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Prescribing patterns and response to antihyperglycemic agents among novel clusters of type 2 diabetes in Asian Indians

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1 PRESCRIBING PATTERNS AND RESPONSE TO ANTIHYPERGLYCEMIC

2 AGENTS AMONG NOVEL CLUSTERS OF TYPE 2 DIABETES IN ASIAN INDIANS

3

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47 ABSTRACT

AIM: To assess the prescribing patterns and response to different classes of
 antihyperglycemic agents in novel clusters of type 2 diabetes (T2D) described in India.

51 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**: We attempted to replicate the earlier described 52 clusters of T2D In 32,867 individuals with new-onset T2D (within 2 years of diagnosis) 53 registered between October 2013 and December 2020 at 15 diabetes clinics located 54 across India, by means of k-means clustering utilising six clinically relevant variables. 55 Individuals who had followup HbA1c upto 2 years were included for the drug response 56 analysis (n=13,247).

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RESULTS: Among the 32,867 participants included in the study, 20779 (63.2%) were 58 59 males. The average age at diagnosis was 45 years and mean HbA1c at baseline was 60 8.9 %. The same four clusters described in India earlier were replicated. Forty percent of the study participants belonged to the Mild Age-Related Diabetes [MARD] cluster, 61 followed by Insulin Resistant Obese Diabetes [IROD] (27%), Severe Insulin Deficient 62 Diabetes [SIDD] (21%) and Combined Insulin Resistant and Deficient Diabetes 63 [CIRDD] (12%) clusters. The most frequently used antihyperglycemic agents were 64 65 sulphonylureas, metformin and dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibitors apart from insulin. While there were significant differences in HbA1c reduction between drugs across 66 clusters, these were largely driven by differences in the baseline (pre-treatment) 67 HbA1c. 68

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CONCLUSIONS: In this new cohort we were able to reliably replicate the four
 subtypes of T2D earlier described in Asian Indians. Prescribing patterns show limited
 usage of newer antihyperglycemic agents across all clusters. Randomized clinical
 trials are required to establish differential drug responses between clusters.

74 Introduction

Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is a widespread metabolic disorder characterized by 75 considerable heterogeneity in its pathophysiology, clinical manifestations and natural 76 77 history [1]. Efforts have been made in various populations to identify distinct "clusters" of phenotypic characteristics and laboratory markers in individuals diagnosed with 78 T2D, and to assess whether these clusters correlate with differential risk of diabetes 79 complications [2,3]. A pioneering study by Ahlquist et al [2] in a Scandinavian 80 population, led to the identification of five major subtypes of T2D termed as 81 82 Severe Autoimmune Diabetes (SAID), Severe Insulin Deficient Diabetes (SIDD), Severe Insulin Resistant Diabetes (SIRD), Mild Obesity-related Diabetes (MOD) and 83 Mild Age-Related Diabetes (MARD). This was also reproduced in several other ethinic 84 85 groups [4-6].

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Asian Indians represent an ethnic group with high predilection for T2D, who have been 87 88 shown to have certain differences with respect to clinical features compared to white Caucasians, such as onset of diabetes at younger ages and lower levels of obesity, 89 as well more severe beta-cell insufficiency early in the disease course [7,8]. An earlier 90 attempt at identifying clusters of T2D in the Asian Indian population replicated two of 91 the clusters identified by Ahlquist et al viz. SIDD and MARD, while two novel clusters 92 93 termed CIRDD(Combined Insulin Resistant and Deficient Diabetes) and IROD (Insulin Resistant Obese Diabetes) were also described [9]. 94

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More than seven distinct categories of drugs are available for the management of T2D at present. There is little information available on the overall prescribing patterns of antihyperglycemic medications in India. However, there is considerable interest in

99 assessing how individuals in each of the clusters of T2D, respond to various classes 100 of antihyperglycemic medications. In the present paper, we attempt to analyse the 101 prescribing patterns for T2D in India, and assess the response to different classes of 102 antihyperglycemic agents among the recently described "clusters" of Asian Indian 103 patients with T2D by doing a retrospective analysis of medical records collected from 104 multiple diabetes care practices across India.

