



Difference in risk factors of silent brain infarction between paroxysmal and persistent atrial fibrillation



Andrew T Kim, Shinichi Iwata*, Sera Ishikawa, Soichiro Tamura, Masanori Matsuo, Tomotaka Yoshiyama, Shinichi Nonin, Asahiro Ito, Yasuhiro Izumiya, Minoru Yoshiyama

Department of Cardiovascular Medicine, Osaka City University Graduate School of Medicine, 1-4-3 Asahimachi Abenoku, Osaka 545-8585, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 3 November 2020

Received in revised form 21 February 2021

Accepted 27 February 2021

Keywords:

Atrial fibrillation
Echocardiography
Risk factors
Silent brain infarction
Stroke pathophysiology

ABSTRACT

Background: Although silent brain infarction is an independent risk factor for subsequent symptomatic stroke and dementia in patients with nonvalvular atrial fibrillation, little is known regarding differences in risk factors for silent brain infarction between patients with paroxysmal and persistent nonvalvular atrial fibrillation.

Methods: This study population consisted of 190 neurologically asymptomatic patients (mean age, 64 ± 11 years) with nonvalvular atrial fibrillation (119 paroxysmal, 71 persistent) who were scheduled for catheter ablation. All patients underwent brain magnetic resonance imaging to screen for silent brain infarction prior to ablation. Transthoracic and transesophageal echocardiography was performed to screen for left atrial abnormalities (left atrial enlargement, spontaneous echo contrast, or left atrial appendage emptying velocity) and complex plaques in the aortic arch.

Results: Silent brain infarction was detected in 50 patients (26%) [26 patients (22%) in paroxysmal vs. 24 patients (34%) in persistent, $p = 0.09$]. Multiple logistic regression analysis indicated that age and diabetes mellitus or chronic kidney disease (estimated glomerular filtration rate < 60 mL/min/1.73 m²) were associated with silent brain infarction in patients with paroxysmal nonvalvular atrial fibrillation ($p < 0.05$), whereas no modifiable risk factors of silent brain infarction were observed in patients with persistent nonvalvular atrial fibrillation.

Conclusions: These findings suggest that intensive intervention for diabetes mellitus and renal impairment from the paroxysmal stage or ablation therapy at the time of paroxysmal stage to prevent progression to persistent nonvalvular atrial fibrillation may prevent silent brain infarction and consequently reduce the risk of future symptomatic stroke.

© 2021 The Authors. Published by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

Nonvalvular atrial fibrillation (NVAF) is the most common arrhythmia increasing with age, and one in four individuals over 40 years of age will suffer from NVAF in their lifetime [1–3]. The

Abbreviations: NVAF, nonvalvular atrial fibrillation; SBI, Silent brain infarction; LA, left atrial; LAA, left atrial appendage; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; FLAIR, fluid attenuated inversion recovery; OR, odds ratio; DOACs, direct oral anticoagulants.

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: worldcherrykim@yahoo.co.jp (A.T. Kim), m1158201@med.osaka-cu.ac.jp (S. Iwata), sera_okashi@yahoo.co.jp (S. Ishikawa), souchirotamura.0814@gmail.com (S. Tamura), masapinetree@yahoo.co.jp (M. Matsuo), tomotaka-y@hotmail.co.jp (T. Yoshiyama), sin.0907095.no@gmail.com (S. Nonin), bqrd239@yahoo.co.jp (A. Ito), izumiya.yasuhiro@med.osaka-cu.ac.jp (Y. Izumiya), yoshiyama@med.osaka-cu.ac.jp (M. Yoshiyama).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijcha.2021.100753>

2352-9067/© 2021 The Authors. Published by Elsevier B.V.

This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

prevalence and incidence of NVAF are gradually increasing worldwide, and are expected to triple by 2050 [1,2]. Since NVAF is associated with a three- to five-fold increased risk of ischemic stroke, which is linked to poor prognosis and higher healthcare costs [4–7], effective prevention is essential in daily patient care. Although uniform management with CHA₂DS₂-VASc scoring and anticoagulation therapy reduces the incidence of stroke and mortality, a substantial number of patients is still exposed to the risk of cerebral infarction [8,9]. Therefore, the identification of other preventive or therapeutic strategies is expected to improve long-term morbidity and mortality rates in patients with NVAF.

Silent brain infarction (SBI), a cerebral infarction (>3mm) that is evident on brain imaging but not associated with clinical symptoms [10] (since lacunar infarction is defined as a subcortical infarction, which typically ranges between 3 mm and 15 mm, caused by occlusion of penetrating artery with or without clinical

symptom [11], SBI includes asymptomatic lacunar infarction), is a subclinical abnormality that was traditionally considered a relatively benign degenerative change. However, this view has changed recently because SBI is reportedly associated with subsequent symptomatic stroke [12,13] and an increased risk of cognitive decline [14–16]. Moreover, NVAF is associated with more than a two-fold increase in the risk of SBI compared to sinus rhythm [17]. Therefore, the identification of risk factors associated with SBI would enable physicians to provide personalized treatment for each NVAF patient and further support for preventing future dementia or stroke and maintaining a better quality of life.

Several studies have consistently demonstrated that the prevalence of SBI was strongly associated with age and hypertension both in the general population and NVAF patients [17–20]. Moreover, left atrial (LA) abnormalities such as LA thrombus, spontaneous echo contrast, and low LA appendage (LAA) emptying velocity are associated with SBI in NVAF patients [21,22]. As transesophageal echocardiography, which provides information that is not obtained from conventional clinical assessments (i.e., CHA₂-DS₂-VASc score), is semi-invasive, transthoracic echocardiography is an alternative non-invasive method that might be helpful for risk stratification. Mitral annular velocity during diastole (*e'*) and the ratio of early transmitral flow velocity (*E*) and *e'* (*E/e'*), implying elevated filling pressure that facilitates blood stasis and thrombus formation in the LA, are associated with SBI [23,24]. However, as these studies included both paroxysmal and persistent NVAF patients, the differences in prevalence and risk factors of SBI between NVAF types have not yet been entirely elucidated.

