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Citation

Al'Aref, S. J., Singh, G., Choi, J. W., Xu, Z. R., Maliakal, G., Rosendael, A. R. van, ... Min, J. K. (2020). A boosted ensemble algorithm for determination of plaque stability in high-risk patients on coronary CTA. *Jacc: Cardiovascular Imaging*, *13*(10), 2162-2173. doi:10.1016/j.jcmg.2020.03.025

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Note: To cite this publication please use the final published version (if applicable).

ORIGINAL RESEARCH

A Boosted Ensemble Algorithm for Determination of Plaque Stability in High-Risk Patients on Coronary CTA



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ABSTRACT

OBJECTIVES This study sought to identify culprit lesion (CL) precursors among acute coronary syndrome (ACS) patients based on qualitative and quantitative computed tomography-based plaque characteristics.

BACKGROUND Coronary computed tomography angiography (CTA) has been validated for patient-level prediction of ACS. However, the applicability of coronary CTA to CL assessment is not known.

METHODS Utilizing the ICONIC (Incident COroNary Syndromes Identified by Computed Tomography) study, a nested casecontrol study of 468 patients with baseline coronary CTA, the study included ACS patients with invasive coronary angiography-adjudicated CLs that could be aligned to CL precursors on baseline coronary CTA. Separate blinded core laboratories adjudicated CLs and performed atherosclerotic plaque evaluation. Thereafter, the study used a boosted ensemble algorithm (XGBoost) to develop a predictive model of CLs. Data were randomly split into a training set (80%) and a test set (20%). The area under the receiver-operating characteristic curve of this model was compared with that of diameter stenosis (model 1), high-risk plaque features (model 2), and lesion-level features of CL precursors from the ICONIC study (model 3). Thereafter, the machine learning (ML) model was applied to 234 non-ACS patients with 864 lesions to determine model performance for CL exclusion.

RESULTS CL precursors were identified by both coronary angiography and baseline coronary CTA in 124 of 234 (53.0%) patients, with a total of 582 lesions (containing 124 CLs) included in the analysis. The ML model demonstrated significantly higher area under the receiver-operating characteristic curve for discriminating CL precursors (0.774; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.758 to 0.790) compared with model 1 (0.599; 95% CI: 0.599 to 0.599; p < 0.01), model 2 (0.532; 95% CI: 0.501 to 0.563; p < 0.01), and model 3 (0.672; 95% CI: 0.662 to 0.682; p < 0.01). When applied to the non-ACS cohort, the ML model had a specificity of 89.3% for excluding CLs.

CONCLUSIONS In a high-risk cohort, a boosted ensemble algorithm can be used to predict CL from non-CL precursors on coronary CTA. (J Am Coll Cardiol Img 2020;13:2162-73) © 2020 by the American College of Cardiology Foundation.

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cute coronary syndrome (ACS) occurs as a result of the predisposition of atherosclerotic plaque to progression and subsequent transformation into high-risk unstable lesions (1,2). Prospective natural history studies of coronary atherosclerosis have sought to elucidate patientspecific and lesion-specific characteristics of vulnerable plaques (3,4). The existent paradigm is based on the fact that ACS arises from plaque with certain histopathologic and hemodynamic characteristics, and that such characteristics can be independent of the traditional measure of diameter stenosis (5,6). Furthermore, recent advances in imaging techniques have permitted the cross-sectional imaging of the coronary vasculature, which has been shown to correlate with histopathologic findings (7). For instance, invasive intravascular ultrasound imaging has been used to define coronary vessel wall anatomy as well as to provide an accurate assessment of atherosclerotic plaque (8). The PROSPECT (Providing Regional Observations to Study Predictors of Events in the Coronary Tree) study used intravascular ultrasound imaging after percutaneous coronary intervention and found that the presence of plaque burden \geq 70% and minimal lumen area \leq 4.0 mm² and the occurrence of intravascular ultrasound-determined thin-cap

fibroatheroma were independently associated with the incidence of future events within an ACS cohort (3). Yet, despite the improved understanding of coronary artery disease (CAD) pathophysiology coupled with increasingly accurate population-based risk stratification tools, coronary heart disease and the occurrence of unheralded ACS remains a major public health concern (9,10).

