 consecutive patients admitted to our Intensive Coronary Care Unit for myocardial infarction between 1985 and 2008. Patients were categorized into normal, mild and severe hyperglycemia (admission glucose levels <140, 140-200, and  $\geq$ 200 mg/dl, respectively). Temporal trends were determined using three groups: 1985-1990, 1990-2000 and 2000-2008. The prevalence of hyperglycemia increased from 26% in the 1980s to 49% in the 2000s. The prevalence of hyperglycemia primarily increased in patients without diabetes. Kaplan-Meier mortality was 4%, 8% and 17%, at 30 days, and 64%, 71% and 82%, at 20 years, in patients with normal, mild and severe hyperglycemia, respectively. Compared to normal admission glucose, adjusted 30-day mortality was 3.6-fold higher (95%CI: 2.9-4.3) in patients with severe hyperglycemia. This association was not dependent on diabetic status (p-interaction =0.43), but was dependent on decade of hospitalization with a stronger association from 2000-2008 (adjusted OR 7.7, 95%CI: 5.4-11, p-interaction <0.001). Compared to diabetes, hyperglycemia was a better discriminator for 30-day mortality. Mortality at 30 days fell between 1985 and 2008, however, it declined less in patients with hyperglycemia compared to those with normoglycemia. In conclusion, elevated admission glucose levels are common in patients with myocardial infarction and strongly associated with increased mortality. Mortality fell less from 1985 to 2008 in patients with hyperglycemia compared to those with normoglycemia. Efforts that establish optimal treatment for these patients remain warranted.

### Keywords

Myocardial infarction, hyperglycemia, survival, temporal trends.

## Introduction

Elevated glucose levels are common in patients hospitalized for acute myocardial infarction (MI) with a prevalence of about 40%.<sup>[1-2]</sup> Although it has been established that hyperglycemia is associated with adverse outcome during hospitalization,<sup>[2-6]</sup> only a limited number of studies has examined the long-term effects of hyperglycemia in MI.<sup>[3,5]</sup> Also, the interplay between diabetes mellitus and hyperglycemia is still unclear. In addition, no previous study has reported on the changes in the impact of hyperglycemia on mortality during the last 25 years. Therefore, the aims of the present study were 1) to determine the association of hyperglycemia at admission with both early and long-term (up to 20 years) mortality after MI, 2) to assess the effect of hyperglycemia in MI patients with diabetes versus those without diabetes, 3) to compare the predictive value of hyperglycemia with that of diabetes for long-term mortality and 4) to study the changes in these relationships over the last three decades.

## Methods

We included all patients aged >18 years with a first admission for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) or non-STEMI (NSTEMI) to the intensive coronary care unit (ICCU) of the Thoraxcenter, Erasmus Medical Center between June 1985 and December 2008 with an available glucose level at admission.

The primary diagnosis of MI was made in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a typical serial rise (to at least three times the upper normal value) and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such as creatine kinase-MB or troponin-T. Patients were diagnosed as STEMI in the presence of ST-segment elevation > 0.1 mV in at least two contiguous peripheral leads, or > 0.2 mV in at least two contiguous pre-cordial leads, and as NSTEMI otherwise.

Trained physicians and nurses accustomed to the use of standardized case report forms collected the patient data. Definitions have previously been described.<sup>[7]</sup>

Glucose value was determined on admission and was therefore non-fasting. As in the World Health Organization definition, we defined hyperglycemia as admission glucose levels  $\geq 140$  mg/dl (7.8 mmol/L).<sup>[8]</sup> Patients with hyperglycemia were further categorized into mild (140-200 mg/dl L), or severe hyperglycemia ( $\geq 200$  mg/dl;  $\geq 11.1$  mmol/L) similar to ranges used by others previously.<sup>[4]</sup> Patients were categorized as diabetic if diabetes has previously been diagnosed by a physician, or when they received medication to lower blood glucose levels.<sup>[9]</sup>

The study endpoint was all-cause mortality at 30 days and at 20 years. Survival date was assessed through municipal Civil Registries which is updated regularly and therefore highly accurate in the Netherlands. Follow-up was available for 99% of all patients.

This project was carried out in accordance with current rules of ethics and legislature. The Ethical Committee of the Erasmus Medical Center waived the need for its approval because register-based studies do not require ethical approval according to Dutch law.

Categorical variables were summarized as percentages, continuous variables as mean and standard deviation. The Chi-square test or student's t-test was used to calculate p-values, as appropriate. Cumulative survival curves according to glucose levels were constructed using the Kaplan-Meier method, and compared by the log-rank test.

Logistic regression was used to model mortality at 30 days and Cox proportional hazards model to examine mortality during long-term follow-up. We separately investigated the independent association between admission glucose levels and mortality, as well as that between diabetes and mortality. Adjustment was performed for age, gender, previous MI, previous coronary artery bypass surgery (CABG), hypertension, hyperlipidemia, family history of coronary artery disease, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia, diagnosis (STEMI versus NSTEMI) and decade of hospital admission. A significant interaction term was found for 30-day mortality between admission glucose levels and decade of admission ( $p < 0.001$ ) and for long-term mortality between admission glucose levels and diabetes ( $p = 0.012$ ). Accordingly, additional analysis are presented according to decade of admission and diabetes status.



Temporal trend analyses were performed by comparing decades of admission (i.e. 2000-2008 versus 1990-2000 versus 1985-1990) in patients with and without hyperglycemia, respectively. These strata were chosen according to important improvements in therapy, with complete introduction of thrombolytic therapy in 1990 and a substantial increase in the use of primary PCI since 2000. We used 10-year outcomes for comparing the influence of decades of admission on outcome.

Results are reported as odds ratios (OR) -for 30-day mortality- and hazard ratios (HR) -for long-term mortality- and their respective 95% confidence intervals. All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were considered significant at <0.05. Analyses was performed using SPSS software version 20.0 (SPSS, Chicago, Ill).

## Results

We included 11,324 patients, of whom 4,671 (41%) had elevated admission glucose levels. On average, patients with hyperglycemia were 2 years older and were more often female compared to patients with normal glucose levels. Baseline characteristics and early medical management according to admission glucose levels is shown in Table 1.

Between 1985 and 2008, the prevalence of hyperglycemia at admission increased from 26% in the 1980s to 49% in the 2000s (Figure 1A). This increase was not only due to an increase in the prevalence of diabetes at admission (from 7% to 21%; Figure 1A) but also due to an increase in hyperglycemia among patients without diabetes (from 22% to 42%; Figure 1B). In those patients with diabetes, the prevalence of admission hyperglycemia remained rather constant during the entire study period (decreased from 76% to 73%; Figure 1B).

A total of 83,585 person-years were analyzed and, during this period, 4,449 patients died. There was a gradual increase in 30-day mortality with increasing admission glucose levels (Figure 2). Kaplan-Meier 30-day mortality rates were higher in patients with mild ( $\geq 7.8$  mmol/L) or severe ( $\geq 11.1$  mmol/L) hyperglycemia (respectively 8% and 17%) compared to patients with normal admission glucose levels (mortality of 4%; Figure 3). This gradual increase in mortality remained unchanged after adjustment

**Table 1: Baseline characteristics and clinical presentation of patients hospitalized for myocardial infarction (MI) according to admission glucose levels**

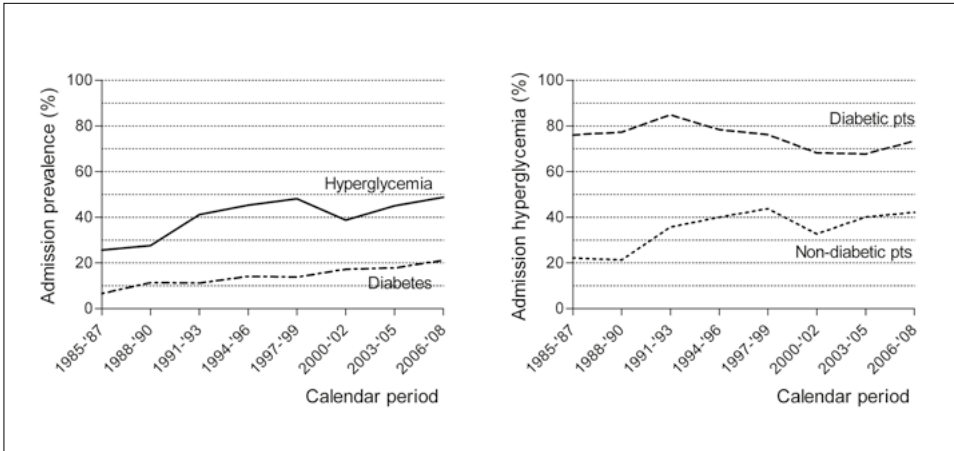
Variable	Admission Glucose			p
	Normal, n = 6,653 (%)	Mild Hyperglycemia, n = 2,917 (%)	Severe Hyperglycemia, n = 1,754 (%)	
Age (yrs)	61 ± 13	63 ± 12	63 ± 12	<0.001
Women	26	28	35	<0.001
Previous MI	35	29	29	<0.001
Previous PCI	14	14	13	0.30
Previous CABG	10	9	8	0.021
Hypertension	35	37	39	<0.001
Diabetes	7	16	45	<0.001
Dyslipidemia	27	23	22	<0.001
Family history of CAD	28	24	20	<0.001
Current smoker	35	33	27	<0.001
Anemia *	23	26	27	<0.001
<b>Renal dysfunction †</b>				<0.001
Normal	29	29	22	
Mild	51	47	44	
Severe	20	24	34	
STEMI	52	65	66	<0.001
<b>Reperfusion therapy ‡</b>				
Primary PCI	48	57	54	0.08
Thrombolytic therapy	23	25	23	0.37

CABG = coronary artery bypass surgery; CAD = coronary artery disease; eGFR = estimated glomerular filtration rate; PCI = percutaneous coronary intervention.

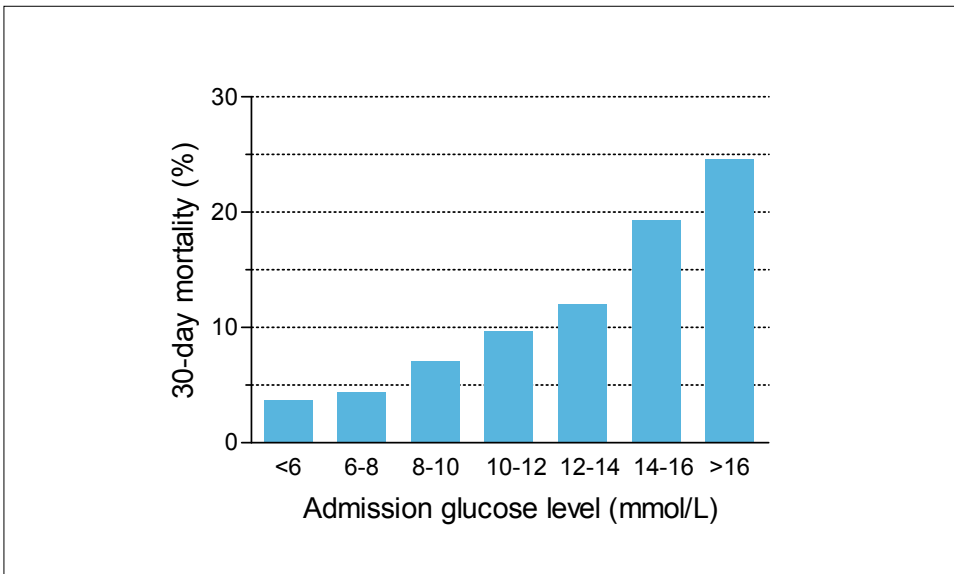
\* Anemia was defined as a hemoglobin level of <12.0 g/dl in women and <13.0 g/dl in men.

† Normal: eGFR 2:90 ml/min; mild: eGFR 60 to 90 ml/min; and severe: eGFR <60 ml/min per 1.73 m<sup>2</sup> of body surface area.

‡ Patients with STEMI only.



**Figure 1:** Prevalence of hyperglycemia and diabetes at hospitalization for myocardial infarction according to calendar year. Left: Prevalence of hyperglycemia (admission glucose  $\geq 7.8$  mmol/L) or diabetes over time. Right: Prevalence of hyperglycemia in subgroups of patients (pts) with and without diabetes.



**Figure 2:** 30-day mortality according to the spectrum of admission glucose levels.

for potential confounders (adjusted OR 1.6, 95%CI: 1.3-2.0 for mild hyperglycemia and 3.6, 95%CI: 2.9-4.3 for severe hyperglycemia) (Table 2). Interestingly, the association between hyperglycemia at admission and 30-day mortality was stronger in patients who were hospitalized from 2000 to 2008 (adjusted OR 2.1, 95%CI: 1.5-2.9 for mild hyperglycemia and 7.7, 95%CI: 5.4-11 for severe hyperglycemia;  $p$  for interaction  $< 0.001$ ) compared to those hospitalized earlier.

**Table 2: Adjusted odds ratios and hazard ratios for mortality according to admission glucose levels and presence of diabetes mellitus**

Variable	All Patients	Patients With Diabetes
<b>30-Day mortality*</b>		
Hyperglycemia:		
Normal	Reference	Reference †
Mild	1.6 (1.3–2.0)	1.6 (0.79–3.1)
Severe	3.6 (2.9–4.3)	3.4 (1.8–6.2)
Diabetes	1.2 (0.94–1.4)	NA
<b>20-Yr mortality*</b>		
Hyperglycemia:		
Normal	Reference	Reference ‡
Mild	1.1 (1.1–1.2)	0.88 (0.71–1.1)
Severe	1.6 (1.5–1.8)	1.3 (1.1–e1.5)
Diabetes	1.5 (1.3–1.6)	NA
<b>20-Yr mortality among 30-day survivors*</b>		
Hyperglycemia:		
Normal	Reference	Reference †
Mild	1.1 (1.0–1.2)	0.83 (0.66–1.0)
Severe	1.4 (1.3–1.5)	1.1 (0.89–1.3)
Diabetes	1.5 (1.4–1.7)	NA

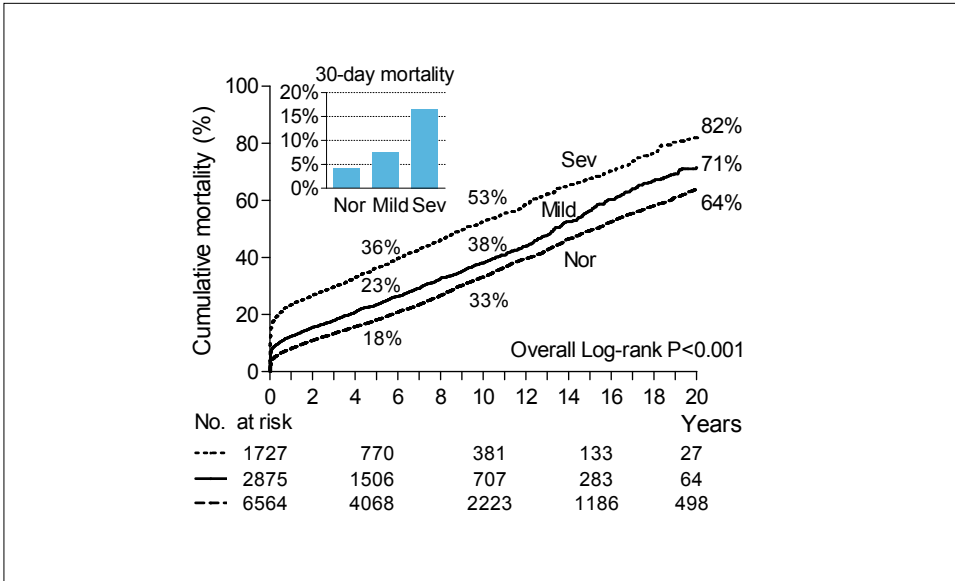
NA = not applicable.

\* Adjusted for age, gender, previous MI, previous coronary artery bypass surgery, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, family history, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia, diagnosis, and decade of hospital admission.

† Interaction for diabetes and admission glucose levels,  $p = 0.43$ .

‡ Interaction for diabetes and admission glucose levels,  $p = 0.012$ .

x Interaction for diabetes and admission glucose levels,  $p = 0.056$ .



**Figure 3:** Kaplan-Meier curves of unadjusted mortality according to glucose levels at hospitalization. Sev: severe hyperglycemia ( $\geq 11.1$  mmol/L), Mild: mild hyperglycemia (7.8-11.0 mmol/L), Nor: normal admission glucose ( $< 7.8$  mmol/L).

At 20-year follow-up, Kaplan-Meier mortality rates remained higher in patients with mild or severe hyperglycemia (respectively 71% and 82%) compared to patients with a normal admission glucose levels (mortality of 64%; Figure 3). This gradual increase in long-term mortality was also not affected by adjustment for potential confounders (Table 2).

Hyperglycemia (adjusted OR 2.3, 95%CI: 2.0-2.8) was a stronger predictor than diabetes (adjusted OR 1.2, 95%CI: 0.94-1.4), for 30-day mortality. However, diabetes (adjusted HR among 30-day survivors 1.5, 95%CI: 1.4-1.7) was a stronger predictor for long-term mortality compared to hyperglycemia (HR among 30-day survivors 1.2, 95%CI: 1.1-1.3).

There was significant heterogeneity in the association between admission glucose levels and 20-year mortality depending on diabetic status ( $p$  for interaction = 0.012). This indicates that the effect of admission glucose on long-term mortality was

significantly different in patients without compared to those with diabetes, namely increased glucose levels at admission were a strong predictor for long-term mortality in the subgroup without diabetes, but only a weak predictor in those with diabetes (Table 2). This was not the case for 30-day mortality, as the effect of admission glucose on 30-day mortality was similar in patients without and in those with diabetes (p for interaction = 0.43).

Survival after MI improved during the 24-year study period (Table 3). Compared to the period 1985-1990, 30-day mortality was 78% lower in 2000-2008 in patients without hyperglycemia (adjusted OR 0.22, 95%CI: 0.15-0.31) and 50% lower in 2000-2008 in patients with hyperglycemia (adjusted OR 0.50, 95%CI: 0.36-0.88) (p for interaction <0.001). Thus, patients without hyperglycemia benefitted from a higher reduction in 30-day mortality than subjects with hyperglycemia. During the study period, the long-term mortality decline was similar among patients with and without hyperglycemia (p for interaction = 0.49; Table 3).

**Table 3: Temporal trends of 30-day and 10-year mortality in myocardial infarction patients**

Calendar Period	No Hyperglycemia	Hyperglycemia (Mild and Severe)
<b>ORs for 30-day mortality <sup>*,†</sup></b>		
1985-1990	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	0.51 (0.38–0.69)	0.77 (0.57–1.0)
2000-2008	0.22 (0.15–0.31)	0.50 (0.36–0.68)
<b>Hazard ratios for 10-yr mortality <sup>*,z</sup></b>		
1985-1990	Reference	Reference
1990-2000	1.0 (0.92–1.2)	0.93 (0.81–1.1)
2000-2008	0.70 (0.61–0.80)	0.63 (0.53–0.73)

\* Adjusted for the same variables as Table 2 and diabetes.

† Interaction for decade and hyperglycemia, p <0.001.

z Interaction for decade and hyperglycemia, p <0.49.

## Discussion

In this large, contemporary cohort of acute MI patients, we demonstrated that admission glucose levels were strongly related with mortality up to 20 years during all past three decades. Compared to diabetes, hyperglycemia was a better discriminator for short-term mortality. These results are important because the prevalence of elevated admission glucose levels has increased substantially with time. The prevalence of hyperglycemia at admission increased by 22% from 1985 to almost 50% in 2008. Remarkably, the association between hyperglycemia and short-term mortality was significantly stronger in the present era. Apparently, contemporary treatment has resulted in relatively low mortality in the most healthy subjects. Therefore, although we showed that mortality after acute MI declined between 1985 and 2008, the observed decline was less pronounced in patients with hyperglycemia. Finally, we demonstrated that the association between admission glucose levels and short-term mortality was not dependent on diabetic status; a high admission glucose level was a predictor of mortality in patients with diabetes as well as in those without previously diagnosed diabetes.

Our results expand the current knowledge on the relationship between admission glucose and outcomes over the past decades in patients hospitalized with acute MI. Prior studies reported an association between elevated glucose on admission and short-term mortality in acute MI patients during limited calendar periods.<sup>[2-6,10-11]</sup> Similar to our findings, most of these studies also noted that this association is not dependent on diabetic status.<sup>[4-5,10-11]</sup> However, no previous study has compared different decades of hospitalization. This is important, not only because treatment of acute MI has changed substantially during the past three decades, but also because patient characteristics at presentation have evolved.<sup>[12]</sup> In the upper 2000s, 96% of our STEMI patients were actually treated with primary PCI.<sup>[12]</sup> Interestingly, hyperglycemia proved to be a significantly stronger predictor of adverse 30-day outcome after MI in the last decade than 25 years ago.

Hyperglycemia has potential as a treatment target in acute MI patients. Unfortunately, results of acute interventions in glucose metabolism in patients with MI are currently inconclusive.<sup>[13-16]</sup> Thus, further randomized controlled trials are needed in this patient population.<sup>[1,17]</sup>

In our study patients were categorized into admission glucose level <140, 140-200 and >200 mg/dL (<7.8, 7.8-11.0, and  $\geq$ 11.1 mmol/L, respectively). Since admission glucose levels were found to be a powerful predictor of short-term mortality with a better discriminative ability than diabetes and independent of other clinical patient factors or potential confounders, risk prediction models after MI could be improved by including admission glucose level. This might affect treatment decisions in individual patients by the use of more intensive strategies in such high risk patients.

A unique observation of the present study is the 20 year long follow-up period, which is much longer than in previous studies.<sup>[3-5]</sup> Although hyperglycemia remained associated with increased long-term mortality, the actual presence of diabetes at admission proved to be a better predictor in the long term. Diabetes is a chronic disease, and its presence therefore reflects a long-term abnormal glucose metabolism, whereas admission hyperglycemia could resolve during follow-up.<sup>[6]</sup> Hyperglycemia was not associated with long-term mortality in patients with diabetes. It is conceivable that part of the association between elevated admission glucose and long-term mortality is mediated by hyperglycemia patients who develop diabetes in the near future.<sup>[3]</sup> As such, admission hyperglycemia could still function as an important discriminator of long-term mortality in non-diabetic patients.<sup>[3]</sup>

Finally, another distinctive aspect of our study includes the observed temporal trends. Importantly, a substantial increase in the prevalence of hyperglycemia at admission for acute MI was observed during the 24 year study period. This occurred in patients without diabetes and therefore was not solely the result of an increase in the prevalence of diabetes.<sup>[9]</sup> Still, it might be that both the increase in admission hyperglycemia as well as in diabetes prevalence is mediated by an increasing prevalence of insulin resistance resulting from higher population levels of adiposity, sarcopenia and physical inactivity.<sup>[18-19]</sup>



We have previously shown that 30-day mortality in subjects hospitalized for acute MI declined between 1985 and 2008.<sup>[12]</sup> We have now found that, in patients with admission hyperglycemia, mortality fell significantly less than in patients with normoglycemia at admission. Although the temporal mortality decline in patients with normoglycemia is encouraging, improved short term outcome in patients with hyperglycemia is warranted.

## Disclosures

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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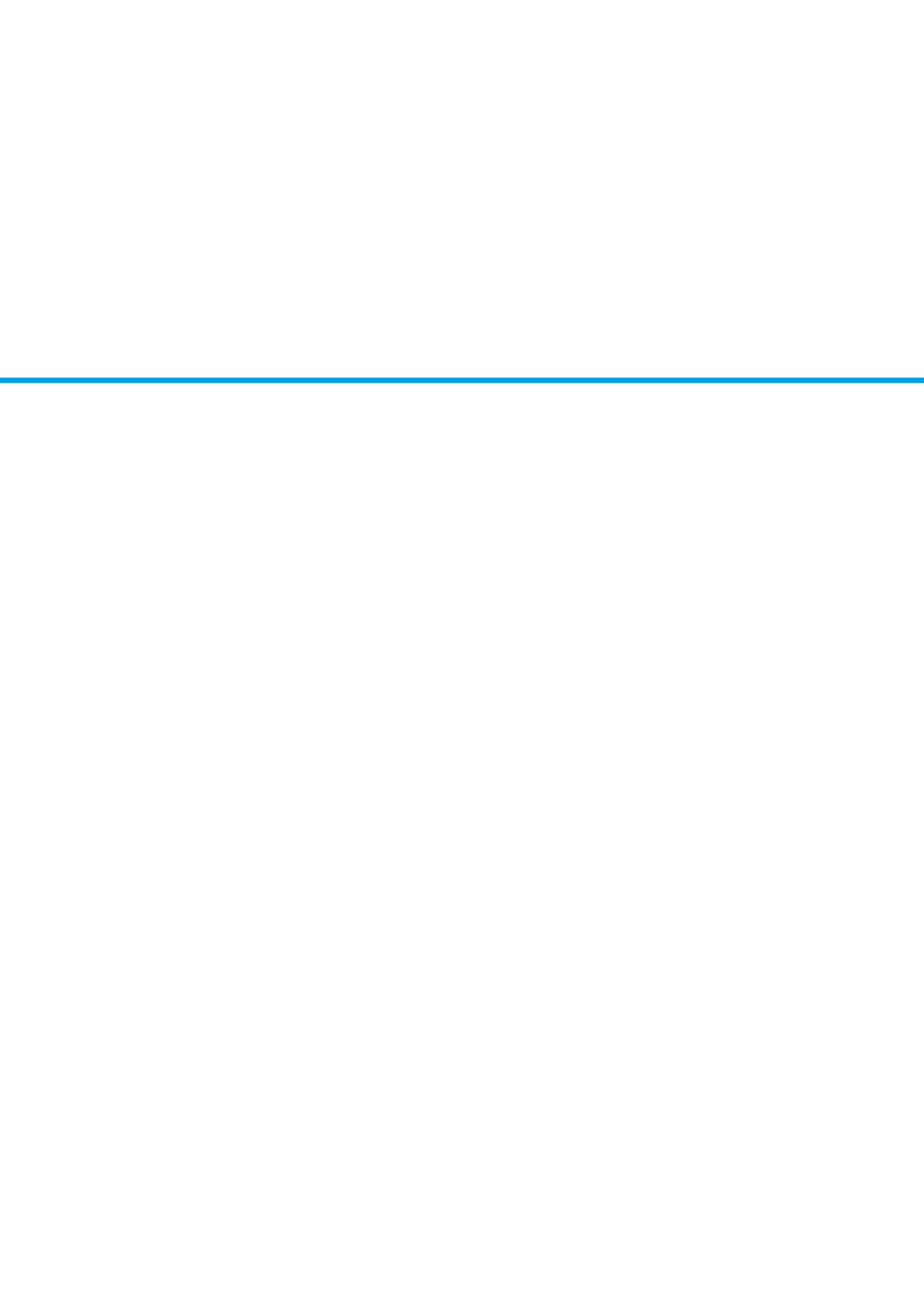
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Part III

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# Gender differences



# Chapter 9

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## Sex-related trends in mortality in hospitalized men and women after myocardial infarction between 1985 and 2008: equal benefit for women and men

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## Abstract

### Background

We aimed to study sex-related differences in temporal trends in short- and long-term mortality from 1985 to 2008 in patients hospitalized for acute myocardial infarction (MI).

### Methods and Results

We included a total of 14,434 consecutive patients admitted to our Intensive Coronary Care Unit between 1985 and 2008 for MI. A total of 4,028 (28%) patients were women. Women were more likely to present with a higher risk profile and equally likely to receive pharmacological and invasive reperfusion therapy compared to men. Women had a higher unadjusted mortality rate at 30-days (OR 1.3, 95%CI: 1.1-1.5) and during 20-years (HR 1.1, 95%CI: 1.0-1.2) follow-up. After adjustment for baseline characteristics, 30-day mortality was equal (adjusted OR 1.0, 95%CI: 0.85-1.2), but the hazard for 20-year mortality was lower (adjusted HR 0.77, 95%CI: 0.66-0.90) in women compared to men. For 30-day mortality, there was no significant interaction between sex and age, diagnosis or diabetes. Survival improved between 1985 and 2008. Temporal mortality reductions between 1985 and 2008 were at least as high in women compared to men with MI, both for 30-day mortality and long-term mortality hazard.

### Conclusions

The fact that adjusted mortality rates for both the men and women treated for myocardial infarction in an Intensive Coronary Care Unit were similar and declined markedly over a 24-year period suggests that both sexes benefit from the evidence-based therapies that have been developed and implemented during this time period.

### Keywords

Sex, Prognosis, Myocardial Infarction



## Introduction

Cardiovascular disease is the number one cause of death in women and, the total number of women who die from cardiovascular disease is higher than this number in men.<sup>[1]</sup> Myocardial infarction (MI) is the major cardiovascular cause of death in both sexes. Since 1985, considerable progress has been made in the management of MI and treatment outcomes; clinical evidence has guided the introduction of thrombolytic therapy, primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI), tailored treatment according to individual risk and improved secondary prevention.<sup>[2-4]</sup>

It has been suggested that women with an MI may have benefitted less from the improvements in treatment and outcome that have occurred over the past 25 years because they were underrepresented in clinical trials.<sup>[5-9]</sup> However, no previous study has compared sex differences over a calendar period that included such marked changes in treatment and outcome of MI.

Furthermore, due to the progress made in the management of MI, at present, most patients hospitalized with MI survive until discharge.<sup>[4]</sup> For that reason, long-term outcomes after MI become increasingly important. However, only a limited number of studies have reported mortality rates after MI according to sex with a follow-up duration longer than one year.<sup>[10-12]</sup> Awareness of sex-differences in patient characteristics, treatment and outcome may eventually improve the clinical management and survival after MI in both women and men.

Therefore, the aims of the present study were to determine sex-related differences in baseline characteristics and treatment, as well as short-term mortality and long-term (20 year) mortality. Furthermore, we investigated whether the changes in mortality after MI that occurred between 1985 and 2008 were different for women and men. For this purpose, we analyzed 14,434 consecutive MI patients admitted to the Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU) of the Erasmus Medical Center from 1985 to 2008.

## Methods

We included all consecutive patients aged >18 years with a first admission for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) or non-STEMI (NSTEMI) to the ICCU of the Thoraxcenter, Erasmus University Medical Center between June 1985 and December 2008.<sup>[13]</sup> No other inclusion or exclusion criteria were used.

The diagnosis of MI was made in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a typical serial rise (to at least three times the upper normal value) and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such as creatine kinase-MB or troponin-T. Patients were diagnosed as STEMI in the presence of ST-segment elevation > 0.1 mV in at least two contiguous peripheral leads, or > 0.2 mV in at least two contiguous pre-cordial leads, and as NSTEMI otherwise.

Trained physicians and nurses accustomed to the use of standardized case report forms collected the data. Demographic characteristics (age, sex), cardiac history (previous MI, PCI or coronary artery bypass surgery, CABG), risk factors (hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, family history of coronary artery disease, smoking status), anemia (hemoglobin level < 12.0 g/dl in women, <13.0 g/dl in men), renal dysfunction, and pharmacological and invasive treatment modalities (thrombolysis and PCI) were collected. Renal dysfunction was defined according to glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) estimated with the Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD) equation.<sup>[14]</sup> Hypertension, hyperlipidemia and diabetes were defined as previously diagnosed by a physician or receiving medication to lower blood pressure, cholesterol or glucose levels, respectively. Family history was defined as one or more relatives (parent or sibling) with an MI diagnosed before the age of 60 years.

The study endpoint was all-cause mortality at 30 days and during 20 years. Survival date was assessed through municipal Civil Registries which is updated regularly and therefore highly accurate in the Netherlands. Follow-up was available for 98% of all patients.

This project was carried out in accordance with current rules of ethics and legislature. The Ethical Committee of the Erasmus Medical Center waived the need for its approval because register-based studies do not require ethical approval according to Dutch law.

### **Statistical Analysis**

Categorical variables were summarized as percentages, continuous variables as mean and standard deviation. The Chi-square test or student's t-test was used to calculate p-values, as appropriate. To ease the display of descriptive results, sex-ratios for each decade were computed to compare women and men. Cumulative survival curves according to sex were constructed using the Kaplan-Meier method, and compared by the log-rank test.

We examined the independent association between sex and mortality or mortality hazard using logistic regression for 30-day outcome and the Cox proportional hazards model for long-term outcome, respectively. Adjustment was performed for the baseline variables age, previous MI, previous CABG, hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, family history of coronary artery disease, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia, diagnosis and decade of hospital admission. Proportionality of hazards was tested graphically by inspection of log-log survival curves and by a formal test of proportionality based on Schoenfeld residuals. In the multivariable model, a multiple imputation algorithm with five imputations was used to handle the 2229 (15%) and 2347 (16%) patients in whom anemia status or renal function, respectively, was missing. Multiple imputation methods are known to be superior to complete case analyses.<sup>[15]</sup> In line with the literature, the association between sex and 30-day mortality was also examined in subgroups according to age (<65 year and ≥65 year), diagnosis (STEMI or NSTEMI) and diabetes status. We assessed heterogeneity within these subgroups with a statistical test for interaction.

Similar multivariable models were used to assess changes in mortality from 1985 to 2008 in women and men, separately. For this purpose, calendar periods of 3 years were compared. Results are reported as odds ratios (OR) -for 30-day mortality- and hazard ratios (HR) -for long-term mortality- and their respective 95% confidence

intervals. All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were considered significant at  $<0.05$ . To address multiplicity of testing for heterogeneity, p-values for interaction were considered significant at  $<0.017$  ( $0.05$  divided by three, as we defined subgroups according to three characteristics).<sup>[16]</sup> Analysis was performed using SPSS software version 20.0 (SPSS, Chicago, Ill).

## Results

### Patient characteristics

We included 14,434 patients, of whom 4,028 (28%) were women. On average, women were 5 years older. In addition, compared to men, women more often had hypertension, diabetes mellitus, renal dysfunction or anemia, were less often current smokers, and less often had a history of prior MI, PCI or CABG, or a diagnosis of STEMI (Table 1). From 1985 to 2008, the patients became older on presentation (Figure 1), and were

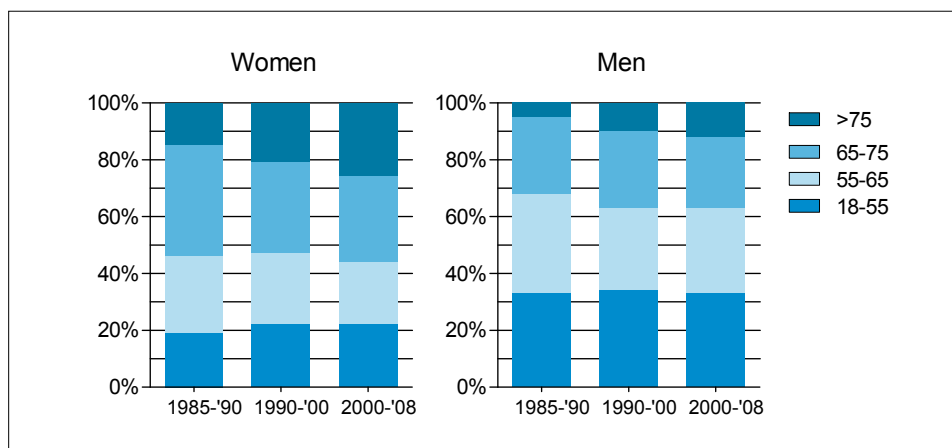
**Table 1: Baseline characteristics and clinical presentation of patients hospitalized for MI according to gender.**

	Women (n = 4028)	Men (n = 10,406)	P	Gender-ratios*		
				1985-'90	1990-'00	2000-'08
<b>Characteristics</b>						
Age (years)	65 (12)	60 (12)	<0.001			
Elderly (>65 y)	55%	37%	<0.001	1.7	1.4	1.5
<b>Cardiac history</b>						
Previous MI	30%	35%	<0.001	0.80	0.77	0.94
Previous PCI	13%	15%	0.032	0.82	0.74	0.94
Previous CABG	8%	10%	<0.01	0.87	0.62	0.96
<b>Risk factors</b>						
Hypertension	43%	32%	<0.001	1.3	1.4	1.3
Diabetes	18%	12%	<0.001	2.0	1.6	1.4
Hyperlipidemia	28%	27%	0.62	0.85	1.1	1.0
Family history	27%	26%	0.11	1.3	1.1	1.0
Current smoker	26%	35%	<0.001	0.60	0.70	0.81
Renal dysfunction †			<0.001			
Normal	20%	32%		0.31	0.68	0.66
Mild dysfunction	46%	50%		0.79	0.92	1.0
Impaired	33%	18%		2.0	1.7	1.9
Anemia	49%	39%	<0.001	1.2	1.2	1.4
<b>Discharge diagnosis</b>						
STEMI	43%	49%	<0.001	0.87	0.82	0.90

\* Gender-ratios show the percentage of women with the specific characteristic divided by the corresponding percentage in men within a specified decade.

† Normal, estimated GFR (eGFR)  $\geq$  90 ml/min; Mild dysfunction, eGFR 60-90 ml/min; Impaired, eGFR <60 ml/min per m<sup>2</sup> of body-surface area.

more likely to have diabetes or anemia ( $p$  for trend  $< 0.001$  for all). Age at presentation increased uniformly in both women and men, therefore the age difference between women and men remained about 5 years during the study period. However, due to the changes in prevalence of risk factors over time, the cardiovascular risk profile at baseline in women became more comparable to that in men in the most recent period (Table 1).



**Figure 1:** Distribution of study population according to age and study period.

**Table 2:** Initial and early management of patients hospitalized for MI according to gender.

	Women	Men	P
No. of patients	4028	10,406	
<b>Invasive treatment</b>			
Thrombolytic therapy *	22%	24%	0.13
PCI*	53%	53%	0.80
<b>Medication at ICCU discharge</b>			
Statins†	70%	73%	<0.01
Aspirin	67%	68%	0.39
β-blockers	56%	59%	<0.001
ACE-I/ARB ‡	22%	24%	0.044
Ca-antagonist	24%	22%	0.044
Nitrates	14%	12%	<0.01
Diuretics	15%	12%	<0.001
Antiarrhythmics	3%	4%	<0.01

\* STEMI patients only. ICCU, intensive coronary care unit.

† Patients from 2000 to 2008 only.

‡ Patients from 1990 to 2008 only.

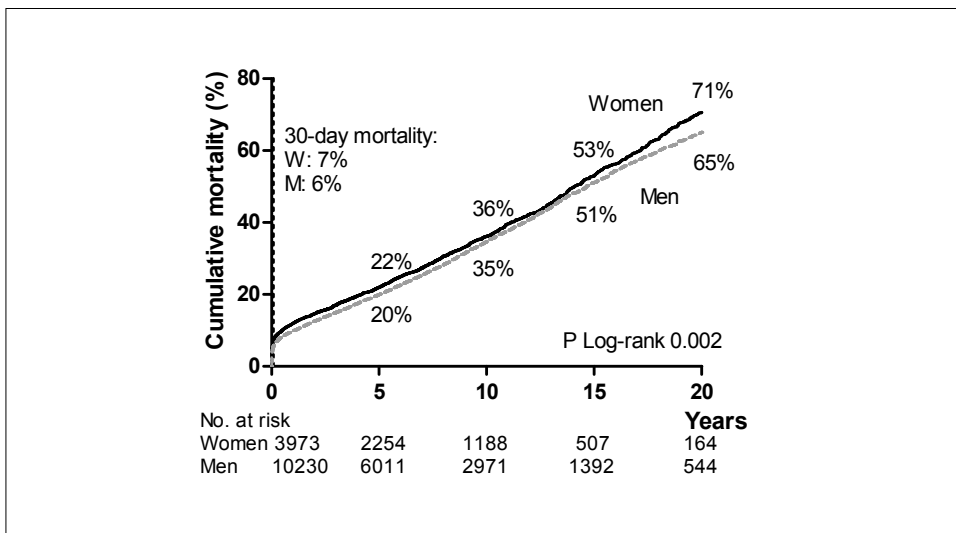
## Patient management

Overall, sex disparities in initial and early medical management were limited (Table 2). Women with STEMI were equally likely to receive reperfusion therapy (by either thrombolytic therapy or PCI). With time, more patients received guideline-based therapy. No new sex disparities in use of evidence-based management became apparent during the study period.

## Sex and mortality

A total of 106,517 person-years were analyzed. During the study period, 1,544 women and 3,708 men died. At 30 days, unadjusted mortality rates were higher in women than in men (7% vs. 6%; OR 1.3, 95%CI: 1.1-1.5; Figure 2). However, after adjustment for age, the difference in 30-day mortality between women and men was no longer present (adjusted OR 1.0, 95%CI: 0.89-1.2). After adjustment for all potential confounders, 30-day mortality remained the same (adjusted OR 1.0, 95%CI: 0.85-1.2; Table 3).

There was no heterogeneity in the association between sex and 30-day mortality in subgroups according to age ( $p$  interaction = 0.41), diagnosis ( $p$  interaction = 0.49) or diabetes ( $p$  interaction = 0.019) (with significance at  $p < 0.017$  to address for multiplicity of testing).



**Figure 2:** Kaplan-Meier curves of unadjusted 20-year mortality according to gender.

At 20-year follow-up, unadjusted mortality was slightly higher in women (71% vs. 65%, HR 1.1, 95%CI: 1.0-1.2; Figure 2), but the adjusted 20-year mortality hazard was significantly lower in women compared to men (adjusted HR 0.77, 95%CI: 0.66-0.90; Table 3).

