- 1 <u>Title :</u> A vagal influence on schizophrenia? A nationwide retrospective cohort of vagotomized
- 2 individuals
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- 4 <u>Authors:</u> Cornelia F Richter¹, Karolina P Skibicka^{2,3}, Urs Meyer^{1,4}, Sabine Rohrmann⁵, Jean-
- 5 Philippe Krieger^{1,2}
- 6
- 7 Affiliations:
- 8 1 Institute of Veterinary Pharmacology and Toxicology, University of Zurich-Vetsuisse,9 Switzerland
- 10 2 Institute of Neuroscience and Physiology, University of Gothenburg, Sweden
- 11 3 Department of Nutritional Sciences, Pennsylvania State University, State College, PA,
- 12 United States
- 13 4 Neuroscience Center Zurich, University of Zurich and ETH Zurich, Switzerland
- 14 5 Division of Chronic Disease Epidemiology, Epidemiology, Biostatistics and Prevention
- 15 Institute, University of Zurich, Switzerland
- 16

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- 18 <u>Corresponding author:</u> Jean-Philippe Krieger. Institute of Neuroscience and Physiology,
 19 University of Gothenburg, Sweden (jean-philippe.krieger@gu.se).
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23 Abstract:

24 Emerging preclinical evidence suggests that vagal signals contribute to the development of

- 25 schizophrenia-related abnormalities in brain and behavior. Whether vagal communication in
- 26 general, and its impairment in particular, is a risk factor for schizophrenia in humans remains,
- 27 however, unclear.

Vagotomy, the surgical lesion of the vagus nerve, was routinely performed as a treatment for peptic ulcer before modern treatment options were available. Hence, the primary aim of this study was to investigate whether vagotomy modulates the subsequent risk of developing schizophrenia. Moreover, given the existence of diverse vagotomy techniques (i.e., "truncal" or "selective"), our secondary goal was to test whether the extent of denervation modulates the risk of schizophrenia.

Using a nationwide retrospective matched cohort design, we identified 8,833 vagotomized individuals from the Swedish National Patient Register during the period 1970-2020 and 17,666 non-vagotomized individuals matching for age, sex and type of peptic ulcer. The risk of being diagnosed with schizophrenia and associated psychoses (ICD10 codes F20-29) was analyzed using Cox proportional hazards regression models, including death as competing risk.

Overall, vagotomy was not significantly associated with schizophrenia (HR: 0.86 [0.66; 1.12]).
When considering different vagotomy techniques, however, truncal vagotomy significantly
increased (HR: 1.60 [1.02; 2.51]), while selective vagotomy decreased (HR: 0.75 [0.56; 1.00]),
the risk of developing schizophrenia.

Our results provide epidemiological support for the hypothesis that impairments in vagal functions can increase the risk of schizophrenia. Notably, the finding that truncal but not selective vagotomy is associated with an increased risk of schizophrenia raises the possibility that the activity of subdiaphragmatic non-gastric vagal branches may be of particular relevance for the development of schizophrenia.

49 **1** Introduction

50 The vagus nerve is a major neuronal route of communication between the periphery and the 51 brain (Neuhuber and Berthoud, 2021). Vagal afferent neurons, the ascending component of 52 this communication, sense peripheral signals and, thus, inform the brain about the state of the 53 periphery. On the other hand, vagal efferent neurons provide top-down parasympathetic 54 control over organ physiology.

55 Several lines of evidence suggest that this bidirectional communication is relevant for the 56 development of schizophrenia. First, vagal parasympathetic activity is decreased in patients 57 with schizophrenia, which contributes to overall autonomic nervous system dysfunction in 58 affected individuals (Stogios et al., 2021). This dysfunction underlies cardiovascular 59 complications associated with schizophrenia, but is also increasingly postulated to contribute 60 to psychological symptoms severity (Stogios et al., 2021). In addition, vagal efferent neurons 61 exert an anti-inflammatory action through the cholinergic anti-inflammatory pathway (Bonaz et 62 al., 2016). Hence, impaired vagal function has been proposed to contribute to systemic as well 63 as central inflammation seen in a subset of patients with schizophrenia (Corsi-Zuelli et al., 64 2017).

