

Imaging or Not During Left Main Stenting

Do we need a randomized trial?

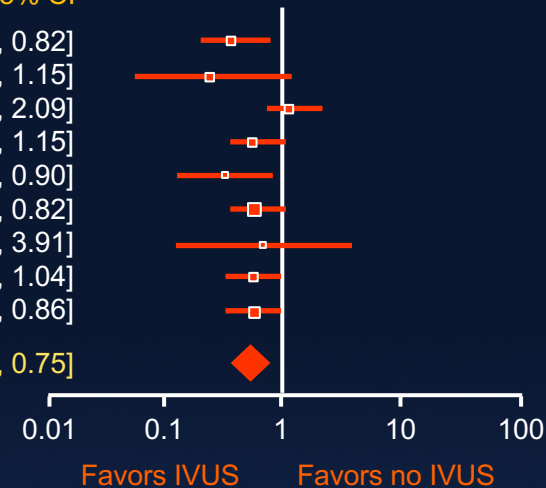
Gary S. Mintz, MD

Cardiovascular Research Foundation

Meta-Analysis of 10 LMCA DES Studies

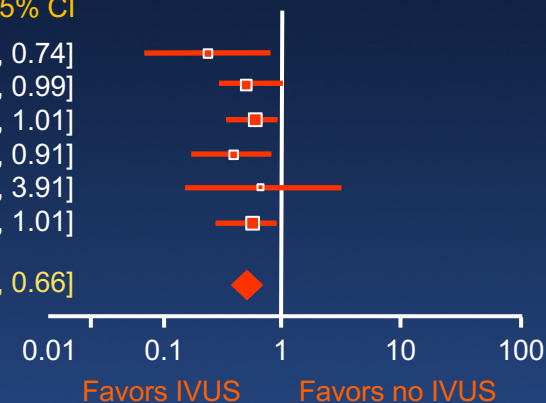
All cause mortality

Study or Subgroup	IVUS guided		Angiography guided		Risk Ratio
	Events	Total	Events	Total	Random 95% CI
Park et al. 2009	9	145	23	145	0.39 [0.19, 0.82]
Kinoshita et al. 2010	2	228	8	226	0.25 [0.05, 1.15]
Jama et al. 2011	18	111	25	184	1.19 [0.68, 2.09]
Narbute et al. 2012	13	294	47	671	0.63 [0.35, 1.15]
Park et al. 2012	5	90	15	92	0.34 [0.13, 0.90]
De La Torre Hernandez et al. 2014	37	505	66	505	0.56 [0.38, 0.82]
Tan et al. 2015	2	61	3	62	0.68 [0.12, 3.91]
Tang et al. 2016	16	713	45	1186	0.59 [0.34, 1.04]
Andell et al. 2017	37	340	63	340	0.59 [0.40, 0.86]
Total (95% CI)	139	2487	295	3411	0.60 [0.47, 0.75]



Cardiac mortality

Study or Subgroup	IVUS guided		Angiography guided		Risk Ratio
	Events	Total	Events	Total	Random 95% CI
Park et al. 2009	2	90	12	92	0.17 [0.04, 0.74]
Narbute et al. 2012	9	294	42	671	0.49 [0.24, 0.99]
De La Torre Hernandez et al. 2014	17	505	30	505	0.57 [0.32, 1.01]
Gao et al. 2014	5	291	15	291	0.33 [0.12, 0.91]
Tan et al. 2015	2	61	3	62	0.68 [0.12, 3.91]
Tang et al. 2016	9	713	31	1186	0.48 [0.23, 1.01]
Total (95% CI)	44	1954	133	2807	0.47 [0.33, 0.66]



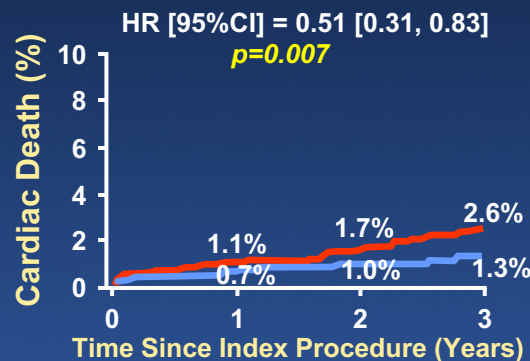
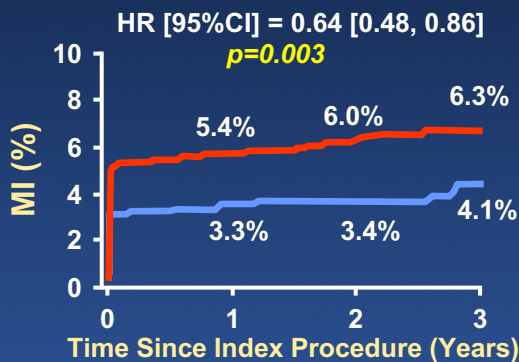
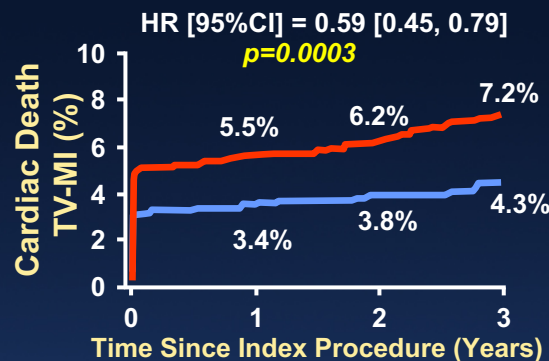
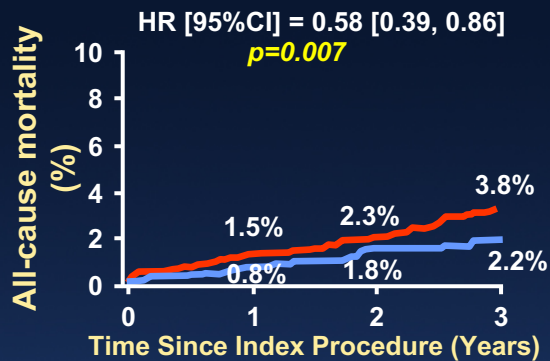
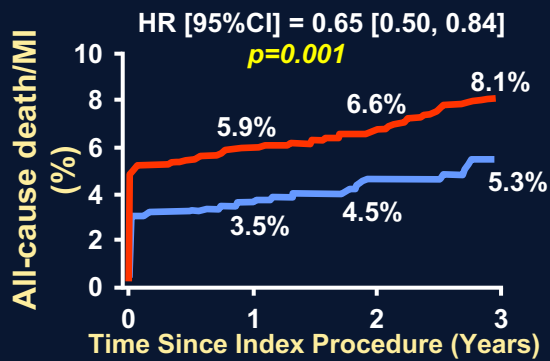
2° Outcome	# Studies	IVUS	Angio	RR	95% CI	P-value
MI	7	114/1916	181/2465	0.80	0.61– 1.06	0.12
TVR	6	147/1972	191/2445	0.89	0.66– 1.20	0.44
TLR	3	18/442	43/445	0.43	0.25– 0.73	0.002
ST	4	7/1197	37/1198	0.28	0.12– 0.67	0.004

