2020 ESC Guidelines for the management of acute coronary syndromes in patients presenting without persistent ST-segment elevation: supplementary data

The Task Force for the management of acute coronary syndromes in patients presenting without persistent ST-segment elevation of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC)

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1 Supplementary data

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

ABOARD	Angioplasty to Blunt the Rise of Troponin in
	Acute Coronary Syndromes Randomized
	for an Immediate or Delayed Intervention
AβYSS	Beta Blocker Interruption After
	Uncomplicated Myocardial Infarction
ACC	American College of Cardiology

.....

ACE	angiotensin-converting enzyme
ACS	acute coronary syndromes
ACHITY	Acute Catheterization and Lirgent
Aconn	Intervention Triage stratesY
۸E	atrial fibrillation
AF	
AHA	American Heart Association
AMI	acute myocardial infarction
ARR	absolute risk reduction
AUGUSTUS	Antithrombotic Therapy after Acute
	Coronary Syndrome or PCI in Atrial
	Fibrillation
b.i.d.	twice daily (latin: bis in die)
BMI	body mass index
CABG	coronary artery bypass graft(ing)
CAD	coronary artery disease
CCS	chronic coronany syndromo
	Condition for the synthesis $A = 2.75$ (2)
CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASC	Cardiac failure, Hypertension, Age ≥ 75 (2
	points), Diabetes, Stroke (2 points)-Vascular
	disease, Age 65—74, Sex category
CI	confidence interval
CK-MB	creatine kinase myocardial band
CMR	cardiac magnetic resonance
CPC	cerebral performance category
CRUSADE	Can Rapid risk stratification of Unstable
	angina patients Suppress ADverse outcomes
	with Farly implementation of the ACC/AHA
	guidelines
<u> </u>	
CVD	cardiovascular disease
DANAMI 3-	Primary PCI in Patients With ST-Elevation
PRIMULTI	Myocardial Infarction and Multivessel
	Disease: Treatment of Culprit Lesion Only
	or Complete Revascularization
DAPT	dual antiplatelet therapy
DAT	dual antithrombotic therapy
DEFINE-FLAIR	Functional Lesion Assessment of
	Intermediate Stenosis to Guide
	Revascularisation
	PEal life information for the utilization of
DEFINE REAL	
	Instantaneous wave-free ratio
EARLY	Early or Delayed Revascularization for
	Intermediate- and High-Risk Non-ST-
	Segment Elevation Acute Coronary
	Syndromes?
ECG	electrocardiogram
ECLS	extracorporeal life support
ECLS-SHOCK	Extracorporeal Life Support in Cardiogenic
	Shock
FCMO	extracorporeal membrane oxygenation
FCMO-CS	ExtraCorporeal Membrane Oxygenation in
	the Therapy of Cardiogonic Shock
	Early on Late Intervention in unStable
ELIJA	Early or Late Intervention in Unstable
	Angina
en i rust-af PCI	EdoxabaN I Rreatment versUS VKA in
	paTients with AF undergoing PCI

ESC	European Society of Cardiology
EUROSHOCK	Testing the Value of Novel Strategy and Its
	Cost Efficacy in Order to Improve the Poor
	Outcomes in Cardiogenic Shock
FAME	Fractional flow reserve versus Angiography
	for Multivessel Evaluation
FAMOUS-NSTEMI	Fractional flow reserve versus angiography
	in guiding management to optimize
	outcomes in non-ST-elevation myocardial
	infarction
FFR	fractional flow reserve
FRISC	FRagmin and Fast Revascularisation during
	InStability in Coronary artery disease
FU	follow-up
FXa	factor Xa
GINA	Global Initiative for Asthma
GOSPEL	Global Secondary Prevention Strategies to
	Limit Event Recurrence after Myocardial
	Infarction
GP	glycoprotein
GRACE	Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events
HIT	heparin-induced thrombocytopenia
HORIZONS-AMI	Harmonizing Outcomes with
	RevasculariZatiON and Stents in Acute
	Myocardial Infarction
HR	hazard ratio
HYPO-ECMO	Effects of Induced Moderate HYPOthermia
	on Mortality in Cardiogenic Shock Patients
	Rescued by Veno-arterial ExtraCorporeal
	Membrane Oxygenation
IABP	intra-aortic balloon pump
ICTUS	Invasive Versus Conservative Treatment in

Unstable Coronary Syndromes

Instantaneous Wave-free Ratio versus Fractional Flow Reserve in Patients with Stable Angina Pectoris or Acute Coronary

Instrumental Sealing of ARterial puncture site-CLOSURE device versus manual

Intracoronary Stenting and Antithrombotic

instantaneous wave-free ratio

international normalized ratio

Regimen - Cooling off strategy

left anterior descending

Triple Therapy in Patients on Oral Anticoagulation After Drug Eluting Stent

Leipzig Immediate versus early and late

left ventricular ejection fraction

PercutaneouS coronary Intervention triAl in

Syndrome

compression

Implantation

intravenous

NSTEMI

left circumflex

left ventricular

interquartile range

MACCE	major adverse cardiovascular and
	cerebrovascular events
MACE	major adverse cardiovascular events
MATE	Medicine versus Angiography in
	Thrombolytic Exclusion
MATRIX	Minimizing Adverse Haemorrhagic Events
	by TRansradial Access Site and Systemic
	Implementation of angioX
METs	metabolic equivalents
MI	myocardial infarction
NOAC	non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulant
NS	not significant
NSTE-ACS	non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary
	syndrome
NISTEMI	non-ST-segment elevation myocardial
INSTELLI	infarction
OAC	oral anticoagulation/anticoagulant
	Fifth Organization to Assass Stratogics for
0A313-3	Ischaomic Syndromos
	out of hospital cardiac arrest
	Optimal timing of coronany intervention in
OFTINA	
OP	odds ratio
	Open Label Bandomized Controlled
	Multicontor Study Exploring Two
	Treatment Strategies of Piverovehan and a
	Deep Adjusted Oral Vitemia K Anterprint
	Treatment Strategy in Subjects with Atrial
	Fibrillation who Lindonso Densutenceure
	Canadam Intervention
PLATO	PLA Telet inhibition and patient Outcomes
POST-11	Portuguese Study on the Evaluation of FFR-
55.014	Guided Treatment of Coronary Disease
PROMS	patient-reported outcome measures
R3F	French FFR Registry
RCA	right coronary artery
RCT	randomized controlled trial
REACH	REduction of Atherothrombosis for
	Continued Health
REBOOT-CNIC	TREatment With Beta-blockers After
	myOcardial Infarction withOut Reduced
	Ejection fracTion
RE-DUAL PCI	Randomized Evaluation of Dual
	Antithrombotic Therapy with Dabigatran
	versus Triple Therapy with Warfarin in
	Patients with Nonvalvular Atrial Fibrillation

Undergoing Percutaneous Coronary

Evaluation of Decreased Usage of

the SWEDEHEART Registry

Betablockers After Myocardial Infarction in

Randomized Evaluation in PCI Linking

Angiomax to Reduced Clinical Events 2

Impella CP With VA ECMO for Cardiogenic

Intervention

Shock

REDUCE-

REPLACE-2

REVERSE

SWEDEHEART

iFR

INR

IQR

i.v. LAD

LCX

LV

LVEF

iFR-SWEDEHEART

ISAR-CLOSURE

ISAR-COOL

ISAR-TRIPLE

LIPSIA-NSTEMI

RIDDLE-NSTEMI	Randomized Study of Immediate Versus Delayed Invasive Intervention in Patients With Non-ST-Segment Elevation
RITA-3	Third Randomised Intervention Treatment of Angina
RR	relative risk/risk ratio
RRT	renal replacement therapy
SBP	systolic blood pressure
SISCA	Comparison of Two Treatment Strategies in
	Patients With an Acute Coronary
	Syndrome Without ST Elevation
STEMI	, ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction
SWEDEHEART	Swedish Web-system for Enhancement and
	Development of Evidence-based care in
	Heart disease Evaluated According to
	Recommended Therapies
syntax	Synergy between PCI with Taxus and
	cardiac surgery.
TACTICS-TIMI	Treat angina with Aggrastat and determine
	Cost of Therapy with an Invasive or
	Conservative Strategy-Thrombolysis in
	Myocardial Infarction
TAT	triple antithrombotic therapy
TIMACS	Timing of Intervention in Patients with
	Acute Coronary Syndromes
TIMI	Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction
TRUCS	Treatment of refractory unstable angina in
	geographically isolated areas without cardiac
	surgery. Invasive versus conservative
	strategy
UFH	unfractionated heparin
VA-ECMO	veno-arterial extracorporeal membrane
	oxygenation
vanqwish	Veterans Affairs Non-Q-Wave Myocardial
	Infarction Strategies In-Hospital
VERDICT	Very EaRly vs Deferred Invasive evaluation
	using Computerized Tomography

VINO	Value of first day coronary angiography/ angioplasty In evolving Non ST-segment
	elevation myocardial infarction. An
	Open multicenter randomized trial.
VKA	vitamin K antagonist
WOEST	What is the Optimal antiplatElet and
	anticoagulant therapy in patients with
	oral anticoagulation and coronary
	StenTing

2 Introduction

2.4 Number and partition of classes of recommendations

The total number of recommendations is 131. Partitions according to class of recommendations and level of evidence are provided in *Supplementary Figure 1*.

3 Diagnosis

3.1 Clinical presentation

Acute chest discomfort in non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndrome (NSTE-ACS) patients may have the following presentations:

- Prolonged (>20 min) chest discomfort at rest.
- New-onset (*de novo*) (<3 months) angina (class II or III of the Canadian Cardiovascular Society classification).¹
- Recent destabilization of previously stable angina with at least Canadian Cardiovascular Society Class III angina characteristics (crescendo angina).
- Post-myocardial infarction (MI) angina.

Typical chest discomfort is characterized by a retrosternal sensation of pain, pressure, or heaviness ('angina') radiating to the left arm, both arms, the right arm, the neck, or the jaw, which may be intermittent (usually lasting several minutes) or persistent.² Additional symptoms — such as sweating, nausea,



Supplementary Figure | Breakdown of the recommendations according to ESC classes of recommendations and levels of evidence.

epigastric pain, dyspnoea, and syncope - may be present. Atypical presentations include isolated epigastric pain, indigestion-like symptoms, and isolated dyspnoea or fatigue. Atypical complaints are more often observed in the older patient, in women, and in patients with diabetes, chronic renal disease, or dementia.³⁻⁵ The exacerbation of symptoms by physical exertion, and their relief at rest, increase the probability of myocardial ischaemia. The relief of symptoms after nitrate administration increases the likelihood of NSTE-ACS, but this is not diagnostic as it is also reported in other causes of acute chest pain.⁵ In patients presenting to the emergency department with suspected MI, overall, the diagnostic performance of chest pain characteristics for MI is limited.⁵ Older age, male sex, family history of coronary artery disease (CAD), diabetes, hyperlipidaemia, smoking, hypertension, renal dysfunction, previous manifestation of CAD, and peripheral or carotid artery disease increase the likelihood of NSTE-ACS.^{6,7} Conditions that may exacerbate or precipitate NSTE-ACS include anaemia, infection, inflammation, fever, hypertensive peak, anger, emotional stress, and metabolic or endocrine (particularly thyroid) disorders.

3.2 Physical examination

Physical examination is frequently unremarkable in patients with suspected NSTE-ACS.² Signs of heart failure or haemodynamic or electrical instability mandate a quick diagnosis and treatment. Cardiac auscultation may reveal a systolic murmur due to ischaemic mitral regurgitation - associated with poor prognosis - or aortic stenosis [mimicking acute coronary syndromes (ACS)]⁸. Rarely, a systolic murmur may indicate a mechanical complication (i.e. papillary muscle rupture or ventricular septal defect) of a subacute and possibly undetected MI. Physical examination may identify signs of non-coronary causes of chest pain (e.g. pulmonary embolism, acute aortic syndromes, myopericarditis, aortic stenosis) or extracardiac pathologies (e.g. pneumothorax, pneumonia, or musculoskeletal diseases). In this setting, the presence of chest pain that can be reproduced by exerting pressure on the chest wall has a relatively high negative predictive value for NSTE-ACS.⁵ According to the presentation, abdominal disorders (e.g. reflux disease, oesophageal spasm, oesophagitis, gastric ulcer, cholecystitis, or pancreatitis) may also be considered in the differential diagnosis. Differences in blood pressure between the upper and lower limbs or between the arms, irregular pulse, jugular vein distension, heart murmurs, friction rub, and pain reproduced by chest or abdominal palpation are findings suggestive of alternative diagnoses. Pallor, sweating, or tremor may point towards precipitating conditions such as anaemia and thyrotoxicosis.