65 In comparison to the descending vagal circuits, little focus has been given to ascending vagal 66 afferents in schizophrenia. Several lines of evidence suggest, however, that vagal afferents 67 may also play a significant role in pathophysiology. First, the activity of vagal afferent neurons directly influences the descending pathways and, hence, can contribute to the effects 68 69 mentioned above. In addition, while recent studies emphasize the role of the gut microbiome 70 in schizophrenia (Thirion et al., 2023; Zhu et al., 2020), vagal sensory neurons are well-71 positioned to be the main mediators of the relevant microbiome metabolites (Dinan et al., 72 2014). Finally, pre-clinical rodents studies indicate that vagal afferent signals could contribute 73 to the development of schizophrenia-related abnormalities in brain and behavior. Indeed, 74 subdiaphragmatic vagal deafferentation in rats leads to brain transcriptional changes in 75 functional networks related to schizophrenia, increased sensitivity to dopamine-stimulating 76 drugs, and impairments in sensorimotor gating and the attentional control of associative 77 learning (Klarer et al., 2018).

Despite these findings, direct evidence for a vagal influence on the pathophysiology of
schizophrenia is lacking in humans. However, such evidence could foster further therapies
targeted at the vagus nerve in schizophrenia and open avenues for more mechanistic studies.

Vagotomy, the lesion of the vagus nerve, was performed to treat peptic ulcers before the advent of more effective treatments, with the goal to reduce gastric acid secretion. Several vagotomy techniques co-existed and can be categorized into "truncal vagotomy", the section

of the vagal trunks below the diaphragm, and "selective vagotomy", which aimed to selectively
severe vagal sub-branches to the stomach (Lundell, 2011).

Several epidemiological studies have taken advantage of cohorts of vagotomized individuals 86 87 to assess vagal influence on dementia (Lin et al., 2018), Parkinson's disease (Liu et al., 2017), 88 inflammatory bowel disease (Liu et al., 2020) and mental disorders (Bunyoz et al., 2022). 89 While this last study included schizophrenia as a secondary outcome, a large study assessing the risk of developing schizophrenia in vagotomized individuals as a primary outcome is 90 91 lacking. Therefore, we built a nationwide retrospective cohort of patients who underwent 92 vagotomy in Sweden and contrasted their risk of developing schizophrenia with that of control 93 individuals matched for age, sex and peptic ulcer diagnosis over a 50-year period. In addition, 94 we took advantage of the diverse vagotomy techniques to assess whether the extent of 95 denervation modulates the risk of developing schizophrenia.

96 2 Methods

97 2.1 Ethics and reporting

98 This study was approved by the Swedish Ethical review authority (decision 2019-04833 and
99 amendment 2021-05371-02). The current report is structured according to the STROBE
100 guidelines (Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology; (von Elm
101 et al., 2007)).

102 2.2 Study design

103 This study is a register-based nationwide retrospective matched cohort covering the period104 1970-2020 in Sweden.

105 2.3 Data sources

106 Anonymized data from different registers were provided by the Swedish National Board of 107 Health and Welfare and Statistics Sweden. Specifically, the National Patient Register (NPR), the Swedish Cause of Death Register and the Total Population Register were used and linked 108 109 by the Swedish personal identification number, which exists for each resident in Sweden 110 (Socialstyrelsen, 2024). Since the early 1960s information from in-patients at public hospitals 111 is documented in the NPR, including reports of psychiatric care. Nationwide coverage exists 112 since 1987 (Ludvigsson et al., 2011). Furthermore, since 2001 outpatient information (doctor 113 visits, psychiatric care and surgery) from private and public institutions are covered. 114 Involuntary psychiatric care and forensic psychiatric care are also reported since 2008. 115 Primary health care doctor visits are not vet documented in the NPR (Ludvigsson et al., 2011). 116 The death register contains information on deaths from 1964. Regular, thorough guality and 117 validity checks are done on data submitted to the National Board of Health and Welfare. 118 Information about dates of immigration into (from 1969) and emigration out of (from 1961) 119 Sweden is recorded in the Total Population Register.