Therefore, the aim of the present study was to assess the differences in prevalence and risk factors of SBI between patients with paroxysmal and those with persistent NVAF.

2. Methods

2.1. Study population

This cross-sectional study of prospectively collected data was conducted at Osaka City University Hospital. We initially included 278 consecutive 1) neurologically asymptomatic NVAF patients 2) who were scheduled for their first catheter ablation between October 2011 and April 2017. We excluded patients with contraindication to (*n* = 11) or refused (*n* = 77) brain magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Thus, 190 patients (mean age, 64 ± 11 years) were eligible for inclusion in this study. All patients were taking anticoagulation therapy and underwent brain MRI to detect SBI. The patients were classified by duration into paroxysmal (that terminates within 7 days; *n* = 119) or persistent (that is sustained longer than 7 days; *n* = 71) [25]. Hypertension was defined as systolic blood pressure ≥ 140 mmHg, diastolic blood pressure ≥ 90 mmHg, and/or treatment with an oral antihypertensive medication. Diabetes mellitus was defined as fasting blood glucose ≥ 7 mmol/L, glycated hemoglobin A1c ≥ 6.5%, and/or current use of insulin or oral hypoglycemic medication. Dyslipidemia was defined as a low-density lipoprotein cholesterol level ≥ 3.6 mmol/L and/or use of lipid-lowering medication. Patients were defined as non-smokers if they had never smoked. Chronic kidney disease was defined as estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) < 60 mL/min/1.73 m² [26]. We calculated CHA₂DS₂-VASc scores using the above information [27]. Informed consent was obtained from each patient. The study protocol conforms to the ethical guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki as reflected in a priori approval by the institution's human research committee.

2.2. Transthoracic echocardiographic analysis

Comprehensive transthoracic echocardiography was performed to evaluate LA enlargement or diastolic function using an iE33 (Philips Medical Systems, Andover, MA, USA), Vivid E9 (GE Healthcare, Milwaukee, WI, USA), or Aplio 500/Artida (Canon Medical Systems, Tochigi, Japan) machine equipped with a high-frequency transducer. Mitral peak *E* wave velocity and tissue Doppler-derived mitral annular *e'* velocity were averaged from three nonconsecutive beats with cycle lengths within 10–20% of the average heart rate [28]. Bilateral carotid artery ultrasonography was performed to exclude carotid stenosis and ulcerated or mobile plaques using an iE33 (Philips Medical Systems, Andover, MA, USA) equipped with a 7.5-MHz linear transducer.

2.3. Transesophageal echocardiographic analysis

Comprehensive transesophageal echocardiography was performed to evaluate LA abnormalities such as thrombus, spontaneous echo contrast (Fig. 1a), and LAA emptying velocity (Fig. 1b) or complex plaques in the aortic arch defined as large (≥4 mm), ulcerated, and mobile plaques (Fig. 1c) using an iE33 (Philips Medical Systems, Andover, MA, USA) equipped with a X7-2 t transducer providing a frequency range of 2.0–7.0 MHz. Spontaneous echo contrast was defined as smoke-like echoes curling up in a circular pattern, that were continuously present at standard gain after gain adjustment to distinguish background noise [29–31]. LAA emptying velocity was obtained at 10 mm below the orifice of the LAA over at least six cardiac cycles and averaged [30,31].

2.4. Brain MRI

We performed brain MRI using a superconducting magnet at a field strength of 1.5 T or 3.0 T on proton density, T1- and T2-weighted images, and fluid attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR) images in axial planes with 5-mm-in-thickness slices and an interslice gap of 1.5 mm. SBI was defined as a lesion > 3 mm that was hypointense on T1-weighted images and hyperintense on T2-weighted images (Fig. 2). FLAIR images were used to distinguish dilated Virchow-Robin spaces from infarcts based on the absence or presence of a hyperintense rim around each of the suspected lesions [10].

2.5. Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was performed using EZR graphical user interface (Saitama Medical Center, Jichi Medical University, Saitama, Japan) for R programming language (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). The distribution of echocardiographic variables and potential covariates was evaluated among patients with versus without SBI and paroxysmal or persistent NVAF. The intergroup comparison was performed using an unpaired Student's *t*-test for continuous variables and the chi-square test or Fisher's exact test for categorical variables. *P* values < 0.05 were used to select variables for multiple logistic regression analysis; however, since CHA₂DS₂-VASc score includes age, hypertension, and diabetes mellitus, we entered only CHA₂DS₂-VASc score when putting it into the multivariate analysis to avoid the issue of multicollinearity. Multiple logistic regression analyses were performed to identify the variables associated with the presence of SBI in all patients and patients with paroxysmal or persistent NVAF. At first, we performed multivariate analysis to identify the variables other than CHA₂DS₂-VASc score associated with the presence of SBI (Model 1). Second, since anticoagulation therapy is recommended to prevent cerebral infarction for NVAF patients with CHA₂DS₂-VASc score ≥ 2, we performed multivariate analysis