4. Risk assessment and outcomes

4.1. Electrocardiogram indicators

The electrocardiogram (ECG) at presentation is a useful tool for risk prediction. Patients with ACS and ST-segment depression on ECG have a worse prognosis than patients with a normal ECG.^{9–11} ST-segment depression is not only a qualitative marker, but also a quantitative marker of risk, because the number of leads with ST-segment depression and the magnitude of ST-segment depression (either

within a single lead or as sum over all leads) are indicative of the extent of ischaemia and correlate with prognosis.9,10,12 While the prognostic impact of ST-segment depression (Supplementary Figure 2) is indisputable, the evidence regarding the prognostic impact of isolated T-wave inversion is conflicting. T-wave inversion was only independently predictive for an adverse outcome in studies demanding T-wave inversion to occur in $\geq 5-6$ leads, ¹³⁻¹⁵ while no correlation was found in studies which analysed the prognostic impact of T-wave inversion in fewer leads.^{11,16,17} Therefore, the interpretation of the prognostic value of T-wave inversion is hampered due to inconsistent definitions (i.e. occurrence in ≥ 2 or ≥ 5 leads). Overall, the prognostic value of T-wave inversion is certainly less than that of ST-segment depression, and T-wave inversion does not alter the prognostic value of associated ST-segment depression.¹⁷ The presence of ST-segment depression >1 mm in \geq 6 leads in conjunction with ST-segment elevation in aVR and/or V1, particularly if the patient presents with haemodynamic compromise, suggests multivessel ischaemia or severe left main coronary artery stenosis. ^{18,19} Transient ST-segment elevation (Supplementary Figure 2) identifies patients with a relatively good prognosis and mandates an early, but not an immediate, invasive strategy (see section 6.1.2.1).^{20–22} Beyond ST-segment deviations and T-wave inversion, additional ECG patterns have been described that may signify severe stenosis or even occlusion of the proximal left anterior descending (LAD) coronary artery. However, these ECG patterns were identified in old, small single-centre series, therefore, their true frequency and diagnostic yield remains unknown (Supplementary Figure 2).

Up to a quarter of patients presenting with NSTE-ACS may have a totally occluded vessel on angiography (with decreasing frequency from the right coronary artery [RCA], to the left circumflex [LCX], to LAD distribution), which is associated with increased mortality.²³ Therefore, recognition of ECG patterns in the absence of STsegment elevation associated with such angiographic finding is of utmost importance. Several ECG patterns that may signify severe CAD have been identified in old, small, single-centre series (Supplementary Figure 2). In 1982, de Zwaan et al. described an abnormal ST-segment and T-wave morphology now known as part of the Wellens' syndrome (Supplementary Figure 2 f and g).²⁴ In a series of 1260 patients hospitalized for unstable angina during July 1980 and December 1985, 204 (16%) had this ECG pattern.²⁵ After excluding patients with recent MI and missing data, 180 patients were further analysed. All of these patients had stenosis of \geq 50% in the proximal LAD and 18% had a total occlusion. The type A pattern (Supplementary Figure 2 f) was present in 25% and the type B pattern (Supplementary Figure 2 g) in 75% of patients.²⁵ In 2008, de Winter et al.²⁶ reported another abnormal ST-segment and T-wave morphology signifying proximal LAD occlusion (Supplementary Figure 2 e). This ECG pattern was recognized in 30 of 1532 patients (2%) in their percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) database.²⁶ Gerson and McHenry identified resting U wave inversion as a predictor of CAD affecting the left main or LAD (positive predictive value 92%) in patients referred for coronary angiography (Supplementary Figure 2 h).²⁷ Following a study by the Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events (GRACE) ECG substudy and Canadian ACS I registry investigators, low QRS voltage (Supplementary Figure 2 i) on admission identifies NSTE-ACS patients at increased risk for in-hospital and 6-month mortality.²⁸ However, low QRS voltage did not remain

	ECG pattern	Criteria	Signifying	Figure
a	Normal ECG		No clue	every lead
b	Isolated T-wave inversion	T-wave inversion >1 mm in ≥5 leads considering I, II, aVL, and V2–V6	Only mildly impaired prognosis	I, II, aVL, or V2 to V6
c	ST-segment depression	J point depressed by ≥0.05 mm in leads V2 and V3 or ≥1 mm in all other leads followed by a horizontal or downsloping ST-segment for ≥0.08 s in ≥1 leads (except aVR)	More severe ischaemia	every lead every lead
d	Transient ST-segment elevation	ST-segment elevation in ≥2 continuous leads of ≥0.25 mV in men <40 years, ≥2 mm in men ≥40 years, or ≥0.15 mV in women in leads V2 through V3 and/or ≥0.1 mV in other leads lasting <20 min	Only mildly impaired prognosis	every lead
e	De Winter ST-T	1–3 mm upsloping ST-segment depression at the J point in leads V1–V6 that continue into tall, positive, and symmetrical T waves	Proximal LAD occlusion/severe stenosis	V1-V6
fg	Wellens sign	isoelectric or minimally elevated J point (<1 mm) + biphasic T wave in leads V2 and V3 (type A) or symmetric and deeply inverted T waves in leads V2 and V3, occasionally in leads V1, V4, V5, and V6 (type B)	Proximal LAD occlusion/severe stenosis	(V1-)V2-V3(-V4)
h	Resting U wave inversion	discrete negative deflection in the T-P segment (negative in comparison to the following P-R segment) no initial positive U wave deflection not obscured by fusion with terminal T wave or following P wave in I, aVL, and V4 through V6	Occlusion or severe stenosis of the left main artery or LAD	I, aVL, V4–V6
i	Low QRS voltage	peak to peak QRS complex voltage <0.5 mV in all limb leads and <1.0 mV in all precordial leads	High risk for in-hospital mortality	every lead

Supplementary Figure 2 Electrocardiogram indicators of risk in patients with non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndrome ECG = electrocardiogram; LAD = left anterior descending.

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significantly associated with 6-month mortality after adjustment for predictors included in the GRACE risk model predicting 6-month mortality after discharge, which included prior MI and heart failure.²⁸ Aside from abnormal QRS-ST-T morphologies, atrial fibrillation (AF) is common in the setting of NSTE-ACS and was independently associated with mortality in a Swedish Web-system for Enhancement and Development of Evidence-based care in Heart disease Evaluated According to Recommended Therapies (SWEDEHEART) analysis.²⁹

Supplementary Table I Clinical scores for risk assessment

4.3 Clinical scores for risk assessment

Originally, the GRACE risk score was developed to estimate the risk of in-hospital death.³⁰ In essence, all GRACE risk score models calculated at hospital presentation use the same eight variables [four continuous variables: age, systolic blood pressure (SBP), pulse rate, and serum creatinine; three binary variables: cardiac arrest at admission, elevated cardiac biomarkers, and ST-segment deviation; and one categorical variable: Killip class at presentation] for risk prediction. The

Version	Method of calculation	Derivation cohort	Number of variables	Outcome	Model assumption	Model output	c statistics for NSTE- ACS popula- tion in deri- vation cohort
1.0	Pencil-and- paper calculator	11 389 patients enrolled from April 1999 to March 2001 ³⁰	8	Risk of in-hospital death	Linear associa- tion between continuous predictor and	Score is transferred to cumulative risk in percent by means of a nomogram	0.83 ³⁰
	Pencil-and- paper calculator	15 007 patients enrolled from April 1999 to March 2002 ³²	9	Risk of death from hospital discharge to 6 months	risk ^{30,32,37}		0.78 ³²
	Web calculator or iPhone/iPad	21 688 patients enrolled from April	8	Risk of in-hospital death			Unknown
	calculator	1999 to September 2005 ³⁷	8	Risk of death from hospital admission to 6 months			0.79 ³⁷
			8	Risk of death or MI from hospital admission to 6 months			0.70 ³⁷
2.0	Web calculator or iPhone/ Android application	Unknown	8	Risk of in-hospital death	Linear associa- tion between continuous predictor and risk	Unknown	Unknown
		Unknown	8	Risk of death from hospital admission to 6 months	Linear associa- tion between continuous predictor and risk	Score is transferred to cumulative risk in percent by means of a nomogram; risk is adjusted by 80/91 to reflect overall death rates in differ- ent populations	Unknown
		32 037 patients enrolled from January 2002 to	8	Risk of death from hospital admission to 1 year	Non-linear association between pre-	Model estimates are directly used to compute cumulative	0.829 ³⁸
		December 2007 ³⁸	8	Risk of death or MI from hospital admission to 1 year	dictor and risk ³⁸	risk in percent	0.746 ³⁸
		1274 patients enrolled in the UK ^{38,39}	8	Risk of death from hospital admission to 3 years			0.782 ³⁸

MI = myocardial infarction; NSTE-ACS = non-ST-elevation acute coronary syndrome.



Supplementary Figure 3 Clinical scores for risk assessment. The figure shows a nomogram for calculation of the GRACE risk score and was adapted by Granger et al.³⁰ SBP = systolic blood pressure.

weighting of these variables, however, differs according to the model version. Continuous variables have to be entered as a range rather than exact numerical values in GRACE risk score calculators (i.e. printable chart, web calculator, and mobile phone application). GRACE risk score calculators then use midpoints of the selected ranges for risk estimation. For the GRACE risk score 2.0, a modified model can be calculated by substituting renal failure and use of diuretics for Killip class or serum creatinine values, respectively, if these are not available.³¹ Notably, the variables used by the GRACE risk score to predict post-discharge risk are different.³² The web calculators provided by the GRACE study group may be accessed via the URL https://www.outcomes-umassmed.org/risk_models_grace_orig. aspx for the GRACE risk score 1.0 and www.outcomes-umassmed. org/grace/acs_risk2/index.html for the GRACE risk score 2.0. The initially developed GRACE risk score for predicting the risk of inhospital death can be calculated using a paper sheet provided in Supplementary Figure 3, which was adapted from the original paper.³⁰ Supplementary Table 1 gives an overview of the available GRACE risk score models.

Based on results of a small study, utilization of a high-sensitivity cardiac troponin T assay compared to a conventional assay does not alter the discriminatory ability of the GRACE risk score.³³ Notably, the GRACE risk score model versions 1.0 and 2.0, each derived from populations enrolled more than 10 years ago, likely overestimate risk, but discrimination into low and high risk remains good.^{34–36}

5. Pharmacological treatments

5.2.1 Supportive pharmacological treatment

Relief of chest pain for comfort reasons, but also to decrease sympathetic activation, is essential in NSTE-ACS patients. Opioids [e.g. intravenous (i.v.) morphine] are the most commonly used analgesics in this setting. However, it has to be kept in mind that morphine use is associated with a slower uptake and a delayed onset of antiplatelet action, which may lead to an early treatment failure in susceptible individuals.⁴⁰ In general, oxygen administration is indicated in hypoxic patients with oxygen saturation <90% or in patients with respiratory distress. Interestingly, prior studies have suggested that hyperoxia may be harmful in some patients, presumably due to increased myocardial injury.⁴¹ Therefore, routine oxygen administration is not recommended in cases of oxygen saturation >90%. Anxiety is a natural response to chest pain and a mild tranquillizer (usually a benzodiazepine) should be considered in anxious patients.

5.2.2 Nitrates and beta-blockers

Intravenous nitrates are more effective than sublingual nitrates for symptom relief and resolution of ST depressions in the ECG. During blood pressure monitoring, the dose should be titrated upwards until symptoms are relieved, and in hypertensive patients until blood pressure is normalized, unless side effects (notably headache or hypotension) occur. Beyond symptom control, there is no indication for nitrate treatment. In patients with a recent intake of a phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitor (i.e. within 24 h for sildenafil or vardenafil and 48 h for tadalafil), nitrates should not be administered due to the risk of severe hypotension. Beta-blockers reduce myocardial oxygen consumption by lowering heart rate, blood pressure, and myocardial contractility. Sublingual or i.v. nitrates and early initiation of betablocker treatment are recommended in patients with ongoing ischaemic symptoms and without contraindications to the respective drug class. It is recommended to continue chronic beta-blocker therapy unless the patient is in Killip class III or higher. Only a small minority of patients included in randomized controlled trials (RCTs) of early beta-blocker treatment had non-ST-segment elevation MI (NSTEMI),⁴² therefore no conclusions can be drawn from randomized trials. However, an observational registry study of 21 822 NSTEMI patients⁴² found that, in patients at risk of developing cardiogenic shock (CS) (i.e. at least two characteristics of age >70 years, heart rate >110 beats/min, and/or SBP <120 mmHg), the composite of shock or death was significantly increased in patients receiving beta-blockers very early in the emergency department compared to patients treated later, but within 24 h of hospital admission. Therefore, early administration of beta-blockers should be avoided in these patients, particularly if the ventricular function is unknown. Beta-blockers should not be administered in patients with symptoms possibly related to coronary vasospasm or cocaine use, as they might favour spasm by leaving alpha-mediated vasoconstriction unopposed by beta-mediated vasodilation.

5.3.1 Patients with atrial fibrillation without mechanical prosthetic heart valves or moderate-to-severe mitral stenosis undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention or managed medically

Single antiplatelet therapy with clopidogrel was first evaluated in the What is the Optimal antiplatElet and anticoagulant therapy in patients with oral anticoagulation and coronary StenTing (WOEST) trial, where 573 patients were randomized to dual antithrombotic therapy (DAT) with an oral anticoagulant (OAC) and clopidogrel

(75 mg/day) or to triple antithrombotic therapy (TAT) with OAC, clopidogrel, and aspirin 80 mg/day.⁴³ Treatment was continued for 1 month after bare-metal stent (35% of patients) and for 1 year after drug-eluting stent placement (65% of patients).⁴³ PCI was performed on vitamin K antagonist (VKA) in half of the patients and one-third of them presented with NSTE-ACS. Femoral access was used in the majority of patients (74%). The primary endpoint of any Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction (TIMI) bleeding was significantly reduced in the DAT vs. TAT arm [19.5 vs. 44.9%, hazard ratio (HR) 0.36, 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.26–0.50, *P*<0.001], while no significant differences in major bleeds were observed. The rates of MI, stroke, target vessel revascularization, or stent thrombosis did not differ significantly, but all-cause mortality was lower in the DAT group (2.5 vs. 6.4%, *P*=0.027) at 1 year.

