

EDITORIAL COMMENT

Fine Tuning Risk Stratification for Atrial Fibrillation*

Richard W. Troughton, MB CHB, PhD,[†]
Ian Crozier, MD[‡]

Christchurch, New Zealand

Most clinicians would like to be able to accurately estimate the risk of adverse outcomes, especially if this information could guide management or treatment decisions to lower the risk for an individual. In the case of atrial fibrillation (AF), the most common cardiac arrhythmia, more accurate prediction of its most feared and disabling complication—stroke—remains a major focus (1,2). This issue is pertinent as AF is increasing in prevalence and will affect 1 in 4 men and 1 in 6 women during their lifetime (3–8). Hospitalization for AF is also increasing, with >360,000 admissions annually in the United States for a first AF episode and >2 million admissions for any listing of AF (9–12). AF causes 15% of all strokes and is also associated with a 50% increase in mortality for men and a near doubling of mortality for women compared with matched subjects without AF (12–15).

See page 2274

Risk scores for predicting stroke in the setting of AF have generally been based on clinical variables that are readily available for most individuals (1,16,17). The CHADS₂ score was derived and first validated in 2001 and is based on a history of congestive heart failure, hypertension, age ≥75 years and older, diabetes, and previous stroke (16). It is a simple and widely validated risk score that is endorsed by many guidelines, which more recently have advocated anticoagulation for a CHADS₂ score ≥1, based on demonstration of benefit from anticoagulation in this context (16,18,19). As with any simple score, the CHADS₂ score has limitations, including that it takes no account of the independent risk of stroke conferred by age older than 65 years and female sex (1,16). The CHA₂DS₂VASc score

validated in 2009, includes these additional risk factors for stroke and provides extra weighting for age older than 75 years (17). As a consequence, it appears to discriminate very low risk more accurately than CHADS₂ score. Some guidelines have therefore moved toward recommending the CHA₂DS₂VASc score to guide decision making about anticoagulation (20).

Despite their utility and widespread application to define thresholds of stroke risk and to guide anticoagulation for AF, clinical risk scores provide relatively modest overall performance as predictors of stroke (1). When assessed by receiver-operating characteristic analysis, the area under the curve (AUC) for prediction of the risk of stroke by a clinical score is generally 0.6 at best, where an AUC of 1.0 would represent perfect discrimination of events and an AUC of 0.5 is no better than chance for a dichotomous outcome. The strength of clinical risk scores is that low risk values (CHADS₂ score of 0, CHA₂DS₂VASc score of 0 to 1) provide very good sensitivity and negative predictive value for stroke, which is helpful for defining thresholds for anticoagulation, but at the cost of poor specificity and overall accuracy (21). As a result, risk scores provide weak discrimination of stroke risk for some individuals, particularly those with intermediate or high scores (1).

Clinical risk scores can potentially be refined by considering additional indices (1). A range of biomarkers that reflect pathophysiological processes relevant to AF and stroke also provide independent risk prediction when added to clinical risk scores (2). These include markers of thrombosis (von Willebrand factor, D-dimer), renal function (creatinine clearance, proteinuria), myocardial necrosis (troponins), and the natriuretic peptides (N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide [NT-proBNP], BNP) (1,2). The natriuretic peptides, which are powerful markers of risk in the setting of heart failure and acute coronary syndromes, are potentially helpful markers in the setting of AF (22). Secreted from cardiomyocytes, BNP and NT-proBNP levels in plasma reflect left ventricular size, function, and filling pressures, but also renal function, age, and sex, all of which may modify stroke risk in AF (22). Levels of BNP/NT-proBNP are also higher in subjects with AF than in matched subjects in sinus rhythm, and levels fall after cardioversion, presumably reflecting changes in atrial function and pressure (2,23). BNP or NT-proBNP can be easily measured using validated assays that are widely available, which makes them appealing candidates for adjunctive risk markers (22).

In this issue of the *Journal*, Hijazi et al. (24) provide some important insights into the value of NT-proBNP measurements for risk prediction in the setting of AF (24). Their statistically powerful dataset based on a large cohort of 14,892 patients with at least 1 risk factor for stroke and enrolled in the ARISTOTLE trial provides definitive estimates of the incremental value of NT-proBNP levels over clinical risk scores alone for the prediction of adverse events. It is important to note that all participants in the

*Editorials published in the *Journal of the American College of Cardiology* reflect the views of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of JACC or the American College of Cardiology.