**Table 3: Unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios for 30-day mortality and hazard ratios for 20-year mortality in women vs. men.**

	Unadjusted	Adjusted*			
	1985-2008	1985-2008*	1985-'90*	1990-'00*	2000-'08*
<b>30-day mortality</b>					
All patients	1.3 (1.1-1.5)	1.0 (0.85-1.2)	0.91 (0.64-1.3)	1.0 (0.79-1.3)	1.0 (0.79-1.3)
<65	1.1 (0.88-1.5)	1.1 (0.82-1.4) †	0.82 (0.46-1.5)	1.5 (1.0-2.3)	1.0 (0.57-1.6)
>65	1.1 (0.92-1.3)	0.95 (0.78-1.2)	0.91 (0.59-1.4)	0.83 (0.60-1.2)	1.0 (0.77-1.4)
STEMI	1.5 (1.2-1.8)	1.0 (0.85-1.3) ‡	0.93 (0.60-1.4)	1.0 (0.71-1.4)	1.1 (0.82-1.5)
NSTEMI	1.2 (0.91-1.5)	1.0 (0.72-1.3)	0.91 (0.52-1.6)	1.1 (0.72-1.7)	0.83 (0.50-1.4)
No DM	1.2 (1.0-1.4)	0.92 (0.77-1.1) §	0.80 (0.55-1.2)	0.91 (0.68-1.2)	1.0 (0.74-1.3)
DM	2.0 (1.4-2.8)	1.5 (1.1-2.2)	1.7 (0.69-4.3)	2.1 (1.1-4.2)	1.2 (0.68-2.1)
<b>20-year mortality</b>					
All patients	1.1 (1.0-1.2)	0.77 (0.66-0.90)	0.79 (0.67-0.93)	0.65 (0.50-0.84)	0.80 (0.67-1.0)

\* Adjusted for age, previous MI, previous CABG, hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, family history, smoking status, renal dysfunction, anemia, discharge diagnosis and decade of hospital admission.

† interaction age and sex p = 0.41.

‡ interaction STEMI and sex p = 0.49.

§ interaction diabetes and sex p = 0.019.

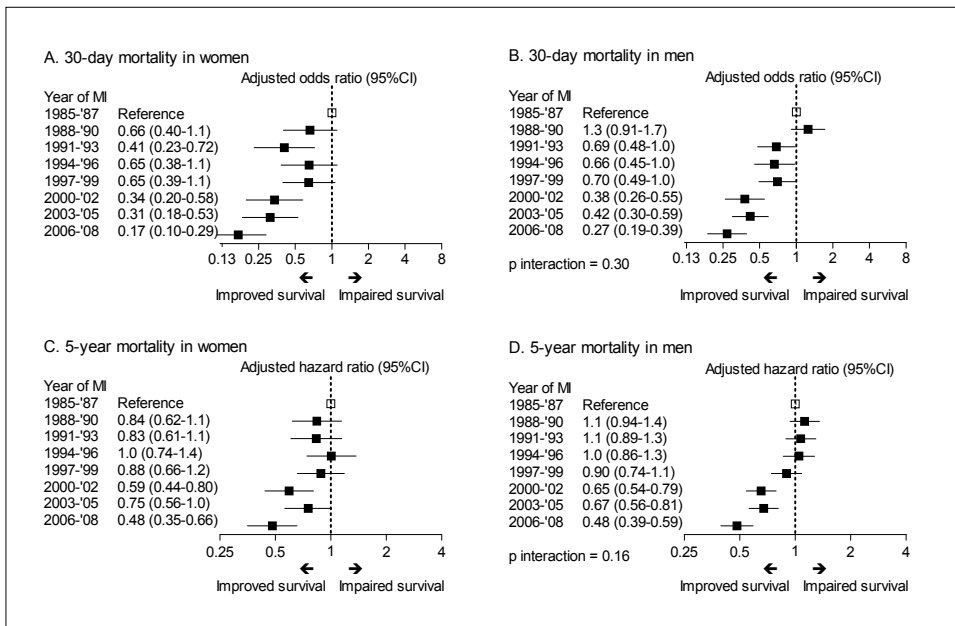
|| 10-year mortality hazard.



## Secular trends in mortality

Compared to 1985-'87, 30-day mortality after MI in 2006-'08 was significantly and substantially lower in both sexes (Figure 3). The Kaplan-Meier estimate of 30-day mortality decreased from 10% in 1985-'87 to 4% in 2006-'08. In women, adjusted 30-day mortality was 83% lower in 2006-'08 compared to 1985-'87. In men, adjusted 30-day mortality was 73% lower in 2006-'08 compared to 1985-'87 ( $p$  for interaction = 0.30).

The Kaplan-Meier estimate of 5-year mortality decreased from 24% in 1985-'87 to 14% in 2006-'08. In both women and men, the adjusted 5-year mortality hazard was 52% lower in 2006-'08 compared to 1985-'87 ( $p$  for interaction = 0.16). Thus, improvement in short- and long-term mortality during the 24-year study period was similar in women and men.



**Figure 3:** Temporal trends according to gender and follow-up duration. Outcome of patients who were hospitalized for MI during three-year calendar periods is compared to outcome of patients who were hospitalized in 1985-87. P-values for interaction between gender and year of MI are shown.

## Discussion

This study demonstrates that, during an observation period of 24 years, women hospitalized for an acute MI were more likely to present with a higher risk profile but were equally likely to receive pharmacological and invasive reperfusion therapy compared to men. The higher risk profile was mainly determined by an average age difference of 5 years between women and men. Women and men had the same adjusted mortality rates at 30 days, while during 20 years of follow-up the mortality hazard was lower in women. Importantly, temporal improvements in 30-day mortality and long-term mortality hazard from 1985 to 2008 were substantial and at least as high in women as in men.

We showed that women were older and therefore presented with a higher risk profile compared to men, which is in line with previous studies.<sup>[11, 17-22]</sup> In our multivariable analysis, these differences fully account for the higher unadjusted mortality in women compared to men. Therefore, it is unlikely that other differences between women and men, including differences in biological factors and in treatment, caused the higher unadjusted mortality rate in women.

Previous analyses have reported that in certain subgroups, such as younger patients, the mortality risk may be higher in women compared with men.<sup>[23, 24]</sup> Data from the US National Registry of Myocardial Infarction collected in the 1990s indicated an increased in-hospital mortality risk for young women compared with young men, with no mortality difference in the older population.<sup>[24]</sup> In our analysis, mortality appeared higher in young women compared to young men in the same calendar period (i.e. the 1990s), however, this age dependent sex gap completely disappeared in the next decade. Furthermore, no significant interaction was detected between sex and age in case the patients of all three decades were pooled together. In this study there was also no significant interaction between sex and diagnosis. Most MI studies do not report significant interaction between sex and type of MI,<sup>[20, 25, 26]</sup> it therefore is likely that our conclusions are robust for STEMI and NSTEMI patients.

We show borderline significant heterogeneity in the association between sex and 30-day mortality in subgroups according to baseline diabetes, such that among patients

with diabetes female sex might be associated with increased 30-day mortality. This finding is in part consistent with prior studies that noted increased risk of adverse events following MI among women vs. men with diabetes.<sup>[27, 28]</sup> Clinical trials in the diabetic population might help to identify specific therapies to reduce their increased risk of death.

Our study is unique in that it shows long-term (20 year) mortality depending on sex. Once admitted to the hospital, the adjusted hazard for long-term mortality is more favorable in women compared to men, similar to findings of their survival advantage in the general population. Although several studies have also shown that women are at a lower risk up to 12 months after the onset of MI,<sup>[18, 25]</sup> our adjusted analysis demonstrates - for the first time - that this assertion can be extended for up to 20 years in a contemporary population.

Contrary to previous studies that showed that mortality decreased less over time in women compared with men,<sup>[6-8]</sup> we now show that the improvement in outcome after MI over the last 24 years is at least as substantial in women as it is in men. In this respect, it should be noted that the calendar period that we studied differed from those in previous studies. Our study was initiated in 1985, at that time thrombolysis became standard therapy, and extends to the present era in which PCI became the standard therapy.<sup>[2]</sup> The conflicting observation between our study demonstrating that mortality improved over time at least as much in women as in men and previous studies that showed more improvement in men may be due to the relatively short time frame of these previous studies.<sup>[6-8]</sup> In addition, in the present study sex disparities in medical management were limited. This might have contributed to relatively favorable outcomes in women, compared to studies in countries where women less often receive evidence based management.<sup>[9]</sup> As such, the present study might demonstrate a best case scenario.

### **Strengths and limitations**

To our knowledge, this is the first study investigating temporal trends in clinical characteristics, treatment and outcome of patients with an MI according to sex over a time period of 24 years and with follow-up data up to 20 years. Although the present study has unique strengths, some limitations should be mentioned. Firstly, given the

nature of sex this study reveals important associations but cannot prove causation. Secondly, this study is based on hospitalized patients only and did not account for possible sex differences in out-of-hospital deaths prior to admission. Finally, the present data are derived from a single center.

### **Conclusion**

We showed that, among patients hospitalized for acute MI, women are more likely to present with a higher risk profile and were almost as likely as men to receive contemporary medical therapy. After adjustment for baseline differences, 30-day mortality was equal among women and men, while the adjusted 20-year mortality hazard was lower in women. Importantly, temporal improvements in short- and long-term mortality from 1985 to 2008 were substantial and similar for women and men. The temporal trends are encouraging and suggest that both men and women will benefit from further improvements in care for acute myocardial infarction.

## **Disclosures**

None.

### **Clinical Perspective**

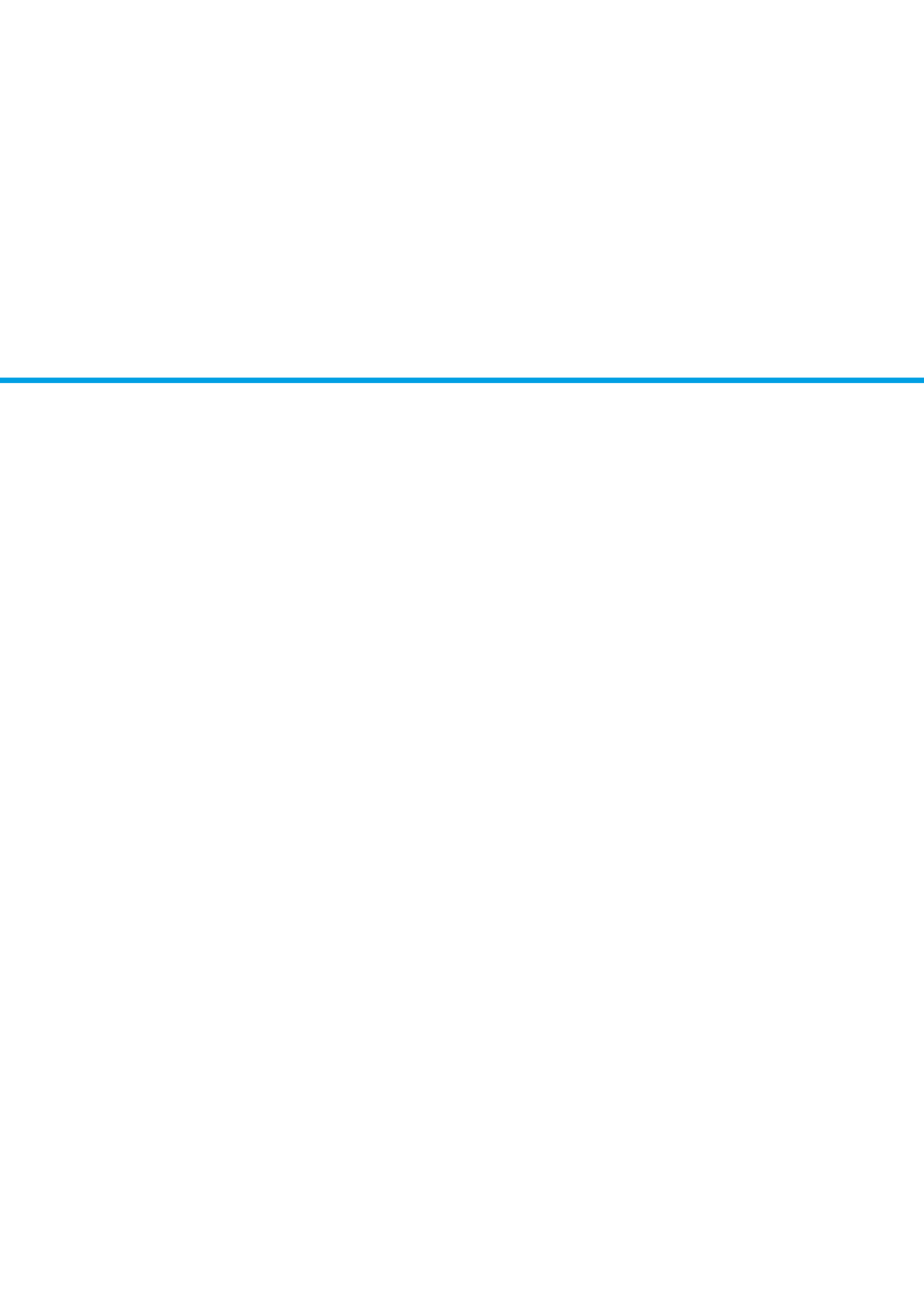
During the past decades, medical management and outcomes of acute myocardial infarction have improved substantially. It has been suggested that women with a myocardial infarction have benefitted less from these improvements in treatment and outcome when compared to men, because they were underrepresented in clinical trials. With the present study, however, we are the first to test this suggestion over a 24 year study period. We demonstrate that adjusted short- and long-term mortality rates were similar and declined markedly and equally in women compared to men during the 24 years studied. Furthermore, we also present long-term mortality data, up to 20 years following the myocardial infarction, which is sparse. This study is important because it helps to direct both further research and further management, in which women deserve to be treated with the same evidence-based care. In addition, the observed temporal trends are encouraging and suggest that both men and women will benefit from further improvements in care for acute myocardial infarction.

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# Chapter 10

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## Relative survival estimates provide patients with prior myocardial infarction with additional insight into their long-term (20-year) prognosis

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## Abstract

### Objectives

We compared survival in patients with prior MI with survival in the general population. Methods: We examined 14,434 consecutive patients admitted for MI to an intensive coronary care unit from 1985 to 2008 and compared survival in those patients with survival in the general population using (conditional) relative survival analyses. Relative survival, meaning survival in MI patients corrected for estimated mortality from all other causes, and conditional survival (that is 'landmark' survival) was computed.

### Results

Median survival from hospitalization for MI was >20, 17, 11, and 6 years in men, and >20, 19, 12, and 7 years in women, for ages <55, 55-65, 65-75 and  $\geq$ 75 years, respectively. The 1-year relative survival (from hospitalization) was 98%, 97%, 95%, and 89% in men, and 97%, 95%, 94%, and 88% in women, for ages <55, 55-65, 65-75 and  $\geq$ 75 years, respectively. In male patients aged 55-65 years, cumulative relative survival was 73% at 20 years, while conditional 1-year relative survival was 97%, 99% and 98%, conditional on surviving 0, 5 and 20 years after index hospitalization. For all age and sex subgroups, conditional 1-year relative survival was lower during the first year and after 15 years.

### Conclusions

Survival in patients with a prior MI is only a few percent lower per year compared to the general population for both sexes and all age groups. Although these results are encouraging, continuation of optimal treatment –in particular in the first year and after 15 years– might further improve survival in the future.

## Introduction

Patients who have experienced myocardial infarction (MI) often ask their physicians for an estimate of their prognosis.<sup>[1]</sup> Prognosis after MI is generally expressed as all-cause or cause-specific mortality rates. Neither approach assess the impact of the disease or health state of interest in comparison with expected survival in a similar population. Relative survival, which is the survival among patients divided by the expected survival of a the general population, is applied routinely in cancer studies and may improve on current methods for assessment of survival after MI.<sup>[2]</sup> In addition, estimates of cause-specific survival are limited by their dependence on reliable information on cause of death, whereas, relative survival is not.

Patients who have survived for a certain amount of time after their hospitalization for MI are interested in their prognosis at that particular time point. Standard survival curves after hospitalization provide an overly pessimistic picture for these patients, because these are partly based on patients who are most seriously affected and consequently die within the first month. Conditional survival analysis (or 'landmark' analysis) is a method for estimating the survival rate, given the precondition of having already survived a certain period of time. Conditional survival rates can provide patients and treating physicians with more relevant information for personal health-related future planning. Until now, relative survival analyses and conditional relative survival analyses have rarely been used in cardiovascular research.<sup>[2,3]</sup>

With the current study, we aim to determine long-term relative survival rates in patients with a prior MI. In addition, we determine mortality for patients given they survived up to 20 years after MI by means of conditional survival estimates. For this purpose, we have analyzed data on 14,434 consecutive MI patients admitted to the Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU) of the Erasmus Medical Center from 1985 to 2008.

## Methods

We included all 14,434 consecutive patients aged >18 years admitted for MI to the Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU) of the Thoraxcenter, Erasmus Medical Center between June 1985 and December 2008, as previously described.<sup>[4]</sup>

The diagnosis of MI was made in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a typical serial rise (to at least three times the upper normal value) and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such as creatine kinase-MB or troponin-T. For patients admitted more than once, only the first hospitalization was taken into account.

The study endpoint was all-cause mortality. Survival status and date were assessed through municipal Civil Registries in 2010 and were available for 98% of all patients. This project was carried out in accordance with current rules of ethics and legislature. The Ethical Committee of the Erasmus Medical Center waived the need for its approval because register-based studies do not require ethical approval according to Dutch law.

### Statistical analysis

Cumulative relative survival was calculated as the observed survival among the MI patients divided by the survival of persons from the general population (publicly available from Statistics Netherlands), matched for sex, age and calendar year.<sup>[2]</sup> Thus, relative survival provides a measure of the excess mortality experienced by MI patients compared to the general population, irrespective of whether mortality is directly or indirectly related to the index MI. As such, relative survival also captures excess mortality because of, for example, treatment-related acute kidney injury or in-hospital infections, which is not possible when using cause-specific survival.

Conditional 1-year relative survival depicts the 1-year relative survival given that a patient has survived for a certain period of time (for example, 0 year, 1 month, 1 year, 5, 10, 15 or 20 years). We calculated conditional 1-year survival at year  $x$  by dividing cumulative survival rates of year  $x+1$  by the cumulative survival rate of year  $x$ . Subsequently, we combined relative and conditional survival estimates. A conditional

1-year relative survival of 100% indicates that, mortality in the patient group has become equivalent to that of the general population.

We displayed survival rates according to both sexes and four age groups: <55, 55-65, 65-75 and >75 years. Besides cumulative and conditional relative survival, we also estimated cumulative and conditional observed survival. Observed survival is the actual survival among the MI patients, considering all causes of death together.

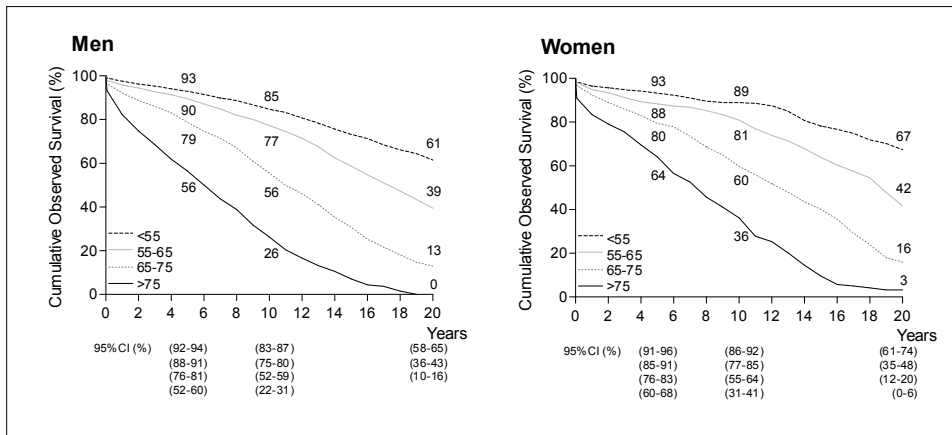
The period approach was used to provide predictions of (both cumulative and conditional) relative and observed survival.<sup>[5]</sup> The period approach combines survival rates in a recent period (in this study, 2000-2011) to obtain up-to-date survival estimates. This approach mirrors the standard predictions of life expectancy at birth from the most recently recorded death rates at each age.<sup>[6]</sup>

Analyses were performed using SAS software version 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). Calculations were performed with a publicly available SAS macro that can be used for period analysis.<sup>[7]</sup> The macro calculated expected survival according to the Ederer II method from population life tables stratified by age, sex and calendar period. Standard errors of the survival estimates were calculated using Greenwood's method, and 95% confidence intervals were reported for cumulative survival estimates. We presented only relative survival estimates with a standard error  $\leq 10\%$  of the survival rate and conditional survival estimates with a standard error  $\leq 5\%$  of the survival rate.

## Results

### Study population and Median or Cumulative Observed Survival

We included 14,434 patients who were hospitalized for MI between 1985 and 2008. Median observed survival after MI is shown in Table 1 (and Figure 1). Observed survival after MI was inversely related to age and better for women compared to men. Median observed survival in men was >20, 17, 11, and 6 years, and median observed survival in women was >20, 19, 12, and 7 years, for ages <55, 55-65, 65-75 and ≥75 years, respectively (Table 1). The 1-year observed survival (from hospital admission) was 98%, 96%, 92%, and 82% in men, and 97%, 95%, 92%, and 83% in women, for ages <55, 55-65, 65-75 and ≥75 years, respectively. The cumulative 20-year observed survival (from hospital admission) is 61%, 39%, 13%, and 0% in men, and 67%, 42%, 16%, and 3% in women, for ages <55, 55-65, 65-75 and ≥75 years, respectively (Figure 1).



**Figure 1:** Observed survival after MI (follow-up period 2000-2011). Survival estimates (and 95% CIs) are shown at 5, 10 and 20 years follow-up.

**Table 1: Median observed survival after MI according to age and sex.**

Gender	Age	No. of MI patients	Median survival after MI (years)
<b>Men</b>	<55	3452	>20 <sup>a</sup>
	55-65	3153	17
	65-75	2684	11
	≥75	1117	6
<b>Women</b>	<55	867	>20 <sup>a</sup>
	55-65	960	19
	65-75	1278	12
	≥75	923	7

<sup>a</sup> Median survival is at least longer than 20 years (maximum follow-up duration).

### Conditional observed survival

Conditional 1-year observed survival in male patients aged 55 to 65 years was 96%, 98%, 98%, 97%, 96%, and 88%, conditional on surviving 0 years, 1 month, 1 year, 5, 10 and 20 years after hospital admission, respectively (Table 2). Conditional observed survival was lower with increasing age.

**Table 2: Conditional one-year observed survival after MI.**

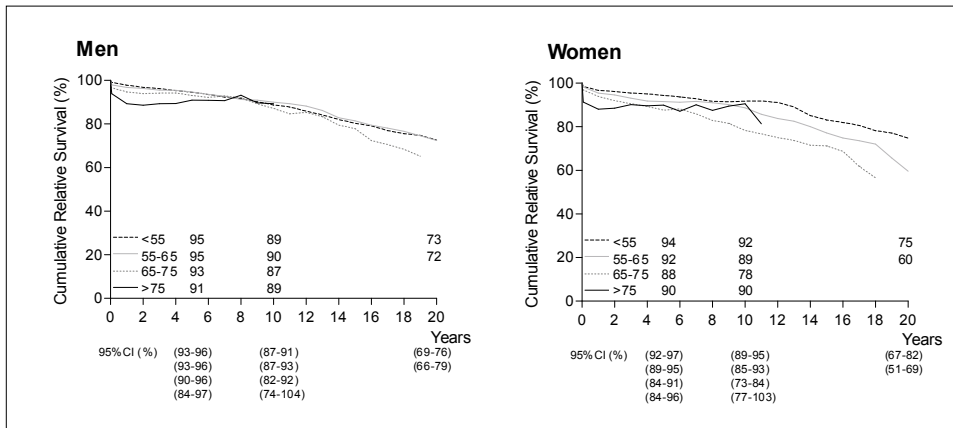
Gender	Age	Conditional one-year observed survival							Reliable estimates up to year
		No. of years already survived							
		0 yrs	1/12 yr*	1 yr	5 yrs	10 yrs	15 yrs	20 yrs	
<b>Men</b>	<55	98%	98%	99%	98%	98%	97%	99%	20
	55-65	96%	98%	98%	97%	96%	93%	88%	20
	65-75	92%	95%	96%	95%	90%	82%	<sup>a</sup>	17
	≥75	82%	88%	91%	89%	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	9
<b>Women</b>	<55	97%	98%	99%	99%	100%	98%	97%	20
	55-65	95%	96%	99%	99%	95%	94%	89%	20
	65-75	92%	95%	96%	98%	93%	89%	<sup>a</sup>	17
	≥75	83%	91%	95%	88%	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	9

\* Conditional on 1 month survival.

<sup>a</sup> Standard error of conditional survival proportion > 5%.

### Relative survival

Relative survival rates were substantially higher than observed survival rates due to elimination of background mortality. The 1-year relative survival (from hospital admission) was 98%, 97%, 95%, and 89% in men, and 97%, 95%, 94%, and 88% in women, for ages <55, 55-65, 65-75 and ≥75 years, respectively. The cumulative 10-year relative survival (from hospital admission) was 89%, 90%, 87%, and 89% in men, and 92%, 89%, 78%, and 90% in women, for ages <55, 55-65, 65-75 and ≥75 years, respectively (Figure 2).



**Figure 2:** Relative survival after MI (follow-up period 2000-2011), as compared to survival in the general population with the same age and gender. Survival estimates (and 95% CIs) are shown at 5, 10 and 20 years follow-up.



### Conditional relative survival

Conditional relative survival rates combine the information from conditional survival and from relative survival. Conditional 1-year relative survival was lower directly after hospital admission and conditional on 15 or more years survival compared to the time-period between 1 and 15 years (Table 3). For example, one-year conditional relative survival in male patients aged 55 to 65 years was 97%, 99%, 99%, 99%, 99%, and 98%, conditional on surviving 0 years, 1 month, 1 year, 5, 10, and 20 years after hospital admission, respectively. This indicates that, for example, one-year survival of a patient aged between 65 and 75 years who suffered a MI 10 years ago (age at index MI was 55 to 65 years) is 1% lower compared to 1-year survival in the general population. One-year conditional relative survival in other age groups (except  $\geq 75$  years) and in women was comparable.

**Table 3: Conditional one-year relative survival after MI.**

Gender	Age	Conditional one-year relative survival							Reliable estimates up to year
		No. of years already survived							
		0 yrs	1/12 yr*	1 yr	5 yrs	10 yrs	15 yrs	20 yrs	
<b>Men</b>	<55	98%	99%	99%	99%	99%	99%	100%	20
	55-65	97%	99%	99%	99%	99%	98%	98%	20
	65-75	95%	98%	99%	99%	97%	93%	<sup>a</sup>	17
	$\geq 75$	89%	95%	99%	100%	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	9
<b>Women</b>	<55	97%	98%	99%	99%	100%	99%	95%	20
	55-65	95%	97%	99%	100%	97%	97%	93%	20
	65-75	94%	96%	98%	101%	98%	96%	<sup>a</sup>	17
	$\geq 75$	88%	96%	101%	97%	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	<sup>a</sup>	9

\* Conditional on 1 month survival.

<sup>a</sup> Standard error of conditional survival proportion > 5%.

Relative survival, survival after MI compared to survival in the general population with the same age and gender.

## Discussion

In this study of 14,434 MI patients we provide an overview of long-term prognoses according to age and sex, based on contemporary mortality rates. Our results demonstrate that the overall median life-expectancy after MI varies between 6 and more than 20 years, mainly depending on age at presentation. Our relative survival analyses show that survival in patients with a prior MI is only a few percent lower per year compared to the general population. Conditional survival analysis displays that survival after MI is especially decreased in the first year post MI and after 15 years follow-up. Information on long-term prognosis after MI is needed to guide medical decisions and might be of interest for patients because it affects their personal life choices.

Previous studies have determined temporal trends in mortality after MI by comparing groups of patients who were admitted during different calendar years.<sup>[8-11]</sup> These studies have demonstrated that mortality has fallen substantially during the past decades, most likely due to the progress that has been made in improvement of emergency medical response, development of treatments and improvement of secondary prevention after MI.<sup>[8, 12]</sup> In the present study, we further investigate this improved prognosis by a comparison with the general population and performing conditional survival analyses. Such estimates of (conditional) relative survival in patients with prior MI are scarce.<sup>[2]</sup>

Relative survival provides a measure of the excess mortality experienced by MI patients compared to the general population. Relative survival after MI remains favorable during up to 20 years follow-up. At 10 years of follow-up, for example, cumulative relative survival is about 90% indicating that 10-year survival in MI patients is 10% lower compared to the general population. This prognosis is encouraging and highlights the effectiveness of current treatment following MI. However, according to the guidelines, even a 10% survival difference in ten years assures that intense surveillance and secondary prevention remains warranted in these patients.<sup>[13]</sup>

In view of the comparison with the general population,<sup>[1]</sup> it might be noteworthy that the excess mortality is not only due to the index MI and therefore cannot be interpreted as mortality due to cardiac death. Mortality after MI could also be higher compared to the general population as a result of risk factors that are associated with both MI and mortality, such as smoking (associated with MI) and death from lung cancer (associated with smoking).

Conditional one-year relative survival was relatively low directly following MI and decreased again slightly for patients who had already survived for some time (15 years). The relatively low survival directly following MI is due to a rather high in-hospital mortality.<sup>[14]</sup> The second decrease in survival in patients who had already survived for some time may partly be explained by the risk profile present in MI patients compared to the general population, or by late complications following MI such as death from heart failure. Still, since this risk profile, or such complications, did not cause such high mortality rates in the period from 1 to 15 years following MI, increased awareness with stringent secondary prevention for patients with a longstanding history of MI might be necessary.

Conditional one-year relative survival occasionally was 101% for older patients. Although absolute survival rates cannot be greater than 100%, relative survival rates can exceed 100%. This occurs if mortality in the general population is higher than mortality after MI. With conditional one-year relative survival we investigated relative survival in one-year intervals of follow-up. A survival exceeding 100% in such an interval could be explained by random variation or by selection of more healthy MI patients during follow-up.

### **Strengths and limitations**

To our knowledge, this is the first paper investigating (conditional) relative survival in MI patients with follow-up data up to 20 years. Although the present study has unique strengths, some potential limitations should be mentioned. First, the present data are derived from a single center, which could result in a lower external validity. However, we think that this is unlikely to be the case given the uniform definition

and therapeutic modalities of MI. Second, the current report is based on MI patients who survived until hospital admission for their index event, therefore the survival estimates apply to hospitalized patients or patients with a history of MI only.

### **Conclusion**

At present, MI patients have a substantial long-term survival. Compared to the general population survival after MI is only a few percent lower per year. Nevertheless, this survival difference remains an important target for treatment and secondary prevention. This applies even more to the first year after MI, and to those patients who survived more than 15 years after MI, because at these periods the relative survival difference is most pronounced. Insight into relative and conditional survival is useful for patients, who may use this information to plan their remaining life.

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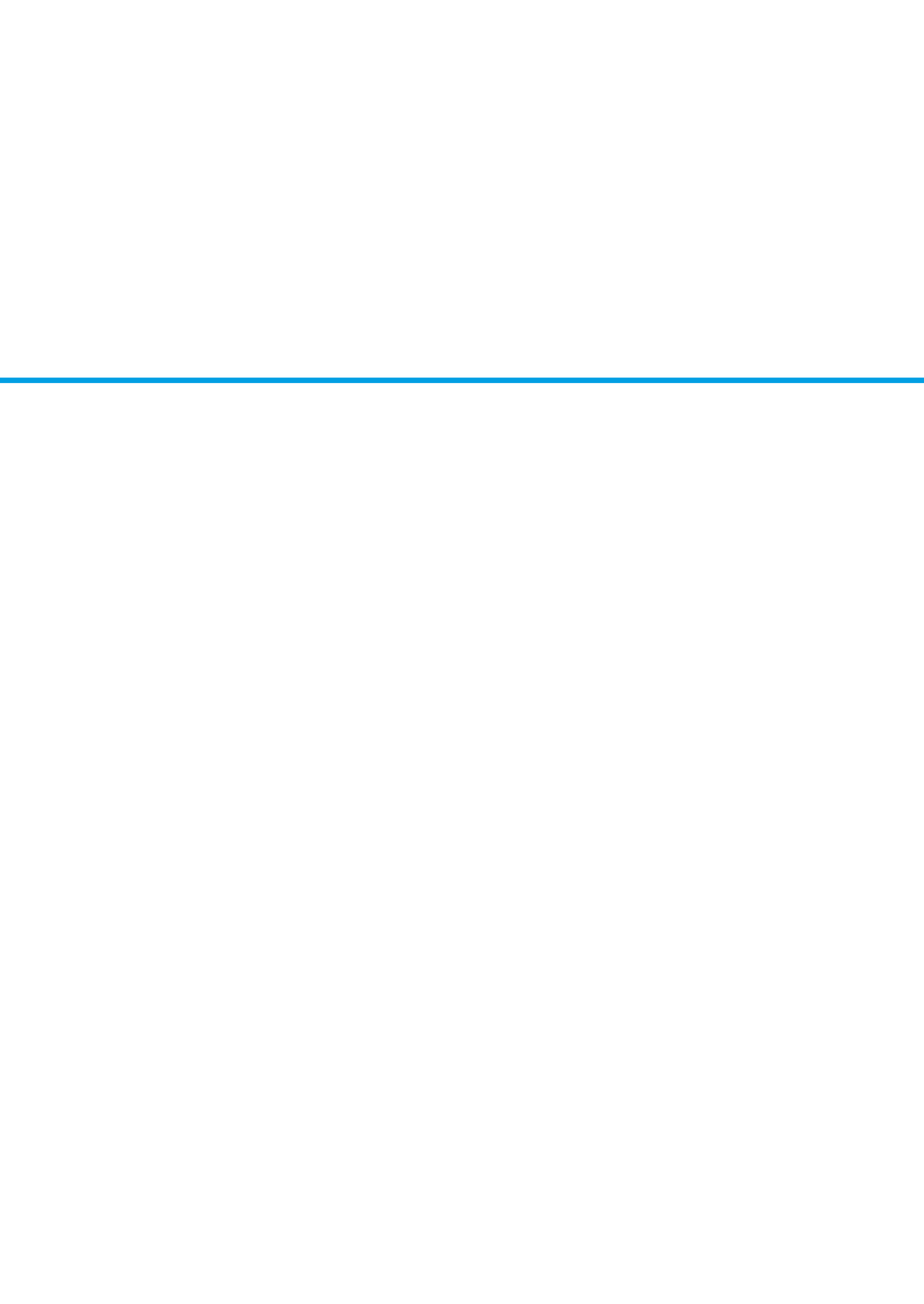




Part IV

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# Traditional risk factors



# Chapter 11

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## Risk factors for coronary heart disease and survival after myocardial infarction

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## Abstract

### Objectives

Several risk factors for coronary heart disease (CHD) have been associated with improved in-hospital survival after myocardial infarction (MI). We aimed to confirm this paradox and assess whether it extends to long-term outcome. In addition, we investigated temporal mortality trends.

### Methods

We examined the relation between the presence of 4 modifiable risk factors for CHD (hypertension, dyslipidemia, diabetes mellitus and smoking) and mortality in 14,434 consecutive patients admitted with MI to a coronary care unit from 1985 to 2008.

### Results

Two-thirds of MI patients (n=10,003) had at least one risk factor for CHD on hospital admission. The presence of at least one compared to no CHD risk factors was associated with a favorable 30-day mortality rate (5% vs. 7%, adjusted odds ratio 0.72, 95%CI: 0.62-0.83). There was significant interaction between the presence of CHD risk factors and decade of hospitalization ( $p = 0.001$ ). The adjusted 10-year mortality hazard ratio (HR) of at least one CHD risk factor compared to none, was 1.2 (95% CI: 1.0-1.4), 0.89 (0.65-1.2) and 0.89 (0.79-0.99) in 1985-1990, 1990-2000 and 2000-2008, respectively. Survival improved over time. Adjusted 10-year mortality fell (adjusted HR (2000-08 versus 1985-1990) 0.59 (95%CI 0.52-0.66) in patients with, and 0.76 (95% CI 0.65-0.89) in those without CHD risk factors).

### Conclusions

The presence of at least one modifiable CHD risk factor was associated with improved outcome after MI. Patients with CHD risk factors benefited from more substantial mortality reductions during the past decades.

### Keywords

Mortality, Coronary Heart Disease, STEMI, NSTEMI, Diabetes, Hyperlipidemia, Hypertension, Smoking, Long-term survival, Paradox.

## Introduction

Hypertension, dyslipidemia, smoking and diabetes mellitus are traditional risk factors for coronary heart disease (CHD) in patients without established cardiovascular disease.<sup>[1,2]</sup> Contrary, two recent studies of patients with a myocardial infarction (MI) have shown the presence of these CHD risk factors to be associated with a significantly lower in-hospital mortality rate.<sup>[3,4]</sup> However, further confirmation of these findings is needed and the impact on long-term outcome has not been established yet.<sup>[5]</sup>

Since 1985, considerable progress has been made in the management of MI; clinical evidence has guided the introduction of thrombolytic therapy, primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI), tailored treatment according to individual risk and improved secondary prevention.<sup>[6-8]</sup> As a result, outcome after MI has improved substantially.<sup>[6-8]</sup> Previous studies have shown that these treatments are used more frequently in patients with at least one modifiable CHD risk factor (hypertension, dyslipidemia, diabetes mellitus and smoking).<sup>[3,4]</sup> As these treatments have increasingly been used in the past decades we also wondered whether the association between CHD risk factors and mortality changed between 1985 and 2008.

Therefore, The main goal of this research was to establish the association between the presence of modifiable CHD risk factors and 30-day, as well as long-term (20-year) mortality after MI. In addition, we also compared the relation between the presence of CHD risk factors and outcome according to decades of hospital admission (i.e. 1985-1990 vs. 1990-2000 vs. 2000-2008).

## Methods

All consecutive patients aged >18 years with a first admission for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) or non-STEMI (NSTEMI) to the Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU) of the Thoraxcenter, Erasmus University Medical Center between June 1985 and December 2008 were included.<sup>[7]</sup>

The primary discharge diagnosis of STEMI was made in the presence of the following characteristics: chest pain or equivalent symptoms in combination with dynamic ECG changes consistent with MI and a typical serial rise (to at least three times the upper normal value) and fall in serum biochemical markers of cardiac necrosis such as creatine kinase-MB or troponin-T. Patients were diagnosed as STEMI in the presence of ST-segment elevation >0.1 mV in at least two contiguous peripheral leads, or >0.2 mV in at least two contiguous pre-cordial leads, and as NSTEMI otherwise.

Four modifiable CHD risk factors were recorded at hospitalization and included hypertension, dyslipidemia, diabetes and current smoking. Hypertension, dyslipidemia and diabetes were defined as previously diagnosed by a physician or receiving medication to lower blood pressure, cholesterol levels or glucose levels, respectively. Smoking was defined as current smoking. Assessment of these risk factors was based on patient/family self-report or previous medical records. Demographic characteristics (age, gender), cardiac history (previous MI, PCI or coronary artery bypass surgery (CABG)), family history of coronary heart disease (defined as one or more relatives, parent or sibling, with an MI diagnosed before the age of 60 years), anemia (Hemoglobin level <13.0 g/dl men, <12.0g/dl women), renal dysfunction (creatinine >150  $\mu$ mol/l), invasive treatment modalities (thrombolysis and PCI) and medication at ICCU discharge were collected.

The study endpoint was all-cause mortality at 30 days and at 20 years. Survival date was assessed in 2010 through municipal Civil Registries which is updated regularly and therefore highly accurate in the Netherlands. Follow-up was available for 99% of all patients.

This project was carried out in accordance with current rules of ethics and legislature. The Ethical Committee of the Erasmus Medical Center waived the need for their approval because register-based studies do not require ethical approval according to Dutch law (entitled 'WMO').

### **Statistical Analysis**

The patients were categorized depending on the presence or absence of CHD risk factors. Continuous variables were summarized as mean and standard deviation or median and interquartile range and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) or Kruskal-Wallis test, respectively were used to calculate p-values. Categorical variables were summarized as percentages. Test for trend was performed using the number of CHD risk factors as a categorical measurement. Using Cox regression, age adjusted cumulative survival curves for the presence or absence of at least one CHD risk factor were constructed and examined using the log-rank test. The independent association between the presence of risk factors and mortality was examined using logistic regression for 30-day outcome and the Cox proportional hazards model for long-term (20-year) outcome. Multivariate adjustment was performed for age, gender, previous MI, previous CABG, family history of CHD, renal dysfunction, anemia, decade of admission and discharge diagnosis. Sensitivity analysis were performed in patients who died the first day after admission and those without prior coronary heart disease. We tested for interaction between the presence of CHD risk factors and 1) decade of admission or 2) discharge diagnosis. Because there was significant interaction between the presence of CHD risk factors and decade of admission, results are also presented for each decade of admission separately. Temporal trends were assessed by comparing decades of hospital admission, i.e. 1985 to 1990 vs. 1990 to 2000 vs. 2000 to 2008. Complete long-term (20-year) follow-up of patients admitted after 1990 is unavailable, therefore, we used 10-year outcomes when comparing decades of hospitalization. For these decades we also report the prevalence of modifiable risk factors. Results are reported as odds ratios (OR) -for 30-day mortality- and hazard ratios (HR) -for long-term mortality- and their respective 95% confidence intervals. All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were considered significant at  $<0.05$ . Analysis was performed using SPSS software version 17.0 (SPSS, Chicago, USA).