In the Triple Therapy in Patients on Oral Anticoagulation After Drug Eluting Stent Implantation (ISAR-TRIPLE) trial, 614 patients (one-third with ACS) undergoing stenting and requiring OAC were randomly assigned to either 6-week or 6-month clopidogrel therapy in addition to aspirin and VKA.⁴⁴ The primary endpoint of death, MI, stent thrombosis, ischaemic stroke, or TIMI major bleeding at 9 months did not differ between the 6-week and 6-month TAT groups (9.8 vs. 8.8%, HR 1.14, 95% CI 0.68-1.91, P=0.63); the same was true for the combined incidence of death, MI, stent thrombosis, and ischaemic stroke (4.0 vs. 4.3%, HR 0.93, 95% CI 0.43-2.05, P=0.87). Furthermore, no difference in TIMI major bleeding (5.3 vs. 4.0%, HR 1.35, 95% CI 0.64-2.84, P=0.44) was observed. Importantly, 10% of patients in the WOEST trial and 7% in the ISAR-TRIPLE trial had prosthetic heart valves. The subgroup analysis of WOEST showed that patients with prosthetic heart valves on DAT derived a similar benefit as the general population.

In the Open-Label, Randomized, Controlled, Multicenter Study Exploring Two Treatment Strategies of Rivaroxaban and a Dose-Adjusted Oral Vitamin K Antagonist Treatment Strategy in Subjects with Atrial Fibrillation who Undergo Percutaneous Coronary Intervention (PIONEER AF-PCI) trial, 2124 patients with AF [51-53% with ACS (12-14% with ST-segment elevation MI (STEMI)] recently treated with stenting were randomized to rivaroxaban 15 mg once daily plus a P2Y₁₂ receptor inhibitor for 12 months (group 1), rivaroxaban 2.5 mg bis in die [b.i.d. (twice a day)] plus dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT) for 1, 6, or 12 months (group 2), or standard therapy with a VKA plus DAPT for 1, 6, or 12 months (group 3).⁴⁵ The P2Y₁₂ receptor inhibitor was clopidogrel in 93-96% of patients and DAPT was continued up to 12 months in 49% of patients. The primary endpoint of clinically significant bleeds was lower in the two groups receiving rivaroxaban than in the group receiving standard therapy [16.8% in group 1, 18.0% in group 2, and 26.7% in group 3; HR (group 1 vs. group 3) 0.59, 95% CI 0.47-0.76, P<0.001; HR (group 2 vs. group 3) 0.63, 95% CI 0.50-0.80, P<0.001]. In ACS patients, the trend toward a reduced rate of clinically significant bleeds was stronger in patients in group 2 than in group 1. The rates of death from cardiovascular causes, MI, or stroke were similar in the three groups. However, all-cause death or rehospitalization was significantly reduced at 1 year in the two groups who received rivaroxaban vs. the group who received standard therapy [34.9% in group 1, 31.9% in group 2, and 41.9% in group 3; HR (group 1 vs. group 3) 0.79, 95% CI 0.66-0.94, P=0.008; HR (group 2 vs. group 3) 0.75,95% CI 0.62-0.90, P=0.002].⁴⁶

In the Randomized Evaluation of Dual Antithrombotic Therapy with Dabigatran versus Triple Therapy with Warfarin in Patients with Nonvalvular Atrial Fibrillation Undergoing Percutaneous Coronary Intervention (RE-DUAL PCI) trial, 2725 patients [50% with ACS (2% with STEMI)] recently treated with stenting were included.⁴⁷ Patients were randomized to TAT with VKA plus a $P2Y_{12}$ receptor inhibitor and aspirin (for 1-3 months) or DAT with dabigatran (110 mg or 150 mg b.i.d.) plus a P2Y₁₂ receptor inhibitor (no aspirin). The P2Y₁₂ receptor inhibitors used were clopidogrel and ticagrelor (in 87 and 13% of patients, respectively). The primary endpoint of major or clinically relevant non-major bleeding was 15.4% in the 110 mg DAT group compared with 26.9% in the TAT group (HR 0.52, 95% CI 0.42-0.63, P<0.001 for non-inferiority, P<0.001 for superiority), and 20.2% in the 150 mg DAT group compared with 25.7% in the corresponding TAT group. The trial also tested for the non-inferiority of DAT with dabigatran (both doses combined) to TAT with respect to the incidence of a composite efficacy endpoint of thromboembolic events (MI, stroke, or systemic embolism), death, or unplanned revascularization. The incidence of the composite efficacy endpoint was 13.7% in the two DAT groups combined compared with 13.4% in the TAT group (HR 1.04, 95% CI 0.84-1.29, P=0.005 for noninferiority). However, the RE-DUAL PCI trial was underpowered for individual ischaemic endpoints, such as stent thrombosis, which occurred twice as often in the 110 mg DAT group compared with TAT.

The Antithrombotic Therapy after Acute Coronary Syndrome or PCI in Atrial Fibrillation (AUGUSTUS) trial randomized 4614 patients with AF recently treated with PCI or presenting with ACS to either apixaban (5 mg b.i.d.) or VKA [international normalized ratio [INR] 2-3).⁴⁸ The trial had a two-by-two factorial design, with a P2Y₁₂ receptor inhibitor administered to all patients up to 6 months, while patients allotted to the apixaban or VKA group were further randomized to either aspirin or placebo. The primary outcome of major or clinically relevant non-major bleeding was found in 10.5% of the patients receiving apixaban, compared to 14.7% of those receiving a VKA (HR 0.69, 95% CI 0.58-0.81, P<0.001 for both noninferiority and superiority), and in 16.1% of patients receiving aspirin, compared with 9.0% of those receiving placebo (HR 1.89, 95% CI 1.59-2.24, P<0.001). Secondary outcomes included death or hospitalization and a composite of ischaemic events. Patients in the apixaban group had a lower incidence of death or hospitalization than those in the VKA group (23.5 vs. 27.4%, HR 0.83, 95% CI 0.74-0.93, P=0.002) that was mostly driven by reduced hospitalization, and a similar incidence of ischaemic events. Patients in the aspirin group had an incidence of death or hospitalization similar to the placebo group.

The EdoxabaN TRreatment versUS VKA in paTients with AF undergoing PCI (ENTRUST-AF PCI) trial randomized 1506 patients with AF successfully treated with PCI (with at least 25% presenting with ACS) to either edoxaban 60 mg daily plus a P2Y₁₂ receptor inhibitor or VKA plus DAPT with a P2Y₁₂ receptor inhibitor and aspirin (for 1–12 months).⁴⁹ The primary endpoint was major or clinically relevant non-major bleeding. The study showed non-inferiority for the primary endpoint but, in contrast to the other trials, no superiority for the DAT strategy with edoxaban.⁵⁰

The individual trials were all powered to address the safety of the tested strategy but were too small to reliably assess differences in

individual ischaemic endpoints. A recent meta-analysis of the WOEST, ISAR-TRIPLE, PIONEER AF-PCI, and RE-DUAL PCI trials has demonstrated that DAT is associated with a 47% reduction in TIMI major or minor bleeding (4.3 vs. 9.0%, HR 0.53, 95% credible interval 0.36-0.85, 12 = 42.9%) compared with TAT. In addition, there was no difference in trial-defined major adverse cardiovascular events (MACE) (10.4 vs. 10.0%, HR 0.85, 95% credible interval 0.48-1.29, I2 = 58.4%) or in the individual outcomes of all-cause mortality, cardiac death, MI, stent thrombosis, or stroke between the two arms.⁵¹ In a more recent meta-analysis (including ENTRUST-AF PCI), all four non-VKA OAC (NOAC)-based RCTs comparing DAT vs. TAT in AF patients undergoing PCI, encompassing 10 234 patients (DAT = 5496; TAT = 4738), were included.⁵² The primary safety endpoint [International Society on Thrombosis and Haemostasis major or clinically relevant non-major bleeding] was significantly lower with DAT vs. TAT [risk ratio (RR) 0.66, 95% CI 0.56-0.78, P<0.0001], which was consistent across all available bleeding definitions. This benefit was counterbalanced by a significant increase in stent thrombosis (RR 1.59, 95% CI 1.01-2.50, P=0.04). There were no significant differences in all-cause and cardiovascular death, stroke, and MACE.⁵² This translates into an absolute reduction in major bleeding events of 2% compared to an absolute increase of stent thromboses of 0.4% without an effect on overall MACE. However, an AUGUSTUS subanalysis indicated that the stent thrombosis rate was highest within the first 30 days, with a similar timing of occurrence as for bleeds.⁵³

The indication for OAC should be reassessed and treatment continued only if a compelling indication exists (e.g. paroxysmal, persistent, or permanent AF with a CHA₂DS₂-VASc score \geq 2; mechanical heart valve; or recent, or a history of, recurrent deep venous thrombosis or pulmonary embolism). Although it has been tested in a minority of patients, in the absence of safety and efficacy data, the use of prasugrel or ticagrelor as part of TAT should be avoided. The dose intensity of OAC should be carefully monitored with a target INR of 2.0–2.5 in patients treated with VKA (with the exception of individuals with mechanical prosthetic valves in the mitral position). In patients treated with NOACs, the lowest tested dose for stroke prevention should be applied.

5.4 Management of acute bleeding events

5.4.1 General supportive measures

Recommendations for the resuscitation of patients in early haemorrhagic shock or with ongoing bleeding events have evolved over time.⁵⁴ During active bleeding, management has shifted away from the traditional approach of rapid bolus fluid administration, in an effort to normalize arterial pressure, towards acceptance of a lower than normal arterial pressure (i.e. deliberate hypotension). Advantages of this strategy include reduced bleeding episodes, more rapid haemostasis, and a better preservation of native coagulation.⁵⁴ Disadvantages are a delay in reperfusion of ischaemic tissue and a prolonged state of shock. However, questions remain about a safe duration of deliberate hypotension and about the risk—benefit ratio in high-risk patients, such as those with underlying cardiac or vascular disorders, who are more likely to be vulnerable to ischaemic injury related to hypotension.⁵⁴

5.4.2 Bleeding events on antiplatelet agents

Since there are no antidotes to oral platelet inhibitors, treatment options in patients with ongoing bleeding events while on antiplatelet therapy are limited. Even though platelet transfusion has been used extensively to improve platelet function in this setting, few investigations have assessed its efficacy.^{55,56} Furthermore, there have been no studies in CAD patients. While aspirin-inhibited platelet aggregation can be restored after transfusion of 2-5 units of platelets, it is more difficult to restore adenosine diphosphate-dependent platelet function.⁵⁷ In prasugrel- or clopidogrel-treated patients, platelet transfusions may be effective in restoring platelet function 4-6 h after the last drug intake.⁵⁸ In patients on ticagrelor, it may take \geq 24 h for drug clearance to allow transfused platelets to restore haemostatic competence. Recently, an antidote against ticagrelor has been developed, which has been shown to rapidly reverse the antiplatelet effect of ticagrelor in preclinical studies, translating into a gradual normalization of adenosine diphosphate-induced platelet aggregation.^{59,60}

5.4.3 Bleeding events on vitamin K antagonists

The antithrombotic effect of VKA requires a reduction of prothrombin (factor II), which has a relatively long half-life (approximately 60-72 h), compared with 6-24 h for other vitamin K-dependent factors. Warfarin therapy requires approximately 2.5 days for an INR between 6.0 and 10.0 to decline to 4.0.⁶¹ While acenocoumarol has a short half-life, and the time required for an effective decline of the INR may be <1 day for most patients, the longer half-life compared with warfarin or phenprocoumon will result in a far slower decline.^{62,63} Finally, the half-life of fluindione is similar to that of warfarin, and thus a similar decline in the INR values should be expected. The risk of bleeding events increases significantly when the INR exceeds 4.5. Four RCTs have compared vitamin K1 with placebo in patients with an INR of 4.5-10 in the absence of ongoing bleeding.^{62,64–66} While patients receiving vitamin K1 reversed supratherapeutic INRs more rapidly, there was no evidence of benefit for clinically relevant outcomes, including major bleeds or thromboembolism. Vitamin K1 administration may be considered in the absence of ongoing haemorrhage in patients with an INR >10, as the risk of bleeds may be substantial. In the presence of a major or lifethreatening bleed on a VKA, a combination of vitamin K1 with a rapid reversal agent (i.e. prothrombin complex concentrate, fresh frozen plasma, or recombinant activated factor VII) should be considered. Fresh frozen plasma remains the most widely used coagulation factor replacement product for urgent reversal of coumarin-based anticoagulation.⁶⁷ However, non-activated prothrombin complex concentrates are probably more effective than plasma in correcting INR values, do not require a crossmatch, are virally inactivated, do not pose a risk of volume overload, and can be infused in 15-30 min.⁶⁸ Overall, prothrombin complex concentrates may be associated with less thrombotic risk than recombinant activated factor VII, and the latter should only be used if prothrombin complex concentrates are not available.⁶⁸ Vitamin K1 should be added to the rapid reversal agent(s) as a slow i.v. infusion of 5-10 mg because of its more rapid onset compared with oral administration.⁶⁸ To minimize the risk of anaphylactoid reactions, vitamin K1 should be mixed in a minimum of 50 mL of i.v. fluid and administered, using an infusion pump, over a minimum of 20 min.

