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1 **Title:** Healthcare disparities for women hospitalised with myocardial infarction and angina

2 **Short title:** Sex disparities in MI

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32 Ischaemic heart disease persists as the leading global cause of death.[1] Myocardial infarction
33 (MI) accounts for a large proportion of death due to cardiovascular disease. Between 2007 and
34 2016, age-sex standardised mortality for MI in Scotland has fallen by 42.5% from 129 to 74
35 per 100,000 population[2] – a trend also apparent in other countries.[3] [4] Despite
36 improvements in survival, considerable disparities exist according to sex in terms of delivery
37 of guideline-recommended treatments and outcomes following MI suggesting women may be
38 disadvantaged.[5]

39 Use of high-sensitivity troponin assays with sex-specific thresholds increases the detection of
40 MI in women.[6] However, women are less likely to undergo percutaneous coronary
41 revascularisation (PCI) and are more often subject to underutilisation of evidence-based
42 secondary preventative pharmacotherapy.[5] [7] [8] Differences in adoption of invasive
43 management may, in part, be explained by a perception held by clinicians and patients that
44 outcomes are worse for women receiving PCI, as well as differences in symptoms and baseline
45 risk profile which may impact clinical decision-making.[9] Adverse events post-MI, including
46 cardiogenic shock, heart failure and death, remain more common in women than in men, most
47 notably in those with ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI).[10] [11] Whether sex
48 remains an independent predictor of adverse events despite adjustments for the higher risk-
49 profile of women, notably age, is less clear.

50 We hypothesised that sex-related differences in demographics and comorbidity underpin
51 disparities in management and outcomes of women and men hospitalised with MI or angina.
52 We investigated this hypothesis by analysis of a contemporary secondary care electronic
53 registry (e-Registry) using electronic patient records (EPRs) for patients admitted to a complex
54 regional healthcare network.[12]

56 Setting

57 Seven acute hospitals in the National Health Service (NHS) in Glasgow and the West of
58 Scotland provide a complex healthcare system serving a population of approximately 1.2
59 million. The Golden Jubilee National Hospital is a regional cardiothoracic centre that provides
60 invasive cardiology services for this population. EPRs were implemented across all secondary
61 care clinical and administration systems in NHS Greater Glasgow and Clyde (GGC) and the
62 Golden Jubilee National Hospital by June 2012 enabling capture of key components of
63 hospital care. These EPRs have been combined into an e-Registry for quality improvement and
64 research.[12]

65 The Information Services Division is part of NHS National Services Scotland and holds a
66 range of health-related administrative data, including information relating to medicines
67 dispensed in the community within its Prescribing Information System (PIS) database,
68 morbidity collected from all hospital admissions in the Scottish Morbidity Record 01 (SMR01)
69 database and all deaths registered by National Records of Scotland (NRS). Once data were
70 extracted, identifiers were removed and replaced with a pseudonymous identifier. The research
71 team accessed these pseudonymised datasets within a Safe Haven analytical platform.[13]

72 Ethics and governance

73 The project was supported by the National Advisory Committee for Coronary Heart Disease
74 on behalf of the Scottish Government. The Joint Working Project received ethical approval
75 from the NHS GGC Local Privacy Advisory Committee and was approved by hospital
76 management and the Caldicott Guardian for clinical governance in each health board.

77 **Design and methodology**

78 Data were extracted from EPRs for all admissions (01/10/13-30/06/16) with an International
79 Statistical Classification of Diseases (ICD-10) diagnosis of angina (I200-I209), MI (I210-
80 I229), other ischaemic heart disease (I240-I249), or heart failure (I50) to ensure complete
81 capture of events. Data were deposited within an existing repository for electronic health data
82 and linked to electronic referrals for cardiovascular procedures performed in the invasive
83 centre. An executable system was developed to identify, link and classify these records into
84 episodes of care as detailed in a previous project.[12] Patients with a final diagnosis of MI or
85 angina were isolated and linked to PIS prescribing data, SMR01 data for comorbidities and
86 mortality data from NRS. This linked dataset was analysed to look at patient characteristics,
87 invasive cardiovascular procedures, service delivery metrics, drug treatment and mortality. The
88 pre-specified primary outcomes were 30 day and 1 year all-cause mortality (from date of
89 admission). The receipt of cardiac interventions and medical therapy at discharge, 6 months
90 and 1 year post-discharge were the pre-specified secondary outcomes.