**Table 1: Baseline characteristics and clinical presentation of patients hospitalized for MI according to absence, presence and number of coronary heart disease risk factors.**

	No CHD risk factors	≥1 CHD risk factors	1 CHD risk factor	2 CHD risk factors	3 or 4 CHD risk factors	P for trend
No. of patients	4431 (31%)	10 003 (69%)	5652 (39%)	3134 (22%)	1217 (8%)	
<b>Baseline</b>						
Age, mean (SD)	64 (12)	61 (12)	61 (12)	61 (12)	60 (12)	<0.001
Gender (female), %	27%	28%	27%	29%	33%	<0.001
Family history of CHD, %	15%	31%	28%	33%	41%	<0.001
<b>Cardiac history, %</b>						
Previous MI	35%	32%	31%	34%	33%	0.27
Previous PCI	15%	14%	13%	15%	17%	0.12
Previous CABG	11%	9%	9%	10%	9%	0.10
<b>CHD Risk factors, %</b>						
Hypertension	0%	51%	32%	69%	94%	<0.001
Dyslipidemia	0%	40%	19%	57%	92%	<0.001
Diabetes	0%	20%	9%	24%	62%	<0.001
Current smoker	0%	47%	41%	50%	68%	<0.001
<b>Comorbidity</b>						
Renal dysfunction	9%	9%	8%	9%	12%	<0.001
Anemia	45%	40%	39%	41%	41%	<0.001
<b>Discharge diagnosis, %</b>						
STEMI	51%	46%	50%	40%	41%	<0.001
<b>Reperfusion therapy*, %</b>						
PCI	47%	56%	52%	59%	72%	<0.001
Thrombolytic therapy	26%	23%	25%	21%	15%	<0.001
<b>Medication at ICCU, % discharge</b>						
Statin**	62%	76%	74%	77%	81%	<0.001
Aspirin	62%	70%	66%	72%	79%	<0.001
Beta-blocker	52%	61%	59%	63%	66%	<0.001
ACE inhibitor or ARB	17%	21%	18%	22%	31%	<0.001
Ca-antagonist	24%	23%	23%	24%	18%	<0.01
Nitrates	13%	13%	13%	12%	11%	0.02
Diuretics	13%	13%	13%	12%	13%	0.19
Antiarrhythmics	5%	4%	4%	3%	4%	<0.01

CHD, coronary heart disease. CHD risk factors include: hypertension, diabetes mellitus, dyslipidemia, current smoking.

\* STEMI patients only, n=6820.

\*\* Only in patients admitted from 2000 to 2008, n= 7618.



## Results

### Prevalence of CHD risk factors

A total of 10 003 (69.3%) out of the 14 434 MI patients had at least one modifiable CHD risk factor (hypertension, dyslipidemia, diabetes or smoking). A total of 5652 (39.2%) patients had one, 3134 (21.7%) had two, and 1217 (8.4%) had three or four of these CHD risk factors. In the overall study population, hypertension was present in 35%, dyslipidemia in 28%, diabetes mellitus in 14%, while 32% were current smokers.

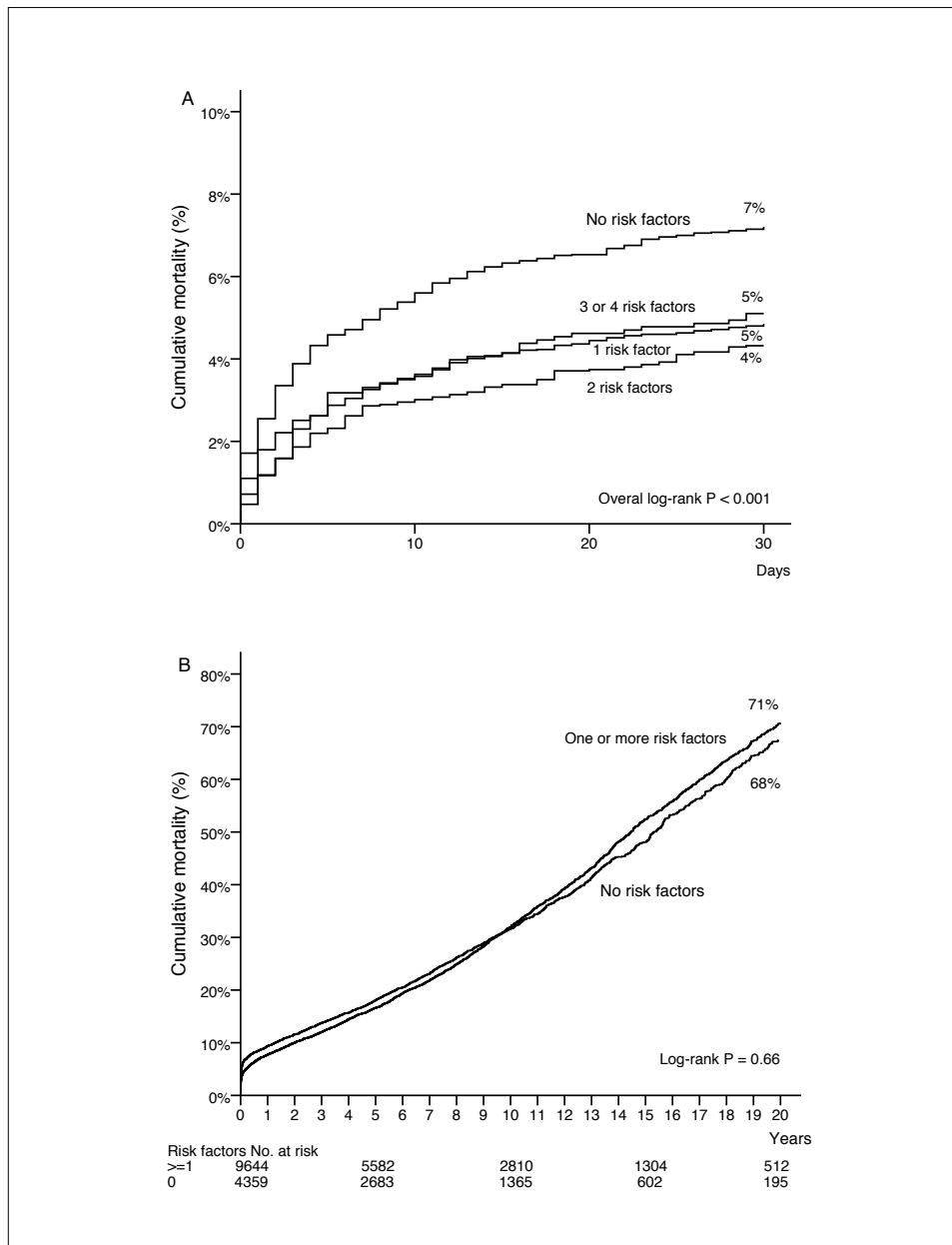
### Patient characteristics and management

Patients with at least one CHD risk factor were younger, more often female, more often had a family history of CHD or renal dysfunction and less often had anemia or a discharge diagnosis of STEMI compared to patients with no CHD risk factors ( $p$  for trend  $< 0.001$  for all). Patients with at least one CHD risk factor were significantly more likely to receive PCI for STEMI or medical therapy including statins, aspirin,  $\beta$ -blockers and ACE-inhibitors/angiotensin-receptor blockers compared to patients with no CHD risk factors (Table 1).

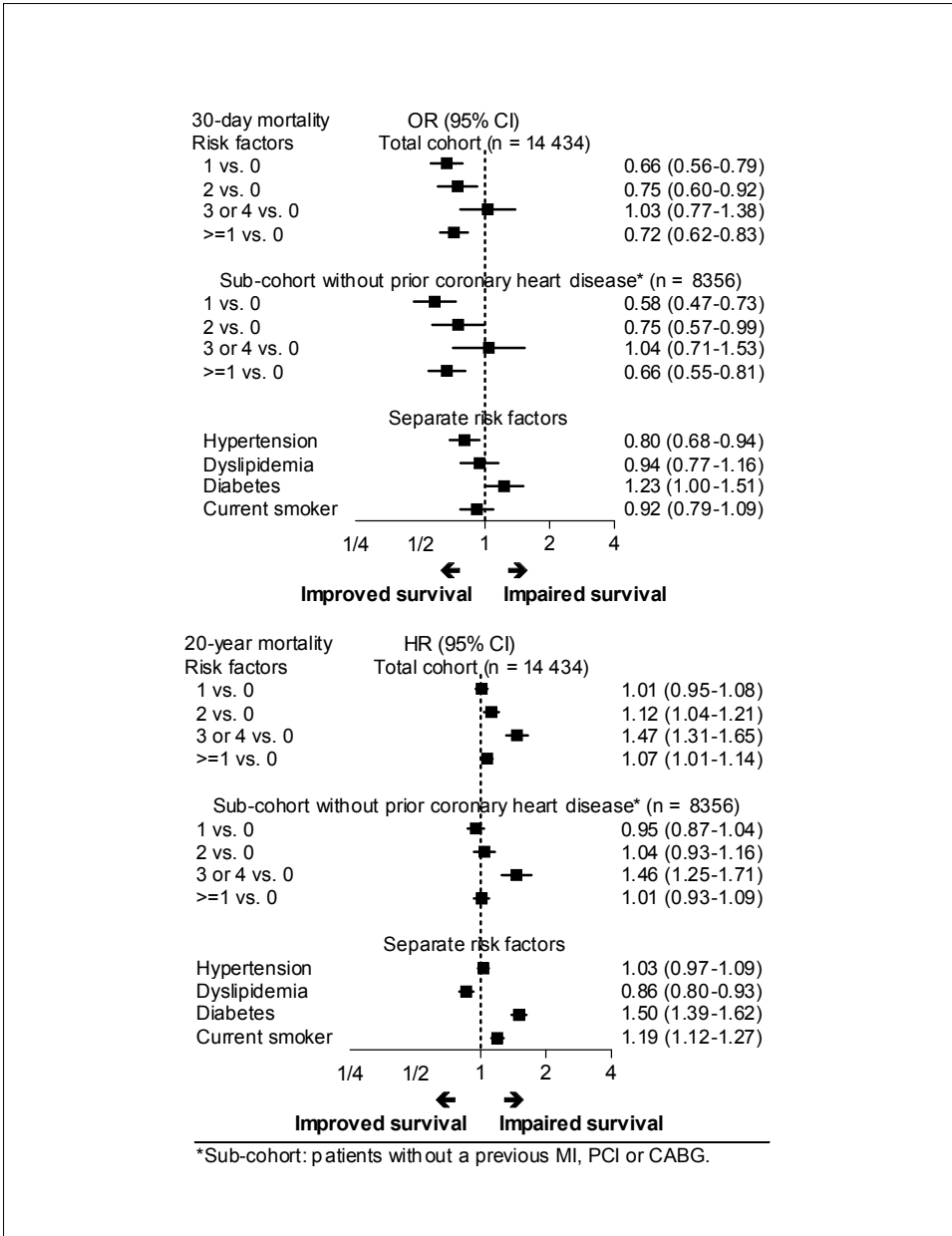
### Mortality

At 30 days, 892 patients had died. Age-adjusted cumulative 30-day mortality was lower in patients with at least one CHD risk factor as opposed to no such risk factors (5% vs. 7%; Figure 1A; Age-adjusted OR 0.63, 95%CI: 0.55-0.73). Multivariate adjusted 30-day mortality was also lower (adjusted OR 0.72, 95%CI: 0.62-0.83) in patients with at least one CHD risk factor compared to patients with no CHD risk factor (Figure 2). The association between one or more risk factors and 30-day survival remained significant after exclusion of patients who died on the first day after admission (adjusted OR 0.77, 95%CI: 0.65-0.91). Furthermore, the association did not change after excluding all patients with a previous MI, PCI or CABG (adjusted OR 0.66, 95%CI: 0.55-0.81; Figure 2A).

With longer duration of follow-up, this paradox disappeared in the full cohort. At 20 years, a total of 5269 patients had died. Age-adjusted cumulative 20-year mortality was about equal in patients with at least one CHD risk factor (71% vs. 68%; age-



**Figure 1:** Age-adjusted short- (up) and long-term (bottom) mortality according to the absence or presence and number of coronary heart disease risk factors.



**Figure 2:** Adjusted short- (top) and long-term (bottom) mortality according to absence, presence and number of coronary heart disease risk factors in the total cohort and in a sub-cohort of patients without prior coronary heart disease.

adjusted OR 1.0, 95%CI: 0.94-1.1; Figure 1B). Multivariate adjusted 20-year mortality was higher (adjusted HR 1.1, 95%CI: 1.0-1.1) in patients with at least one CHD risk factor with a gradual increase in mortality as the number of risk factors increased (Figure 2). There was no significant interaction between presentation without CHD risk factors and diagnosis (STEMI or NSTEMI) ( $p = 0.27$  for 30-day mortality and  $p = 0.31$  for 20-year mortality).

### Temporal trends

With time patients more often presented with dyslipidemia and diabetes and less often as a current smoker (Table 2). The inequality in prescription of medication and use of reperfusion therapy did not decrease over time.

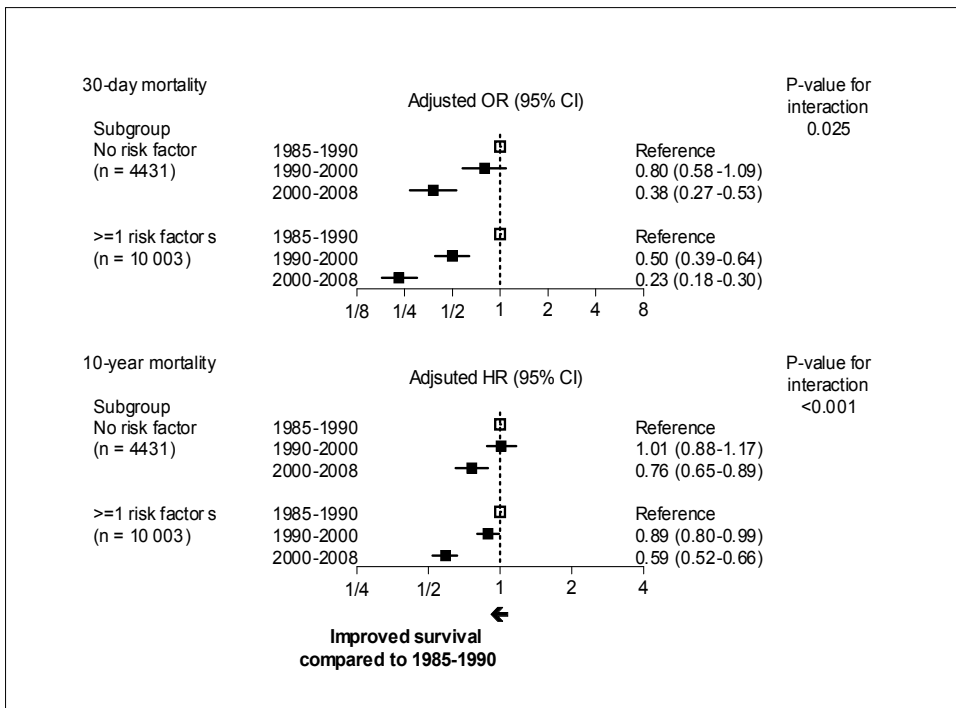
There was significant interaction between the presence of CHD risk factors and decade of hospitalization ( $p = 0.025$  for 30-day mortality). The 30-day mortality odds ratio (CI) of at least one CHD risk factor compared to none, was 1.1 (0.79-1.5), 0.63 (0.50-0.80) and 0.65 (0.51-0.82) in 1985-1990, 1990-2000 and 2000-2008, respectively. There was also significant interaction for long-term mortality ( $p = 0.001$ ). The 10-year mortality hazard ratio (CI) of at least one CHD risk factor compared to none, was 1.2 (1.0-1.4), 0.89 (0.65-1.2) and 0.89 (0.79-0.99) in 1985-1990, 1990-2000 and 2000-2008, respectively.

**Table 2: Changes in prevalence of modifiable risk factors over time.**

	1985-1990	1990-2000	2000-2008	P for trend
No. of patients	2216 (15%)	4600 (32%)	7618 (53%)	
<b>Risk factor</b>				
Hypertension	35%	21%	32%	<0.001
Dyslipidemia	11%	22%	35%	<0.001
Diabetes	7.9%	11%	17%	<0.001
Current smoker	39%	31%	31%	<0.001
1 or more risk factors	69%	64%	73%	<0.001

In temporal trend analyses, mortality after MI was lower in the 1990s and 2000s compared to the 1980s (Figure 3). This improvement over time differed significantly between patients with no and those with at least one CHD risk factor. In patients with no CHD risk factor, adjusted 30-day mortality was 62% lower in the 2000s compared to the 1980s. In patients with at least one CHD risk factor adjusted 30-day mortality was 77% lower in the 2000s compared to the 1980s.

Long-term mortality in patients with no CHD risk factor was 24% lower in the 2000s compared to the 1980s. Long-term mortality in patients with at least one CHD risk factor was 41% lower in the 2000s compared to the 1980s (Figure 3).



**Figure 3:** Temporal trends: decrease in adjusted mortality from 1985 to 2008 depending on the absence or presence of at least one coronary heart disease risk factor. Mortality in 1990-2000 and 2000-2008 is compared to 1985-1990.

## Discussion

In the present study of 14 434 MI patients, we confirm the presence of a CHD risk factor paradox for short-term (30-day) outcome. MI patients with at least one compared to none modifiable CHD risk factor had a favorable unadjusted and adjusted short-term survival. With longer duration of follow-up, this paradox sustained for patients admitted in the 1990s and 2000s, but completely disappeared for those admitted in the 1980s. Improvement in outcome after MI during the last two decades was more pronounced for patients with CHD risk factors as compared to those without any risk factor.

The absence of CHD risk factors should not necessarily be viewed as a guarantee of a favorable prognosis. It could be that the management associated with the presence of CHD risk factors is causally related to better outcome. Patients with CHD risk factors might receive MI targeted therapy at an earlier time after first symptoms because they appear to be at higher risk. In previous studies, rapid initiation of aspirin, heparin, clopidogrel, GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors,  $\beta$ -blockers and ACE-inhibitors and investigation by coronary angiogram at hospitalization for MI was reported to be more frequent in patients with at least one CHD risk factor.(ref 3,4) Also, patients with CHD risk factors might receive more adequate treatment. In our analysis, as well as in previous studies, treatment with PCI and CABG surgery was more frequent in patients with compared to those without CHD risk factors.<sup>[3,4]</sup> In addition, in our study patients with CHD risk factors more often received evidence based medical care at ICCU discharge. This treatment discrepancy could result in relatively poor outcome in patients without CHD risk factors.

Some other potential explanations unlikely explain the relatively high mortality in patients without one compared to at least one CHD risk factor. Specifically, our findings were independent of mortality on the day of admission and prior coronary heart disease. In addition, according to our multivariate analysis confounding factors including older age and renal dysfunction did not cause the paradox. And previous studies show it is also not due to heart failure, presenting blood pressure, heart rate, body mass index, pre-hospital delay, infarct location and significance of coronary disease.<sup>[3,4]</sup> Still, patients without CHD risk factors might have unmeasured risk factors

such as pre-diabetes, a high blood pressure or cholesterol level that did not reach the disease threshold, an unhealthy lifestyle and non-cardiovascular comorbidities.<sup>[9]</sup> Further studies should seek to gain more insight into the possible explanations of this CHD risk factor paradox.

Data from the CRUSADE Quality Improvements Initiative from 2001 to 2004, have shown that NSTEMI patients without documented CHD risk factors had a worse in-hospital survival.<sup>[4]</sup> Also, an NRMI-registry study (from 1994 to 2006) demonstrated an inverse relation between the number of CHD risk factors and in-hospital mortality in MI patients without prior cardiovascular disease.<sup>[3]</sup> The authors of these studies mention confounding from unknown risk factors and inequalities in the use of short-term treatment and use of cardiac procedures as most likely explanations, in line with our study results.<sup>[3,4]</sup> Both these studies do not report outcome after 30-days.

Our study is unique in that it relates data on long-term mortality conditional on the presence and absence of CHD risk factors. In the overall cohort, adjusted 20-year mortality was 1.5-fold increased in patients with three or four CHD risk factors compared to none. Although this increase is statistically significant, it is rather small compared to the risk of MI associated with these CHD risk factors in the general population.<sup>[10, 11]</sup> However, in an ostensibly healthy population, persons with risk factors for CHD are compared to healthy individuals resulting in high relative risks.<sup>[2, 10]</sup> In an MI population, patients with CHD risk factors are compared to other patients who have developed an MI. Therefore, relative risks might substantially decrease towards the null (so-called “index event bias”).<sup>[12]</sup>

From our subgroup analyses it appears that patients without CHD risk factors admitted in the 1990s and 2000s also have impaired long-term mortality compared to those with CHD risk factors. Long-term mortality in patients with no CHD risk factors might be relatively high due to differences in prescription of or response to secondary prevention. Current treatment of CHD risk factors and secondary prevention is very effective and contributes to 50% of the observed cardiovascular mortality decline in the general population during the past 25 years.<sup>[13]</sup> Patients without CHD risk factors might less often receive secondary prevention or might benefit less in absolute terms. <sup>[1]</sup>

By comparing the 2000s with the 1980s we provide evidence that MI patients with one or more compared to no CHD risk factors benefit significantly more from improved short- and long-term outcome over time. These improvements in outcome are attributable to improvements in medical care.<sup>6-11</sup> Increased awareness of the relatively high risk of patients without -compared to those with- CHD risk factors, and subsequent equal treatment might improve outcomes in these patients.

### **Limitations**

Our study has several potential limitations. We combined patients with a STEMI and a NSTEMI in our analyses. However, we demonstrated that there is no significant interaction between discharge diagnosis and presence of risk factors and mortality. Thus, our results are applicable to both STEMI and NSTEMI patients. Our study is observational and its results may be limited by bias, unmeasured confounders, and residual confounding. Therefore, we cannot make causal inferences. In addition, data on comorbidity were quite limited. Last, ascertainment of risk factors was through medical record review at hospitalization and may have been incomplete. Still, we believe that our conclusion is robust.

### **Conclusion**

We showed that the presence of at least one CHD risk factor yielded a favorable short-term survival after MI. With longer duration of follow-up, this association was sustained for MI patients admitted in the 1990s and the 2000s. Future studies should aim to seek for mechanisms and subsequent solutions to improve short-term outcome in patients without CHD risk factors.



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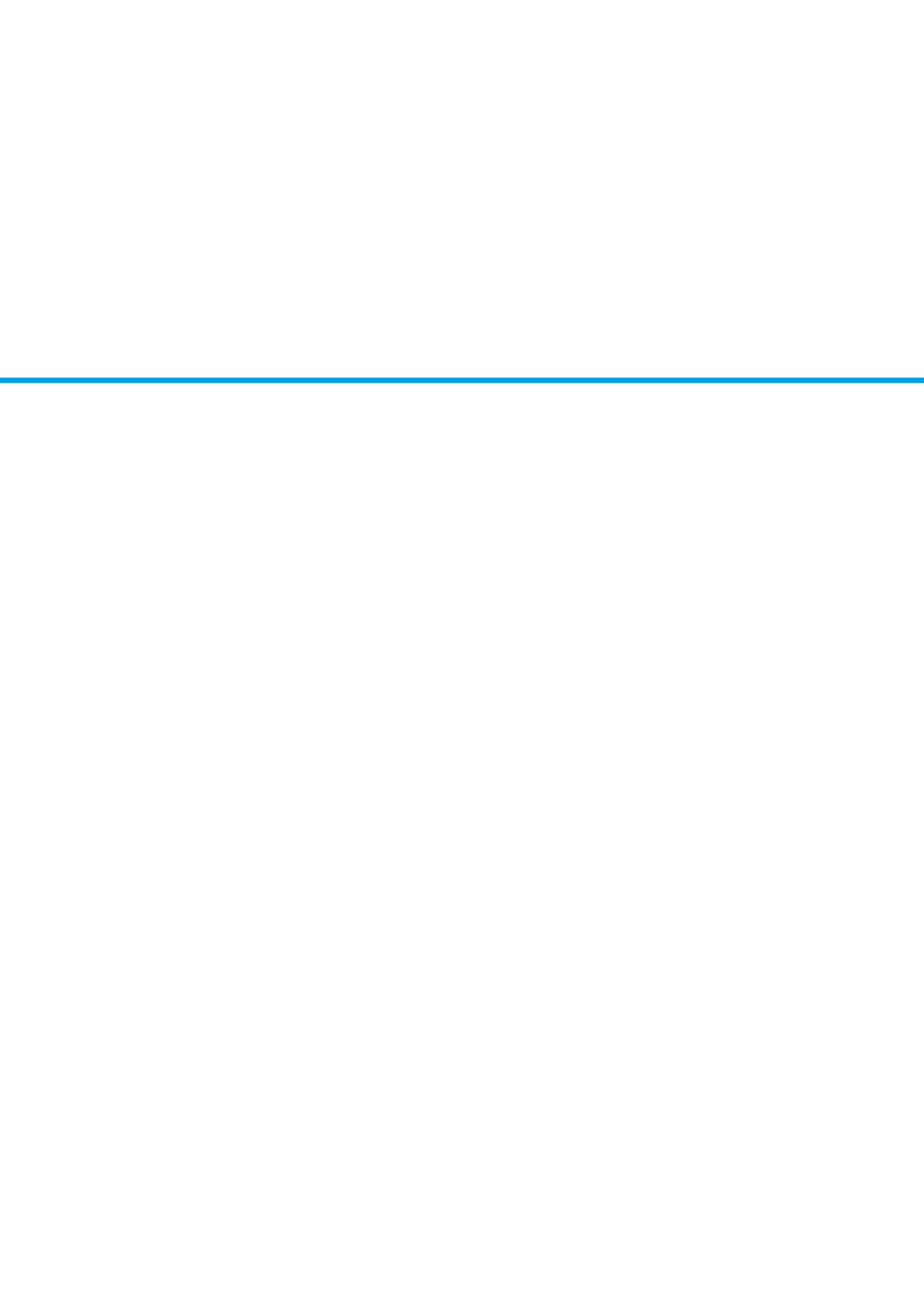




Part V

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**Percutaneous  
coronary  
interventions**



# Chapter 12

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## Seven-year safety and efficacy of the unrestricted use of drug-eluting stents in saphenous vein bypass grafts

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Patrick W Serruys

## Abstract

### Objectives

The aim was to investigate the 7-year clinical outcomes of patients treated with either drug-eluting stents (DES) or bare-metal stents (BMS) for saphenous vein graft disease (SVG).

### Background

Atherosclerotic disease in SVG has several peculiarities which make it not possible to extrapolate outcomes of the use of DES as compared to BMS, from outcomes observed in native coronary arteries. To date no long-term safety and efficacy results for DES in SVG have been published.

### Methods

Between January, 2000 and December, 2005 a total of 250 consecutive patients with saphenous vein graft disease were sequentially treated with DES (either sirolimus- or paclitaxel-eluting stents) or with BMS. Yearly follow-up was performed.

### Results

At 7¼ years, a total of 101 patients died (58 (46%) in the BMS group and 43 (42%) in the DES group, p-value= 0.4). There was no significant difference in the combined endpoint mortality or myocardial infarction. Cumulative target vessel revascularisation (TVR) was higher in the BMS group compared to the DES group (41% vs. 29% respectively; adjusted hazard ratio (HR) 0.63, 95% confidence interval (CI): 0.39 to 1.0). The cumulative incidence of major adverse cardiac events was 73% versus 68% in the BMS and DES groups respectively (adjusted HR 0.93, 95% CI: 0.67 to 1.3).

### Conclusions

In the present study, the unrestricted use of DES for SVG lesions appeared safe and effective up to 7¼ years- and the use of DES resulted in a clinically relevant lower rate of TVR.



## Introduction

Coronary artery bypass graft surgery (CABG) often involves saphenous vein graft (SVG) conduits.<sup>[1]</sup> However, the lifespan of SVG has proven to be limited - at 10 years, 50% of such grafts contain at least one significant stenosis.<sup>[2]</sup> Significant atherosclerotic disease of SVG, despite optimal medical therapy, may result in the recurrence of symptoms and a higher risk of major adverse cardiac events necessitating re-intervention.<sup>[1]</sup>

Given the high risk of redo-surgery,<sup>[3]</sup> and the availability of new technologies including embolic protection devices and dedicated catheters, PCI with bare-metal stents (BMS) has surpassed CABG as the treatment of first choice for treating saphenous vein graft disease.<sup>[4,5]</sup> Still, the cumulative event rate after stent implantation remains high because of atherosclerotic disease progression and in-stent restenosis.<sup>[6,7]</sup> Earlier the RRISC trial showed a catch-up in the repeat revascularization rates in patients treated with sirolimus-eluting stents (SES). Moreover, the authors reported significant increase in late mortality in patients treated with SES as compared to those treated with BMS.<sup>[8]</sup>

Atherosclerotic disease in SVG has several peculiarities - including the plaque composition and restenotic process<sup>[9-12]</sup> - that differ from native coronary arteries. Therefore, it is uncertain whether the beneficial effects of drug-eluting stents (DES) compared to BMS in native coronary arteries could be extrapolated to SVGs. The safety and efficacy for DES in SVG has been proven for clinical outcomes up to 3 years in multiple meta-analyses.<sup>[13-21]</sup> However, no study reports the long-term outcomes after DES in SVG.

We therefore set out to investigate the long-term safety and efficacy outcomes (up to 7 years) of a consecutive series of patients treated with BMS or DES for lesions in saphenous vein grafts.

## Methods

### Patient selection

Between January 1, 2000 and December 31, 2005 a total of 250 percutaneous coronary interventions were performed in our institution using BMS (n=128), SES (n=21) or paclitaxel-eluting stent (PES; n=101) in saphenous vein graft lesions. Patients who received previous brachy therapy (n=27) and patients who received no stent (n= 35) or a Symbiot™ Covered Stent (n = 2) are not included in this number.

All patients remained in their first original enrolled cohort during the follow-up period. The BMS subgroup contained all consecutive patients before April 16, 2002. The 16<sup>th</sup> of April our institution commenced the unrestricted use of drug-eluting stents as default strategy. Until January 2003 SES (Cypher<sup>®</sup>, Cordis Corp., Johnson & Johnson, Warren, NJ, USA) were used exclusively, whereas from February 2003 PES (TAXUS™, Express2™ or Liberté™, Boston Scientific, Natick, MA, USA) replaced the SES as the device of choice for every percutaneous coronary intervention -including vein graft interventions. This study was approved by the local ethics committee and performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

All procedures were performed according to standard procedural guidelines and their details have been reported previously.<sup>[22]</sup> Every patient was pre-treated with aspirin and  $\geq 300$  mg clopidogrel. Angiographic success was defined as residual stenosis  $\leq 30\%$  by online quantitative coronary angiography in the presence of Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction flow grade 3. All patients were advised to maintain aspirin lifelong and clopidogrel for at least 1 month if BMS were used, for  $\geq 3$  months for patients with SES, and  $\geq 6$  months for patients with PES. Distal embolisation protection devices and peri-procedural glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitors were used according to the operator's discretion.

### Definitions and clinical endpoints

Definitions of baseline characteristics are according to the RESEARCH and T-SEARCH registry definitions, and have previously been described.<sup>[22, 23]</sup>

Safety end-points included all-cause mortality, the composite of all cause mortality/myocardial infarction (MI) and stent thrombosis, whereas the efficacy end point consisted of target vessel revascularization (TVR). The combined endpoint major adverse cardiac event (MACE) was defined as a composite of all-cause mortality, any MI related or unrelated to TVR stenting and TVR.

MI was diagnosed by recurrent symptoms and/or new electrocardiographic changes in association with a concomitant rise and fall in creatinin kinase-MB mass or troponin-T/ troponin-I to  $\geq 3$  times the upper limit of normal. A TVR was defined as a percutaneous or surgical re-intervention driven by any lesion ( $\geq 50\%$  of the luminal diameter) located in the index graft, in the presence of ischemic symptoms, or a positive functional ischemia study. Stent thrombosis was defined as angiographically defined thrombosis with Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction flow grade 0 or 1 or the presence of a flow limiting thrombus, accompanied by acute onset of ischemic symptoms at rest, similar to the ARC definite criteria.<sup>[22,24]</sup>

Survival status was assessed through municipal civil registries. A prospectively developed questionnaire inquiring about patients' current health status, clinical events and medication use was sent to all living patients on a yearly basis. In case of an event, medical records, discharge summaries and, when necessary, angiographic films, were systematically reviewed. Cause of death was acquired via the Central Bureau of Statistics, The Hague, The Netherlands or by directly contacting the patients' General Physician.<sup>[22]</sup>

### **Statistical analysis**

Continuous variables are presented as mean and standard deviation or as median and boundary of interquartile range, categorical variables as absolute numbers and percentage. Normality assumption was evaluated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Continuous variables were compared using Student's unpaired t-test or Mann-Whitney non-parametric test. Categorical variables were compared using chi-square statistics or Fischer's exact test, as appropriate.

The cumulative incidence of adverse events was estimated according to the Kaplan-Meier method, and curves were compared using log-rank test. Observed unadjusted and adjusted measures of association were obtained by Cox regression models and presented as hazard ratios. Due to the total number of events we had to restrict the number of possible confounders entered into the model.<sup>[25]</sup> Separate Cox regression analyses were performed to identify independent predictors of adverse events using all clinical and procedural variables listed in Tables I and II. These independent predictors are shown in the results section and were entered into the Cox regression model to obtain the adjusted hazard ratios (HR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI). All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois).

## Results

Survival status was available for 98.4% of the BMS patients and 99.4% of the DES patients. Clinical follow-up consisted of 1 582 person-years. The baseline and procedural characteristics of patients in both groups are depicted in Table I. Overall both groups were very similar; however, patients in the DES group were less likely to have hyperlipidaemia or a family history of coronary artery disease. Further, procedural characteristics differed in terms of a higher frequency of three-vessel disease, a smaller average stent diameter and a longer total stented length in the DES group. The use of glycoprotein IIb /IIIa inhibitors decreased over time, from 41% in the BMS group to 21% in the DES group ( $p = 0.001$ ). Whereas the duration of post-discharge clopidogrel increased from a median of three (IQR 2-6) in the BMS group to six months (IQR 6-6;  $p < 0.001$ ) in the DES group. In univariate analysis, the prescribed duration of clopidogrel was not significantly related to TVR ( $p$ -value=0.15) or any of the other clinical outcomes. No differences in self-reported long-term medications were observed (Table II).

Event rates are depicted in Table III. At 7¼ years, a total of 101 patients died. Cause of death was cardiac in 66% in the BMS group and 70% in the DES group. Cumulative all-cause mortality was 46% versus 42% in the BMS and DES groups respectively (Figure 1). When adjusting for independent predictors there was no significant improvement in cumulative mortality. Independent predictors ( $p$ -value  $< 0.1$ ) of both cardiac and all-cause mortality at 7¼ years were increasing age, diabetes mellitus, renal impairment, enrolment diagnosis, and the left anterior descending (LAD) as revascularization territory.

The cumulative incidence of the combined endpoint mortality or MI was 57% in the BMS group vs. 60% in the DES group (Figure 2). Independent predictors ( $p$ -value  $< 0.1$ ) of mortality or MI at 7¼ years were diabetes mellitus, renal impairment, and enrolment diagnosis.

At 7¼ year, cumulative TVR was 41% in the BMS group as compared to 29% in the DES group (Figure 3). In the DES group TVR was reduced by 37% (adjusted HR 0.63, 95% CI: 0.39 to 1.0). Two separate TVRs in the BMS group and one TVR in the DES group that

were performed due to angiographic follow-up are not considered as an event. A total of six (5.0%) patients treated with BMS suffered from stent thrombosis occurring at a median of 220 days (IQR 163-1198) versus only one (0.8%) in the DES group occurring at 606 days. The only independent predictor (p-value < 0.1) of TVR at 7¼ years was previous MI.

Cumulative MACE in the BMS group was 73% versus 68% in the DES group (Figure 4). Independent predictors (p-value < 0.1) of MACE at 7¼ years were increasing age, enrolment diagnosis and, average stent diameter.

**Table 1: Baseline and procedural characteristics stratified according to stent type**

	<b>BMS (n = 128)</b>	<b>DES (n = 122)</b>	<b>P-value</b>
Male, n (%)	102 (80%)	103 (84%)	0.33
Age, mean±SD	69±9.6	68±8.7	0.31
<b>Cardiac history</b>			
Previous MI	59 (46%)	61 (50%)	0.23
Previous PCI	34 (27%)	36 (30%)	0.77
<b>Risk factors</b>			
Diabetes mellitus	27 (21%)	38 (31%)	0.07
Hyperlipidaemia	57 (45%)	81 (66%)	0.001
Hypertension	55 (43%)	60 (49%)	0.33
Family history of CAD	22 (17%)	34 (28%)	0.043
Current smoker	21 (16%)	10 (8%)	0.049
Renal impairment	2 (2%)	6 (5%)	0.13
BMI	26 ±3.7	27 ±3.8	0.33
<b>Enrolment diagnosis</b>			
Stable angina	42 (33%)	50 (41%)	<b>0.37</b>
Unstable angina	68 (53%)	60 (50%)	
Acute MI	18 (14%)	10 (8%)	
Shock	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	

(continues)

**Table 1: Baseline and procedural characteristics stratified according to stent type (continued)**

	<b>BMS (n = 128)</b>	<b>DES (n = 122)</b>	<b>P-value</b>
Procedural characteristics			
<b>Revascularisation territory</b>			
LAD	39 (49%)	37 (33%)	0.40
LCX	67 (53%)	54 (49%)	0.53
RCA	39 (31%)	38 (34%)	0.56
<b>Native vessels treated</b>			
LAD	14 (11%)	16 (13%)	0.70
LCX	13 (10%)	15 (12%)	0.43
RCA	16 (13%)	22 (18%)	0.38
LM	3 (2.3%)	2 (1.6%)	1.00
<b>Disease complexity</b>			
3 vessel disease	24 (19%)	44 (36%)	<0.01
Multiple grafts treated	4 (3.2%)	3 (2.6%)	1*
In stent restenosis	10 (8%)	10 (8%)	0.91
Number of stents per lesion	2 [1-2]†	2 [1-3]†	0.21
Total stent length, mm	26 [18-40]†	32 [18-57]†	0.02
Average stent diameter, mm	3.7±0.6	3.2±0.7	<0.001
<b>Success rate</b>			
Angiographic success	124 (97%)	117 (98%)	0.46
Number of lesions successfully treated	1 [1-2]†	1 [1-2]†	0.97
Distal protection device used	6 (4.7%)	2 (1.6%)	0.28
Glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitors	53 (41%)	26 (21%)	<0.01

\* P-value by Fisher's exact test.

† Data presented as median [interquartile range].

BMI, body mass index; BMS, bare-metal stent; CAD, coronary artery disease; DES, drug-eluting stent; IQR, interquartile range; LAD, left anterior descending artery; LCX, left circumflex artery; LM, left main; MI, myocardial infarction; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; RCA, right coronary artery; SD, standard deviation.

**Table II: Self-reported medical treatment at 3 year follow according to stent type**

	BMS (n = 99)	DES (n = 99)	P-value
<b>Alive at 3 year</b>			
Aspirin	85 (86%)	81 (82%)	0.44
Anticoagulants	17 (17%)	22 (22%)	0.37
β-blockers	81 (82%)	83 (84%)	0.71
ACE inhibitors or AT1 antagonists	54 (55%)	56 (57%)	0.78
Diuretics	31 (31%)	30 (30%)	0.88
Statins	93 (94%)	93 (94%)	1.0

ACE, angiotensin converting enzyme; AT1, angiotensin II type 1 receptor;  
BMS, bare-metal stent; DES, drug-eluting stent.

**Table III: Association between stent type used and event rates: at 30 days and at 7½ years**

	Number of events (Kaplan Meier estimate)		Observed HR (95% CI)	Adjusted HR (95% CI)
	BMS (n = 126)	DES (n = 121)	DES vs. BMS	DES vs. BMS
<b>Events at 30 days after PCI</b>				
Total mortality	7 (5.6%)	4 (3.3%)		
Cardiac mortality	6 (4.8%)	4 (3.3%)		
Mortality or myocardial infarction	10 (7.9%)	7 (5.8%)		
Target vessel revascularisation	4 (3.2%)	2 (1.7%)		
Major adverse cardiac events	14 (11%)	8 (6.6%)		
<b>Events at 7½ years after PCI</b>				
Total mortality	58 (46%)	43 (42%)	0.84 (0.56-1.3)	0.90 (0.59-1.4) <sup>†</sup>
Cardiac mortality	38 (35%)	30 (33%)	0.90 (0.55-1.4)	0.93 (0.56-1.5) <sup>†</sup>
Mortality or myocardial infarction	72 (57%)	63 (60%)	1.0 (0.74-1.5)	0.97 (0.71-1.4) <sup>‡</sup>
Target vessel revascularisation	45 (41%)	28 (29%)	0.62 (0.38-0.99) <sup>*</sup>	0.63 (0.39-1.0) <sup>§</sup>
Major adverse cardiac events	92 (73%)	74 (68%)	0.81 (0.59-1.1)	0.93 (0.67-1.3) <sup>  </sup>

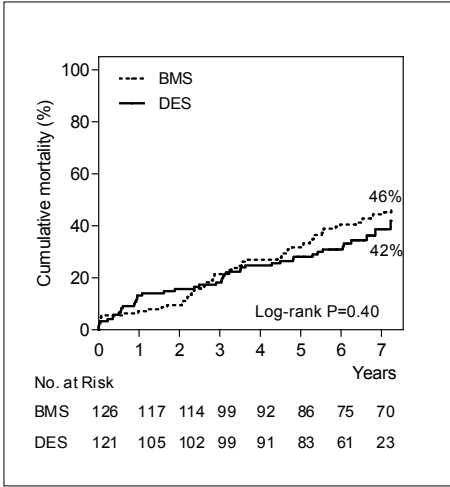
The observed (unadjusted) and adjusted HR compares DES vs. BMS with BMS as the reference.

