



Everolimus-eluting bioresorbable vascular scaffold in daily clinical practice: A single-centre experience

W. S. Remkes¹ · R. S. Hermanides¹ · M. W. Kennedy¹ · E. Fabris¹ · E. Kaplan¹ · J. P. Ottervanger¹ · A. W. J. van 't Hof¹ · E. Kedhi¹

Published online: 14 September 2017
© The Author(s) 2017. This article is an open access publication.

Abstract

Background Recent evidence has raised concerns regarding the safety of the everolimus-eluting bioresorbable vascular scaffold (E-BVS) (Absorb, Abbott Vascular, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Following these data, the use of this device has diminished in the Netherlands; however, daily practice data are limited. Therefore we studied the incidence of safety and efficacy outcomes with this device in daily clinical practice in a single large tertiary centre in the Netherlands. **Methods** All E-BVS treated patients were included in this analysis. The primary endpoint was target lesion failure (TLF), a composite of cardiac death, target vessel non-fatal myocardial infarction (TV-MI) and clinically-driven target lesion revascularisation (TLR). The secondary endpoint was the incidence of definite scaffold thrombosis.

Results Between October 2013 and January 2017, 105 patients were treated with 147 E-BVS. This population contained 42 (40%) patients with diabetes mellitus and 43 (40.9%) undergoing treatment for acute coronary syndrome, and thus represents a high-risk patient cohort. Mean follow-up was 19.8 months. Intravascular imaging guidance during scaffold implantation was used in 64/105 (43.5%) patients. The primary endpoint (TLF) occurred in 3 (2.9%) patients. All-cause mortality and cardiac mortality occurred in 2 (2%) and 0 (0%) patients respectively. TV-MI occurred in 2 patients (1.9%); both were periprocedural and not related to the BVS implantation. TLR occurred in 1 patient

(1.0%) during follow-up. No definite scaffold thrombosis occurred during follow-up.

Conclusion This single-centre study examining the real-world experience of E-BVS implantation in a high-risk population shows excellent procedural safety and long-term clinical outcomes.

Keywords Bioresorbable scaffold · Scaffold thrombosis · Coronary artery disease · Percutaneous coronary intervention

Introduction

Recently, several randomised trials have raised concerns about the safety of the most used bioresorbable scaffold to date, the Absorb everolimus-eluting bioresorbable vascular scaffold (E-BVS) [1–3]. The recently reported 3-year results of the ABSORB II trial [1], and the 2-year results of the ABSORB III trial [2] have shown a higher target lesion failure (TLF) rate in the E-BVS group as compared with traditional metallic drug-eluting stents. Furthermore, and of more concern, the AIDA trial showed a highly significant difference in the rate of scaffold thrombosis [3]. Following these reports and similar to first-generation drug-eluting stent safety concerns, this has generated an out-of-fear reaction for longer dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT) use in patients with implanted E-BVS. Furthermore, the usage of scaffolds has drastically decreased in the Netherlands following newspaper claims of such safety issues with E-BVS in the ABSORB II, ABSORB III, and AIDA trials [1–3]. Moreover, the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has issued a warning to physicians highlighting a higher risk of major cardiac events in patients receiving E-BVS [4].

W.S. Remkes and R.S. Hermanides contributed equally to this article.

✉ E. Kedhi
e.kedhi@isala.nl

¹ Isala Hartcentrum, Zwolle, The Netherlands



Table 1 Baseline and lesion characteristics

| | |
|--|-------------------------|
| <i>Baseline</i> | <i>N = 105 patients</i> |
| Age (mean ± SD) | 60 ± 11 |
| Male sex | 75 (71.4%) |
| Hypertension | 72 (68.6%) |
| Hypercholesterolaemia | 50 (47.7%) |
| Diabetes mellitus | 42 (40.0%) |
| Smoking | 26 (24.7%) |
| Previous MI | 12 (11.4%) |
| Previous CABG | 5 (4.8%) |
| <i>Clinical syndrome at presentation</i> | <i>N = 105 patients</i> |
| STEMI | 9 (8.6%) |
| NSTEMI | 21 (20.0%) |
| Unstable angina | 13 (12.3%) |
| Stable angina | 62 (59.1%) |
| <i>Presence of disease</i> | |
| 1-vessel disease | 68 (64.8%) |
| 2-vessel disease | 29 (27.6%) |
| 3-vessel disease | 8 (7.6%) |
| <i>Lesion location</i> | <i>N = 147</i> |
| LAD | 71 (67.6%) |
| RCA | 23 (21.9%) |
| RCX | 11 (10.5%) |
| <i>Lesion characteristics</i> | <i>N = 147</i> |
| Calcified lesion | 70 (47.6%) |
| Bifurcation lesion | 28 (19.1%) |
| Ostial lesion | 12 (8.2%) |
| Thrombus present | 7 (4.8%) |
| <i>ACC/AHA lesion classification</i> | <i>N = 147</i> |
| Lesion type A | 12 (8.2%) |
| Lesion type B1 | 63 (42.9%) |
| Lesion type B2 | 19 (12.9%) |
| Lesion type C | 53 (36.1%) |