Single-center analysis of a 1,016 pt cohort

	IVUS	No IVUS	P
Overall	337	679	
Cardiac death	1.8%	6.2%	0.002
STEMI	1.2%	3.4%	0.004
TLR	2.4%	9.4%	<0.001
Stent thrombosis	0.6%	2.7%	0.026
MACE	14.8%	27.2%	<0.001
Propensity Score Matched	291	291	
Cardiac death	12.4%	15.1%	0.023
STEMI	1.0%	3.4%	0.05
TLR	2.7%	8.2%	0.004
Stent thrombosis	0.3%	2.4%	0.075
MACE	16.2%	24.4%	0.014

9% ostial disease, 4.5% body disease, 20% whole trunk disease, 54% isolated distal bifurcation disease; multivessel disease in 55%; CTO in 27% (>1 CTO in 5%)

IVUS vs angiography-guided 1899 LMCA PCI at FuWai Hospital (12% ostial, 7% shaft, 81% distal bifurcation; 7% isolated LMCA disease)

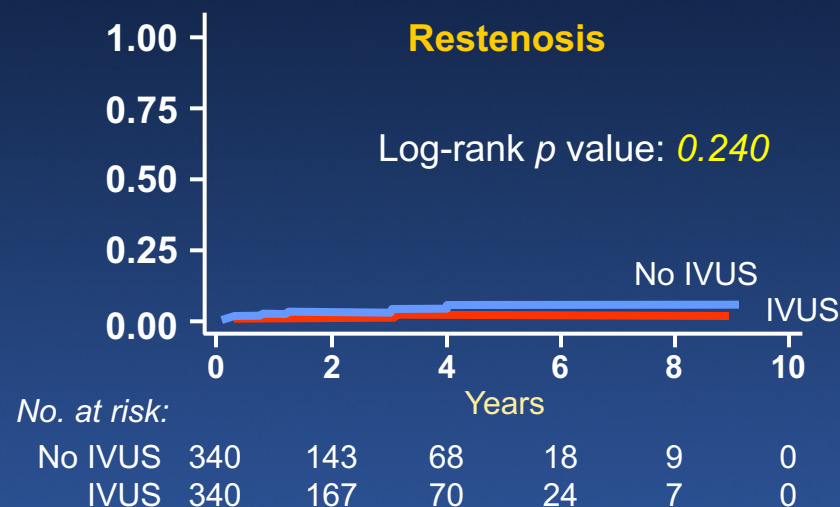
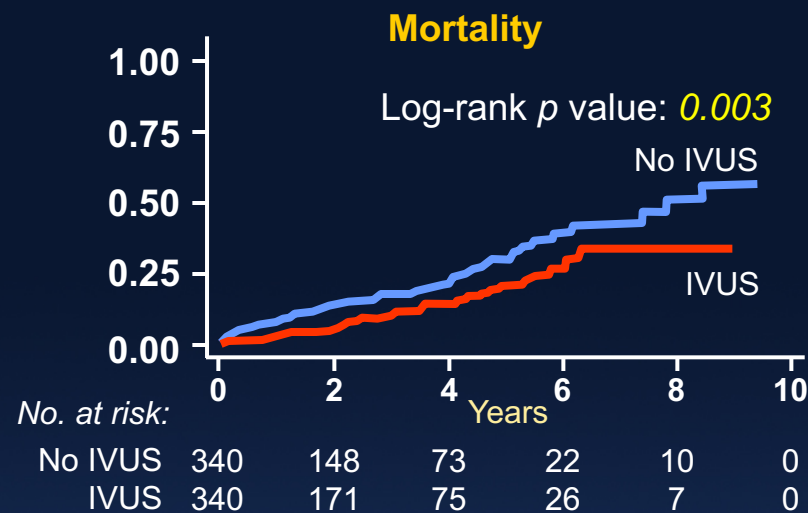
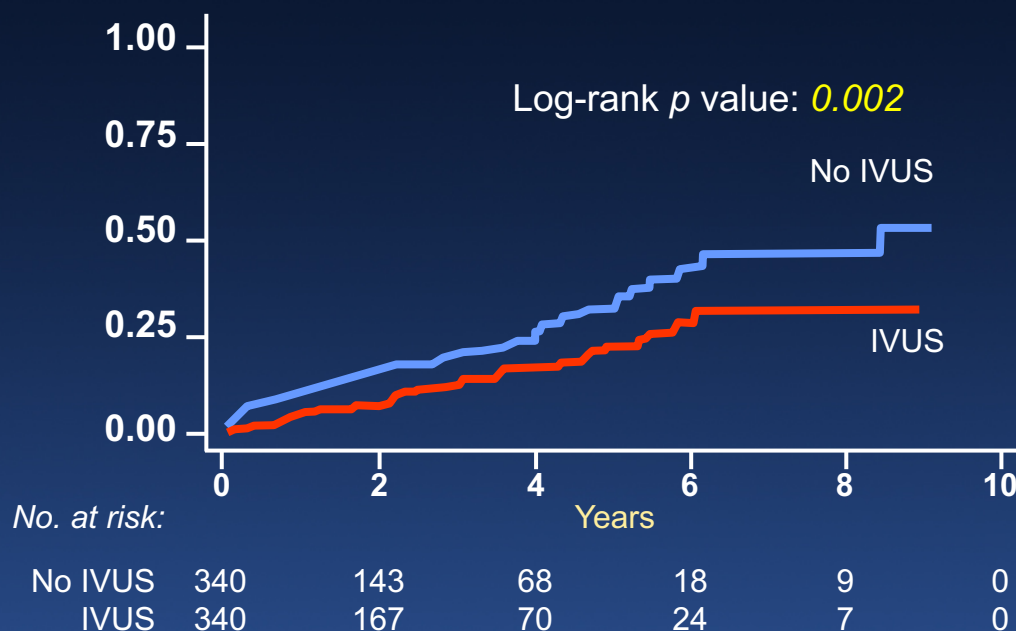


— IVUS Guidance — Angiography Guidance

After adjustment of baseline covariates, the trimmed-IPW model indicated good predictive value (C-statistic 0.78); and 99% of all pts (n=1880) could be entered into the final analysis.