\* p-value < 0.05.

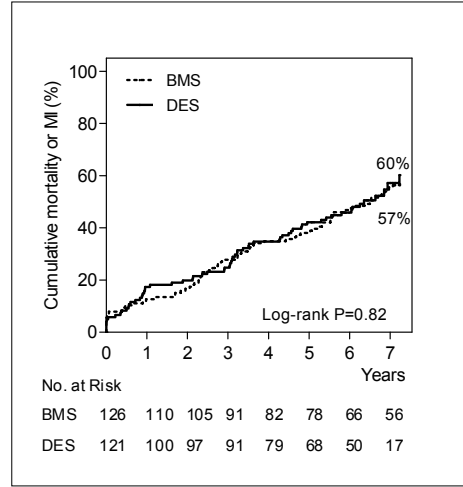
†, ‡, §, || adjusted for independent predictors of the outcome of interest as described in the results section.

HR, Hazard ratio; CI, confidence interval; BMS, bare-metal stent; DES, drug-eluting stent; BMI, body mass index, PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention.

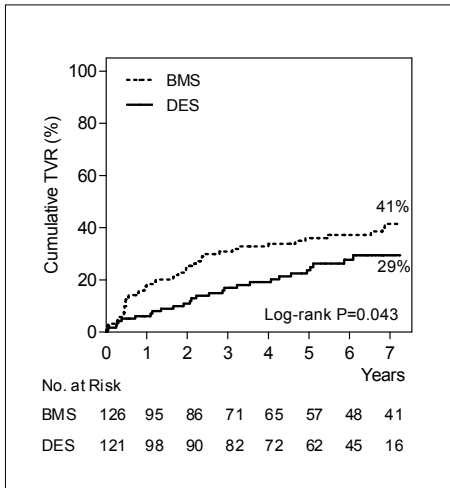




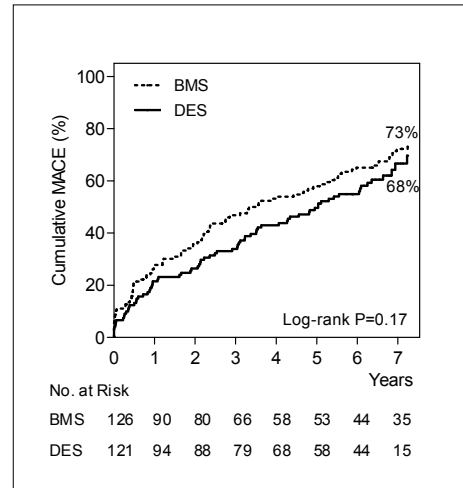
**Figure 1:** Kaplan Meier curve of cumulative mortality. BMS, bare-metal stent; DES, drug-eluting stent.



**Figure 2:** Kaplan Meier curve of cumulative mortality or MI. BMS, bare-metal stent; DES, drug-eluting stent; MI, myocardial infarction.



**Figure 3:** Kaplan Meier curve of cumulative TVR. BMS, bare-metal stent; DES, drug-eluting stent; TVR, target vessel revascularization.



**Figure 4:** Kaplan Meier curve of cumulative MACE. BMS, bare-metal stent; DES, drug-eluting stent; MACE, major adverse cardiac event (combined endpoint of all-cause mortality, myocardial infarction, and target vessel revascularization).

## Discussion

The present study shows that the unrestricted use of DES in SVG remains safe and effective as compared to BMS up to seven years of follow up, illustrated by similar mortality rates and clinically relevant lower rates of TVR in patients treated with DES. We have already reported the four-year follow up of DES vs. BMS in SVG.<sup>[23]</sup> At four years DES was considered safe and effective, illustrated by lower rates of TVR. These results have been validated by a meta-analysis of three randomized controlled trials -although the maximum follow-up duration in the three trials was 2.5 years.<sup>[17]</sup>

The treatment of SVG disease represents about 3-8% of the PCI cases in our centre. Atherosclerotic disease in SVG has several peculiarities which account for the poor outcome compared to native coronary arteries, including a different plaque composition, higher plaque burden, more friable material and frequent superimposed thrombus.<sup>[9,10]</sup> Further, the restenotic process in SVGs is different with several distinct phenomena including intimal hyperplasia, progression of atherosclerosis, local inflammatory reaction and thrombosis<sup>[12]</sup> whilst the major process in the coronaries is intimal hyperplasia.<sup>[11]</sup> Therefore, regarding clinical outcomes it is unlikely that the results in native coronary arteries -improved outcomes with use of DES- also hold for SVG.

The present study included a total of 250 'real world' consecutive patients treated for SVG disease. In terms of absolute reduction, at 7¼ years we find a reduction in TVR of 12%, which is identical to the absolute reduction in TVR at one year. The present study underscores the sustained clinical benefit with DES in SVG over BMS over 7¼ years. Further, the absolute risk reduction, representing the number needed to treat (NNT), is very comparable -if not equal- to studies in patients with single de novo lesions (12% absolute TVR reduction at 7¼ years in the present study, 16% at 5 year in the RAVEL study,<sup>[26]</sup> 11% at 5 year in the SIRIUS study,<sup>[27]</sup> and 10% at 5 year in the TAXUS study<sup>[28]</sup>). In the present study the overall event rates remain high as compared to event rates after native vessel stenting.<sup>[29]</sup> Overall mortality at 7¼ years is 43%. The most likely explanation for the high event rates is the relatively high mean age, the high frequency of measured comorbidities and risk factors and the fact that all patients in the present study presented with an occlusion in a SVG.

To date, other large-scale registries have not yet reported long-term outcome (>3 years) in this specific patient subset.<sup>[18, 30, 31]</sup> Therefore the duration of the follow-up of the present study is probably the longer worldwide and the institution has unique reputation for long term follow-up.<sup>[32]</sup> Interestingly, the long term cumulative incidence of MACE of 73% in BMS patients at 7¼ years is identical to the cumulative incidence of MACE in Dutch patients at 5 years treated two decades ago with balloon angioplasty.<sup>[33]</sup> This suggests that the expected survival free of MACE increased with 2¼ years between patients treated for SVG lesions in 1985 and in 2002. Today, with the use of DES the estimated cumulative incidence of MACE further improved to 68% at 7¼ years.

Of note, the study population stems from an era when embolic protection devices were not yet fully established. Embolic protection devices were used in less than 5% of cases. Embolic protection devices have been shown to reduce MACE by up to 40%.<sup>[34]</sup> As such the use of embolic protection devices in SVG PCI is a class I level of recommendation B recommendation in the recent ESC/EACTS guidelines on myocardial revascularisation.<sup>[35]</sup> The implementation of embolic protection devices could have had a positive impact on absolute numbers of short and longer-term outcome in our study cohort.

A limitation of the present study is that the results are based on a nonrandomized patient population without completely identical groups. In the DES group, more complex patients were being treated with PCI compared to the BMS group. Although we statistically adjusted for clinical and procedural differences between both groups, it could be debated whether this is sufficient. Further, the results are based on a relatively small patient cohort and therefore may have lack of power. Large-scale randomized controlled trials with long-term follow up are advocated to prove the long-term benefit of DES over BMS in SVG.

## Conclusions

In the present study, the use of DES for SVG lesions appeared safe and effective up to 7¼ years, and DES resulted in a clinically relevantly lower rate of TVR.

### **Potential conflict of interest**

None.

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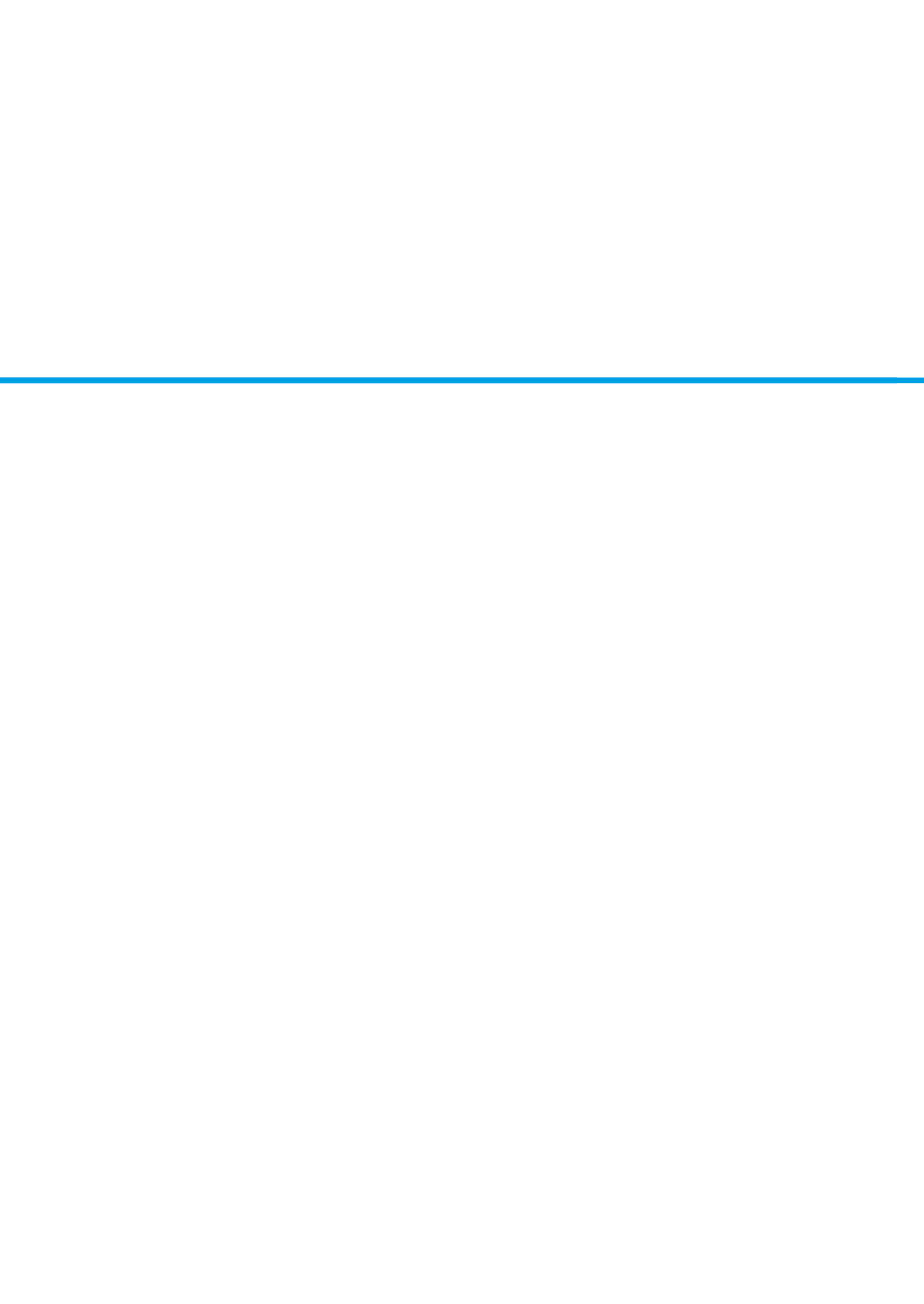
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# Chapter 13

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## Weekend versus weekday mortality in ST-segment elevation acute myocardial infarction patients between 1985 and 2008

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## Abstract

Appropriate well-timed medical interventions can reduce mortality from ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI)<sup>[1]</sup>. STEMIs occur every day. However staffing tend to be lower on weekends. This may lead to a lower use of invasive cardiac procedures for patients admitted during weekends. Higher mortality rates for patients admitted during the weekends may be the consequence<sup>[2,3]</sup>.

Appropriate well-timed medical interventions can reduce mortality from ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI)<sup>[1]</sup>. STEMI occurs every day. However staffing tends to be lower on weekends. This may lead to a lower use of invasive cardiac procedures for patients admitted during weekends. Higher mortality rates for patients admitted during the weekends may be the consequence<sup>[2,3]</sup>.

Recent reports that compared mortality rates among acute myocardial infarction patients who were admitted on weekends and those admitted on weekdays were inconsistent<sup>[3-7]</sup>.

The aim of our study is to compare mortality rates among 6,820 STEMI patients admitted on weekends and on weekdays for three time intervals (1985-1990, 1990-2000 and 2000-2008).

All consecutive patients aged >18 years with a first admission for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) to the Intensive Coronary Care Unit (ICCU), between June 1985 and December 2008 were included<sup>[8]</sup>.

Trained physicians and nurses accustomed to the use of standardized case report forms collected the data. The primary independent variable was admission on weekends (Saturday or Sunday) versus weekdays (Monday to Friday). The study endpoint was all-cause mortality at 30 days, 5 years and at 10 years. Survival data was assessed through municipal Civil Registries which is updated regularly and therefore highly accurate in the Netherlands. The author(s) of this manuscript have certified that they comply with the Principles of Ethical Publishing in the International Journal of Cardiology<sup>[9]</sup>.

Data for the period 1985-2008 were grouped into 3 intervals according to decade of hospitalization (1985-1990, 1990-2000, and 2000-2008). Separate analyses were performed for each interval.

Cumulative survival curves according to admission were constructed using the Kaplan-Meier method, and compared by the log-rank test. We examined the independent association between admission on weekdays or weekends and mortality

using logistic regression for 30-day outcome and the Cox proportional hazards model for long-term outcome. Adjustment was performed for age, sex, previous MI, previous PCI, previous CABG, hypertension, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, family history of coronary artery disease and smoking status. Results are reported as odds ratios (OR) -for 30-day mortality- and hazard ratios (HR) -for long-term mortality- and their respective 95% confidence intervals. All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p-values were considered significant at <0.05. Analysis was performed using SPSS software version 20.0 (SPSS, Chicago, Ill).

Between June 1985 and December 2008 a total of 6,820 consecutive patients were admitted to the ICCU with a STEMI, of whom 2,053 (30%) were admitted on weekends.

**Table 1** Baseline characteristics

	1985-1990			1990-2000			2000-2008		
	Weekday	Weekend	P	Weekday	Weekend	P	Weekday	Weekend	P
<b>No. of patients</b>	<b>698</b>	<b>249</b>		<b>1413</b>	<b>515</b>		<b>2656</b>	<b>1289</b>	
<b>Baseline</b>									
Age (years)	60±12	59±12	0.2	60±13	60±13	0.8	61±13	60±13	<0.001
Gender (male)	78 %	76 %	0.6	74 %	76 %	0.3	75 %	73 %	0.2
<b>Cardiac History</b>									
Previous MI*	37 %	31 %	0.1	25 %	23 %	0.4	28 %	26 %	0.1
Previous PCI†	5 %	4 %	0.4	7 %	6 %	0.3	17 %	16 %	0.4
Previous CABG‡	7 %	12 %	0.02	6 %	6 %	1.0	8 %	6 %	0.8
<b>Risk factors</b>									
Hypertension	33 %	37 %	0.2	29 %	27 %	0.4	34 %	31 %	0.1
Diabetes	9 %	8 %	0.8	10 %	12 %	0.3	15 %	13 %	0.1
Hyperlipidemia	8 %	8 %	1.0	15 %	15 %	1.0	24 %	22 %	0.1
Family history	22 %	20 %	0.5	21 %	21 %	0.9	26 %	29 %	0.1
Current smoker	41 %	47 %	0.1	35 %	36 %	0.5	37 %	42 %	0.001
Renal dysfunction	12 %	10 %	0.6	12 %	11 %	0.5	6 %	5 %	0.2
Anemia	34 %	30 %	0.3	41 %	44 %	0.3	41 %	37 %	0.02

\* Myocardial infarction

† Percutaneous coronary intervention

‡ Coronary artery bypass grafting

Baseline characteristics are presented in Table 1. With the exception of age between 2000 and 2008 ( $61\pm 13$  vs  $60\pm 13$   $p<0.001$ ), previous CABG 1985-1990 (7% vs. 12%  $p=0.02$ ), current smoking 2000-2008 (37% vs. 42%  $p=0.001$ ) and anemia 2000-2008 (37% vs. 41%  $p=0.02$ ) no differences were found between the groups.

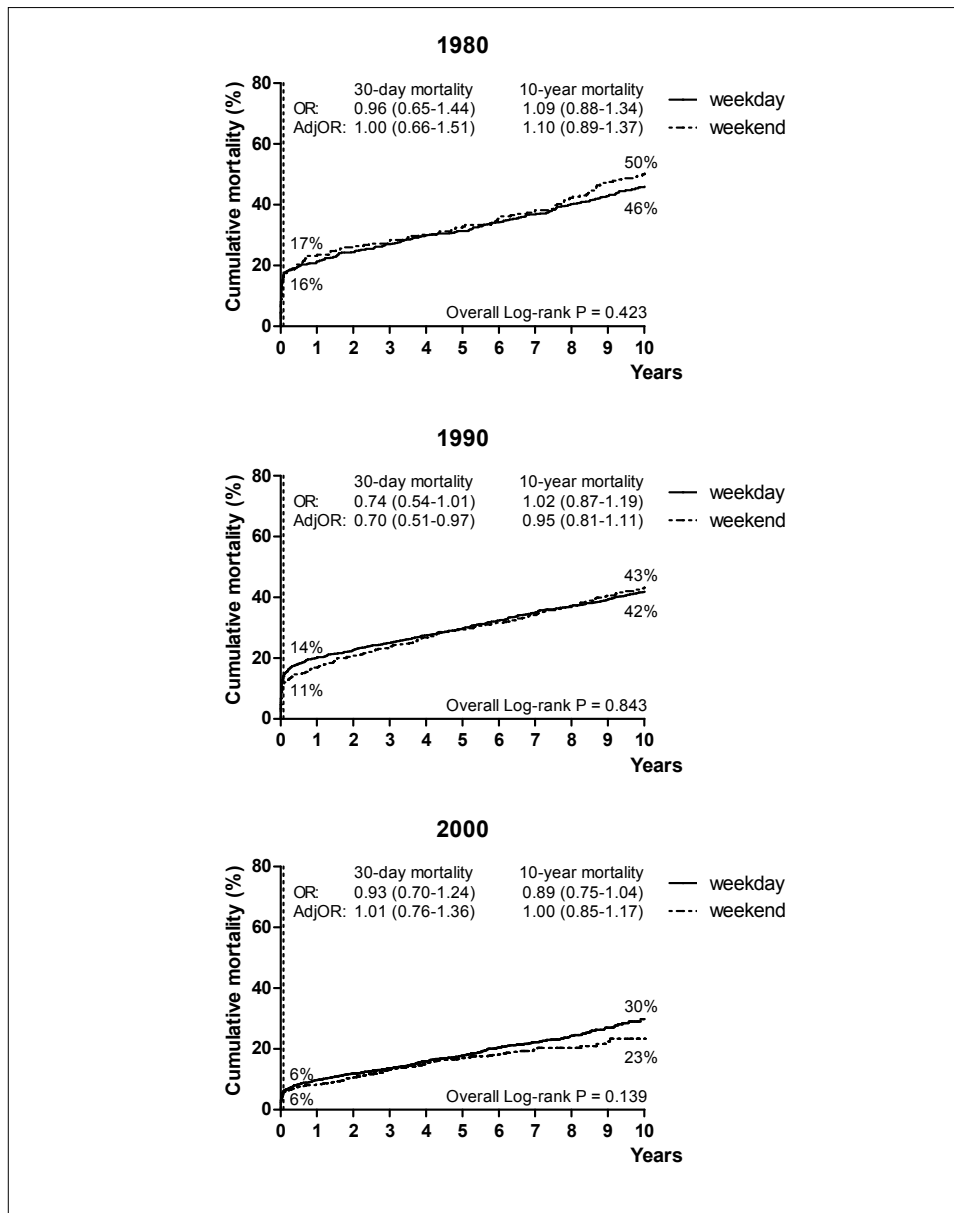
During the years studied there was an increase in the prevalence of baseline diabetes, hyperlipidemia, anemia and previous PCI. In contrast, there was a decrease in the prevalence of baseline smoking, previous CABG and renal dysfunction.

During the study period a total of 1,929 STEMI patients died of whom 543 patients were admitted during the weekends (28%). Compared to the period 1985-1990 both short and long term mortality of STEMI patients was substantially lower in the period 2000-2008.

Kaplan-Meier cumulate survival curves demonstrated no difference in 30-day and 10 year mortality for weekend versus weekday admission in all 3 intervals (figure 1). After adjustment for age and baseline characteristics there was a difference between the weekends and weekdays in favor of STEMI patients who were admitted on weekends between 1990 and 2000 (OR=0.70 95% CI 0.51-0.97). The adjusted 5-year and 10-year mortality showed no difference between the groups.

Previous studies demonstrated the 'Weekend effect'. Patients admitted on weekends to the acute care hospitals had higher mortality rates than those on weekdays<sup>[5]</sup>. Staffing levels are lower on weekends, consequently fewer urgent procedures are performed<sup>[5,10]</sup>.

Kostis et al found a higher mortality among patients with acute myocardial infarction admitted on weekends<sup>[3]</sup>. They concluded that the worse prognosis for patients admitted on the weekends is mediated in part by the lower rate of invasive procedures. A study in South Korea confirmed that the higher mortality rates in the weekends were due to differences in the rate of performance of medical or invasive procedures<sup>[7]</sup>.



**Figure 1:** Kaplan Meier curves for 30 day and 10 year cumulative mortality. Unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios (OR and adjOR) for 30-day mortality and the unadjusted and adjusted hazard ratios (HR and adjHR) for 5-year and 10-year mortality and their respective 95% confidence intervals. With weekday used as reference group.

- a) 1985-1990
- b) 1990-2000
- c) 2000-2008



In contrast our results showed that admission either on weekends or on weekdays did not influence both the 30-day mortality and the long-term mortality. This indicates high quality of care. Probably these findings are due to the proper availability of staff and the possibility to perform invasive procedures during the weekends.

Consistent with our results, three studies revealed no difference in mortality rates between weekend and weekday admissions for acute myocardial infarction patients. In a Japanese study Turin et al. found no difference in mortality (HR 1.07 95%CI 0.53–2.16)<sup>[4]</sup>. In Canada Bell et al. reported no difference in mortality (OR 1.03 95%CI 1.00–1.06) between 160,220 myocardial infarction patients admitted on weekends versus weekdays over a 10-year period. But they reported a lower rate of use of coronary angiography in the weekends<sup>[5, 11]</sup>. Another study from Japan Matsui et al. found no difference in mortality (6.6% vs 6.7%) even though they found a lower rate of stenting during the weekends<sup>[6]</sup>. These three studies compared respectively 28-day case mortality rates (Turin et al.), in hospital mortality (Bell et al.) and in-hospital, 30-day, and 1-year mortality rates (Matsui et al.). Our study not only compared short term mortality like these studies but also long term (5-year and 10-year) mortality.

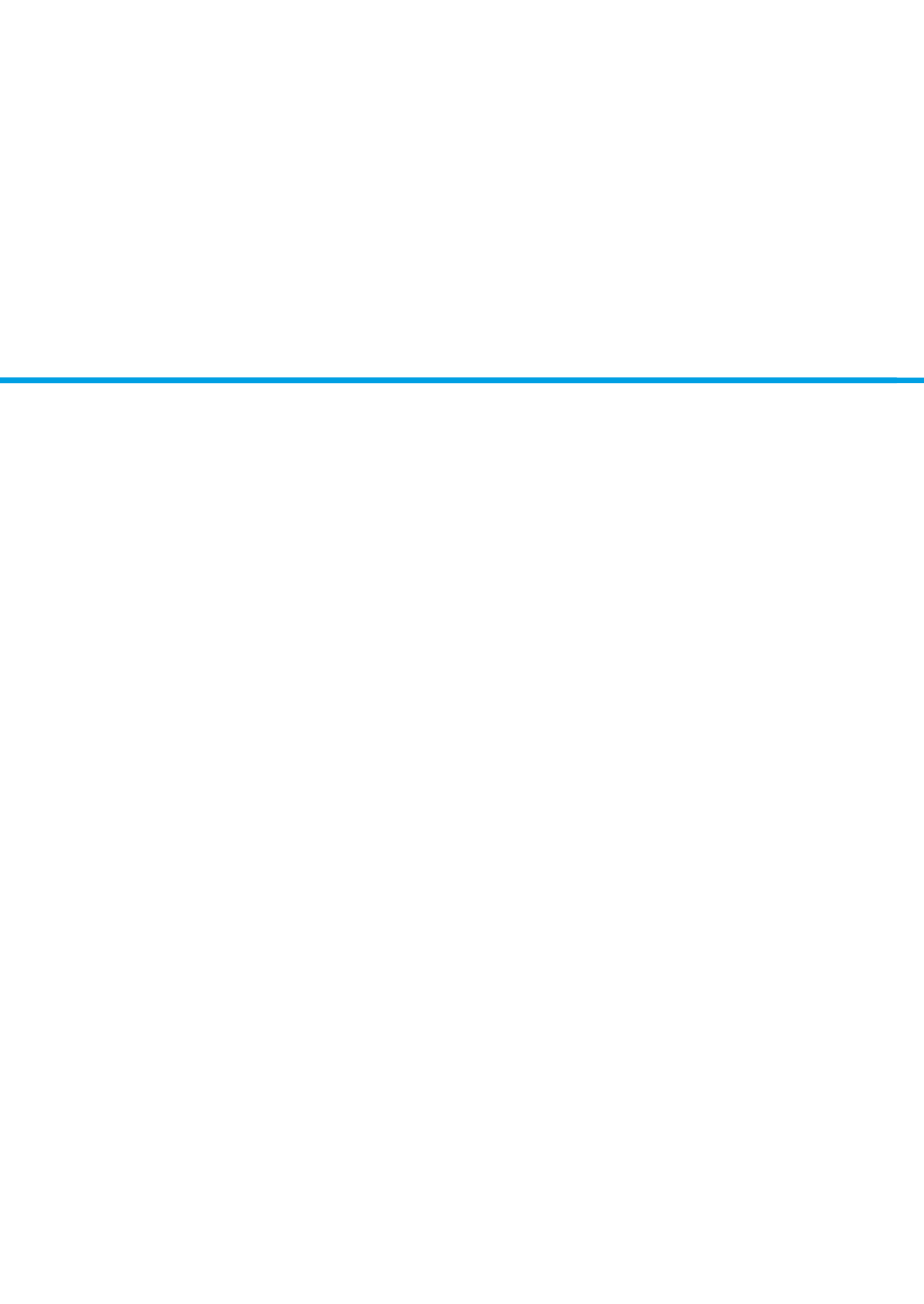
Our study has important strengths. We analyzed all patients > 18 year admitted to our ICCU between 1985 and 2008 with STEMI, with no further in or exclusion criteria. We were not limited by a small study population, and our analyses cover an inclusion period of 24-years with follow-up data up to 10 years. A potential limitation is that the presented data are derived from a single center.

In conclusion, STEMI patients admitted during the weekends have similar short and long-term survival rates as patients admitted during weekdays.

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# Chapter 14

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## Value of the SYNTAX score in patients treated by primary percutaneous coronary intervention for acute ST-elevation myocardial infarction: the MI SYNTAXscore study

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## Abstract

### Aims

To evaluate the SYNTAX score (SXscore) calculated at two stages during a primary percutaneous intervention (PPCI), i.e., SXscore I (diagnostic), SXscore II (post wiring) and assesses its additional value to standard clinical risk scores in acute myocardial infarction.

### Methods and Results

SXscores I and II were applied to 736 consecutive acute STEMI patients referred for PPCI between November 2006 and February 2008. SXscore changed significantly before - I =16 (IQR: 9.5-23) and after wiring- II =11 (IQR: 6-19),  $p < 0.001$ . Kaplan Meier methods were used to compare the primary end point MACE (composite of repeat MI, TVR and mortality) and secondary endpoint mortality at 1.5 years in tertiles of SXscore I and SXscore II. MACE was highest in the higher SXscore I tertile (11% vs.15% vs 23%, log rank  $<0.01$ ), driven primarily by increased rate of mortality (9% vs. 11% vs. 17%, log rank = 0.02). MACE was also highest in SXscore II tertile, by a combination of increased mortality but also TVR (TVR rate :

2% vs. 3% vs. 9%, log rank  $<0.01$ ). Predictive cox regression models for mortality and for MACE were significantly and similarly improved by addition of either SXscore I or SXscore II (HR 1.63, 95%CI 1.18-2.26,  $p <0.01$  for MACE) with respective c-indices of 0.61 and 0.63 for MACE and 0.60 and 0.61 for mortality.

### Conclusions

SXscore during PPCI is a useful tool that provides additional risk stratification to known risk factors of long term mortality and MACE in patients with STEMI.

## Introduction

The SYNTAX score (SXscore)<sup>[1]</sup> is a tool that can be used to cumulatively quantify the extent of angiographic coronary artery disease. It has been developed from the Leaman score<sup>[2]</sup> and therefore takes into account not only the number of lesions, their location and characteristics but also their functional impact. In fact scoring of lesions is weighed according to the size of the perfused territory of the left ventricle. The SXscore has been shown to be a good predictor of adverse cardiovascular events including cardiac death, myocardial infarction and target lesion revascularisation in patients treated with percutaneous coronary intervention for complex disease<sup>[3-4]</sup>.

Coronary angiographic characteristics at primary percutaneous intervention (PPCI) that are known to affect prognosis include culprit artery (left versus right), TIMI flow at presentation and the presence of multivessel disease especially chronic total occlusions<sup>[5-7]</sup>. The SXscore derived from the diagnostic phase of the PPCI can quantify these features. By consideration of whether the culprit lesion is occluded on presentation and accordingly scoring it as a total occlusion or otherwise, it can incorporate a numerical value that takes into account both the volume and degree of ischaemic left sided myocardium. The SXscore derived after wiring of the culprit lesion defines better the underlying culprit vessel anatomy in cases where this is obscured by the occlusion in the diagnostic phase.

The detailed anatomical and functional consideration of the SXscore may make it an attractive quantification tool for use as a prognostic indicator in patients presenting with ST elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI). To this end we set out to investigate the predictive value of the SXscore on long term outcomes in patients undergoing PPCI. The aims of our study are two-fold. First to calculate the SXscore derived at the two stages during a PPCI procedure and assess their predictive value for long term clinical outcome. Second we studied whether the SXscore is able to offer additional predictive value of long term clinical outcome when compared to the classical risk factors for survival and major adverse coronary events (MACE) in STEMI.

## Methods

Between November 2006 and February 2008, 736 consecutive patients undergoing primary PCI for STEMI in our institution were screened for inclusion in the MI SYNTAXscore study. All patients in the referral area of the Thoraxcentre, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam that had symptoms of acute myocardial infarction (< 12 duration) were assessed clinically and by 12 lead ECG by paramedical personnel or peripheral hospital medical staff. Those who met criteria of acute myocardial infarction, were transported immediately to our centre for PPCI. Pre-treatment with aspirin, clopidogrel and heparin was administered pre-hospital. Urgent diagnostic angiography was followed by PPCI if appropriate. The procedure was performed using standard techniques. Drug eluting stents were implanted as first line choice of stents. Treatment of complications such as cardiogenic shock and cardiac arrest were performed according to guidelines.

Baseline clinical characteristics and procedural characteristics were prospectively recorded in a dedicated electronic database. For the purpose of this study, the only exclusion criteria were patients with previous coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) in whom the SXscore could not be calculated. The SXscore for each patient was calculated by a team of two interventional cardiologists. All coronary lesions with a diameter stenosis  $\geq 50\%$ , in vessels  $\geq 1.5$  mm were scored using the SYNTAX score algorithm which is available on the website ([www.syntaxscore.com](http://www.syntaxscore.com)). In case of disagreement with regards to the significance of a lesion quantitative coronary angiography was applied and the lesion included if it was  $\geq 50\%$ . On agreement between the two cardiologists, the data was entered onto a dedicated software program. SYNTAX scoring was performed at 2 pre-defined stages of the index procedures:

**SXscore I :** Initial diagnostic angiogram. This takes into account the patency of the infarct related artery. Thus an infarct related artery (IRA) with a TIMI flow of 0 or 1 is scored as a total occlusion with thrombus.

**SXscore II :** After wiring/small balloon. If TIMI flow improves with these measures, this allows assessment of lesion severity as well as additional disease downstream. On the other hand, persistence of a TIMI 0/1 that does not allow adequate visualisation of the lesion is scored as in SXscore I. (total occlusion with thrombus)



The investigators calculating the SYNTAX score were blinded to the patients clinical characteristics. The scoring was done prospectively at each stage so that the investigators were blinded to the next stage film, to the procedural data and to the clinical outcomes. No change in scoring was allowed once a score was assigned.

### **Intra- and inter-observer variability**

The first 100 consecutive films from the cohort were analysed by a third independent observer to obtain inter-observer variability and by the same team 8 weeks after the first scoring phase to obtain intra-observer variability. The investigators remained blinded to the results of the first analysis. This number of patients was selected based on our previous experience with the variability of the SYNTAX score.<sup>[8]</sup>

### **Follow-up**

Survival data for all patients was obtained from the municipal registry. A health questionnaire was subsequently sent to all living patients with specific questions on readmission and major adverse cardiac events. For patients with an adverse event at another centre, medical records, discharge summaries and, when necessary, angiographic films, were systematically reviewed. General practitioners, referring cardiologists and patients were contacted as necessary for additional information. Events were adjudicated by two experienced interventional cardiologists according to the definitions below. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients.

### **Definitions**

ST elevation myocardial infarction was diagnosed when patients had symptoms of an acute myocardial infarction lasting at least 30 minutes and accompanied by >1mm (0.1mV) ST elevation in two or more contiguous leads and later confirmed by a CK and CK-MB rise and/or troponin rise.

Thrombolysis in myocardial infarction (TIMI) flow grade and corrected TIMI frame count as well as myocardial blush grade (MBG) at the start and end of the procedure were determined from the angiographic films as previously described.<sup>[9-10]</sup> TLR was defined as any PCI of the index lesion and including the 5mm adjacent segments in either main vessel or sidebranch. Stent thrombosis was defined according to the Academic Research Consortium (ARC).<sup>[11]</sup>

### **Primary and secondary endpoints**

The primary clinical end point was MACE at 1.5 years, defined as a composite of cardiac or non-cardiac death, repeat myocardial infarction (MI) and ischaemia driven target vessel revascularisation (TVR). Repeat MI in the acute post-PPCI phase was defined as clinical signs of re-infarction with recurrent or persistent symptoms and ST segment changes and requiring a repeat PPCI and/or a second peak in the CK-MB mass or troponin -T/troponin-I increase to  $\geq 3$  times the upper limit of normal not related to an interventional procedure and new pathological Q waves in 2 or more contiguous electrocardiograph leads. A repeat MI post discharge was defined as in the definitions section above. TVR was defined as revascularisation of any part of the index coronary artery. Secondary endpoints included separately, all cause mortality, repeat MI and TVR.

### **Statistical analysis**

Normality assumption for continuous variables was evaluated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. These are presented as mean $\pm$ 1SD or as median and interquartile range accordingly. Student's unpaired *t* test or Mann-Whitney non-parametric tests were used to evaluate differences in continuous variables. Categorical variables are presented as counts and percentages and differences in categorical variables between subgroups were evaluated with chi-square test or Fisher's exact test. The cohort was divided into three groups determined by SXscore tertiles. Levene's homogeneity-of-variance test was employed to test for equal variance. For those variables meeting the assumption of equal variance analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to describe differences between the 3 groups. If the ANOVA assumptions were not met we used the Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance.

Kaplan-Meier method was used to generate cumulative survival curves and curves of event free survival for the various predefined endpoints and the log rank test was used to assess the difference in survival between SXscore tertile groups. Independent variables from multivariable analysis were used to assess the significance of SXscore I and SXscore II and its contribution to improvement of the model with respect to the primary and secondary endpoints as measured by c-indices. To explore the applicability of the findings in our cohort to other STEMI populations, we also assessed the addition of the scores to the widely used TIMI risk score with variables

including age, diabetes, hypertension, systolic blood pressure, heart rate, Killip class, weight, anterior STEMI. On multivariate analysis we determined whether adding SXscore improved the model significantly. The omnibus test of model coefficients was used to assess the improvement of the model. Proportionality of hazards was tested graphically based on visual inspection of log-log survival curves, and by performing a formal test of proportionality based on Schoenfeld residuals for each variable in the model.<sup>[12]</sup> The performance of the multivariate model with the SXscore was studied with respect to calibration. Calibration refers to whether the model agrees with the observed probabilities; it was measured with the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test.

The weighted Kappa value determined intra and interobserver variability. A Kappa value of  $> 0.0$  to  $\leq 0.2$  was considered slight;  $> 0.2$  to  $\leq 0.4$  fair;  $> 0.4$  to  $\leq 0.6$  moderate;  $> 0.6$  to  $\leq 0.8$  substantial; and  $> 0.8$  to  $\leq 1.0$  almost perfect<sup>[8]</sup>.

All statistical tests were 2-tailed, and p values were significant at  $< 0.05$ . Analysis was performed using SPSS software version 17.0 (SPSS, Chicago, USA).

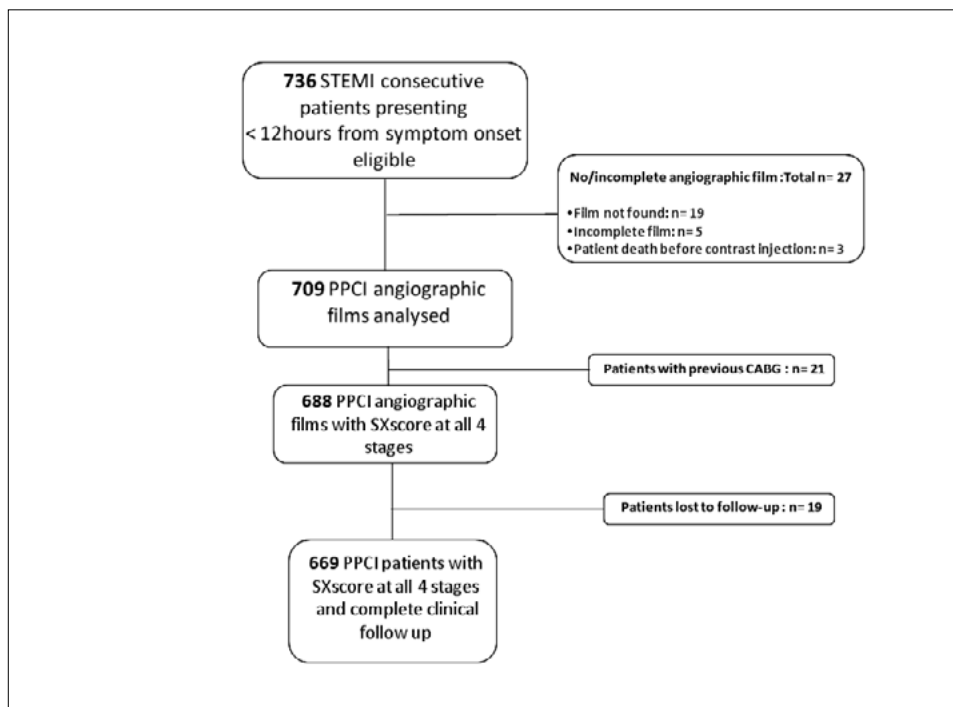
No extramural funding was used to support this work.

The authors are solely responsible for the design and conduct of this study, all study analyses, the drafting and editing of the paper and its final contents.

## Results

From the initial 736 patients screened, 27 were excluded due to unavailability of a complete diagnostic coronary angiogram while 21 were excluded since they had prior CABG. Survival status and follow-up could not be obtained in 19 patients. Thus the final number of patients included in our analysis was 669 as shown in figure 1.

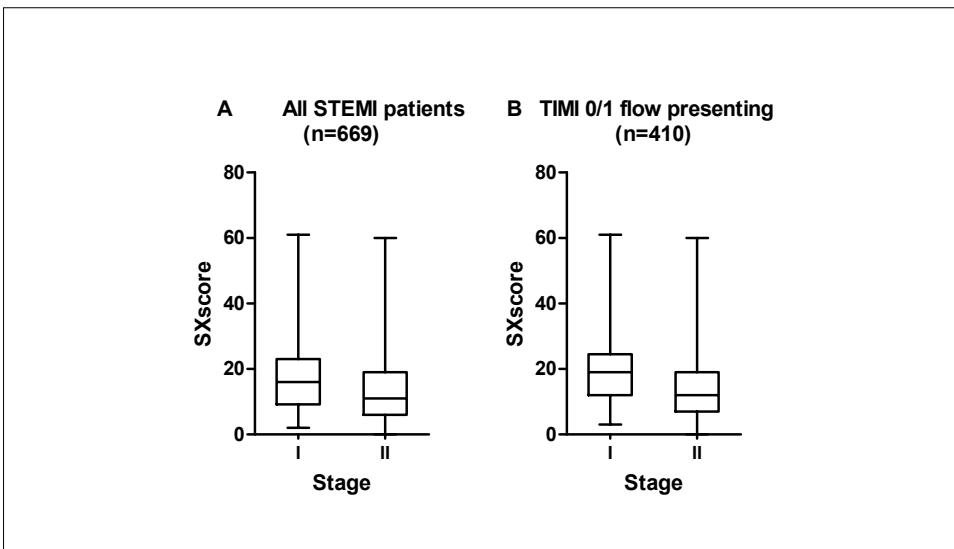
Among the 669 patients, 385 (58%) had significant disease in at least one vessel other than the IRA. The median SXscore I was 16 (IQR: 9.5-23). TIMI 0/1 flow in the IRA was present in 61% of patients. The median SXscore II was 11 (IQR: 6-19). Stent implantation was deemed appropriate and performed in 616 (92%) of patients.