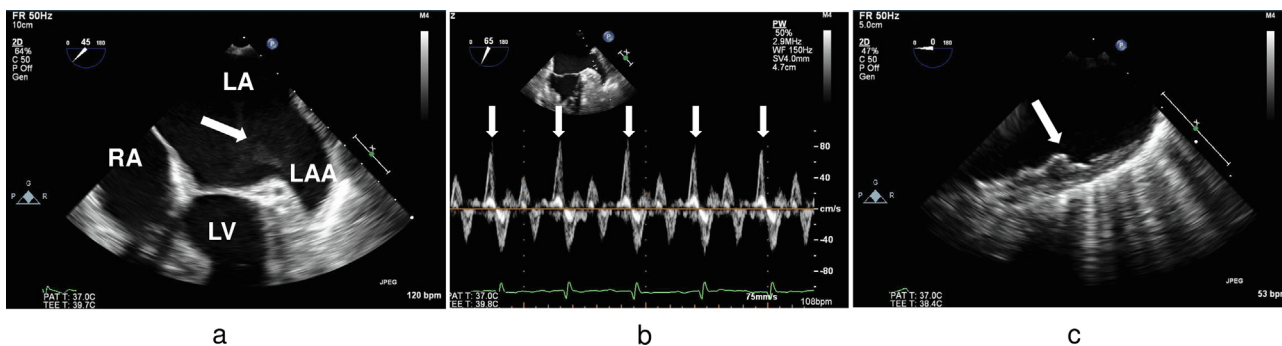


Fig 1. Example images of transesophageal echocardiography. a spontaneous echo contrast in the left atrium (arrow). b pulsed-wave Doppler recording showed left atrial appendage emptying velocity of 79 cm/s (arrow). c a large atherosclerotic plaque (arrow) in the aortic arch. LA, left atrium; LAA, left atrial appendage; LV, left ventricle; RA, right atrium; SEC, spontaneous echo contrast.

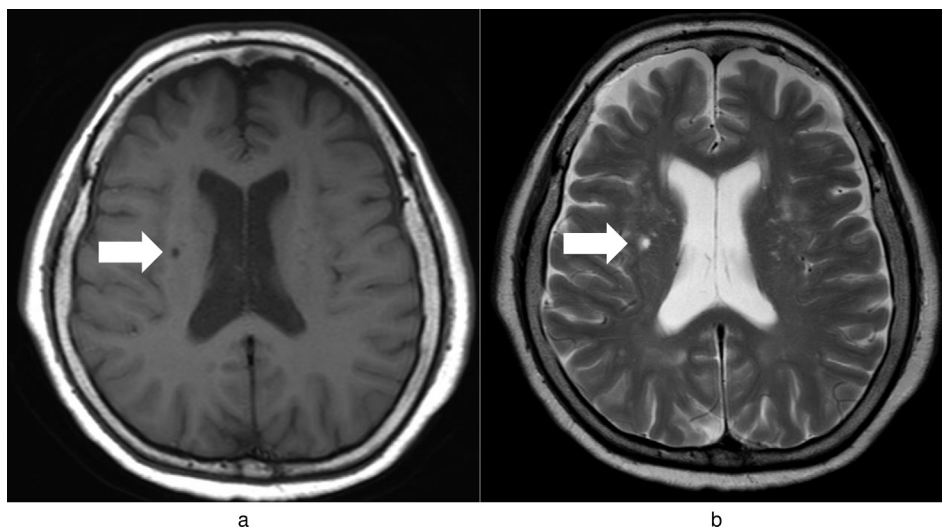


Fig 2. Example images of silent brain infarction on brain magnetic resonance imaging. A small (5 mm) silent brain infarct in the basal ganglia (arrow) is visible as a hypointense on T1-weighted image (a) and as a hyperintense on T2-weighted image (b).

with CHA₂DS₂-VASc score as a binary variable (i.e., CHA₂DS₂-VASc score ≥ 2) to investigate whether CHA₂DS₂-VASc score ≥ 2 is also associated with SBI (Model 2). Third, since CHA₂DS₂-VASc score is useful for risk stratification of cerebral infarction in NVAf patients, we performed multivariate analysis with CHA₂DS₂-VASc score as a continuous variable to investigate whether CHA₂DS₂-VASc score is also useful for risk stratification of SBI (Model 3). P values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Study population

Among the 190 neurologically asymptomatic NVAf patients (mean age, 64 ± 11 years), 119 (63%) had paroxysmal and 71 (37%) had persistent NVAf. The patients' clinical and echocardiographic characteristics are listed in Table 1. The study population predominantly consisted of men (74%) who had a preserved ejection fraction ($58 \pm 5\%$), and who had a low CHA₂DS₂-VASc score (1.8 ± 1.2). The prevalence of SBI was 26% and there were no significant differences between NVAf types ($p = 0.09$). LA diameter (39 ± 6 mm vs. 44 ± 6 mm, $p < 0.001$), E wave (68 ± 19 cm/s vs. 83 ± 17 cm/s, $p < 0.001$), e' (6.6 ± 2.0 cm/s vs. 7.7 ± 1.9 cm/s, $p = 0.001$), and the prevalence of spontaneous echo contrast (3% vs. 21%, $p < 0.001$) were significantly higher in patients with persis-

tent NVAf. On the other hand, left ventricular ejection fraction ($59 \pm 5\%$ vs. $55 \pm 6\%$, $p < 0.001$) and LAA emptying velocity (58 ± 18 cm/s vs. 37 ± 17 cm/s, $p < 0.001$) were significantly higher in patients with paroxysmal NVAf. LA/LAA thrombus was not detected in both NVAf groups.

3.2. Clinical and echocardiographic variables associated with SBI in all patients

Clinical and echocardiographic characteristics by SBI status in all patients are shown in Table 2. Age, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, CHA₂DS₂-VASc score, LA diameter, E wave, and E/e' were positively associated with SBI. On the other hand, eGFR, e', and LAA emptying velocity were negatively associated with SBI. Table 3 shows the clinical and echocardiographic variables associated with the presence of SBI and their odds ratios (ORs) obtained on multiple logistic regression analysis. Age (OR, 1.06; 95% confidence interval, 1.01–1.10; $p = 0.02$), diabetes mellitus (OR, 3.00; 95% confidence interval, 1.21–7.44; $p = 0.02$), and LAA emptying velocity (OR, 0.98; 95% confidence interval, 0.96–0.998; $p = 0.03$) remained independently associated with the presence of SBI (Model 1). When putting CHA₂DS₂-VASc score instead of age, hypertension, and diabetes mellitus into multivariate analysis, only CHA₂DS₂-VASc score ≥ 2 (a binary variable) remained independently associated with the presence of SBI (OR, 2.24; 95% confidence interval,

Table 1
Clinical and echocardiographic characteristics according to NVAF types.