105 Materials and Methods

106 Study population and inclusion criteria

Retrospective data on individuals with new-onset T2D (within 2 years of diabetes 107 108 diagnosis) who were registered between October 2013 and December 2020 was collected from 15 diabetes clinics located in 12 states and one Union Territory of India 109 (Figure 1). Diabetes was diagnosed if the fasting plasma glucose level was ≥126 110 111 mg/dL (7.0 mmol/L) and/or 2-hour postload glucose level was ≥200 mg/dL (11.1 mmol/L) and/or if the patient had been prescribed pharmacotherapy for diabetes by a 112 physician [10], while T2D was diagnosed by absence of ketosis, good beta-cell reserve 113 114 as shown by fasting C-peptide assay >0.6 pmol/mL and absence of pancreatic calculi (on abdominal radiograph)[11]. In order to assign individuals into clinical clusters, data 115 116 on age at diagnosis, body mass index (BMI), waist circumference, glycated 117 hemoglobin (HbA1c), serum triglycerides and high density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol were collected from 32,867 individuals with new onset T2D. Height (in cms) 118 119 was measured using a stadiometer, weight (in kg) was measured with an electronic weighing scale and waist circumference was measured using a nonstretchable 120 121 measuring tape. BMI was calculated using the formula: weight $(Kg)/(height in m)^2$. 122 HbA1c, triglycerides and HDL-cholesterol were determined by standard 123 methodologies followed in the respective labs in the 15 study centres (Serum

triglyceride analyzed by enzymatic method, HDL-cholesterol by direct method andHbA1c by high performance liquid chromatography).

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127 Other data collected included medication use (if any) at the time of first visit and at the follow-up visits up to two years from first visit. Baseline drug information was available 128 for 30,152 individuals and follow-up HbA1c was available from 4.2 -7.4 months) was 129 130 available in 14,240 individuals (Figure 2). Among these, 10,013 drug-naïve individuals who were prescribed medications at first visit were included in the analysis. Individuals 131 132 who were not drug-naïve were included in the study if new medications were added at baseline (n=2941). Individuals in whom no changes were made to previous 133 134 medications at baseline and who had a follow-up HbA1c available within 3 months 135 were included (n=293), whereas those without a follow-up HbA1c (n=933) were 136 excluded. Therefore, a total of 13,247 individuals were included in the drug response analysis. Written informed consent to use anonymized medical data was obtained 137 138 from all study participants and approval was obtained from the Institutional Ethics Committee. 139

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141 Statistical analysis

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Baseline characteristics were described using means and standard deviations for normally distributed variables, and median and interquartile range for non-normally distributed variables. Clustering methodology has been previously described [9]. Briefly, k-means clustering was done with a k value of 4 using k-means function (with a maximum iteration of 10,000) in R V.3.6.0. Cluster forming tendency of the data was validated by the Hopkins statistic value. The optimal number of clusters was

determined based on silhouette width. Cluster-wise stability was computed by Jaccard
bootstrap method. Cluster analysis was performed onscaled and centered values.
Cluster labels were assigned based on the phenotype characteristics of individual
cluster mean values of the variables.

Sensitivity analysis was done using duration of diabetes <1 year, <3 years, and <5 years. Clustering tendency of the three different duration groups had Hopkins statistics values of 0.14, 0.16 and 0.16 respectively indicating that there was no significant difference between the duration groups.