Long-term clinical outcomes comparing IVUS-guided vs angiography-guided stent implantation for LMCA lesions: SCAAR Registry 2005-2014

Primary Composite Endpoint (Mortality, Restenosis, Definite ST)



IVUS-guided LM PCI with DES vs a propensity score-matched group of pts treated without IVUS guidance from 4 Spanish registries

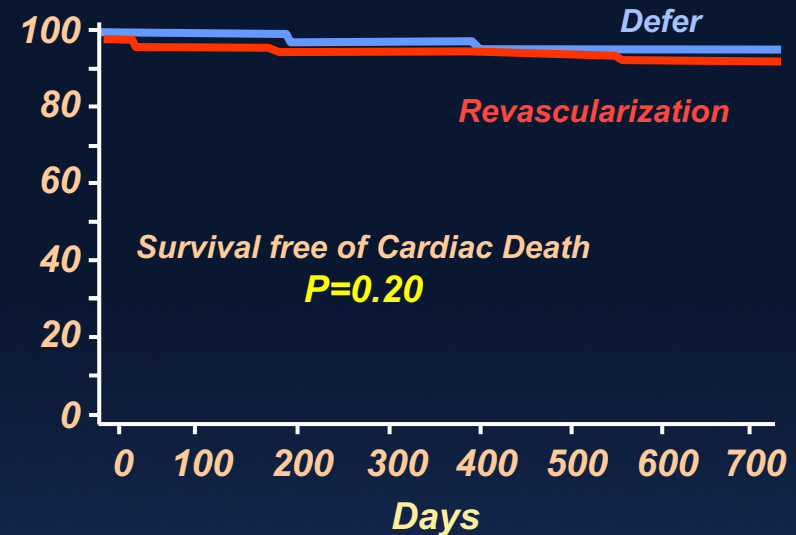
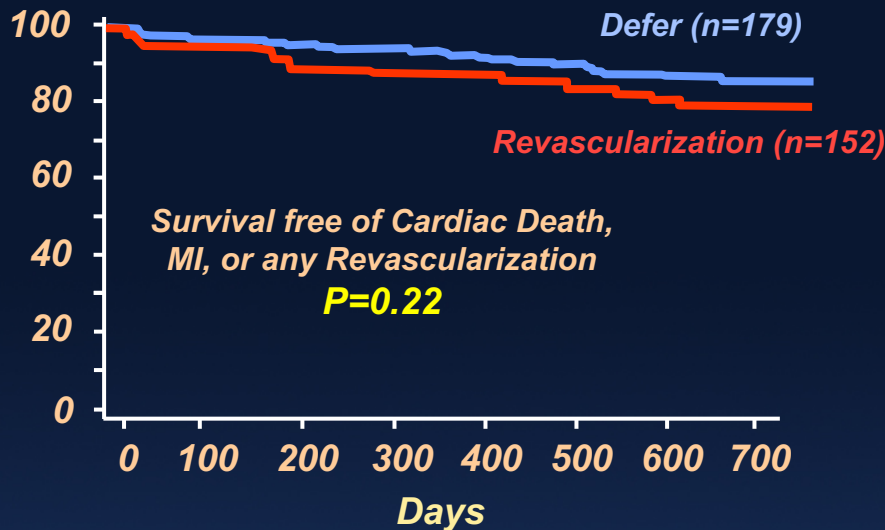
	IVUS	No IVUS	P
Overall	505	505	
Death	7.4%	13.0#	0.01
Cardiac death	3.3%	6.0%	0.07
MI	4.5%	6.5%	0.4
TLR	7.7%	6.3%	0.7
Death+MI+TLR	14.4%	22.2%	0.006
Cardiac death+MI+TLR	11.7%	16.0%	0.04
Definite/probable ST	0.6%	2.2%	0.04
Distal lesions	221	226	
Cardiac death+MI+TLR	11.0%	19.0%	0.03
Distal lesions - 2 stents	63	62	
Cardiac death+MI+TLR	16.7%	41.0%	0.02

Independent predictors of adverse events

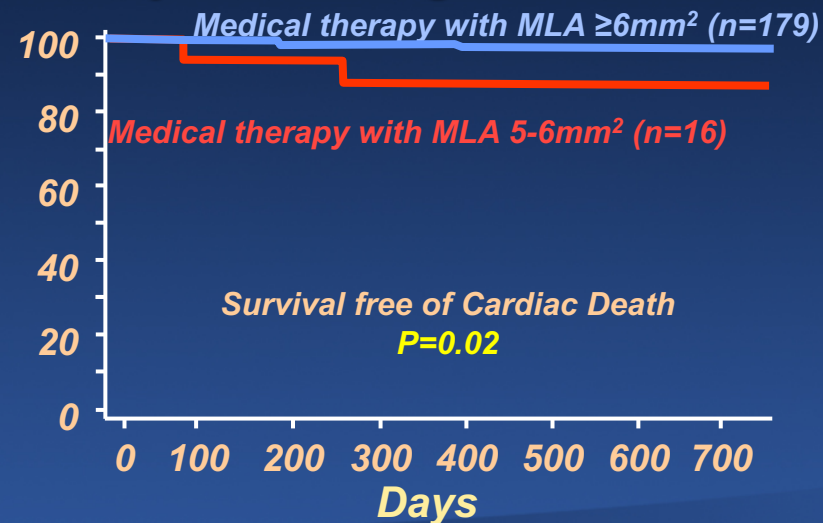
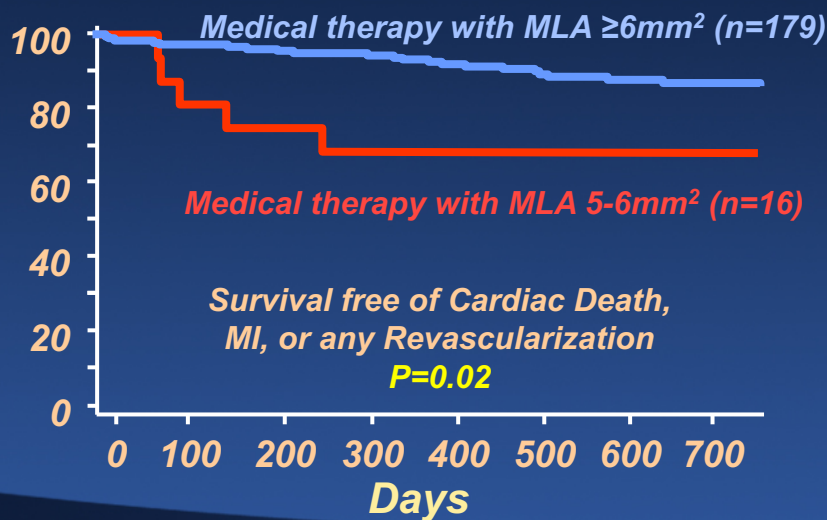
	HR	95% CI	P
Overall			
IVUS	0.7	0.52-0.99	0.04
Age	1.03	1.01-1.05	0.0001
LVEF	0.98	0.97-0.99	0.01
Diabetes mellitus	1.81	1.32-2.47	0.0002
Distal LM – 2 stents	2.23	1.44-3.48	0.0004
ACS	1.84	1.30-2.60	0.0006
Distal LM disease			
IVUS	0.54	0.34-0.90	0.02
Age	1.02	1.00-1.05	0.02
Diabetes mellitus	1.62	1.02-2.59	0.04
Distal LM – 2 stents	2.86	1.71-4.77	0.0001
ACS	1.95	1.14-3.31	0.01