Recently, coronary computed tomography angiography (CTA) has been established as an accurate method for the noninvasive evaluation of CAD (11). Coronary CTA has evolved into a comprehensive noninvasive method for the whole-heart assessment of qualitative and quantitative atherosclerotic plaque features, with spatial resolution mirroring that of the invasive reference standard (12). Additionally, coronary CTA-based atherosclerotic plaque characteristics (APCs) and

quantitative computed tomography measurements demonstrate incremental prognostic value for patient-level prediction of ACS events (13). However, the applicability of coronary CTA risk prediction to culprit lesion (CL) precursors is not known. We sought to develop a machine learning (ML) prediction

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACS = acute coronary
syndrome
-,
APCs = atherosclerotic plaque
characteristics
AUC = area under the receiver-
operating characteristic curve
CAD = coronary artery disease
CI = confidence interval
CL = culprit locion
CL = cutpitt tesion
CTA = computed tomography
angiography
angiography
HU = Hounsfield unit
ICA = invasive coronary
angiography
LAP = low-attenuation plaque
M - muccardial infanction
mi = myocarulat infarction
ML = machine learning

model to identify CL precursors based on quantitative computed tomography and APCs among patients with incident ACS using the ICONIC (Incident COroNary Syndromes Identified by Computed Tomography) nested case-control study.

METHODS

STUDY POPULATION. The ICONIC study is a nested case-control study within the international, multiinstitutional CONFIRM (COronary CT Angiography EvaluatioN For Clinical Outcomes: An InteRnational Multicenter) registry. Patients from the CONFIRM registry were included in the ICONIC study if they underwent coronary CTA prior to an ACS event and had no prior history of CAD, including a history of prior percutaneous or surgical revascularization. Patients were also excluded from the study if they died without a preceding ACS event. A total of 234 such individuals with ACS were propensity matched 1:1 to same-site control subjects without ACS, for a total of 468 individuals. ACS events were adjudicated by the Clinical and Data Coordinating Center at the Dalio Institute of Cardiovascular Imaging, blinded to coronary CTA findings. Cardiac enzyme measurements, as well as electrocardiograms, were used to adjudicate ACS events according to the World Health Organization definition of myocardial infarction (MI) (14). Coronary CTA-based quantitative and qualitative evaluations were performed by the coronary CTA Core Laboratory at Severance Hospital of Yonsei University, blinded to case status. Both the ICONIC and CONFIRM studies have been described in more detail in previous publications (13,15). Every institution received local review board (Institutional Review Board) or ethics board approval.

Of the 234 patients with ACS, 124 patients were included, for whom invasive coronary angiography (ICA)-adjudicated CLs could be aligned to CL precursors on baseline coronary CTA (Figure 1). Patient data including clinical history, laboratory testing, electrocardiograms, and diagnostic coronary angiography films were reviewed by the Clinical and Data Coordinating Center at the Dalio Institute of Cardiovascular Imaging. Among patients with ACS (including non-ST-segment elevation MI or unstable angina) a single lesion was considered culprit if significant stenosis was present. In ACS with multiple lesions of 50% diameter lumen reduction, the CL was identified on the basis of association of angiographic lesion appearance with electrocardiography changes or myocardial ischemia as detected during stress testing. Usually the lesion with the most significant luminal narrowing was identified as the CL. The criteria for MI and unstable angina were the same. Any additional imaging of coronary plaques or follow-up percutaneous coronary intervention was left up to the discretion of the primary operator in accordance to the standard of care. The decision to intervene, if any, was left to the primary operator.

CORONARY CTA. Coronary CTAs were performed at multiple participant sites on scanners from various vendors. All scanners had at least 64 detector rows, and imaging protocols followed guidelines set by the Society of Cardiovascular Computed Tomography (16). All images were analyzed by American College of Cardiology level III or equivalent cardiologists or radiologists at the coronary CTA core lab who were blinded to case status. The core lab performed standardized measurements using semiautomated plaque analysis software utilizing the model-guided minimum cost approach (QAngioCT Research Edition version 2.1.9.1, Medis Medical Imaging Systems, Leiden, the Netherlands), with manual correction applied as deemed appropriate by the interpreting physician. For each lesion, quantitative measures were performed of length, volume, plaque burden, and plaque composition (categorized as noncalcified, fibrous, or fibrofatty, and calcified using predetermined Hounsfield unit [HU] thresholds). In addition to the aforementioned volumetric measures, cross-sectional measures were performed including

Manuscript received February 14, 2020; revised manuscript received March 24, 2020, accepted March 31, 2020.

research grant and/or honorarium as a speaker from GE Healthcare, Bracco, Bayer, Medtronic, and HeartFlow. Dr. Berman has received research grant support from HeartFlow and software royalties from Cedars-Sinai Medical Center. Dr. Budoff received research grant support from the National Institutes of Health and GE Healthcare. Dr. Samady has served as a consultant and received research grant support from Philips; has received institutional research grant support from Abbott Vascular, Medtronic, and Philips; is co-founder of Covanos; and owns equity in Covanos and SIG. Dr. Shaw owns equity in Cleerly Health. Dr. Min has received funding from the Dalio Foundation, the National Institutes of Healthcare; has served on the scientific advisory board of Arineta and GE Healthcare; and previously worked at Weill Cornell Medicine but is now an employee of and owns equity in Cleerly Health. All other authors have reported that they have no relationships relevant to the contents of this paper to disclose. Harvey Hecht, MD, was Guest Editor on this paper.

