

Table 3 US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) pregnancy categories

The FDA-assigned pregnancy categories as used in the Drug Formulary are as follows:

Category A

Adequate and well-controlled studies have failed to demonstrate a risk to the fetus in the first trimester of pregnancy (and there is no evidence of risk in later trimesters).

Category B

Animal reproduction studies have failed to demonstrate a risk to the fetus and there are no adequate and well-controlled studies in pregnant women.

Category C

Animal reproduction studies have shown an adverse effect on the fetus and there are no adequate and well-controlled studies in humans, but potential benefits may warrant use of the drug in pregnant women despite potential risks.

Category D

There is positive evidence of human fetal risk based on adverse reaction data from investigational or marketing experience or studies in humans, but potential benefits may warrant use of the drug in pregnant women despite potential risks.

Category X

Studies in animals or humans have demonstrated fetal abnormalities and/or there is positive evidence of human fetal risk based on adverse reaction data from investigational or marketing experience, and the risks involved in use of the drug in pregnant women clearly outweigh potential benefits.

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ance. Consequently, unfractionated heparin is generally administered. Noteworthy adverse reactions with heparin include hemorrhage, which is a common complication with all antithrombotic drugs, and heparin-induced thrombocytopenia. Another important adverse reaction in pregnant women is possible fractures due to bone demineralization caused by long-term administration of heparin. In addition, because of increased heparin-binding proteins, increased circulating plasma volume, increased clotting factors, and problems with renal clearance, the need for heparin during pregnancy is greater than in non-pregnancy. Since January 2012, home heparin self-injection in pregnant women after mechanical heart valve replacement or those with a history of DVT has been covered by health insurance.

Warfarin, the leading oral anticoagulant drug, has a low molecular weight and does cross the placenta. Therefore, warfarin administration during the absolutely and relatively sensitive stages (days 28 to 112) can cause abnormalities in fetal osteogenesis and chondrogenesis, as well as central nervous system malformations such as microencephaly. These teratogenic effects are considered dose-dependent. In addition, because enzyme systems and vitamin K-dependent clotting factors are undeveloped in the fetus, the effects of warfarin are more easily manifest

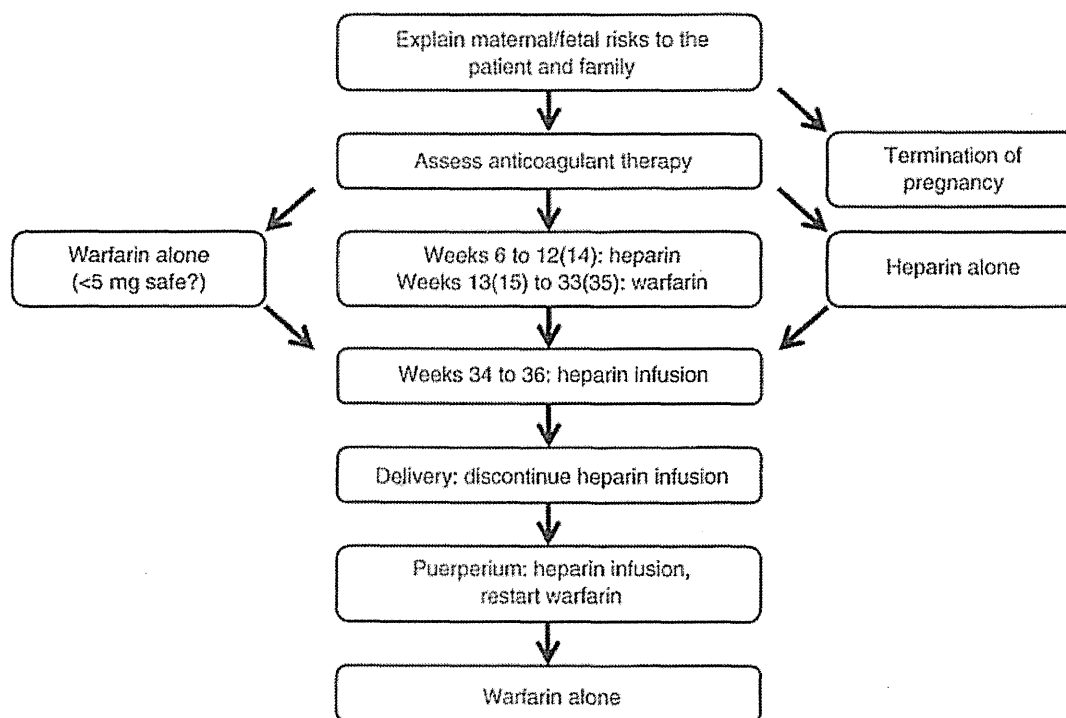


Fig. 1 Anticoagulant therapy in pregnant women with mechanical heart valve replacement. Modified with permission from the *Circulation Journal* (76: 240-260, 2012), ©2012, the Japanese Circulation Society.³⁾

in the fetus than in mothers. Therefore, to prevent teratogenicity in the absolutely and relatively sensitive stages, and to prevent complications such as fetal intracranial hemorrhage in the later period of pregnancy due to decreased clotting factors, warfarin administration is not recommended in pregnant women.

Figure 1 shows anticoagulant therapy in pregnant women after mechanical heart valve replacement,³⁾ consisting of warfarin and heparin administration from week 14 to about week 33 of pregnancy. The rationale based on guidelines is that the prophylactic effects of heparin on thrombus are uncertain.^{4,5)} Moreover, the rationale for a daily dose of warfarin ≤ 5 mg is based on the dose-dependence of warfarin teratogenicity. However, an oral warfarin dose of 5 mg is considered quite high in Japanese patients, so warfarin should be carefully administered while monitoring the prothrombin time (international normalized ratio). The guidelines from the American Heart Association/American Stroke Association²⁾ recommend that the following options may be considered for pregnant women with ischemic stroke or transient ischemic attack and high-risk thromboembolic conditions such as hypercoagulable state or mechanical heart valves: adjusted dose unfractionated heparin throughout pregnancy, for example, a subcutaneous dose every 12 hours with monitoring of activated partial thromboplastin time; adjusted-dose low-molecular-weight heparin with monitoring of anti-factor Xa throughout pregnancy; or unfractionated heparin or low-molecular-weight heparin until week 13, followed by warfarin until the middle of the third trimester and reinstatement of unfractionated heparin or low-molecular-weight heparin until delivery (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C). Because home heparin self-injection is now covered by health insurance, the number of patients using heparin is thought to be increasing.

Various types of new oral anticoagulant drugs have been available in Japan since 2011, and these can be clinically used in patients with non-valvular

atrial fibrillation and those undergoing lower limb orthopedic surgery. These new agents include the direct thrombin inhibitor dabigatran and the activated factor X inhibitors edoxaban, rivaroxaban, and apixaban. In large-scale clinical trials, these new oral anticoagulants have reduced hemorrhagic complications to the same or greater extent than warfarin, and in particular, the incidence of intracranial hemorrhage compared to warfarin is markedly decreased.⁵⁾ In addition, argatroban, an intravenous direct thrombin inhibitor, is now widely used as an alternative to heparin for treatment of the acute phase of cerebral infarction and in heparin-induced thrombocytopenia. However, the Japanese package inserts for these anticoagulants advise quite cautious administration in pregnant women. In other words, dabigatran, edoxaban, and apixaban, should only be used when the benefits outweigh the risks, and rivaroxaban should not be given to pregnant women. Argatroban has been assigned pregnancy category B by the FDA, but the Japanese package inserts specify that argatroban should not be administered to pregnant women.