Comprehensive use of imaging in LMCA PCI

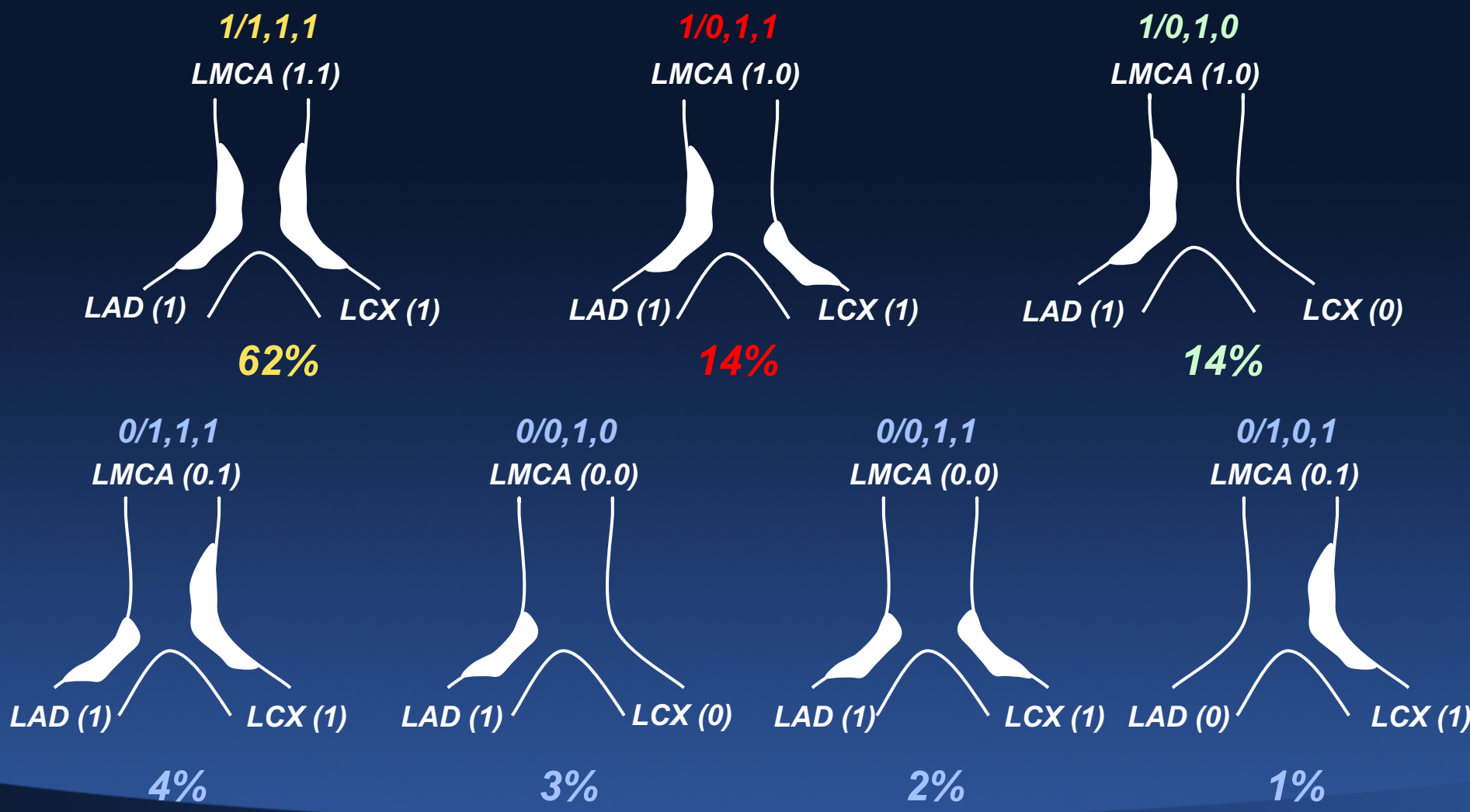
Outcomes in 179 pts with an IVUS MLA $>6\text{mm}^2$ managed medically vs 152 pts with an IVUS MLA $<6\text{mm}^2$ managed with CABG or PCI



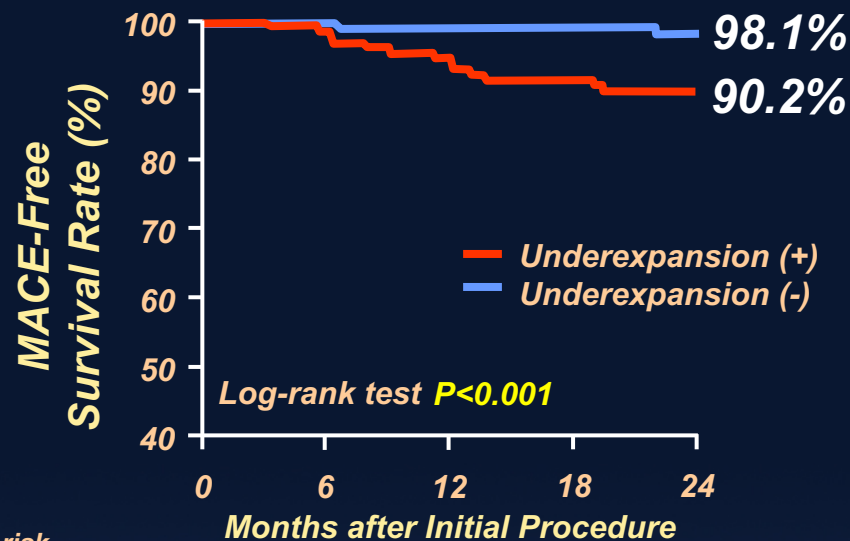
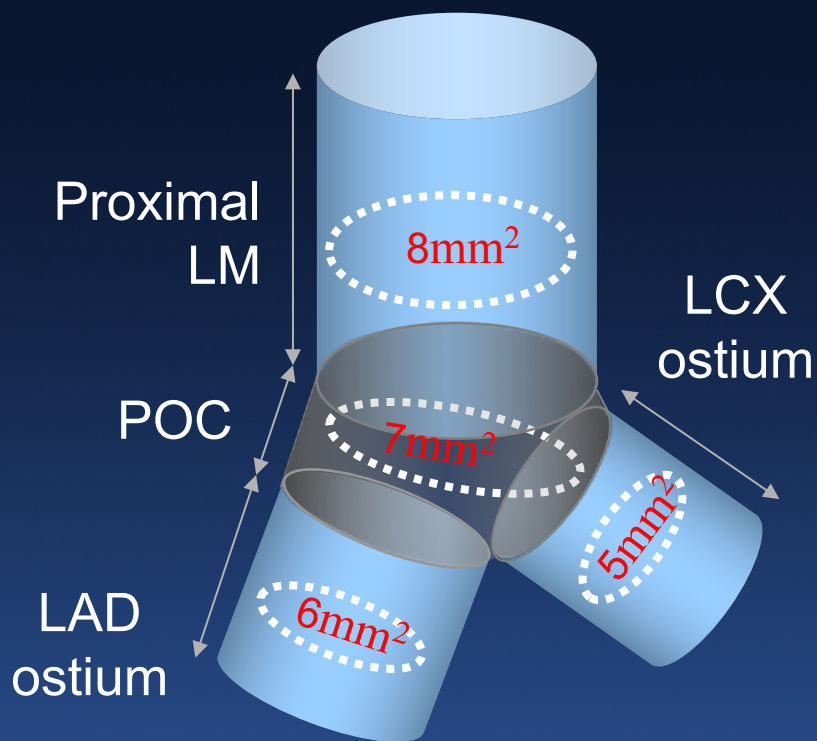
Clinical Outcome of Pts Treated Medically According to MLA