Data are n/N (%).

MI myocardial infarction, CABG coronary artery bypass graft,

LAD left anterior descending, RCA right coronary artery, RCX ramus circumflex

Nonetheless, multiple prior reports with this device had indicated excellent clinical outcomes, comparable with those of second-generation everolimus-eluting metallic stents and so the latest reports need to be considered in conjunction with all the available data and not viewed in isolation [5–13]. Whilst the currently available BVS have several known limitations, including reduced radial force and increased strut thickness when compared with their metallic counterparts, meticulous and accurate implantation techniques are essential to overcome these mechanical shortcomings and with this potentially reduce the risk of early scaffold thrombosis and consequently yield more favourable long-term outcomes [10, 14, 15].

In the light of the broadly discussed safety concerns with E-BVS and in the paucity of real-life clinical practice data, we report the clinical outcomes after a dedicated percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) strategy for optimal E-BVS deployment in a large tertiary PCI centre in the Netherlands.

Methods

This prospective, observational registry was performed in a high-volume, tertiary PCI centre; Isala, Zwolle, the Netherlands, with an annual PCI volume of approximately 2,500 procedures. The E-BVS scaffold design has already been described in detail elsewhere [14]. The study population consisted of all patients who underwent PCI with at least one E-BVS implantation between October 2013 and January 2017, during routine daily clinical practice. Baseline demographic characteristics were prospectively collected. All angiographic films were reviewed by two interventional cardiologists to obtain procedural and angiographic characteristics. Clinical follow-up was obtained by telephone contact. When potential events were reported, this was cross-checked in the patient's medical record; discharge summaries and repeat angiograms were reviewed. If patients could not be contacted, follow-up information regarding vital status was obtained from the national population registry (Dutch Central Bureau of Statistics) and hospital records were obtained from the last medical contact. All reported events were verified and adjudicated independently by two interventional cardiologists (WR, RH) according to the criteria defined below. A third interventional cardiologist was used in cases where discordance arose (EK).

Procedure

The choice to implant an E-BVS was the decision of the operator. Predilatation and postdilatation were at the discretion of the operator. Intracoronary imaging by means of optical coherence tomography (OCT) was highly recommended but still remained at the discretion of the operator. The device (E-BVS) was used in all types of patients and a variety of ACC/AHA lesion subtypes, with the only contraindication being those lesions deemed to be extremely calcified and/or tortuous as per company recommendations. Patients received DAPT for at least 12 months.

Primary endpoint

The primary endpoint was the incidence of TLF, a composite of cardiac death, non-fatal target vessel myocardial infarction (TV-MI) and clinically-indicated target lesion



Table 2 Procedural characteristics and angiographic outcome

| Procedural characteristics | N = 147 lesions, 105 patients |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Total no. of lesions | 147 |
| Lesion length >20 mm | 69/147 (46.9%) |
| Multivessel stenting during index PCI | 9/105 (9.5%) |
| Rotational atherectomy | 0 (0%) |
| Thrombus aspiration | 3/105 (2%) |
| Predilatation performed | 138/147 (94%) |
| OCT-controlled | 64/105 (43.5%) |
| Postdilatation performed | 103/147 (70%) |
| Mean postdilatation pressure (atm) | 16.4 |
| Number of scaffolds | 1.4 |
| <i>Scaffold size (diameter)</i> | |
| 2.5 mm | 39 (26.5%) |
| 3.0 mm | 71 (48.3%) |
| 3.5 mm | 37 (25.2%) |
| Scaffold used in overlap | 38 (25.9%) |
| <i>Angiographic outcome</i> | |
| Angiographic success | 146/147 (99.4%) |
| TIMI 3 flow post-PCI | 147/147 (100%) |
| MBG 3 post-PCI | 147/147 (100%) |