120 2.4 Study population

121 A total of 14,206 individuals who underwent vagotomy between 01-01-1970 and 31-12-2020 122 and did not have a diagnosis of schizophrenia prior to surgery were identified from the National 123 Patient Register based on the Swedish Classification of Operations and Major Procedures 124 (Table S1) as described in (Liu et al., 2020). The closest diagnosis of a peptic ulcer (ICD-10 125 codes K25-K28, see Table S2) prior to vagotomy was considered as indication for vagotomy. 126 Individuals identified from the NPR as vagotomized were excluded if surgery dates were not 127 plausible (ie. before admission at the hospital or after death dates), if vagotomy surgery code 128 was missing from the source file or if an ulcer diagnosis did not exist prior to or within 14 days 129 post surgery. Two controls per case were then selected from the NPR using a stepwise

procedures: first, all controls matching a vagotomy case for age at cohort entry, sex and presenting the same peptic ulcer diagnosis (exact ICD codes) were selected. As a second step, the two controls that received the peptic ulcer diagnosis at the closest date to the vagotomy case were selected. The same control individuals could not be used as a control for multiple cases. In case a vagotomized individual could not be matched with two controls, the corresponding case-control group was excluded. Overall, 8,833 vagotomy patients and 17,666 controls, were included in the study, as described in the flow chart (Figure 1).

137 2.5 Ascertainment of surgery types

Vagotomy surgeries were categorized into "truncal" and "selective" as previously described in (Liu et al., 2020) based on the Swedish classification of Operations and Major procedures (Table S1). Briefly, truncal vagotomy lesions both vagal trunks around the oesophagus and therefore denervate all subdiaphragmatic organs. Selective vagotomies cover multiple techniques achieving a selective denervation of the stomach (Seeras et al., 2023). Five individuals had surgery codes that cannot be assigned to truncal or selective and were therefore only considered for the analysis of the overall vagotomy effects.

145 **2.6 Ascertainment of schizophrenia diagnosis**

146 Due to historical evolution in the diagnosis of schizophrenia (Jablensky, 2010) and the heterogeneity of the disease (Tsuang et al., 2000), we opted for a broad definition of 147 148 schizophrenia for this long-term nationwide cohort. Hence, diagnoses of schizophrenia, schizotypal disorders and non-mood psychotic disorders were identified by the presence of 149 150 the corresponding ICD codes in the NPR or the Death register (ICD10 codes F20-F29; see 151 Table S3 for earlier ICD versions). We refer to these disorders as "schizophrenia" in the rest 152 of the manuscript. In case of several diagnoses, the earliest diagnosis and diagnosis dates 153 were considered.

154 **2.7 Covariates**

Age and sex of participants were taken from the NPR. Overall comorbidity at cohort entry was assessed with an adapted version (Deyo et al., 1992) of the weighted Charlson Comorbidity Index (CCI) (Charlson et al., 1987; Ludvigsson et al., 2021). The CCI is a cumulative score including diagnoses of vascular diseases, diabetes, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, mild, moderate and severe liver disease, cancer and chronic obesity. Relevant ICD codes can be found in supplementary material (Table S4).

161 2.8 Handling of missing data

For 706 patients in the death registry, exact day of death was not indicated and was imputedas the 15th of the corresponding month. Further, there were 125 cases for which month and

164 day of death were missing. In this case, we used December 15th of the respective year of165 death.

166 2.9 Statistical methods

167 Cohort participants were followed up from the day of surgery, which was matched for the 168 reference population, to the date of a schizophrenia diagnosis, death, emigration of Sweden 169 or December 31st, 2020, whichever occurred first.

The first analysis assessed the association between overall vagotomy and the postoperative risk of developing schizophrenia. In a secondary analysis, the association between vagotomy types (truncal, selective) and schizophrenia was investigated. In a third analysis, we restricted follow up to 5, 10, 15 and 20 years after cohort entry and analyzed the association between overall vagotomy, as well as vagotomy types (truncal, selective) and schizophrenia.
For all analysis, Cox proportional hazard regression models and hazard ratios with corresponding 95% confidence intervals were computed for the outcome schizophrenia,

including death as a competing risks. We considered a crude model, accounting for matching
variables age and sex at cohort entry and an adjusted model, additionally including the ICD

179 period and the adapted Charlson Comorbidity Index. All analyses were conducted with R

180 (version 4.3.1).