The authors attest they are in compliance with human studies committees and animal welfare regulations of the authors' institutions and Food and Drug Administration guidelines, including patient consent where appropriate. For more information, visit the *JACC: Cardiovascular Imaging* author instructions page.



percent diameter stenosis, area stenosis, minimum luminal diameter, minimal lumen area, crosssectional plaque burden, and remodeling index. Finally, APCs were categorized as present or absent and included positive remodeling (defined as index \geq 1.1), low-attenuation plaque (LAP) (defined as plaque containing any voxel \leq 30 HU), spotty calcification (any lesion \leq 3 mm) (13), and the napkin-ring sign. ICA-determined CLs were co-registered to the coronary CTA precursor lesions using the distance from coronary ostia as well as bifurcations as fiduciary landmarks.

MACHINE LEARNING. Model creation and feature selection. A total of 46 coronary CTA-based qualitative and quantitative plaque features were used in the ML model in order to create a predictive model of CLs (Supplemental Table 1). Models were then built using a boosted ensemble algorithm (XGBoost), using an open-source XGBoost library. XGBoost uses an ensemble of gradient-boosted decision trees, and has been widely applied within the domains of computer science and medicine. The advantage of using a boosted ensemble algorithm is the fact that it can combine multiple weak classifiers to produce a single strong classifier, which can improve prediction modeling. The SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) method was used to explain the output of the ML model. The SHAP method assigns each variable an importance value for a particular prediction, and in this instance was used to order to determine the influence of a particular variable on CL prediction, as well as the direction of that association (17). Such a step provides insight into the inner workings of complex models, such as those created using ensemble methodologies, and strikes a balance between accuracy and interpretability.

Model training. The total dataset was split into training (80%) and testing (20%) sets in such a way that the ratio of CLs to non-CLs was maintained. This training set was further split into 10 folds while maintaining the ratio of CLs to non-CLs for grid search of model hyperparameters using 10-fold cross-validation. In this step, the model with a given selection of hyperparameters was trained on 9 folds and tested on the

	Culprit Lesions (n $=$ 124)	Nonculprit Lesions (n = 458)	p Value
Reference vessel area, mm ²	8.93 (6.71-14.3)	6.77 (4.61-10.74)	< 0.001
Ostium to MLD lesion distance, mm	35.300 (21.380-46.510)	40.860 (26.300-71.760)	0.0016
Atherosclerotic plaque characteristics, %			
Positive remodeling	79.84	80.79	0.813
Spotty calcification	18.54	13.10	0.124
Low-attenuation plaque	25.00	14.63	0.006
Napkin-ring sign	3.23	0.66	0.040
Lesion length, mm ²	28.76 (19.64-47.81)	18.3 (13.35-28.2)	< 0.001
Vessel volume (of the lesion), mm ³	253.24 (136.80-546.17)	135.36 (70.38-255.65)	<0.001
Lumen volume (of the lesion), mm ³	173.72 (96.49-318.35)	98.04 (57.86-181.87)	< 0.001
Plaque volume (of the lesion), mm ³	90.75 (26.51-193.66)	24.71 (9.64-67.2)	< 0.001
Plaque burden, %	63.25 (43.38-79.34)	50.14 (35.79-64.78)	< 0.001
Fibrous volume (of the lesion), mm ³	34.30 (12.190-91.70)	11.27 (4.59-30.69)	< 0.001
Fibrofatty volume (of the lesion), mm ³	8.36 (1.08-30.05)	1.75 (0.13-9.16)	< 0.001
Necrotic core volume (of the lesion), mm ³	0.15 (0.00-2.36)	0.00 (0.00-0.34)	< 0.001
Dense calcium volume (of the lesion), mm ³	17.89 (2.25-73.52)	5.73 (1.38-20.03)	0.001

remaining fold 10 different times so that each fold was used as the test set exactly once. The average of the area under the receiver-operating characteristic curve (AUC) on each test fold was calculated and the set of hyperparameters that led to the highest average AUC was chosen. Using this set of hyperparameters, the model was then trained on the entire training set and evaluated on the test set. We report the AUCs from the test set.