91 **Statistical analysis**

92 Baseline characteristics were described using means with standard deviations, total numbers
93 with percentages, or medians with interquartile ranges. Where all patients were analysed, this
94 included unspecified MI. Comparisons between men and women were made using appropriate
95 statistical tests (t-test/Mann-Whitney/chi-squared/Fisher's exact). Deprivation status was
96 identified based on home postcode and measured using quintiles of the Scottish Index of
97 Multiple Deprivation (SIMD) 2012 measure.[14] Quintile 1 represents the highest level of
98 deprivation with quintile 5 representing the least deprived. The top 20% most deprived data
99 zones in Scotland are in quintile 1, and the distribution of Glasgow's data zones is 49%, 19%,
100 13%, 10.5%, 8.5% (Q1-Q5).[15] A Charlson comorbidity score was derived using standard
101 procedures and ICD-10 codes included the hospital admission records.[16] Pre-admission
102 medical therapy and medical therapy at discharge were defined as fulfilment of prescription

103 within 90 days pre-admission and post-discharge, respectively. Medical therapy at 6 months
104 and at 1 year were defined as fulfilment of prescription at 6 months or 1 year post-discharge
105 +/- 45 days.

106 To analyse the relationship between sex and medical treatment, three analyses using mixed
107 effects logistic models were performed for each drug and drug combination: (1) for patients
108 alive at discharge, fulfilling a prescription claim within 90 days of discharge, (2) for patients
109 discharged with treatment and alive at 6 months post-discharge, fulfilling a prescription claim
110 at 6 months post-discharge, (3) for patients discharged with treatment and alive at 1 year post-
111 discharge, fulfilling a prescription claim at 1 year post-discharge. Analyses were adjusted for
112 age, SIMD, use of the respective drug within 90 days pre-admission, comorbidities and PCI.
113 Furthermore, we adjusted for clustering at the discharge hospital level. When analysing the
114 association of sex with use of drug combinations, pre-admission drug use was not adjusted for.
115 Multivariable logistic regression was used to evaluate the association of sex and baseline
116 factors with invasive management. Cox proportional hazards regression was used to evaluate
117 the association of sex with all-cause mortality. Kaplan-Meier survival curves were generated
118 for all-cause death and sex differences were assessed using a log rank test. Analyses were
119 conducted using SAS Enterprise Guide (v5.1).

120

Results

121 **Baseline characteristics**

122 There were 7878 patients admitted with MI or angina between 1 October 2013 and 30 June
123 2016, including 3161 (40.1%) women (Table 1). Diagnosis of STEMI was made in 2042
124 (25.9%) patients, non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI) in 3957 (50.2%) patients,
125 hospitalised angina in 1425 (18.1%) patients, and in 454 (5.8%) patients the MI type was
126 unspecified. Women were older than men (69.7 years vs 64.0 years, $p<0.0001$) and were
127 relatively more deprived (75.7% vs 72.5% in SIMD Q1-3, $p=0.0016$). Diagnosis of STEMI
128 was less common in women than men (20.3% vs 29.7%, $p<0.0001$), but women had a higher
129 proportion of NSTEMI (51.7% vs 49.2%, $p<0.001$) and hospitalised angina (21.4% vs 15.9%,
130 $p<0.0001$). Comorbidity differed according to sex both in terms of higher Charlson scores and
131 an increased proportion of individual comorbid diseases in women, who more frequently had
132 hypertension, atrial fibrillation, renal failure, respiratory disease, cerebrovascular disease,
133 stroke, heart failure, dementia and depression. Compared to men, women were more often
134 treated with statins (46.9% vs 43.2%, $p=0.0013$), beta-blockers (34.9% vs 30.5%, $p<0.0001$)
135 and anticoagulants or antiplatelets (48.5% vs 42.1%, $p<0.0001$) pre-admission.