5.4.4 Bleeding events on non-vitamin K antagonist oral anticoagulants

After cessation of NOACs, improvement in haemostasis is to be expected within 12-24 h. In patients with reduced renal function, a longer washout period should be expected, especially after dabigatran administration. For patients with ongoing dabigatran-associated life-threatening bleeds, especially in the presence of reduced renal function, adequate diuresis should be maintained, and dialysis may be considered. However, the setup of dialysis in this setting is challenging and experience is limited.⁶⁹ Intracerebral haemorrhage or bleeding involving a critical organ, such as the eye, warrants immediate attempts to neutralize the anticoagulant effect of the NOAC. The first-line reversal agent to consider is the specific dabigatran antidote idarucizumab,⁷⁰ which has been effectively tested in an uncontrolled phase III trial at a dose of 5 g i.v. in patients with uncontrollable overt bleeds or in patients requiring surgery.⁷¹ Prothrombin complex concentrates or activated prothrombin complex concentrates (i.e. with the addition of activated factor VII) can be considered as second-line treatments, in case of idarucizumab unavailability.^{70,72} Based on studies with prothrombin complex concentrates in preclinical models and in healthy volunteers, an initial dose of 25 U/kg is suggested, with repeat dosing if clinically indicated. Activated prothrombin complex concentrates (50 IE/kg, with a maximum of 200 IE/kg/day) may be considered if available. Although product information for some of the NOACs mentions the use of fresh frozen plasma to help control bleeding, it seems unlikely that this treatment may counteract drug effects.⁶⁸ Thus, plasma should be administered only for major or life-threatening bleeds with additional dilutional coagulopathy. Both vitamin K1 and protamine have no role in the management of NOAC-associated bleeds.

With patients treated with factor Xa (FXa) inhibitors (apixaban, edoxaban, rivaroxaban), prothrombin complex concentrate should be the first-line treatment.⁷⁰ A specific antidote for FXa inhibitors, the andexanet alfa, has been tested in patients with acute major bleeding associated with FXa inhibitors. At a dose of 400 mg bolus, followed by 480 mg infusion over 2 h, andexanet alfa significantly reduced anti-FXa activity, with effective haemostasis occurring in 79% of patients.^{73,74}

5.4.5 Non-access-related bleeding events

Non-access-related bleeding events in patients with ACS undergoing PCI represent roughly 40–60% of all bleeds.^{75–78} A pooled analysis of the Randomized Evaluation in PCI Linking Angiomax to Reduced Clinical Events 2 (REPLACE-2), Acute Catheterization and Urgent Intervention Triage strategY (ACUITY), and Harmonizing Outcomes with RevasculariZatiON and Stents in Acute Myocardial Infarction (HORIZONS-AMI) trials, including 17 393 PCI patients, showed that the HR for 1-year mortality of a non-access site bleed was approximately two-fold higher than that of an access site bleed (HR 3.94, 95% CI 3.07-5.15, P<0.001 vs. HR 1.82, 95% CI 1.17-2.83, P=0.008, respectively).^{76,77} According to data collected from the PLATelet inhibition and patient Outcomes (PLATO) trial, the most common locations of non-access-related major bleeds were, in decreasing order of frequency, the gastrointestinal tract, nose, urinary tract, subcutaneous dermal, and intracranial, representing together threequarters of all non-access bleeding events.⁷⁵ Overall, non-access-site bleeding complications display a clear and significant association with all-cause mortality, or the composite of death or MI, and are associated with a greater hazard of mortality compared with access-site events.

5.4.6 Bleeding events related to percutaneous coronary intervention

Depending on the complexity of the treated population, as well as the definition used to classify bleeds, the reported incidence of periprocedural bleeding complications ranges between 1.3 and 12.4%.^{79–84} Among different definitions used to classify the severity of bleeding complications, the Bleeding Academic Research Consortium criteria offer a balanced combination of laboratory and clinical parameters, as well as a detailed hierarchical system of quantification of the severity of bleeding events that correlates strongly with the risk of death.^{85,86} A pooled analysis of seven RCTs, including a total of 14 180 patients (with both stable CAD and NSTE-ACS), has shown that periprocedural bleeds are associated with a five-fold increase in 30-day mortality.^{87,88} Bleeding was the strongest predictor of early mortality, whereas the increased risk of late mortality was mostly mediated by cardiovascular risk factors clustered in patients suffering a bleeding event.⁸⁸ Different from periprocedural MI, periprocedural bleeds increase the risk of death and ischaemic events even beyond 3 years after PCI in NSTEMI patients.^{80,88} These findings, together with the identification of a variety of nonmodifiable independent predictors of periprocedural bleeds, such as female sex, advanced age, renal insufficiency, or a history of bleeding, suggest that major periprocedural bleeds might be a marker of patients at higher risk for mortality rather than a trigger of adverse events.^{80,89,90} Access site bleeding complications comprise approximately 40–60% of periprocedural bleeds.^{77,91,92} In a pooled patientlevel analysis of seven RCTs, 1-year mortality of patients with access site bleeds was reported to be significantly higher compared with patients without periprocedural bleeds [4.5 and 2.5%, respectively, odds ratio (OR) 2.03, 95% CI 1.49-2.77).⁹² Modifications of the periprocedural antithrombotic regimen have been efficacious in reducing periprocedural bleeds.⁹³ The radial approach for coronary angiography and PCI has been shown to be superior to the femoral one in patients with ACS. Accordingly, the Minimizing Adverse Haemorrhagic Events by TRansradial Access Site and Systemic Implementation of angioX (MATRIX) trial showed a significant reduction in major bleeds, as well as all-cause mortality, in patients allocated to the radial compared with the femoral approach.⁹⁴ In the randomized Instrumental Sealing of ARterial puncture site-CLOSURE device versus manual compression (ISAR-CLOSURE) trial in 4524 patients undergoing diagnostic catheterization, the incidence of vascular site complications including bleeds was 6.9% after the use of vascular closure devices and 7.9% after manual compression.⁹⁵ Except for a significantly shorter time to haemostasis, no benefit was observed with vascular closure devices.⁹⁵ Even in the context of intensified antithrombotic therapy in ACS, the use of vascular closure devices was not associated with a reduction in bleeding complications.⁹¹ Therefore, routine use of vascular closure devices with the goal of reducing periprocedural bleeding complications cannot be recommended. Strategies to reduce bleeding complications related to PCI are summarized in Table 12 (section 5.3.1 of the main text).

5.4.7 Bleeding events related to coronary artery bypass surgery

Reported bleeding rates during coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) in NSTE-ACS patients range from 64 to 80%, depending on the definition used and the time elapsed between DAPT discontinuation and surgery.^{96,97} Bleeding events, as well as blood transfusions during CABG, have been associated with increased rates of morbidity and mortality.^{98,99} Several risk factors for CABG-associated bleeding events have been identified, including antithrombotic therapy, preoperative anaemia, female sex, older age, small body size, renal or hepatic dysfunction, urgent or emergent procedures, redo surgery, and hereditary or acquired platelet dysfunction.^{100,101} Timing of DAPT cessation in NSTE-ACS patients undergoing CABG is detailed elsewhere.¹⁰² The risk of ischaemic events possibly related to suboptimal antiplatelet therapy while awaiting surgery is <0.1%, while that of perioperative bleeding complications associated with platelet inhibitors is >10%.^{103,104} Severe CABG-associated bleeds in patients on DAPT should be managed with platelet concentrates. Recombinant factor VIIa should only be used for rescue therapy in patients with uncontrollable bleeding events in whom other correctable causes have been managed (e.g. hypothermia, coagulation factor deficiencies, fibrinogen deficiency), because of concerns of increased risk of graft thrombosis.¹⁰⁵ Several strategies, such as off-pump CABG, antifibrinolytic administration, haemoconcentration, minicardiopulmonary bypass circuits, and cell savers, have been advocated to minimize bleeding risk in CABG patients, but few have been tested in NSTE-ACS patients. In a large-scale RCT (n=4752, of which 39% underwent urgent surgery for ACS), off-pump CABG was associated with a decreased rate of blood product transfusion and reoperation for bleeding complications compared with on-pump surgery, but it increased the risk of early repeat revascularization and was neutral on mortality.¹⁰⁶

5.4.8 Transfusion therapy

Red blood cell transfusions are administered in up to 10% of patients presenting with ACS.¹⁰⁷ In a retrospective cohort study of 2 258 711 patient visits from the CathPCI Registry (enrolling all patients undergoing PCI), the overall transfusion rate was 2.14%.¹⁰⁸ Women, older people, and patients with baseline anaemia, diabetes mellitus, advanced renal dysfunction, history of MI, history of heart failure, and multivessel CAD are more likely to receive transfusions.¹⁰⁷⁻¹⁰⁹ Irrespective of bleeding complications, the need for blood transfusion is associated with an approximately four-fold increase in early mortality and a three-fold increase in death or MI in ACS patients. $^{107-109}\,$ An increase in platelet reactivity following transfusions may account for the excess of ischaemic events.¹¹⁰ The nadir haemoglobin cut-off value mandating transfusion is not standardized and varies between hospitals.^{108,111–113} In the majority of studies investigating different transfusion protocols, a liberal blood transfusion strategy has been defined as any red blood cell transfusion at a haemoglobin level <9.0 g/dL, while a restrictive blood transfusion strategy has been defined as any transfusion at a haemoglobin level <7.0 g/dL.¹¹¹⁻¹¹⁴ A metaanalysis of 10 studies totalling 203 665 patients (nine observational studies and one RCT with 45 patients) with ACS (both STEMI and NSTE-ACS) has reported that blood transfusion or a liberal transfusion strategy was associated with increased all-cause mortality

(18.2 vs. 10.2%, RR 2.91, 95% CI 2.46-3.44, P<0.001] compared with no blood transfusion or a restrictive transfusion strategy.¹¹² However, a transfusion or liberal transfusion strategy seemed to be associated with a significantly higher risk of 30-day death only at a nadir haematocrit >25%.^{108,112} Observations from the Can Rapid risk stratification of Unstable angina patients Suppress ADverse outcomes with Early implementation of the ACC/AHA Guidelines (CRUSADE) initiative in 44 242 patients with NSTE-ACS showed that, among patients with haematocrit \leq 24%, transfusions were associated with a trend towards in-hospital mortality reduction vs. no transfusion (11.8 vs. 15.0%, adjusted OR 0.68, 95% CI 0.45-1.02). In patients with haematocrit between 25 and 30%, transfusions had a neutral effect, while in those with haematocrit >30%, a significant increase in mortality was observed.¹¹⁵ A meta-analysis of 31, largely unblinded, RCTs totalling 9813 patients (only a minority with NSTE-ACS) found no significant difference in primary clinical outcomes for a liberal vs. a restrictive blood transfusion strategy.¹¹⁶ The most recent RCT (published in 2015) was conducted in 2007 largely stable

patients after cardiac surgery.¹¹⁷ The study found no significant difference between a liberal vs. a restrictive transfusion strategy for the primary outcome of 90-day morbidity, whereas the secondary outcome of total mortality was significantly increased in the restrictive strategy arm. Based on inconsistent study results and the lack of adequately powered RCTs in the setting of NSTE-ACS, a restrictive policy of transfusion in anaemic patients may be considered. The effect of erythropoiesis-stimulating agents on the outcomes of ACS patients with anaemia has not been investigated. However, the accumulated evidence of these compounds in patients with congestive heart failure strongly suggests that they have no beneficial effects on mortality rates, and may be harmful due to an increased risk of thromboembolism and hypertension.¹¹¹

6 Invasive treatments

6.1.1 Routine invasive vs. selective invasive approach

Meta- analysis	Included RCTs	n	Follow-up	Effect measure	Comparison of se invasive strategy	elective invasive str	ategy vs. routine
					Death	Non-fatal MI	Special findings
Mehta <i>et al</i> . ¹¹⁸	FRISC II, MATE, RITA-3, TACTICS-TIMI 18, TIMI IIIB,	9212	Weighted mean 17.3 (range 6–24) months	OR	Randomization to hospital dis- charge: 1.60 (1.14–2.25)	<u>Randomization</u> <u>to hospital dis-</u> <u>charge:</u> 1.24 (0.99–1.56)	Death or non-fatal <u>MI:</u> biomarker-posi- tive NSTE-ACS: 0.82 (0.70-0.82)
	vanqwish, vino				After hospital discharge to end of FU: 0.76 (0.62–0.94)	After hospital discharge to end of FU: 0.56 (0.46–0.67)	biomarker-negative NSTE-ACS: 0.90, (0.72–1.14)
					Randomization to end of FU: 0.92 (0.77–1.09)	Randomization to end of FU: 0.75 (0.65–0.88)	interaction P-value not reported
O'Donoghue et al. ¹¹⁹	FRISC II, ICTUS, MATE, RITA-3, TACTICS-TIMI 18, TIMI IIIB,	10 150	12 months	OR	0.97 (0.71–1.32)	0.84 (0.63–1.12)	Death, non-fatal MI, or rehospitalization: biomarker-positive NSTE-ACS: 0.59 (0.51–0.69)
	VANQWISH, VINO						biomarker-negative NSTE-ACS: 0.79 (0.58–1.06)
							interaction <i>P</i> - value=0.18
Fox et al. ¹²⁰	FRISC II, ICTUS, RITA-3	5467	5 years	HR	0.90 (0.77-1.05)	0.77 (0.65–0.90)	Cardiovascular death or non-fatal MI: low- risk patients: 0.80 (0.63–1.02)
							intermediate-risk patients: 0.81 (0.66–1.01)
							high-risk patients: 0.68 (0.53–0.86)

Supplementary Table 2	Overview on meta-analyses inves	stigating a routine vs	. selective invasive approach
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Meta- analysis	Included RCTs	n	Follow-up	Effect measure	Comparison of so invasive strategy	elective invasive sti	ategy vs. routine
					Death	Non-fatal MI	Special findings
Fanning et al. ¹²¹	ICTUS, Italian Elderly ACS, FRISC II, LIPSIA- NSTEMI, OASIS-5, RITA-3, TACTICS-TIMI 18, VINO	8915	6–12 months	RR	0.87 (0.64–1.18)	0.79 (0.63–1.00)	Considered only studies conducted in the in the stent era. <u>Complications of</u> <u>angiography or revas-</u> <u>cularization</u> : Bleeding: 1.73 (1.30–2.31) Procedure-related MI: 1.87 (1.47–2.37)
Elgendy et al. ¹²²	After Eighty, Eisenberg et al., FRISC II, ICTUS, Italian Elderly ACS, OASIS-5 sub- study, RITA-3, TRUCS	6657	Weighted mean 10.3 (range 1–15) years	OR	1.00 (0.90–1.12)	Not reported	Death: in studies with FU 1-5 years: 0.90 (0.77-1.04) in studies with FU >5 years: 1.02 (0.91-1.14)

Supplementary Table 2 Continued

Included RCTs are listed in alphabetical order.