From the [†]Christchurch Heart Institute, University of Otago, Christchurch, New Zealand; and the [‡]Christchurch Hospital, Christchurch, New Zealand. Dr. Troughton has received honoraria from Roche Diagnostics. Dr. Crozier is an investigator for St. Jude Medical and Cameron Health.

ARISTOTLE trial were receiving anticoagulation, either apixaban or warfarin, according to a randomization schedule. In their report, NT-proBNP levels were higher in subjects with persistent or permanent AF compared with paroxysmal AF. There was an increased risk of stroke/systemic embolism (SE) or of cardiac death with increasing quartiles of NT-proBNP, with an increase in hazard ratios of at least 2.3 times for these events for patients in the highest quartile compared with the lowest quartile. Notably, patients in the lowest quartile of NT-proBNP levels had very low stroke/SE rates ($\leq 1\%$) regardless of CHA₂DS₂VASc score. Clinical risk scores were modest predictors of stroke/SE and of important events including death or other vascular events. NT-proBNP levels significantly improved the prediction of all events compared with risk scores alone. Despite this, overall discrimination remained relatively weak, with AUC improved by NT-proBNP from 0.626 (for the CHA₂DS₂VASc score alone) to 0.646 for prediction of stroke/SE. There was a more impressive increase in AUC from 0.59 to 0.69 with NT-proBNP for the prediction of cardiac deaths. The latter is consistent with NT-proBNP's predictive power for cardiac or all-cause mortality in other settings including heart failure or acute coronary syndromes (22). Consideration of NT-proBNP levels led to more accurate classification of risk. NT-proBNP level more accurately classified patients destined to experience stroke/SE and more accurately excluded patients who later died during follow-up. Importantly, there was no interaction

between NT-proBNP level and the treatment effect of apixaban versus warfarin, nor was there any interaction between NT-proBNP and major bleeding risk.

The RE-LY study investigators also recently reported findings from a similar analysis (25). They measured NT-proBNP levels in 6,189 participants in the RE-LY study. Although confidence intervals are wider in the RE-LY study analyses, reflecting the smaller population compared with that of the ARISTOTLE substudy, the findings are remarkably concordant between the 2 studies with respect to NT-proBNP levels, event rates, the hazards ratios for subjects in the highest quartile of NT-proBNP, and the increment in AUC for the prediction of stroke or adverse clinical outcomes when NT-proBNP was added to clinical risk scores (Table 1). Taken together these studies provide a clear picture of the potential value of NT-proBNP in this setting. It is unlikely that further data from this setting will alter the insights that these studies provide due to their size and statistical power.

How do the findings of this study alter our evaluation of risk and management of AF? First, it is important to note some limitations to the data. As the authors point out, all patients were receiving anticoagulation; therefore, it is not possible to translate these findings to guide decision making for patients yet to commence anticoagulation. Although it is possible that NT-proBNP level might provide valuable risk stratification in this context, clear validation of NT-proBNP level as a marker of stroke risk in the setting of no anticoagulation, or before

Table 1 NT-proBNP and Risk Prediction in Atrial Fibrillation: Insights From the ARISTOTLE and RE-LY Trials

| | ARISTOTLE | RE-LY |
|--|-------------------------|----------------------|
| No. of participants | 14,892 | 6,189 |
| CHA ₂ DS ₂ score | | |
| ≤1 | 5,057 (34) | 2,025 (33) |
| 2 | 5,367 (36) | 2,197 (35) |
| ≥3 | 4,468 (30) | 1,967 (32) |
| NT-proBNP levels | 714 (95% CI: 363–1,250) | 801 (95%: 387–1,403) |
| Event rates | | |
| Stroke/systemic embolism | 1.4%/yr | 1.3%/yr |
| Death | 3.69%/yr | 3.3%/yr |
| Major bleeding | 2.61%/yr | 2.45%/yr |
| Hazards ratio for major events (NT-proBNP, Q4 vs. Q1) | | |
| Stroke | 2.35* (1.62–3.40) | 2.30* (1.41–4.07) |
| Death | 2.25* (1.80–2.81) | 6.73* (3.95–11.49) |
| Major bleeding | 1.07 (0.82–1.40) | 1.28 (0.87–1.88) |
| Added value for stroke/systemic embolism prediction (area under the curve) | | |
| CHA ₂ DS ₂ VASc | 0.62 | 0.618 |
| CHA ₂ DS ₂ VASc + NT-proBNP | 0.646* | 0.633 |
| Added value for composite EP† prediction (area under the curve) | | |
| CHA ₂ DS ₂ VASc | 0.598 | 0.612 |
| CHA ₂ DS ₂ VASc + NT-proBNP | 0.66* | 0.668* |