	All patients (n = 190)	Paroxysmal AF (n = 119)	Persistent AF (n = 71)	p
Age, y	64 ± 11	64 ± 11	65 ± 10	0.70
Male, n (%)	141 (74)	88 (74)	53 (75)	1.00
Hypertension, n (%)	121 (64)	78 (66)	43 (61)	0.53
Diabetes mellitus, n (%)	34 (18)	22 (19)	12 (17)	0.85
Smoker, n (%)	101 (53)	66 (56)	35 (49)	0.45
Dyslipidemia, n (%)	65 (34)	45 (38)	20 (28)	0.21
Silent brain infarction, n (%)	50 (26)	26 (22)	24 (34)	0.09
eGFR (mL/min/1.73 m ²)	75 ± 21	76 ± 23	75 ± 18	0.68
CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc score	1.8 ± 1.2	1.8 ± 1.1	1.8 ± 1.2	0.79
Inappropriately reduced-dose DOACs, n (%)	25 (32)	14 (12)	11 (16)	0.51
Warfarin, n (%)	31 (16)	24 (20)	7 (10)	0.07
PT-INR of warfarin patients	2.31 ± 0.59	2.26 ± 0.44	2.46 ± 0.98	0.39
Ejection fraction, %	58 ± 5	59 ± 5	55 ± 6	<0.001
Left atrial diameter, mm	41 ± 6	39 ± 6	44 ± 6	<0.001
E wave, cm/s	73 ± 20	68 ± 19	83 ± 17	<0.001
e', cm/s	7.0 ± 2.0	6.6 ± 2.0	7.7 ± 1.9	0.001
E/e'	11.2 ± 4.0	10.9 ± 3.9	11.6 ± 4.3	0.30
Spontaneous echo contrast, n (%)	19 (10)	4 (3)	15 (21)	<0.001
LAA emptying velocity, cm/s	51 ± 21	58 ± 18	37 ± 17	<0.001
Complex arch plaques, n (%)	23 (12)	14 (12)	9 (13)	1.00

eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; DOACs, direct oral anticoagulants; LAA, left atrial appendage; NVAF, nonvalvular atrial fibrillation

Table 2
Clinical and echocardiographic characteristics according to the presence of SBI in all patients and patients with paroxysmal or persistent NVAF.

	All patients			Paroxysmal AF			Persistent AF		
	Without SBI (n = 140)	With SBI (n = 50)	p	Without SBI (n = 93)	With SBI (n = 26)	p	Without SBI (n = 47)	With SBI (n = 24)	p
Age, y	63 ± 11	79 ± 8	<0.001	62 ± 11	70 ± 8	0.002	63 ± 11	68 ± 8	0.06
Male, n (%)	104 (74)	37 (74)	1.00	67 (72)	21 (81)	0.46	37 (79)	16 (67)	0.39
Hypertension, n (%)	82 (59)	39 (78)	0.02	56 (60)	22 (85)	0.02	26 (55)	17 (71)	0.31
Diabetes mellitus, n (%)	18 (13)	16 (32)	0.005	12 (13)	10 (39)	0.008	6 (13)	6 (25)	0.32
Smoker, n (%)	78 (56)	23 (46)	0.25	52 (56)	14 (54)	1.00	26 (55)	9 (38)	0.21
Dyslipidemia, n (%)	50 (36)	15 (30)	0.49	36 (39)	9 (35)	0.82	14 (30)	6 (25)	0.78
eGFR (mL/min/1.73 m ²)	77 ± 21	70 ± 22	0.002	78 ± 23	67 ± 21	0.03	75 ± 16	74 ± 22	0.71
CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc score	1.6 ± 1.1	2.3 ± 1.2	<0.001	1.6 ± 1.1	2.4 ± 1.1	0.001	1.5 ± 1.1	2.2 ± 1.4	0.03
Inappropriately reduced-dose DOACs, n (%)	16 (11)	9 (18)	0.23	9 (10)	5 (19)	0.19	7 (15)	4 (17)	1.00
PT-INR of warfarin patients	2.13 ± 0.41	2.52 ± 0.72	0.07	2.14 ± 0.43	2.49 ± 0.41	0.07	1.99	2.56 ± 1.05	0.64
Ejection fraction, %	58 ± 5	57 ± 5	0.11	59 ± 4	59 ± 3	0.80	56 ± 6	54 ± 6	0.30
Left atrial diameter, mm	40 ± 6	43 ± 6	0.02	38 ± 6	41 ± 5	0.08	43 ± 6	44 ± 6	0.49
E wave, cm/s	71 ± 17	78 ± 24	0.04	66 ± 15	73 ± 27	0.10	82 ± 17	84 ± 19	0.67
e', cm/s	7.2 ± 2.1	6.4 ± 1.8	0.02	6.8 ± 2.1	6.0 ± 1.8	0.08	8.1 ± 1.9	6.9 ± 1.7	0.01
E/e'	10.5 ± 3.5	12.9 ± 4.9	<0.001	10.4 ± 3.6	12.7 ± 4.3	0.01	10.7 ± 3.2	13.1 ± 5.6	0.02
Spontaneous echo contrast, n (%)	10 (7)	9 (18)	0.050	1 (1)	3 (12)	0.03	9 (19)	6 (25)	0.56
LAA emptying velocity, cm/s	53 ± 20	43 ± 21	0.002	60 ± 17	51 ± 21	0.02	39 ± 18	34 ± 16	0.22
Complex arch plaques, n (%)	15 (11)	8 (16)	0.49	10 (11)	4 (15)	0.50	5 (11)	4 (17)	0.48

eGFR, estimated glomerular filtration rate; DOACs, direct oral anticoagulants; LAA, left atrial appendage; NVAF, nonvalvular atrial fibrillation; SBI, silent brain infarction

1.02–4.89; p = 0.04) (Model 2). However, no risk factor of SBI was observed when putting CHA₂DS₂-VASc score as a continuous variable (Model 3).