136 **Invasive management**

137 Approximately 16% fewer women than men underwent coronary angiography (52.1% vs
138 68.2%, $p<0.001$) and PCI (30.3% vs 46.5%, $p<0.001$) (Table 1). Amongst those who had a
139 coronary angiogram, women received PCI 10% less frequently than men (58.1% vs 68.1%,
140 $p<0.001$). The difference in median duration of hospital stay was 1 day (5 days for women vs 4
141 days for men, $p<0.001$). In patients with STEMI, 6.2% fewer women than men were
142 transferred for immediate invasive management (63.6% vs 69.8%, $p=0.0117$) and the median
143 door-to-balloon time was longer for women (23mins vs 21mins, $p<0.0001$) (Supplementary
144 Table 1a). We also examined the effect of age on door-to-balloon time; in those above 65
145 years, the median time was 3 minutes longer for women than for men (24mins vs 21mins,

146 p<0.0001), whereas no difference existed in those under 65 years (21mins vs 21mins,
147 p=0.2287).

148 The sex differences in demographic characteristics were similar for patients with STEMI and
149 NSTEMI (Supplementary Tables 1a and 1b). In patients hospitalised with angina, there were
150 fewer differences although women were older and less frequently received invasive
151 management (Supplementary Table 1c).

152 **Predictors of coronary angiography and PCI**

153 After adjusting for differences in age, deprivation and comorbidities, sex was an independent
154 predictor of both coronary angiography and PCI in all patients (Table 2). For patients with
155 STEMI, men were more likely to receive coronary angiography (adjusted OR:1.44 CI:1.05-
156 1.97) and PCI (adjusted OR:1.62 CI:1.28-2.05). The same was true for patients with NSTEMI
157 (coronary angiography adjusted OR:1.48 CI:1.26-1.75, PCI adjusted OR:1.52 CI:1.32-1.76).

158 Several baseline characteristics were found to be independently associated with lower use of
159 coronary angiography and PCI in patients with MI including older age, prior MI in STEMI,
160 and heart failure in NSTEMI (Figures 1a and 1b). There were few major sex differences within
161 subgroups; most notably, in those with NSTEMI and renal failure men were less likely than
162 women to receive PCI, and in those with NSTEMI and dementia women were less likely than
163 men to receive coronary angiography and PCI.

164 **Medical therapy post-MI**

165 Women were less frequently treated with antiplatelets than men (with no greater treatment
166 with anticoagulants), with a difference at 1 year of 2.8% (p=0.0368) (Figure 2). At 1 year,
167 women were also less often prescribed statins (3.8% difference, p=0.0048) and ACE
168 inhibitors or ARBs (4.3% difference, p=0.003). A similar pattern was seen in the NSTEMI
169 group (Supplementary Figure 1b). In this group, women were also less frequently treated
170 with beta-blockers at 1 year. Drug therapy was similar for men and women at 1 year in the

171 STEMI and hospitalised angina groups, other than anticoagulants, with which fewer women
172 than men were treated (Supplementary Figures 1a and 1c). In patients with STEMI or
173 hospitalised angina, sex was not an independent predictor of treatment with anticoagulants or
174 antiplatelets, statins, ACE inhibitors or ARBs or beta-blockers at 1 year (Supplementary
175 Table 2). Conversely, in NSTEMI men were 20-32% more likely than women to be treated
176 with statins, ACE inhibitors or ARBs, or beta-blockers at 1 year.

