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PERSPECTIVE

**A new clinical classification of acute myocardial infarction**

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***Running title*** – classification of myocardial infarction

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26 **Abstract**

27 The existence of a universal definition of myocardial infarction – which involves  
28 classification into multiple subtypes – has promoted the use of standard diagnostic  
29 criteria across the world. However, this classification has not been applied consistently  
30 in practice and is perceived by some as too complicated. Where there is diagnostic  
31 uncertainty, patients have worse outcomes. This uncertainty has also impacted on the  
32 validity of the diagnosis of myocardial infarction in clinical trials. To address these  
33 issues and to encourage clinicians to recognise that different mechanisms of myocardial  
34 infarction have differing treatment implications, we propose an alternative clinical  
35 classification for consideration; one that recognises that myocardial infarction can arise  
36 spontaneously, secondary to another condition, or as a complication of a cardiac  
37 procedure. This classification is aligned with clinical practice and proposes more  
38 objective and specific diagnostic criteria that, if agreed by international consensus,  
39 could reduce diagnostic uncertainty in practice and research.

40

41 The accurate diagnosis of acute myocardial infarction is essential to ensure timely treatment  
42 to limit the extent of myocardial injury and prevent complications, such as heart failure or  
43 sudden cardiac death. To standardise the diagnostic criteria for myocardial infarction and  
44 encourage the application of these standards worldwide, the Universal Definition of  
45 Myocardial Infarction was proposed and endorsed by the World Health Organisation and  
46 major national and international cardiac societies (1-3). This has been an important global  
47 effort, but like all scientific and medical standards, it requires regular review and revision as  
48 new evidence emerges.

49  
50 The current definition states that the term ‘acute myocardial infarction’ should be used when  
51 there is acute myocardial injury with clinical evidence of myocardial ischaemia. Several  
52 criteria must be met for a diagnosis of myocardial infarction – including a rise and/or fall in  
53 circulating cardiac troponin with at least one value above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile upper reference  
54 limit – and the 2007 iteration introduced five subtypes of myocardial infarction (2) (**Box 1**).  
55 Finally, the term myocardial injury was introduced to describe any elevation in cardiac  
56 troponin above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile (4), irrespective of whether this is due to ischemic or non-  
57 ischemic mechanisms.

58  
59 Despite the logic of the latest definition of myocardial infarction, this classification has been  
60 perceived by some as too complicated and adoption in clinical practice and in research has  
61 been inconsistent. In this Perspective, we first outline the controversies and challenges that  
62 have arisen in applying the current classification. We then propose an alternative clinical  
63 classification with more objective diagnostic criteria, for consideration by the scientific  
64 community. Lastly, we describe the steps required to achieve a new consensus.

65

66 **Controversies and challenges with the current classification**

67 Some recommendations from the current classification are considered controversial. Type 2  
68 myocardial infarction (**Box 1**) currently encompasses both coronary mechanisms (such as  
69 spontaneous dissection, embolism or vasospasm) and non-coronary mechanisms (resulting  
70 from tachycardia, hypotension, hypoxia or anaemia), the latter of which can occur in patients  
71 with or without underlying coronary artery disease. Different treatments are needed for each  
72 of these scenarios, which has limited the utility of this diagnosis in practice. Furthermore,  
73 there is often uncertainty in how to distinguish type 1 from type 2 myocardial infarction, and  
74 type 2 myocardial infarction from non-ischemic myocardial injury in practice (5). Type 4 and  
75 type 5 myocardial infarction are rarely applied to describe periprocedural complications in  
76 practice and the diagnostic criteria are debated by cardiologists and cardiac surgeons alike —  
77 with disagreement regarding the cut-off values for cardiac troponin elevation and whether  
78 additional evidence of a complication is required (6). The following paragraphs expand on  
79 key factors that have limited adoption and generated uncertainty.

80  
81 First, the classical description of ischemic symptoms was derived from studies dominated by  
82 patients with type 1 myocardial infarction. Studies have shown that classical symptoms (chest  
83 pain radiating to the jaw, neck, back, arm or shoulder) are less common in patients with type  
84 2 than in those with type 1 myocardial infarction (7). Dyspnoea is a particularly challenging  
85 symptom in this context as it is common and has both ischemic and non-ischemic causes.  
86 Furthermore, patients with type 2 myocardial infarction usually have other symptoms due the  
87 condition triggering oxygen supply-demand imbalance, making it even more difficult to  
88 determine whether symptoms are caused by myocardial ischemia.