Antiplatelet Drugs in Pregnant Women

Venous thrombosis occurs more often than arterial thrombosis in pregnant women, and the guidelines include less information about antiplatelet drugs than anticoagulant drugs. Table 4 summarizes the effects of antiplatelet drugs in patients during pregnancy and breastfeeding.³⁾ Aspirin, the leading antiplatelet drug, may cause teratogenicity and fetal toxicity such as premature closure of the ductus arteriosus, and perinatal mortality is increased. But when low doses of aspirin are administered as antiplatelet therapy, the FDA has assigned pregnancy category C, and treatment is relatively safe. However, the drug package insert says "contraindicated (regardless of dose) in pregnant women within 12 weeks of the expected date of delivery (pregnancy week 28 or later)." Therefore, a full explanation and

Table 4 Effects of antiplatelet drugs in patients during pregnancy and breastfeeding

Drug	FDA category	Characteristics/adverse reactions	Teratogenicity	Breastfeeding during use	Package insert	
					Pregnancy	Breastfeeding
Aspirin (low dose)	C	considered relatively safe, do not use in pregnancy week 28 or later regardless of dose	no	potential toxicity	relative contraindication	contraindication
Dipyridamole	B	hypotension, worsening of angina pectoris	no	probably allowed	relative contraindication	contraindication
Ticlopidine	B	hemorrhage, liver dysfunction	no	potential toxicity	relative contraindication	contraindication

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Table 5 Information in Japanese package inserts regarding use of antiplatelet drugs in pregnant women

Drug	Guideline for use in pregnant women
Aspirin	up to week 28: may be used if risks outweigh the benefits, week 29 and later: do not use
Clopidogrel	may be used if risks outweigh the benefits
Ozagrel	may be used if risks outweigh the benefits
Cilostazol	do not use in pregnant women
Ticlopidine	do not use in pregnant women

informed consent are necessary for administration in the third trimester of pregnancy.

The Japanese package inserts for clopidogrel and ozagrel recommend use only when the benefits outweigh the risks (Table 5). Cilostazol and ticlopidine are contraindicated in pregnant women. On the other hand, aspirin and ozagrel are reported to be effective in preventing placental thrombosis in pregnant women with autoimmune disorders such as antiphospholipid syndrome.

Conclusion

In the present paper, the author, who is not a specialist in perinatal medicine, has discussed using antithrombotic drugs in pregnancy based on guidelines and package insert information. Searching the literature often found disagreement between information in FDA categories, Japanese guidelines, Japanese package inserts, and overseas package inserts, but this was not further pursued. Neurosurgeons and neurologists also commonly encounter pregnant women with thromboembolism, such as ischemic stroke. Up-to-date information and correct selection of drugs are necessary in consultation with specialists in perinatal care.

Conflicts of Interest Disclosure

The author declares that he has no conflict of in-

terest.

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リバーロキサバン内服中に発症した頭蓋内出血に対するプロトロンビン複合体製剤を用いた止血治療の経験

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[背景]リバーロキサバン(Riv)内服中に発症した頭蓋内出血に対する、プロトロンビン複合体製剤(PCC)を用いた緊急止血治療は有望であるが、その是正効果は確立していない。当施設での2症例の経験を報告する。


[症例 1]71歳男性。陳旧性脳梗塞・1型糖尿病・高血圧症の既往を有し、Riv 15mg/日・シロスタゾール 100mg/日を内服していた。肝腎機能は正常であった。Rivの最終内服から約10.5時間後に左被殻出血を発症し、当院に搬送され、約11.5時間後にPCC 1000単位を投与した。血腫増大や神経徴候の増悪はなかった。aPTT(秒)/PT-INRはPCC投与前・投与1時間後でそれぞれ41/1.26, 40/1.08であった。

[症例 2]87歳の高齢・低体重の女性。高血圧症・慢性心不全・慢性心房細動の既往を有し、Riv 10mg/日を内服していた。肝機能は正常であったが、CCr(Cockcroft-Gault式)27ml/minと高度腎機能障害を認めた。Rivの最終内服から約0.5時間後に左視床出血と外傷性左急性硬膜下血腫を発症し、他院より当院に搬送された。Rivの最終内服より約6時間後にPCC1000単位を投与したが、脳室内血腫及び急性硬膜下血腫の増大がみられた。aPTT(秒)/PT-INRはPCC投与前・投与1時間後でそれぞれ47/1.67, 49/1.42であった。2症例ともPCC投与に伴う塞栓症などの有害事象はなかった。

[結語] リバーロキサバン内服下の頭蓋内出血に対する迅速治療として、プロトロンビン複合体製剤の有用性は、さらなる検討が必要である。(595字)

リバーロキサバン内服中に発症した 頭蓋内出血に対するプロトロンビン 複合体製剤を用いた止血治療

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背景・目的

- ▶ リバーロキサバン(Riv)内服中に発症した重症出血性合併症に対する、プロトロンビン複合体製剤(PCC: prothrombin complex concentrate)を用いた止血治療は有望であるが、その治療効果は確立していない。
- ▶ 当施設では倫理委員会の承認の下に、PCC投与を行っている。
- ▶ Riv内服下で頭蓋内出血を発症した2症例の経験を報告する。

PCC(PPSB®-HT「ニチャク」)

- ▶ 高力価の血液凝固第Ⅸ因子を含有し、第Ⅱ、Ⅶ及びⅩ因子も含有するプロトロンビン複合体濃縮製剤。
- ▶ 効能：血液凝固第Ⅸ因子欠乏患者の出血傾向を抑制。
- ▶ 作用：血液凝固第Ⅸ因子は活性化により第Ⅷ因子、Ca²⁺及びリン脂質と複合体を形成。第Ⅸ因子を活性化し止血に関与する。



500単位製剤	
有効成分	凝固因子Ⅸ因子 200単位
添付薬物	ヘパリンナトリウム 125ヘパリン単位 カルシウムナトリウム水和物 400mg 塩化ナトリウム 130mg
副作用特異：日本薬局方特許製剤	20mg
凝固因子含有*	第Ⅸ因子 25.1単位/500 第Ⅱ因子 27.1単位/500 第Ⅶ因子 21.5単位/500 第Ⅹ因子 26.4単位/500

31613円(500単位)

症例1 71歳男性

[臨床経過]
 発作性心房細動・陳旧性脳梗塞・1型糖尿病・高血圧症の既往を有し、Riv(15mg/日)・シロスタゾール(100mg/日)を常用。最終内服から約10.5時間後に右視床出血を発症。最終内服から約12.5時間後にPCC(PPSB®-HT)1000単位を投与。血腫の増大や臨床症状の増悪なく経過。

最終内服

↓




発症 10.5 h

↓

来院 1 h

↓

PCC投与 1 h

来院時

4時間後

24時間後

症例2 87歳女性

[臨床経過]
 慢性心房細動・高血圧症の既往あり、Riv10mg/日を常用。最終内服から約0.5時間後に左視床出血を発症し転倒。外傷性左急性硬膜下血腫を同時に発症。最終内服から約6時間後にPCC1000単位を投与。保存的に加療し左視床出血は増大しなかったが、急性硬膜下血腫及び脳室内血腫は増大。

最終内服

↓




発症 0.5 h

↓

来院 4.5 h

↓

PCC投与 1 h

来院時

3時間後

22時間後

症例のまとめ

	症例 1	症例 2
Rivaroxaban投与量	15mg	10mg
減量基準項目		
腎機能障害(CCr<50ml/min)		✓
慎重投与項目		
高齢者(75歳以上)		✓
低体重(50kg以下)		✓
出血既往		
HAS-BLEDスコア	4	2
併用抗血小板薬	✓	
脳微小出血(T2*WI)	2箇所	未施行
血小板数(μl)	12.0万	12.1万
最終内服-発症時刻(h)	10.5	0.5
最終内服-PCC投与時刻(h)	12.5	6.0

PCC投与の効果

	症例 1		症例 2	
	投与前	後	投与前	後
最終内服からの経過時間(hr)	11.5	13.5	6.0	7.0
aPTT(秒)	41	40	47	49
PT(秒)	15.6	13.4	19.5	16.7
PT-INR	1.26	1.08	1.67	1.24
Riv血中濃度	81	115	213	242
血腫増大	なし		あり	
血栓塞栓症の合併	なし		なし	

2例の止血効果の違いについて

患者背景要因	✓ 症例2で高齢・低体重・腎障害
薬効の差	✓ 最終内服時間 (11.5 vs 6.0時間前) ✓ Riv推定血中濃度 (81 vs 213 ng/ml)
初回血腫量	✓ 症例2で血腫量大, 多発
出血機序	✓ 症例2で外傷性 ➤ 傷害血管の違い? ? (血管数, 血管径) <small>Maxeiner H, Neurosurgery 2002.</small>

PCCによる止血療法のエビデンス

研究者	投与量	対象	Riv投与量/ 目標血中濃度	凝固マーカー		止血効果
				PT	aPTT	出血時間 △ (50IU/kgのみ)
Perzborn	25IU/kg 50IU/kg	ラット	2mg/kg	○	○	△ (50IU/kgのみ)
Godier	40IU/kg	ウサギ	3,5,10mg/kg	○	○	x
Dinkelaar	0-4IU/ml	in vitro (健康人)	200-800ng/ml	x	○	△ (50IU/kgのみ)
Marlu	corresponding to 12.5/25/50IU/kg	in vitro (健康人)	20mg, OD	○	○	△ (50IU/kgのみ)
Körber	25IU/kg 50IU/kg	健康人	80ng/ml 200ng/ml	○	○	△ (50IU/kgのみ)
Eerenberg	50IU/kg	健康人	20mg, BID	○	○	△ (50IU/kgのみ)

Perzborn E et al, Thromb Haemost 2013.