3.3. Clinical and echocardiographic variables associated with SBI in patients with paroxysmal NVAF

Clinical and echocardiographic characteristics by SBI status in patients with paroxysmal NVAF are shown in Table 2. Age, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, CHA₂DS₂-VASc score, E/e', and spontaneous echo contrast were positively associated with SBI. On the other hand, eGFR and LAA emptying velocity were negatively associated with SBI. Table 3 shows the clinical and echocardiographic variables associated with the presence of SBI and their odds ratios (ORs) obtained on multiple logistic regression analysis. Age (OR, 1.08; 95% confidence interval, 1.01–1.15; p = 0.03) and diabetes mellitus (OR, 5.41; 95% confidence interval, 1.58–18.50; p = 0.007) remained independently associated with the presence

of SBI (Model 1). When putting CHA₂DS₂-VASc score instead of age, hypertension, and diabetes mellitus into multivariate analysis, only chronic kidney disease remained independently associated with the presence of SBI in both a binary variable (OR, 3.42; 95% confidence interval, 1.06–11.00; p = 0.04) (Model 2) and a continuous variable (OR, 3.30; 95% confidence interval, 1.03–10.60; p = 0.04) (Model 3). There was no significant interaction between CHA₂DS₂-VASc score ≥ 2 (p = 0.07) or NVAF type (p = 0.48) and chronic kidney disease.

3.4. Clinical and echocardiographic variables associated with SBI in patients with persistent NVAF

Clinical and echocardiographic characteristics according to the presence of SBI in patients with persistent NVAF are shown in Table 2. CHA₂DS₂-VASc and E/e' were positively associated with SBI. On the other hand, e' was negatively associated with SBI. Table 3 shows the clinical and echocardiographic variables associ-

ated with the presence of SBI and their OR obtained in the multiple logistic regression analysis. Since only e' or E/e' and CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score were associated with SBI in univariate analysis, we could not perform Model 1. e' remained independently associated with the presence of SBI when putting CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score ≥ 2 as a binary variable (OR, 0.71; 95% confidence interval, 0.51–0.98; $p = 0.04$) (Model 2), while not in a model using CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score as continuous variable (OR, 0.73; 95% confidence interval, 0.53–1.01; $p = 0.06$) (Model 3). When putting E/e' instead of e' into multivariate analysis, neither a model of CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score ≥ 2 (a binary variable) (OR, 2.42; 95% confidence interval, 0.79–7.44; $p = 0.12$) (Model 2) nor a model of CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score (a continuous variable) (OR, 1.11; 95% confidence interval, 0.95–1.30; $p = 0.18$) (Model 3) was associated with SBI. There was no significant interaction between CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score ≥ 2 ($p = 0.89$) or NVAF type ($p = 0.43$) and e' .

3.5. Relationship between quality of anticoagulation therapy and SBI

Warfarin was used in 31 patients (16%) and there was no significant difference between paroxysmal and persistent NVAF [24 (20%) vs. 7 (10%), $p = 0.07$]. PT-INR value was optimal in both paroxysmal and persistent NVAF (2.26 ± 0.44 vs. 2.46 ± 0.98 , $p = 0.39$). Moreover, PT-INR value was not associated with SBI in patients with paroxysmal ($p = 0.07$) and persistent NVAF ($p = 0.64$). Inappropriately reduced-dose direct oral anticoagulants (DOACs) were observed in 25 patients (14 paroxysmal and 11 persistent) and there was no significant difference between NVAF groups ($p = 0.51$). Moreover, inappropriately reduced-dose DOACs was not associated with SBI both in patients with paroxysmal ($p = 0.19$) and persistent NVAF ($p = 1.00$).

3.6. Size, number, and location of SBI

We have divided into groups based on the differences in size (3 to 5 mm or > 5 mm) (Fig. 3a), number (0, 1–2, or ≥ 3) (Fig. 3b), and location (cortex/subcortex, deep white matter, thalamus/basal ganglia, brainstem, and cerebellum) of SBI (Fig. 3c) [32]. SBI was more frequently detected in cortex/subcortex ($p = 0.03$) in patients with persistent NVAF. Moreover, significantly larger ($P = 0.045$) and more ($P = 0.045$) SBI was found in patients with persistent NVAF.

4. Discussion

First, we showed that age, diabetes mellitus, and LAA emptying velocity were significantly associated with the presence of SBI in NVAF patients. Second, we demonstrated that age and diabetes mellitus were significantly associated with the presence of SBI in “paroxysmal” NVAF, but no modifiable risk factors of SBI were observed in “persistent” NVAF. Third, chronic kidney disease was significantly associated with the presence of SBI independent of CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score in “paroxysmal” NVAF. Fourth, SBI due to small-vessel occlusive disease (i.e., atherosclerosis) develops from the paroxysmal stage and SBI due to microembolism becomes more apparent from the persistent stage. To our knowledge, this is the first study to demonstrate the difference in risk factors and mechanisms of SBI, which carries an increased risk of symptomatic stroke and cognitive decline, in patients with NVAF.

Age, diabetes mellitus, and LAA emptying velocity were associated with the presence of SBI in all patients. These findings are consistent with previous studies. Vermeer et al. reported that age and diabetes mellitus were associated with the incidence of SBI in elderly people [33]. Similarly, Eguchi et al. showed that diabetes mellitus correlated with SBI in hypertensive population [34]. Miki et al. demonstrated the association between LAA emptying velocity

and SBI in NVAF patients [21,22]. However, these studies focused on patients with sinus rhythm or all NVAF patients, and no studies to date have elucidated the differences in prevalence and risk factors of SBI between NVAF types.