89

90 Second, while electrocardiographic findings of ST-segment elevation or depression strongly  
91 indicate an acute coronary event (such as type 1 or type 2 myocardial infarction due to  
92 coronary causes), other less-specific changes on the electrocardiogram (or no changes at all)  
93 are also common in both myocardial infarction and acute myocardial injury (8).

94  
95 Third, elevation in circulating cardiac troponin is a prerequisite for the diagnosis of  
96 myocardial infarction. However, recent research has not only challenged the concept that  
97 elevation of cardiac troponin always represents cardiomyocyte death (9), but also that cardiac  
98 troponin elevation in the context of myocardial ischemia always represents necrosis (10). The  
99 introduction of high-sensitivity cardiac troponin assays has enabled earlier diagnosis (11), but  
100 has decreased the specificity of cardiac troponin for myocardial infarction (8). Furthermore,  
101 elevation in cardiac troponin is an inevitable consequence of cardiac surgery (12,13) and is  
102 common and often asymptomatic following coronary intervention (14). As such, the  
103 diagnostic threshold for myocardial infarction following coronary intervention and cardiac  
104 surgery is arbitrarily set at greater than 5- and 10-times the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile upper reference  
105 limit, respectively (4).

106  
107 Fourth, it is not possible to distinguish type 1 from type 2 myocardial infarction due to  
108 dissection, spasm or embolism without performing coronary angiography. If angiography is  
109 not performed, patients with coronary causes of type 2 will almost certainly be classified  
110 incorrectly as type 1 myocardial infarction. Similarly, since coronary angiography is seldom  
111 performed in patients thought to have type 2 myocardial infarction (8, 15-17), an unknown  
112 proportion will actually have had a type 1 myocardial infarction.

113

114 Finally, in the current classification, evidence of imbalance between myocardial oxygen  
115 supply or demand is a prerequisite for a diagnosis of type 2 myocardial infarction, which  
116 means that an underlying trigger must be identified. Sometimes the trigger is obvious, but  
117 often the mechanism is unclear. The ischemic threshold will vary in relation to the duration  
118 and magnitude of supply-demand imbalance, and the extent and severity of underlying  
119 coronary artery disease (18). The current classification even allows for the diagnosis of type 2  
120 myocardial infarction to be made in patients without coronary artery disease, despite this  
121 being the hallmark of acute myocardial infarction for more than a century (19) and one of the  
122 main determinants of long-term prognosis (20).

123

124 These uncertainties arise every day in clinical practice and have important consequences for  
125 patient care. Where there is diagnostic uncertainty, patients have worse outcomes (21). Many  
126 patients fulfilling the criteria for type 2 myocardial infarction are not classified as such in  
127 practice as the diagnosis is not considered important by some clinicians (22). Whilst there is a  
128 wealth of evidence to guide how patients with type 1 myocardial infarction should be  
129 managed, there is no evidence or agreement on how patients with type 2 myocardial  
130 infarction or acute myocardial injury should be managed and no studies demonstrating that  
131 recognition of these conditions has improved outcomes (23). The current classification is  
132 perceived by some as too complicated and has resulted in a lack of agreement even among  
133 experts. As such, the classification has been used and interpreted in different ways in the  
134 development of early diagnostic pathways (24-27) and in clinical trials of coronary  
135 revascularisation (28), making it difficult to compare findings between studies.

136

137 **A new clinical classification of myocardial infarction**

138 To address these uncertainties and encourage clinicians to recognise that there are different  
139 mechanisms of myocardial infarction with differing treatment implications, we propose a  
140 simplified clinical classification that recognises myocardial infarction can arise in three  
141 clinical settings: spontaneously, secondary to another acute condition, or as a procedural  
142 complication following percutaneous intervention or cardiac surgery (**Figure 1**). To increase  
143 adoption in practice we propose diagnostic criteria that are more specific, less reliant on  
144 symptoms and electrocardiographic changes, and more aligned with clinical practice (**Table**  
145 **1**).