Dinkelaar J et al, Journal of Thrombosis and Haemostasis 2013.

Körber HK et al, Clin Appl Thromb Hemost 2013.

Godier A et al, Anesthesiology 2012.

Marlu R et al, Thromb Haemost 2012.

Eerenberg et al, Circulation 2011.

拮抗・中和療法の展望

➤ PCCのRivaroxabanへの拮抗作用を検証した
非盲検、単一施設、並行群比較 I 相臨床試験

方法: Riv 20mg を 1日 2回, 4日間投与した健康
成人34人を対象にPCC(3-factor, 4-factor)50IU/kgの
単回急速静注群と生食100ml単回急速静注群の3群に
無作為に割り付けた。

結果: 30分以内にPCC両群ともPTの短縮を認めた。
(3-factor >4-factor)

Levi et al, ISTH 2013(abstract)

➤ Andexanet alfa(Xa因子の組み換え蛋白, PRT064445)

リバーロキサバンやアピキサバンなどの直接型Xa阻害薬や
間接型Xa阻害薬に中和効果を示した。
現在第 II 相試験を終えた段階。

Lu G, Nat. Med. 2013.

結語

- ✓ リバーロキサバン内服下での出血性合併症に対
する迅速治療として, プロトロンビン複合体
製剤1000単位の投与はPT延長に対する是正
効果はみられたが, 止血効果は不明。
- ✓ 製剤の有効性及び最適な用量の探索が必要。

新規経口抗凝固薬服用中の出血合併症への対応策

豊田一則

はじめに

新規経口抗凝固薬 (novel oral anticoagulant: NOAC) が国内で臨床使用され始めて (2011年3月ダビガトラン上市), 2年半が過ぎた。実体験から非弁膜症性心房細動 (non-valvular atrial fibrillation: NVAF) 患者への虚血イベント抑止に関する有効性をワルファリンとNOACで比べて論じるには, まだ少し時期が早く思えるが, NOACの安全性, 言い換えれば出血イベントの少なさを実感している。しかしながら, 抗凝固薬である限りは, 合併症としての出血を根絶することはできない。したがって, NOAC服用者に対してもワルファリン患者と同様に出血を予防する手段を講じ, 出血時の緊急止血法を確立させる必要がある。

NOAC使用の入門書として筆者らは分担して『心原性脳塞栓症と経口抗凝固薬』を執筆, 上梓し, そのなかで国立病院機構九州医療セ

ンターの矢坂正弘医博がNOACによる出血事故とその対応策について詳しく解説された¹⁾。ここではより新たな知見を含めて, この課題への再検討を試みる。

I. NOAC服用中の出血合併症の実態

NVAF患者におけるNOACとワルファリンないしアスピリンのイベント抑制効果は, いずれも大規模臨床試験で検討され, NOACがワルファリンと同等以上の, またアスピリンを超える脳卒中・全身塞栓症抑止効果を示した²⁻⁵⁾。もう一つの重要な所見は, NOACはワルファリンと同等以上, アスピリンと同程度に大出血 (国際血栓止血学会基準) を抑止した点であろう。図1にRELY²⁾, ROCKET AF³⁾, ARISTOTLE⁴⁾, AVERROES⁵⁾における各薬剤群の大出血年間発症率を示す。前三者がワルファリンとの比較試験で, AVERROESは何らかの理由でワルファリンを選べない患者を対象としたアピキサバンとアスピリンの比較試験である。試験間で患者背景に多少の相違があり, とくにROCKET AFはより高リスクの患者を集めているので, NOAC間の絶対的発症率の比較は行えない。この結果から, NOACは出血合併症の観点からワルファリンよりも概して安全で, アスピリンと同程度の安全性を保つと言えそうである。この傾向は大出血のなかでも頭蓋内出血で明らかで, NOACによって頭蓋内出血の危険がざっと半減している。このことから, NVAF患者の塞栓症予防を講じる際にNOACを選ぶこと自体が, 抗凝固療法患者への出血合併症軽減策

Key word

anticoagulation
antidote
dabigatran
intracranial hemorrhage
prothrombin complex concentrates

Management of bleeding complications in patients taking novel oral anticoagulants

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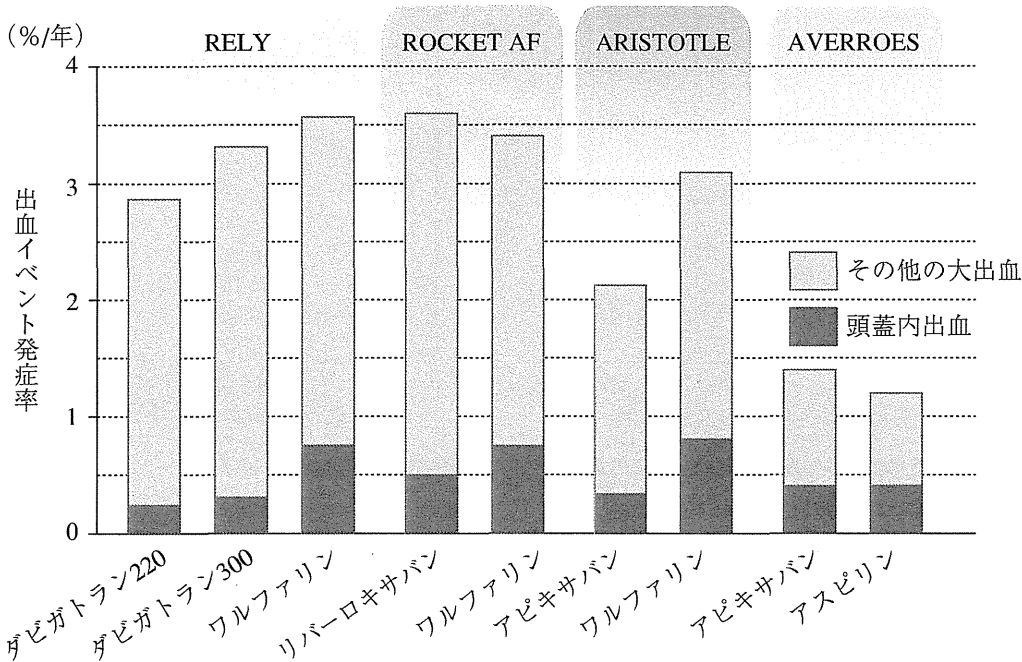


図1. 大規模臨床試験におけるNOACとワルファリンないしアスピリンの大出血発症率
(文献2～5より引用改変)