181 **3 Results**

Table 1 summarizes characteristics of the study participants. As a result of matching, the distributions of sex (66% males), age (median age 54) and peptic ulcer types were the same in vagotomized patients and controls. Most vagotomy patients (n = 6,524, 73.8 %), underwent selective vagotomy. Individuals with truncal vagotomy had higher comorbidity (CCI) at baseline and higher mortality during follow-up than reference individuals or individuals with selective vagotomy.

188 The cumulative incidence of schizophrenia in vagotomized patients compared to the matched 189 reference individuals is shown in Figure 2 (overall vagotomy) and Figure 3 (truncal and 190 selective vagotomy). Overall, we found no statistically significant association of vagotomy with 191 schizophrenia (HR crude model: 0.88 [0.68; 1.13]; adjusted 0.86 [0.66; 1.12], Figure 4). When 192 considering vagotomy types, however, selective vagotomy decreased (HR: 0.75 [0.56; 1.00], 193 Figure 5), while truncal vagotomy increased (HR: 1.60 [1.02; 2.51]), the subsequent risk of 194 schizophrenia. In all analyses, the overall risk of developing schizophrenia was higher in 195 female participants (Table S5).

196 When the temporal relationship of vagotomy and schizophrenia was analysed by restricting 197 follow up to 5, 10, 15 and 20 years, we found no statistically significant effect of overall 198 vagotomy at any time point (Table S6). On the contrary, the protective effect of selective 199 vagotomy on the development of schizophrenia was statistically significant at all times (Figure 200 6 and Table S7), with the lowest adjusted HRs found at 5 and 10 years (0.43 [0.19, 0.95] and 201 0.34 [0.17, 0.68], respectively). The association of truncal vagotomy was statistically 202 significant at all times (Figure 6 and Table S7). The effect was highest after 5 years (adjusted 203 HR: 4.04 [2.17, 7.55]) and continuously decreased over time (20 years adjusted HR: 1.95 204 [1.17, 3.24]).

206 **4 Discussion**

We built a nationwide retrospective cohort of individuals who underwent vagotomy and contrasted their risk of developing schizophrenia to that of control individuals. Our study included a total of 26,499 individuals identified in the Swedish NPR over a 50-year period. We used a novel approach where controls are matched with vagotomized patients for age, sex and peptic ulcer diagnosis, enabling us to correct for confounding by indication, a challenge faced by previous studies (Bunyoz et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2020).

214 An earlier study assessed the risk of developing mental disorders in a nationwide sample of 215 vagotomized individuals in Denmark, and included the risk of developing schizophrenia as a 216 secondary outcome (Bunyoz et al., 2022). With 38 cases identified in the vagotomy group, this 217 study observed no effect of vagotomy on schizophrenia, although with large confidence 218 intervals. Here, we leveraged a larger national register, started the follow-up at an earlier date 219 (which is important given the temporal window in which vagotomies were performed) and used 220 a longer study period. These modifications in the study design yielded more observations and 221 cases than the Danish study (87 in the vagotomy group, 254 overall). Nevertheless, in 222 accordance with this study, we found no effect of vagotomy overall on the subsequent risk of 223 developing schizophrenia.

224 Vagotomy, however, covers several techniques (Seeras et al., 2023): truncal vagotomies 225 severe both vagal trunks at the level of the oesophagus and hence, remove vagal innervation 226 from all subdiaphragmatic organs. In contrast, selective vagotomies only interrupt vagal 227 innervation from the stomach. Our study is the first to distinguish between the two types of 228 vagotomies for the outcome of schizophrenia. Intriguingly, we found that truncal vagotomy 229 significantly increases, while selective vagotomy moderately decreases the risk of developing 230 schizophrenia compared to matched controls. Interestingly, Bunyoz et al. also found that 231 truncal vagotomy, but not selective vagotomy, was associated with an increase in mental 232 disorders (Bunyoz et al., 2022).