ACS = acute coronary syndromes; FRISC = FRagmin and Fast Revascularisation during InStability in Coronary artery disease; FU = follow-up; HR = hazard ratio; ICTUS = Invasive Versus Conservative Treatment in Unstable Coronary Syndromes; LIPSIA-NSTEMI = Leipzig Immediate versus early and late PercutaneouS coronary Intervention triAl in NSTEMI; MATE = Medicine versus Angiography in Thrombolytic Exclusion; MI = myocardial infarction; NSTE-ACS = non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndrome; OASIS-5 = Fifth Organization to Assess Strategies for Ischaemic Syndromes; RCT = randomized controlled trial; RITA-3 = Third Randomised Intervention Treatment of Angina; RR = risk ratio; TACTICS-TIMI = Treat angina with Aggrastat and determine Cost of Therapy with an Invasive or Conservative Strategy-Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction; TRUCS = Treatment of refractory unstable angina in geographically isolated areas without cardiac surgery. Invasive versus conservative strategy; OR = odds ratio; VANQWISH = Veterans Affairs Non-Q-Vave Myocardial Infarction Strategies In-Hospital; VINO = Value of first day coronary angiography/angioplasty In evolving Non ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction. An Open multicenter randomized trial.

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Supplementary Ladie 3 Overview of randomized controlled trials investigating optimal timing of invasive s

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RCT	Year of publication	Region / n	GP IIb/IIa inhibitor use	Primary endpoint
Shen et al. ^{123 a,b}	2001	1 centre in China / 55	Not reported	No primary endpoint defined, but the 30-day car- diac event rate was lower with an early vs. delayed strategy (0% vs. 9.2%, P<0.05)
ELISA ¹²⁴	2003	1 centre in Netherlands / 220	54.5% (pre-treatment in the delayed group + rescue treatment in the early group)	Enzymatic infarct size as area under the lactate dehydrogenase release over 48 h curve (early vs. late): 629 ± 503 vs. 432 ± 444 U/L (P =0.02)
ISAR-COOL ¹²⁵	2003	2 centres in Germany / 410	100%	Combined cumulative incidence of large MI or death from any cause during 30 days (early inter- vention vs. prolonged anti-thrombotic pretreat- ment): RR 0.51, 95% CI 0.26–0.99
OPTIMA ^{126 a}	2006	3 centres in Netherlands / 142	95.1%	Composite of death, non-fatal MI, or unplanned revascularisation at 30 days (immediate vs. deferred PCI): RR 1.50, 95% Cl 1.09–2.15
ABOARD ¹²⁷	2009	13 centres in France / 352	61.1%	Peak troponin value during hospitalization (immediate vs. delayed): median (IQR): 2.1 (0.3–7.1) vs 1.7 (0.3–7.2) ng/mL
TIMACS ¹²⁸	2009	137 centres in Canada and US / 3031	22.8%	Composite of death, MI, or stroke within 180 days following randomization (early vs. delayed): HR 0.85, 95% CI 0.68–1.06
Sciahbasi et al. ¹²⁹	2010	1 centre in Italy / 54	100%	Myocardial blush grade post-PCI 7.4% grade 0 or 1 in both groups (immediate and early)
LIPSIA-NSTEMI ¹³⁰	2012	6 centres in Germany / 400	98.3%	Peak CK-MB activity during index hospitalization (immediate vs. early): median (IQR): 0.94 (0.48-1.91) vs. 0.78 (0.47-1.60) μkat/L
ELISA-3 ¹³¹	2013	6 centres in Netherlands / 534	22.3%	Combined incidence of death, reinfarction, and recurrent ischaemia at 30 days (immediate vs. delayed): 9.9% vs. 14.2% (<i>P</i> =0.135)
Tekin et al. ^{132 a}	2013	1 centre in in Turkey / 131	Not reported	No primary endpoint defined, but various end- points were better in the early vs. delayed groups
SISCA ^{133 c}	2015	11 centres in France / 170	49.1% (pre-hospital i.v. bolus of tirofi- ban in the early invasive group); no tir- ofiban in the delayed invasive group	Cumulative incidence of death, MI, or urgent revascularization at 30 days (early vs. delayed): 2% vs. 24% (<i>P</i> <0.001)
RIDDLE-NSTEMI ¹³⁴	2016	1 centre in Serbia / 323	22.3%	Composite of death or new MI at 30 days (immediate vs. delayed): HR 0.32, 95% CI 0.13-0.74
VERDICT ¹³⁵	2017	9 centres in Denmark / 2147	Not reported	Composite of death, non-fatal recurrent MI, hospital admission for refractory myocardial ischemia, or hospital admission for heart failure within 4.3 (IQR 4.1–4.4) years after randomization (very early vs. standard care): HR 0.92, 95% CI 0.78–1.08
EARLY ¹³⁶	2020	15 centres in France / 741	Not reported	Composite of cardiovascular death and recurrent ischaemic events at 1 month (very early vs. delayed): HR 0.20, 95% CI 0.11–0.34

The primary endpoint is depicted as an effect estimate and its 95% CI unless stated otherwise.

ABOARD = Angioplasty to Blunt the Rise of Troponin in Acute Coronary Syndromes Randomized for an Immediate or Delayed Intervention; CABG = coronary artery bypass graft(ing); CI = confidence interval; CK-MB = creatine kinase myocardial band; EARLY = Early or Delayed Revascularization for Intermediate- and High-Risk Non-ST-Segment Elevation Acute Coronary Syndromes?; ELISA = Early or Late Intervention in unStable Angina; GP = glycoprotein; HR = hazard ratio; IQR = interquartile range; ISAR-COOL = Intracoronary Stenting and Antithrombotic Regimen - Cooling off strategy; i.v. = intravenous; LIPSIA-NSTEMI = Leipzig Immediate versus early and late Percutaneous coronary Intervention rink In NSTEMI; MI = myocardial infarction; OR = odds ratio; OPTIMA = Optimal timing of coronary intervention in unstable angina; RCI = percutaneous coronary intervention; RCT = randomized controlled trial; RIDDLE-NSTEMI = Randomized Study of Immediate Versus Delayed Invasive Intervention in Patients With Non-ST-Segment Elevation Myocardial Infarction; RR = relative risk; SISCA = Comparison of Two Treatment Strategies in Patients With an Acute Coronary Syndrome Without ST Elevation; TIMACS = Timing of Intervention in Patients with Acute Coronary Syndromes; VERDICT = Very EaRly vs Deferred Invasive evaluation using Computerized Tomography. ^aPatients were not randomized when angiography did not demonstrate significant coronary stenosis amenable for PCI, when CABG was judged to be the preferred treatment, or when the culprit lesion was an in-stent restenosis or a chronic total occlusion.

^bRandomization for timing of coronary angiography also possible; not entirely clear from trial report.

^cRandomization took place pre-hospitalization, while it occurred in hospital in all other trials.

Meta-analysis	Included RCTs	Effect	Comparison	of immediate	early vs. dela	yed invasive s	strategy	
		measure	Death	Non-fatal MI	R	Stroke	Bleeding	Special findings
Katritsis	ABOARD, ELISA, ISAR-COOL, TIMACS	RR	0.85	0.94	0.59	0.84	0.78	Used longer follow-up than published for ELISA, ISAR-
et al. ¹³⁷			(0.64-1.11)	(0.61-1.45)	(0.38-0.92)	(0.47-1.49)	(0.57-1.07)	COOL (1 month extended to 12 months)
Vavarese st al. ¹³⁸	ABOARD, ELISA, ISAR-COOL, LIPSIA- NSTEMI, OPTIMA, TIMACS, Zhang et al.	OR	0.83 (0.64–1.09)	1.15 (0.65–2.01)	0.55 (0.35–0.86)	Not reported	0.76 (0.56–1.04)	Pooled additional data of observational studies, which resulted in similar findings: Death: 0.80 (0.63 – 1.02) Non-fatal MI: 0.86 (0.69 – 1.08) Bleeding: 0.76 (0.56 – 1.04)
Milasinovic st al. ¹³⁹	ABOARD, ELISA, ELISA-3, ISAR-COOL, LIPSIA-NSTEMI, OPTIMA, Sciahbasi et al, Tekin et al., TIMACS, Zhang et al.	OR	0.83 (0.64–1.08)	1.02 (0.63–1.64)	0.56 (0.40–0.79)	Not reported	0.84 (0.65 – 1.10)	
Bonello st al. ¹⁴⁰	ABOARD, ELISA, ELISA-3, ISAR-COOL, LIPSIA-NSTEMI, OPTIMA, RIDDLE- NSTEMI, SISCA, TIMACS, Zhang et al.	OR	0.85 (0.67 – 1.09)	0.88 (0.53–1.45)	0.55 (0.40–0.74)	Not reported	0.94 (0.73–1.22)	
lobs et al. ¹⁴¹	ABOARD, ELISA, ELISA-3, ISAR-COOL, LIPSIA-NSTEMI, RIDDLE-NSTEMI, Sciahbasi <i>et al.</i> , TIMACS	Н	0.81 (0.64–1.03)	0.91 (0.57–1.46)	reported	reported	reported	Used a modified individual patient data approach (true individual patient data for all trials excepted TIMACS, which provided additional aggregated data not originally published): Biomarker-positive patients: 0.76 (0.58 – 1.00) Biomarker-negative patients: 1.01 (0.59 – 1.70) Age ≥75 years: 0.65 (0.46 – 0.93) Age <75 years: 1.04 (0.74 – 1.46) Patients with diabetes: 0.67 (0.45 – 0.99) Patients without diabetes: 0.92 (0.67 – 1.25) GRACE risk score >140: 0.70 (0.52 – 0.95) GRACE risk score ≤140: 1.04 (0.63 – 1.70)
Li et al. ¹⁴²	ABOARD, ELISA, ELISA-3, ISAR-COOL, LIPSIA-NSTEMI, Liu et al., OPTIMA, RIDDLE-NSTEMI, Sciahbasi et al., SISCA, Tekin et al., TIMACS, Zhang et al.	OR	0.78 (0.61–0.99)	0.83 (0.49–1.41)	0.50 (0.40–0.62)	Not reported	0.79 (0.61 – 1.02)	Included trials of questionable quality with regard to random sequence generation and allocation concealment
Zhang et al. ¹⁴³	ELISA-3, LIPSIA-NSTEMI, OPTIMA, Sciahbasi et al., Tekin et al., TIMACS	OR	0.76 (0.58- 1.00)	0.94 (0.55- 1.61)	not reported	Not reported	0.88 (0.59- 1.31)	Set of included trials after study selection process was not comprehensible; short—medium term follow-up was not defined

Supplementary Table 4 Overview on meta-analyses investigating the optimal timing of invasive strategy

All meta-analyses pooled data using random effects models with the exception of the meta-analysis published by Li et al.¹⁴² which used fixed effects models. Included RCTs are listed in alphabetical order.

Coronary Events; HR = hazard ratio; ISAR-COOL = Intracoronary Stenting and Antithrombotic Regimen - Cooling off strategy; LIPSIA-NSTEMI = Leipzig Immediate versus early and late PercutaneouS coronary Intervention triAl in ABOARD = Angioplasty to Blunt the Rise of Troponin in Acute Coronary Syndromes Randomized for an Immediate or Delayed Intervention; ELISA = Early or Late Intervention in unStable Angina; GRACE = Global Registry of Acute NSTEMI: MI = myocardial infarction; OPTIMA = Optimal timing of coronary intervention in unstable angina; OR = odds ratio; RCT = randomized controlled trial; RI = recurrent/refractory ischaemia; RIDDLE-NSTEMI = Randomized Study of Immediate Versus Delayed Invasive Intervention in Patients With Non-ST-Segment Elevation Myocardial Infarction; RR = risk ratio SISCA = Comparison of Two Treatment Strategies in Patients With an Acute Coronary Syndrome Without ST Elevation; TIMACS = Timing of Intervention in Patients with Acute Coronary Syndromes.