となっている。

図1の各薬剤群での頭蓋内出血発症率をよく見ると(試験間の絶対的発症率の比較を控えよと書いたばかりであるが),アスピリンを含めて抗血栓薬服用者での頭蓋内出血発症率は本来高々0.5%/年ぐらいであり,ワルファリンのみ発症率が突出している。したがって,NOACを頭蓋内出血の起こりがたい薬と考えるよりも,ワルファリンを頭蓋内出血の起こりやすい薬と考えるほうが,より適切かもしれない。凝固カスケードは活性化凝固第Ⅶ因子が組織因子と結合することに始まり,とくに脳実質には組織因子が多く存在すること,第Ⅶ因子は血管損傷を見つける見張り役であることなどが,知られている。ワルファリンは第Ⅶ因子を阻害するため,脳実質出血をくい止める凝固系の初期消火作業を邪魔してしまうが,NOACは第Ⅶ因子を阻害しないため初期消火を妨げず,結果として脳出

血が起こりがたくなるのであろう。

では,実臨床でNOAC患者の出血合併症は,どの程度報告されているであろう。ダビガトランの国内市販後半年間の調査(推定使用例数約70,000例)では,重篤出血138例(死亡14例)が,またリバーロキサバンの国内市販後約1年間の調査(同約35,000例)では,重篤出血178例192件(死亡10例)が報告された。このうち出血発現日が明らかな症例について,投与から出血事故発現までの日数を図示する(図2)。ダビガトラン,リバーロキサバンの両剤とも,出血発現の勾配が初期数日間とくに険しく,事故の過半数が投与開始後28日(↑)以内に起こっている。このことから,NOAC患者の出血合併症を防ぐために,とくに開始後早期の注意が必要であることがわかる。では,どのような点に配慮すれば,出血を防げるであろうか。

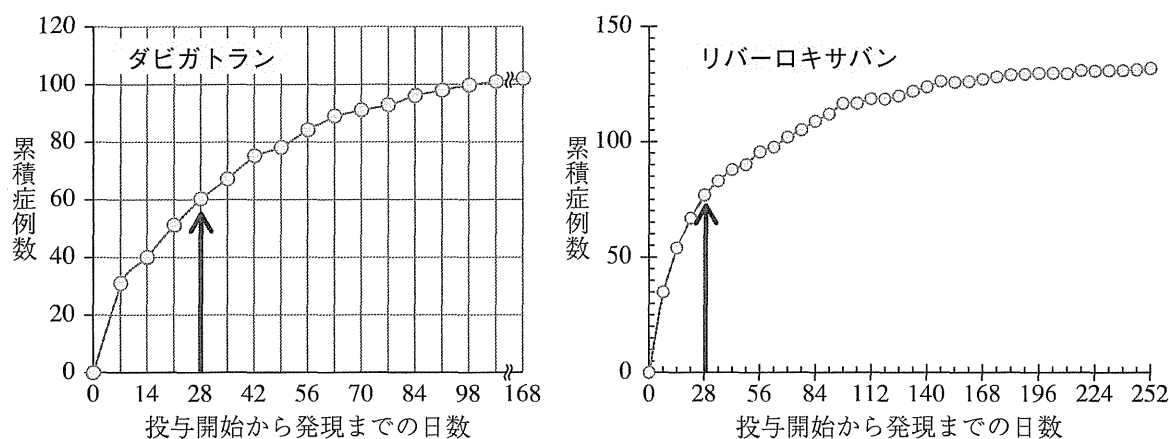


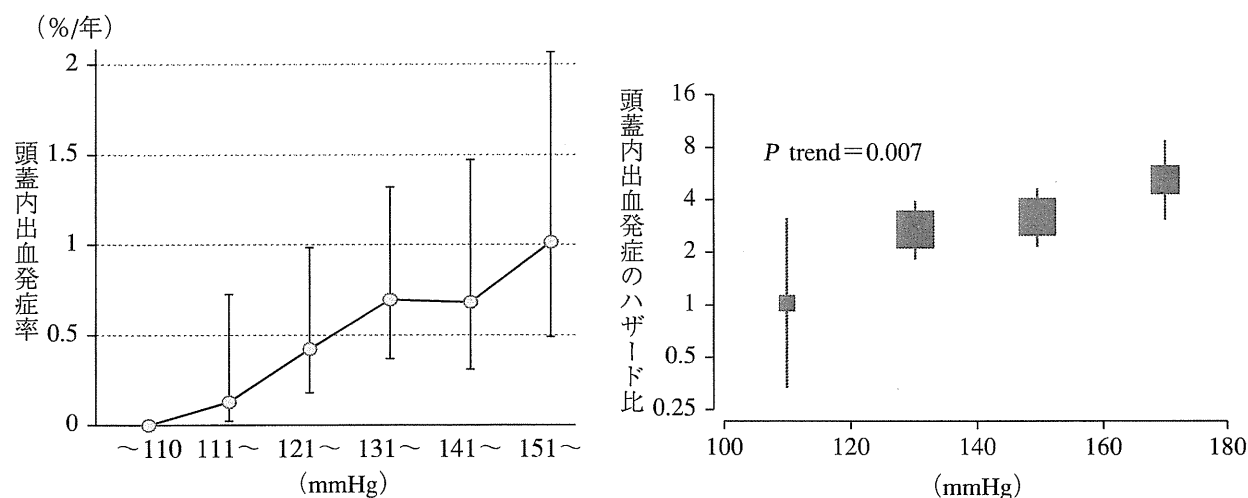
図2. 国内市販後調査における重篤出血の発現時期 (各製造元企業の報告による)

Ⅱ. 出血合併症の予防策

NOAC服用者の出血合併症を防ぐ一番の策は、出血を起こしやすい患者にNOACを用いないことであり、易出血者とは高齢者、抗血小板薬併用者、低体重者(用量固定で服用する場合)、腎機能障害者(腎排泄の比率が高い薬剤を服用する場合)などを指す。また、頭蓋内出血に関しては東アジア人種、脳血管障害既往、転倒傾向、微小脳出血多発などが、消化管出血に関しては消化管潰瘍既往などが出血の誘因となる。しかしながら、これらの要因の多くは、ワルファリン服用下出血合併症の誘因でもある。したがって、NVAFに関して何らかの抗凝固薬が必要な患者には、各種NOACないしワルファリンのうち最適と考えられるものを、注意深く用いざるを得ない。NOACはいずれも二用量が設けられているので、添付文書に従った正しい用量の設定が重要である。

前章では、NOAC投与開始後早期に、出血への配慮がとくに必要と述べた。では、この時期に、何を目安にして出血に配慮すべきか。NOACはワルファリンのような頻回のモニタリングと用量調整が要らないことを売り

文句にしているが、見方を換えれば市販の凝固学的マーカーでは薬効を評価しがたい。しかしながら、細かな薬効評価はともかく、薬効が強すぎることの警告として、市販のマーカーを利用できる。たとえばダビガトランはトロンビンを直接阻害するので、トロンビンによる内因系凝固経路のポジティブフィードバック機構が抑えられ、その結果、活性化部分トロンボプラスチン時間(activated partial thromboplastin time : aPTT)が延長する。RELY試験においても、aPTTのトラフ値が80秒を超えると大出血のリスクが高まると報告された²⁾。当施設ではダビガトラン血中濃度(ヘモクロットによるトロンビン阻害活性測定)とaPTTを比べた結果などから、ピーク値、トラフ値に限らずaPTTが60秒を超えると要注意、70秒を超えると減量ないし中止を考えている。しかしながらaPTTは試薬間差が小さくないので、この目安値を他施設に汎化できず、参考例の一つと考えていただきたい。一方で、リバーロキサバン、アピキサバン、エドキサバンは活性化凝固第X因子(Xa)を阻害するので、プロトロンビン時間(prothrombin time : PT)の律速段階である組織因子・活性化第VII因子複合体形成のポ



BAT：観察最終回（出血発症直近）の外來収縮期血圧 PROGRESS：観察期間中に到達した収縮期血圧

図3. BAT研究、PROGRESSサブ解析での収縮期血圧と頭蓋内出血発症の相関関係（文献6, 7より引用改変）

ジティブフィードバック機構が抑えられ、その結果PTが延長する。しかしながらPTも試薬間差が大きく、易出血性の閾値をどこに設けるかを含めてまだ検討すべき余地が多い。将来的に抗Xa活性の応用が期待される。これらの凝固マーカーと、腎機能（クレアチニン、クレアチニンクリアランス）、貧血の程度（ヘモグロビンなど）を投与開始前と開始2週間後（慎重を期すなら1週間後）に測定し、大きな異常を認めなければ、それ以降はたとえば半年ごとのモニタリングで良いと思う。