A first potential explanation of these differences may lie in the distinct indication between selective and truncal vagotomy. Selective vagotomy is a more subtle lesion with less side effects, but is associated with a higher recurrence rate than truncal vagotomy. Hence, truncal vagotomy was primarily performed in patients where recurrence rate needed to be minimized despite side effects, such as elderly patients or patients with comorbidities (Chan et al., 1994). It has been argued that these patients are more likely to visit the hospital after surgery than individuals with selective vagotomy and this could explain the different effects of vagotomy

types on the development of schizophrenia (surveillance bias) (Bunyoz et al., 2022). Here, we matched controls for age, sex and ulcer diagnosis, which mitigates this bias. Moreover, the effect of truncal vagotomy on other outcomes (inflammatory bowel disease, dementia) tends to be similar to that of selective vagotomy (Lin et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020). Truncal vagotomy even reduces the risk of developing Parkinson's disease, while selective vagotomy had no effect (Liu et al., 2017). Hence, the surveillance bias explanation seems unlikely and the observed differences might be rooted in biology.

247 Importantly, the difference between selective and truncal vagotomy on the postoperative 248 development of schizophrenia does not only lie in the extent of the lesion. Both surgeries also 249 target distinct neuronal populations. Recent rodent findings confirmed the notion that distinct 250 vagal neuronal populations have diverse contributions to the same behavior (Tao et al., 2021). 251 For example, only a subset of vagal sensory neurons projecting throughout the gastrointestinal 252 tract contributes to eating behavior, or reward behavior modulation (Bai et al., 2019; Han et 253 al., 2018). Distinct vagal populations can even have opposing actions, as exemplified by two 254 vagal sensory subtypes that induce apnea or rapid breathing (Chang et al., 2015). Hence, it 255 is plausible that the distinct vagal neurons lesioned by truncal or selective vagotomies exert 256 differential effects on schizophrenia-relevant behaviors. Future studies could exploit this 257 emerging granularity in our understanding of vagal circuits to investigate the role of distinct 258 neuronal populations and projections on schizophrenia-like behaviors, for example using 259 rodent models.

Vagal neurons, specifically vagal afferent neurons, are well positioned to modulate central 260 261 pathways involved in the pathophysiology of schizophrenia. In the rat, a vagal lesion that 262 primarily affects subdiaphragmatic vagal afferent neurons, was associated with brain 263 transcriptomic changes annotating with schizophrenia-associated disease pathways and 264 increased striatal dopamine content (Klarer et al., 2018). Interestingly, increased dopamine content within striatal structures is a core pathophysiological mechanism in schizophrenia 265 266 (Howes and Kapur, 2009). It is thought to underlie the disruption of attentional control of 267 associative learning (Murphy et al., 2000), sensorimotor gating (Swerdlow et al., 1990; 268 Swerdlow et al., 1992; Wan et al., 1995), and amphetamine hypersensitivity (Heidbreder and 269 Feldon, 1998). From a circuit perspective, ascending vagal inputs to the nucleus of the solitary 270 tract are synaptically connected to the ventral tegmental area (Han et al., 2018), which 271 contains the majority of dopaminergic cells projecting to the ventral striatum. Beyond 272 mesolimbic dopamine, future studies should examine the contribution of vagal neurons to 273 schizophrenia-relevant brain circuits in a more systematic manner.

274 Finally, the relevance of our findings extends beyond the specific case of vagotomized 275 individuals. Reduced parasympathetic activity, evidenced by a low heart rate variability, is a 276 common feature of many mental and metabolic disorders, suggesting that descending vagal 277 activity is also affected in a large population of patients (Ramesh et al., 2023). In addition, 278 vagal afferent neurons show reduced response to gastrointestinal hormones or stretch in 279 animal models of obesity (Kentish et al., 2011; Kentish et al., 2014; Kentish and Page, 2014; 280 Kentish et al., 2016) or animals with microbial dysbiosis (Jameson et al., 2023). Hence, if these 281 findings extend to humans, the number of individuals affected by impairments in vagal 282 ascending pathways is likely to be large.

Overall, our study confirms the absence of effect of overall vagotomy on schizophrenia seen in a previous study. It opens, however, the possibility that distinct vagal circuits play a differential role in the risk of developing schizophrenia. Notably, our findings suggest a role for the non-gastric subdiaphragmatic branches of the vagus nerve in the development of schizophrenia. While future epidemiological studies are warranted to strengthen this conclusion, studies in rodents are well-suited to test this hypothesis and uncover the underlying mechanisms.