Data are n/N (%) or mean (SD)

OCT optical coherence tomography, TIMI thrombolysis in myocardial infarction, MBG myocardial blush grade

Table 3 Clinical outcome

| Clinical outcome | N = 105 patients |
|---------------------|------------------|
| TLF | 3 (2.9%) |
| All-cause mortality | 2 (1.9%) |
| Cardiac mortality | 0 (0.0%) |
| TL-MI | 0 (0.0%) |
| TV-MI | 2 (1.9%) |
| TLR | 1 (1.0%) |
| TVR | 8 (7.6%) |
| CABG | 5 (4.8%) |
| Definite ST | 1 (0.9%) |
| Probable ST | 0 (0.0%) |

Data are n/N (%), mean follow-up 19.8 months.

TLF target lesion failure (a composite of cardiac death, TL-MI and TLR); TL-MI target lesion myocardial infarction, MI myocardial infarction, TLR target lesion revascularisation, TVR target vessel revascularisation, CABG coronary artery bypass graft, ST stent thrombosis

revascularisation (TLR). The secondary safety endpoint was the incidence of definite or probable scaffold thrombosis.

Definitions

Angiographic success was defined as <30% residual stenosis in the target lesion with Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction (TIMI) 3 flow in the intended target vessel. TLR

was defined as any revascularisation within 5 mm distance of the index lesion. MI definitions were in accordance with the most recent universal definition of MI [15]. Stent thrombosis was defined according to the Academic Research Consortium [16].

Statistical analysis

Continuous data are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation or as median (interquartile ranges) and dichotomous data are summarised as frequencies. Cumulative event rates were estimated using the Kaplan-Meier method. Follow-up was censored at the last known date of follow-up. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS version 20.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA).

Results

Between October 2013 and January 2017, a total of 105 patients were treated with at least one E-BVS scaffold. In total, 147 scaffolds were implanted. Baseline and lesion characteristics of patients are shown in Tab. 1. Patients were predominantly male (71%), with a mean age of 60 (\pm 11) years. Hypertension was present in 68.6%, hypercholesterolaemia in 47.7%, diabetes mellitus in 40% and 24.7% of the patients were smokers. Most patients suffered from one-vessel disease (64.8%), 27.6% had two-vessel disease and 7.6% three-vessel disease. Notably, 40.9% of the patients had an intervention for acute coronary syndrome (STEMI 8.6%, NSTEMI 20.0%), unstable angina pectoris (12.3%).

Procedural characteristics are shown in Tab. 2. Predilatation was performed in 138 (94%) lesions, and postdilatation in 103 (70%) lesions. Intracoronary imaging guidance by OCT during scaffold implantation was used in 43.5% of the patients.

Clinical outcomes

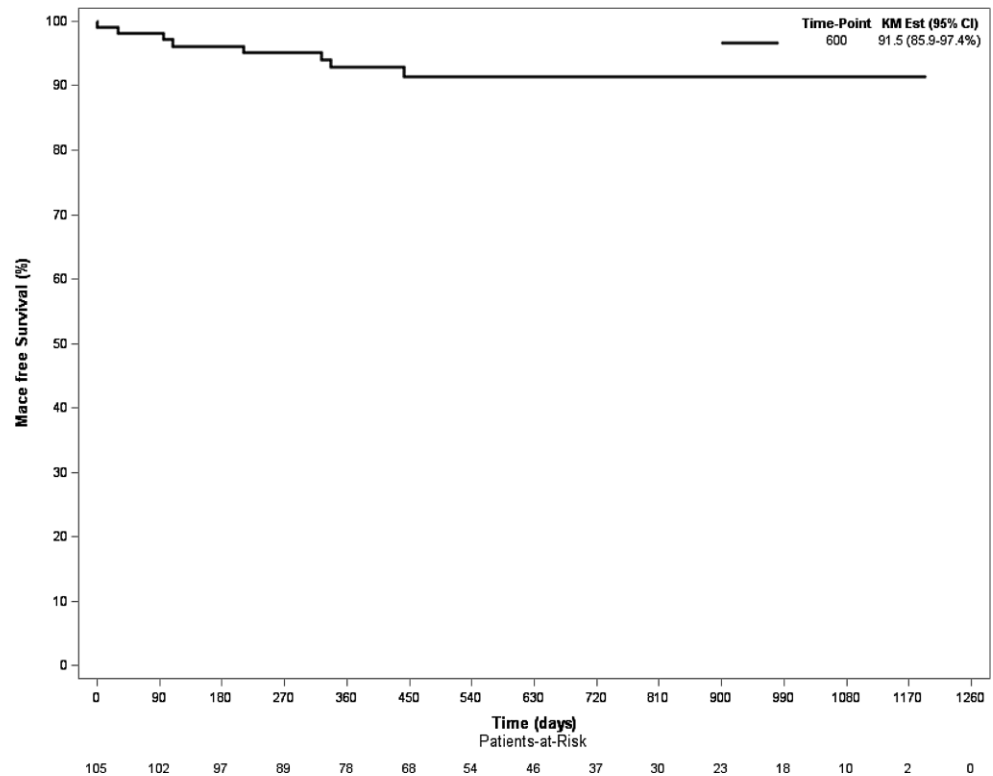
Mean follow-up duration was 19.8 \pm 10 months, and was obtained in all 105 patients.