介入による変化が可能な出血誘因に、血圧高値が挙げられる。2013年9月現在、改訂作業の大詰めを迎えている日本高血圧学会の『高血圧治療ガイドライン2014』では、「抗血栓薬服用中の高血圧患者の血圧管理」の項を新たに設け、「高血圧は抗血栓薬（抗血小板薬、抗凝固薬）服用中の頭蓋内出血の危険因子であるため、抗血栓薬を服用している患者においては厳格な血圧管理を行う」ことをグレードBで推奨することで、合意を得ている。この根拠となる臨床情報として、国内多施設共同観察研究であるBAT研究と、国際

臨床試験PROGRESSのサブ解析が引用されている^{6,7)}。BAT研究では抗血小板薬なしワルファリン服用4,009例において、観察期間中に頭蓋内出血を発症した群で発症前に外來血圧が漸増していること、頭蓋内出血発症を予測する至適な閾値が130/81mmHgであることが示された（図3左）⁶⁾。また、PROGRESS登録者のうち抗血栓薬服用者を選んで行ったサブ解析では、降圧薬実薬群が偽薬群に比べて頭蓋内出血発症を46%減らし、観察期間中に到達した収縮期血圧と頭蓋内出血発症との間にBATと同様のthe lower, the betterの関係が見られた（図3右）⁷⁾。また、2013年に発表されたSPS3試験では、抗血小板薬単剤ないし二剤を用いたラクナ梗塞患者に対して、収縮期血圧130mmHg未満に積極的に降圧した患者群が、130~149mmHgを目指した群よりも脳出血発症率を有意に低く抑えた（ハザード比0.37, 95% CI 0.15~0.95）⁸⁾。以上より、NOAC服用患者においても、可能であれば収縮期血圧を130mmHg未満に下げたほうが、頭蓋内出血を確実に予防できるであろう。その一方で、BAT研究、PROGRESSサ

表1. 重篤出血発症時に考えられる緊急中和治療（欧州心臓律動学会からの提言）

製 剤	投与量の目安	備 考	わが国での市販製剤 (中和治療薬としては未承認)
プロトロンビン複合体	25U/kg	※1～2回の追加投与可能 ※臨床でのエビデンスなし	PPSB®-HT 静注用「ニチャク」
活性化プロトロンビン複合体	50IK/kg 最大で200IE/kg/日	※プロトロンビン複合体を上回る効果は示されていない	ファイバ注射用 オートプレックス
活性化第Ⅶ因子製剤	90μg/kg	※動物実験でのエビデンスのみ ※高価	ノボセブン®HI 静注用
△ 新鮮凍結血漿		※血漿増量剤として用いる。 止血目的には用いない	

(文献11より引用改変)

ブ解析のいずれも、血圧管理と頭蓋内出血以外の大出血発症との間に相関関係を認めなかった。たとえば消化管潰瘍既者に対しては、血圧管理とともに抗潰瘍薬の投与も検討すべきであろう。

Ⅲ. 大出血時の緊急対処法

前述した矢坂医博の総説では、NOAC服用者が大出血を起こした際に必ず行うべき処置として、①休薬、②止血処置、③適切な輸液によってバイタルを安定させ、尿量を確保すること、④頭蓋内出血の場合は、十分な降圧を図ることの4点を挙げている⁹⁾。さらに踏み込めば、内服後早期の胃洗浄や活性炭投与、腎排泄の比率が高いダビガトランでは緊急透析なども、選択肢に挙げられる。NOACはいずれも半減期が半日程度と短いため、体表からの出血であればこれらの処置をとりつつ圧迫止血することで、大事に至らずに済むことが多い。問題は頭蓋内、体腔内の大出血発症時である。とくに脳出血は発症直後の血腫拡大が転帰を悪化させるので、緊急止血処置を要する。

従来薬ワルファリン服用下での脳出血には、各種ガイドラインなどでビタミンKやプロトロンビン複合体(第Ⅸ因子複合体)、新

鮮凍結血漿、活性化第Ⅶ因子製剤の使用が推奨される。このうちビタミンKは、ビタミンK非依存性抗凝固薬であるNOACの中和薬とはならない。血液製剤を用いたNOACの中和について、動物実験や健常者でのデータが報告されているものの、実臨床での知見に乏しく確立した治療法とは言えない。これまでに北米関連諸学会の血栓止血サミット⁹⁾、欧州心臓律動学会¹⁰⁾、フランス周術期止血ワーキンググループ¹¹⁾などから血液製剤を用いたNOACの中和に関する提言がなされている。内容に多少の異同があるが、ここでは欧州心臓律動学会からの提言を例示する(表1)。

筆者らは、現在国内18施設で観察研究(SAMURAI-NVAF研究)を行い、研究の一環としてNOACでの大出血にプロトロンビン複合体(PPSB®-HT)を用いた中和治療例を登録している。その患者説明文書を示す(図4)。投与量として、1,000単位で開始し、必要に応じて合計1,500単位までと目安を定めている。これは欧州での目安用量より低い。この投与方法で、実臨床で脳出血、硬膜下血腫など少数例に止血治療を行い、出血増大、血栓塞栓症の双方とも起こさなかった。

と、1分後の測定でPT, aPTTとも正常化した。一方で、抗Xa薬に対しても、r-Antidoteと名付けられた組み換え蛋白が、おとり(デコイ)として機能する¹³⁾。抗Xa薬はr-Antidoteと結合するが、その後のプロトロンビン活性化能はなく、リバーロキサバンやアピキサバンをラットに持続静注後にr-Antidoteを単回投与すると、5分後にPTが正常化した。これらの即効性を示す中和剤の、実臨床での有効性・安全性が早く証明され、臨床応用が可能になれば、NOACはより使いやすい薬として定着していくであろう。

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急性期脳出血患者への抗凝固療法再開に関する多施設共同観察研究

Reversal, resumption and discontinuation of anticoagulant therapy after warfarin-related intracerebral hemorrhage: a multicenter, prospective, observational study

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【目的】ワルファリン内服中発症の脳出血（WF 関連 ICH）に対する抗凝固療法（AC）補正および再開の実態と患者転帰を調べる。

【方法】10 施設で前向き観察研究を行った。2010 年 4 月から 2011 年 6 月に、WF 関連 ICH 患者を登録し、INR 補正の有無と方法、AC 再開の有無と発症 1 年以内の合併症、1 年後 mRS との関連を調べた。

【結果】53 例（男性 64%、73±9 歳）を登録し、入院時血腫量は中央値 8.4ml (IQR: 3.6-19.1)、INR は中央値 2.02 (IQR: 1.73-2.46) であった。45 例（85%）で、Vit K 単独（24 例）、Vit K と血液製剤（PCC もしくは FFP）併用（19 例）、血液製剤単独（2 例）により INR が補正された。38 例（72%）で 4 日（中央値）後に AC が再開された。1 年後まで追跡できた 50 例では、出血性合併症が 5 例（脳出血 3 例、消化管出血 2 例）に生じ、うち 4 例は AC 再開後であった。血栓・塞栓性合併症は症候性を 6 例（脳梗塞 4 例、肺塞栓症 1 例、末梢動脈塞栓症 1 例）、無症候性を 5 例（下肢静脈血栓症 3 例、心内血栓 2 例）に生じ、うち 8 例は AC 中断中であった。1 年後の転帰不良（mRS5-6）は 15 例（30%）で、多変量解析では、入院時 NIHSS（1 点毎、OR 1.14、95%CI 1.04-1.29、P=0.002）、症候性血栓・塞栓性合併症（OR 9.82、95%CI 1.11-128.6、P=0.039）が転帰不良に独立して関連したが、出血性合併症（OR 2.40、95%CI 0.13-54.6、P=0.549）は関連なかった。

【結論】WF 関連 ICH 発症時に血液製剤による INR 補正は必ずしも多くなかった。全体の 3 割で WF は再開されなかった。発症 1 年間に出血性合併症は 10%に、血栓・塞栓性合併症は 22%に発生した。経過中の症候性血栓・塞栓性合併症は転帰不良に独立して関連した。

（計 800 字 【規定は 800 字以内】）

Systolic Blood Pressure After Intravenous Antihypertensive Treatment and Clinical Outcomes in Hyperacute Intracerebral Hemorrhage

The Stroke Acute Management With Urgent Risk-Factor Assessment and Improvement-Intracerebral Hemorrhage Study

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Background and Purpose—Blood pressure (BP) lowering is often conducted as part of general acute management in patients with acute intracerebral hemorrhage. However, the relationship between BP after antihypertensive therapy and clinical outcomes is not fully known.