**Figure 1:** Flow chart of the MI SXscore study population.

There were significant differences between SXscore I and II,  $p < 0.001$  as determined by the Kruskal Wallis test. This is illustrated in figure 2. The difference between the stages were more apparent on analysis of TIMI 1/0 presenting subgroup (fig. 2b) I 19 (IQR: 12-24.5) vs II 12 (IQR: 7-19),  $p < 0.001$ .

The differences in basal clinical characteristics, angiographic characteristics, procedural characteristics and follow-up management according to three tertiles of SXscore I are shown in tables 1 and 2. Patients with higher SXscore I were older and more commonly had previous MI. These patients also presented with higher pulse rates, cardiogenic shock, anterior STEMI. The LAD was more commonly the culprit in the higher tertile while the RCA was more commonly the IRA in the lowest tertile. Stents implanted in the patients with higher scores were longer and more likely to involve bifurcations. Procedure failure with TIMI 0/1 flow, low MBG and high cTFC were more common in the highest tertile. Complete revascularisation within 3 months was more commonly achieved in patients with lower scores.



**Figure 2:** Box plots showing the SXscore at the 2 stages during PPCI; SXscore I obtained from the diagnostic stage and SXscore II obtained after wiring or after use of a small balloon. A, The SXscore changed significantly from I to II when tested with Kruskal-Wallis and subsequently Mann-Whitney tests. B, When patients with TIMI 0/1 only are considered, higher change from I (median 19) to II (median 12) is observed.

**Table 1: Clinical characteristics of patients presenting with myocardial infarction according to SXscore I tertiles.**

	SXscore I tertiles			p value*
	Lower (<10) n = 209	Intermediate (10-20) n = 241	Higher (>20) n = 219	
<b>Baseline Characteristics</b>				
Age, years	63±13	64±13	68±11	<0.01
Male	135(64%)	171 (71%)	163 (74%)	0.08
Diabetes	14 (8%)	21 (9%)	28 (13%)	0.09
Type I	9 (4%)	7 (3%)	12 (6%)	0.39
Type II	5 (2%)	15 (6%)	17 (8%)	0.04
Hypertension	61 (29%)	87(36%)	76 (35%)	0.27
Hypercholesterolaemia	40 (19%)	51 (21%)	49 (22%)	0.71
Smokers				
Current	100 (48%)	105 (44%)	75 (34%)	0.01
Ex-	31 (15%)	29 (12%)	31 (14%)	0.66
Renal failure	3 (1%)	7 (3%)	8 (4%)	0.35
Family history of CAD	79 (38%)	73 (30%)	58 (27%)	0.04
Body Mass Index, Kg/m <sup>2</sup>	27±4	27±4	27±4	0.74
Previous Myocardial Infarction	12 (6%)	33 (14%)	40 (18%)	< 0.01
Previous PCI	19 (9%)	23 (10%)	22 (10%)	0.95
<b>Clinical presentation</b>				
Symptom onset to balloon time > 90 mins.	168 (87%)	179 (83%)	174 (87%)	0.38
Out of hospital cardiac arrest	8 (4%)	10 (4%)	13 (6%)	0.53
Pulse rate, bpm	78±17	77±17	81±18	0.04
Blood pressure, mmHg				
Systolic	123±26	126±27	122±27	0.29
Diastolic	75±13	76±15	74±17	0.45
Cardiogenic Shock	11 (5%)	15 (6%)	29 (13%)	< 0.01
Killip class 2-4	11 (5%)	19 (8%)	22 (10%)	0.18

Data is expressed in numbers and (percentages), mean ± 1 standard deviation. Percentages are rounded. PCI = Percutaneous coronary intervention; \* p value calculated using ANOVA for continuous variables or Kruskal Wallis test for non parametric variables and Chi-Square test for categorical variables.

**Table 2: Angiographic characteristics, procedural characteristics and management of patients with a acute myocardial infarction according to SXscore I tertiles.**

	SXscore I tertiles			p value*
	Lower (<10) n = 209	Intermediate (10-20) n = 241	Higher (>20) n = 219	
<b>Angiographic Characteristics Pre-procedural</b>				
Anterior STEMI	70 (34%)	128 (53%)	106 (48%)	< 0.01
Infarct Related Artery				
Left Main	0 (0%)	1 (0.4%)	4 (2%)	0.12
Left anterior descending	63 (30%)	115 (48%)	102 (47%)	< 0.01
Left Circumflex	39 (19%)	42 (17%)	28 (13%)	0.21
Right Coronary	106 (51%)	83 (34%)	86 (39%)	< 0.01
TIMI 0/1 in IRA	73 (35%)	169 (71%)	168 (77%)	< 0.01
Stent thrombosis (cause)	4 (2%)	13 (5%)	8 (4%)	0.15
Diseased vessels incl. IRA				
1-vessel disease	158 (76%)	95 (39%)	28 (13%)	< 0.01
2-vessel disease	40 (19%)	103 (43%)	63 (29%)	< 0.01
3-vessel disease †	10 (5%)	43 (18%)	128 (58%)	< 0.01
Left main disease	4 (2%)	3 (1%)	35 (16%)	< 0.01
Chronic Total Occlusion	2 (1%)	3 (1%)	41 (19%)	< 0.01
<b>Procedural characteristics</b>				
Stent Implantation	196 (94%)	225 (93%)	195 (89%)	0.10
Total Stent length, mm	26 (18-36)	28 (23-46)	32 (23-51)	< 0.01
Stent diameter, mm	3.3 ± 0.5	3.1 ± 0.5	3.2 ± 0.5	0.02
Bifurcation treatment in IRA	20 (10%)	55 (23%)	48 (22%)	< 0.01
Thrombectomy	37 (18%)	45 (19%)	42 (19%)	0.92
GP IIb/IIIa Inhibitors	46 (22%)	52 (22%)	49 (22%)	0.98
Inotropic agents	10 (5%)	9 (4%)	12 (6%)	0.67
Intra Aortic Balloon Pump	8 (4%)	13 (5%)	24 (11%)	0.01
Multivessel stenting	15 (7%)	26 (11%)	28 (13%)	0.16
<b>Angiographic characteristics Post-procedural</b>				
TIMI 0/1	3 (1%)	7 (3%)	18 (8%)	< 0.01
Corrected TIMI frame count at end procedure, fps	24 (16-36)	24 (18-35)	28 (20-44)	0.05 §
Myocardial Blush Grade 0/1	1 (1%)	5 (2%)	16 (7%)	< 0.01
<b>Follow - up treatment</b>				
Complete revascularisation within 3 months (PCI n=331, CABG n= 4)	180 (86%)	119 (49%)	36 (16%)	< 0.01
Medication at 1 year				
Aspirin	182 (87%)	200 (83%)	191 (87%)	0.60
Clopidogrel	203 (97%)	231 (96%)	203 (93%)	0.13
B-Blocker	192 (92%)	209 (87%)	188 (86%)	0.41
ACE-inhibitors	117 (56%)	157 (65%)	166 (69%)	0.20
Statins	178 (86%)	219 (91%)	204 (93%)	0.45

Data is expressed in numbers and (percentages), mean ± 1 standard deviation or median and (interquartile range); Percentages are rounded. STEMI = ST elevation myocardial infarction; TIMI = Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction; GP = Glycoprotein; PCI = Percutaneous coronary intervention; CABG = Coronary artery bypass graft; IRA = infarct related artery;

\* p value calculated using ANOVA for continuous variables and Chi-Square test for categorical variables.

† includes cases with left main disease plus one vessel disease.

§ p value by Kruskal Wallis test.

Similarly, for Sxscore II (tables 3 and 4), significantly higher scores were observed in patients with a previous myocardial infarction and those presenting with cardiogenic shock. Patients with higher scores were more likely to have longer stents implanted, more bifurcation treatment and multivessel stenting during the index procedure. Procedure failure with final TIMI flow 0/1 and impaired myocardial perfusion as determined by myocardial blush grade was more common in the tertiles with the higher scores. Whereas complete revascularisation within 3 months was achieved in 88% of patients in the lower tertiles, that in the highest tertile was low at 12.6%.

**Table 3: Clinical characteristics of patients presenting with myocardial infarction according to SXscore II tertiles.**

	Lower (<9) n = 238	Intermediate (9-17) n = 208	Higher (>17) n = 223	p value*
<b>Baseline Characteristics</b>				
Age, years	62±12	66±13	68±11	0.10
Male	157 (66%)	145 (70%)	167 (75%)	0.10
Diabetes				
Type I	9 (4%)	5 (2%)	14 (6%)	0.12
Type II	8 (3%)	10 (5%)	19 (9%)	0.46
Hypertension	74 (31%)	70 (34%)	80 (36%)	0.55
Hypercholesterolaemia	51 (21%)	36 (17%)	53 (24%)	0.25
Smoker				
Current	117 (52%)	90 (44%)	73 (35%)	< 0.01
Ex-	31 (13%)	27 (13%)	33 (16%)	0.82
Renal failure	3 (1%)	5 (2%)	10 (5%)	0.10
Family history of CAD	93 (39%)	63 (30%)	54 (24%)	< 0.01
Body Mass Index, Kg/m <sup>2</sup>	27±4	27±4	27±4	0.51
Previous Myocardial Infarction	14 (6%)	27 (13%)	44 (20%)	< 0.01
Previous PCI	24 (10%)	19 (9%)	21 (9%)	0.94
<b>Clinical presentation</b>				
Symptom onset to balloon time > 90 mins.	189 (86%)	161 (85%)	171 (86%)	0.98
Out of hospital cardiac arrest	8 (3%)	7 (3%)	16 (7%)	0.09
Pulse rate, bpm	77±17	78±17	81±19	0.09
Blood pressure, mmHg				
Systolic	126±26	122±27	122±27	0.87
Diastolic	76±13	74±17	74±15	0.25
Cardiogenic Shock	13 (6%)	14 (7%)	28 (13%)	0.01
Killip class 2-4	11 (5%)	14 (7%)	27 (12%)	0.01

Data is expressed in numbers and (percentages), mean ± 1 standard deviation. Percentages are rounded. PCI = Percutaneous coronary intervention;

\* p value calculated using ANOVA for continuous variables or Kruskal Wallis test for non parametric variables and Chi-Square test for categorical variables.



**Table 4: Angiographic characteristics, procedural characteristics and management of patients with acute myocardial infarction according to Sxscore II tertiles.**

	Sxscore II tertiles			p value *
	Lower (<9) n = 238	Intermediate (9-17) n = 208	Higher (>17) n = 223	
<b>Angiographic Characteristics Pre-procedural</b>				
Anterior STEMI	85 (36%)	119 (57%)	100 (45%)	< 0.01
Infarct Related Artery				
Left Main	2 (1%)	0 (0%)	3 (1.3%)	0.26
Left anterior descending	75 (32%)	111 (53%)	94 (42%)	< 0.01
Left Circumflex	45 (19%)	27 (13%)	37 (17%)	0.23
Right Coronary	116 (48%)	70 (34%)	89 (40%)	< 0.01
TIMI 0/1 in IRA	136 (57%)	130 (63%)	144 (65%)	0.26
Stent thrombosis (cause)	5 (2%)	13 (6%)	7 (3%)	0.06
Diseased vessels incl. IRA				
1-vessel disease	189 (79%)	76 (37%)	16 (4%)	< 0.01
2-vessel disease	42 (18%)	96 (46%)	68 (31%)	< 0.01
3-vessel disease ¶	6 (3%)	36 (17%)	139 (62%)	< 0.01
Left main disease	5 (2%)	1 (1%)	36 (16%)	< 0.01
Chronic Total Occlusion	3 (1%)	3 (1%)	40 (18%)	< 0.01
<b>Procedural characteristics</b>				
Stent Implantation	218 (92%)	198 (95%)	200 (90%)	0.10
Total Stent length, mm	24 (18-32)	28 (23-51)	32 (23-51)	< 0.01
Stent diameter, mm	3.3 ± 0.5	3.2 ± 0.5	3.3 ± 0.5	0.09
Bifurcation treatment in IRA	17 (7%)	47 (23%)	59 (27%)	< 0.01
Thrombectomy	52 (22%)	37 (18%)	35 (16%)	0.22
GP IIb/IIIa Inhibitors	56 (24%)	46 (22%)	45 (20%)	0.69
Inotropic agents	8 (3%)	8 (4%)	15 (5%)	0.19
Intra Aortic Balloon Pump	9 (4%)	11 (5%)	25 (11%)	< 0.01
Multivessel stenting	11 (5%)	25 (12%)	33 (15%)	< 0.01
<b>Angiographic characteristics Post-procedural</b>				
TIMI 0/1	3 (1%)	6 (3%)	19 (9%)	< 0.01
Corrected TIMI frame count at end procedure, fps	26 (18-32)	32 (21-36)	28 (20-33)	0.02§
Myocardial Blush Grade 0/1	1 (1%)	5 (2%)	16 (7%)	< 0.01
<b>Follow - up treatment</b>				
Complete revascularisation within 3 months (PCI n=331, CABG n= 4)	210 (88%)	97 (47%)	28 (13%)	< 0.01
Medication at 1 year				
Aspirin	200 (84%)	177 (85%)	198 (89%)	0.60
Clopidogrel	228 (96%)	202 (97%)	205 (92%)	0.03
B-Blocker	212 (89%)	185 (89%)	194 (87%)	0.85
ACE-inhibitors	150 (63%)	123 (59%)	154 (69%)	0.44
Statins	207 (87%)	183 (88%)	210 (94%)	0.33

Data is expressed in numbers and (percentages), mean ± 1 standard deviation or median and (interquartile range); Percentages are rounded. STEMI = ST elevation myocardial infarction; TIMI = Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction; GP = Glycoprotein; PCI = Percutaneous coronary intervention; CABG = Coronary artery bypass graft; IRA = infarct related artery;

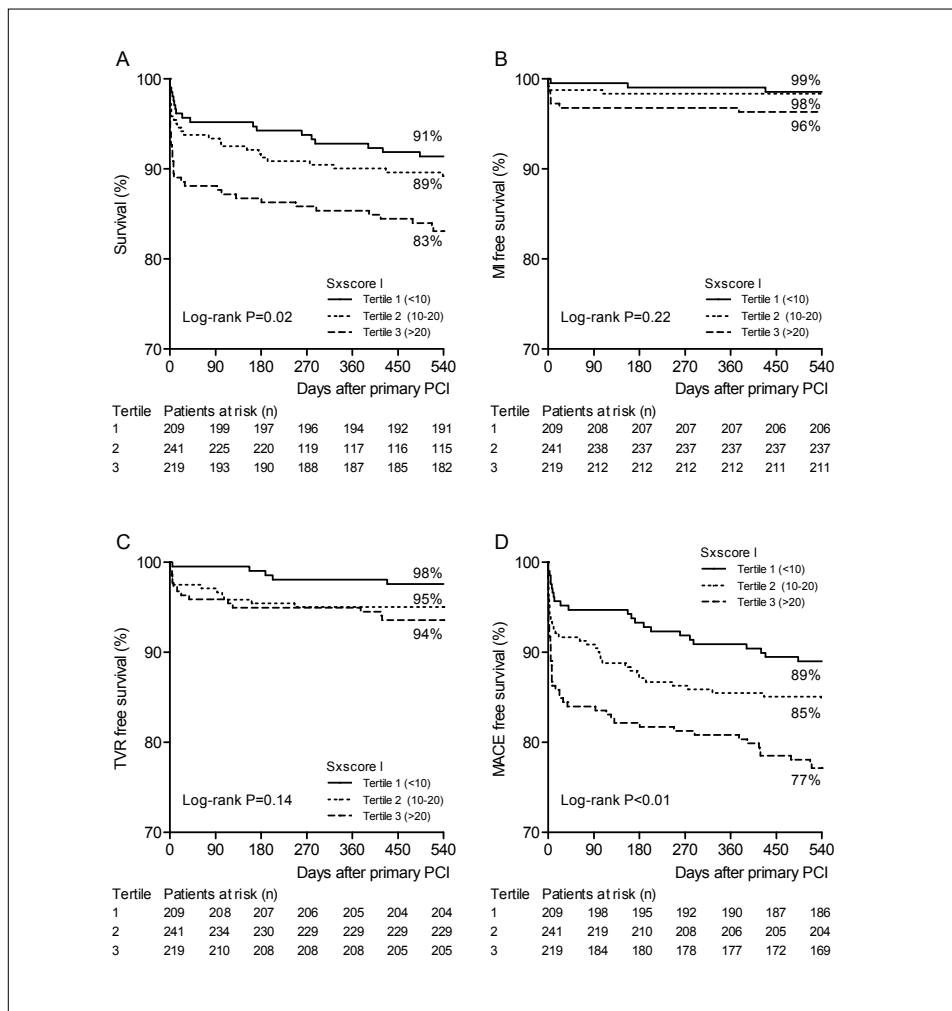
\* p value calculated using ANOVA for continuous variables and Chi-Square test for categorical variables.

¶ includes cases with left main disease plus one vessel disease.

§ p value by Kruskal Wallis test.

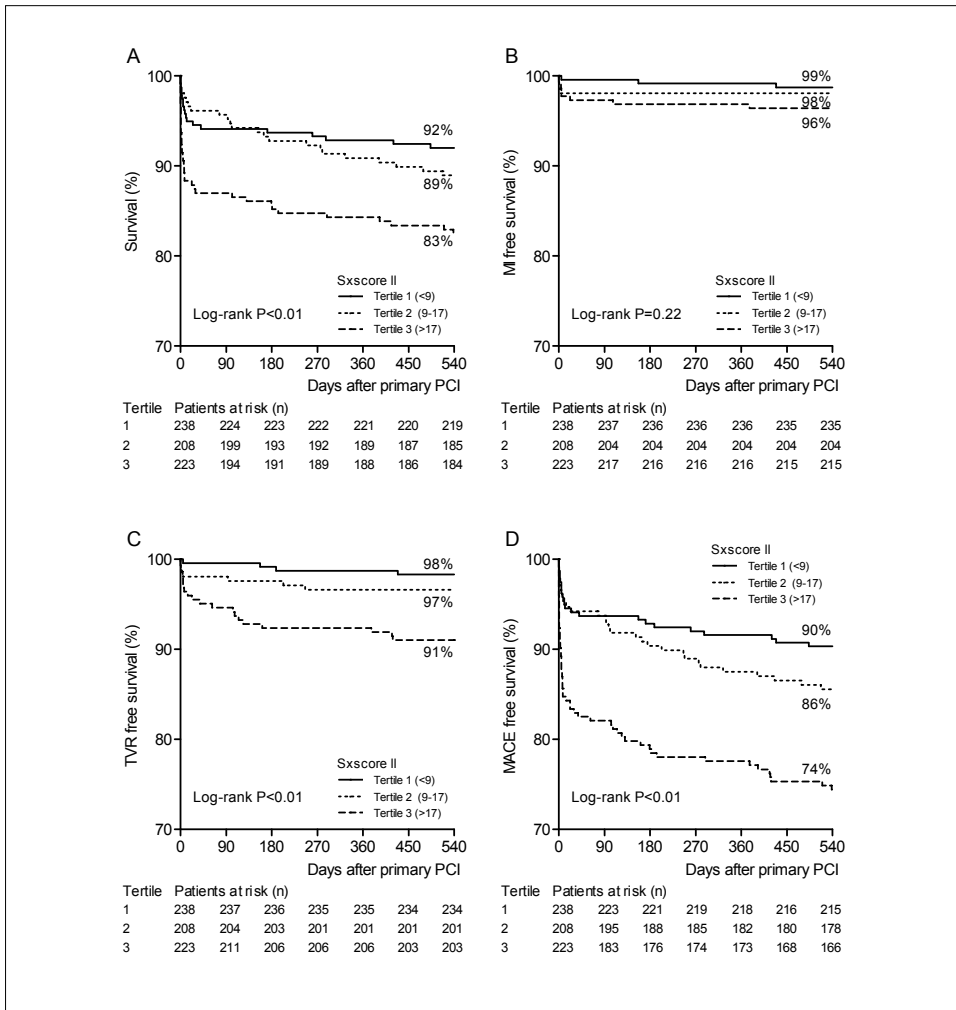
### Long term clinical outcome

All patients had follow-up to 1.5 years. Mortality rate was 12.1%, TVR 4.6, MI 2.2% and cumulative MACE 16.4%. Angiographically defined stent thrombosis (ST) occurred in 1.2%. Kaplan Meier curves for survival, repeat myocardial infarction, target vessel revascularisation, according to the tertiles of SXscore I are shown in figure 3. Log rank test shows that the differences in mortality was significant between the highest and



**Figure 3:** Kaplan-Meier event-free survival curves and their log-rank tests for patients presenting with STEMI and categorized in tertiles of the SXscore I. A, 1.5-year mortality. B, Repeat MI. C, TVR. D, MACE.

lower 2 tertiles. There was no statistically significant differences between tertiles for repeat MI and TVR so that the difference in MACE between tertiles was primarily driven by difference in mortality. Stent thrombosis, although numerically higher in the highest tertile was not statistically different (1% vs. 0.4% vs. 2.3%; log rank 0.17) Figure 4 shows the Kaplan Meier curves for SXscore II. Log rank test shows difference in mortality (9% vs. 11% vs. 17%, log rank = 0.02) and TVR (2% vs. 3% vs. 9%, log rank



**Figure 4:** Kaplan-Meier event-free survival curves and their log-rank tests for patients presenting with STEMI and categorized in tertiles of the SXscore II. A, 1.5-year mortality. B, Repeat MI. C, TVR. D, MACE.

<0.01) between the higher and lower tertiles but not between the intermediate and lower tertiles. There was no difference in repeat myocardial infarction. The difference in MACE between the highest and lower tertiles is determined mostly by differences in mortality, followed by TVR. Angiographic ST was higher in the highest tertile (0.8% vs. 1% vs. 1.8% vs. log rank 0.60).

A cox regression model with independent variables from our data was significantly improved in discrimination for both mortality and MACE when SXscore I or Sxscore II were added to the model. The c-indices for SXscore I were 0.60 and 0.61 for mortality and MACE respectively while c-indices for SXscore II were 0.61 and 0.63 for mortality and MACE respectively. Similarly, when only TIMI risk score variables for STEMI were introduced in the model, SXscore showed a significant improvement. (table 5). In fact, adding either SXscore I or Sxscore II to the TIMI risk score model improved the prediction of MACE ( $p$  value = < 0.01), and mortality ( $p$  value = < 0.04). Hazards ratio for mortality with a 20 point increase in the SXscore in a combined model adjusted for TIMI risk variables was 1.52 (1.03 - 2.23),  $p = 0.04$  and 1.51 (1.03 - 2.21),  $p = 0.03$  for SXscore I and II respectively. For MACE, hazards were 1.63 (1.17 - 2.27),  $p < 0.01$  for SXscore I and 1.63 (1.18 - 2.26),  $p < 0.01$  for SXscore II respectively.

**Table 5: Hazard ratios from multivariate analysis of TIMI risk score and SXscore with value of model improvement for mortality and MACE.**

Endpoint Risk Score	Mortality		MACE	
	HR (95%CI)	p value	HR (95%CI)	p value
TIMI score	1.41 (1.29 - 1.55)	< 0.01	1.32 (1.22 - 1.43)	< 0.01
Model Improvement by adding SXscore I to TIMI	0.04*		< 0.01*	
SXscore I	1.52 (1.03 - 2.23)	0.04	1.63 (1.17 - 2.27)	0.04
TIMI score	1.42 (1.29 - 1.55)	< 0.01	1.32 (1.22 - 1.43)	< 0.01
Model Improvement by adding SXscore II to TIMI	0.04*		< 0.01*	
SXscore II	1.51 (1.03 - 2.21)	0.03	1.63 (1.18 - 2.26)	< 0.01

MACE= major adverse cardiac events; HR= hazard ratios; CI= confidence intervals;  
TIMI= thrombolysis in myocardial infarction risk score;

\* by omnibus test of model coefficients

### **Interobserver and intraobserver variability**

Interobserver variability as measured by the weighted Kappa statistic was moderate (0.56 for both SXscores I and II). Intraobserver variability was substantial with values of 0.70 and 0.77 SX scores I and II respectively.

## **Discussion**

The SYNTAX score (SXscore), originally designed for quantifying stable coronary artery disease, can be usefully employed in a STEMI population with disease in the native coronary arteries as demonstrated in our study. The extent of coronary artery disease and the successful intervention as determined by angiography at each stage during a PPCI and as graded by SXscores I and II is associated with the rate of mortality and major adverse cardiac events both at 1.5 years follow-up. Both SXscores are independent predictors of mortality and MACE adding incremental value to the TIMI risk score in STEMI patients treated with PPCI. This therefore adds to the well established risk factors of mortality as previously described in the major trials that studied the STEMI population.<sup>[13-15]</sup> Additionally, the score can be utilised by clinicians, interventional cardiologists and cardiac surgeons to better assess and quantify the risk of complications and tailor management strategies accordingly. This is the first study that reports the prognostic value of the SXscore, calculated purposely and exclusively for STEMI patients at two stages with the methodology described. Moreover since more than 99% of our cohort were treated with drug eluting stents in the setting of myocardial infarction, the study results are the first to show applicability of the SXscore in a 'real world' population with STEMI, treated almost exclusively with DES.

### **Risk scores in STEMI**

The predictive power of clinical parameters derived from independent risk factors from the major reperfusion in acute coronary syndrome studies including the Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction (TIMI) trials, Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events (GRACE), Controlled Abciximab and Device Investigation to Lower Late Angioplasty Complications (CADILLAC) is considerable.<sup>[14-15]</sup> Angiographic

characteristics that have additional independent prognostic significance include the infarct related artery (IRA), patency of the IRA, presence of 3 vessel disease and chronic total occlusions. This present study highlights the importance of more detailed characterisation of coronary artery disease in patients undergoing PPCI. In this present era of treatment of IRA lesions with stent implantation whenever possible, information about the lesion complexity is useful for prediction of future events which include revascularisation of the target vessel, stent thrombosis and repeat myocardial infarction in the territory of the index IRA. In fact 1.5 year TVR rates are considerably higher in patients in the higher SXscore II tertile. The higher disease complexity, the lower PCI success rate as well as the need for longer, more overlapping stents, bifurcation treatment are likely contributing factors for the increased need of revascularisation in this patient subgroup.

### **Functional consideration of the SXscore**

By consideration of the flow to the left ventricle at the site of the lesion, a functional aspect has been added to the score. Thus for a right dominant coronary artery system, the right coronary artery (RCA) supplies approximately 16% of the flow to the left ventricle whereas the left coronary artery supplies 84%. In a left dominant system, the LAD supplies 66% and the left circumflex artery 33% of the flow to the left ventricle. Appropriately, the SXscore assigns 1 to the RCA lesions, 1.5 to the LCx and 3.5 to the LAD in consideration of function alone. In STEMI, a larger left ventricular infarct size can be anticipated when the culprit lesion is in the LAD. The level at which the occlusion occurs is also given weight in the score so that more proximal lesions which supply a larger myocardial territory, carry higher scores. Moreover SXscore I assigns a higher value to IRAs which have TIMI 1/0 flow on diagnostic angiography during PPCI. Thus further points are added and may be appropriate as the extent of myocardial damage is known to be higher in patients presenting with closed versus patent IRAs. This functional combination is a plausible reason for the better early separation of the survival curves between all three tertiles of SXscore I when compared to SXscore II as illustrated in figure 3 and figure 4 respectively.

### **Lesion complexity consideration**

Angiographic characterisation of the culprit lesion is possible in the majority of patients presenting with acute STEMI. Patients with a patent IRA with TIMI 2 or higher flow can have characterisation outright from the diagnostic angiography unless the thrombus burden is high. In patients presenting with an occluded IRA with TIMI 1/0 flow, wiring or use of a small balloon can increase the flow to reveal the underlying lesion anatomy. SXScores II in these patients is lower than SXScores I since the increase in flow reduces the 5 points added in the latter for total occlusion. Patients in whom TIMI 0/1 flow persists after wiring may have higher intracoronary pressures from larger infarct sizes and possibly higher thrombus burden which is associated with a poorer prognosis.<sup>[16]</sup> In addition, higher SXScores are assigned to patients with complex lesions with points added for trifurcations, bifurcations, ostial stenosis, severe tortuosity, lesion length >20mm, heavy calcification, thrombus and diffuse disease or small vessels.<sup>[1]</sup> Although these features are historically and in our study more prevalent in patients who already have a poorer prognosis based on their high clinical risk factors alone (age, diabetes, smokers) SXScores can still give additional prognostic information. The better characterisation of the underlying disease anatomy in the SXScores II may be a major reason for the better prognostic impact on MACE in the long term.

### **Multivessel disease, STEMI and the SXScores**

That patients with multivessel coronary artery disease have worse outcome when compared to single vessel disease in myocardial infarction has been reported since the pharmacological reperfusion era.<sup>[17]</sup> In the PPCI era, these patients have been shown to achieve less ST segment recovery, a sign of myocardial reperfusion in a substudy of the CADILLAC trial.<sup>[6]</sup> In this substudy, 1 year mortality and MACE rates also differed between patients with single-, double-, and triple-vessel disease and presence of the latter was the strongest amongst classical candidate predictors of outcome. The concomitant presence of a chronic total occlusion (CTO) in a vessel other than the IRA has been shown to be a considerably more important risk factor than presence of multivessel disease alone in a study by van der Schaaf et al.<sup>[7]</sup> In the present study, the mortality rate was highest in the highest tertile of SXScores which predominantly

included patients with 3 vessel disease and the largest number of CTOs. With the additional information about the nature of the lesions in multivessel disease subjects, the SXscore may be a better predictor than mere numeration of the vessels involved.

### **Implications for clinical practice**

In patients undergoing PPCI for acute STEMI, quantification of the presence, severity and complexity of coronary vessel disease by the SXscore is a useful tool in determining short term and long term outcome independently of any other clinical and angiographic and procedural characteristics. Patients in the higher tertiles are at high risk and may need more intensive supportive and interventional management to improve their event free survival.

### **Implications for PCI trials**

In 'all comer' revascularisation trials that include patients with a spectrum of coronary disease and patients treated for acute STEMI, the SXscore seems a useful tool in addition to the classical risk factors that ensures comparison of equal coronary disease anatomy between the cohorts being investigated.

### **Limitations**

Although data was acquired prospectively the study has a retrospective design and is in fact a registry analysis and therefore suffers from limitations. Data on enzymatic or other imaging-derived infarct size quantification was not available in all patients. Also myocardial blush grade, ST segment resolution as markers of reperfusion could not be determined in all patients and we used cTFC instead. These could not be incorporated in the models and whether these would be better predictors than the SXscore remains unexplored.

### **Conclusion**

The SXscore derived from angiography after during PPCI predicts long term mortality and MACE in patients with STEMI. The score is relatively easy to obtain and has a moderate reproducibility, making it a clinically useful tool.



## Acknowledgements

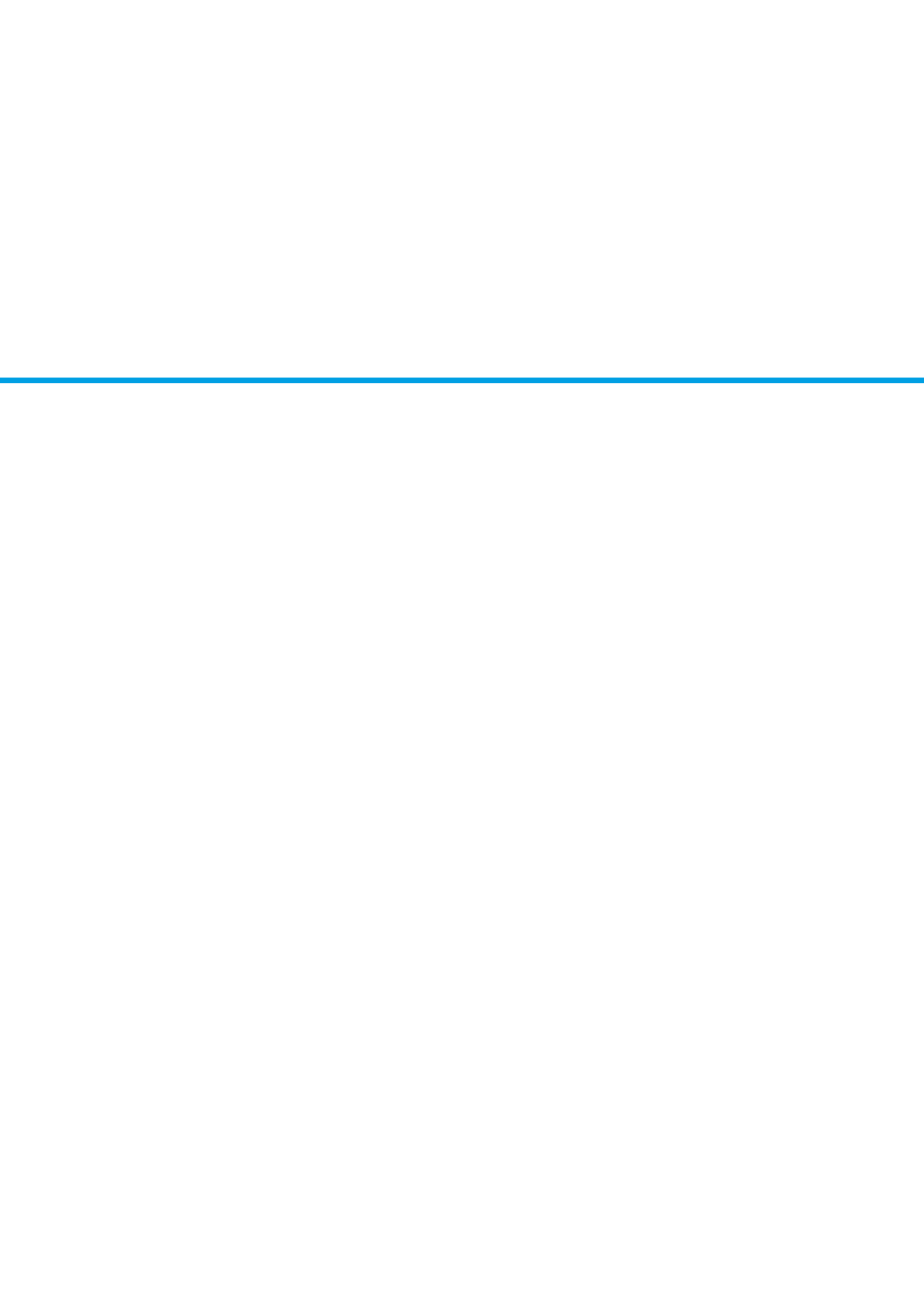
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None of the authors report any conflict of interest.

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# Chapter 15

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## Usefulness of the SYNTAX score to predict “no reflow” in patients treated with primary percutaneous coronary intervention for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction

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## Abstract

The no-reflow phenomenon has been shown to have a significant effect on clinical outcome in patients with acute ST segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI). Angiographic features incorporated in the SYNTAXscore (SXscore) obtained on a diagnostic angiogram during primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PPCI) may be associated with the occurrence of myocardial no-reflow. The study aimed to assess the ability of the SXscore to predict no-reflow during PPCI. The SXscore was applied to 669 consecutive patients presenting with acute ST elevation myocardial infarction between November 2006 and February 2008. Angiographic analysis of the PPCI procedure was used to determine no-reflow. The median SXscore was 16 (9.5-23). No-reflow occurred in 77 (12%) patients. On univariate logistic regression analysis the SXscore showed strong association with odds ratio (OR) of 1.42, 95% CI (1.16-1.76),  $p < 0.001$  for every 10 units increase in the score. On multivariate logistic regression in a model including clinical variables, SXscore was an independent predictor on no-reflow: (OR); 1.29 95%CI 1.02-1.63),  $p < 0.001$ . Classification and regression tree analysis identified SXscore of  $> 21$  as best cut off with patients having a double risk of no-reflow as compared to those with SXscore  $\leq 21$ . (events 9% vs.18%,  $p$  value 0.006). In conclusion, the SXscore obtained in the diagnostic phase of PPCI for acute STEMI can identify patients at risk of developing no-reflow. Periprocedural pharmacological or mechanical preventive measures of no-reflow may in the future be directed at those at higher risk as identified by the SXscore.

### Keywords

ST segment elevation myocardial infarction, Primary percutaneous coronary intervention, SYNTAX score, myocardial no-reflow.

## Introduction

Myocardial no reflow diagnosed angiographically during primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PPCI) is associated with an increased incidence of clinical events and a poor survival rate following an acute ST segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI).<sup>[1]</sup> The no-reflow phenomenon is in fact established as a good surrogate of adverse cardiovascular events in patients treated for STEMI.<sup>[2]</sup> Patients at a high risk of no-reflow include older subjects, those with previous coronary artery bypass surgery, those presenting with a higher Killip class and a longer ischaemic time. Angiographic characteristics of STEMI patients with a high risk of subsequent no-reflow include patency of the infarct related artery, saphenous graft as culprit vessel and multivessel disease. A high thrombus burden as assessed angiographically is also known to be associated with a higher risk of developing the no-reflow phenomenon.<sup>[3]</sup>

Such angiographic characteristics can be quantified by the SYNTAX score (SXscore).<sup>[4]</sup> The latter, obtained on the diagnostic angiogram during PPCI incorporates information including the patency of the infarct related artery, the area of myocardium at risk, supplied by the culprit vessel at the level of occlusion, as well as information on the complexity of the lesion and extent and severity of coronary artery disease.<sup>[5]</sup> Patients with high SXscores are at increased risk of adverse events including mortality and the prognostic value has been shown to be independent and additive to other risk variables incorporated in risk scores such as the TIMI and PAMI scores.<sup>[4, 6-8]</sup> The mechanisms that relate a high SXscore to adverse cardiovascular events is unclear and may in part be mediated by a higher risk of failure to achieve an adequate myocardial reperfusion during PPCI.

We hypothesized that with its additional angiographic characterization of patients presenting for PPCI, the SXscore can stratify patients at risk of developing myocardial no-reflow.

## Methods

Between November 2006 and February 2008, 736 consecutive patients undergoing primary PCI for STEMI in our institution were screened for inclusion in the MI SXscore study.<sup>[4]</sup> All patients in the referral area of the Thoraxcentre, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam that had symptoms of acute myocardial infarction (< 12 duration) were assessed clinically and by 12 lead ECG by paramedical personnel or peripheral hospital medical staff. Pre-treatment with aspirin, clopidogrel and heparin was administered pre-hospital. Urgent diagnostic angiography was followed by PPCI with standard techniques. Drug eluting stents were implanted as first line choice of stents. Treatment of complications such as cardiogenic shock and cardiac arrest were performed according to guidelines.

The SXscore was calculated as previously described.<sup>[4]</sup> Patients with previous coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) in whom the SXscore could not be calculated were excluded from the study. All coronary lesions with a diameter stenosis  $\geq 50\%$ , in vessels  $\geq 1.5$  mm were scored using the SXscore algorithm which is available on the website ([www.syntaxscore.com](http://www.syntaxscore.com)). The SXscore for each patient was calculated by a team of two interventional cardiologists. In case of disagreement with regards to the significance of a lesion quantitative coronary angiography was applied and the lesion included if it was  $\geq 50\%$ . On agreement between the two cardiologists, the data was entered into a dedicated software program.

The investigators calculating the SXscore were blinded to the patient's clinical characteristics. The scoring was done prospectively at each stage so that the investigators were blinded to the next stage film, to the procedural data and to the clinical outcomes. No change in scoring was allowed once a score was assigned.

Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction (TIMI) flow and corrected TIMI frame count were assessed as previously reported<sup>[9]</sup>. Myocardial blush grade was assigned as described by van 't Hof et al.<sup>[10]</sup> Angiographic epicardial artery no-reflow was defined as an acute temporary or persistent reduction in coronary flow (TIMI 0/1) in the absence of dissection, thrombus, spasm or high grade residual stenosis at the target lesion. Slow flow was recorded if there was a temporary reduction from TIMI flow



grade 3 to 2. Distal embolisation was defined as visible downstream movement of a contrast filling-defect from the site of the culprit lesion. Distal occlusion was defined as a distal filling defect with an abrupt 'cutoff' in one of the peripheral coronary artery branches of the infarct-related vessel distal to the site of angioplasty.

Survival data for all patients was obtained from the municipal registry. A health questionnaire was subsequently sent to all living patients with specific questions on readmission and major adverse cardiac events. For patients with an adverse event at another centre, medical records, discharge summaries and, when necessary, angiographic films, were systematically reviewed. General practitioners, referring cardiologists and patients were contacted as necessary for additional information. Events were adjudicated by two experienced interventional cardiologists according to the definitions below. *ST segment elevation myocardial infarction* was diagnosed when patients had symptoms of an acute myocardial infarction lasting at least 30 minutes and accompanied by >1mm (0.1mV) ST elevation in two or more contiguous leads and later confirmed by a creatinine kinase (CK) and CK-MB rise and /or troponin rise. *Target vessel revascularisation* was defined as any PCI of the index infarct-related artery. *Major adverse cardiac events (MACE)* was defined as a composite of death, repeat myocardial infarction and target vessel revascularisation.

The no-reflow phenomenon was defined by at least one of the following: final TIMI flow grade <3; final myocardial blush grade <2; temporary epicardial coronary no-reflow; distal coronary occlusion; and a final corrected TIMI frame count of >100 frames per second.<sup>[9]</sup>

Continuous variables are expressed as mean and standard deviation or as median and interquartile range while categorical variables are presented as absolute numbers and percentage. Normality assumption was evaluated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Continuous variables were compared using Student's unpaired t-test or Mann-Whitney non-parametric test. Categorical variables were compared using chi-square statistics or Fischer's exact test, as appropriate.