Values are n (%), unless indicated otherwise. *p < 0.001. †Composite EP in the ARISTOTLE trial was ischemic stroke, systemic embolism, myocardial infarction, and cardiac death, and in the RE-LY, it was stroke, systemic embolism, pulmonary embolism, myocardial infarction, and vascular death. Adapted from Hijazi et al. (24,25).

CI = confidence interval; EP = endpoint; NT-proBNP = N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide.

anticoagulation being commenced, would be required before guidelines could endorse NT-proBNP level for this application. For now, the established clinical risk scores remain the best validated approach to guiding decisions about when to commence anticoagulation. Another limitation of the current data is that findings of the clinical trial setting may not always be replicated in real-world patient populations. Given the large size of the current study, this seems less likely. However, it is important to note that the very elderly, who have a higher AF prevalence and stroke risk, are not represented in the study.

However, the findings from this large substudy of the ARISTOTLE trial and also the smaller substudy of the RE-LY study indicate that among subjects fully anticoagulated for AF, a single measurement of NT-proBNP provides powerful prediction of the residual risk of either stroke/SE or of cardiovascular complications. Subjects who are receiving anticoagulation for AF and who have low NT-proBNP levels (<363 ng/l) are at very low risk of stroke/SE or cardiac death regardless of their CHA₂DS₂VASc score. Conversely, if NT-proBNP levels are high ($>1,250$ ng/l), the risk of these events is high, even when the CHA₂DS₂VASc score is ≤ 2 . Although guidelines may not endorse routine measurement of NT-proBNP levels, this information may have significant clinical utility, particularly in patients for whom there are concerns about major bleeding or other risks related to anticoagulation (26).

Reprint requests and correspondence: Dr. Richard Troughton, Department of Medicine, University of Otago, Christchurch, PO Box 4345, Christchurch 8140, New Zealand. E-mail: richard.troughton@cdhb.health.nz.