157 HbA1c response was presented as absolute difference in HbA1c and percentage difference [(pre-treatment HbA1c – post treatment HbA1c)/pre-treatment HbA1c]. In 158 our regression models, we presented the therapy as a predictor and HbA1c reduction 159 160 as the dependent outcome. Both univariate models and multivariable models were 161 presented. Multivariable models were adjusted for sex, time on treatment, BMI, waist circumference, triglyceride levels and HbA1c at baseline. Models are presented with 162 163 the step-wise inclusion of variables. Model 1 is univariate (HbA1c reduction), Model 2 is adjusted for sex, BMI, waist circumference and time on treatment, Model 3 is 164 adjusted for sex, BMI, waist circumference, time on treatment, HDL-C and triglycerides 165 and Model 4 is adjusted for sex, BMI, waist circumference, time on treatment, HDL-C, 166 167 triglycerides and baseline HbA1c. We employed two sets of analyses using models 168 described above. In the first analyses set, we demonstrated the within-cluster effect of medications when compared to metformin use. In the second set that was analyzed, 169 we demonstrated the across-clusters effect of a therapy while using those prescribed 170 171 the therapy in MARD as the reference. The second analyses was performed in order to demonstrate the bias in comparing individuals prescribed different therapies, who 172 would intrinsically have differing disease severity.We also examined the HbA1c 173

reduction in response to therapies in the SIDD, IROD and CIRDD clusters in
comparison to the MARD cluster taken as the reference. Models are presented in the
same step-wise method as described above.

177 **Results**

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Among the 32,867 participants included in the study, 20779 (63.2%) were males. The average age at diagnosis was 45 years and the baseline HbA1c was 8.9%. Mean BMI in males and females was 26.7 kg/m² and 28.4 kg/m² respectively,while waist circumference was 94.8 cm in females and 96.6 cm in males. Mean HDL-C and triglycerides were 41 mg/dL and 159 mg/dL respectively.

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Table 1 describes the characteristics of individuals in the various clusters. Forty 185 186 percent of the population belonged to the MARD cluster, followed by 27% who belonged to the IROD cluster, 21% to the SIDD and 12% to the CIRDD clusters. The 187 distribution of other characteristics followed the expected distributions of the clusters 188 in Asian Indians as previously described. The youngest age (36.1 years) of diagnosis 189 was observed in the SIDD cluster, who also had the lowest BMI (23.3 kg/m²) and waist 190 circumference (85.3 cm). The SIDD cluster also had the highest baseline HbA1c 191 (11.2%). Individuals in the IROD cluster had the highest BMI (32.9 kg/m²) and waist 192 193 circumference (108.9 cm), and systolic (130.4 mmHg) and diastolic (81.4 mmHg) 194 blood pressure. The CIRDD cluster represents a combination of characteristics of SIDD and IROD, with a relatively young age of diabetes diagnosis (41.9 years), and 195 high BMI (26.8 kg/m²) and HbA1c (9.4%) at baseline. They also had the lowest HDL-196 197 C and the highest triglycerides (365 mg/dL). The MARD cluster represented the mildest presentation of T2D and had the oldest average age at diagnosis (50.7 years), 198

lowest HbA1c at diagnosis (7.6%), highest HDL-C (43 mg/dL) and lowest triglycerides(139 mg/dL).

The proportion of prescriptions of antihyperglycemic agents is provided in **Table 2**. 201 202 Overall, metformin and sulphonylureas (SU) (in combination followed by singly) were the most commonly prescribed oral antihyperglycemic agents as per our analyses. 203 204 Among the newer agents, dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibitors [DPP4i] were the most frequently used drugs, mostly in combination with metformin. In the SIDD cluster, 205 206 insulin was frequently used with or without oral antidiabetic drugs [OAD](48.4%). This 207 was followed by a combination of metformin and SU (13.7%) and triple therapy of metformin, SU and DPP4i (10.2%). In the IROD cluster, the most frequently prescribed 208 209 medication was a combination of metformin and SU (26.9%), followed by insulin and 210 an oral agent (21.5%). In the CIRDD group, the most common prescription at 211 presentation was a combination of insulin and an oral agent (34.3%), followed by dual 212 therapy of metformin and SU(21.8%), and triple therapy of metformin, SU and DPP4i 213 (19.4%). Finally, in the MARD cluster, the most common prescription was dual therapy of metformin and SU (32.6%), followed by metformin monotherapy (17%). 214