Observed unadjusted and adjusted measures of association were obtained by logistic regression models and presented as odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence

intervals (CI). Separate logistic regression analyses were performed to identify independent predictors of no-reflow using all clinical variables. These univariate predictors were entered into a second logistic regression model to obtain the adjusted OR. The multivariate model consisted of SXscore and the clinical variables; age, sex, out of hospital arrest, Killip class, cardiogenic shock, pulse rate, and blood pressure.

Classification and regression tree analysis was performed to determine the best SXscore value cut-off that stratifies patients at high versus low risk of developing no-reflow. To assess which of the angiographic characteristics best impact the association of SXscore and no-reflow, a separate logistic regression analysis in a multivariate model with the angiographic variables infarct-related artery, TIMI flow pre-wiring, thrombus grade post-wire, number of vessels diseased, chronic total occlusion and bifurcation was performed.

Also, the cumulative incidence of adverse events according to the presence of no-reflow was estimated according to the Kaplan-Meier method, and curves were compared using the log-rank test. A value of  $<0.05$  was used to indicate statistical significance unless declared otherwise. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS version 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois).

## Results

From the initial 736 patients screened, 27 were excluded due to unavailability of a complete diagnostic coronary angiogram while 21 were excluded since they had prior CABG. Survival status and follow-up could not be obtained in 19 patients. Thus the final number of patients included in our analysis was 669. The median SXscore was 16 (9.5-23). Differences in the baseline clinical characteristics in patients with low and high SXscores are shown in table 1. Patients with a higher SXscore ( $\geq 16$ ) were more commonly older, male, more often had type 2 diabetes and were more likely to be

**Table 1: Baseline and presenting characteristics of patients with acute myocardial infarction according to low or high MI SYNTAX score.**

	Lower (<16) n = 332	Higher ( $\geq 16$ ) n = 337	p value*
Age, years	63 $\pm$ 13	67 $\pm$ 12	<0.01
Male	221 (67%)	248 (74%)	0.047
Diabetes	22 (7%)	41 (12%)	0.014
Type I	11 (3%)	17 (5%)	0.26
Type II	12 (4%)	25 (7%)	0.03
Hypertension	101 (30%)	123 (37%)	0.096
Hypercholesterolaemia	64 (19%)	76 (23%)	0.30
Smoker			
Current	155 (47%)	125 (37%)	0.012
Ex-	46 (14%)	45 (13%)	0.036
Renal failure	4 (1%)	14 (4%)	0.018
Family history of CAD	121 (36%)	89 (26%)	<0.01
Body Mass Index, Kg/m <sup>2</sup>	27 $\pm$ 4	27 $\pm$ 4	0.74
Previous Myocardial Infarction	25 (8%)	60 (18%)	< 0.01
Previous PCI	30 (9%)	34 (10%)	0.64
Symptom onset to balloon time > 90 mins.	257 (84%)	264 (87%)	0.27
Out of hospital cardiac arrest	13 (4%)	18 (5%)	0.38
Pulse rate, bpm	77 $\pm$ 16	80 $\pm$ 19	0.037
Blood pressure, mmHg			
Systolic	124 $\pm$ 26	123 $\pm$ 27	0.29
Diastolic	75 $\pm$ 14	75 $\pm$ 16	0.45
Cardiogenic Shock	19 (6%)	36 (11%)	0.02
Killip class 2-4	18 (5%)	34 (10%)	0.024

Data is expressed in numbers and (percentages), mean  $\pm$  1 standard deviation. Percentages are rounded.

PCI = Percutaneous coronary intervention;

\* p value calculated using ANOVA for continuous variables or Kruskal Wallis test for non parametric variables and Chi-Square test for categorical variables.

**Table 2: Angiographic characteristics, procedural characteristics and management of patients with acute myocardial infarction with low and high MI SYNTAX score.**

	Lower (<16) n = 332	Higher (≥16) n = 337	p value*
Anterior STEMI	127 (38%)	177 (53%)	<0.001
Infarct Related Artery			
Left Main	6 (2%)	36 (11%)	<0.01
Left anterior descending	111 (34%)	169 (50%)	<0.01
Left Circumflex	63 (19%)	46 (14%)	0.06
Right Coronary	156 (47%)	119 (35%)	<0.01
TIMI 0/1 in IRA	157 (48%)	253 (75%)	<0.01
Stent thrombosis (cause)	12 (4%)	13 (4%)	0.86
Diseased vessels incl. IRA			
1-vessel disease	222 (67%)	59 (18%)	<0.01
2-vessel disease	91 (27%)	115 (34%)	0.06
3-vessel disease <sup>¶</sup>	18 (5%)	163 (48%)	<0.01
Left main disease	6 (2%)	36 (11%)	<0.01
Chronic Total Occlusion	4 (1%)	42 (13%)	<0.01
Stent Implantation	311 (94%)	305 (91%)	0.096
Total Stent length, mm	28 (18-40)	30 (23-51)	<0.01
Stent diameter, mm	3.0±0.5	3.0±0.5	0.83
Bifurcation treatment in IRA	47 (14%)	76 (23%)	<0.01
Thrombectomy	62 (19%)	62 (19%)	0.93
GP IIb/IIIa Inhibitors	73 (22%)	74 (22%)	0.99
Inotropic agents	14 (4%)	17 (5%)	0.61
Intra Aortic Balloon Pump	15 (5%)	30 (9%)	0.024
Multivessel stenting	26 (8%)	43 (13%)	0.036
TIMI 0/1	7 (2%)	21 (6%)	<0.01
Corrected TIMI frame count at end, fps	24 (16-36)	26 (18-40)	0.052
Myocardial Blush Grade 0/1	3 (1%)	19 (6%)	<0.01

Data is expressed in numbers and (percentages), mean ± 1 standard deviation or median and (interquartile range); Percentages are rounded. STEMI = ST elevation myocardial infarction;

TIMI = Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction; GP = Glycoprotein;

PCI = Percutaneous coronary intervention; IRA = infarct related artery;

\* p value calculated using ANOVA for continuous variables and Chi-Square test for categorical variables.

¶ includes cases with left main disease plus one vessel disease.

§ p value by Kruskal Wallis test.

current smokers. A history of previous myocardial infarction was also more common in the higher SXscore patients. Patients presenting in the acute phase with a higher pulse rate, cardiogenic shock and higher Killip class more often had a higher SXscore.

Table 2 shows the differences in angiographic and procedural characteristics between patients with low and high SXscores. The left main stem and the left anterior descending coronary artery were more commonly the culprit vessels in patients with high SXscore whereas the left circumflex coronary artery and the right coronary artery were more commonly the IRA in low SXscore patients. Furthermore, the IRA more often had poor antegrade flow (TIMI 0/1) in patients with a high SXscore. Multivessel disease, chronic total occlusions and bifurcations were more often present in patients with higher scores. In fact multivessel stenting and bifurcation stenting were more often performed in these patients. These patients also had a higher total stent length implanted during the index PPCI. There was no difference in the procedural use of thrombectomy devices or GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors between the two groups. The use of an intra-aortic balloon pump was necessary in double the patients with SXscore of 16 or higher when compared to those with score below 16.

The no-reflow phenomenon occurred in 77 (12%) of patients included in the analysis. The components used to define the composite endpoint are shown in table 3. On univariate logistic regression analysis, the SXscore showed a strong association with no-reflow, unadjusted odds ratio (OR) of 1.42, 95% CI (1.16-1.76),  $p < 0.001$  for every 10 unit increase in the score. The other univariate predictors of no-reflow were age, sex, out of hospital arrest, Killip class, shock, pulse rate and blood pressure. After adjusting for these predictors in multivariate logistic regression, the SXscore was an independent predictor of no-reflow: adjusted (OR); 1.29 95%CI 1.02-1.63,  $p < 0.001$  per 10 unit increase in the score. (table 4)

Classification and regression tree analysis identified SXscore of  $> 21$  as best cut off with patients having a double risk of no-reflow as compared to those with SXscore  $\leq 21$ . (events 9% vs.18%,  $p$  value 0.006)

**Table 3: Differences in angiographically detected complications between patients presenting with a low versus a high MI SYNTAX score.**

Angiographic complication	Lower (<16) n = 332	Higher (≥16) n = 337	p value*
Dissection	17 (5%)	12 (4%)	0.322
Perforation	6 (2%)	4 (1%)	0.51
Distal Embolisation	16 (5%)	15 (5%)	0.82
Slow Flow	7 (2%)	14 (4%)	0.13
Angiographic no reflow	6 (2%)	11 (3%)	0.23
TIMI 0/1 final	7 (2%)	21 (6%)	<0.001
Corrected TIMI frame count >100 fps	5 (2%)	24 (7%)	<0.001
Myocardial Blush Grade 0/1	3 (1%)	19 (6%)	<0.001
Composite No-reflow	29 (9%)	48 (14%)	0.026

Data is expressed in numbers and (percentages). Percentages are rounded.

**Table 4: Predictors of myocardial no-reflow on multivariate analysis in model with clinical characteristics and MI SYNTAX score.**

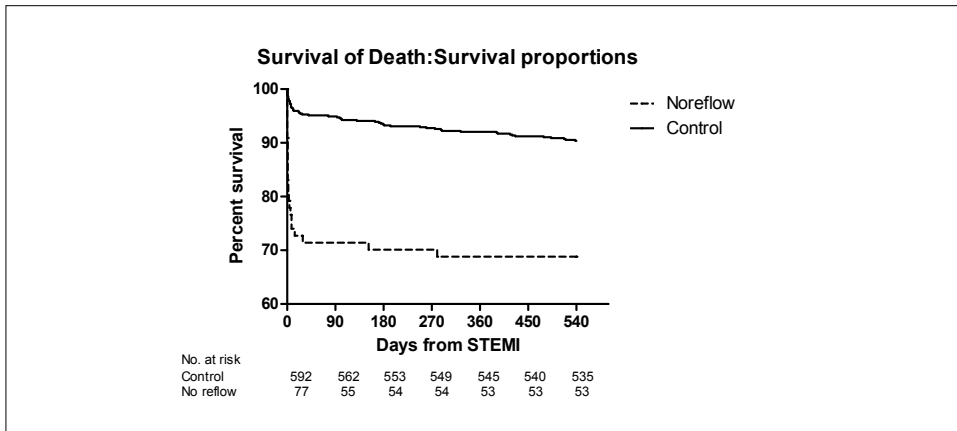
Predictors	Odds ratio (95% CI)	p value
MI SYNTAX score	1.29 CI (1.02 – 1.63)	<0.001
Age	1.23 (0.99-1.54)	0.058
Pulse rate	1.02 (1.01-1.03)	0.012

**Table 5: Angiographic predictors of no-reflow.**

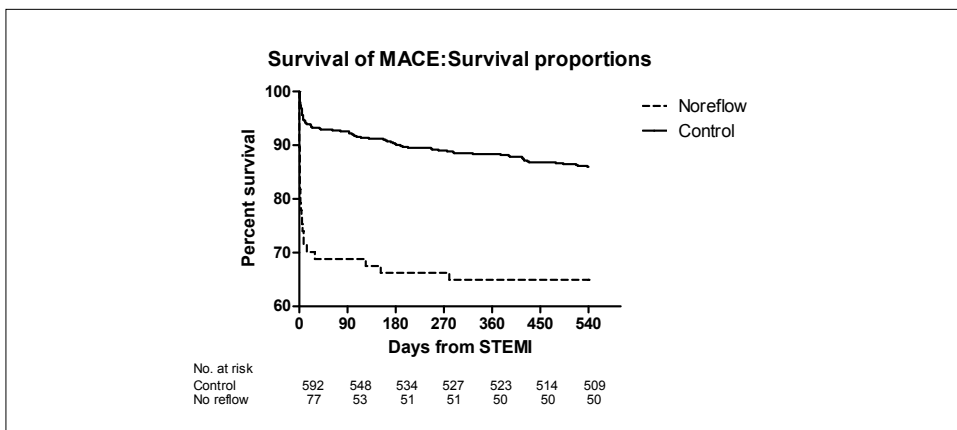
	Univariate analysis		Multivariate analysis	
	Odds ratio (95% CI)	p value	Odds ratio (95% CI)	p value
Infarct related artery				
Left Main Stem	3.46 (1.69-7.08)	0.001	2.42 (0.96-6.09)	0.060
Left anterior descending	1.50 (0.93-2.41)	0.098	1.37 (0.80-2.35)	0.25
Left circumflex	0.41 (0.17-0.95)	0.037		
Right coronary	0.96 (0.59-1.56)	0.86	0.56 (0.22-1.43)	0.22
Number of vessels with significant disease				
2-vessel	0.71 (0.41-1.23)	0.218	-	-
3-vessel	1.54 (0.94-1.54)	0.094	1.18 (0.63-2.22)	0.60
Chronic Total Occlusion	1.99 (0.92-4.29)	0.081	1.03 (0.40-2.65)	0.95
Bifurcation at IRA	0.80 (0.42-1.53)	0.497	-	-
TIMI flow pre-wiring	0.66 (0.53-0.82)	<0.001	0.71 (0.56-0.90)	0.004
Thrombus grade post-wire	1.73 (1.43-2.10)	<0.001	1.60 (1.32-1.95)	<0.001

Assessment of the relation of angiographic characteristics and no-reflow are summarized in table 5. Angiographic characteristics that were independent predictors of no-reflow on multivariate analysis included left main stem involvement, TIMI flow grade on presentation as well as thrombus grade after wiring.

The Kaplan Meier curves in figure 1 and figure 2 show the increased mortality rate (31% vs. 10%,  $p < 0.001$ ) and MACE (35% vs. 14%,  $p < 0.001$ ) at 18 months in patients who developed no-reflow respectively.



**Figure 1:** Kaplan Meier curves with the survival in patients with and without no-reflow (control). At 18 months follow-up, mortality rate was 31% vs. 10%, Log rank  $p < 0.001$ .



**Figure 2:** Kaplan Meier curves with the MACE (major adverse cardiac events including death, repeat myocardial infarction and target vessel revascularisation) free survival in patients with and without no-reflow. At 18 months follow-up MACE rate was 35% vs. 14%, Log rank  $p < 0.001$ .

## Discussion

The SXscore is an independent predictor of myocardial no-reflow in patients with ST segment elevation myocardial infarction. A SXscore of >21 carries a double risk of developing no-reflow. Myocardial no-reflow carries a poor prognosis with an increased mortality rate. Thus intra-procedural measures that can prevent this phenomenon would be especially beneficial in patients at high risk as can be identified by the SXscore.

In this study no-reflow was identified by changes in the TIMI flow in the epicardial artery which directly affect myocardial perfusion as well as more direct imaging of myocardial perfusion as measured by the myocardial blush grade. TIMI flow grade is a crude but accurate indicator for myocardial reperfusion if this is suboptimal i.e. <3. The corrected TIMI frame count adds more sensitivity for categorizing no-reflow for patients in whom TIMI flow is  $\geq 2$  is achieved. A cut-off of 100fps has been chosen based on data from previous studies.<sup>[9]</sup>

One of the major components of the SXscore that enhances its predictive value on the eventual achievement of microvascular perfusion is the patency or otherwise of the infarct related artery. An occluded infarct related artery (IRA) has been shown to be associated with a worse, postprocedural myocardial perfusion (TMPG 3: 54.9% vs. 18.7%,  $p < 0.0001$ ). Patency of the IRA often signifies earlier spontaneous reperfusion which reduces the actual ischaemic time. As a result infarction size is limited and an improvement in left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) is higher in such patients, that is reflected in an improved 1-year outcome.<sup>[11]</sup> The SXscore adds 5 points if the IRA has TIMI 0/1 flow reflecting the importance of IRA patency on both no-reflow and short and long term mortality. A poor antegrade flow is also often associated with a higher thrombus load and this in turn has been associated with both slow flow and the no-reflow phenomenon.<sup>[12]</sup> Embolisation of atherothrombotic material has been implicated as an important pathophysiological mechanism leading to poor microvascular perfusion. Anti-thrombotic, thrombolytic or thrombus aspiration have all been shown to reduce the incidence of the no-reflow phenomenon.<sup>[13-15]</sup> Given the associated risks associated with these adjunctive therapeutic measures such as bleeding and cerebrovascular accidents, identification and limitation of use to patients who may benefit most from these treatments is desirable.



The difference in the myocardial area at risk is also an important component of the SXSscore and the different weighting given to the coronary arteries does influence the occurrence of no-reflow. While infarction in the left circumflex artery is less likely to result in detectable no-reflow, that in the proximal left coronary artery, especially the left main stem, carries a x 3.5 risk of no-reflow.

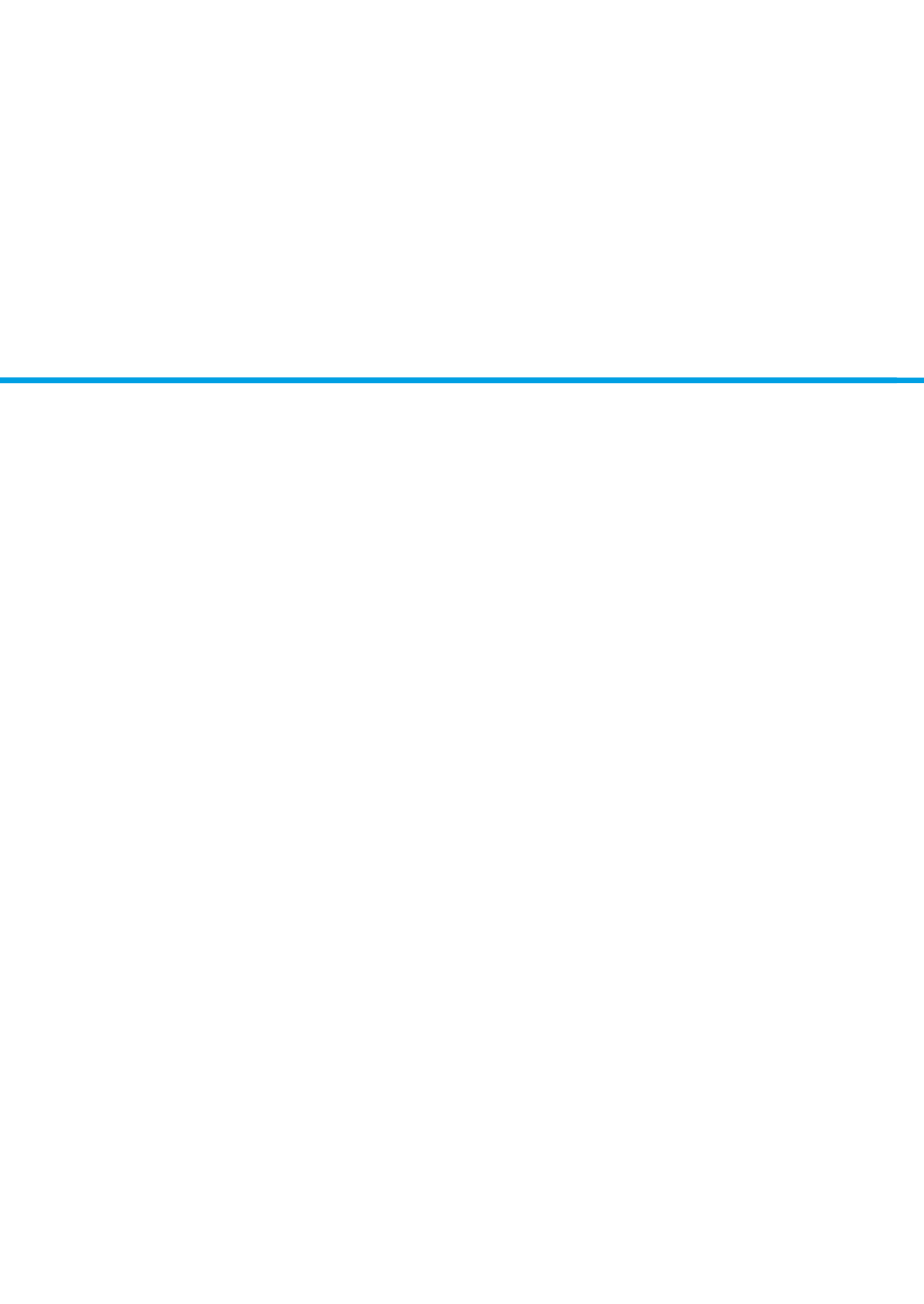
In the present study, the presence of a chronic total occlusion (CTO) and three vessel disease have a non-significant trend of association with no-reflow. While the lack of statistical significance can be attributed to lack of power, the incorporation of these parameters in the SXSscore ensure appropriate consideration of these parameters in the risk stratification of no-reflow. On the other hand CTO and multi-vessel disease are not as important as TIMI flow and location of occlusion. No reflow as an angiographic marker of myocardial perfusion focuses on the territory at risk which although as expected is affected mostly by the characteristics pertinent to the infarct related artery, can be affected by the presence and extent of disease elsewhere. Diffuse disease often signifies impaired microcirculatory resistance index.<sup>[16]</sup> Moreover, collateral circulation to the microvascular bed which is considered to be protective would be poorly developed or insufficient if the contributing artery is also diseased.

Although observers scoring the SXSscore were blinded to the next step angiographic film and changes to the score were not allowed after film review, bias of scoring no-reflow in patients with high SXScores may still have affected our observations. However the post hoc analytic nature of the study derived from the MI SXSscore study database guarantees to a limited extent the validity of our findings. The relation of the SXSscore and the outcome is unlikely to have been influenced by operator dependent choice of treatment. In fact in our study patients with higher scores were not treated differently especially with regards to stenting, thrombectomy devices or GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors. In determining no-reflow we chose to use only angiographic parameters. ST resolution as another measure of no-reflow was not available in all patients. Moreover we could not determine the effect of the SXSscore and the occurrence of no-reflow on final infarct size since neither enzymatic infarct size nor infarct size by non-invasive imaging modalities were available in all patients.

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# Chapter 16

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## The new European Society of Cardiology guidelines on myocardial revascularisation: an appraisal

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## Abstract

The latest European Society of Cardiology (ESC) guidelines on myocardial revascularisation are reviewed. The nearly 300 recommendations make it almost impossible to apply them in their totality. We would propose 20 to 30 recommendations per guideline based on sound clinical evidence. Also, the scope of the current guideline is very wide, since it includes topics already incorporated in other guidelines, such as strategies for pre-intervention diagnosis and imaging as well as on secondary prevention. Some recommendations in the new guideline are sensible and will not be disputed. In particular, the encouragement of a balanced multidisciplinary decision process (the “Heart Team”) is welcome.

Although coronary revascularization in unstable high risk patients is well accepted, this is less the case for the low risk patient with chest pain. This issue is controversial and a balanced discussion of the pros and cons of percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) is missing. Despite convincing evidence indicating lack of benefit of PCI for chronic total occlusion, this procedure is not discouraged.

Lastly, most committee members were interventional cardiologists or cardiac surgeons. Guideline committees should be representative of the whole group of professionals, since the interpretation of the evidence by specialists may be biased. There may be a role for procedure oriented guidelines but, in that case, the items at issue should remain confined to matters directly related to technical aspects of the procedure.

Guidelines describe the current state of the art by formulating the current evidence base and recommendations for their application in clinical practice. On the basis of this premise, we reviewed the latest ESC guideline, those on myocardial revascularization.<sup>[1]</sup> The new document is a follow-up on the percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) guideline from 2005, which has previously been discussed in this Journal.<sup>[2,3]</sup> The current document is a joint effort by interventional cardiologist as well as cardiovascular surgeons, and thus considers both percutaneous and surgical revascularization modalities. As a consequence, a “Heart Team,” a more formal multidisciplinary team approach to coronary revascularization, is advocated. As such, the new approach goes a long way into establishing a sound basis for clinical decision making for patients with coronary insufficiency, and we – and others before us – have no doubt that it will fulfil that purpose.<sup>[4]</sup> Nevertheless, some topics covered in the guideline require clarification. In this review, we comment on those topics with the aim of improving future versions of such documents.

## Specific issues

### Scope of the guideline

The new guideline, which comprises 13 sections, provides recommendations for percutaneous as well as surgical revascularizations. In reality however, it goes further. For instance, the various strategies for pre-intervention diagnosis and imaging are included as well (chapter 5). A useful chapter without doubt, but we question the appropriateness of including this issue in this procedure oriented document. This is relevant since the worth of diagnostic tests has previously been described in the ESC guideline on Stable Angina.<sup>[5]</sup> Similarly, chapter 13 of the current guideline provides recommendations for secondary prevention. That subject has been covered extensively in the guideline on CVD Prevention.<sup>[6]</sup> The reader is thus left with the question where these topics are covered in future versions of these guidelines; and if the recommendations are different, which ones are to be followed. The scope of the current new guideline is thus too wide.

## Number and levels of recommendations

The new guideline is quite lengthy but, with 52 pages, not extraordinarily so. However, its nearly 300 recommendations (table 1) make it almost impossible to apply them in their totality.<sup>[7]</sup>

We are of the opinion that I A (“strongly recommended”) and III A (“strongly discouraged”) recommendations should be issued only in the context of relevant changes in clinical outcomes resulting from performing (or withholding) specific interventions that were rigorously scrutinized and tested, preferably in randomized clinical trials. Unfortunately, this view was not taken by the current committee, with a very large number of recommendations based on “expert opinion” as a result. Leaving out such assessments would not only go a long way in strengthening the value of the recommendations based on sound clinical evidence but, in addition, would make it much easier to apply the guideline in clinical practice. We also believe that some of the current recommendations are not appropriate or incorrect. For instance, the stratification scores used to estimate peri-procedural intervention risks (chapter 4, table 3) have been given specific recommendations. However, we are unaware of any studies that have shown that actual patient outcome will improve as a result of the

**Table 1: Summary of recommendations in the new ESC guideline on coronary revascularization**

Class *	Level †	No of recommendations per level	No of recommendations per class
I	A	53	
I	B	48	144
I	C	43	
IIa	A	8	
IIa	B	38	59
IIa	C	13	
IIb	A	3	
IIb	B	18	39
IIb	C	18	
III	A	12	
III	B	23	45
III	C	10	

\* Class of recommendation

† Level of evidence



use of such scores and levels of recommendations are thus not applicable. The same is true for many other recommendations. For instance, the recommendations depicted in table 7 (chapter 5), which compares the value of different imaging techniques in (sub) groups of patients, are not based on studies in which these techniques were directly compared with each other.

Still, most recommendations in the new guideline are quite sound and will not lead to much controversy. For instance, mechanical, percutaneous coronary intervention of the infarct related vessel as early as possible in ST segment elevation MI, the preference for surgical revascularization intervention in case of multi-vessel disease, poor left ventricular function or diabetes, appropriate risk stratification and revascularization in patients in unstable clinical conditions, as well as physiologic assessment of the importance of intermediate coronary lesions prior to intervention, all seem very appropriate and sound. In particular, the encouragement of a balanced multidisciplinary decision process (“Heart Team”) is a very welcome addition, which was given appropriate credit in a recent editorial by Taggart et al in this Journal.<sup>[4]</sup>

### **PCI in stable angina and chronic total occlusion**

Although in suitable high risk patients coronary revascularization in unstable clinical conditions is generally well accepted, this is not true for low risk patients with stable chest pain. This is a controversial issue and, given the large number of procedures performed for this indication, not without reason. This topic is covered in chapter 6, and the reader would expect a concise but objective textual review of this subject. This section is, however, quite short and does not provide such an evaluation. However, from review of tables 8 and 9 in that chapter, it becomes clear that the authors do recommend PCI for this indication, with a (noteworthy) class IC (expert opinion) indication for 1 or 2 vessel disease not involving the proximal left anterior descending (LAD). Although the lack of references given for this recommendation is in line with the given C, the results of the randomized trials performed in these patients do not support this recommendation (see below). The table gives a IIa B recommendation for PCI when the proximal LAD is involved. This recommendation is based on two meta-analyses and two other studies comparing coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) with PCI and are therefore not applicable. In fact, all but two references in this

table compare the results of PCI with surgical revascularization, and therefore do not address the issue of medical therapy versus PCI.

We realize that an objective assessment of the appropriateness of PCI in stable angina is not easy and confounded by specific issues. Observational data showing superiority of revascularization over medical treatment are not helpful because of significant treatment bias<sup>[8]</sup> and –unfortunately– the actual evidence base is quite small.

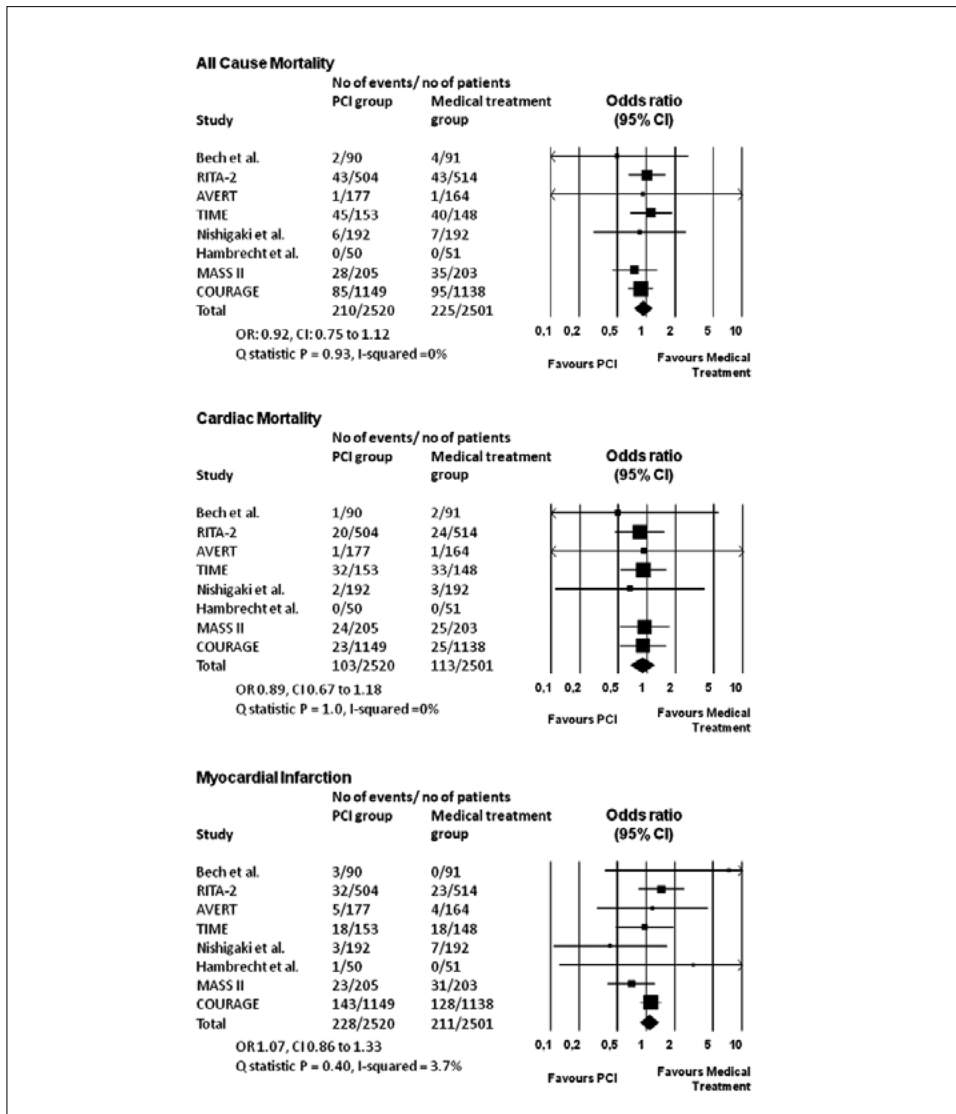
A summary of all randomized controlled clinical trials studies comparing PCI with medical therapy for stable angina is given in table 2 and figure 1. This analysis differs from previous analyses because we have excluded trials performed in the early nineties.<sup>[9-13]</sup> In that era, medical treatment was more or less placebo: for instance, statins and ACE inhibitors – currently considered standard medical treatment – were not available or not used. In addition, we excluded trials that investigated early post MI patients.<sup>[14-18]</sup> Overall, the combined results of these trials provide limited evidence for the superiority of PCI over medical therapy in stable chest pain syndromes. Of course, we acknowledge that some of these trials have come under criticism, and that patients switched from medical treatment to PCI (or CABG) (typically in about 25%). On the other hand, all subjects considered in these trials qualified for intervention on the basis of their specific coronary anatomy and were therefore quite selected.

**Table 2: Characteristics of randomized clinical trials comparing PCI with medical treatment**

Trial	Year of Most Recent Publication	Enrolment Period	Total No. of Patients	Nonprotocol Revascularizations in Medical Group (%)	Follow-up Length (Months)	Statin use at baseline (%)
AVERT <sup>[20]</sup>	1999	1995–1996	341	12	20	22
Bech et al. <sup>[21]</sup>	2001	NR	181	7	24	37
RITA 2 <sup>[22]</sup>	2003	1992–1996	1,018	35	84	13
TIME <sup>[23]</sup>	2004	1996–2000	301	42	48	23
Hambrecht et al. <sup>[24]</sup>	2004	1997–2001	101	6	12	75
MASS II <sup>[25]</sup>	2006	1995–2000	408	24	60	NR
COURAGE <sup>[26]</sup>	2007	1991–2004	2,287	31	54	88
Nishigaki et al. <sup>[27]</sup>	2008	2002–2004	384	37	26	47

NR: not reported

This is different from the practical situation in which the patient with chest pain but with unknown coronary anatomy is contemplated. In the latter situation, eligibility for revascularization (and PCI) is uncertain, and a considerable number of



**Figure 1.** PCI versus medical treatment in stable angina.

For each trial we calculated the summary odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for the clinical outcomes. We pooled studies using random effects models<sup>[28]</sup>

such patients will not be eligible for such a procedure because of anatomic or other circumstances. For instance, in the ICTUS trial, which investigated the possible benefit of revascularization in subjects with unstable angina, less than 60% of the patients scheduled to undergo intervention actually qualified for subsequent revascularization.<sup>[6]</sup> Thus, in the depicted trials, the true effectiveness of PCI in clinical practice may well have been exaggerated, and one could argue that, given their specific eligibility criteria, the randomized trials overestimated the true worth of PCI. Against this background, a balanced discussion of the pro and cons of PCI in this setting would have been helpful in the guideline. It is unreasonable to base a positive recommendation for PCI on the basis of results obtained in a subgroup of a subgroup of the (overall negative) COURAGE trial: an “evidence base” of 100 patients does not meet the criteria to justify millions of costly invasive procedures of uncertain clinical benefit.<sup>[8,19]</sup> A strategy of initial medical treatment is certainly the preferable option for the low risk patient with stable angina or in someone in whom the presence of obstructive coronary artery disease has just been established during diagnostic coronary angiography.

It is also noteworthy that, despite two negative randomized trials that specifically addressed this topic, the performance of percutaneous intervention for chronic total occlusion is not discouraged. Instead, an “experienced” intervention team is called to order, perhaps suggesting that the care was sub-standard in the trials that investigated this very issue.

## General issues

### **Format of the guideline and composition of the writing committee**

The current format of the guideline differs significantly from the previous version, and this makes it difficult to assess why, and on the basis of which information, the current recommendations have changed from those issued in the earlier document. We recommend that future versions of the guideline should be based upon and, where necessary, expand on previous versions.

Specific to this guideline, we have noted that the majority of the current committee members (and reviewers) were interventional cardiologists or cardiac surgeons. By contrast, other guideline development groups (such as NICE) also include other stakeholders such as primary care physicians, nurses, health economists, epidemiologists, cardiac radiologists, patient members and pharmacists (Timmis A. et al. Stable Angina: full guideline. 2011. [www.nice.org.uk](http://www.nice.org.uk) (accessed Aug 2011)). Guideline committees should be representative of the whole group of professionals and stakeholders, since it is likely that the interpretation of the evidence by specialists will be biased. There may be some role or place for procedure oriented guidelines but, in that case, the items at issue should remain confined to matters directly related to technical aspects of the actual procedure.

Regarding the number of recommendations, we think that 20 to 30 sound recommendations would be a reasonable number per guideline and, in view of our earlier comments and given the low number of recommendations based upon high quality clinical data; this should not be too difficult. A summary of our recommendations is given in box 1, and we hope that these will be helpful in developing future versions of the current as well as upcoming guidelines.

**Box 1: Summary of our comments and suggestions**

- *Medical treatment should be the initial management of the patient with stable chest pain. Strong recommendation, high quality data (Class IA)*
- *Percutaneous opening of a chronic total coronary occlusion is not recommended. High quality data (Class IIIA)*
- *The composition of the guideline committee must be representative of the profession at large*
- *The number of recommendations per guideline should be limited (e.g. between 20 and 30), and be based on sound (high quality) clinical evidence*
- *As a rule, recommendations based on opinion are not very useful and should be avoided. This pertains to most class II recommendations*
- *The scope of the guideline must not be too wide*
- *New versions of guidelines must build on and expand on previous versions, and relevant changes in recommendations must be addressed specifically.*

## Disclosure

JWD was member of the ESC Committee on Practice Guidelines from 2002 to 2006, and was the review coordinator of the (previous) PCI guideline.

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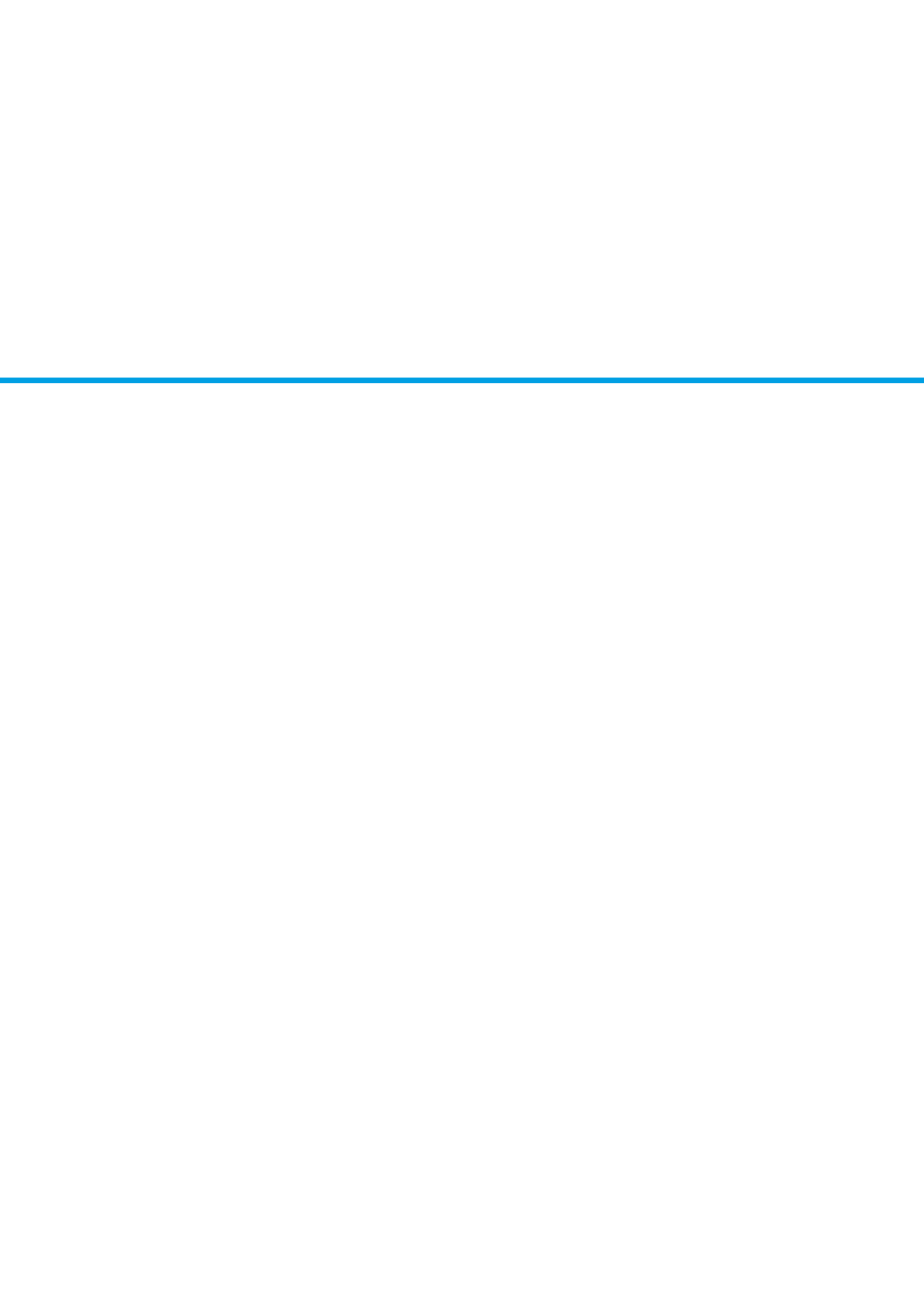
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# Chapter 17

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## ESC-EACTS guidelines: myocardial revascularization

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## Abstract

Current recommendations on myocardial revascularisation advocate coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) in case of early cardiogenic shock and primary percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) in all other ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) cases. In non-STEMI (NSTEMI), risk stratification is essential because benefit of revascularisation is strongest in high risk patients. In NSTEMI, unstable and stable angina, coronary artery disease distribution and severity dictate the mode of intervention, PCI or CABG. Observational and trial data support CABG in multi-vessel or left main disease.

Myocardial revascularisation by either percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) (a percutaneous procedure first clinically applied in 1977) and coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) (a surgical procedure originally developed in the 1960s) both fulfill an important role in the treatment of the more severe forms of coronary artery disease and its acute manifestations. Still, differences between the two revascularisation strategies are important and should be acknowledged.