Since NVAF is a progressive disease that progresses with structural and electrical remodeling through underlying cardiovascular conditions such as hypertension, followed by the self-terminating stage (paroxysmal) and the persistent stage [35], we examined whether there were any differences in the mechanisms and risk factors of SBI between NVAF types. SBI was more frequently detected in cortex/subcortex, which may be more likely to arise from microembolism in patients with persistent NVAF. Moreover, significantly larger and more SBI was found in patients with persistent NVAF. These findings indicate that SBI due to microembolism becomes more apparent at the persistent stage. e' remained independently associated with SBI when putting CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score ≥ 2 as a binary variable (Model 2), while not in a continuous variable (Model 3). These results indicate that e' is superior than CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score ≥ 2 for risk stratification of SBI, while not than CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score as a continuous variable. Moreover, when putting E/e' instead of e' into multivariate analysis, neither Model 2 nor Model 3 was associated with SBI. It is undeniable that e' may be associated with SBI; however, since E/e' and e' were not associated with SBI in the model which includes CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score as a continuous variable, it is difficult to conclude that diastolic dysfunction is superior than CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score for risk stratification of SBI in patients with persistent NVAF. Therefore, we suggest ablation therapy at the time of paroxysmal stage to prevent progression to persistent NVAF may reduce lifetime SBI risk and consequently reduce the risk of future symptomatic stroke.

In paroxysmal NVAF, Model 2 and Model 3 indicated that chronic kidney disease was more useful than CHA_2DS_2 -VASC score regardless of a binary or a continuous variable for risk stratification of SBI. However, Model 1 indicated that age and diabetes mellitus were better indicators of SBI than chronic kidney disease. This may be because chronic kidney disease is the consequences of microvascular damage mediated by aging and diabetes mellitus. These findings suggest that both diabetes mellitus and chronic kidney disease are useful for risk stratification of SBI, and intervention for diabetes mellitus to prevent progression to chronic kidney disease may prevent SBI and consequently reduce the risk of future symptomatic stroke. Since age and diabetes are well-known risk factors for atherosclerosis, these findings suggest that SBI due to small-vessel occlusive disease (i.e., atherosclerosis) develops from the paroxysmal stage. As for renal impairment, Wada et al. reported that the presence of chronic kidney disease was associated with SBI in a general population [36]. Similarly, Kobayashi et al. showed a negative association between eGFR and SBI in patients with chronic kidney disease [37]. However, these studies focused on patients with sinus rhythm, and no studies to date have elucidated in patients with NVAF. Since renal impairment and SBI are microvascular damage mediated by similar mechanisms (i.e., endothelial dysfunction [38] and lipohyalinosis resulting from exposure to highly pulsatile pressure and flow) [39], the existence of chronic kidney disease indicates that SBI may exist as well. Moreover, the presence of chronic kidney disease may accelerate the secretion of inflammatory cytokines and oxidative stress markers that lead to arteriosclerosis and endothelial dysfunction [40].

5. Limitations

This study had several limitations. First, because we used cross-sectional data, we could not evaluate the causal relationship between chronic kidney disease or decreased e' , and SBI. Prospective

Table 3
Multiple logistic regression analysis of SBI in all patients and patients with paroxysmal or persistent NVAF.

	All patients (n = 190)						Paroxysmal AF (n = 119)						Persistent AF (n = 71)								
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 2		Model 3		Model 2		Model 3		
	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	OR (95% CI)	p	
Chronic kidney disease	1.54 (0.56–4.26)	0.41	2.47 (0.96–6.33)	0.06	2.37 (0.91–6.14)	0.08	1.62 (0.43–6.13)	0.48	3.42 (1.06–11.03)	0.04	3.30 (1.03–10.60)	0.04									
Age	1.06 (1.01–1.10)	0.02					1.08 (1.01–1.15)	0.03													
Hypertension	1.43 (0.62–3.31)	0.41					1.65 (0.44–6.16)	0.45													
Diabetes mellitus	3.00 (1.21–7.44)	0.02					5.41 (1.58–18.50)	0.007													
CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc score ≥ 2			2.24 (1.02–4.89)	0.04					2.21 (0.70–6.94)	0.17			2.84 (0.96–8.44)	0.06			1.12 (0.96–1.30)	0.14			
CHA ₂ DS ₂ -VASc score					1.37 (0.98–1.91)	0.07					1.44 (0.89–2.33)	0.14			1.41 (0.90–2.21)	0.13				1.36 (0.84–2.19)	0.21
e' (per 1 cm/s)													0.71 (0.51–0.98)	0.04	0.73 (0.53–1.01)	0.06					
E/e' (per 1 point)	1.06 (0.96–1.17)	0.26	1.09 (0.99–1.20)	0.09	1.08 (0.98–1.19)	0.15	1.06 (0.93–1.19)	0.38	1.10 (0.97–1.24)	0.13	1.08 (0.96–1.23)	0.21					2.42 (0.79–7.44)	0.12	1.11 (0.95–1.30)	0.18	
LAA emptying velocity	0.98 (0.96–0.998)	0.03	0.98 (0.96–1.00)	0.06	0.98 (0.96–1.00)	0.07	0.98 (0.95–1.01)	0.14	0.99 (0.96–1.01)	0.31	0.99 (0.96–1.02)	0.45									
Left atrial diameter	1.04 (0.97–1.11)	0.30	1.03 (0.97–1.10)	0.37	1.03 (0.97–1.10)	0.35															
Spontaneous echo contrast							7.36 (0.60–89.90)	0.12	4.96 (0.40–61.35)	0.21	5.60 (0.44–70.60)	0.18									

OR, Odds Ratio; CI, confidence interval; LAA, left atrial appendage; NVAF, nonvalvular atrial fibrillation; SBI, silent brain infarction
Model 1; Multivariate analysis without CHA₂DS₂-VASc score.

Model 2; Multivariate analysis with CHA₂DS₂-VASc score as a binary variable (i.e., CHA₂DS₂-VASc score ≥ 2).

Model 3; Multivariate analysis with CHA₂DS₂-VASc score as a continuous variable.

tive studies are necessary to assess whether chronic kidney disease or decreased e' indeed predicts SBI in patients with paroxysmal or persistent NVAF. Second, as our study population consisted of patients who were scheduled to undergo their first ablation, the generalizability of our results to permanent NVAF patients without indications for ablation is limited. Third, although there was no significant difference in the prevalence of SBI between patients performed echocardiography in sinus rhythm and AF (63% vs. 30%, $p = 0.11$) in persistent NVAF, the difference in rhythm during echocardiography may affect the results.