Methods—Hyperacute (<3 hours from onset) intracerebral hemorrhage patients with initial systolic BP (SBP) >180 mmHg were included. All patients received intravenous antihypertensive treatment, based on predefined protocol to lower and maintain SBP between 120 and 160 mmHg. BPs were measured every 15 minutes during the initial 2 hours and every 60 minutes in the next 22 hours (a total of 30 measurements). The mean achieved SBP was defined as the mean of 30 SBPs, and associations between the mean achieved SBP and neurological deterioration (≥ 2 points' decrease in Glasgow Coma Score or ≥ 4 points' increase in National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale score), hematoma expansion (>33% increase), and unfavorable outcome (modified Rankin Scale score 4–6 at 3 months) were assessed with multivariate logistic regression analyses.

Results—Of the 211 patients (81 women, median age 65 [interquartile range, 58–74] years, and median initial National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale score 13 [8–17]) enrolled, 17 (8%) showed neurological deterioration, 36 (17%) showed hematoma expansion, and 87 (41%) had an unfavorable outcome. On multivariate regression analyses, mean achieved SBP was independently associated with neurological deterioration (odds ratio, 4.45; 95% confidence interval, 2.03–9.74 per 10 mmHg increment), hematoma expansion (1.86; 1.09–3.16), and unfavorable outcome (2.03; 1.24–3.33) after adjusting for known predictive factors.

Conclusions—High achieved SBP after standardized antihypertensive therapy in hyperacute intracerebral hemorrhage was independently associated with poor clinical outcomes. Aggressive antihypertensive treatment may ameliorate clinical outcomes. (*Stroke*. 2013;44:1846-1851.)

Key Words: acute intracerebral hemorrhage ■ antihypertensive therapy ■ outcome

Blood pressure (BP) lowering therapy is widely performed as part of general acute management in patients with acute intracerebral hemorrhage (ICH).^{1,2} An acute hypertensive response³ is common in patients with acute ICH, occurring

in $\leq 75\%$,⁴ and elevated BP is associated with hematoma expansion^{5,6} and poor outcome.⁷⁻⁹ Recent trials have demonstrated that rapid BP lowering with antihypertensives is feasible and tolerated,^{10,11} and it suppresses hematoma

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expansion.¹⁰ However, the benefit of antihypertensive therapy in acute phase of stroke is still controversial, because the patients with ICH in the recent Scandinavian Candesartan Acute Stroke Trial (SCAST) did not benefit from candesartan,¹² and concerns also exist about excessive depression of BP in the acute phase of ICH, as it may result in renal dysfunction,¹³ cerebral ischemia,^{14,15} and death.¹⁶ Given these circumstances, the optimal BP target in patients with acute ICH has not been fully elucidated.^{1,2}

Moreover, although elevated BP in the acute phase is a proven predictor of worse clinical outcomes in patients with ICH,^{7-9,17} the effect of the response to acute BP lowering on the clinical outcomes of patients with ICH has been relatively unclear, because there have been few prospective studies, and antihypertensive regimens (drugs, dosage, and route) and target BPs were not standardized in most such studies.

We hypothesized that a relatively high mean systolic BP (SBP) after BP lowering therapy was associated with worse clinical outcomes than a low mean SBP. The aims of the present study were to clarify the relationship between mean on-treatment SBP and outcomes, and to determine the optimal SBP threshold to avoid worse clinical outcomes in patients with acute ICH.

Methods

Subjects

The Stroke Acute Management with Urgent Risk-factor Assessment and Improvement (SAMURAI)-ICH Study was a prospective, multicenter, observational study to determine the safety and feasibility of early (within 3 hours from symptom onset) SBP reduction to <160 mmHg with intravenous nicardipine for acute hypertension in patients with spontaneous ICH. The details of the study have been described elsewhere.^{18,19} In brief, acute spontaneous supratentorial ICH patients with hypertension (initial SBP >180 mmHg), who were treated within 3 hours from onset in 10 Japanese stroke centers were enrolled. Other inclusion criteria were: age ≥ 20 years old; total Glasgow Coma Scale score ≥ 5 ; computed tomography <2.5 hours from onset demonstrating a supratentorial intraparenchymal hematoma with manual volume measurement <60 mL; and absence of extensive intraventricular hemorrhage. Patients with unreliable time of symptom onset, ICH because of cerebral neoplasms, arteriovenous malformations, aneurysms, trauma, bleeding diathesis, or coagulopathy, candidates for immediate surgical intervention for ICH, current pregnancy, parturition within the previous 30 days or active lactation, prothrombin time international normalized ratio ≥ 1.7 because of warfarin intake, and a platelet count <50 000/mm³ were excluded. Each local ethics committee approved this study. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients or their next of kin.

The patients' clinical background characteristics, including sex, age, cardiovascular risk factors, and comorbidities were collected from medical charts. Routine blood biochemistry examinations were performed on admission. Neurological manifestations were assessed using the National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale (NIHSS) score. Functional outcome was estimated using the modified Rankin Scale.

Hematoma volume was evaluated with noncontrast computed tomography on admission and 24 (± 6) hours after the initiation of antihypertensive treatment. The ABC/2 (length \times width \times height/2) method was used to determine hematoma volume at the bedside by the neurologist or neurosurgeon on admission and at 24 hours.

BP Management and Monitoring

Bolus infusion of 1 mg nicardipine was allowed before the titrating infusion. Titration of intravenous nicardipine was started within 3 hours of symptom onset and continued for 24 hours, based on a

standardized protocol¹⁸ to achieve and maintain the target SBP level <160 mmHg and >120 mmHg. BP management after the first 24 hours was at the primary neurologist's discretion. Oral antihypertensive agents were started after the first 24 hours.

BP and pulse rate were taken using manual or automated sphygmomanometer under established guidelines. All staffs were familiarized with the sphygmomanometer before the study by using it in general practice. The arm was placed horizontal at the level of the heart as denoted by the midsternal level in a recumbent position. BP and pulse rate were measured every 15 minutes during the initial 2 hours and every 60 minutes in the next 22 hours (30 measurements in the initial 24 hours after the initiation of antihypertensive therapy), as well as at 48 and 72 hours. To test the hypothesis, the mean achieved SBP (aSBP) was defined as the mean of a total of 30 SBPs in the initial 24 hours after the initiation of BP lowering therapy.

Clinical Outcomes

The clinical outcomes included: neurological deterioration corresponding to a decrease of ≥ 2 points from the baseline Glasgow Coma Scale score or an increase of ≥ 4 points from the baseline NIHSS score at 72 hours after the initiation of treatment; hematoma expansion >33% from baseline to 24 hours; and unfavorable outcome corresponding to patients with modified Rankin Scale scores of 4 to 6 at 3 months after ICH onset. Patients who underwent surgical intervention for ICH were regarded as having an unfavorable outcome regardless of the modified Rankin Scale score.