177 **Death**

178 Case-fatality at 30 days was 4.9% in all patients, 6.9% in STEMI patients and 2.9% in
179 NSTEMI patients (Table 3). Case-fatality at 1 year was 10.9% in all patients, 10% in STEMI
180 and NSTEMI patients and 5.1% in patients hospitalised for angina. Survival was worse for
181 women than for men, driven by marked differences in outcomes in STEMI (Figure 3); in this
182 group, 6.3% more women than men had died by 1 year (14.3% vs 8.0%, $p < 0.0001$). However,
183 after adjustment for baseline demographics, comorbidities and PCI, the association between
184 sex and mortality after STEMI was not significant and male sex emerged as an independent
185 predictor of death in patients with NSTEMI (1 year HR:1.38 CI:1.12-1.69) (Table 3). **A**
186 subgroup analysis of those patients treated with PCI showed similar results.

188 In this study of 7878 patients with hospitalised with MI or angina from 2013-2016 we found
189 that women had a higher crude rate of death but, after accounting for baseline risk factors, men
190 were more likely to die following NSTEMI, with no difference for patients with STEMI or
191 hospitalised angina. After taking account of baseline risk factors, there remain sex disparities
192 for patients with MI related to treatment times, invasive management and use of secondary
193 prevention therapies. Our findings highlight the need for renewed focus on achieving health
194 equity for women and men through prioritisation of guideline-directed management.

195 **Our analysis serves evidence of the persistently high crude mortality event rate in women,**
196 **particularly with STEMI.** We found that death from any cause was 2.6% more common
197 amongst women than men at 1 year, driven predominantly by deaths in the STEMI population
198 for whom the crude difference was in excess of 6%. The survival curves for men and women
199 with STEMI separate almost immediately, and this is reflected in the 3.6% mortality difference
200 as early as 30 days. In this study, the crude differences were explained by the older age of
201 women compared to men, greater burden of comorbidity, higher relative degree of deprivation
202 and reduced access to coronary angiography and PCI.

203 We have included a comprehensive indicator of social deprivation which measures deprivation
204 across seven weighted domains. **In our study, women were more often from deprived**
205 **socioeconomic groups.** Socioeconomic deprivation is strongly linked with poorer outcomes in
206 MI and in women the effect is more prominent.[17] In Scotland, rates of coronary
207 revascularisation have increased across all deprivation categories over the past 10 years with
208 the exception of the least deprived.[2]

209 Important sex differences in cardiovascular risk factors are evident; diabetes and hypertension
210 are more common in women (particularly younger women), and they may increase risk more
211 in women than men.[18] There are a number of other risk factors specific to women, including
212 hypertensive disorders of pregnancy and pregnancy-related diabetes mellitus, which are

213 associated with a higher later cardiovascular risk.[19] We evaluated additional important
214 comorbidities, notably dementia and depression. Although we must interpret the results with
215 caution due to small numbers of patients identified with each condition, the presence of
216 dementia was associated with a lower likelihood of coronary angiography. Dementia likely
217 serves as a disincentive for clinicians and the families of affected patients to adopt invasive
218 management. It's rising prevalence and emergence as a leading cause of death in women in
219 several countries will increase the magnitude of this disparity.[20] [21] Large trials to
220 investigate the appropriate treatment strategy for older patients with MI, including those with
221 dementia, are underway.[22] [23]

222 We found that an invasive strategy was used less often in the management of women with MI
223 than it was for men, and this mirrors existing literature.[5] [7] [24] [25] Women were less
224 likely to undergo coronary angiography and PCI. **Our analyses suggest that this factor may, in**
225 **part, explain why crude survival is worse for women than it is for men.** There are several
226 reasons why this discrepancy may exist. There were notable differences in route of admission
227 to hospital, with fewer women than men taken directly to the catheterisation laboratory
228 irrespective of MI type. This will incur delays to revascularisation and may reduce the
229 likelihood of coronary angiography altogether. Differences in admission route may be
230 explained by greater diagnostic uncertainty amongst women, who report non-specific or
231 atypical symptoms more often than men.[26] Data on the time between symptom onset and
232 first contact with medical services would highlight delays in presentation, when the benefits of
233 emergent coronary revascularisation are less certain. Finally, emergency care decisions
234 regarding coronary angiography and PCI in women may be influenced by smaller coronary
235 anatomy, more technically challenging vascular access (the excess door-to-balloon time seen
236 in older women in this study may also reflect this), and greater risk of procedure-related
237 complications and post-procedural mortality.[25] Although bleeding complications remain