TLF was observed in 3 (2.9%) patients. All-cause and cardiac mortality were 2 (1.9%) and 0 (0%), respectively (Tab. 3; Fig. 1). Importantly, no scaffold thrombosis was observed during follow-up. One definite stent thrombosis was observed periprocedurally in a metallic drug-eluting stent in a patient who was treated with a combination of E-BVS and metallic drug-eluting stents and occurred during a bifurcation procedure.

The TV-MI rate was 2 (1.9%) and both events were periprocedural: one due to the aforementioned metallic stent thrombosis (see above) and the other as a result of iatrogenic



Fig. 1 MACE-free survival (MACE is defined as death, TVR, MI, Time in days). *KM Est* Kaplan-Meier estimate



catheter dissection in the left main-left anterior descending artery (not scaffold related).

No target lesion myocardial infarction was observed during follow-up. TLR occurred in 1 (1.0%) patient. Interestingly, in the 42 diabetes mellitus patients, no TLR was observed. Finally, TVR was performed in 7.6%, mainly driven by progression of disease out of the target lesion.

Discussion

In this Dutch single-centre registry examining the use of E-BVS in real-life clinical practice including high-risk patients, scaffold implantation was associated with excellent procedural success and good long-term clinical outcomes.

Recently, emerging clinical data derived from randomised trials and meta-analyses have raised concerns about the safety of E-BVS [1–3]. The 3-year outcomes from the ABSORB II trial, a time point in which the E-BVS (Absorb GT1) should be fully degraded, did not result in an improvement in vasomotor tone and was associated with an increase in late lumen loss as compared with the metallic Xience stent [1]. More worryingly, this study also showed that treatment with E-BVS was associated with a twofold increased risk of device-specific clinical events, particularly an increased risk of target vessel MI (7% vs 1%, $p = 0.006$), as well as an increased risk of late scaffold thrombosis compared with Xience. Similarly,

the analysis of 2-year data from ABSORB III showed a significantly higher rate of TLF in patients who received an E-BVS (11.0% vs 7.9%, $p = 0.03$). Definite/probable scaffold thrombosis occurred in 1.9% of patients treated with E-BVS vs 0.8% in patients treated with Xience, and although this difference was not statistically significant, the trend further raised concern [2].

Subsequently, the systematic review and meta-analysis by Lipinski et al. [17], also demonstrated that the E-BVS was associated with a twofold increase in MI and scaffold thrombosis compared with the drug-eluting stent (DES).

Therefore, in light of these emerging negative data and directly after the ABSORB III results, the FDA issued a safety alert, informing healthcare providers treating patients with E-BVS (Absorb GT1) about the increased rate of major adverse cardiac events observed in patients receiving the E-BVS, when compared with patients treated with DES (Xience) and recommending physicians to follow the instructions for target vessel selection and optimal device implantation [4].