Statistical Analysis

Clinical background characteristics including mean aSBP were compared between patients with and without unfavorable outcomes. Univariate analyses were performed using the χ^2 test, Fisher exact test, or the Kruskal-Wallis test, as appropriate. The data are presented as median values (interquartile range) or frequencies [%]. Multivariate logistic regression analyses were performed to elucidate the associations between mean aSBP and outcomes. Sex, age, and prior antithrombotic medication, initial SBP, initial NIHSS score, onset to initial computed tomography examination time, initial hematoma volume, and serum glucose level at baseline, which are known predictors of clinical outcomes based on previous studies, were forced into model 1. In model 1, mean aSBP was entered as a continuous variable or a categorical variable based on quartiles and arbitrarily defined 5 mmHg interval groups (<130 mmHg, 130–135 mmHg, 135–140 mmHg, 140–145 mmHg, and ≥ 145 mmHg). Alternative model 2 included all variables in Table 1, and a backward stepwise selection procedure was performed using $P > 0.1$ of the likelihood ratio test for exclusion. All statistical analyses were performed using PASW for Windows version 17.0 software (SPSS Inc, Chicago, IL). Results were considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

Results

From July 2009 through June 2011, 211 patients (81 women, median age 65 [interquartile range, 58–74] years, and median initial NIHSS score 13 [8–17]) were included in the SAMURAI-ICH study.¹⁸ Table 1 shows the clinical background characteristics of the included patients. The initial computed tomographic scan was performed at a median of 70 minutes from onset, and baseline hematoma volume was 10.2 (5.6–19.2) mL. The initial SBP was 200 (189–213) mmHg. The time to reach the target range was 30 (15–45) minutes, and the proportion of time in the target SBP range after having fallen to being within the range was 78.0%. For 7 patients, nicardipine was insufficient, and additional intravenous antihypertensive drugs (diltiazem in 3, nitroglycerin in 3, and isosorbide nitrate in 1) were started 110 (98–120) minutes from starting nicardipine. Seven

Table 1. Baseline Clinical Characteristics

Variables	Total (N=211)	Favorable Outcome (n=124)	Unfavorable Outcome (n=87)	P Value
Female, n (%)	81 (38)	50 (40)	31 (36)	0.566
Age, y, median (IQR)	65 (58–74)	62 (55–69)	70 (63–79)	<0.001
History of stroke, n (%)	26 (12)	16 (13)	10 (12)	0.834
Prior antithrombotic medication, n (%)	24 (11)	13 (11)	11 (13)	0.664
Liver cirrhosis, n (%)	10 (5)	7 (6)	3 (3)	0.530
Vascular risk factors, n (%)				
Hypertension	176 (83)	104 (84)	72 (83)	0.853
Diabetes mellitus	29 (14)	17 (14)	12 (14)	1.000
Hyperlipidemia	87 (41)	54 (44)	33 (38)	0.478
Current smoking	67 (32)	44 (36)	23 (26)	0.179
Alcohol intake	120 (57)	73 (59)	47 (54)	0.572
SBP on admission, mm Hg, median (IQR)	200 (189–213)	198 (188–212)	200 (190–216)	0.160
HR on admission, bpm, median (IQR)	80 (70–92)	80 (70–93)	78 (70–90)	0.474
Initial NIHSS score, median (IQR)	13 (8–17)	10 (6–15)	15 (12–20)	<0.001
Onset to CT, minutes, median (IQR)	70 (59–94)	74 (58–97)	65 (60–89)	0.181
Initial hematoma volume, mL, median (IQR)	10.2 (5.6–19.2)	9.0 (4.0–17.9)	14.0 (8.0–25.1)	0.001
Hematoma on left side, n (%)	101 (48)	61 (49)	40 (46)	0.676
Hematoma location, n (%)				0.125
Putamen	121 (57)	76 (61)	45 (52)	
Thalamus	76 (36)	38 (31)	38 (44)	
Lobar	14 (7)	10 (8)	4 (5)	
Biochemistry sign at admission, median (IQR)				
Albumin, g/dL	4.1 (3.9–4.4)	4.2 (4.0–4.5)	4.0 (3.8–4.3)	0.001
Leukocyte count, / μ L	6900 (5400–8300)	6800 (5300–8400)	6900 (5600–8300)	0.662
Blood glucose, mg/dL	121 (107–144)	121 (105–145)	124 (107–143)	0.595
Total cholesterol, mg/dL	194 (169–224)	202 (176–226)	186 (156–211)	0.002
Creatinine, mg/dL	0.70 (0.60–0.90)	0.70 (0.60–0.90)	0.70 (0.60–0.90)	0.530
Mean aSBP, mm Hg, median (IQR)	137 (133–142)	137 (131–141)	139 (134–143)	0.012

Favorable outcome: patients with modified Rankin scale 0–3 at 3 mo from onset. Unfavorable outcome: patients with modified Rankin scale 4–6 at 3 mo from onset or who received hematoma evacuation surgery.

aSBP indicates achieved systolic blood pressure; CT, computed tomography; HR, heart rate; IQR, interquartile range; NIHSS, National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale; and SBP indicates systolic blood pressure.

patients received hematoma evacuation surgery after starting antihypertensive treatment and being regarded as having an unfavorable outcome. As shown by the variables in Table 1, patients with an unfavorable outcome were older (70 [63–79] years versus 62 [55–69] years; $P<0.001$) and had a higher initial NIHSS score (15 [12–20] versus 10 [6–15]; $P<0.001$) and hematoma volume (14.0 [8.0–25.1] mL versus 9.0 [4.0–17.9] mL; $P=0.001$) than those with a favorable outcome. Levels of serum albumin (4.0 [3.8–4.3] g/dL versus 4.2 [4.0–4.5] g/dL; $P=0.001$) and total cholesterol (186 [156–211] mg/dL versus 202 [176–226] mg/dL; $P=0.002$) were lower in patients with unfavorable than with favorable outcomes. The mean aSBP was higher in patients with unfavorable

(139 [134–143] mmHg) than with favorable (137 [131–141] mmHg) outcomes ($P=0.012$).

Neurological deterioration was observed in 17 (8%), hematoma expansion in 36 (17%), and unfavorable outcome in 87 (41%) patients. Results of multivariate logistic regression analyses are presented in Table 2 and Figures 1 and 2. Every 10 mmHg increment of mean aSBP was associated with a 4.5-fold increase in neurological deterioration, a 1.8-fold increase in hematoma expansion, and a 2.0-fold increase in unfavorable outcome after multivariate adjustment (Table 2). Figures 1 and 2 show the correlations between outcomes and mean aSBP as quartiles (Figure 1) and arbitrarily defined 5 mmHg interval groups (Figure 2); these correlations were

Table 2. ORs and 95% CIs for Every 10 mm Hg Increment in Mean aSBP for Outcomes

	Crude	Model 1	Model 2
Neurological deterioration	3.93 (1.96–7.90)	4.45 (2.03–9.74)	4.43 (1.98–9.90)
Hematoma expansion	1.80 (1.12–2.91)	1.86 (1.09–3.16)	1.80 (1.08–2.98)
Unfavorable outcome	1.57 (1.07–2.28)	2.03 (1.24–3.33)	2.00 (1.23–3.26)
Unfavorable outcome*	1.43 (0.98–2.18)	1.78 (1.05–3.01)	1.69 (1.00–2.89)

Model 1: adjusted for sex, age, prior antithrombotic medication, initial SBP, initial National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale score, onset to initial computed tomography examination time, initial hematoma volume, and serum glucose level at baseline. Model 2: adjusted for variables in Table 1.

aSBP indicates achieved systolic blood pressure; CI, confidence interval; and OR, odds ratio.

*After removing 7 patients who received surgery.

derived using multivariate logistic regression model 1. The thresholds of the mean aSBP quartiles were 132.8, 137.4, and 142.1 mmHg. Patients with the lowest mean aSBP quartile had a lower rate of neurological deterioration (odds ratio, 0.06; 95% confidence interval, 0.007–0.54), hematoma expansion (0.27; 0.07–0.98), and unfavorable outcome (0.18; 0.06–0.55) compared with those with the highest quartile (Figure 1). Similarly, neurological deterioration (odds ratio could not be estimated because neurological deterioration did not occur in patients with mean aSBP <135 mmHg) and unfavorable outcome (odds ratio, 0.13; 95% confidence interval, 0.03–0.51) were less common, and hematoma expansion (0.20; 0.04–1.15) was marginally less common in patients with mean aSBP <135 mmHg than in those with

mean aSBP ≥145 mmHg (Figure 2). The odds ratios of worse clinical outcomes increased gradually as mean aSBP rose. Leaving out the 7 patients with surgery did not change these findings significantly (Table 2).