MODEL PERFORMANCE: RULING IN AND RULING OUT CLs. The performance of the ML model in predicting CLs was compared with that of diameter stenosis (model 1), high-risk plaque features (model 2), and lesion-level features of CL precursors from the ICONIC study (model 3). Diameter stenosis was categorized according to the recommendations of the Coronary Artery Disease Reporting and Data System consensus document as follows: 0%, 1% to 24%, 25% to 49%, 50% to 69%, 70% to 99%, and 100% occluded (model 1) (18). On coronary CTA, high-risk plaque features included the presence of positive remodeling, LAP, spotty calcification, and the napkin-ring sign (model 2). The ICONIC study had shown that CL precursors, compared with within-subject non-CLs, exhibited higher hazard for diameter stenosis, lesion length, plaque volume, all plaque constituents (calcified, noncalcified, fibrous, fibrofatty, and necrotic core), mean and max plaque burden, highrisk plaque, and LAP (13). Thereafter, these features were used in an XGBoost model to predict CL precursors within the ICONIC study ACS cohort (model 3). Finally, the ML model was applied to the ICONIC non-ACS cohort in order to determine model specificity in ruling out the presence of CLs.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS. Data were analyzed with the use of R version 3.5.0 (RStudio, Boston, Massachusetts) and Python (Python Software Foundation, Beaverton, Oregon). Continuous variables were expressed as median (interquartile range), whereas categorical variables were expressed as count and percentage. Differences between continuous and categorical variables were analyzed by the Wilcoxon rank sum test, chi-square test, and Fisher exact test as appropriate. Subsequent computed tomographybased comparison models were created to include diameter stenosis (model 1), high-risk plaque features (model 2), and lesion-level features of CL precursors from the ICONIC study (model 3) for the prediction of CLs, with the AUC and the associated 95% confidence interval (CI) used for comparison of the different models. All tests were 2-sided and conducted at the 0.05 significance threshold, while the different models were compared using the corrected p value threshold for multiple comparisons (p per number of comparisons) (3).

RESULTS

The study cohort comprised of 124 individuals with ACS, with a total of 582 coronary plaques, of which 124 were ICA-determined CLs that were co-registered to precursor lesions on coronary CTA (median time between coronary CTA and first ACS event was 34.50 [interquartile range: 3.25 to 430.00] days). Of the 124

patients, 38 (30.6%) fulfilled the World Health Organization criteria for MI (ST-segment elevation MI and non-ST-segment elevation MI), and 86 (69.4%) were classified as unstable angina. The mean age was 62.6 \pm 11.3 years, and 82 (66.1%) were men. In terms of prevalent cardiovascular conditions, 78 (62.9%) individuals had hypertension, 73 (58.9%) had hyperlipidemia, 31 (25.0%) had diabetes mellitus, and 34 (27.4%) were active smokers. With respect to clinical presentation, 95 (76.6%) presented with chest pain, of which 34 (35.8%) had typical anginal chest pain. There were significant baseline differences in quantitative and qualitative plaque measures between CLs and non-CLs (Table 1). Characteristics of patients with ACS excluded from the analysis have been summarized (Supplemental Table 2).

PREDICTION OF CLs. A total of 46 coronary CTAbased qualitative and quantitative plaque features were used in the constructed ML model for CL prediction. The ML model exhibited a significantly higher AUC for discriminating CL precursors (0.774; 95% CI: 0.758 to 0.790) compared with model 1 (0.599; 95% CI: 0.599 to 0.599; p < 0.01), model 2 (0.532; 95% CI: 0.501 to 0.563; p < 0.01), and model 3 (0.672; 95% CI: 0.662 to 0.682; p < 0.01) (Figure 2). Figure 3 shows feature importance ranking for the ML model for prediction of CLs, with quantitative plaque features, as determined on coronary CTA, occupying 19 of the top 20 most significant features. The distance between the start of a lesion and the minimal lumen diameter was the highestranked predictor of CLs, followed by plaque volume, luminal area stenosis, plaque burden in maximal stenosis section, and dense calcium volume (>350 HU). The segment where an atherosclerotic lesion starts was the only ordinal variable in the top 20 features, while none of the high-risk plaque features were among the most predictive features.

SHAP assigns each variable an importance value for CL prediction, as well as the direction of that association. SHAP provides information not only about how important a feature is in a particular prediction (vertical position), but also about whether the feature value was high or low for that dataset (color), and also whether the effect of that value resulted in a higher prediction (CL prediction) or lower prediction (non-CL prediction) (horizontal position). For example, higher values for the top feature (start of a lesion to minimal lumen diameter) were predictive of CL precursors, indicating that the length and location of baseline plaque influenced short-term plaque stability. Further, higher plaque burden was predictive of CL



diameter; other abbreviations as in Figure 1.

precursors, while lower plaque burden was predictive of being a non-CL (**Figure 3**). According to the feature ranking done by SHAP, baseline plaque location ("Shape of a lesion to minimal lumen diameter") and plaque volume factored higher than baseline luminal area stenosis in the maximal stenosis section. Quantitative descriptors of plaque composition such as dense calcium volume, dense calcium area, fibrous plaque volume, and fibrous fatty plaque area were all in the top 20 important features of CLs.