146  
147 For the diagnosis of spontaneous myocardial infarction, the definition needs to be as sensitive  
148 as possible, as failure to recognise an acute coronary syndrome may delay the initiation of  
149 treatment resulting in a more substantial myocardial infarction with ventricular impairment or  
150 cardiac death in the community. In contrast, for secondary or procedural myocardial  
151 infarction, the diagnostic criteria should be more specific to minimise uncertainty, as cardiac  
152 troponin elevation is common in these settings. Here, the diagnosis of myocardial infarction  
153 should identify patients in whom there are clear treatment implications. The classification of  
154 type 3 myocardial infarction (per the current definition) would become obsolete. If a patient  
155 died suddenly from what was thought to be myocardial infarction prior to undergoing testing,  
156 this would be classified as spontaneous, secondary, or procedural myocardial infarction  
157 depending on the setting.

158

### 159 **Spontaneous myocardial infarction**

160 In patients with the spontaneous onset of symptoms or signs suspicious of myocardial  
161 ischemia, treatment is initiated on the assumption that atherothrombosis is the underlying  
162 mechanism — and in the majority, this assumption is correct. However, there are other



163 causes of spontaneous presentation with myocardial infarction, including coronary dissection,  
164 embolism, and vasospasm; or late stent thrombosis, restenosis and late graft failure in those  
165 with prior revascularisation (29). In practice, clinicians should be encouraged to identify the  
166 underlying coronary mechanism through angiography with or without adjunctive  
167 intravascular imaging, and to tailor subsequent treatment accordingly.

168  
169 The terms ST-segment elevation and non-ST-segment elevation for spontaneous myocardial  
170 infarction will remain useful to stratify patients at presentation and to indicate the timing of  
171 coronary angiography. However, they are less useful to guide subsequent management than a  
172 classification identifying the underlying coronary mechanism, as proposed here. In some  
173 settings where the patient does not have ongoing symptoms or ST-segment elevation it may  
174 be reasonable to treat for atherothrombosis without performing coronary angiography,  
175 particularly if the risks of an invasive procedure are prohibitive or in healthcare settings  
176 where access is limited, and especially if there is a high clinical likelihood this is the  
177 underlying mechanism. In younger patients without traditional cardiovascular risk factors or  
178 in those with prior revascularisation, alternative coronary mechanisms of spontaneous  
179 myocardial infarction may be more likely and coronary angiography should be encouraged.  
180 Irrespective of the coronary mechanism, the definition of spontaneous myocardial infarction  
181 should prioritise sensitivity; therefore, clear symptoms or signs of myocardial ischemia with a  
182 rise and/or fall in cardiac troponin above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile upper reference limit may be  
183 sufficient to make the diagnosis, and further imaging evidence of infarction may not be  
184 required. However, if no coronary mechanism is evident following coronary angiography,  
185 echocardiography or cardiac magnetic resonance imaging should be considered to clarify the  
186 diagnosis or identify alternative causes of the presentation and acute myocardial injury, such  
187 as takotsubo cardiomyopathy or myocarditis.

188

189 **Secondary myocardial infarction**

190 In patients with symptoms or signs that are suspicious of myocardial ischemia secondary to  
191 another acute illness resulting in myocardial oxygen supply-demand imbalance, the initial  
192 priority is to manage the acute illness. Cardiac troponin testing in acute illness identifies a  
193 substantial proportion of patients with myocardial injury of uncertain cause or significance  
194 (30). In this setting, specificity rather than sensitivity is important, and the diagnosis of  
195 secondary myocardial infarction is likely to be better accepted by clinicians and patients if  
196 injury was associated with functional consequences. The diagnosis of secondary myocardial  
197 infarction should require the identification of new loss of viable myocardium or a regional  
198 wall motion abnormality on echocardiography or cardiac magnetic resonance imaging. This  
199 is one of several possible criteria for a diagnosis of myocardial infarction in the existing  
200 universal definition (4), but it should be essential for the diagnosis of secondary myocardial  
201 infarction. The only exception would be where myocardial ischemia or myocardial injury in  
202 the context of another acute illness unmasks the presence of obstructive coronary artery  
203 disease on invasive or computed tomography coronary angiography (18, 31). In both these  
204 circumstances, the diagnosis of secondary myocardial infarction would have treatment  
205 implications as secondary prevention, medical therapy or coronary revascularisation may  
206 prevent recurrent symptoms and future cardiovascular events. However, most patients with  
207 supply-demand imbalance will have neither new loss of viable myocardium nor obstructive  
208 coronary artery disease. Here the term acute myocardial injury is a good description – similar  
209 to acute kidney or liver injury – with prognostic implications, which should stimulate further  
210 investigation but not be considered a definitive diagnosis.