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Table 3 shows the mean difference in HbA1c between baseline and follow-up 216 217 (unadjusted HbA1c response) and the average interval between HbA1c 218 measurements. The treatments used reflect the baseline HbA1c, with insulin being 219 initiated in those with the highest HbA1c. Consistent with this, the greatest absolute reduction with insulin as monotherapy or in combination with oral agents, were found 220 221 in SIDD and CIRDD as compared to IROD and MARD. In the SIDD group, dual therapies with SU/DPP-4i, Metformin/ Sodium-glucose co-transporter-2 inhibitors 222 [SGLT2i], Metformin/thiazolidinediones [TZD] also produced significant reductions in 223

224 HbA1c, while in CIRDD, triple therapy with metformin/SU/TZD and metformin/SU/DPP-4i was associated with greater HbA1c reduction compared to dual 225 therapy. In IROD and MARD, the absolute reductions in HbA1c were lower with all the 226 227 commonly used therapeutic combinations compared to the other clusters, probably on account of the lower baseline HbA1c in these two clusters. The interval between the 228 HbA1c measurements in the various clusters ranged from 4.2 to 7.4 months. 229

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Table 4 shows the multivariable models of HbA1c response in comparison to 231 232 metformin monotherapy within clusters. In the SIDD cluster, use of insulin was associated with greater reductions in HbA1c [13% (7%-18%)when used as 233 234 monotherapy and 15% (10%-20%)in combination with oral agent)] compared to 235 metformin monotherapy even after adjusting for anthropometric measures, duration of treatment and lipid parameters (Model 3). Similarly, monotherapy with SU was 236 associated with a 7% (0.3%-14%) greater reduction, and triple drug therapy with an 237 238 8% (2%-13%) greater reduction in HbA1c compared to metformin monotherapy in the SIDD cluster. 239

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Applying Model 3 to IROD, the insulin treated patients had the greatest reductions in HbA1c, when used as monotherapy 19% (8%-30%) or in combination with oral agent 18% (14%-22%) compared to metformin monotherapy. Combination of metformin and SGLT2i was associated with 7% (1%-15%) greater reduction, and triple drug therapy with 10% (6%-16%) greater reduction in HbA1c in this cluster compared to metformin monotherapy.

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248 The most impressive reductions in HbA1c in the CIRDD cluster were associated with insulin monotherapy [24% (15%-32%) greater reduction in HbA1c compared to 249 metformin monotherapy] and combination of insulin with oral agents [20% (14%-25%) 250 251 greater reduction in HbA1c compared to metformin monotherapy]. Dual therapy with metformin and SU was associated with 11% (6%-17%), and metformin and DPP-4i 252 with 9% (2%-16%) greater reduction in HbA1c in this cluster compared to metformin 253 254 monotherapy, whereas triple drug combinations of metformin and SU with TZD and DPP-4i were associated with 14% (4%-24%) and 12% (6%-18%) greater reductions 255 256 in HbA1c respectively compared to metformin monotherapy.

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In MARD, relative reductions in HbA1c were 5% (1%-9%) or lower for all drug
categories and combinations studied in comparison to metformin monotherapy.

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However, on applying Model 4 and after adjusting for baseline HbA1c, the differences
lost statistical significance across all cluster categories.

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Table 5 shows multivariable models of HbA1c response in comparison with HbA1c response in the MARD cluster. Using MARD as reference, similar results were obtained with insulin showing best reductions of HbA1c in SIDD and CIRDD, secretagogues showing good reduction in SIDD, and CIRDD requiring early use of insulin and combination therapy.