IVUS plaque distribution in 140 distal LMCA bifurcation lesions – same patterns seen regardless of the Medina classification

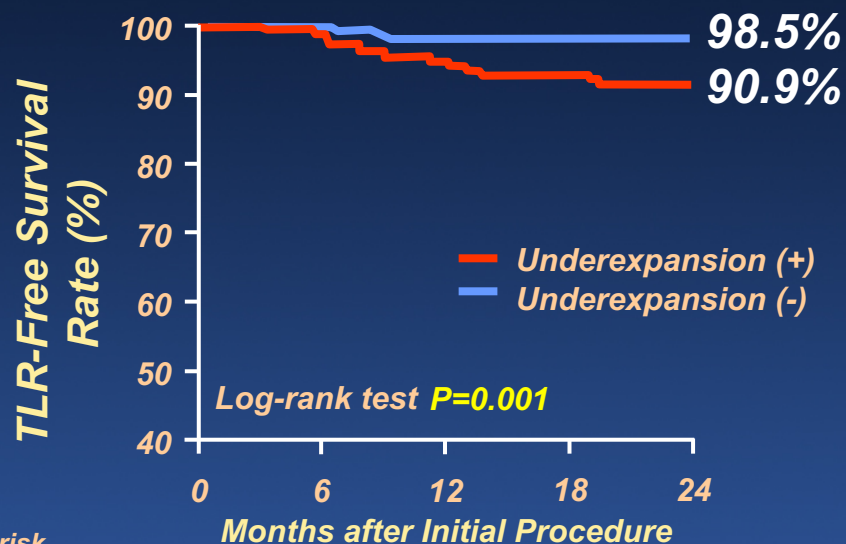


Criteria for LMCA stent underexpansion (n=403)



No. at risk

	0	6	12	18	24
Underexpansion (+)	133	131	126	121	75
Underexpansion (-)	260	260	255	246	129



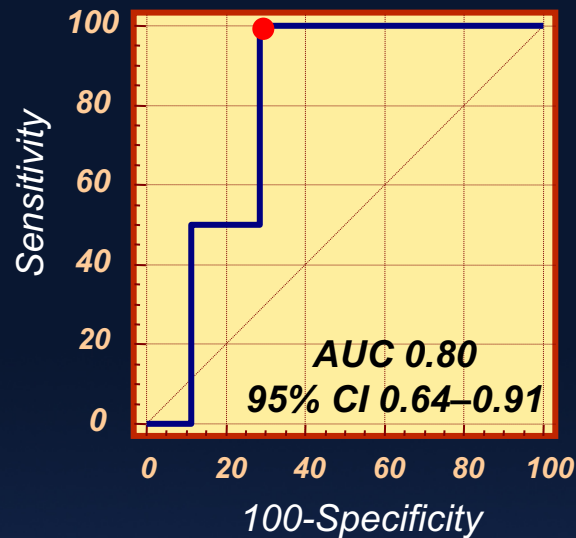
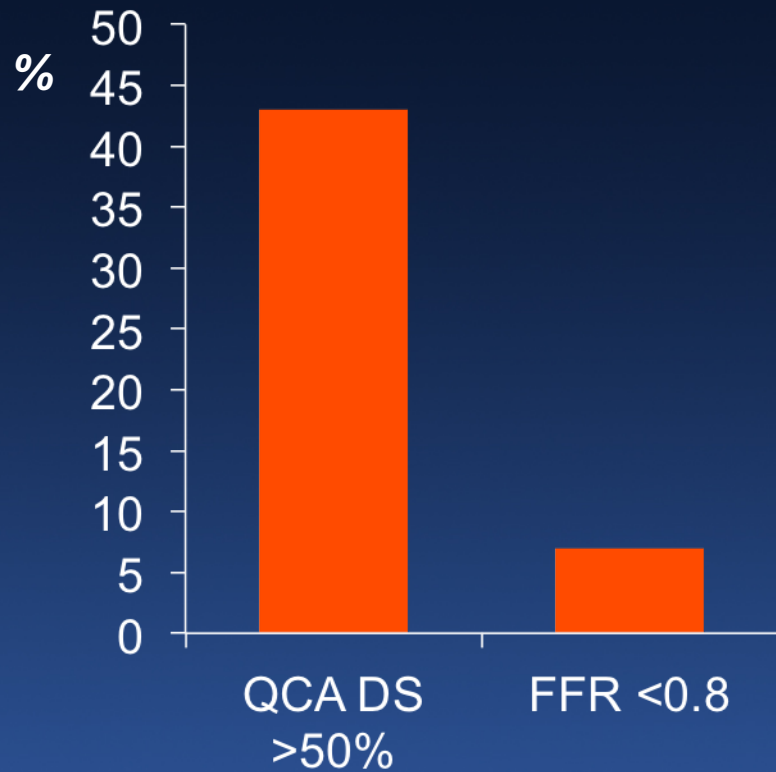
No. at risk

	0	6	12	18	24
Underexpansion (+)	133	131	126	121	75
Underexpansion (-)	260	260	255	246	129

Stent Coverage of the Ostium in 199 LMCA treated with DES

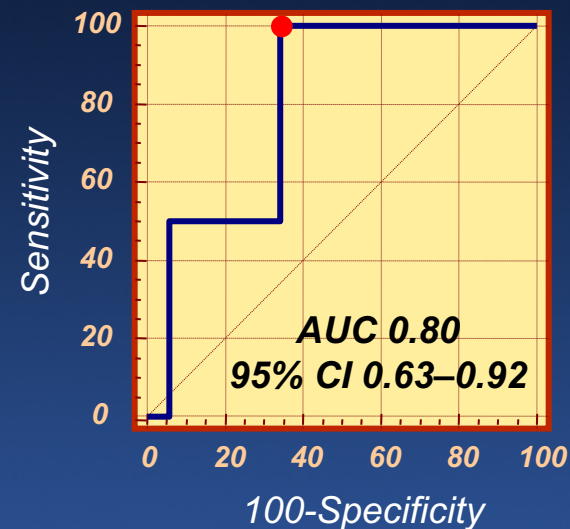
- **Strut protrusion into the aorta was seen in 68%, with a protrusion length of 3.4 ± 1.7 mm**
- **Incomplete stent coverage of the ostium was seen in 23%, with a length of uncovered ostial segment of 2.3 ± 1.3 mm and a residual plaque burden of 38 ± 12 %**
- **Acute malapposition was seen in 18.8%**
- **Only 1.2% of LMCA developed ostial restenosis; this was not related to strut protrusion or ostial coverage or acute malapposition**