211

212 **Procedural myocardial infarction**

Commented [KO1]: We reserve 'significant' for the statistical context; if this is not the case here, please rephrase (eg to 'substantial')

Commented [BL2R1]: ok

213 The use of more sensitive diagnostic criteria for procedural myocardial infarction proposed in  
214 the universal definition, has not been embraced by practitioners or applied in clinical trials of  
215 coronary revascularisation (6). In defining a procedural complication, specificity is more  
216 important than sensitivity. The diagnosis of myocardial infarction is appropriate in patients  
217 with an overt complication of coronary intervention or cardiac surgery, or in those where the  
218 complication is less obvious but new left ventricular impairment or loss of viable  
219 myocardium with a regional wall motion abnormality is identified. Coronary complications  
220 following percutaneous coronary intervention are usually self-evident, but following cardiac  
221 surgery, echocardiography to identify unrecognized procedural myocardial infarction should  
222 be systematically performed in the post-operative period. Procedural myocardial infarction  
223 defined in this way is important as it gives direct insight into the effectiveness of  
224 revascularisation and may have treatment implications. Acute or subacute stent thrombosis  
225 and early graft failure within 30 days are recognised complications of revascularization and  
226 should be classified as procedural myocardial infarction (32). In contrast, late stent or graft  
227 failure is often a consequence of *de novo* disease or non-compliance with anti-platelet therapy  
228 and therefore should be classified as spontaneous myocardial infarction rather than a  
229 procedural complication. Myocardial injury following a cardiac procedure has been  
230 associated with poor prognosis in some studies (12), and could be used to support the  
231 evaluation of quality of care, but alone it should not be considered a complication unless a  
232 coronary mechanism or new regional wall motion abnormality or ventricular impairment is  
233 identified on cardiac imaging.

234

#### 235 **Knowledge gaps and potential limitations**

236 We acknowledge that further research is needed to evaluate the potential impact of this  
237 proposed new definition of myocardial infarction on patient care and healthcare utilisation.

238 This could take advantage of existing clinical datasets from well characterised patient  
239 populations to retrospectively compare the current classification with the proposed clinical  
240 classification. However, prospective studies will also be needed, in which cardiac imaging is  
241 performed systematically. Also, there are potential limitations of the proposed classification  
242 that merit consideration.

243

244 First, although the proposal aims to simplify the classification of myocardial infarction and  
245 remove the need for an alpha numeric subclassification that clinicians will not remember or  
246 apply, we recognise the importance of identifying the different coronary mechanisms of  
247 spontaneous myocardial infarction. The majority of patients with spontaneous myocardial  
248 infarction will have atherothrombosis and will receive a diagnosis of ‘myocardial infarction  
249 due to atherothrombosis’ or simply ‘myocardial infarction’ in practice. However, where  
250 spontaneous myocardial infarction is a consequence of an alternative coronary mechanism,  
251 the final diagnosis would identify this, for example ‘myocardial infarction due to coronary  
252 embolism’ or ‘myocardial infarction due to late stent thrombosis’.

253

254 Second, we recognise that for a diagnosis of secondary myocardial infarction, it may be  
255 challenging to determine whether a regional wall motion abnormality on imaging is old or  
256 new. Where a patient is known to have coronary artery disease or previous myocardial  
257 infarction, then comparison with previous imaging may be helpful. Where there is no prior  
258 history, then the identification of any regional wall motion abnormality is important and  
259 would have therapeutic implications. Whilst often it is possible to differentiate an acute from  
260 chronic infarct pattern on echocardiography or magnetic resonance imaging (based on  
261 thinning of the myocardium or the presence of oedema), some clinical judgement will be  
262 required.

263

264 Third, by defining more specific and objective criteria for the diagnosis for secondary  
265 myocardial infarction, we do not wish to undermine the importance of recognising those with  
266 acute myocardial injury. We hope that our proposal will encourage the use of cardiac imaging  
267 in this setting and improve the care and outcomes of patients with and without secondary  
268 myocardial infarction. Whilst imaging may rule out secondary myocardial infarction, it could  
269 identify other important clinical diagnoses, such as heart failure or pulmonary embolism, or it  
270 could identify patients with unobstructive coronary artery disease in whom the use of  
271 secondary prevention may be beneficial.