Subgroups were stratified by age (≥ 65 or < 65 years), sex (male vs. female), and coronary vessel (left anterior descending artery vs. left circumflex artery vs. right coronary artery) (Table 2). The ML model was statistically superior to all computed tomography-based models in CL determination across most subgroups, with the exception of female patients, in which diameter stenosis (model 1) was superior to the



this case, culprit lesion prediction). **Blue and red points in each row** represent low to high values of the specific variable. CS = cross-section; DS = diameter stenosis; HU = Hounsfield unit; MLA = minimal lumen area; MLD = minimal lumen diameter.

ML model for prediction of CL precursors (AUC: 0.748 vs. 0.835; p < 0.01). In addition, lesion-level features of CL precursors from the ICONIC study (model 3) were superior to the ML model in predicting CLs in the right coronary artery (AUC: 0.858 vs. 0.714; p < 0.01). Model 2 incorporating high-risk plaque features performed poorly across all subgroups.

RULING OUT NON-CLs. The non-ACS ICONIC study cohort, comprising 234 individuals with 864 lesions, was used in order to evaluate the performance of the ML model in ruling out the presence of CLs. The non-ACS cohort had a mean age of 62.4 ± 11.0 years and 146 (62.4%) were men, while 124 (53.0%) had chest pain. A total of 169 (72.2%) individuals had

TABLE 2 Subgroup Analysis Comparing the Performance of the Machine Learning Model With Diameter Stenosis, High-Risk Plaque, and ICONIC Study Lesion-Level Model								
Subgroup (Number of Lesions)	Machine Learning AUC	ICONIC Lesion-Level AUC	p Value	Diameter Stenosis AUC	p Value	High-Risk Plaque AUC	p Value	
Overall	0.774 ± 0.021 (0.758-0.789)	0.672 ± 0.013 (0.662-0.682)	<0.01	0.599 ± 0.000 (0.599-0.599)	<0.01	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.531} \pm \textbf{0.040} \\ \textbf{(0.500-0.563)} \end{array}$	< 0.01	
Age \geq 65 yrs (n = 62)	0.796 ± 0.026 (0.776-0.816)	0.721 ± 0.016 (0.708-0.733)	<0.01	0.720 ± 0.000 (0.720-0.720)	<0.01	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.506} \pm \textbf{0.030} \\ \textbf{(0.483-0.530)} \end{array}$	<0.01	
Age <65 yrs (n = 55)	0.739 ± 0.027 (0.718-0.760)	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.594} \pm \textbf{0.024} \\ \textbf{(0.576-0.613)} \end{array}$	<0.01	0.545 ± 0.001 (0.544-0.545)	<0.01	$\begin{array}{l} \textbf{0.552} \pm \textbf{0.079} \\ \textbf{(0.492-0.611)} \end{array}$	<0.01	
Male (n = 88)	0.780 ± 0.023 (0.763-0.798)	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.661} \pm \textbf{0.015} \\ \textbf{(0.650-0.673)} \end{array}$	<0.01	0.533 ± 0.000 (0.533-0.533)	<0.01	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.542} \pm \textbf{0.032} \\ \textbf{(0.518-0.567)} \end{array}$	<0.01	
Female (n = 29)	0.748 ± 0.044 (0.715-0.781)	0.701 ± 0.035 (0.674-0.728)	<0.01	0.835 ± 0.000 (0.835-0.835)	<0.01	$\begin{array}{l} \textbf{0.502} \pm \textbf{0.071} \\ \textbf{(0.449-0.552)} \end{array}$	<0.01	
Left anterior descending artery (n = 58)	0.795 ± 0.015 (0.783-0.807)	0.712 ± 0.018 (0.698-0.726)	<0.01	$\begin{array}{l} \textbf{0.564} \pm \textbf{0.000} \\ \textbf{(0.564-0.564)} \end{array}$	<0.01	0.556 ± 0.032 (0.531-0.580)	<0.01	
Left circumflex artery (n $=$ 27)	0.751 ± 0.061 (0.705-0.797)	$\begin{array}{c} 0.350 \pm 0.051 \\ (0.311\text{-}0.388) \end{array}$	<0.01	0.660 ± 0.000 (0.660-0.660)	<0.01	0.226 ± 0.138 (0.120-0.328)	<0.01	
Right coronary artery (n $=$ 32)	$\begin{array}{c} 0.714 \pm 0.039 \\ (0.684 0.743) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.858} \pm \textbf{0.040} \\ \textbf{(0.828-0.888)} \end{array}$	<0.01	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.644} \pm \textbf{0.000} \\ \textbf{(0.644-0.644)} \end{array}$	<0.01	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.437} \pm \textbf{0.043} \\ \textbf{(0.404-0.469)} \end{array}$	<0.01	

Values are mean ± SD (range). Numbers are reported on the validation set. The p values are for comparison between the specific model and the machine learning model.