With CABG, venous and/or arterial bypass grafts are placed on the epicardial mid-coronary vessel beyond the obstructive culprit lesion and, as such, provide extra sources of blood and nutrients to the distal myocardium. The nature of the surgical procedure implies that the additional distal flow through the graft (and distal coronary artery) can impede the regular, normal flow through the coronary vessel from its native origin. The consequence of this 'steal' phenomenon is that, with time, the original native vessel proximal to the bypass may become completely occluded. A second surgical procedure (redo) can be technically challenging for this reason. In addition, venous bypass grafts may become stenotic and obstructed when the ongoing systemic atherosclerotic process has not been brought under control. Fortunately, arterial bypass grafts, such as the internal mammary arteries, remain patent for much longer periods of time and these are therefore preferentially employed in the past two decades.

**Box 1: Multidisciplinary decision-making (Heart Team)**

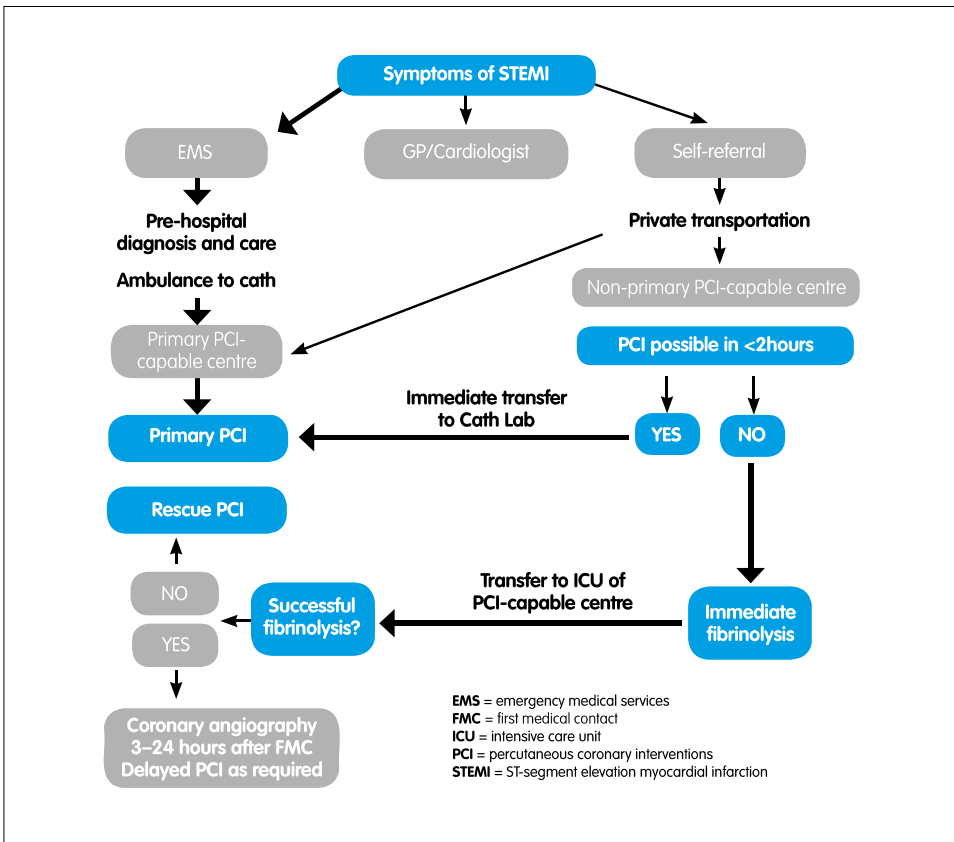
*The creation of a so-called 'Heart Team' serves the purpose of a balanced multidisciplinary decisionmaking process. Complex cases should be reviewed by the Heart Team to determine which type of intervention (PCI or CABG) is best, and to document the consensus reached. If there is no urgency, patients should also be allotted sufficient time to arrive at an informed decision. For the very same reasons, a so-called ad hoc PCI, a percutaneous intervention that immediately follows the diagnostic coronary angiogram, is not encouraged.*

PCI aims to restore the normal conductance capacity of the native vasculature by mechanical removal of a localised obstruction lesion. The coronary stent that almost always is left behind maintains patency and tries to limit the occurrence of restenosis. This process, caused by local inflammatory response, is nowadays counteracted by stent or balloon covered drugs (drug-eluting stents) that prevent the proliferation of cells involved in this reaction. Compared with surgical revascularisation, PCI can be repeated quite often, at least in theory. Given the specific characteristics of both revascularization techniques, PCI would seem the method of choice for single vessel disease, whereas CABG should be more suited for complex, multiple vessel or left main stem disease. Although both techniques thus seem to be complimentary, a considerable group of patients will qualify for either one of these therapeutic modalities and many clinical conditions, stable or unstable, can be treated with a choice of available but quite different therapeutic options, including PCI, surgical revascularisation or even medical treatment. In theory, most coronary lesions are amenable to PCI, but technological feasibility is only one component of the decision-making process. Other elements include clinical presentation, severity of angina, response to medical therapy, and extent of coronary artery disease, usually assessed with coronary angiography and/or computer tomography. Both revascularisation methods carry their specific procedure-related risks. Therefore, the balance between the short-term convenience of the less invasive PCI procedure against the durability of the more invasive surgical approach must be weighted carefully, both by physicians but also by the (well-informed) patients.

Against this background, it is fortunate that, at the European Society for Cardiology meetings in Stockholm in 2010, the new joint European Society of Cardiology and European Association for Cardiothoracic Surgery guidelines on myocardial revascularisation have been issued.<sup>[1]</sup> This completely new set of guidelines followed the 2006 PCI guidelines, and formalised the multidisciplinary approach to coronary intervention. The make-up of the writing committee, which mainly consisted of interventional cardiologists and cardiac surgeons, reflected this new collaborative effort, and the resulting document has rightfully received acclaim.<sup>[2,3]</sup>



By its nature, myocardial revascularisation provides best results in the presence of ischaemia. Cardiac conditions that qualify for myocardial revascularization are, in order of procedure effectiveness: ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI); non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI); unstable angina, and (chronic) stable angina. The most pertinent recommendations from the new revascularisation guidelines will be presented in the following sections.



**Figure 1:** Organisation of ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) patient pathway describing pre and in-hospital management and reperfusion strategies within the 12 hours of first medical contact (see Ref 1).

## Revascularisation in STEMI

Without doubt, acute coronary revascularisation with primary PCI is an extremely effective intervention in the setting of STEMI, the result of a sudden thrombotic coronary occlusion. The PCI reperfusion modality carries not only less risk of bleeding than thrombolytic treatment, but will also lead to more effective restoration of vessel patency, less re-occlusion, improved residual function, and better clinical outcome including better survival. However, in order to achieve its full potential, time delays must be avoided, and a system of care network should be established around each cardiac intervention centre to make sure that this is indeed the case. The currently recommended treatment and decision algorithm is presented in Figure 1. Of course, pre-hospital triage that includes a 12-lead ECG should be an integral element of such a scheme. The delay between first medical contact and injection of contrast material into the coronary artery must be less than 90 minutes. It goes without saying that this requirement calls for considerable organisational efforts, not only during the normal working hours, but also during the off hours and on weekends. Because a primary PCI is technically more demanding than an elective procedure, and given the strong inverse volume–outcome relationship in high-risk and emergency PCI procedures, primary PCI operators should perform at least two PCI procedures per week in an institution with an annual volume over 400 elective and 40 primary PCI procedures.

Given the nature of the pathophysiology of STEMI, the culprit lesion will be proximally located in one of the three large epicardial coronary arteries, and should almost always be amenable to PCI. Emergency CABG will be necessary in case a very large myocardial area is at risk, for instance in patients who present early in cardiogenic shock and/or are found to have complete obstruction (of dissection) of the left main stem. Emergency coronary bypass surgery will also be necessary then it proves to be impossible to reach the culprit vessel by percutaneous technique. In practice, this will rarely be the case. When severe three-vessel or left main stem disease is found to be present following primary PCI and CABG is deemed necessary, the operation can often be delayed until the patient has reached a more stable clinical condition, for example, between three and seven days following hospitalisation.

**Box 2: Risk scores**

*Risk assessment is an important aspect of contemporary clinical practice and, in the framework of challenging invasive procedures with (small but not negligible) risk of complications, of considerable importance. Different models are available to assess the risk associated with PCI or CABG, although it has not yet been established whether the actual use of such models in clinical practice will improve outcome in an individual patient. Still, it is generally agreed that such prediction models provide useful guidance in the often difficult decision-making process of myocardial revascularisation.*

*EuroSCORE: Independent predictor of major adverse events in PCI and CABG: the score can be used to determine the risk of revascularisation associated with both procedures.*

*SYNTAX score: Independent predictor of adverse events in PCI. Has a role in identifying those patients at highest risk of adverse events with PCI.*

*GRACE score: Developed in patients with NSTEMI and the preferred risk classification scheme in these patients.*

*National Cardiovascular Database Registry risk score (NCDR): This score has been validated in patients undergoing PCI only.*

*Society of Thoracic Surgeons (STS) score: Relatively simple score that considers age, left ventricular ejection fraction and renal function. Applicable only in CABG.*

According to the current recommendations, administration of fibrinolytic therapy must be restricted to those instances in which PCI cannot be performed within two hours of the first contact between patient and the medical system (in the first 12 hours following symptom onset). This can still be the case in some mountainous or rural areas.

### Key points

- *Percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) would seem the method of choice for single vessel disease, whereas CABG should be more suited for complex, multiple vessel or left main stem disease.*
- *The creation of a so-called 'Heart Team' serves the purpose of a balanced multidisciplinary decision-making process for the patient who qualifies for either one of these treatment options.*
- *In order of procedure effectiveness, myocardial revascularisation is most effective in ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI), non-STEMI, unstable angina, and (chronic) stable angina pectoris.*
- *In patients with mild-to-moderate angina, an initially cautious approach to coronary revascularisation is reasonable: watchful waiting seems appropriate.*
- *In case PCI of coronary lesions of moderate severity is considered, a functional assessment of the stenosis, the determination of coronary flow reserve, is recommended.*

The recommended medical treatment in STEMI is straightforward: dual antiplatelet therapy must be initiated as early as possible and preferably prior to hospitalisation, unless there is serious risk of bleeding. Pain relief (with 4–8mg morphine) is usually necessary. Anticoagulation must be given immediately following hospitalisation. Additional platelet inhibition with (intravenous) IIa/IIIb inhibitors is needed when restoration of coronary flow after PCI remains incomplete. Oral administration of beta-blockers is next, and ACE inhibitors and statins will be given subsequently. In the early phase of the hospitalisation, elevated blood pressure can be treated with high doses of (intravenous) nitrates.

## Revascularisation in NSTEMI and unstable angina

NSTEMI is the most frequent manifestation of acute coronary syndromes and represents the largest group of patients undergoing myocardial revascularisation. In contrast to STEMI, NSTEMI usually occurs in elderly subjects, often in those with previously diagnosed atherosclerotic heart disease. By definition, the diagnosis of NSTEMI is made in the presence of myocardial necrosis. Unstable angina, the third member of the acute coronary syndrome family, is diagnosed in the presence of myocardial ischaemia at rest without evidence of myocardial damage. However, the extremely high sensitivity of the current generation of myocardial biomarkers, specifically the high sensitive troponin, makes it increasingly difficult to establish the diagnosis of unstable angina since elevated levels of these markers will be present in almost all instances of true 'angina at rest'. In clinical practice therefore, the difference between unstable angina and NSTEMI has become somewhat blurred and, for all practical purposes, the approach to both syndromes has been combined under this heading.

Patients with NSTEMI or unstable angina constitute a heterogeneous group with a variable prognosis. Most, but not all, randomised clinical trials performed in the setting of NSTEMI have shown beneficial effects of an early invasive strategy. However, the interpretation of their findings is hampered by the relatively frequent switches (cross-over) from one treatment allocation to the alternative and/ or the inability to perform revascularization for technical reasons (complex anatomy or normal findings) in the intervention arm. In other words, the contrast between the two treatment arms in many studies has usually been modest. In most trials, the rate of intervention was approximately 60-70%, with PCI by far being the most frequently performed revascularisation technique.

A substantial benefit with an early invasive strategy has only been proven in patients at high risk, and early risk stratification is therefore essential. To this end, the guidelines recommend the GRACE score ([www.outcomes-umassmed.org/grace](http://www.outcomes-umassmed.org/grace)) as the preferred risk classification scheme. Not surprisingly, factors associated with increased risk in NSTEMI and unstable angina include haemodynamic instability, advanced age, ST segment depression, renal dysfunction, diabetes and previous

revascularisation. Patients at low risk can be managed medically, unless severe ischaemia is found to be present with subsequent non-invasive testing.

The issue of timing and type (PCI or CABG) of revascularisation also remains a matter of debate. The guidelines advocate coronary angiography to be performed within 24 hours in patients with elevated (>140 units) GRACE score. Otherwise, a time window of 72 hours is considered appropriate. No prospective trial has addressed the selection of mode of intervention: as in stable angina (see below), this should be based on the severity and distribution of the coronary abnormalities. The SYNTAX risk score has been advocated for this purpose, and CABG is then the preferred revascularization option when the score has a value that exceeds a value of about 30 units.

The medical regimen in NSTEMI is not unlike that of STEMI and includes platelet inhibition, intensive use of anticoagulant drugs and medication to lower myocardial oxygen need (heart rate and blood pressure reducing agents).

## Stable angina pectoris

Depending on its symptomatic, functional, and anatomical complexity, stable angina pectoris can be treated by medical treatment or with myocardial revascularisation using PCI or CABG. The main indications for intervention are persistence of angina symptoms, despite extensive medical therapy and/or severe ischaemia during low levels of exercise. In all fairness, the evidence base for performing PCI or CABG in stable angina is quite limited. Randomised clinical trials that compared PCI with medical treatment have shown ambiguous results. Mortality seems unaffected although, at least in the short-term, PCI may be associated with better symptomatic relief. Observational data support the use of CABG in symptomatic subjects with multivessel and/ or left main disease. In clinical practice, an initially cautious approach to percutaneous or surgical coronary intervention seems reasonable in patients with mild-to-moderate angina and, certainly in the early phases of the disease, an approach of watchful waiting might be most appropriate. In case PCI of coronary lesions of moderate severity is considered, a functional assessment of the impact of the stenosis on coronary flow, the assessment of coronary flow reserve, is recommended.

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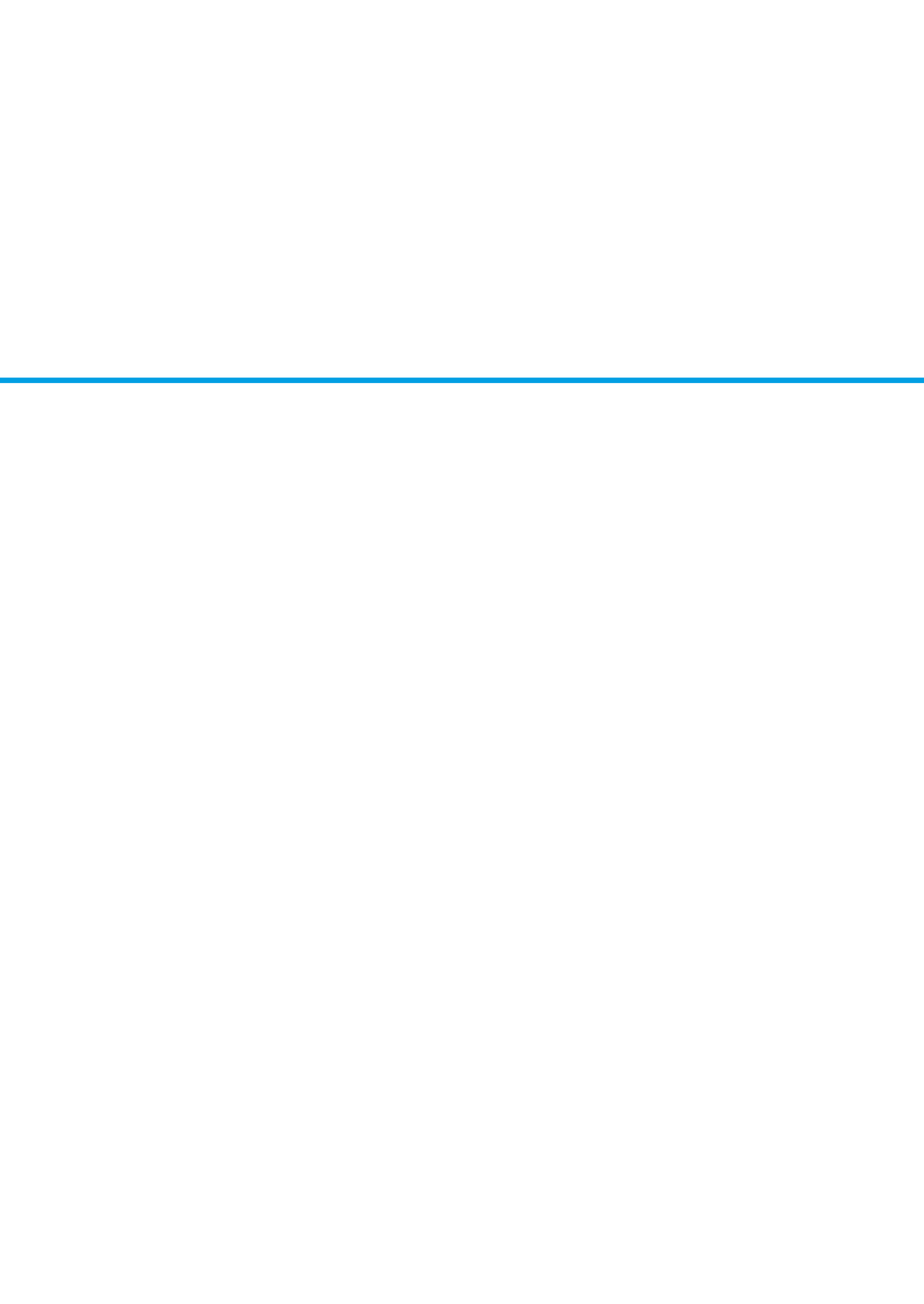




Part VI

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# Methodology



# Chapter 18

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## Choosing an appropriate control group for an observational study design

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Ron T van Domburg

Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf. 2012 Mar;21(3):341

## Abstract

No abstract is available for this article.

*To the Editor*

Recently Haukka *et al*<sup>[1]</sup> investigated the association of statin use with all-cause and disease specific mortality utilizing nationwide databases in Finland. We feel that the interpretation of these results is difficult, and that a more appropriate study design might have improved the study.

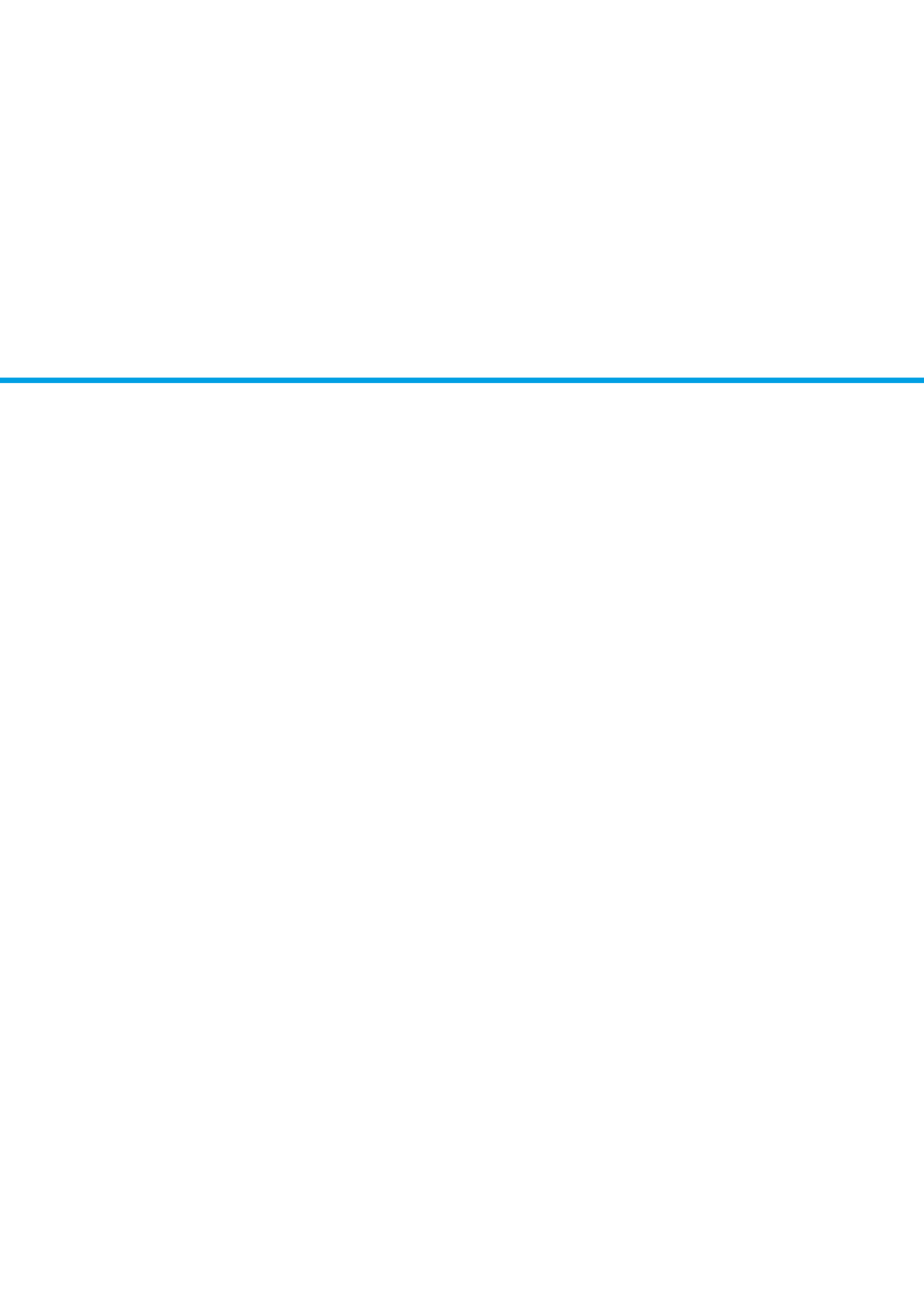
In their large study, all persons in Finland who had purchased at least one statin prescription between 1997 and 2005 were compared to a control group matched for age, sex and place of residence from the general population. We think that the authors have chosen the wrong control group. Statins are predominantly prescribed in patients with coronary heart disease.<sup>[2]</sup> Thus, as secondary prevention. However, the control group of the present study includes predominantly patients without coronary heart disease. In our opinion, these two groups are by definition incomparable.

The study by Haukka *et al* concludes that due to the pronounced baseline differences a bias is likely, and it was therefore not possible to draw conclusions from this comparison.<sup>[1]</sup> Given their access to rich data, it seems that the authors could have chosen a more dedicated comparison group. Previously, observational studies that compared statin users with otherwise similar non-users demonstrated that it is possible to obtain reliable results.<sup>[3-4]</sup>

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# Chapter 19

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## Tools & Techniques: Analysis of clustered data in interventional cardiology – current practice and methodological advice

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## Background

Clustered data are common in the field of interventional cardiology. Often multiple lesions are examined within the same patient and intravascular imaging modalities, such as intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) or optical coherence tomography (OCT), result in multiple measurements from the same vessel segment. Multiple observations from one patient are likely to be correlated, which has implications for the statistical approach used to analyze the data.

The approach in the statistical analysis should be based on the study objective. If we study the effect of medication versus no medication, the level of analysis should be the patient. If we study the effect of stent implantation, the level of analysis could be the stented segment. One patient can have multiple stented segments and these are likely to be correlated. Ignoring this correlation in the analysis leads to too strong statistical inference. Specifically, misleadingly small standard errors (and thus p-values and confidence intervals) will be found because all observations are considered as independent observations. This wrongly inflates statistical power. Thus, analyses of data that include multiple observations per patient require some form of adjustment to account for the correlation between observations. This is common knowledge in the statistical literature (see for example Molenberghs<sup>[1]</sup>), however, clustered data are often analyzed without taking the within-cluster correlation into account in the medical literature<sup>[2]</sup>.

The aim of this paper is to review the current analytical approach to clustered data in the field of interventional cardiology, and to present and illustrate statistical methods that take into account possible correlation within clusters. We provide syntax for different statistical packages to allow researchers to apply these methods.

## Current practice

We conducted a systematic review to gain insight in the current statistical approaches to clustered data in the field of interventional cardiology. We focused on studies on optical coherence tomography (OCT), since this technique results in large numbers of observations per patient. We conducted a PubMed literature search, for original studies published between January 1, 2012 and December 31, 2012, in six important (interventional) cardiology journals: *Circulation*, *Circulation cardiovascular interventions*, *EuroIntervention*, *European Heart Journal*, *Journal of the American College of Cardiology (JACC)* and *JACC cardiovascular interventions*. A search with “optical coherence tomography” yielded 25 potentially eligible studies which were reviewed by two independent reviewers. In case of disagreement a third reviewer was consulted. Case-reports, reviews and editorials were excluded, leaving 17 studies (Appendix 1), all reporting data derived from multiple observations per patient. In 15 (88%) of the 17 studies inferences made from these multiple observations per patients were reported. Of those 15 studies, only 5 (33%) took the clustered nature of the data clearly into account in the statistical analysis. In 3 (20%) studies it was not clear whether the clustering was taken into account. In 7 (46%) studies it was clear that the clustering within patients was not taken into account. In these studies t-tests were mostly conducted, which assume that all observations are independent.

## Methods to analyze clustered data

We illustrate the use of different statistical methods with data from a study that evaluated late recoil of a novel bioabsorbable everolimus-eluting coronary scaffold (BVS)<sup>[9]</sup>. The study consisted of 16 patients, who were treated with elective BVS implantation. All patients underwent an IVUS examination post-procedure and at 6 months of follow-up. A total of 484 paired cross-sectional areas (CSAs) were acquired, on average over 30 per patient. Late absolute stent recoil was defined as stent area at post-procedure minus stent area at follow-up. In each CSA, plaque morphology was assessed qualitatively and classified as calcific, fibronecrotic, or fibrocellular plaque.

In these data we address two research questions with different methods in line with the reviewed literature.

Research question 1: What is the stent recoil in this population? We can hereto provide a mean with a 95% confidence interval (CI).

Research question 2: What is the difference in stent recoil between the three different plaque types? We can hereto provide differences between plaque types with 95% CI.

### **Method 1: Independent observations**

The simplest method is to analyze the data at CSA level, without taking into account the clustering within patients. Formally this approach assumes that each observation is statistically independent, i.e. that there is no correlation between different CSAs from the same patient. We calculate mean absolute recoil and 95% confidence interval (95% CI) based on all 484 CSAs. Alternatively the mean and 95% CI can be obtained from a linear regression model without any covariates. In this model only the intercept is estimated which equals the mean recoil. To estimate the differences between plaque types, a linear regression model with plaque type as a categorical covariate can be fitted. The linear models estimate unconditional effects, i.e. the average difference between plaque types in the population.

## Method 2: Clustered observations

In contrast to the first approach, we can take the correlations between recoil values within patients into account. We can thereto use a linear multilevel model, also called random effect, mixed, or hierarchical model. The multilevel model contains two levels: patient and CSA. Patient is included in the model as a random effect, which allows estimation of patient specific recoil values. The estimated intercept equals the mean recoil, with clustering taken into account.

To estimate the differences between plaque types we used a linear multilevel model with a random intercept for patient and plaque type as a categorical covariate.

The interpretation of the differences between plaque types is somewhat different than in method 1. In method 1, we estimate differences within and across patients, while in method 2, we strictly estimate differences within patients.

## Method 3: Patient level

Another approach simply averages the recoil values per patient. These means are saved. In a second step, the means are averaged to obtain an overall mean over all observations.

## Results

All three methods estimated a similar mean absolute recoil of about 0.65 to 0.66 mm<sup>2</sup> (Table 1). As expected, the 95% confidence interval of the absolute recoil was smallest (-0.80; -0.49) when all CSAs were analyzed as independent observations and largest (-1.32; -0.01) when the CSAs were first summarized per patient. When the CSAs were analyzed as clustered observations with a multilevel model, the 95% CI was -1.27 mm<sup>2</sup> to -0.05 mm<sup>2</sup>, which is clearly larger than the 95%CI obtained with method 1, and close that the width obtained with method 3.

**Table 1: Methods for estimating mean recoil in total population (n CSA=484, n patients=16)**

Method	Clustering taken into account?	Statistical method	Level	Mean recoil (95% CI)
Use all CSAs as independent observations	No	Calculate mean+se/95% CI; Linear regression with one common intercept	CSA	-0.65 (-0.80 ; -0.49)
Use all CSAs as clustered observations	Yes	Multilevel linear regression	CSA	-0.66 (-1.27 ; -0.05)
Summarize CSAs per patients	Yes	Calculate mean+se/95% CI; Linear regression with one common intercept	Patient	-0.66 (-1.32;-0.01)

See appendix 2 for syntax for presented methods

When estimated with a naïve linear model, ignoring clustering, the mean recoil per plaque type was -0.75 mm<sup>2</sup> in fibro-cellular, -0.20 mm<sup>2</sup> in calcific, and -1.03 in fibro-necrotic plaques. The corresponding betas (95% confidence interval) were 0.54 mm<sup>2</sup> (0.19; 0.89) for fibro-cellular vs. calcific plaques and -0.29 mm<sup>2</sup> (-0.66; 0.09) for fibro-cellular vs. fibro-necrotic plaques (Table 2). When clustering was taken into account in the multilevel model, the differences were 0.60 mm<sup>2</sup> (0.21; 1.00) and -0.06 mm<sup>2</sup> (-0.38; 0.26), respectively. This difference could be explained by the fact that the multilevel model estimates conditional, or within patient differences. When all CSAs are considered independent, fibro-necrotic plaques have 0.29 mm<sup>2</sup> less recoil than fibro-cellular plaques. However, when we acknowledge that CSAs are clustered within patients, this difference almost disappeared (0.06 mm<sup>2</sup> less recoil). In this example the

29 mm<sup>2</sup> absolute recoil difference is contributed to a high or low recoil level in some patients, instead of to the plaque type itself. Within a patient, fibro-cellular plaques appear to give no more recoil than calcific plaques.

In this particular example the estimated mean recoil in the overall population was not largely affected by using a multilevel model, only the confidence interval increased. The estimated difference between plaque types was however affected. The difference between fibro-cellular and calcific plaques was only borderline significant in the multilevel model.

In general, the change in point estimates between naïve models and multilevel model will be influenced by the correlation within patients, and the difference in number of observations between patient. When both are small, point estimates are likely to be very similar between the methods. However, the standard error and confidence intervals will generally increase, and corresponding p values decrease when using a multilevel model. Ignoring clustering using naïve models will exaggerate statistical significance.

**Table 2: Methods for difference in recoil between plaque types (n CSA=484, n patients=16)**

Method	Clustering taken into account?	Statistical method	Level	Difference between plaque types (95% CI)
Use all CSAs as independent observations	No	Calculate mean+se/95% CI; Linear regression with one common intercept	CSA	-0.65 (-0.80 ; -0.49)
Use all CSAs as independent observations	No	Linear regression	CSA	0.54 (0.19 ; 0.89)* -0.29 (-0.66 ; 0.09)**
Use all CSAs as clustered observations	Yes	Multilevel linear regression	CSA	0.60 (0.21 ; 1.00)* -0.06 (-0.38 ; 0.26)**

\* Difference between fibro-cellular (reference) and calcific plaques,

\*\* Difference between fibro-cellular (reference) and fibro-necrotic plaques.

See appendix 2 for syntax for presented methods

## Conclusion and recommendations

According to literature review, the current analytical approach to clustered data in the field of interventional cardiology, specifically OCT, is suboptimal. A large number of studies ignored the clustered nature of their data, or it was unclear which statistical methods were used. If we assume that observations within one patient are correlated, ignoring clustering may lead to wrong conclusions.

Our data example shows that indeed misleadingly small confidence intervals can be estimated with standard linear regression. The third method -summarizing CSAs per patient- is statistically correct when analyses on patient level are performed, but inefficient.

When observations within patients are not correlated, the clustering can theoretically be ignored. However, this is clinically unlikely. And, in the absence of correlation the results from standard and multilevel analysis will be the same. We therefore recommend to always use multilevel models when analyzing multiple observations per patient, to make correct statistical inferences and not inflate statistical power. These models are now widely available in statistical software, and syntax is provided in appendix 2.



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## Appendix 1

15 studies with inference based on clustered data; 5 clearly analyzed with taking structure into account

Author	Journal	Inferences made on clustered data?	Clustered data structure taken into account in analyses?
Fukunaga et al.	EI	Yes	Not clear
Wykrzkowska et al.	EI	No	n.a.
Alegria-Barrero et al.	EI	Yes	Not clear
Okamura et al.	EI	Yes	No
Sheehy et al.	EI	Yes	No
Brugaletta et al.	EI	Yes	No
Gomez-Lara et al.	EI	Yes	No
Belkacemi et al.	JACC	Yes	No
Van Geuns et al.	JACC CI	Yes	Yes
Kato et al.	JACC CI	No	n.a.
Räber et al.	JACC CI	Yes	Yes
Gutiérrez-Chico et al.	JACC CI	Yes	Yes
Guagliumi et al.	JACC CI	Yes	No
Ormiston et al.	Circulation CI	Yes	Not clear
Gutiérrez-Chico et al.	Circulation CI	Yes	Yes
Guagliumi et al.	Circulation CI	Yes	Yes
Tada et al.	Circulation CI	Yes	No

EI = EuroIntervention,

JACC = Journal of the American College of Cardiology

JACC CI = JACC cardiovascular interventions

Circulation CI = Circulation cardiovascular interventions

n.a.= not applicable

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Gutierrez-Chico JL, Wykrzykowska J, Nuesch E, et al. Vascular tissue reaction to acute malapposition in human coronary arteries: sequential assessment with optical coherence tomography. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv* 2012; 5(1): 20.9, S1-8.

Guagliumi G, Bezerra HG, Sirbu V, et al. Serial assessment of coronary artery response to paclitaxel-eluting stents using optical coherence tomography. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv* 2012; 5(1): 30-8.

Tada T, Kadota K, Hosogi S, et al. Optical coherence tomography findings in lesions after sirolimus-eluting stent implantation with persistent contrast staining. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv* 2012; 5(5): 649-56.

## Appendix 2

Syntax code for the performed analyses in SPSS, SAS and R

### SPSS

#### \* Import data

```
GET DATA
  /TYPE=XLS
  /FILE='V:\UserData\MyPaper\data.xls'
  /SHEET=name 'recoil and plaque characteristi'
  /CELLRANGE=full
  /READNAMES=on
  /ASSUMEDSTRWIDTH=32767.
EXECUTE.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.
```

#### \* RQ 1, method 1

```
EXAMINE VARIABLES=Recoil
  /PLOT NONE
  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES
  /CINTERVAL 95
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /NOTOTAL.
```

```
COMPUTE constant = 1.
EXECUTE.
```

```
REGRESSION
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) R ANOVA
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /ORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT Recoil
  /METHOD=ENTER constant.
```

**\* RQ 1, method 2**

```
MIXED Recoil WITH constant
/CRITERIA=CIN(95) MXITER(100) MXSTEP(10) SCORING(1) SINGULAR(0.000000000001)
HCONVERGE(0,
ABSOLUTE) LCONVERGE(0, ABSOLUTE) PCONVERGE(0.000001, ABSOLUTE)
/FIXED= constant | SSTYPE(3)
/METHOD=ML
/PRINT=SOLUTION
/RANDOM=INTERCEPT | SUBJECT(Patient) COVTYPE(VC).
```

**\* RQ 1, method 3**

```
AGGREGATE
/OUTFILE='V:\UserData\521825\Paper Eurointervention\aggr.sav'
/BREAK=Patient
/Recoil_mean=MEAN(Recoil).
```

```
GET
```

```
FILE='V:\UserData\521825\Paper Eurointervention\aggr.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet2 WINDOW=FRONT.
```

```
EXAMINE VARIABLES=Recoil_mean
```

```
/PLOT NONE
```

```
/STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES
```

```
/CINTERVAL 95
```

```
/MISSING LISTWISE
```

```
/NOTOTAL.
```

**\*RQ 2, method 1**

```
xGET DATA
  /TYPE=XLS
  /FILE='V:\UserData\521825\Paper Eurointervention\recoil and plaque characteristics data for Ron
  and Nico 08.04.22.xls'
  /SHEET=name 'recoil and plaque characteristi'
  /CELLRANGE=full
  /READNAMES=on
  /ASSUMEDSTRWIDTH=32767.
EXECUTE.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.
```

```
COMPUTE x1=0 .
IF Plaque = 1 x1 = 1.
EXECUTE.
```

```
COMPUTE x2=0 .
IF Plaque = 2 x2 = 1.
EXECUTE.
```

```
REGRESSION
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) R ANOVA
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT Recoil
  /METHOD=ENTER x1 x2.
```

**\* RQ 2, method 2**

```
MIXED Recoil WITH x1 x2
  /CRITERIA=CIN(95) MXITER(100) MXSTEP(10) SCORING(1) SINGULAR(0.00000000001)
  HCONVERGE(0,
  ABSOLUTE) LCONVERGE(0, ABSOLUTE) PCONVERGE(0.000001, ABSOLUTE)
  /FIXED= x1 x2 | SSTYPE(3)
  /METHOD=ML
  /PRINT=SOLUTION
  /RANDOM=INTERCEPT | SUBJECT(Patient) COVTYPE(VC).
```

## SAS

```
proc import
  out=a
  datafile="V:\UserData\MyPaper\data.csv"
  dbms=csv
  replace;
  getnames=yes;
  datarow=2;
run;

title1 'Research Question 1';
title2 'Method 1';
title3 'First simply calculate overall mean and s.e.';
proc univariate data=a;
  var Recoil;
run;

title3 'Then calculate overall mean and s.e. using linear regression';
proc reg data=a;
  model Recoil = ;
run;

title2 'Method 2';
title3 'Calculate overall mean and s.e. using multilevel model';
proc mixed data=a;
  class Patient;
  model Recoil = / solution cl;
  random int / subject=Patient solution;
run;

title2 'Method 3';
title3 'First calculate means per patient';
proc means data=a;
  var Recoil;
  output out=b mean=PatAvg;
  by Patient;
run;
```



```

title3 'Then average the calculated means';
proc univariate data=b;
  var PatAvg;
run;

```

```

title1 'Research Question 2';
title2 'First a general linear model with Plaque as discrete predictor';
proc glm data=a;
  class Plaque Patient;
  model Recoil = Plaque / solution;
run;

```

```

title2 'Then a mixed model with Plaque as discrete predictor';
proc mixed data=a;
  class Plaque Patient;
  model Recoil = Plaque / solution cl;
  random int / subject=Patient solution;
run;

```

R

#### **#load libraries**

```

library(Hmisc)
library(rms)
library(foreign)
library(lme4)

```

#### **#import data**

```

data <- as.data.frame(read.table(file= 'V:\\UserData\\MyPaper\\data.csv',header=T,sep= ","))
names(data)
nrow(data)
attach(data)

```

#### **#RQ 1, method 1a**

```

mean1b <- mean(Recoil)
sd1b <- sd(Recoil)
n1b <- nrow(data)

```

```

se1b <- sd1b / sqrt(n1b)

```

```

cil1b <- mean1b - 1.96*se1b
ciu1b <- mean1b + 1.96*se1b

```

**#RQ 1, method 1b**

```
rq1mod1 <- lm(Recoil~1)
mean1a <- coef(summary(rq1mod1))[1,1]
se1a <- coef(summary(rq1mod1))[1,2]

cil1a <- mean1a - 1.96*se1a
ciu1a <- mean1a + 1.96*se1a

rq1method1a <- cbind('1a', round(mean1a,2), round(cil1a,2), round(ciu1a,2))

rq1method1b <- cbind('1b', round(mean1b,2), round(cil1b,2), round(ciu1b,2))
```

**#RQ 1, method 2**

```
rq1mod2 <- lmer (Recoil~1 + 1|Patient)
mean2 <- coef(summary(rq1mod2))[1,1]
se2 <-coef(summary(rq1mod2))[1,2]

cil2 <- mean2 - 1.96*se2
ciu2 <- mean2 + 1.96*se2

rq1method2 <- cbind('2', round(mean2,2), round(cil2,2), round(ciu2,2))
```

**#RQ 1, method 3**

```
meanRecoil <- tapply(Recoil, Patient, mean)
mean3 <- mean(meanRecoil)
sd3 <- sd(meanRecoil)
n3 <- length(meanRecoil)

se3 <- sd3 / sqrt(n3)

cil3 <- mean3 - 1.96*se3
ciu3 <- mean3 + 1.96*se3

rq1method3 <- cbind('3', round(mean3,2), round(cil3,2), round(ciu3,2))

summaryRQ1 <-rbind(rq1method1a, rq1method1b, rq1method2, rq1method3)
colnames(summaryRQ1) <- c('method','mean', 'lower 95% CI', 'upper 95% CI')
summaryRQ1
```

**# RQ 2, method 1**

```
rq2mod1 <- lm(Recoil~as.factor(Plaque))
```

```
beta1cat1 <- coef(summary(rq2mod1))[2,1]
```

```
beta1cat2 <- coef(summary(rq2mod1))[3,1]
```

```
se1cat1 <- coef(summary(rq2mod1))[2,2]
```

```
se1cat2 <- coef(summary(rq2mod1))[3,2]
```

```
cil1cat1 <- beta1cat1 - (1.96*se1cat1)
```

```
ciu1cat1 <- beta1cat1 + (1.96*se1cat1)
```

```
cil1cat2 <- beta1cat2 - (1.96*se1cat2)
```

```
ciu1cat2 <- beta1cat2 + (1.96*se1cat2)
```

```
rq2method1 <- cbind('1', round(beta1cat1,2), round(cil1cat1,2), round(ciu1cat1,2),round(beta1cat2,2),
  round(cil1cat2,2), round(ciu1cat2,2))
```

**#RQ 2, method 2**

```
rq2mod2 <- lmer (Recoil~ as.factor(Plaque) + (1|Patient))
```

```
beta2cat1 <- coef(summary(rq2mod2))[2,1]
```

```
beta2cat2 <- coef(summary(rq2mod2))[3,1]
```

```
se2cat1 <- coef(summary(rq2mod2))[2,2]
```

```
se2cat2 <- coef(summary(rq2mod2))[3,2]
```

```
cil2cat1 <- beta2cat1 - (1.96*se2cat1)
```

```
ciu2cat1 <- beta2cat1 + (1.96*se2cat1)
```

```
cil2cat2 <- beta2cat2 - (1.96*se2cat2)
```

```
ciu2cat2 <- beta2cat2 + (1.96*se2cat2)
```

```
rq2method2 <- cbind('2', round(beta2cat1,2), round(cil2cat1,2), round(ciu2cat1,2),round(beta2cat2,2),
  round(cil2cat2,2), round(ciu2cat2,2))
```

```
summaryRQ2 <-rbind(rq2method1, rq2method2)
```

```
colnames(summaryRQ2) <- c('method','beta1', 'lower 95% CI', 'upper 95% CI','beta2','lower 95% CI',
  'upper 95% CI')
```

```
summaryRQ2
```

**#save data**

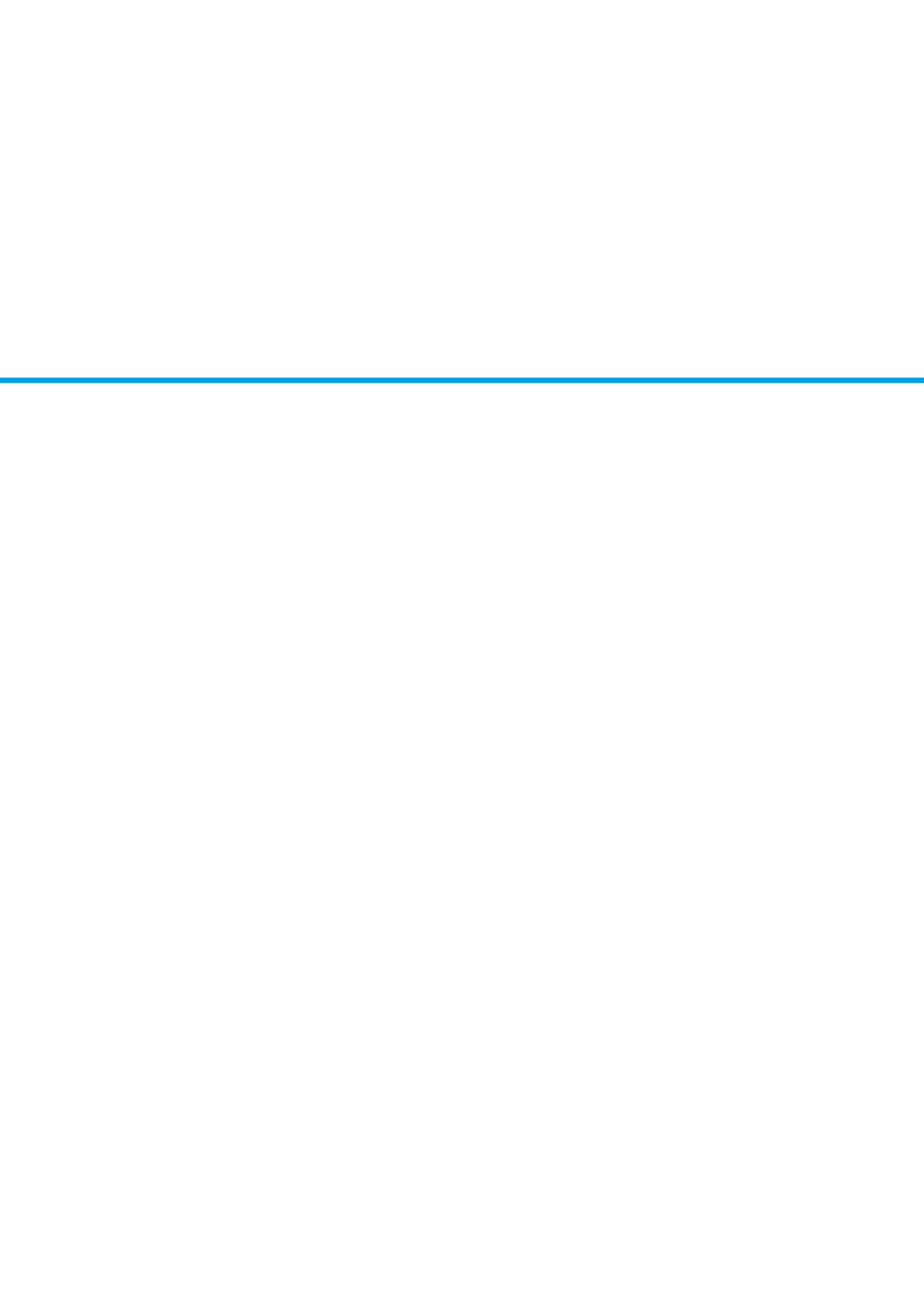
```
save.image("V:\\UserData\\MyPaper\\Ranalysis.RData")
```



Part VII

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Discussion



# Chapter 20

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Summary and discussion

In each year between 1900 and 2006 except for 1918, cardiovascular disease accounted for more deaths in the United States than any other major cause of death.<sup>[1]</sup> In the Netherlands, cardiovascular disease was the main cause of death until 2007: in 2007 mortality due to cardiovascular disease, and coronary artery disease in particular, had decreased considerably such that the total number of deaths due to cancer was higher (Statistics Netherlands, [www.cbs.nl](http://www.cbs.nl)). This is the result of the combined effects of improvements in primary prevention, initial recognition of acute events, well organized care and effective treatment.