272

### 273 **Future directions**

274 This proposal is based on new research and our clinical observations; however, we  
275 acknowledge that any change in practice will require a new international consensus as  
276 changes to the current universal definition would have important implications for clinicians,  
277 coders, researchers and clinical trialists. A new global task force will need to be convened  
278 with input from a broad range of stakeholders including both patients and practicing  
279 clinicians across a range of specialties, in addition to expertise in cardiac biomarkers,  
280 coronary intervention, cardiac surgery, clinical trials, and international registries. Greater  
281 diversity and wider representation are needed if we are to achieve consensus on the need for a  
282 more applied classification.

283

284 Once international consensus has been reached, it would be important to propose additional  
285 supplementary codes beyond the primary classification within the eleventh revision of the  
286 International Classification of Diseases (ICD-11). These supplementary codes would enable  
287 standard hospital coding for the different mechanisms of spontaneous myocardial infarction

288 (e.g., BA82 for coronary artery dissection, BA85 for coronary vasospasm and others),  
289 secondary myocardial infarction, and procedural myocardial infarction following  
290 percutaneous intervention and cardiac surgery. These should be published in parallel to the  
291 consensus statement and combined with educational initiatives, as well as a systematic  
292 evaluation of the impact of implementation of a new classification of myocardial infarction  
293 on patients and healthcare systems.

294

295 **Conclusion**

296 The classification of myocardial infarction is important for patients, practice, and research.  
297 We propose a new approach that prioritises sensitivity for patients with spontaneous coronary  
298 events, and specificity for those with oxygen supply-demand imbalance secondary to other  
299 conditions, or complications from coronary intervention or cardiac surgery. We argue that  
300 such an approach may encourage adoption in practice and improve patient care, and we  
301 encourage research and debate with the goal of a new international consensus.

302 **Contributors**

303 BL and NLM drafted and revised the manuscript critically for important intellectual content,  
304 provided approval of the final version to be published and are accountable for the work.

305

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310

311 **Declaration of interests**

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473 **Box 1. The current standard: Universal definition of myocardial infarction.**

474

475 The diagnosis requires a rise and/or fall in cardiac troponin with at least one value above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile upper reference limit and any one of  
476 the following: symptoms of myocardial ischemia, new ischemic changes on the electrocardiogram, imaging evidence of new loss of viable  
477 myocardium or the identification of thrombosis on coronary angiography.

478

479 Type 1 myocardial infarction is limited to patients with coronary atherothrombosis and is specified when plaque rupture or erosion results in  
480 partial or complete coronary occlusion, myocardial ischemia and necrosis. Type 2 myocardial infarction identifies patients where myocardial  
481 ischemia and necrosis occur as a consequence of an imbalance between myocardial oxygen supply or demand unrelated to coronary  
482 atherothrombosis. Type 3 myocardial infarction is defined as cardiac death where myocardial infarction is the likely cause, but the death  
483 occurred before diagnostic testing could be performed. The classification was further updated in the third and fourth iterations (3-4), introducing  
484 additional subgroups following percutaneous coronary intervention (type 4 a), stent or scaffold thrombosis (type 4b) or in-stent restenosis (type  
485 4c), and to refine the criteria for myocardial infarction following cardiac surgery (type 5).

486

**Table. Diagnostic Criteria for the Universal Definition and the Proposed Clinical Classification of Myocardial Infarction**