269 Discussion

This study reports on the following findings: Firstly, in this independent cohort dawn from across India, we confirm the four subtypes of T2D namely SIDD, IROD, CIRDD and MARD as discussed in our original paper [9]. Earlier we had done the clustering

273 from a single diabetes clinic in India and the replication was done in a national epidemiological database. Being a cross-sectional study, the latter, despite being 274 representative of India, lacked treatment details. In this study we have replicated our 275 276 findings across 15 diabetes clinics in different parts of India. Secondly, based on observational data from these clinics, we describe, for the first time, patterns of drug 277 prescriptions in new onset T2Din clinics across India. We also attempted to assess 278 279 the relative efficacy of various drug categories across diabetes clusters, although the data were collected retrospectively. 280

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282 The most commonly prescribed therapies in this newly diagnosed population with T2D in India were insulin, metformin, SU and DPP4i. Very few patients were prescribed 283 284 newer antidiabetic agents such as SGLT2i and glucagon like peptide-1 receptor 285 agonists (GLP-1RA). This pattern is similar to that reported in previous studies from India [12,13]. While many of the newer treatment options have been shown to have 286 287 pleiotropic benefits in T2D, the limited use of these agents in India is most likely driven 288 by affordability. It has also been shown even in the US that metformin, SU and insulin continue to be the most frequently used therapies for T2D [14]. However, in countries 289 where patients do not have to pay for drug treatment out of pocket (such as the United 290 Kingdom), newer agents such as DPP-4i and SGLT2i are fast replacing SU as the 291 292 second most commonly prescribed oral antihyperglycemic medication [15]. The familiarity and comfort of the treating physician with tried and tested agents could also 293 be a reason for the continued popularity of these older drugs in India. The fact that 294 295 randomized controlled trials for efficacy of therapeutics are rarely conducted in nonwhite populations could further impact prescribing hesitancy. 296

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298 Currently accepted therapeutic guidelines recommend initial monotherapy with 299 metformin in individuals with T2D, unless the HbA1c is profoundly elevated [16-18]. The choice of second line therapy if metformin alone fails to control hyperglycemia, is 300 301 based on factors such as risk of hypoglycemia, need to avoid weight gain, renal and cardiovascular status and patient affordability and preferences. Studies in European 302 populations suggest that patient phenotype could have a bearing on response to 303 304 antihyperglycemic medications. For instance, it has been shown that individuals with markers of insulin resistance respond poorly to DPP-4i [19]. It has also been 305 306 suggested that men with lower BMI respond better to SU whereas obese women respond better to TZD[20]. However, there is, as yet, little information available as to 307 308 whether the clinical phenotype of the patient would influence the choice of first or 309 second-line pharmacotherapy for T2D in Asian Indians.

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The "Asian Indian phenotype" of T2D is uniquely characterised by young age of onset, occurrence at relatively low BMI, and relatively early onset of beta cell dysfunction [7].A recent meta-analysis has suggested that Asian Indians respond differentially to various classes of antihyperglycemic agents compared to white Caucasians; however, these findings did not consider the heterogeneity in clinical phenotypes among Asian Indians with T2D and was not intended to assess the efficacy of non-metformin therapies as first line agents for T2D [21].

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In their landmark study, Ahlquist et al [2] suggested that, based on the presumed pathophysiology, individuals in different subcategories of T2D could be expected to respond differentially to various classes of antihyperglycemic medications. They postulated that individuals in the "insulin-deficient" clusters were more likely to respond

323 to insulin-providing therapies (including early initiation of exogenous insulin therapy) whereas those in the "insulin resistant" clusters would respond optimally to metformin. 324 They also noted that a significant proportion of individuals were not being prescribed 325 326 phenotype-appropriate medications, potentially leading to suboptimal glycemic control and potentially increased risk of complications. In our study, we found that some 327 clinicians were indeed utilising phenotype-specific treatments in a fair proportion of 328 329 their patients even in the absence of formal subclassification data to guide them. For instance, we find that insulin use was most frequent in the SIDD cluster, the subgroup 330 331 with the most profound insulin deficiency, while use of metformin was highest in the 332 insulin resistant, obese IROD cluster. This is likely because leaner patients tend to be preferentially put on insulin while overweight patients tend to be treated more with 333 334 metformin. However, our results also suggest that there appears to be a large 335 proportion of patients who are not on therapy appropriate to their phenotype and pathophysiology. We believe that knowledge of the subtypes of T2D would enable 336 337 clinicians to fine-tune their management of diabetes so as to treat their patients more precisely and effectively. 338