6. Conclusions

Age and diabetes mellitus or renal impairment, which represents microvascular disease, is associated with SBI in patients with paroxysmal NVAF. No modifiable risk factors of SBI were observed after progression to persistent NVAF. These findings suggest that intervention for diabetes mellitus and renal impairment from the paroxysmal stage and ablation therapy at the time of paroxysmal stage to prevent progression to persistent NVAF may prevent SBI and consequently reduce the risk of future symptomatic stroke.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Acknowledgement of grant support

None

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Andrew T Kim: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Writing - original draft. **Shinichi Iwata:** Validation, Writing - review & editing. **Sera Ishikawa:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation. **Soichiro Tamura:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation. **Masanori Matsuo:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation. **Tomotaka Yoshiyama:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation. **Shinichi Nonin:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation. **Asahiro Ito:** Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation. **Yasuhiro Izumiya:** Supervision. **Minoru Yoshiyama:** Project administration.

References

- [1] S.S. Chugh, R. Havmoeller, K. Narayanan, et al., Worldwide epidemiology of atrial fibrillation: A global burden of disease 2010 study, *Circulation*. 129 (2014) 837–847, <https://doi.org/10.1161/circulationaha.113.005119>.
- [2] A.S. Go, E.M. Hylek, K.A. Phillips, et al., Prevalence of diagnosed atrial fibrillation in adults: National implications for rhythm management and stroke prevention: The anticoagulation and risk factors in atrial fibrillation (atria) study, *JAMA*. 285 (2001) 2370–2375.
- [3] D.M. Lloyd-Jones, T.J. Wang, E.P. Leip, et al., Lifetime risk for development of atrial fibrillation: The framingham heart study, *Circulation*. 110 (2004) 1042–1046, <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.Cir.0000140263.20897.42>.
- [4] Risk factors for stroke and efficacy of antithrombotic therapy in atrial fibrillation. Analysis of pooled data from five randomized controlled trials, *Arch Intern Med*. 154 (1994) 1449–1457.
- [5] S. Stewart, N.F. Murphy, A. Walker, A. McGuire, J.J. McMurray, Cost of an emerging epidemic: An economic analysis of atrial fibrillation in the UK, *Heart*. 90 (2004) 286–292, <https://doi.org/10.1136/hrt.2002.008748>.
- [6] P.A. Wolf, R.D. Abbott, W.B. Kannel, Atrial fibrillation as an independent risk factor for stroke: The framingham study, *Stroke*. 22 (1991) 983–988.
- [7] E.J. Benjamin, D. Levy, S.M. Vaziri, R.B. D'Agostino, A.J. Belanger, P.A. Wolf, Independent risk factors for atrial fibrillation in a population-based cohort, The framingham heart study, *JAMA*. 271 (1994) 840–844.
- [8] R.G. Hart, L.A. Pearce, M.I. Aguilar, Meta-analysis: Antithrombotic therapy to prevent stroke in patients who have nonvalvular atrial fibrillation, *Ann Intern Med*. 146 (2007) 857–867, <https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-146-12-200706190-00007>.
- [9] C.T. Ruff, R.P. Giugliano, E. Braunwald, et al., Comparison of the efficacy and safety of new oral anticoagulants with warfarin in patients with atrial fibrillation: A meta-analysis of randomised trials, *Lancet*. 383 (2014) 955–962, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(13\)62343-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)62343-0).
- [10] S.E. Vermeer, W.T. Longstreth Jr., P.J. Koudstaal, Silent brain infarcts: A systematic review, *Lancet Neurol*. 6 (2007) 611–619, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-4422\(07\)70170-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-4422(07)70170-9).
- [11] R.W. Regenhardt, A.S. Das, E.H. Lo, L.R. Caplan, Advances in understanding the pathophysiology of lacunar stroke: A review, *JAMA Neurol*. 75 (2018) 1273–1281, <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaneurol.2018.1073>.
- [12] C. Bernick, L. Kuller, C. Dulberg, et al., Silent mri infarcts and the risk of future stroke: The cardiovascular health study, *Neurology*. 57 (2001) 1222–1229, <https://doi.org/10.1212/wnl.57.7.1222>.
- [13] S.E. Vermeer, M. Hollander, E.J. van Dijk, A. Hofman, P.J. Koudstaal, M.M. Breteler, Silent brain infarcts and white matter lesions increase stroke risk in the general population: The rotterdam scan study, *Stroke*. 34 (2003) 1126–1129, <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.Str.0000068408.82115.D2>.
- [14] S.E. Vermeer, N.D. Prins, T. den Heijer, A. Hofman, P.J. Koudstaal, M.M. Breteler, Silent brain infarcts and the risk of dementia and cognitive decline, *N Engl J Med*. 348 (2003) 1215–1222, <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa022066>.
- [15] F. Gaita, L. Corsinovi, M. Anselmino, et al., Prevalence of silent cerebral ischemia in paroxysmal and persistent atrial fibrillation and correlation with cognitive function, *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 62 (2013) 1990–1997, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2013.05.074>.
- [16] L.Y. Chen, F.L. Lopez, R.F. Gottesman, et al., Atrial fibrillation and cognitive decline—the role of subclinical cerebral infarcts: The atherosclerosis risk in communities study, *Stroke*. 45 (2014) 2568–2574, <https://doi.org/10.1161/strokeaha.114.005243>.
- [17] S. Kalantarian, H. Ay, R.L. Gollub, et al., Association between atrial fibrillation and silent cerebral infarctions: A systematic review and meta-analysis, *Ann Intern Med*. 161 (2014) 650–658, <https://doi.org/10.7326/m14-0538>.
- [18] G. Howard, L.E. Wagenknecht, J. Cai, L. Cooper, M.A. Kraut, J.F. Toole, Cigarette smoking and other risk factors for silent cerebral infarction in the general population, *Stroke*. 29 (1998) 913–917.
- [19] S.C. Lee, S.J. Park, H.K. Ki, et al., Prevalence and risk factors of silent cerebral infarction in apparently normal adults, *Hypertension*. 36 (2000) 73–77.
- [20] M.J. Cha, H.E. Park, M.H. Lee, Y. Cho, E.K. Choi, S. Oh, Prevalence of and risk factors for silent ischemic stroke in patients with atrial fibrillation as determined by brain magnetic resonance imaging, *Am J Cardiol*. 113 (2014) 655–661, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjcard.2013.11.011>.
- [21] K. Sugioka, M. Takagi, S. Sakamoto, et al., Predictors of silent brain infarction on magnetic resonance imaging in patients with nonvalvular atrial fibrillation: A transesophageal echocardiographic study, *Am Heart J*. 169 (2015) 783–790, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ahj.2015.03.016>.
- [22] K. Miki, M. Nakano, K. Aizawa, et al., Risk factors and localization of silent cerebral infarction in patients with atrial fibrillation, *Heart Rhythm*. 16 (2019) 1305–1313, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrthm.2019.03.013>.
- [23] S. Ishikawa, K. Sugioka, S. Sakamoto, et al., Relationship between tissue doppler measurements of left ventricular diastolic function and silent brain infarction in patients with non-valvular atrial fibrillation, *Eur Heart J Cardiovasc Imaging*. 18 (2017) 1245–1252, <https://doi.org/10.1093/ehjci/jew220>.
- [24] K. Hahne, G. Monnig, A. Samol, Atrial fibrillation and silent stroke: Links, risks, and challenges, *Vasc Health Risk Manag*. 12 (2016) 65–74, <https://doi.org/10.2147/vhrm.S81807>.
- [25] C.T. January, L.S. Wann, J.S. Alpert, et al., AHA/ACC/HRS guideline for the management of patients with atrial fibrillation: Executive summary: A report of the american college of cardiology/american heart association task force on practice guidelines and the heart rhythm society, *Circulation*. 130 (2014) 2071–2104, <https://doi.org/10.1161/cir.0000000000000040>.
- [26] Chapter 1: Definition and classification of CKD, *Kidney International Supplements*. 3 (2013) 19–62. doi: 10.1038/kisup.2012.64.
- [27] G.Y. Lip, R. Nieuwlaat, R. Pisters, D.A. Lane, H.J. Crijns, Refining clinical risk stratification for predicting stroke and thromboembolism in atrial fibrillation using a novel risk factor-based approach: The euro heart survey on atrial fibrillation, *Chest*. 137 (2010) 263–272, <https://doi.org/10.1378/chest.09-1584>.
- [28] S.F. Nagueh, O.A. Smiseth, C.P. Appleton, et al., Recommendations for the evaluation of left ventricular diastolic function by echocardiography: An update from the american society of echocardiography and the european association of cardiovascular imaging, *J Am Soc Echocardiogr*. 29 (2016) 277–314, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.echo.2016.01.011>.
- [29] R. Castello, A.C. Pearson, A.J. Labovitz, Prevalence and clinical implications of atrial spontaneous contrast in patients undergoing transesophageal echocardiography, *Am J Cardiol*. 65 (1990) 1149–1153, [https://doi.org/10.1016/0002-9149\(90\)90330-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0002-9149(90)90330-4).
- [30] D. Fatkin, R.P. Kelly, M.P. Feneley, Relations between left atrial appendage blood flow velocity, spontaneous echocardiographic contrast and thromboembolic risk in vivo, *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 23 (1994) 961–969.