43 LMCA bifurcation lesions with a pre-PCI LCX ostial DS<50% were treated by single-stent cross-over



MLA <3.7mm²

- Sensitivity 100%
- Specificity 71%
- PPV 16%
- NPV 100%

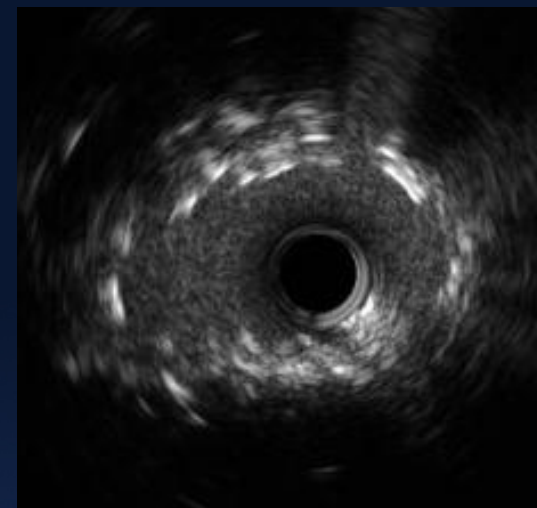


Plaque Burden >56%

- Sensitivity 100%
- Specificity 65%
- PPV 14%
- NPV 100%

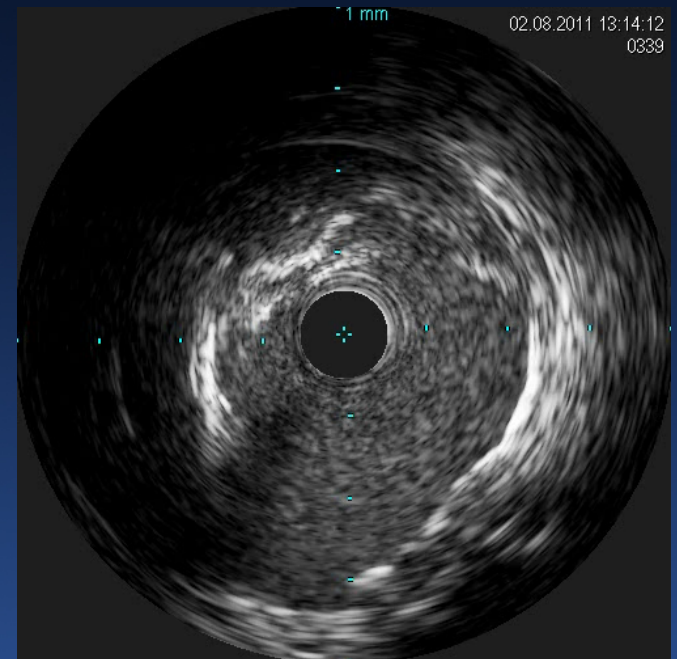
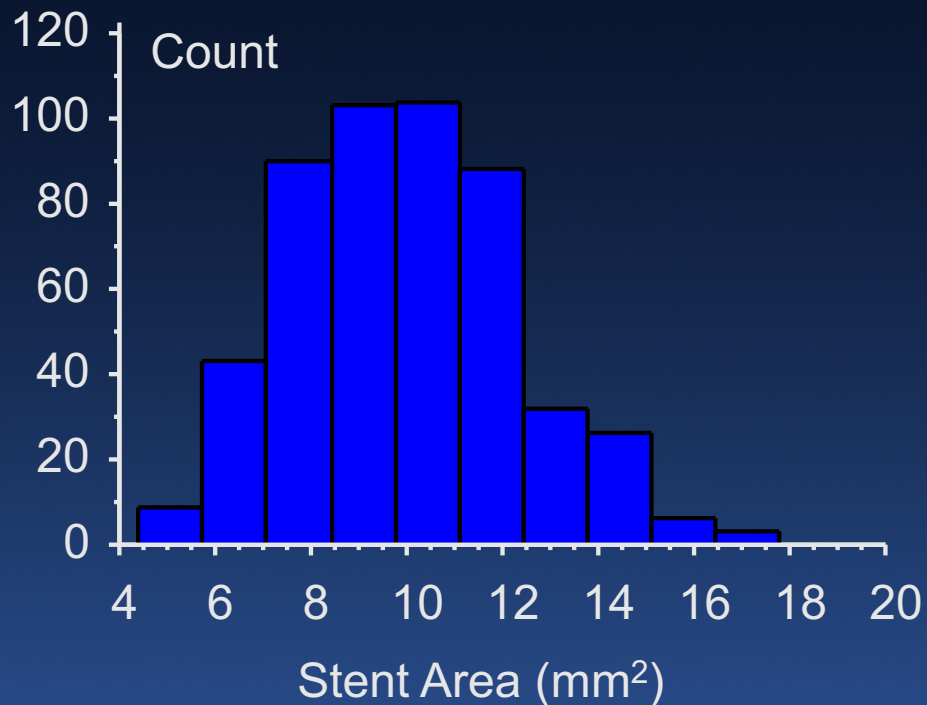
Stent Deformation in EXCEL

- Multiple overlapping strut layers within a single stent accompanied by stent shortening.
- Observed in 33 pts (6.6%) and was most commonly located at the LMCA ostium (27/33 [81.8%])



	Deformation	No Deformation	P value
3-yr LMCA-related events	HR [95%CI] = 2.15 [1.05, 4.40], p=0.04		
Cardiac death/MI/IDR	28.3%	13.9%	0.02
- Cardiac death	9.4%	3.6%	0.08
- MI	18.9%	4.7%	0.0005
- Ischemia-driven TLR	19.9%	8.0%	0.02
Definite/probable ST	3.1%	1.1%	0.29

Despite prescribing the “Kang criteria” for optimal stent expansion, this was frequently not achieved



Lessons from Non-LMCA studies

A CLINICAL TRIAL COMPARING THREE ANTITHROMBOTIC-DRUG REGIMENS AFTER CORONARY-ARTERY STENTING

A CLINICAL TRIAL COMPARING THREE ANTITHROMBOTIC-DRUG REGIMENS AFTER CORONARY-ARTERY STENTING

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ABSTRACT

Background Antithrombotic drugs are used after coronary-artery stenting to prevent stent thrombosis. We compared the efficacy and safety of three antithrombotic-drug regimens — aspirin alone, aspirin and warfarin, and aspirin and ticlopidine — after coronary stenting.

Methods Of 1965 patients who underwent coronary stenting at 50 centers, 1653 (84.1 percent) met angiographic criteria for successful placement of the stent and were randomly assigned to one of three regimens: aspirin alone (557 patients), aspirin and warfarin (550 patients), or aspirin and ticlopidine (546 patients). All clinical events reflecting stent thrombosis were included in the prespecified primary end point: death, revascularization of the target lesion, angiographically evident thrombosis, or myocardial infarction within 30 days.