6.1.3 Pattern of coronary artery disease in non-STsegment elevation acute coronary syndrome

Up to 20% of patients presenting with NSTE-ACS have no obstructive lesions of the epicardial coronary arteries (section 7),^{81,128,130} while 40–80% of patients with obstructive CAD have multivessel CAD.^{79,81,128,130} Bypass graft failures and left main CAD may be the underlying condition in 5% and up to 10% of patients, respectively. The LAD is the most frequent culprit vessel, in up to 40% of patients.^{81,128,130,144–146} Culprit lesions in NSTE-ACS are more often located within the proximal and mid segments, with approximately the same frequency in these two segments.^{145,146}

6.1.4 How to identify the culprit lesion?

At least two of the following morphological features suggestive of acute plaque rupture should be present:^{145,147,148}

(1) Intraluminal filling defects consistent with thrombus (i.e. acute occlusion abruptly ending with a squared-off or convex upstream termination, or an intraluminal filling defect in a patent vessel within or adjacent to a stenotic region with surrounding homogeneous contrast opacification).

- (2) Plaque ulceration (i.e. presence of contrast and hazy contour beyond the vessel lumen).
- (3) Plaque irregularity (i.e. irregular margins or overhanging edges), dissection, or impaired flow.

Pathological and intracoronary imaging studies have documented the simultaneous occurrence of multiple vulnerable plaques, mostly as thin-cap fibroatheroma.^{149–151} Angiographic studies have confirmed these findings in up to 40% of NSTEMI patients with obstructive CAD.^{145,148,152,153} Another one-quarter of patients present with an acute occluded coronary artery. Of note, two-thirds of the occlusions are already collateralized. The differentiation between an acute/ subacute and chronic occlusion may be challenging and the identification of the culprit may not be possible.^{79,150} ECG (section 3.3.1), echocardiography, or left ventricular (LV) angiogram may help to identify the culprit lesion corresponding to a regional wall motion abnormality.

6.1.6 Fractional flow reserve, instantaneous wave-free ratio, and other resting indices

Supplementary Table 5 Summary of available evidence concerning the use of fractional flow reserve in acute coronary syndromes

Study	Methodology	Population	Aim	Results
FFR- vs. angio-guided n	nanagement			
Famous-Nstemi ¹⁵⁴	 RCT October 2011 to May 2013 	350 NSTEMI	FFR- vs. angio-guided management in ACS	 Proportion of patients treated by medical therapy (FFR- vs. angio-guided): 22.7% vs. 13.2%, P=0.022 Treatment reclassification in 38 (21.6%) patients with FFR disclosure 1-year MACCE (FFR- vs. angio-guided): 7.4% vs 9.2%, P=0.56
Diagnostic accuracy of	FFR in ACS			
Layland et al. ¹⁵⁵	CMR substudy of the FAMOUS-NSTEMI trial	106 NSTEMI	Diagnostic accuracy of FFR compared with 3.0- T stress CMR perfusion	 FFR ≤0.8 (compared to CMR perfusion): Sensitivity 91.4% Specificity 92.2% Positive predictive value 76% Negative predictive value 97%
Ntalianis et al. ¹⁵⁶	Registry	101 AMI (NSTEMI 26%)	Reliability of FFR of non- culprit coronary sten- oses during PCI in AMI	FFR of non-culprit stenoses (acute phase vs. at follow-up): 0.77±0.13 vs. 0.77±0.13, <i>P</i> =NS
FFR-guided PCI in ACS	vs. non-ACS			
Sels et al. ¹⁵⁷	Subanalysis of the randomized FAME trial	1005 patients (ACS 33%)	Benefit of FFR-guided PCI in ACS vs. stable CAD	MACE at 2 years (ACS vs. stable CAD): ARR 5.1% vs. 3.7%, <i>P</i> =0.92
Hakeem <i>et al</i> . ¹⁵⁸	 Registry March 2009 to October 2014 	576 patients (ACS 36%)	Clinical and prognostic utility of FFR in ACS patients with PCI deferred on the basis of non-ischaemic FFR	 3.4-year MACE (ACS vs. stable CAD): 25% vs. 12%, P<0.0001 (propensity score) HR of ACS for MACE: 2.8, 95% Cl 1.9-4.0, P<0.0001 (Cox pro- portional hazard analysis)

Supplementar	y Table 5	Continued
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Study	Methodology	Population	Aim	Results
Masrani Mehta et al. ¹⁵⁹	 Registry October 2002 to July 2010 	674 patients (ACS 50%)	Association of FFR and MACE among patients with coronary lesions deferred for revasculari- zation based on FFR in the setting of ACS vs. non-ACS	 HR of FFR (for every 0.01 decrease in FFR) for the composite endpoint (death, MI, or deferred lesion intervention): 1.08, 95% CI 1.03 – 1.12, P=0.08 in ACS 1.01, 95% CI 0.96 – 1.06, P=NS in non-ACS (Cox proportional hazard analysis) One-third of the subsequent MIs that occurred during follow-up were attributable to the lesion initially deferred based on FFR assessment
Lee et al. ¹⁶⁰	 Pooled 'Korean 4- centers registry' and '3-vessel FFR FRIENDS study' 2003–2014 	1596 patients (ACS 19%)	Compare FFR-guided deferral of non-culprit lesion in ACS vs. stable CAD patients	 2 year-MACE (ACS vs. stable CAD): 3.8% vs. 1.6%, P=0.016 ACS was the most powerful independent predictor of MACE (HR 2.74, 95% CI 1.13-6.64, P=0.026
PRIME-FFR ¹⁶¹	Pooled R3F and POST- IT prospective registries	1983 patients (ACS 27%)	 Evaluation of: Reclassification of the clinical management 1-year outcomes after FFR guidance 	 Treatment reclassification (ACS vs. non-ACS): 38% vs. 39%, P=NS 1-year MACE: ACS reclassified vs. non-reclassified: 8.0% vs. 11.6%, P=0.20 ACS vs. non-ACS patients after FFR-based deferral to medical treatment: 8.0% vs. 8.5%, P=0.83
Escaned et al. ¹⁶²	Pooled analyses of the per-protocol deferred population of the iFR- SWEDEHEART and DEFINE-FLAIR RCTs	2130 patients (ACS 21%)	Investigate the clinical outcomes after revascu- larization deferral based on iFR or FFR in ACS and stable CAD patients	 MACE: iFR vs. FFR: 4.12% vs. 4.05%, P=0.60 ACS vs. stable CAD: 5.91% vs. 3.64%, P=0.04
iFR- vs. FFR-guided PC	CI			
iFR-SWEDEHEART ¹⁶³	 RCT May 2014 to October 2015 	2037 patients (ACS 38%)	Compare iFR- vs. FFR- guided PCI	 1-year MACE (iFR vs. FFR): 6.7% vs. 6.1%, P=0.007 for non-inferiority Chest discomfort (iFR vs. FFR): 3% vs. 68%, P<0.001
DEFINE-FLAIR ¹⁶⁴	 RCT January 2014 to December 2015 	2492 (ACS 18%)	Compare iFR- vs. FFR- guided PCI	 1-year MACE (iFR vs. FFR): 6.8% vs. 7.0%, P<0.001 for non-inferiority Chest pain or dyspnoea (iFR vs. FFR): 3% vs. 31%, P<0.001
DEFINE REAL ¹⁶⁵	Registry, prospective	484 patients (ACS 18%)	Impact of routine FFR guidance on treatment reclassification	 Reclassification of: Vessel management: 30.0% of vessels Patient management: 26.9% of patients Overall management: 45.7% of patients

Continued

Supplementary Table 5 Continued

Study	Methodology	Population	Aim	Results
Functionally complete	e revascularization			
Kobayashi et al. ¹⁶⁶	Pooled analyses of the ACS cohorts of the DANAMI3-PRIMULTI, FAMOUS-NSTEMI, FAME RCTs	547 ACS	Determine whether the residual SYNTAX Score could predict outcomes in patients with ACS who undergo FFR- guided functionally com- plete revascularization	 Residual SYNTAX Score (patients with vs. without MACE): 7.2±5.5 vs. 6.6±5.9, <i>P</i>=0.23 HR of residual SYNTAX Score for 2-year MACE: 1.01, 95% CI 0.98–1.05, <i>P</i>=0.46

ACS = acute coronary syndromes; AMI = acute myocardial infarction; ARR = absolute risk reduction; CAD = coronary artery disease; CI = confidence interval; CMR = cardiac magnetic resonance; DANAMI 3-PRIMULTI = Primary PCI in Patients With ST-Elevation Myocardial Infarction and Multivessel Disease: Treatment of Culprit Lesion Only or Complete Revascularization; DEFINE-FLAIR = Functional Lesion Assessment of Intermediate Stenosis to Guide Revascularisation; DEFINE REAL = REal-life information for the utilization of instantaneous wave-free ratio; FAME = Fractional flow reserve versus Angiography for Multivessel Evaluation; FAMOUS-NSTEMI = Fractional flow reserve versus angiography in guiding management to optimize outcomes in non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction; FFR = fractional flow reserve; HR = hazard ratio; iFR = instantaneous wave-free ratio; iFR = Instantaneous Wave-free Ratio versus Fractional Flow Reserve in Patients with Stable Angina Pectoris or Acute Coronary Syndrome; MACCE = major adverse cardiovascular and cerebrovascular events; MACE = major adverse cardiovascular and cerebrovascular events; MACE = major adverse Study on the Evaluation of FFR-Guided Treatment of Coronary Disease; PRIME-FFR = Insights From the POST-IT and R3F Integrated Multicenter Registries - Implementation of FFR in Routine Practice; R3F = French FFR Registry; RCT = randomized controlled trial; SYNTAX = Synergy between PCI with Taxus and cardiac surgery.

8 Special populations

8.1 Heart failure and cardiogenic shock

Supplementary Table 6 Ongoing trials in cardiogenic shock investigating the role of percutaneous mechanical circulatory support

Study name	RCT identification	Start- completion date ^a	Key inclusion criteria	Experimental arm	Comparator arm	n	Primary endpoint
ANCHOR	NCT04184635	2020-2023	AMI + CS	VA-ECMO + IABP	Conventional circu- latory support	400	Death in the ECMO group and death OR rescue ECMO in the control group
DanGer (formerly DanShock)	NCT01633502	2012-2022	$\begin{array}{l} STEMI + CS + LVEF \\ <45\% \end{array}$	Impella CP	Conventional circu- latory support	360	All-cause mortality
ECMO-CS	NCT02301819	2014–2021	CS	VA-ECMO	Conventional circu- latory support	120	All-cause mortality or resuscitated car- diac arrest or another mechanical circulatory support device implantation
ECMO-RRT	NCT02870946	2016-2021	CS + ECMO	ECMO + RRT	ECMO	262	All-cause mortality
ECLS-SHOCK	NCT03637205	2019-2022	AMI + CS	ECLS + PCI (or CABG surgery)	PCI (or CABG surgery)	420	All-cause mortality
EUROSHOCK	NCT03813134	2019-2023	ACS + CS + PCI	VA-ECMO + PCI	PCI	428	All-cause mortality or heart failure
HYPO-ECMO	NCT02754193	2016-2021	CS + VA-ECMO	ECMO + hypothermia	ECMO	334	All-cause mortality
IABP18	NCT03635840	2018-2021	AMI + CS	IABP prior to revascularization	Revascularization	92	All-cause mortality

Continued

Supplementary Table 6 Continued

Study name	RCT identification	Start – completion date ^a	Key inclusion criteria	Experimental arm	Comparator arm	n	Primary endpoint
Prague OHCA	NCT01511666	2013-2021	OHCA ± CS	Prehospital mechani- cal compressions, cooling, and in-hos- pital ECLS	Standard care	170	6-month survival with good neurolog- ical outcome (CPC 1–2)
REVERSE	NCT03431467	2018-2021	CS	Impella + VA- ECMO	VA-ECMO	96	Recovery from shock

ACS = acute coronary syndromes; AMI = acute myocardial infarction; CABG = coronary artery bypass graft(ing); CPC = cerebral performance category; CS = cardiogenic shock (definition may vary according to study protocol); ECLS = extracorporeal life support; ECLS-SHOCK = Extracorporeal Life Support in Cardiogenic Shock; ECMO = extracorporeal membrane oxygenation; ECMO-CS = ExtraCorporeal Membrane Oxygenation in the Therapy of Cardiogenic Shock; EUROSHOCK = Testing the Value of Novel Strategy and Its Cost Efficacy in Order to Improve the Poor Outcomes in Cardiogenic Shock; HYPO-ECMO = Effects of Induced Moderate HYPOthermia on Mortality in Cardiogenic Shock Patients Rescued by Veno-arterial ExtraCorporeal Membrane Oxygenation; IABP = intra-aortic balloon pump; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction; OHCA = out-of-hospital cardiac arrest; PCI = percutaneous coronary intervention; RCT = randomized controlled trial; REVERSE = Impella CP With VA ECMO for Cardiogenic Shock; RTT = renal replacement therapy; STEMI = ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction; VA-ECMO = veno-arterial extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. ^aEstimated.