The most recent data are from AIDA trial, comparing E-BVS with an everolimus-eluting metallic stent in routine PCI. A preliminary analysis was published after the Data and Safety Monitoring Board recommended early reporting of the study results in view of a highly significant difference in the rate of device thrombosis (2-year cumulative event rates, 3.5% vs. 0.9%, $p < 0.001$) [3]. These troubling data have led to the withdrawal of the E-BVS (Absorb GT1)



from the market, leaving the device only available for use in clinical registry settings. Furthermore, the Dutch national cardiology association issued advice to continue prolonged DAPT in selected patients for the duration of 3 years.

Although the mean follow-up period of our registry was relatively modest (19.8 months), we encountered only one case of scaffold failure (in-scaffold restenosis) and no scaffold thrombosis has been seen to date. Reassuringly, our data are consistent with those recently published by Tanaka et al. [10], who implanted E-BVS in complex lesions after careful lesion preparation combined with high pressure postdilatation and frequent use of intracoronary imaging to optimise stent results.

Underexpansion, incomplete lesion coverage and malapposition are recognised as the main factors associated with scaffold thrombosis [18], whereas very late scaffold thrombosis may be due to heterogeneous endothelialisation of the scaffold struts and/or failure of degradation of the scaffold due to incomplete integration into the vascular wall [19–21]. Therefore, intracoronary imaging is essential, both for accurate scaffold selection but especially at the end of the procedure, to confirm adequate expansion and to evaluate the presence of edge injuries or malapposition. Whilst similar clinical outcomes have been reported in the recent randomised trials following BVS implantation when compared with current-generation drug-eluting stents in relatively simple lesions, the results in more complex lesions are heterogeneous, raising the question as to whether this may be due to differing strategies used for implantation [3, 6, 8, 9, 13, 23, 24].

In our view, obtaining the best results following current E-BVS implantation depends on: right patient selection, and scaffold optimisation techniques such as meticulous lesion preparation and postdilatation, with a low threshold for intracoronary imaging to ensure optimal results.

With regard to patient selection, in our study 73.5% patients had a scaffold diameter of 3.0 mm or larger, 47.6% had some degree of calcification; however, no patients required extensive plaque debulking using rotational atherectomy or cutting balloon treatment prior to E-BVS placement. Moreover, since the E-BVS appears to have a greater acute recoil as compared with metallic stents, inadequate lesion preparation may therefore be associated with more significant underexpansion [22]. Furthermore, due to overexpansion limitations of E-BVS (which can lead to strut fractures), aggressive up-sizing of initially under-sized scaffolds is not recommended and may not be as achievable as compared with metallic stents, thus liberal use of pre-PCI intracoronary imaging is essential for proper vessel sizing and scaffold selection [21], particularly since acute lumen gain is lower for current BVS than for metallic stents [7, 23–25]. Finally, attention should be drawn to post-PCI optimisation of E-BVS deployment using systematic postdi-

lation at high-pressure with non-compliant balloons. Reassuringly, such an approach does not cause E-BVS disruption, and indeed is associated with an excellent BVS expansion, a low rate of strut malapposition [26] and studies reporting high postdilatation rates (over 90%) and pressures (over 20 atmosphere) were associated with lower rates of scaffold thrombosis [27]. This highlights the importance of high-pressure postdilatation and proper lesion preparation to achieve optimal expansion and better clinical outcomes [9, 20, 27, 28]. Notably, the performance rates of postdilatation and periprocedural coronary imaging guidance were higher in our study compared with Absorb II and AIDA trial, respectively. Furthermore, the high pressure postdilatation (mean pressure 16.4 atmosphere) was also noted in our study, and so together these procedural characteristics as well as the patient selection may be at the basis of the observed differences between this study and the AIDA and Absorb II trials.

Limitations

This study has several intrinsic limitations of a single-arm post-hoc observational study. The study population size was relatively small. Most of the procedures were performed by or under the supervision of skilled operators with experience in using the scaffold, which might also have impacted the study results. Qualitative comparative analysis was not performed. Selection bias based upon angiographic or intracoronary assessment may have occurred when determining which lesions were suitable (or not) for E-BVS implantation; however, this too confirms the need for precise patient selection. Finally, although clinical outcomes were obtained for all patients, routine angiographic and/or intra-coronary imaging follow-up was not systematically performed.

Conclusion

In this single-centre study, in which the real world clinical use of the Absorb everolimus-eluting biodegradable vascular scaffold was examined, excellent procedural safety and a good long-term clinical outcomes were observed. This study suggests that despite device-related mechanical limitations, good clinical outcomes are achievable when both appropriate patient selection and excellent implantation techniques are combined.