In the present thesis, we investigate relevant treatment evolutions in patients with heart disease, clinical outcomes of these patients, changes in outcome over time, and specific high risk groups that could benefit from tailored clinical care.

### **Changes in clinical profile, treatment, and mortality**

The Thoraxcenter is one of the few centers worldwide that is able to compare clinical profile, treatment, and outcome of patients hospitalized for myocardial infarction over a calendar period of three decades. During this period, substantial improvements in acute and long term survival in these patients could be documented, most likely related to improved treatment (Chapter 3).

Cardiovascular disease is the single largest cause of death in patients with renal impairment, and these cardiovascular deaths often occur before end-stage renal failure has been reached.<sup>[2]</sup> We show that, during the past 25 years, there was a similar decline in mortality after myocardial infarction for all stages of kidney function, including stage 4–5 chronic kidney disease (CKD). Still, the prognosis remains poor for patients with stage 4–5 CKD: adjusted mortality was 8.6-fold higher at 30 days, compared with patients with normal renal function (Chapter 4).

Anemia usually develops during the course of chronic kidney disease and may be associated with adverse outcomes.<sup>[3]</sup> In acute coronary syndrome patients, little was known about the effect of anemia on outcome and about the interaction between anemia and renal impairment. We show that that the extent of anemia at hospital



admission for acute coronary syndrome is associated with increased both in-hospital and long-term mortality, and we discuss anemia as a potential treatment target in these patients (Chapter 5).

### **Ageing and glucose metabolisms: emerging risk factors**

Approximately 80% of people who die of coronary artery disease are 65 years of age or older.<sup>[3]</sup> In chapter 6 we showed that, in absolute terms, older patients benefited most from the improved medical care for myocardial infarction during the past decades. Favorable changes with more frequent use of evidence-based medical care, also in the elderly, are documented in this chapter.

The western world has experienced substantial increases in the prevalence of diabetes mellitus over the past 20 years. In 2011 approximately 60 million adult Europeans were thought to have diabetes mellitus, half of them with a clinical diagnosis, the other half undetected. More than 50% of the mortality in people with diabetes mellitus is related to cardiovascular disease. Cardiovascular risk probably develops early, before onset of diabetes mellitus.<sup>[4]</sup>

Against this background we show that there is also an increasing prevalence of diabetes in patients with a myocardial infarction. In the most recent decade, diabetes was not associated with underuse of evidence-based therapies. The absolute long-term mortality rate remained about 1.5-fold higher in patients with diabetes compared with those without diabetes. Additionally, we show that admission glucose levels are strongly related with increased mortality (up to 20 years). Compared with diabetes, hyperglycemia is a better discriminator for short-term mortality. This is important because the prevalence of elevated admission glucose levels has also increased substantially over the last years. The association between hyperglycemia and short-term mortality was significantly stronger in the present decade when than in previous decades. Therefore, although we showed that mortality after acute myocardial infarction decreased from 1985 to 2008, the observed decrease was less pronounced in patients with hyperglycemia. Finally, we demonstrate that the association between admission glucose levels and short-term mortality was not dependent on diabetic

status; a high admission glucose level was a predictor of mortality in patients with diabetes and in those without previously diagnosed diabetes (Chapters 7, 8).

### **Gender differences**

The total number of women who die of cardiovascular disease is higher than the number of men.<sup>[1]</sup> In Chapter 9 we demonstrate that women hospitalized for an acute myocardial infarction were more likely to present with a higher risk profile but were equally likely to receive pharmacological and invasive reperfusion therapy compared with men. The higher risk profile of women was mainly determined by an average age difference of 5 years between women and men. Women and men had the same adjusted mortality rates at 30 days, whereas during 20 years of follow-up, the mortality hazard was lower in women. Importantly, temporal improvements in 30-day mortality and long-term mortality hazard from 1985 to 2008 were substantial and at least as high in women as in men.

In Chapter 10 we provide an overview of long-term prognosis according to age and sex, based on contemporary mortality rates. Our results demonstrate that the overall median life-expectancy after myocardial infarction varies between 6 and more than 20 years, mainly depending on age at presentation. In this chapter, we compare survival in the general population with survival after myocardial infarction.

### **Traditional risk factors**

Hypertension, dyslipidaemia, smoking and diabetes mellitus are traditional risk factors for the development of coronary heart disease in patients without established cardiovascular disease.<sup>[5, 6]</sup> Contrary to this, two recent studies of large populations of myocardial infarction patients admitted in the United States have shown the presence of these coronary heart disease risk factors to be associated with a significantly lower in-hospital mortality rate.<sup>[7, 8]</sup> We confirm this paradox: myocardial infarction patients with at least one compared with no modifiable coronary heart disease risk factor have a favorable unadjusted and adjusted short-term survival (Chapter 11). We are the first to show that with longer duration of follow-up this association was sustained for myocardial infarction patients admitted between 1990 and 2008 (Chapter 11). The interpretation of these findings is that the absence of coronary heart disease risk factors should not necessarily be viewed as a guarantee of favorable prognosis. It could

be that the management associated with the presence of coronary heart disease risk factors is causally related to better outcome.

### **Percutaneous coronary interventions**

It has been estimated that percutaneous coronary interventions reduce mortality by more than 30% in patients who present with an acute myocardial infarction.<sup>[9, 10]</sup> In addition revascularization for acute coronary syndrome relieves symptoms and shortens hospital stay.<sup>[11]</sup> We assessed 7 year outcome after percutaneous coronary intervention in saphenous vein graft lesions, and compared the safety and efficacy of drug-eluting stents versus bare-metal stents. We show that the unrestricted use of drug-eluting stents in saphenous vein graphs remains safe and effective as compared to bare metal, as illustrated by similar mortality rates and clinically relevant lower rates of target vessel revascularization in patients treated with drug eluting stents (Chapter 12). There is no previous study with a comparable duration of follow-up. At last follow-up, nearly 50% of patients were dead, and almost 70% of deaths were due to cardiac causes.

We show that there was no difference in both short term (30-day) mortality and long term mortality up to 10 years among ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) patients who present during the weekend compared to weekdays in the three decades between 1985 and 2008 (Chapter13). This suggests that a system with immediate primary percutaneous coronary intervention for STEMI patients is as effective in weekend- compared to weekdays.

In two related studies we demonstrate that the syntax score, originally designed for quantifying stable coronary artery disease, can be usefully utilized in a STEMI population with disease in the native coronary arteries. We are the first to report the prognostic value of the syntax score in STEMI patients (Chapter 14). The syntax score, derived from angiography during primary percutaneous coronary intervention, predicts long-term mortality and major adverse cardiac event in patients with STEMI independently of the TIMI risk score (Chapter 14). In addition, the syntax score is an independent predictor of myocardial no-reflow in these patients. An syntax score of over 21 doubles the risk for developing no-reflow. Myocardial no-reflow carries a poor prognosis and an increased mortality rate (Chapter 15).

In a literature review on the benefits of PCI in patients with stable angina, we concluded that medical treatment should be the initial management of the patient with stable chest pain (Chapter 16). In addition, based on our literature search, percutaneous opening of a chronic total coronary occlusion is not recommended. We reviewed the most recent guidelines on myocardial revascularization.<sup>[12]</sup> Specifically, we recommend that the composition of such a guideline committee must be more representative of the medical profession at large (Chapter 16).

In another review article we argue that percutaneous coronary intervention seems the method of choice for single vessel disease, whereas bypass surgery (CABG) should be more suited for complex, multiple vessel or left main stem disease (Chapter 17). Also, we advocate the creation of a so-called 'Heart Team'. A Heart Team allows for a multidisciplinary decision-making process for a patient who qualifies for either one of these treatment options. In order of procedure effectiveness, myocardial revascularization is most effective in STEMI, non-STEMI, unstable angina, and (chronic) stable angina pectoris. In patients with mild-to-moderate angina, an initially cautious approach to coronary revascularization is reasonable: watchful waiting seems appropriate. In case percutaneous coronary intervention of coronary lesions of moderate severity is considered, a functional assessment of the stenosis, the determination of coronary flow reserve, is recommended (Chapter 17).

### **Methodology**

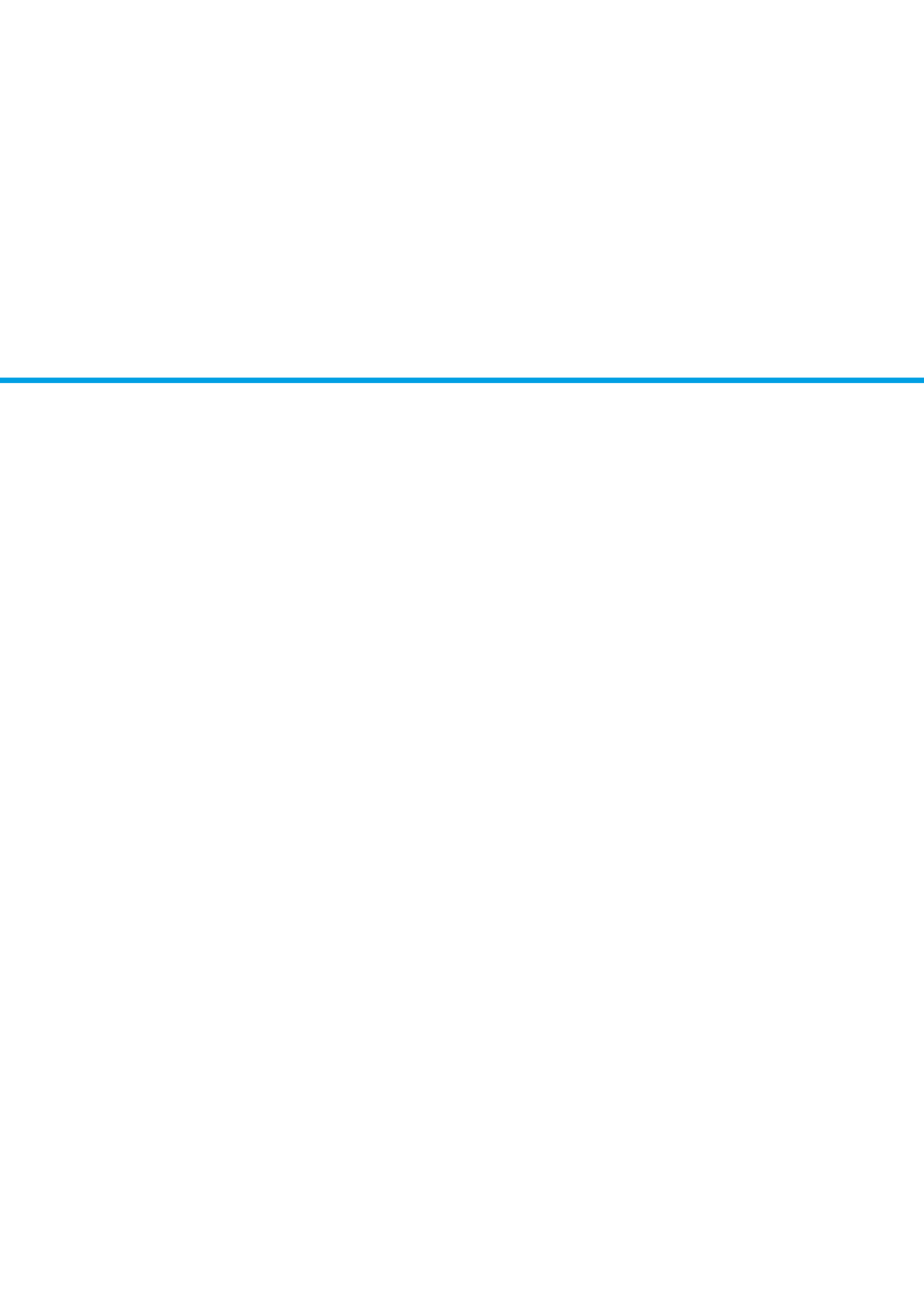
The present thesis includes two methodological chapters. In chapter 18 we explain the need for an appropriate control group for an observational study design. In chapter 19 we reviewed the current analytical approach to clustered data in the field of OCT-imaging during percutaneous coronary intervention. We conclude that these analyses are frequently performed suboptimal and this may lead to wrong inferences. We recommend to always use multilevel models when analyzing multiple observations per patient.

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# Chapter 21

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Conclusion



In this thesis we aimed to expand the knowledge on treatment, risk factors and outcome in patients with coronary artery disease. Specifically, we documented changes over the past decades: the temporal trends shown in this thesis, covering 24 years of observation, are unique.

The main conclusions of this thesis are as follows:

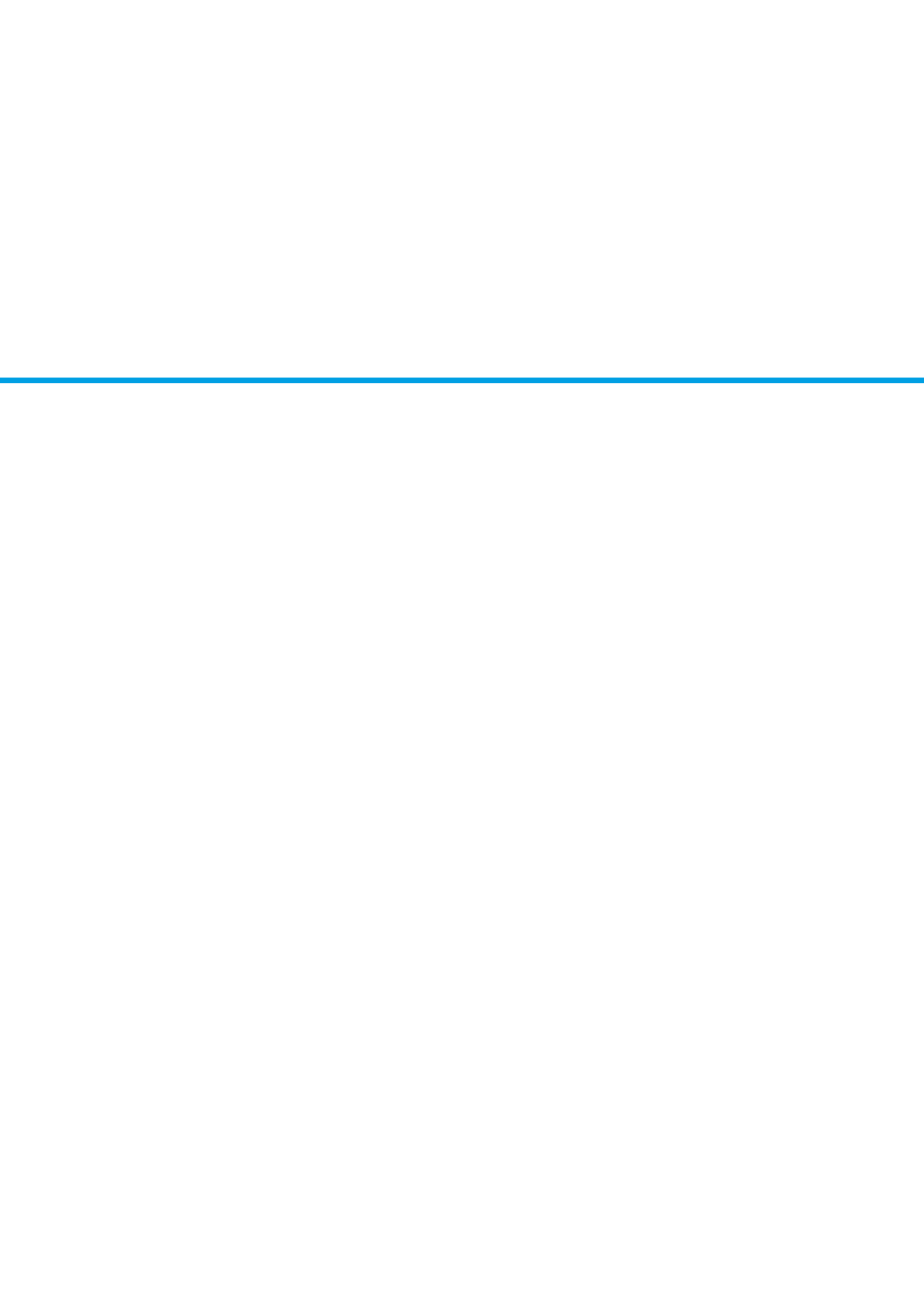
In patients hospitalized for myocardial infarction acute (30 day) mortality has decreased over the past decades, and the decrease in short-term mortality is sustained during long-term follow-up. These improvements in outcome relate to improved acute- as well as long-term treatment.

Renal impairment, anemia and older age are important predictors of mortality after myocardial infarction. We demonstrate a substantial mortality decrease over the past decades in older patients and those with renal impairment; this mortality decrease is comparable with the decrease in younger patients and those with normal renal function, respectively.

Diabetes and hyperglycemia are emerging risk factors. Optimal medical care for these patients and awareness of their high-risk profile remains warranted.

Women were equally likely to receive pharmacological and invasive reperfusion therapy compared with men. Women and men had the same adjusted mortality rates at 30 days, whereas during 20 years of follow-up, the mortality hazard was lower in women.

Relative survival, which is the survival among patients divided by the expected survival of a the general population, may well be an appropriate and useful measure for assessment of survival after myocardial infarction.



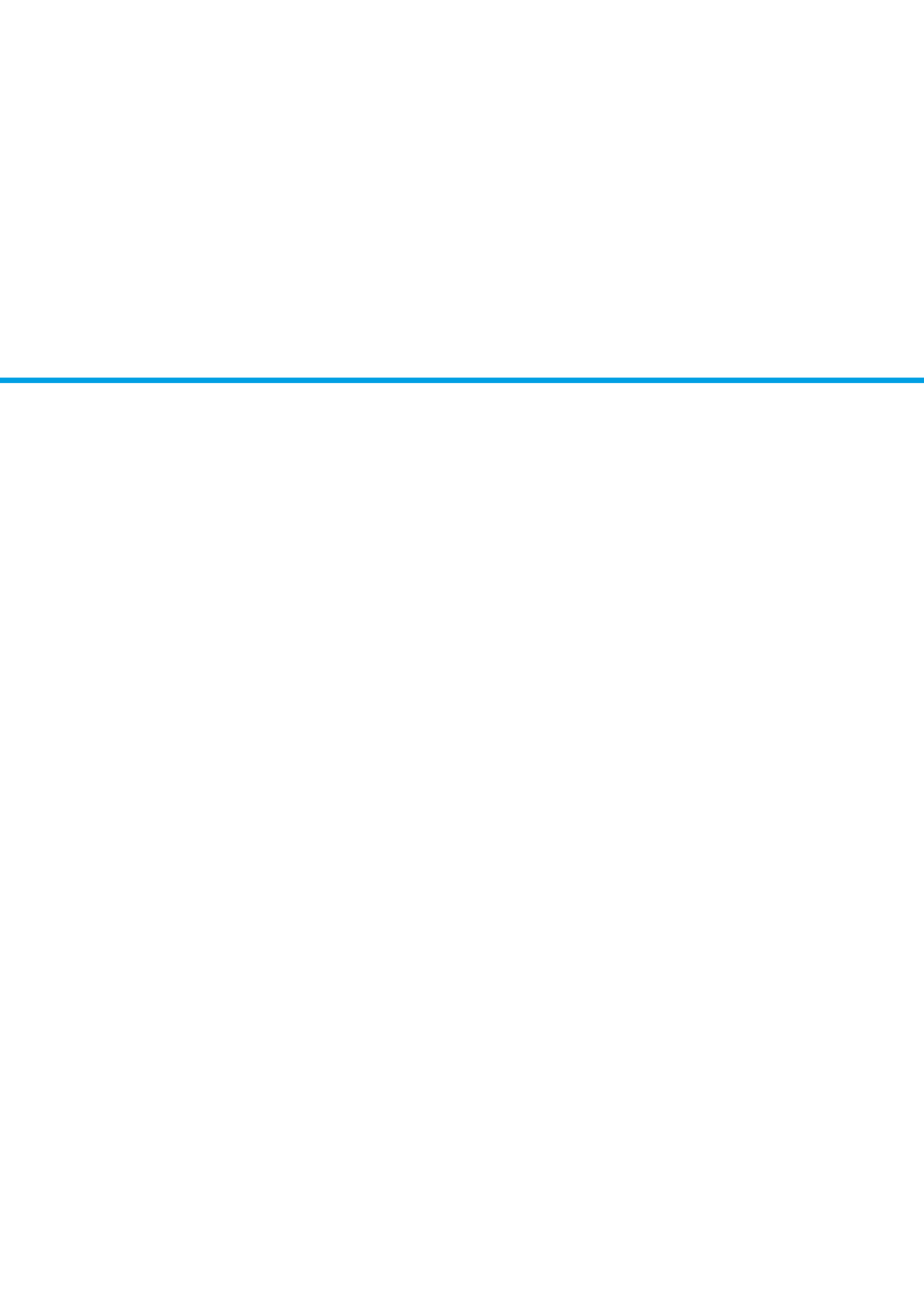
# Chapter 22

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About the author



Sjoerd Toussaint Nauta was born on the 25<sup>th</sup> of November 1986, in Wageningen, the Netherlands. He graduated from secondary school in 2005 (Marnix College Ede). In 2006 he started Medicine at the Erasmus Medical Center, Rotterdam. He graduated cum laude as Master of Science in Clinical Research in 2011 and as Medical Doctor in 2012. While studying he was involved in a number of research projects at the department of Cardiology and the related Clinical Epidemiology unit of the Erasmus University Medical Center. The present thesis is the result of the research projects performed between 2008 and 2012.





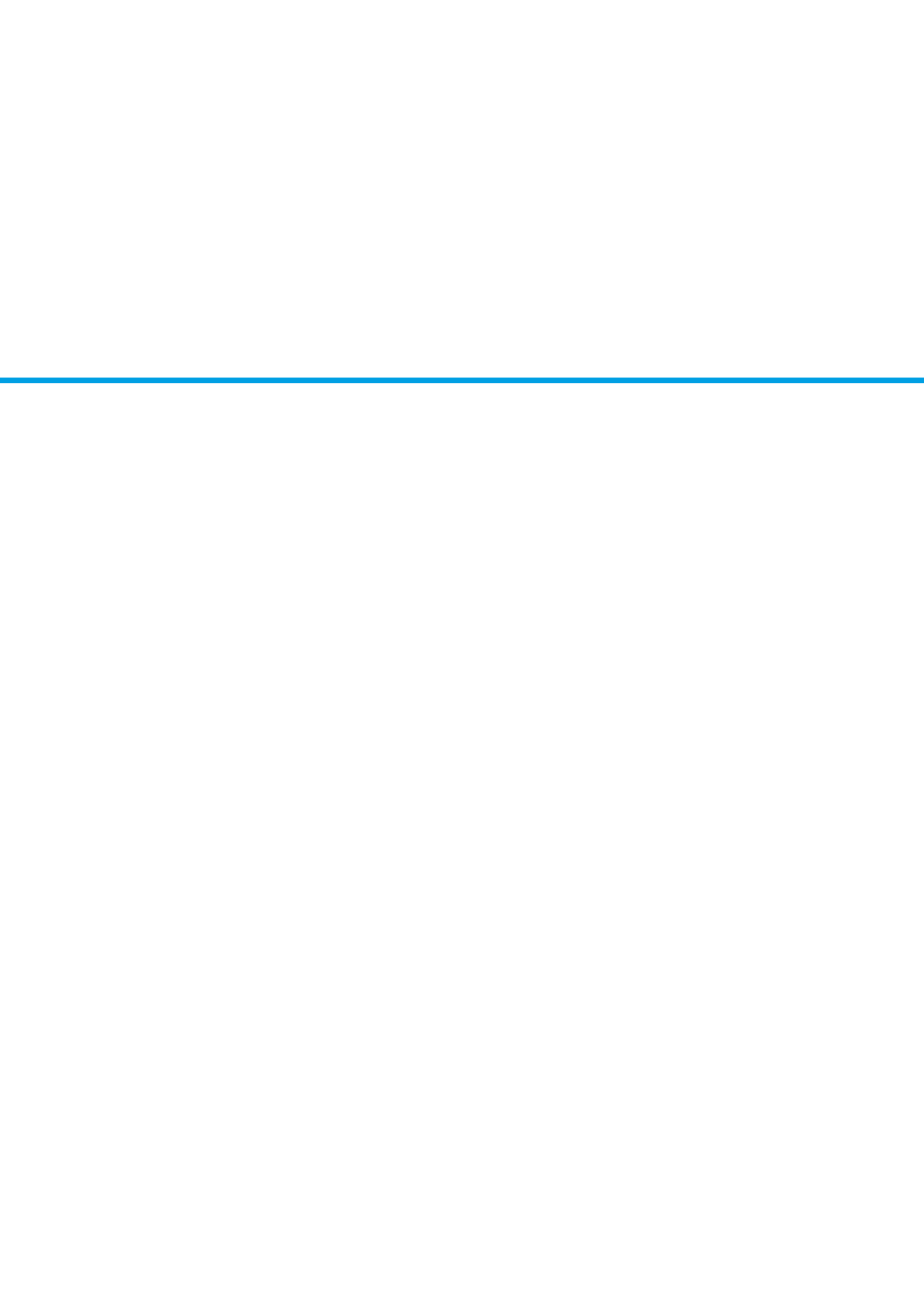
# Chapter 23

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PHD portfolio

	Year	ECTS
<b>Acedemic education</b>		
Medicine, Erasmus University, Rotterdam	2012	N.A.
Master of Science in Clinical Research, NIHES, Rotterdam	2011	N.A.
Summer session in public health (post-graduate courses), Harvard University, Boston	2010	N.A.
<b>In-depth courses (46,2)</b>		
Working with SPSS for Windows	2010	0,3
Scientific Writing in Eng. for Publ.	2010	2,0
Principles of Research in Med. and Epid.	2008	0,7
Introduction to Data-analysis	2009	1,0
Regression Analysis	2009	1,9
Methods of Clinical Research	2008	0,7
Clinical Trials	2008	0,7
Topics in Meta-analysis	2009	0,7
Pharmaco-epidemiology	2008	0,7
Health Economics	2010	0,7
Survival Analysis	2009	1,9
Case-control Studies	2008	0,7
Causal Inference	2010	0,7
Introduct.to Decision-making in Medicine	2008	0,7
Study Design	2008	8,5
Bayesian Statistics	2010	1,1
Missing Values in Clinical Research	2010	0,7
Courses for the Quantitative Researcher	2009	1,4
Introduction to Clinical Research	2009	0,9
Adv.Topics in Decision-making in Med.	2009	1,9
Pharmaco-epidemiology and Drug Safety	2011	1,9
Intervention Res.and Clinical Trials	2009	0,9
Diagnostic Research	2009	0,9
Advanced Topics in Clinical Trials	2011	1,9
Advanced Analysis of Prognosis Studies	2011	0,9
Prognosis Research	2009	0,9
Princ.of Epidemiologic Data-analysis	2011	0,9
Management of Health Care Organizations	2010	2,0
Society and Health	2010	2,0
Seminars and lectures	2011	6

	Year	ECTS
<b>Presentations at conferences (4,2)</b>		
American Heart Association scientific sessions (Chicago)	2010	0,7
European Society of Cardiology congress (Paris)	2011	0,7
European Society of Cardiology congress (Munich, 3x)	2012	2,1
Acute Cardiac Care congress (Istanbul)	2012	0,7
Netherlands Society of Cardiology congress (Noordwijkerhout, 2x)	2011	1,4
<b>International congresses, attended (8,4)</b>		
American Heart Association scientific sessions (Chigaco)	2010	1,4
European Society of Cardiology congress (Paris)	2011	1,4
European Society of Cardiology congress (Munich)	2012	1,4
Cardiology and Vascular Medicine congress (Rotterdam)	2010	1,4
Cardiology and Vascular Medicine congress (Rotterdam)	2011	1,4
Acute Cardiac Care congress (Istanbul)	2012	1,4
<b>Lecturing (13,4)</b>		
Lecturer for second year students (topic: acute coronary syndrome)	2012	1,4
Supervising Master's theses (4x)	2012	12,0



# Chapter 24

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## List of publications

## Medical Journals

1. **Nauta ST**, Deckers JW, Akkerhuis KM, van Domburg RT. Short- and long-term mortality after myocardial infarction in patients with and without diabetes: changes from 1985 to 2008. *Diabetes Care*. 2012 Oct;35(10):2043-7.
2. **Nauta ST**, Deckers JW, Akkerhuis KM, van Domburg RT. Age-dependent care and long-term (20 year) mortality of 14,434 myocardial infarction patients: changes from 1985 to 2008. *Int J Cardiol*. 2013 Aug 10;167(3):693-7.
3. **Nauta ST**, Deckers JW, Akkerhuis M, Lenzen M, Simoons ML, van Domburg RT. Changes in clinical profile, treatment, and mortality in patients hospitalised for acute myocardial infarction between 1985 and 2008. *PLoS One*. 2011;6(11):e26917.
4. **Nauta ST**, Deckers JW, van der Boon RM, Akkerhuis KM, van Domburg RT. Risk factors for coronary heart disease and survival after myocardial infarction. *Eur J Prev Cardiol*. 2012 Sep 13.
5. **Nauta ST**, Deckers JW, van Domburg RT, Akkerhuis KM. Sex-related trends in mortality in hospitalized men and women after myocardial infarction between 1985 and 2008: equal benefit for women and men. *Circulation*. 2012 Oct 30;126(18):2184-9.
6. **Nauta ST**, Gaspersz M, Deckers JW. The new European Society of Cardiology guidelines on myocardial revascularisation: an appraisal. *Heart*. 2012 Jan;98(1):11-4.
7. **Nauta ST**, Van Domburg R. Choosing an appropriate control group for an observational study design. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf*. 2012 Mar;21(3):341.
8. **Nauta ST**, van Domburg RT, Nuis RJ, Akkerhuis M, Deckers JW. Decline in 20-year mortality after myocardial infarction in patients with chronic kidney disease: evolution from the prethrombolysis to the percutaneous coronary intervention era. *Kidney Int*. 2013 Aug;84(2):353-8.
9. **Nauta ST**, Van Mieghem NM, Magro M, Deckers JW, Simsek C, Van Geuns RJ, Van Der Giessen WJ, De Jaegere P, Regar E, Van Domburg RT, Serruys PW. Seven-year safety and efficacy of the unrestricted use of drug-eluting stents in saphenous vein bypass grafts. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2012 May 1;79(6):912-8.
10. **Nauta ST**, Dickman PW, Van Domburg RT, Van Steenberghe LN, Jansen-Heijnen M, Deckers JW, Kardys I. Long-term (20-year) survival rates of myocardial infarction patients achieved in the early 21st century: a period analysis including relative and conditional survival. Submitted for Publication. 2012.
11. **Nauta ST**, van Domburg RT, Akkerhuis M, Deckers JW. Observations in Rotterdam during a quarter of a century: major improvements in survival after myocardial infarction. [Dutch]. *Cordiaal*. 2012;(5):148-151.

12. Deckers JW, Khatibi S, Feng Y, **Nauta ST**. ESC-EACTS guidelines: myocardial revascularisation. *Hosp Cardiol Eur* 2012;1:9-11.
13. Deckers JW, van Domburg RT, Akkerhuis M, **Nauta ST**. Relation of admission glucose levels, short- and long-term (20-year) mortality after acute myocardial infarction. *Am J Cardiol*. 2013 Nov 1;112(9):1306-10.
14. Magro M, **Nauta S**, Simsek C, Onuma Y, Garg S, van der Heide E, van der Giessen WJ, Boersma E, van Domburg RT, van Geuns RJ, Serruys PW. Value of the SYNTAX score in patients treated by primary percutaneous coronary intervention for acute ST-elevation myocardial infarction: The MI SYNTAXscore study. *Am Heart J*. 2011 Apr;161(4):771-81.
15. Magro M, **Nauta ST**, Simsek C, Boersma E, van der Heide E, Regar E, van Domburg RT, Zijlstra F, Serruys PW, van Geuns RJ. Usefulness of the SYNTAX score to predict "no reflow" in patients treated with primary percutaneous coronary intervention for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction. *Am J Cardiol*. 2012 Mar 1;109(5):601-6.
16. Lingsma H, **Nauta S**, van Leeuwen N, Borsboom G, Bruining N, Steyerberg E. Tools & Techniques: Analysis of clustered data in interventional cardiology: current practice and methodological advice. *EuroIntervention*. 2013 May 20;9(1):162-4.
17. Snelder SM, **Nauta ST**, Akkerhuis KM, Deckers JW, van Domburg RT. Weekend versus weekday mortality in ST-segment elevation acute myocardial infarction patients between 1985 and 2008. *Int J Cardiol*. 2013 Sep 30;168(2):1576-7.
18. Younger JO, **Nauta ST**, Akkerhuis KM, Deckers JW, van Domburg RT. Effect of anemia on short- and long-term outcome in patients hospitalized for acute coronary syndromes. *Am J Cardiol*. 2012 Feb 15;109(4):506-10.
19. Simsek C, Magro M, Boersma E, Onuma Y, **Nauta S**, Daemen J, Gaspersz M, van Geuns RJ, van der Giessen W, van Domburg R, Serruys P. Comparison of six-year clinical outcome of sirolimus- and paclitaxel-eluting stents to bare-metal stents in patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: an analysis of the RESEARCH (rapamycin-eluting stent evaluated at Rotterdam cardiology hospital) and T-SEARCH (taxus stent evaluated at Rotterdam cardiology hospital) registries. *J Invasive Cardiol*. 2011 Aug;23(8):336-41.
20. Simsek C, Magro M, Boersma E, Onuma Y, **Nauta S**, Valstar G, van Geuns RJ, van der Giessen W, van Domburg R, Serruys P. Impact of renal insufficiency on safety and efficacy of drug-eluting stents compared to bare-metal stents at 6 years. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2012 Jul 1;80(1):18-26.

21. Simsek C, Magro M, Boersma E, Onuma Y, **Nauta ST**, Gaspersz MP, van der Giessen WJ, van Domburg RT, Serruys PW. The unrestricted use of sirolimus- and paclitaxel-eluting stents results in better clinical outcomes during 6-year follow-up than bare-metal stents: an analysis of the RESEARCH (Rapamycin-Eluting Stent Evaluated At Rotterdam Cardiology Hospital) and T-SEARCH (Taxus-Stent Evaluated At Rotterdam Cardiology Hospital) registries. *JACC Cardiovasc Interv.* 2010 Oct;3(10):1051-8.
22. Magro M, Wykrzykowska J, Serruys PW, Simsek C, **Nauta S**, Lesiak M, Stanislawska K, Onuma Y, Regar E, van Domburg RT, Grajek S, Geuns RJ. Six-month clinical follow-up of the Tryton side branch stent for the treatment of bifurcation lesions: a two center registry analysis. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2011 May 1;77(6):798-806.
23. van der Boon RM, Van Mieghem NM, Theuns DA, Nuis RJ, **Nauta ST**, Serruys PW, Jordaens L, van Domburg RT, de Jaegere PP. Pacemaker dependency after transcatheter aortic valve implantation with the self-expanding Medtronic CoreValve System. *Int J Cardiol.* 2013 Sep 30;168(2):1269-73.

## Book chapters / printed matter

1. **Nauta ST**, van Domburg RT, Deckers JW. Clinical presentation, treatment en 30-day mortality after admission for myocardial infarction: observations in Rotterdam from 1985 to 2009.[Dutch] Chapter 3 in: Koopman C, van Dis I, Visseren FLJ, Vaartjes I, Bots ML. Hart- en vaatziekten in Nederland 2012, cijfers over risicofactoren, ziekte en sterfte. Den Haag: Hartstichting, 2012.
2. Henny W, De Lijster L, Schalken M, van de Velde K, **Nauta S** 2009. First aid Syllabus year 1. Mandatory study material for medical students.
3. Henny W, De Lijster L, Schalken M, van de Velde K, **Nauta S** 2010. First aid Syllabus year 1 to 3. Mandatory study material for medical students.