8.5 Thrombocytopenia

Thrombocytopenia in the context of NSTE-ACS is an independent predictor of poor outcomes, including death, major bleeds, and life-threatening prothrombotic events.^{167–170} Clinically significant thrombocytopenia is defined as a platelet count \leq 100 000/mL or a relative drop of 50% from baseline. Causes include haemodilution, in vitro artefacts, increased platelet consumption/sequestration/ destruction, and decreased platelet production.¹⁷⁰ Blood sampling should be in non-ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid tubes, as ethylene-diaminetetraacetic acid may lead to platelet clumping and pseudo-thrombocytopenia.¹⁷⁰

8.5.1 Thrombocytopenia related to glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitors

In patients undergoing PCI, mild thrombocytopenia (platelet count of 50 000–100 000/mL) was reported in 4.2% of abciximab- vs. 2.0% of placebo-treated patients (OR 2.14, 95% CI 1.52–3.04, *P*<0.001), whereas severe thrombocytopenia (defined as a platelet count of 20 000–50 000/mL) was reported in 1.0% (abciximab) vs. 0.4% (placebo) of patients (OR 2.48, 95% CI 1.18–5.85, *P*=0.01).¹⁷¹ In a meta-analysis of 23 RCTs, there was a 51% increase in the incidence of any thrombocytopenia with tirofiban treatment vs. placebo (OR 1.51, 95% CI 1.06–2.16, *P*=0.02).¹⁷²

Patients treated with glycoprotein (GP) IIb/IIIa inhibitors should have a platelet count within 8-12 h of first drug administration, at the time of any bleeding complications, and again after 24 h. Patients treated with abciximab require an additional platelet count within 4 h of first drug administration. GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor infusion should be discontinued if the platelet count falls to <100 000/mL or by 50% from baseline. Platelet transfusions are recommended when there is active bleeding associated with profound thrombocytopenia defined as platelet count <20 000/mL.^{171,173} Platelet transfusion may be ineffective while reversibly binding GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors (eptifibatide or tirofiban) remain in circulation (half-life \sim 2 h for both drugs).¹⁷⁴ In patients with ongoing major bleeding, fibrinogen supplementation with fresh frozen plasma or cryoprecipitate may be considered. Supportive measures in case of profound thrombocytopenia may include i.v. immunoglobulins and corticosteroids.¹⁷⁵ Patients who experience thrombocytopenia following GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors should be counselled to avoid subsequent exposure.

8.5.2 Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia

Non-immune mediated mild thrombocytopenia (platelet count 100 000/mL) presents within 48-72 h of the onset of therapy in 10-20% of patients treated with unfractionated heparin (UFH); this generally resolves without complications despite continued UFH use. By contrast, immune-mediated heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (HIT) is a potentially fatal prothrombotic disorder occurring in 0.5-3% of patients who receive UFH, a low-molecular-weight heparin, or other heparin products.^{168,176,177} HIT should be considered when the platelet count drops to <100 000/mL (although it does not usually drop <10 000-20 000/mL).^{170,173,178} HIT usually occurs 5-10 days after a first UFH exposure, or within hours if a patient has previously received heparin.¹⁷⁹ In the absence of heparin-dependent antibodies, re-exposure does not necessarily cause a relapse of the syndrome.¹⁷⁹ Once HIT is suspected, heparin (including flushes, coated catheters, etc.) must be discontinued. Given that HIT predisposes to thrombosis, alternative antithrombotic therapy with non-heparin anticoagulants - such as argatroban danaparoid - is necessary. Fondaparinux and bivalirudin are potential alternatives, but not approved for HIT.¹⁸⁰ Platelet transfusions may exacerbate the situation.

8.7 Frailty

Supplementary Table 7 Outcomes instruments to measure frailty

Name	References
Frailty phenotype	181-184
Frailty index, accumulation of deficits	182,184-186
Modified functional independence measure	187
Instrument 'Carriere'	188
Instrument 'Gealey'	189
Gronnigan Frailty Indicator	190
Frail Elderly Functional Assessment Questionnaire	191,192
Instrument 'Guilley'	193
Instrument 'Rothman'	194
Clinical Global Impression of Change in Physical F	railty ¹⁹⁵
Vulnerable Elders Survey	196,197
Study of Osteoporotic Fractures instrument	183
Instrument 'Chin A Paw'	198
Instrument 'Puts'	199
Instrument 'Ravaglia'	200
Instrument 'Winograd'	201
Grip strength as a single marker	202
1994 Frailty Measure	182,203
Self-report Screening Measurement	204
Geriatric Functional Evaluation	205
Frailty Index-comprehensive Geriatric Assessment	t 206,207

Results are based on the results of a systematic review by de Vries et al.²⁰⁸

9 Long-term management of non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndrome

The general aim of long-term secondary prevention is to reduce the risk of recurrence, reduce symptoms, and reduce the risk of developing LV systolic dysfunction and heart failure, and thus improve prognosis and increase event-free life expectancy through appropriate medications and interventions, and control of risk factors including lifestyle behaviours.^{209–211} However, there is still insufficient awareness among lay people, patients, and even physicians about the link between risk factors and cardiovascular disease (CVD) in later life;^{212–215} even worse is the number of people converting this knowledge into practice.²¹² A critical event such as an NSTE-ACS can help trigger active secondary prevention.

Optimal medical therapy should be given alongside promotion of medication adherence, behavioural counselling, and support for managing lifestyle risk factors.^{211,216} Achieving optimal management may be best accomplished through a multidisciplinary team approach that can provide tailored and flexible support to patients.²¹¹

Patient-reported outcome measures (PROMs) can provide relevant and systematic information about patients' symptoms, functioning, and concerns.²¹¹ Increasingly, PROMs are being implemented sequentially in healthcare, and have been shown to improve clinical care and patient experiences, communication between providers and patients (including sensitive subjects), save time in consultations, and improve provider satisfaction.^{211,217}

9.1 Lifestyle management

Lifestyle recommendations and interventions are described in more detail in the 2016 joint European Guidelines on CVD prevention in clinical practice²¹⁸ and the 2019 ESC chronic coronary syndromes (CCS) Guidelines.²¹¹ Lifestyle factors are important, and implementing healthy behaviours (e.g. smoking cessation, physical activity, healthy diet, and maintaining a healthy weight) significantly decreases the risk of future cardiovascular events and death, even when controlling for evidence-based secondary prevention therapy and interventions.^{143,211,219–224} Benefits are evident as early as 6 months after an index event such as NSTE-ACS.^{211,219}

Primary care providers have an important role to play in prevention. The primary care arm of the EUROACTION cluster-RCT demonstrated that a nurse-coordinated programme in primary care was more effective in helping patients achieve lifestyle and risk factor goals than usual care.²²⁵

Supplementary Table 8 Lifestyle recommendations

Smoking cessation	Use pharmacological and behavioural strategies to help patients quit smoking. Avoid passive smoking.
Healthy diet	Diet high in vegetables, fruit, whole grains; limit saturated fat to <10% of total. Limit alcohol to <100 g/week or 15 g/day.
Physical activity	30–60 min moderate physical activity most days, but even irregular activity is beneficial.
Healthy weight	Obtain and maintain a healthy weight (BMI $18.5-25 \text{ kg/m}^2$) or reduce weight through recommended energy intake and increased physical activity.
Other	Take medication as prescribed.
	Sexual activity is low risk for stable patients who are not symptomatic at low-to-moderate activity levels.

Lifestyle recommendations are based on 2019 ESC CCS Guidelines.²¹¹ BMI = body mass index; CCS = chronic coronary syndromes; ESC = European Society of Cardiology.

9.1.1 Smoking

Smoking cessation improves the prognosis of patients with CAD, including a 36% risk reduction in mortality for those who quit.²²⁶ Measures to promote smoking cessation include brief advice, counselling, and behavioural interventions, and pharmacological therapy including nicotine replacement.^{211,218,227–229} Patients should also avoid passive smoking. Combining behavioural and pharmacological approaches (nicotine-replacement therapy, bupropion, varenicline) are effective and highly recommended.^{211,227,228,230} The use of e-cigarettes is not an alternative to conventional cigarettes or a real alternative to smoking cessation; severe short-term toxic effects and

methemoglobinemia have been reported.^{231,232} E-cigarettes can deliver nicotine and other constituents such as carbonyls and fine and ultrafine particulates.^{211,228,233} In a recent large clinical trial of 886 smokers, those assigned to e-cigarettes to help quitting had a sustained 1-year abstinence rate of 18.0% compared to 9.9% for nicotine-replacement therapy (relative risk 1.83, 95% CI 1.30–2.58, P<0.001).²³⁴ Cardiovascular effects of newer e-cigarettes over the longer term remain unknown, as well as their sustained effectiveness in smoking cessation.²²⁸ In clinical encounters with smokers, clinicians should follow the 'Five A's': Ask about smoking, Advise to quit, Assess readiness to quit, Assist with smoking cessation, and Arrange follow-up.²¹⁸

9.1.2 Diet and alcohol

Changes to healthy eating patterns in patients with CAD are associated with a reduced risk of mortality and cardiovascular events^{211,228,235} (see *Supplementary Table 9* for recommended diet characteristics). A Mediterranean dietary pattern – high in fruit, vegetables, legumes, fibre, polyunsaturated fats, nuts, and fish, while avoiding or limiting refined carbohydrates, red meat, dairy, and saturated fat – is advocated.^{211,228,236–239} The effect of a healthy diet is enhanced by physical activity.²⁴⁰ Although light-to-moderate alcohol intake (1–2 drinks per day) does not increase the risk of MI, levels above 100 g/week were associated with higher all-cause mortality in a large individual data meta-analysis.²⁴¹ The Global Burden of Disease 1990–2016 analysis concluded that zero alcohol intake was the level at which risk of death and disability was minimized.²⁴²

Supplementary Table 9 Healthy diet^{211,218,235,237,243,244}

Increase consumption of fruit and vegetables (≥200 g each per day)

35-45 g of fibre per day, preferably from whole grains

Moderate nut consumption (30 g unsalted)

1-2 servings of fish per week (one to be oily fish)

Limited lean meat, low-fat dairy products, and liquid vegetable oils

Saturated fats to account for ${<}10\%$ of total energy intake, replace with polyunsaturated fats

Trans unsaturated fats as low as possible, preferably no intake from processed food, and <1% of total energy intake

 $\leq 5-6$ g of salt per day

If alcohol is consumed, limiting intake to \leq 100 g/week or <15 g/day is recommended

Avoid energy-dense foods such as sugar-sweetened soft drinks

9.1.3 Weight management

In a population-based study, lifetime risk of incident CVD and cardiovascular morbidity and mortality were higher in those who were overweight or obese compared to those with a healthy body mass index (BMI) $(20-25 \text{ kg/m}^2)$.²⁴⁵ Obesity was associated with a shorter overall lifespan, and being overweight was associated with developing CVD at an earlier age.²⁴⁵ However, this association between body weight and cardiovascular and all-cause mortality was not found in patients with CAD, in whom a BMI of $25-30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ seemed to be optimal. Waist circumference is a marker of central obesity and is strongly associated with developing CVD and diabetes. Waist circumference <94 cm for men (<90 cm for South Asian and Asian men) and <80 cm for women is recommended.²¹⁸

In those with CAD, intentional weight loss has been found to be associated with a significantly lower risk of adverse clinical outcomes.²⁴⁶ Although there has been much argument regarding the relative benefits of low-fat vs. low-carbohydrate diets, Gardner *et al.*²⁴⁷ found similar weight loss and benefit in patients randomized to either healthy low-fat or low-carbohydrate diets, regardless of patients' genotype pattern and baseline insulin secretion. Healthy diets with energy intake limited to the amount needed to obtain and maintain a healthy weight (BMI <25 kg/m²) and increasing physical activity (and decreased sedentary time) is recommended for weight management.

9.1.3 Physical activity

Exercise has been referred to as a 'polypill' due to its numerous beneficial effects on cardiovascular risk factors and cardiovascular system physiology.^{248,249,341} Exercise improves angina through enhanced oxygen delivery to the myocardium, and increasing exercise capacity is an independent predictor of increased survival among men and women with CCS, even among those with a regimen consistent with evidence-based management.^{221,248,250} Every 1 mL/kg/min increase in peak oxygen uptake has been associated with a 14 - 17% reduction in risk for cardiovascular and all-cause death in women and men.²²¹

Physical activity recommendations for CCS patients are 30-60 min of moderate-intensity aerobic activity at least 5 days per week.^{251–253} Even irregular leisure-time physical activity decreases mortality risk among previously sedentary patients,²⁵⁴ and increasing activity is associated with lower cardiovascular mortality.^{224,255–258} Previously sedentary patients will need support to work up to 30-60 min most days, reassurance that exercise is beneficial, and education regarding what to do if angina occurs while being active. Resistance exercises maintain muscle mass, strength, and function, and benefit insulin sensitivity and control of lipids and blood pressure.²⁵⁹

9.1.4 Cardiac rehabilitation

Multidisciplinary cardiac rehabilitation has consistently demonstrated its effectiveness in reducing cardiovascular mortality and hospitalizations compared to no exercise in patients with CAD, and this benefit persists in the modern era.^{258,260–262} Most patients participating in cardiac rehabilitation are referred following an acute MI (AMI) or after revascularization, with 0 - 24% of patients found to be referred for CCS in 12 European countries.²⁶³ Importantly, the benefits of cardiac rehabilitation occur across diagnostic categories.^{258,260,261} Therefore, increasing referral rate to a multidisciplinary cardiac rehabilitation is strongly recommended in all patients with NSTEMI.