Conflict of interest W.S. Remkes, R.S. Hermanides, M.W. Kennedy, E. Fabris, E. Kaplan, J.P. Ottervanger, A.W.J. van't Hof and E. Kedhi declare that they have no competing interests.

Open Access This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted



use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made.

References

- Serruys PW, Chevalier B, Sotomi Y, et al. Comparison of an everolimus-eluting bioresorbable scaffold with an everolimus-eluting metallic stent for the treatment of coronary artery stenosis (ABSORB II): a 3 year, randomised, controlled, single-blind, multicentre clinical trial. *Lancet*. 2016;388:2479–91.
- Ellis SG, Kereiakes DJ, Stone GW, et al. Everolimus-eluting bioresorbable vascular scaffolds in patients with coronary artery disease: ABSORB III trial 2-year results. Presented at: ACC 2017. March 18, 2017, Washington, DC. <https://www.tctmd.com/news/absorb-iii-two-year-results-show-higher-mace-rate-compared-xience> (2017, accessed 17 April 2017).
- Wykrzykowska JJ, Kraak RP, Hofma SH, et al. Bioresorbable Scaffolds versus Metallic Stents in Routine PCI. *N Engl J Med*. 2017;376(24):2319–2328. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa1614954>
- US Food and Drug Administration. Absorb GT1 Bioresorbable Vascular Scaffold (BVS) by Abbott Vascular: letter to healthcare providers – FDA investigating increased rate of major adverse cardiac events. www.fda.gov/Safety/MedWatch/SafetyInformation/SafetyAlertsforHumanMedicalProducts/ucm547256.htm. Published on. March, Vol. 18. 2017.
- Ellis SG, Kereiakes DJ, Metzger DC, et al. Everolimus-Eluting Bioresorbable Scaffolds for Coronary Artery Disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;373:1905–1905.
- Gao R, Yang Y, Han Y, et al. Bioresorbable Vascular Scaffolds Versus Metallic Stents in Patients With Coronary Artery Disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2015;66:2298–309.
- Onuma Y, Sotomi Y, Shiomi H, et al. Two-year clinical, angiographic, and serial optical coherence tomographic follow-up after implantation of an everolimus-eluting bioresorbable scaffold and an everolimus-eluting metallic stent: insights from the randomised ABSORB Japan trial. *EuroIntervention*. 2016;12:1090–101.
- Serruys PW, Chevalier B, Dudek D, et al. A bioresorbable everolimus-eluting scaffold versus a metallic everolimus-eluting stent for ischaemic heart disease caused by de-novo native coronary artery lesions (ABSORB II): an interim 1-year analysis of clinical and procedural secondary outcomes from a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2015;385:43–54.
- Kimura T, Kozuma K, Tanabe K, et al. A randomized trial evaluating everolimus-eluting Absorb bioresorbable scaffolds vs. everolimus-eluting metallic stents in patients with coronary artery disease: ABSORB Japan. *Eur Heart J*. 2015;36:3332–42.
- Tanaka A, Latib A, Kawamoto H, et al. Clinical outcomes of a real world cohort following bioresorbable vascular scaffold implantation utilizing an optimized implantation strategy. *EuroIntervention*. 2017;12(14):1730–1737. <https://doi.org/10.4244/EIJ-D-16-00247>
- Brugaletta S, Gori T, Low AF, et al. Absorb Bioresorbable Vascular Scaffold Versus Everolimus-Eluting Metallic Stent in ST-Segment Elevation Myocardial Infarction: 1-Year Results of a Propensity Score Matching Comparison: The BVS-EXAMINATION Study (Bioresorbable Vascular Scaffold-A Clinical. *JACC Cardiovasc Interv*. 2015;8:189–97.
- Puricel S, Arroyo D, Corpataux N, et al. Comparison of Everolimus- and Biolimus-Eluting Coronary Stents With Everolimus-Eluting Bioresorbable Vascular Scaffolds. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2015;65:791–801.
- Costopoulos C, Latib A, Naganuma T, et al. Comparison of early clinical outcomes between ABSORB bioresorbable vascular scaffold and everolimus-eluting stent implantation in a real-world population. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2015;85:E10–E5.
- Oberhauser JP, Hossainy S, Rapoza RJ. Design principles and performance of bioresorbable polymeric vascular scaffolds. *EuroIntervention*. 2009;5(Suppl F):F15–22.