238 more prevalent in women despite accounting for age, comorbidity and medication use, major
239 adverse cardiac events are largely explained by baseline factors such as these.[25] [27]

240 A further important finding of our study is that male sex was independently associated with a
241 higher risk of death in patients with NSTEMI. This association has been recognised previously
242 and highlights the importance of evaluating subtypes of MI separately.[28] [29] The reason for
243 this is likely multifactorial. One possible explanation is that women have less obstructive
244 coronary artery disease than men and, in post-menopausal women, more efficient vascular
245 tissue repair.[30] Differences in provision of primary preventative medical therapy may also
246 contribute towards the findings. Finally, we lack data on cigarette smoking. In MI, smoking is
247 not only more prevalent in men than in women[5] [24], but is also thought to be associated
248 with different pathologic mechanisms – predominantly plaque rupture and acute thrombosis in
249 men, and plaque erosion with superimposed thrombosis in women.[31]

250 Our study has a number of limitations. In addition to those that are inherent to the retrospective
251 design, we were unable to include several important prognostic variables, including
252 haematological and biochemical bloods tests, biomarkers, haemodynamics, left ventricular
253 systolic function, coronary anatomy and extent of disease. We lack information regarding rates
254 of prior PCI, subsequent coronary artery bypass grafting and symptom-burden after the event.
255 However, women are less likely than men to undergo coronary artery bypass grafting and,
256 even in the absence of adjusting for this, the crude association between female sex and death
257 was removed. A further confounder is lack of data on sex of the treating physician; female
258 patients with MI treated by male physicians are less likely to survive than if treated by female
259 physicians, and greater male physician-experience in treating female patients is linked to better
260 outcomes.[32]

261 **Conclusion**

262 Survival at 30 days and 1 year following STEMI is worse for women than for men. However,
263 this is explained by relative differences in baseline characteristics such as older age, greater

264 deprivation, more prevalent comorbidity and lower rates of coronary angiography and PCI.
265 Differences in the use of evidence-based drug therapy following MI also exist, with women at
266 a disadvantage. Amongst patients with NSTEMI, male sex is an independent predictor of
267 mortality. Efforts to address these sex disparities should be directed towards better
268 understanding the differences in baseline risk and care pathways in order to highlight areas that
269 would benefit from target, sex-specific intervention.

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Legends

391 **Table 1.** Baseline demographics and management for all patients according to sex

392 **Table 2.** Association of sex with coronary angiography and PCI according to diagnosis (odds
393 ratio and 95% confidence interval shown for men vs women)

394 **Table 3.** All-cause death at 30 days and 1 year according to sex and diagnosis (adjusted hazard
395 ratio^a and 95% confidence interval shown for men vs women)

396 **Figure 1a.** Association of baseline characteristics with coronary angiography according to
397 sex for STEMI and NSTEMI (adjusted odds ratio^a and 95% confidence interval shown for
398 10-year increase in age, most vs least deprived, presence vs absence of comorbidity)

399 **Figure 1b.** Association of baseline characteristics with PCI according to sex for STEMI
400 and NSTEMI (adjusted odds ratio^a and 95% confidence interval shown for 10-year
401 increase in age, most vs least deprived, presence vs absence of comorbidity)

402 **Figure 2.** Medical therapy at discharge*, at 6 months** and at 1 year** for all patients
403 according to sex and medication

404 **Figure 3.** Kaplan-Meier curves for all-cause death according to sex and diagnosis