9.1.5 Psychosocial factors

Patients with heart disease have a two-fold increased risk of mood and anxiety disorders compared to people without heart disease.^{264–266} Psychosocial stress, depression, and anxiety are associated with worse outcomes, and make it difficult for patients to make positive changes in their lifestyles or adhere to a therapeutic regimen. Also, sleep disorders and obstructive sleep apnoea syndrome are associated with increased cardiovascular risk; people sleeping <6 or >10 hours/night are at increased risk of cardiovascular events.²⁶⁷ The 2016 joint European Guidelines on CVD prevention recommend assessment for psychosocial risk factors.²¹⁸ Clinical trials have shown that psychological (e.g. counselling, cognitive behavioural therapy) and pharmacological interventions have a beneficial effect on depression, anxiety, and stress, with some evidence for a reduction in cardiac mortality and events.^{268–270}

9.1.6 Environmental factors

Air pollutants have been estimated to be one of the 10 leading risk factors for global mortality.²⁷¹ Exposure to air pollution increases the risk of MI as well as hospitalization and death from heart failure, stroke, and arrhythmia.^{272,273} Patients with CCS should avoid heavily traffic-congested areas. Air purifiers with high-efficiency particulate air filters reduce indoor pollution, and wearing N95 respirator face-masks in heavily polluted areas has been shown to be protective.^{272,274} Studies have also shown that environmental noise increases the risk of CVD.²⁷⁵ Policies and regulations that reduce air pollution and environmental noise should be supported, and patients should be advised regarding these risks.

9.1.7 Sexual activity

Patients with CCS often worry about the risk of sexual activity and/ or experience sexual dysfunction.²⁷⁶ The risk of triggering sudden death or an AMI is very low, especially when sexual activity is with a stable partner in a familiar environment without stress or excessive intake of food or alcohol beforehand.^{277,278} Although sexual activity transiently increases the risk of MI, it is the cause of <1% of AMIs, and <1-1.7% of sudden deaths occurred during sexual activity.²⁷⁸ The energy expenditure during sexual activity is generally low to moderate (3-5 metabolic equivalents [METs]), and climbing two flights of stairs is often used as an equivalent activity in terms of energy expended.^{277,278} Regular physical activity decreases the risk of adverse events during sexual activity.²⁷⁹ Sexual dysfunction in patients with CCS includes decreased libido and sexual activity, and a high prevalence of erectile dysfunction. Sexual dysfunction may be caused by underlying vascular conditions, psychosocial factors, specific medications, number of medications, and changes in relationships.²⁸⁰ Thiazide diuretics and beta-blockers (except nebivolol) may negatively influence erectile function, but studies published since 2011 have not found a consistent relationship between most contemporary cardiovascular medications and erectile dysfunction.^{276,278,279} Phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitors to treat erectile dysfunction are generally safe in CCS patients, but should not be used in those taking nitrates.²⁷⁸ Healthcare providers should ask patients about sexual activity and offer advice and counselling.

9.1.8 Adherence and sustainability

Adherence to lifestyle modifications and medications is a challenge. A systematic review of epidemiological studies has indicated that a substantial proportion of patients do not adhere to cardiovascular medications, and that 9% of cardiovascular events in Europe were attributable to poor adherence.²⁸¹ In older men with ischaemic heart disease, greater adherence to medication appears to be positively associated with better clinical outcomes, independent of other conditions.²⁸² Polypharmacy can play a negative role in adherence to treatment²⁸³ and complexity of a drug regimen is associated with non-adherence and higher rates of hospitalizations.²⁸⁴ Drug prescriptions should prioritize medications that have proven their benefit with the highest level of evidence and those for which the amplitude of benefit is largest. Simplifying medication regimens may help, and there is some evidence for cognitive educational strategies, electronically monitored feedback, and support by nurse case managers. Medication reviews by primary care providers may be helpful in patients with multiple comorbidities to minimize the risk of adverse interactions and to simplify medication regimens.^{216,223,285-287} Promoting behaviour change and medication adherence should be part of each clinical encounter in primary care and specialist followup, emphasizing its importance, referring for support when needed, and congratulating patients for achievements. Long-term support (intensive in the first 6 months, then every 6 months for 3 years) as in the Global Secondary Prevention Strategies to Limit Event Recurrence after Myocardial Infarction (GOSPEL) trial resulted in significant improvements in risk factors and decreases in several clinical mortality and morbidity endpoints.²²⁰ The Multicentre Lifestyle Demonstration Project showed that CCS patients could make intensive lifestyle changes and improve their risk factors and fitness, with changes sustained at 12 months.²⁸⁸ Finally, the use of a polypill, e.g. combinations such as an angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitor, aspirin, plus a statin, can help to improve adherence.^{289,290}

9.1.9 Influenza vaccination

An annual influenza vaccination can improve AMI prevention in CCS patients,^{291,292} change heart failure prognosis,²⁹³ and decrease cardiovascular mortality in adults aged 65 years and older.^{294–296} Therefore, annual influenza vaccination is recommended for patients with CAD, especially for older patients.

9.2 Pharmacological management

The aims of the pharmacological management of CCS patients are to reduce angina symptoms, exercise-induced ischaemia, cardiovascular events, LV dysfunction, heart failure, and cardiovascular and all-cause mortality. Immediate relief of anginal symptoms — or prevention of symptoms under circumstances likely to elicit angina — is usually obtained with rapidly acting formulations of nitroglycerin. Anti-ischaemic drugs — but also lifestyle changes, regular exercise training, patient education, and revascularization — all have a role to play in minimizing or eradicating symptoms over the long term (long-term prevention).

Prevention of cardiovascular events targets MI and death associated with CAD and focuses primarily on reducing the incidence of acute thrombotic events and the development of ventricular dysfunction.

Strategies include pharmacological and lifestyle interventions as detailed in the 2016 European Guidelines on CVD prevention in clinical practice.²¹⁸

9.2.1 Anti-ischaemic drugs

9.2.1.1 Beta-blockers

In certain patients with recent MI and those with chronic heart failure with reduced ejection fraction (most certainly in those with sinus rhythm), beta-blockers have been associated with a significant reduction in mortality and/or cardiovascular events.²⁹⁷⁻³⁰³ Low doses (<25% of target) seem similarly effective as higher doses after MI.³⁰⁰ However, the protective benefit in patients with CAD without prior MI or heart failure is less well established and lacks placebocontrolled trials.³⁰⁴ A retrospective analysis of 21 860 matched patients from the REduction of Atherothrombosis for Continued Health (REACH) registry showed no reduction in cardiovascular mortality with β -blockers in patients with CAD with risk factors only, known prior MI, or known CAD without MI.³⁰⁵ In a retrospective, national registry of 755 215 patients \geq 65 years of age with a history of CAD without prior MI or heart failure with reduced ejection fraction undergoing elective PCI, beta-blocker use at discharge was not associated with any reduction in cardiovascular morbidity or mortality at 30-day and 3-year follow-up.³⁰⁶ However, in patients with or without previous MI undergoing CABG, beta-blockers were associated with a lower risk of long-term mortality and adverse cardiovascular events.³⁰⁷ Other observational studies or meta-analyses have questioned the benefit of long-term (>1 year) beta-blocker therapy in patients with prior MI. $^{304,308-311}$ This is still a matter of debate 312 and uncertainties remain on the comparative role of beta-blockers and ACE inhibitors.

The dose of beta-blockers should be adjusted to limit the heart rate to 55 - 60 beats per min at rest.^{313,314} Discontinuation should be tapered rather than abrupt. Beta-blockers can be combined with dihydropyridine calcium channel blockers in patients with symptomatic angina pectoris to reduce the dihydropyridine-induced tachycardia, but with uncertain incremental clinical value. $^{\rm 315-318}$ Caution is warranted when a beta-blocker is combined with verapamil or diltiazem due to the potential for developing (worsening) heart failure, excessive bradycardia, and/or atrioventricular block. Combination of a beta-blocker with a nitrate attenuates the reflex tachycardia of the latter. The principal side effects of beta-blockers are dose-dependent bradycardia, heart block, postural hypotension, and fatigue. Although bronchospasm may occur, beta-blockers are only relatively contraindicated in patients with asthma and not in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, although a more selective β 1-adrenoreceptor antagonist (i.e. bisoprolol, metoprolol succinate, or nebivolol) may be preferred. $^{319-322}$ The contraindication of beta-blockers in asthma, as mentioned on pharmacy leaflets, is based on small case series published in the 1980s and late 1990s with very high (oral) initial dosages in young patients with severe asthma. In clinical practice, starting with a low dose of cardioselective beta-blockers combined with close monitoring of signs of airway obstruction (wheezing, shortness of breath with lengthening of the expirium) may allow the use of betablockers.³²⁰ Therefore, according to the Global Initiative for Asthma (GINA) global strategy report,³²³ asthma is not an absolute contraindication.

The need for, and duration of, beta-blocker therapy following MI to maintain a protective effect on cardiac events in the absence of LV systolic dysfunction are unknown and are currently being investigated in several RCTs [Beta Blocker Interruption After Uncomplicated Myocardial Infarction (A β YSS), Evaluation of Decreased Usage of Betablockers After Myocardial Infarction in the SWEDEHEART Registry (REDUCE-SWEDEHEART), and TREatment With Betablockers After myOcardial Infarction withOut Reduced Ejection fracTion (REBOOT-CNIC)].³²⁴

9.2.3 Proton pump inhibitors

Proton pump inhibitors reduce the risk of gastrointestinal bleeding in patients treated with antiplatelet agents and are a useful adjunctive treatment for improving safety;³²⁵ indications for this treatment are summarized in *Table 12* (section 5.3). Long-term proton pump inhibitor use is associated with hypomagnesaemia, but the role of monitoring serum magnesium levels is uncertain. Proton pump inhibitors that inhibit *CYP2C19*, particularly omeprazole and esomeprazole, may reduce the pharmacodynamic response to clopidogrel, but without an established increased risk of ischaemic events or stent thrombosis. Co-administration of omeprazole or esomeprazole with clopidogrel is generally not recommended.

9.2.6 Renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system blockers

ACE inhibitors can reduce mortality, MI, stroke, and heart failure among patients with LV dysfunction, 326-328 previous vascular disease,³²⁹ and high-risk diabetes.³³⁰ It is recommended to consider ACE inhibitors (or angiotensin receptor blockers in case of intolerance) for the treatment of patients with CCS with co-existing hypertension, LV ejection fraction (LVEF) ≤40%, diabetes, or chronic kidney disease, unless contraindicated (e.g. severe renal impairment, hyperkalaemia, etc.). However, not all trials have demonstrated that ACE inhibitors reduce all-cause mortality, cardiovascular mortality, non-fatal MI, stroke, and heart failure in patients with atherosclerosis and without impaired LV function.^{329,331,332} A meta-analysis, including 24 trials and 61 961 patients, documented that, in CCS patients without heart failure, renin-angiotensin system inhibitors reduced cardiovascular events and death when compared with placebo but not when compared with active controls. $^{\rm 333}$ Hence, ACE inhibitor therapy in CCS patients without heart failure or high cardiovascular risk is not generally recommended, unless required to meet blood pressure targets. Neprilysin is an endogenous enzyme that degrades vasoactive peptides such as bradykinin and natriuretic peptides. Pharmacological inhibition of neprilysin raises the levels of these peptides, enhancing diuresis, natriuresis, myocardial relaxation, and anti-remodelling and reducing renin and aldosterone secretion. The first-in-class angiotensin receptor and neprilysin inhibitor is a combination of valsartan and sacubitril (neprilysin inhibitor) in a single pill. In patients with heart failure (LVEF <35%) who remain symptomatic despite optimal treatment with an ACE inhibitor, a beta-blocker, and a mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist, sacubitril/valsartan is recommended as a replacement for an ACE inhibitor to further reduce the risk of heart failure hospitalization and death in ambulatory patients.³³⁴

9.2.7 Mineralocorticoid receptor antagonist therapy

Aldosterone antagonist therapy is recommended in patients with LV dysfunction (LVEF \leq 40%) and heart failure or diabetes after NSTE-ACS. Eplerenone therapy has been shown to reduce morbidity and mortality in these patients after ACS.^{335–338} Caution should be exercised when mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists are used in patients with impaired renal function (estimated glomerular filtration rate <45 mL/min/1.73 m²) and in those with serum potassium levels \geq 5.0 mmol/L.³²⁰

9.2.8 Antihypertensive therapy

Antihypertensive therapy is recommended according to the 2018 ESC/ ESH Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension.³³⁹ The first treatment goal is blood pressure <140/90 mmHg in all patients and, provided that the treatment is well tolerated, treated blood pressure values should be targeted to 130/80 mmHg or lower in most patients.³³⁹ In patients aged <65 years receiving blood pressure-lowering drugs, it is recommended that SBP should be lowered to 120–129 mmHg in most patients.³³⁹ In older patients (≥65 years) receiving blood pressure-lowering drugs, the SBP should be targeted to 130–139 mmHg.³³⁹

9.2.9 Hormone replacement therapy

The results from large randomized trials have shown that hormone replacement therapy provides no prognostic benefit and increases the risk of CVD in women above the age of 60 years.³⁴⁰

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