AUC = area under the receiver-operating characteristic curve; ICONIC = Incident COroNary Syndromes Identified by Computed Tomography.

obstructive CAD on coronary CTA, defined as any vessel with >50% diameter stenosis, as a result of the propensity matching criteria within the ICONIC study cohort (ACS to non-ACS individuals were matched on clinical risk factors and CAD severity). The median follow-up after coronary CTA performance was 865 (interquartile range: 597 to 1,497) days. The model had a specificity of 89.3% for predicting non-CLs (the model predicted 93 of 864 lesions as being CLs although, in fact, they were non-CLs). In terms of misclassified lesions (i.e., lesions that were incorrectly predicted as CLs by the ML model), the ML model tended to misclassify longer lesions, with heavier plaque burden (including both calcified and noncalcified components) and lesions in larger vessels. Table 3 lists differences in computed tomography-based quantitative plaque characteristics between correctly predicted non-CLs and lesions incorrectly predicted as CLs by the ML model.

DISCUSSION

The current study utilized coronary CTA-determined quantitative and qualitative atherosclerotic plaque features within a cohort of individuals with subsequent incident ACS, and developed a model for the prediction of CLs with better accuracy than a model that featured diameter stenosis, computed tomography-determined high-risk plaque features, as well as lesion-level characteristics of CL precursors. These results were consistent across certain subgroups while the most predictive features were quantitative features. The unexpected finding regarding the poor performance of high-risk plaque for CL discrimination could be secondary to the fact that the derivation cohort included ACS patients, with previous investigations showing that even though high-risk plaque was an independent predictor of ACS, the cumulative number of lesions with and without high-risk plaque was similar in ACS cohorts, as compared with the low incidence of high-risk plaque in a non-ACS cohort (in our cohort, 40 of 126 [32.0%] of CLs had high-risk plaque, whereas 93 of 458 [20.3%] of the non-CLs had high-risk plaque) (19). The results of the present analysis are important, as they provide a better understanding of the relationship between computed tomography-determined plaque features (in terms of both qualitative and quantitative measures) and the presence of CL precursors in a high-risk cohort, albeit over a median follow-up interval of 865 days. It also provides a model featuring quantitative and qualitative plaque characteristics that can be used to determine plaque stability in a non-ACS cohort.

Prior to the inception and adoption of invasive and noninvasive coronary imaging, a significant body of knowledge on the natural history of coronary atherosclerosis came from pathology studies demonstrating that an ACS event occurs as a result of atherosclerotic plaque erosion or rupture, which frequently occurs in the setting of thin-cap fibroatheromas that are characterized by the presence of a large necrotic core and covered with a thin fibrous cap (<65 μ m) separating it from the coronary lumen (5). The identification of thin-cap fibroatheromas within the context of vulnerable plaque and

Predicted as CIs by the Machine Learning Model			
Plaque Characteristic	Correctly Classified Non-CLs (n = 773)	Incorrectly Classified Non-CLs (n = 93)	p Value
Plaque volume in segment/lesion	25.3 (9.4-70.1)	116.2 (46.3-269.4)	< 0.05
Plaque burden in maximal stenosis section	47.1 (33.8-61.5)	69.6 (52.4-79.5)	< 0.05
Dense calcium volume in lesion	7.0 (1.5-22.7)	41.2 (9.8-93.2)	< 0.05
Dense calcium area in maximal stenosis section	0.6 (0.0-2.1)	1.2 (0.0-6.2)	< 0.05
Fibrous plaque volume in lesion	11.8 (4.0-29.7)	47.7 (20.7-269.4)	< 0.05
Lumen diameter stenosis in maximal stenosis section	20.6 (11.7-32.1)	36.6 (27.1-46.5)	< 0.05
Noncalcified plaque volume in lesion	15.2 (4.8-39.0)	61.1 (9.8-93.2)	< 0.05
Vessel volume in lesion	133.3 (70.0-261.8)	397.3 (162-638.2)	< 0.05
Lumen volume in lesion	102.6 (55.8-191.5)	239.4 (104.5-371.6)	< 0.05
Fibrous fatty plaque area in maximal stenosis section	0.1 (0.0-1.0)	0.4 (0.0-2.6)	< 0.05
Peak vessel area in lesion	9.9 (6.7-14.3)	15.9 (11.5-20.0)	< 0.05
Maximal plaque thickness in lesion	1.6 (1.2-2.0)	2.2 (1.9-2.7)	< 0.05
Length of lesion	18.41 (13.7-29.5)	34.6 (20.1-56.9)	< 0.05
Mean plaque burden in lesion	17.8 (10.2-28.3)	31.1 (20.6-42.1)	< 0.05
Reference vessel area	7.2 (4.9-11.3)	10.8 (8.2-14.3)	< 0.05
Vessel area of maximal plaque cross-section in lesion	9.2 (6.1-12.9)	13.9 (10.1-17.4)	< 0.05
Values are median (interquartile range). CL = culprit lesion.			