- [31] M. Zabalgaitia, J.L. Halperin, L.A. Pearce, J.L. Blackshear, R.W. Asinger, R.G. Hart, Transesophageal echocardiographic correlates of clinical risk of thromboembolism in nonvalvular atrial fibrillation, Stroke prevention in atrial fibrillation iii investigators, *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 31 (1998) 1622–1626.
- [32] A. Kobayashi, M. Iguchi, S. Shimizu, S. Uchiyama, Silent cerebral infarcts and cerebral white matter lesions in patients with nonvalvular atrial fibrillation, *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 21 (2012) 310–317, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jstrokecerebrovasdis.2010.09.004>.
- [33] S.E. Vermeer, T. Den Heijer, P.J. Koudstaal, M. Oudkerk, A. Hofman, M.M. Breteler, Incidence and risk factors of silent brain infarcts in the population-based rotterdam scan study, *Stroke*. 34 (2003) 392–396, <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.str.0000052631.98405.15>.
- [34] K. Eguchi, K. Kario, K. Shimada, Greater impact of coexistence of hypertension and diabetes on silent cerebral infarcts, *Stroke*. 34 (2003) 2471–2474, <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.Str.0000089684.41902.Cd>.
- [35] P. Kirchhof, S. Benussi, D. Kotecha, et al., ESC guidelines for the management of atrial fibrillation developed in collaboration with eacts, *Eur Heart J*. 37 (2016) (2016) 2893–2962, <https://doi.org/10.1093/eurheartj/ehw210>.
- [36] M. Wada, H. Nagasawa, C. Iseki, et al., Cerebral small vessel disease and chronic kidney disease (CKD): Results of a cross-sectional study in community-based japanese elderly, *J Neurol Sci*. 272 (2008) 36–42, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jns.2008.04.029>.
- [37] M. Kobayashi, N. Hirawa, K. Yatsu, et al., Relationship between silent brain infarction and chronic kidney disease, *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 24 (2009) 201–207, <https://doi.org/10.1093/ndt/gfn419>.
- [38] D.H. Kang, J. Kanellis, C. Hugo, et al., Role of the microvascular endothelium in progressive renal disease, *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 13 (2002) 806–816.
- [39] M.F. O'Rourke, M.E. Safar, Relationship between aortic stiffening and microvascular disease in brain and kidney: Cause and logic of therapy, *Hypertension*. 46 (2005) 200–204, <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.Hyp.0000168052.00426.65>.
- [40] M.I. Yilmaz, M. Saglam, K. Caglar, et al., The determinants of endothelial dysfunction in CKD: Oxidative stress and asymmetric dimethylarginine, *Am J Kidney Dis*. 47 (2006) 42–50, <https://doi.org/10.1053/j.ajkd.2005.09.029>.