Universal Definition	Proposed Clinical Definition	Rationale for change
<p><b>Type 1 myocardial infarction</b></p> <p>Sensitivity prioritised, with the diagnosis based on a rise and or fall in cardiac troponin above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile with symptoms or signs of myocardial ischemia.</p> <p>Restricted to coronary atherothrombosis</p>	<p><b>Spontaneous myocardial infarction</b></p> <p>Sensitivity prioritised, with the diagnosis based on a rise and or fall in cardiac troponin above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile with symptoms or signs of myocardial ischemia.</p> <p>Criteria broadened to include all acute coronary events: atherothrombosis, embolism, vasospasm, in-stent restenosis, late stent thrombosis and late graft failure.</p>	<p>Sensitivity is important to minimise the risk of misdiagnosis of all acute coronary mechanisms of myocardial infarction, not just those due to atherothrombosis.</p> <p>Late stent and graft failure are often spontaneous due to <i>de novo</i> disease rather than procedural complications.</p>
<p><b>Type 2 myocardial infarction</b></p> <p>Sensitivity prioritised, with the diagnosis based on a rise and or fall in cardiac troponin above the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile with symptoms or signs of myocardial ischemia.</p> <p>Documentation of myocardial oxygen supply or demand imbalance is required, which includes spontaneous coronary dissection, embolism, and vasospasm, and those with other conditions without coronary artery disease.</p>	<p><b>Secondary myocardial infarction</b></p> <p>Specificity prioritised, with the diagnosis based on loss of viable myocardium or new regional wall motion abnormality, or the presence of obstructive coronary artery disease.</p> <p>Can occur in any acute illness where myocardial oxygen supply or demand imbalance could arise, but must have a functional consequence or unmask obstructive coronary artery disease.</p>	<p>Symptoms and signs of myocardial ischemia are challenging to differentiate from those due to a primary condition. Myocardial injury is common and may be caused by many different mechanisms.</p> <p>Diagnostic criteria should be more specific to minimise uncertainty and identify patients in whom the diagnosis has clear treatment implications.</p>



<p><b>Type 3 myocardial infarction</b></p> <p>Cardiac death where myocardial infarction is the likely cause, but death occurs before diagnostic testing is performed.</p>	<p>No longer required.</p>	<p>No utility in clinical practice and death from myocardial infarction can occur due to multiple mechanisms prior to testing.</p>
<p><b>Type 4 a-c myocardial infarction</b></p> <p>Type 4a is based on an arbitrary elevation in cardiac troponin greater than 5-times the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile if there are signs of myocardial ischemia, imaging evidence of new loss of viable myocardium or angiographic evidence of a procedural complication within 48 hours.</p> <p>Type 4b due to stent thrombosis and type 4c due to restenosis can occur any time after the procedure. The same diagnostic criteria are applied as for type 1 myocardial infarction.</p>	<p><b>Procedural myocardial infarction</b></p> <p>Specificity prioritised, with diagnosis requiring angiographic evidence of a complication of coronary intervention or cardiac surgery and new left ventricular impairment, loss of viable myocardium or a regional wall motion abnormality.</p> <p>Definition broadened to include any stent or graft failure within 30 days of the procedure.</p>	<p>Cardiac troponin thresholds not evidence based and testing not performed in clinical practice following coronary intervention or cardiac surgery.</p> <p>Captures all clinically important failure of coronary revascularisation within 30 days. Late stent or graft failure not considered complications of revascularisation.</p>
<p><b>Type 5 myocardial infarction</b></p> <p>Diagnosis based on an arbitrary elevation in cardiac troponin concentration greater than 10-times the 99<sup>th</sup> percentile if new pathological Q-waves, imaging evidence of new loss of viable myocardium OR angiographic evidence of a graft occlusion within 48 hours.</p>		<p>Addresses inconsistencies between the criteria for diagnosing myocardial infarction following coronary intervention and cardiac surgery, allowing a fairer comparison of outcomes between approaches.</p>

490 **Figure legend**

491

492 **Figure 1. Proposal for a clinical classification of acute myocardial infarction**

493 (A) Spontaneous myocardial infarction: whilst the initial impression is often confirmed following coronary angiography or echocardiography,  
494 other conditions can present similarly. If no coronary mechanism is evident, echocardiography or cardiac magnetic resonance imaging may be  
495 required to identify alternative causes of acute myocardial injury, such as takotsubo cardiomyopathy or myocarditis. (B) Secondary myocardial  
496 infarction: the diagnosis of secondary myocardial infarction due to an alternative condition requires evidence of a new regional wall motion  
497 abnormality or left ventricular impairment on echocardiography, or evidence of loss of viable myocardium on magnetic resonance imaging, or  
498 the presence of obstructive coronary artery disease on invasive or computed tomography coronary angiography. Patients with acute myocardial  
499 injury in this setting for whom secondary myocardial infarction is thought unlikely or has been excluded, may benefit from cardiac imaging to  
500 identify other non-ischemic structural heart diseases unmasked by acute illness. (C) Procedural myocardial infarction: Coronary complications  
501 following percutaneous coronary intervention are usually self-evident, but following cardiac surgery routine echocardiography to recognise  
502 asymptomatic procedural myocardial infarction should be performed in the post-operative period.