- Thygesen K, Alpert JS, Jaffe AS, et al. Third Universal Definition of Myocardial Infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2012;60:1581–98.
- Cutlip DE, Windecker S, Mehran R, et al. Clinical End Points in Coronary Stent Trials: A Case for Standardized Definitions. *Circulation*. 2007;115:2344–51.
- Lipinski MJ, Escarcega RO, Baker NC, et al. Scaffold Thrombosis after Percutaneous Coronary Intervention with ABSORB Bioresorbable Vascular Scaffold A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *JACC Cardiovasc Interv*. 2016;9:12–24.
- Sotomi Y, Suwannasom P, Serruys P, et al. Possible mechanical causes of scaffold thrombosis: insights from case reports with intracoronary imaging. *EuroIntervention*. 2017;12:1747–56.
- Timmers L, Stella PR, Agostoni P. Very late bioresorbable vascular scaffold thrombosis following discontinuation of antiplatelet therapy. *Eur Heart J*. 2015;36:393.
- Karanasos A, Van Mieghem N, van Ditzhuijzen N, et al. Angiographic and Optical Coherence Tomography Insights Into Bioresorbable Scaffold Thrombosis: Single-Center Experience. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2015;8:e2369–e2369.
- Ormiston JA, Webber B, Ubod B, et al. An independent bench comparison of two bioresorbable drug-eluting coronary scaffolds (Absorb and DESolve) with a durable metallic drug-eluting stent (ML8/Xpedition). *EuroIntervention*. 2015;11:60–7.
- Danzi GB, Sesana M, Arieti M, et al. Does optimal lesion preparation reduce the amount of acute recoil of the absorb BVS? Insights from a real-world population. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2015;86:984–981.
- Foin N, Gutierrez-Chico JL, Nakatani S, et al. Incomplete Stent Apposition Causes High Shear Flow Disturbances and Delay in Neointimal Coverage as a Function of Strut to Wall Detachment Distance: Implications for the Management of Incomplete Stent Apposition. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2014;7:180–9.
- Puricel S, Cuculi F, Weissner M, et al. Bioresorbable Coronary Scaffold Thrombosis: Multicenter Comprehensive Analysis of Clinical Presentation, Mechanisms, and Predictors. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2016;67:921–31.
- Ishibashi Y, Onuma Y, Muramatsu T, et al. Lessons learned from acute and late scaffold failures in the ABSORB EXTEND trial. *EuroIntervention*. 2014;10:449–57.
- Fabris E, Caiazzo G, Kilic ID, et al. Is high pressure postdilation safe in bioresorbable vascular scaffolds? Optical coherence tomography observations after noncompliant balloons inflated at more than 24 atmospheres. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2016;87:839–46.
- Caiazzo G, Kilic ID, Fabris E, et al. Absorb bioresorbable vascular scaffold: What have we learned after 5 years of clinical experience? *Int J Cardiol*. 2015;201:129–36.
- Tamburino C, Latib A, van Geuns RJ, et al. Contemporary practice and technical aspects in coronary intervention with bioresorbable scaffolds: a European perspective. *EuroIntervention*. 2015;11:45–52.



CVOI E-learning formula!

This is the CVOI e-learning article. The author has prepared 10 questions which are available through the website of the Cardiovascular Educational Institute (CVOI). Please follow the instructions below.

After finishing the questions you will be asked to fill in your name, hospital and e-mail address; then press the button 'verzenden'.

When 6 out of the 10 questions are answered correctly, you acquire 1 accreditation point granted by the Quality Committee of the Netherlands Society of Cardiology (NVVC). The acquired point will be credited to your personal file in the GAIA system. You will also receive an e-mail with all the correct answers.

Over a period of one year 10 e-learning articles will appear in 10 subsequent NHJ editions. In each edition the e-learning article will be recognisable by a special icon. On an annual basis you can collect 10 accreditation points. The accreditation points are credited in the GAIA system by the CVOI.

If you need additional information, please contact the CVOI by e-mail: cvoi@cvoi.org or by phone: 030-2345001.

J.J. Piek
Chief editor NHJ

K.B. Schick
Coordinator CVOI