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As our study is a retrospective analysis of real-world data, our results reflect the 340 341 diabetes management of physicians treating patients as per their clinical needs rather 342 than randomising them to certain therapies as would be the case in a randomised controlled clinical trial. However, our results do provide some interesting clues as to 343 the relative efficacy of different classes of antihyperglycemic agents in the various 344 345 clusters of T2D. For instance, individuals with the insulin deficient SIDD and CIRDD phenotypes, who are younger and have difficult-to-control hyperglycemia, are likely to 346 347 benefit from early initation of insulin and insulin secretagogues and more widespread

348 use of combination therapies as opposed to metformin monotherapy. However, recommendations on cluster-specific management of T2D would need to await the 349 completion of well-designed randomised controlled trials which are being planned. 350 351 The main limitation of our study lies in its retrospective nature. Most of the differences in drug response across clusters are driven by baseline HbA1c, precluding firm 352 conclusions on the relative efficacy of these agents. There could be a small chance of 353 354 including Maturity Onset Diabetes of the Young (MODY) or other types of diabetes 355 as T2D. However, as the overall prevalence of other subtypes is very low, it is unlikely 356 to influence the overall results. Another limitation is that we were unable to account for 357 the effects of lifestyle modification on glycemic response; however, the participants have been recruited from specialist diabetes clinics with standardised treatment 358 protocols, where all participants have been provided with diet and physical activity 359 advice in addition to pharmacotherapy. A third limitation is that we were unable to 360 assess the efficacy of drug categories such as GLP1 receptor agonists, alpha-361 glucosidase inhibitors and (to an extent) SGLT2i, on account of the small number of 362 363 patients prescribed these drugs, perhaps a reflection of the cost of these agents as 364 most patients pay out of pocket for medications in India. The final limitation relates to the varying modes of data collection and standardisation of management across study 365 366 centres; however, the majority of data (n=19002) comes from the electronic medical 367 records of the coordinating centre, which is a single institution with branches all over 368 India following standardized protocols. Data from the other study centres have been collected from manual as well as electronic medical records. However, all the sites 369 follow common management guidelines from the Research Society for the Study of 370 Diabetes in India (RSSDI). 371

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373 Conclusions

In conclusion, our results confirm the four distinct clusters of T2D in a patient 374 population derived from multiple diabetes clinics across India. Our findings suggest 375 376 that traditional antihyperglycemic agents continue to enjoy wide popularity among prescribers in India, while newer agents are yet to gain ground. Identification of distinct 377 phenotypes of T2D (using easily measurable variables) could help clinicians decide 378 379 upon the most effective forms of therapy for the individual patient, an important first step towards precision and personalised diabetes care. Randomised controlled clinical 380 381 trials are necessary to compare the efficiacy of various classes of antihyperglycemic agents in different subtypes of T2D in India. 382

Authors' Contributions: RMA, VM, ERP and MKS conceived the study, and were 383 384 involved in the interpretation of data and wrote the first and subsequent drafts of the manuscript. VM, RMA, VKP, JK, BS, SG, AS, KGS, ND, MC, PC, SD, MB, RC, AN, 385 AG and RK provided data for analysis. SJ, MAK, NKR and MKS were involved in 386 387 statistical analyses. RU, RP, CNAP, ASFD, SRJ, SA and SB were involved in the interpretation of data and provided comments on drafts of the manuscript. All authors 388 contributed to revision of the manuscript and approved the final submitted version. 389 RMA is the guarantor of this work, and as such had full access to all the data in the 390 391 study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data 392 analysis.

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