TABLE 3 Differences in Computed Tomography-Based Plaque Characteristics Between Correctly Predicted Non-Cls and Those Incorrectly Predicted as Cls by the Machine Learning Model

unheralded acute MI raised the possibility of improved risk stratification above and beyond population-derived risk scores that are based on classical risk-factor profiles. As such, there has been keen interest in developing catheter-based imaging techniques for the detection of various anatomic components of thin-cap fibroatheromas, as well as metabolic processes of high-risk plaque, culminating in the application of intravascular ultrasound, near-infrared spectroscopy, and optical coherence tomography to visualize and characterize atherosclerotic plaque. For instance, the PROSPECT trial enrolled 697 patients with ACS who underwent 3-vessel coronary angiography as well as imaging after percutaneous coronary intervention (3). The PROSPECT trial showed that lesions at enrollment that were associated with subsequent events, at a median follow-up period of 3.4 years, were characterized by a minimal luminal area of \leq 4.0 mm² and plaque burden of \geq 70%, or were identified as thincap fibroatheromas. The VIVA (Virtual Histology in Vulnerable Atherosclerosis) study enrolled 170 patients with stable angina or troponin-positive ACS who underwent 3-vessel intravascular ultrasound (a total of 30,372 mm of intravascular ultrasound analyzed) and evaluated the association between intravascular ultrasound-identified thin-cap fibroatheromas and major adverse cardiac events (20). Thin-cap fibroatheromas was associated with major adverse cardiac events on individual plaque analysis, while noncalcified thin-cap fibroatheromas was associated with major adverse cardiac events on a

patient-level analysis. Similar to intravascular ultrasound, studies using optical coherence tomography suggest that fibrous cap thickness is an important distinguishing feature between ruptured and nonruptured thin-cap fibroatheromas, while plaque burden and luminal area were features associated with ruptured culprit plaque (21). One major criticism of the aforementioned investigations is that "events" were driven by revascularization, which could explain why features such as plaque burden and minimal lumen area correlated with adverse events. In the present analysis, events were core lab-adjudicated ACS events, especially in patients with unstable angina who were judged based on World Health Organization criteria and not based on revascularization decisions.

Coronary CTA-determined qualitative and quantitative measures have been shown to correlate with the occurrence of ischemia and adverse cardiovascular events. Further, the incremental prognostic value of coronary CTA-determined APCs has been further validated within large multicenter prospective trials (22). In a prespecified analysis of the PROMISE (Prospective Multicenter Imaging Study for Evaluation of Chest Pain) trial, 4,415 symptomatic patients but with stable chest pain underwent baseline coronary CTA and had the presence of high-risk plaque determined by a core lab. The presence of high-risk plaque was associated with a higher rate of major adverse cardiovascular events (6.4% vs. 2.4%; hazard ratio: 2.73; 95% CI: 1.89 to 3.93), even after adjustment for traditional risk scores. Similar analysis with the



ROMCAT II (Rule Out Myocardial Infarction/Ischemia Using Computer-Assisted Tomography II) trial showed that the presence of high-risk plaque on coronary CTA was associated with adverse events (odds ratio: 8.9; 95% CI: 1.8 to 43.3; p = 0.006). Such findings highlight the potential of coronary CTAbased atherosclerotic plaque characterization for risk assessment that encompasses overall measures of atherosclerotic plaque burden, as well as lesionspecific APCs. In the present study, quantitative measures of plaque burden played a larger role in the prediction of CLs when compared with plaque characteristics. This may be due to the proportionally larger number of quantitative variables included in this study, some of which may be co-associated. As the assessment of vulnerable plaque has progressed from identification to volumetric quantification, future studies incorporating volumetric vulnerable plaque assessment may further elucidate and enhance the prediction of CLs. Such extensive plaque characterization could embellish the drive toward precision medicine, wherein cardiovascular care moves from being a global risk-assessment field with population-derived clinical risk profiles into one that incorporates accurate phenotypic plaque characterization that precisely predicts at-risk individuals through the detection of vulnerable plaque (Central Illustration).

There is an increasing need for improved detection and discrimination between stable and vulnerable plaque on noninvasive imaging studies. Current European guidelines consider the presence of multivessel CAD with 2 major epicardial vessels having >50% stenosis as very high risk, necessitating the institution of aggressive lipid-lowering therapy (23). Although increasing diameter stenosis portends higher risk, only 24.8% of the culprit precursors in the ICONIC study were obstructive (diameter stenosis \geq 50%), thus highlighting the importance of whole plaque evaluation. ML, which employs mathematical modeling to examine for multidimensional associations between certain features, has been increasingly used, on a per-patient level, for the prediction of adverse cardiovascular events using both structured clinical and imaging data (Supplemental Table 3). ML can be particularly useful for identifying imaging markers of plaque vulnerability that significantly outperform conventional quantitative and qualitative computed tomography-based high-risk plaque features (24,25). This is particularly essential because plaque characteristics display complex inter-relationships that may be hard to model with simple regression-based methodologies. Furthermore, deep learning algorithms, which use methods based on learning data representations, are aptly suited for image analysis and can be utilized for

examining plaque characteristics that are impossible to capture in structured reports or even within human vision (e.g., shape, location, and relationship to other structures, in addition an extensive assessment of pixel-by-pixel variations as it relates to a specific plaque phenotype or clinical outcome).