REFERENCES

1. Lip GY. Stroke and bleeding risk assessment in atrial fibrillation: when, how, and why? *Eur Heart J* 2013;34:1041–9.
2. Hijazi Z, Oldgren J, Siegbahn A, Granger CB, Wallentin L. Biomarkers in atrial fibrillation: a clinical review. *Eur Heart J* 2013 Feb 5 [E-pub ahead of print].
3. Braunwald E. Shattuck lecture—cardiovascular medicine at the turn of the millennium: triumphs, concerns, and opportunities. *N Engl J Med* 1997;337:1360–9.
4. Stewart S, Murphy NF, Walker A, McGuire A, McMurray JJ. Cost of an emerging epidemic: an economic analysis of atrial fibrillation in the UK. *Heart* 2004;90:286–92.
5. Lloyd-Jones DM, Wang TJ, Leip EP, et al. Lifetime risk for development of atrial fibrillation. *Circulation* 2004;110:1042–6.
6. Chugh SS, Blackshear JL, Shen WK, Hammill SC, Gersh BJ. Epidemiology and natural history of atrial fibrillation: clinical implications. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2001;37:371–8.
7. Feinberg WM, Blackshear JL, Laupacis A, Kronmal R, Hart RG. Prevalence, age distribution, and gender of patients with atrial fibrillation. Analysis and implications. *Arch Intern Med* 1995;155:469–73.
8. Miyasaka Y, Barnes ME, Gersh BJ, et al. Secular trends in incidence of atrial fibrillation in Olmsted County, Minnesota, 1980 to 2000, and implications on the projections for future prevalence. *Circulation* 2006;114:119–25.
9. Alpert JS. Atrial fibrillation: now one of the most common causes for hospitalization. *Curr Cardiol Rep* 2005;7:149–50.
10. Wattigney WA, Mensah GA, Croft JB. Increasing trends in hospitalization for atrial fibrillation in the United States, 1985 through 1999: implications for primary prevention. *Circulation* 2003;108:711–6.
11. Coyne KS, Paramore C, Grandy S, Mercader M, Reynolds M, Zimetbaum P. Assessing the direct costs of treating nonvalvular atrial fibrillation in the United States. *Value Health* 2006;9:348–56.
12. Kannel WB, Benjamin EJ. Current perceptions of the epidemiology of atrial fibrillation. *Cardiol Clin* 2009;27:13–24, vii.
13. Connolly SJ, Ezekowitz MD, Yusuf S, et al. Dabigatran versus warfarin in patients with atrial fibrillation. *N Engl J Med* 2009;361:1139–51.
14. Conen D, Chae CU, Glynn RJ, et al. Risk of death and cardiovascular events in initially healthy women with new-onset atrial fibrillation. *JAMA* 2011;305:2080–7.
15. Benjamin EJ, Wolf PA, D'Agostino RB, Silbershatz H, Kannel WB, Levy D. Impact of atrial fibrillation on the risk of death: the Framingham Heart Study. *Circulation* 1998;98:946–52.
16. Gage BF, Waterman AD, Shannon W, Boechler M, Rich MW, Radford MJ. Validation of clinical classification schemes for predicting stroke: results from the National Registry of Atrial Fibrillation. *JAMA* 2001;285:2864–70.
17. Lip GY, Nieuwlaet R, Pisters R, Lane DA, Crijns HJ. Refining clinical risk stratification for predicting stroke and thromboembolism in atrial fibrillation using a novel risk factor-based approach: the Euro Heart Survey on Atrial Fibrillation. *Chest* 2010;137:263–72.
18. Fuster V, Ryden LE, Cannom DS, et al. 2011 ACCF/AHA/HRS focused updates incorporated into the ACC/AHA/ESC 2006 guidelines for the management of patients with atrial fibrillation: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines developed in partnership with the European Society of Cardiology and in collaboration with the European Heart Rhythm Association and the Heart Rhythm Society. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2011;57:e101–98.
19. Camm AJ, Kirchhof P, Lip GY, et al. Guidelines for the management of atrial fibrillation: the Task Force for the Management of Atrial Fibrillation of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC). *Eur Heart J* 2010;31:2369–429.
20. Camm AJ, Lip GY, De Caterina R, et al. 2012 focused update of the ESC Guidelines for the management of atrial fibrillation: an update of the 2010 ESC Guidelines for the management of atrial fibrillation. Developed with the special contribution of the European Heart Rhythm Association. *Eur Heart J* 2012;33:2719–47.
21. Olesen JB, Lip GY, Hansen ML, et al. Validation of risk stratification schemes for predicting stroke and thromboembolism in patients with atrial fibrillation: nationwide cohort study. *BMJ* 2011;342:d124.
22. Daniels LB, Maisel AS. Natriuretic peptides. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2007;50:2357–68.
23. Crozier IG, Ikram H, Nicholls MG, Espiner EA, Yandle TG. Atrial natriuretic peptide in spontaneous tachycardias. *Br Heart J* 1987;58:96–100.
24. Hijazi Z, Wallentin L, Siegbahn A, Andersson U, et al. N-terminal pro-B-type natriuretic peptide for risk assessment in patients with atrial fibrillation: insights from the ARISTOTLE trial (Apixaban for the Prevention of Stroke in Subjects With Atrial Fibrillation). *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2013;61:2274–84.
25. Hijazi Z, Oldgren J, Andersson U, et al. Cardiac biomarkers are associated with an increased risk of stroke and death in patients with atrial fibrillation: a Randomized Evaluation of Long-term Anticoagulation Therapy (RE-LY) substudy. *Circulation* 2012;125:1605–16.
26. Pisters R, Lane DA, Nieuwlaet R, de Vos CB, Crijns HJ, Lip GY. A novel user-friendly score (HAS-BLED) to assess 1-year risk of major bleeding in patients with atrial fibrillation: the Euro Heart Survey. *Chest* 2010;138:1093–100.

Key Words: atrial fibrillation ■ natriuretic peptides ■ NT-proBNP ■ risk assessment.