Results The primary end point was observed in 38 patients: 20 (3.6 percent) assigned to receive aspirin alone, 15 (2.7 percent) assigned to receive aspirin and warfarin, and 3 (0.5 percent) assigned to receive aspirin and ticlopidine ($P=0.001$ for the comparison of all three groups). Hemorrhagic complications occurred in 10 patients (1.8 percent) who received aspirin alone, 34 (6.2 percent) who received aspirin and warfarin, and 30 (5.5 percent) who received aspirin and ticlopidine ($P<0.001$ for the comparison of all three groups); the incidence of vascular surgical complications was 0.4 percent (2 patients), 2.0 percent (11 patients), and 2.0 percent (11 patients), respectively ($P=0.02$). There were no significant differences in the incidence of neutropenia or thrombocytopenia (overall incidence, 0.3 percent) among the three treatment groups.

Conclusions As compared with aspirin alone and a combination of aspirin and warfarin, treatment with aspirin and ticlopidine resulted in a lower rate of stent thrombosis, although there were more hemorrhagic complications than with aspirin alone. After coronary stenting, aspirin and ticlopidine should be considered for the prevention of the serious complication of stent thrombosis. (N Engl J Med 1998;339:1665-71.)

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THE implantation of coronary stents has become a major form of revascularization therapy for coronary artery disease. In early clinical trials,¹ there were high rates of stent thrombosis (approaching 20 percent), leading to the adoption of an antiplatelet and anticoagulant regimen that included intravenous low-molecular-weight dextran, oral aspirin and dipyridamol, and intravenous

heparin followed by oral warfarin. The incorporation of this aggressive antithrombotic treatment strategy in subsequent randomized clinical trials²⁻⁴ reduced the risk of acute and subacute stent thrombosis to approximately 3.5 percent. However, as compared with conventional balloon angioplasty, stenting with aggressive antithrombotic-drug therapy doubled the length of hospitalization (from three to six days) and increased the rate of hemorrhagic and vascular complications from 3 to 4 percent to 7 to 13 percent.^{2,5}

More recently, registry data have demonstrated that the risk of stent thrombosis can be further reduced by the use of a combination of high-pressure, balloon-expandable stents and antithrombotic therapy with aspirin and ticlopidine.⁶⁻⁸ A single-center, randomized trial also demonstrated the superiority of aspirin and ticlopidine over aspirin and warfarin for the prevention of stent thrombosis in high-risk patients.⁹ Moreover, a single-center registry and one small, randomized trial suggested that aspirin alone might be adequate for the prevention of stent thrombosis.^{10,11} There has also been concern about the possibility of neutropenia and thrombocytopenia in association with ticlopidine therapy.¹² We compared the 30-day clinical outcomes for three antithrombotic-drug regimens — aspirin alone, aspirin and warfarin, and aspirin and ticlopidine — after elective coronary-artery stenting.

METHODS

Objectives and Design of the Study and Selection of Patients

The primary objective was to compare the incidence of stent thrombosis in patients with single-vessel or multivessel disease of native coronary arteries who were successfully treated with a high-pressure, balloon-expandable stent at 1 of 50 centers in the United States and who were then randomly assigned to receive one of three antithrombotic-drug regimens. The implantation of a Palmaz-Schatz stent (Cordis, Warren, N.J.) was considered to

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*Other members of the Stent Anticoagulation Restenosis Study are listed in the Appendix.

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Final Results of the Can Routine Ultrasound Influence Stent Expansion (CRUISE) Study

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Background—Intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) can assess stent geometry more accurately than angiography. Several studies have demonstrated that the degree of stent expansion as measured by IVUS directly correlated to clinical outcome. However, it is unclear if routine ultrasound guidance of stent implantation improves clinical outcome as compared with angiographic guidance alone.

Methods and Results—The CRUISE (Can Routine Ultrasound Influence Stent Expansion) study, a multicenter study IVUS substudy of the Stent Anti-thrombotic Regimen Study, was designed to assess the impact of IVUS on stent deployment in the high-pressure era. Nine centers were prospectively assigned to stent deployment with the use of ultrasound guidance and 7 centers to angiographic guidance alone with documentary (blinded) IVUS at the conclusion of the procedure. A total of 525 patients were enrolled with completed quantitative coronary angiography, quantitative coronary ultrasound, and clinical events adjudicated at 9 months for 499 patients. The IVUS-guided group had a larger minimal lumen diameter (2.9 ± 0.4 versus 2.7 ± 0.5 mm, $P<0.001$) by quantitative coronary angiography and a larger minimal stent area (7.78 ± 1.72 versus 7.06 ± 2.13 mm², $P<0.001$) by quantitative coronary ultrasound. Target vessel revascularization, defined as clinically driven repeat interventional or surgical therapy of the index vessel at 9 month-follow-up, occurred significantly less frequently in the IVUS-guided group (8.5% versus 15.3%, $P<0.05$; relative reduction of 44%).

Conclusions—These data suggest that ultrasound guidance of stent implantation may result in more effective stent expansion compared with angiographic guidance alone. (Circulation. 2000;102:523-530.)

Key Words: stents ■ coronary disease ■ ultrasonics ■ angiography ■ restenosis

Coronary stenting has evolved into the most common catheter-based treatment of coronary artery disease.¹⁻³ Early in the clinical experience with stenting, intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) played a key role in refining appropriate stent deployment strategies. IVUS studies demonstrated that incomplete deployment of stents occurred in up to 80% of patients at nominal pressures (8 to 12 atm). This insight helped usher in the use of high pressure (>12 atm) techniques and emphasized the need for careful attention to maximizing target segment expansion.

The role of IVUS in the current, high-pressure era of stenting has not been clearly defined. Several studies have shown that

IVUS is more accurate than angiography in determining in-stent dimensions and is better able to detect subtle findings such as incomplete apposition of the stent to the vessel wall and dissections at the stent margins.⁴⁻⁹ Recently, several single-center studies have demonstrated that the IVUS measurement of minimal stent area (MSA) is the single most powerful predictor of long-term patency and clinical outcome.¹⁰⁻¹³ No previous study, however, has directly addressed whether IVUS-guided stenting leads to improved results than stenting with angiographic guidance alone.