STUDY LIMITATIONS. Despite the novelty of the conducted investigation, there are certain limitations that are noteworthy to mention. As previously described, individuals with ACS within the ICONIC study cohort had been selected from the larger observational CONFIRM registry investigation. As such, there could be unmeasured confounders with respect to patient selection as well as potentially other biases regarding the propensity-matching approach employed within the ICONIC study cohort, hence limiting the generalizability of the present findings. For example, the proximity of ACS events after CTA acquisition indicates that this referral population is at higher risk than the general population. Further, the impact of coronary CTA on decision making, including changes in medical therapy, is unclear. Thus, the current findings are mainly limited to a higher-risk patient population and cannot be generalized to stable angina or even asymptomatic patients. Second, quantitative plaque and luminal measures were performed with a semiautomated software (QAngio CT Research Edition version 2.1.9.1), a process that is laborious and not easily reproducible. Third, the median follow-up period after coronary CTA performance was 865 days, which is fairly short, especially when the endpoint is the occurrence of an ACS event on a patient level and the development of unstable plaque on a lesion level. It is possible that non-CLs could become culprits over longer follow-up, and it is uncertain whether the same plaque characteristics influence long-term plaque stability. Fourth, the results of the present study were not externally validated on a separate cohort. However, no cohort exists in which a primary prevention cohort underwent extensive baseline coronary CTA-derived qualitative and quantitative plaque assessment for suspected CAD and subsequently had CL adjudication on ICA as well as co-registration of CLs to the coronary CTA precursor lesions. Last, this study was limited to CLs that could be identified by a clinical committee, with the presence of significant diameter stenosis on ICA being the major driver for determining the presence of a CL. As such, the performance of this model in the setting of CLs that are nonobstructive, or lesions that lead to clinically silent events, is not known.

The results of present analysis have several important clinical implications. First, with the increasing wealth of knowledge regarding the influence of qualitative and quantitative plaque analysis for future cardiovascular event prediction, there is an unmet need for advanced analytic approaches for data processing as well as precise and patient-tailored risk prediction. ML has been applied for assimilation of complex datasets for patient-level risk prediction, and this study shows that it is possible to integrate a multitude of qualitative and quantitative plaque characteristics for prediction of plaque stability. Second, there is inconsistency and significant variability regarding the acceptable definitions for high-risk plaque, with often arbitrary cutoff values used to define the presence or absence of such features. Our approach plots the influence of each value on the prediction of plaque stability, using the SHAP method, which can be used as a platform in future analysis for refined and more precise definition of high-risk features. Third, the ability to predict likely CLs in symptomatic high-risk patients could be useful for therapy selection and downstream testing. For instance, if the ML model predicts that a left main or proximal left anterior descending artery plaque might become a culprit, then a clinician may consider aggressive preventative therapies, regular follow-up, and performance of invasive evaluation in the setting of breakthrough symptoms. However, the utility of such an approach needs to be supported by evidence from clinical trials.

CONCLUSIONS

An ML approach incorporating coronary CTAdetermined qualitative and quantitative plaque features was better at predicting CL precursors compared with diameter stenosis or computed tomography-determined high-risk plaque features and was robust across several subgroups. Furthermore, it was accurate in ruling out the presence of CL precursors in a non-ACS cohort. This study highlights the utility of ML for predicting culprit from non-CL precursors in a high-risk cohort on coronary CTA.

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PERSPECTIVES

COMPETENCY IN MEDICAL KNOWLEDGE: An ML model that integrates coronary CTA-determined qualitative and quantitative plaque features showed improved detection of CL precursors in a high-risk cohort compared with contemporary risk assessment methods, and was robust across several subgroups including younger individuals (<65 years of age) and in the left anterior descending artery distribution. When applied to a non-ACS cohort, the model had a specificity of 89% for ruling out the presence of CL precursors.

TRANSLATIONAL OUTLOOK: Future analysis is required in order to externally validate the ML model across various cohorts and to determine its generalizability. Such work has the potential to further enhance the ability for accurate phenotypic plaque characterization that precisely predicts at-risk individuals through the detection of CL precursors.

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KEY WORDS acute coronary syndrome, coronary computed tomography angiography, diameter stenosis, machine learning

APPENDIX For supplemental tables, please see the online version of this paper.