290 **5 Conflicts of interests**

291 The authors have no conflicts to declare.

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296 **7** Author contributions

- 297 CFR: Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Visualization, Writing-Original draft 298 preparation
- 299 KPS: Conceptualization, Writing-Reviewing and Editing
- 300 SR: Conceptualization, Writing-Reviewing and Editing
- 301 UM: Writing-Reviewing and Editing
- 302 JPK: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing-Original draft preparation, Writing-Reviewing
- 303 and Editing

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421 Table 1. Patient characteristics

	Overall	No vagotomy	Vagotomy	Selective vagotomy	Truncal vagotomy
n	26 499	17 666	8 833	6 524	2 304
Surgery Year Median [IQR]	1982 [1976, 1987]	1982 [1976,1987]	1982 [1976, 1987]	1980 [1975, 1986]	1984 [1981, 1989]
Age in years Median [IQR]	54 [43, 65]	54 [43, 65]	54 [43, 65]	51 [41, 60]	68 [56, 76]
Sex Females (n, %)	9 006 (34.0)	6 004 (34.0)	3 002 (34.0)	2 184 (33.4)	814 (35.3)
Death during study period (n, %)	21 952 (82.8)	15 101 (85.5)	6 851 (77.6)	4 724 (72.4)	2 123 (92.1)
Schizophrenia diagnosis (n, %)	254 (1.0)	167 (0.9)	87 (1.0)	65 (1.0)	22 (1.0)
Ulcer Diagnosis					
Gastric ulcer	8 451 (31.9)	5 634 (31.9)	2 817 (31.9)	1 903 (29.2)	910 (39.5)
Duodenal ulcer	15 771 (59.5)	10 514 (59.5)	5 257 (59.5)	4 068 (62.4)	1 188 (51.6)
Gastrojejunal ulcer	594 (2.2)	396 (2.2)	198 (2.2)	127 (2.0)	71 (3.1)
Not specified ulcer	1 683 (6.4)	1 122 (6.4)	561 (6.4)	426 (6.5)	135 (2.1)
Adapted CCI (n, %)					
0	25 875 (97.6)	17 478 (98.9)	8 379 (95.1)	6 351 (97.3)	2 041 (88.6)
1-2	323 (1.2)	94 (0.5)	229 (2.6)	85 (1.3)	144 (6.2)
>=3	301 (1.1)	94 (0.5)	207 (2.3)	88 (1.3)	119 (5.2)

422

423 N = 5 vagotomy patients with vagotomy = not defined, not shown. IQR = Interquartile Range.

424 CCI = Charlson Comorbidity Index.

Figure 1. Flowchart 426

427 NPR = National Patient Registry



430 Figure 2. Cumulative incidence function of schizophrenia among patients with overall

431 vagotomy and matched controls.



432

434 Figure 3. Cumulative incidence function of schizophrenia among patients with truncal

435 or selective vagotomy and matched controls.



439 Figure 4. Regression Results of Cox proportional hazards model for overall vagotomy

440 and subsequent diagnosis of schizophrenia.



441

Crude model controlled age and sex. Adjusted model controlled for age, sex, weighted 442 Charlson Comorbidity Index, ICD-period. HR = Hazard Ratio, 95% CI = 95% Confidence 443 444 Interval. Vertical line: reference value.of 1

Figure 5. Regression results of Cox proportional hazards model for selective or truncal 446

447 vagotomy and subsequent diagnosis of schizophrenia.



448

449 Crude model controlled age and sex. Adjusted model controlled for age, sex, weighted

Charlson Comorbidity Index, ICD-period. HR = Hazard Ratio, 95% CI = 95% Confidence 450

451 Interval. Vertical line: reference value of 1

453 Figure 6: Regression results of Cox proportional hazards model for selective or truncal



454 vagotomy and schizophrenia, with follow-up restriction.

457 Crude model controlled age and sex. Adjusted model controlled for age, sex, weighted
458 Charlson Comorbidity Index, ICD-period. HR = Hazard Ratio, 95% CI = 95% Confidence
459 Interval. Vertical line: reference value of 1