The CRUISE study (Can Routine Ultrasound Influence Stent Expansion) was designed to compare IVUS-guided

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523

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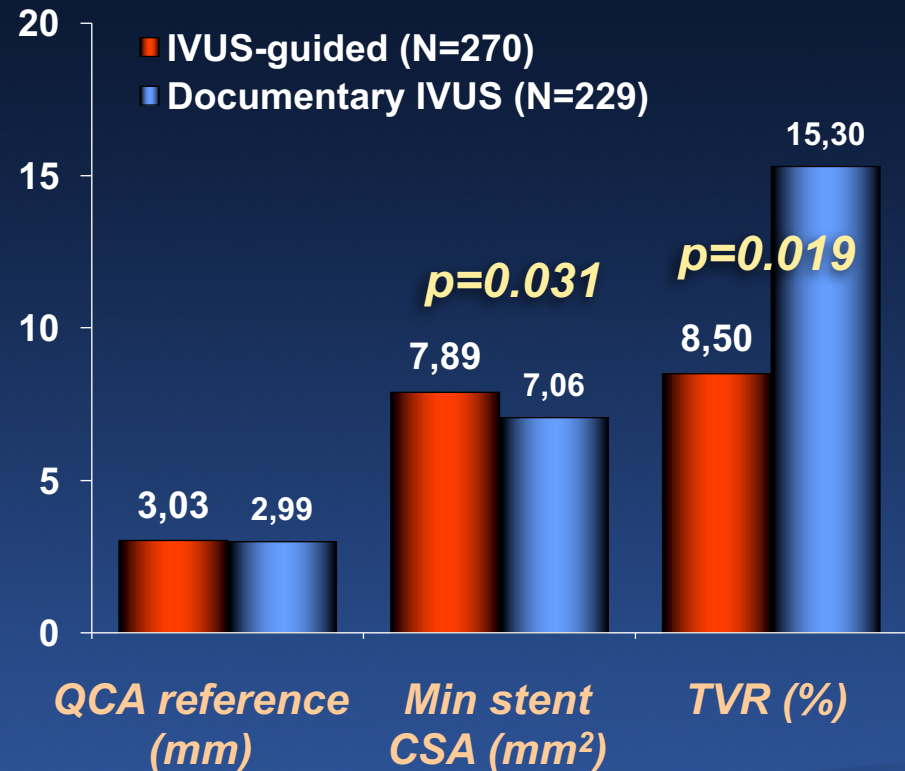
CRUISE

(Can Routine Ultrasound Impact Stent Expansion)

Study was designed to deal with the conundrum of a RCT in which experienced IVUS users approach angio-guided PCI with a different mindset and “eye” vs inexperienced IVUS users who (1) do not know how to use the IVUS information and/or (2) might improve their angio-guided PCI results based on the IVUS experience acquired during the trial

By choice, STARS sites opted for:

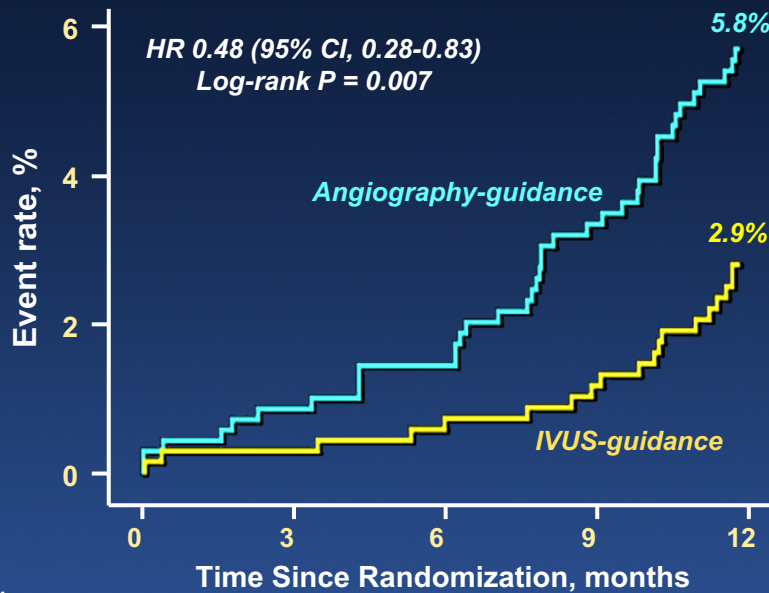
- IVUS-guided stenting (N=270)*
- Angiographically-guided stenting with documentary (binded) IVUS (N=229)*
- Angiographically-guided stenting without IVUS*



Effect of IVUS- vs. Angiography-Guided Everolimus-Eluting Stent Implantation:

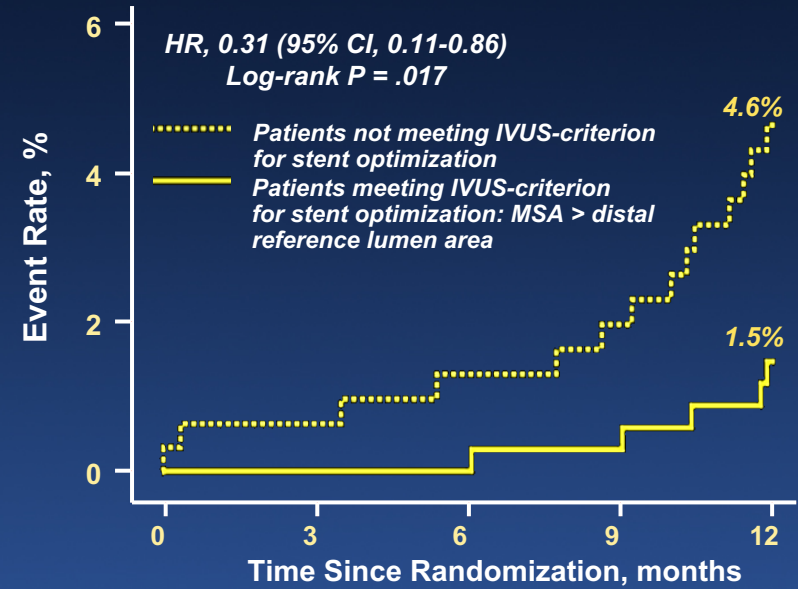
The 1400 pt IVUS-XPL Randomized Clinical Trial in which (1) the same >28mm EES stent was used in all pts and (2) there was minimal cross-over between groups

Primary End Point – Intention-to-Treat Analysis



No. at risk	0	3	6	9	12
Angiography arm	700	673	660	643	624
IVUS arm	700	671	665	654	641

IVUS-guided acute optimization was reached in only half



No. at risk	0	3	6	9	12
Not meeting criteria	315	299	297	394	285
Meeting criteria	363	362	345	338	334

Issues to consider in a randomized trial of imaging vs angiography guided LMCA PCI

- Extent of disease
 - Isolated LMCA
 - Multivessel disease
 - Concomitant CTO(s)
- IVUS or OCT or “either (operator preference)”
- Pre-intervention imaging? If so, just the main branch or both main and side branches?
- PCI Strategy and Optimization
 - Definition
 - Need to “control” imaging arm to ensure optimization
- Site selection
 - Experienced vs novice imagers
 - Need to “control” image interpretation competency in the cath lab – measurements, stent deformation, etc
- Study endpoints

We are in the “business” of collecting data, doing trials, and writing papers. Therefore, the automatic response to any question is “we need more data” or “we need a randomized trial.”

But first, we should stop to ask ourselves. . .

What is the question that we want to answer?

Do we already know the answer?

Will a randomized trial make a difference – especially, in terms of clinical practice?

Randomized Trials

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