Discussion

This prospective study demonstrated that acute SBP after standardized intravenous antihypertensive therapy was independently associated with neurological deterioration, hematoma expansion, and unfavorable outcome in patients with acute ICH. The rates of poor clinical outcomes increased gradually as mean aSBP rose.

The relationships between elevated BP after antihypertensive therapy and poor clinical outcomes were partly in line with previous studies.^{6–9,20} Ohwaki et al⁶ reported that maximum SBP after nonstandardized antihypertensive treatment was independently associated with hematoma enlargement. We previously reported that mean SBP lowering to <138 mmHg during the initial 24 hours was associated with more favorable early outcome than SBP of 138 mmHg or higher after antihypertensive therapy mainly with intravenous nicardipine or nitroglycerin.⁹ Leira et al²⁰ showed that high SBP within 48 hours after nonstandardized antihypertensive therapy with intravenous labetalol or captopril in acute ICH patients with BP >185/105 mmHg was independently associated with early neurological deterioration. However, few data showed the association between response after standardized BP lowering therapy and clinical/radiological outcomes, such as neurological deterioration, hematoma expansion, and unfavorable outcome. Indeed, a large prospective trial using predefined, standardized antihypertensive strategy found that, although a lower SBP target in acute ICH suppressed

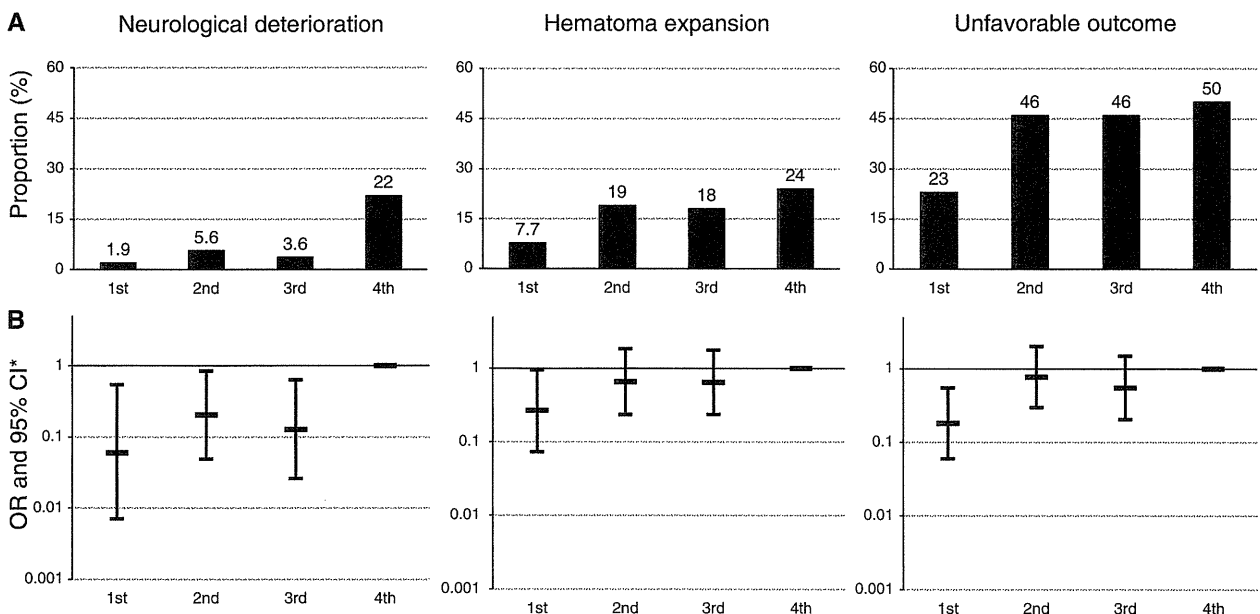


Figure 1. Proportions (A) and multivariate-adjusted odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence interval (CI) (B) according to the mean achieved systolic blood pressure (aSBP) quartiles. The thresholds of the mean aSBP quartiles were 132.8, 137.4, and 142.1 mmHg. *Adjusted for sex, age, prior antithrombotic medication, initial SBP, initial National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale score, onset to initial computed tomography examination time, initial hematoma volume, and serum glucose level at baseline.

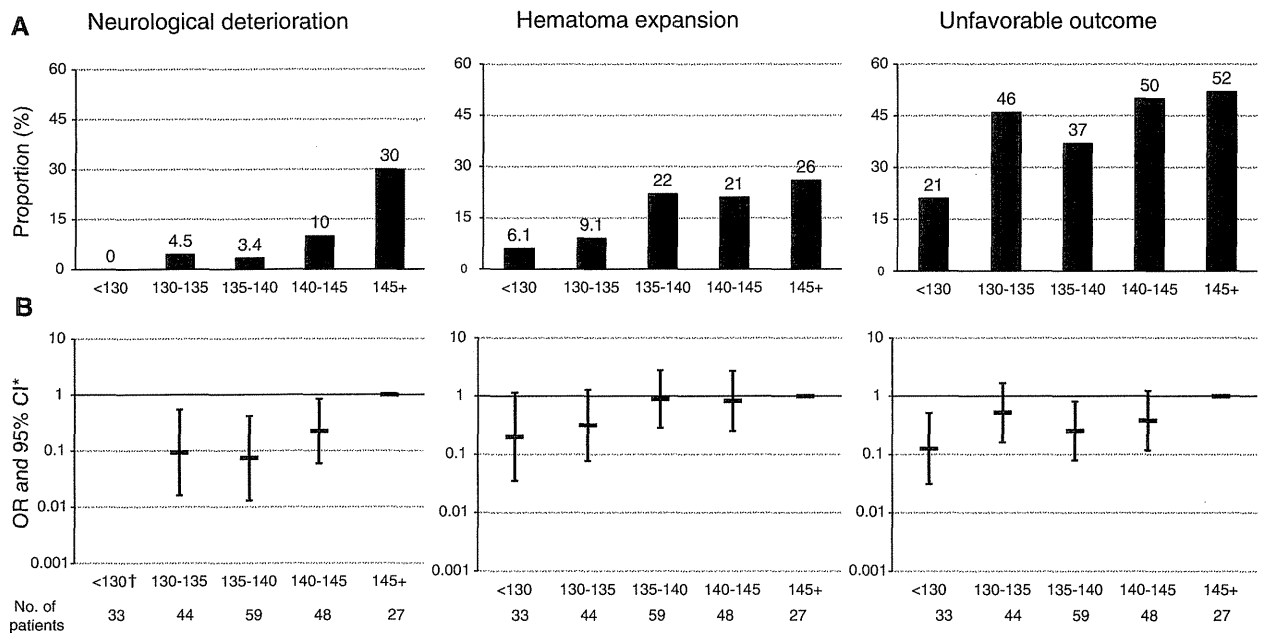


Figure 2. Proportions (**A**) and multivariate-adjusted odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence interval (CI; **B**) according to the arbitrarily defined, 5 mmHg interval mean achieved systolic blood pressure (aSBP) groups. *Adjusted for sex, age, prior antithrombotic medication, initial SBP, initial National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale score, onset to initial computed tomography examination time, initial hematoma volume, and serum glucose level at baseline. †Odds ratio could not be estimated because neurological deterioration did not occur in patients with a mean aSBP <135 mmHg.

hematoma expansion, the clinical outcome did not differ between the lower and the standard target SBP groups.¹⁰

The SAMURAI-ICH was a prospective study that included supratentorial ICH patients within 3 hours from onset treated with a standardized antihypertensive regimen regarding the first-choice drug, administration/titration method, and frequency of BP measurement. These homogeneous factors may reduce possible bias. Moreover, frequent BP measurement may contribute to differentiating between patients with and without worse clinical outcomes. Elevated BP in acute ICH promotes further active bleeding, resulting in hematoma expansion.⁶ Because hematoma expansion is correlated with early neurological deterioration²⁰ and poor outcome,²¹ high mean aSBP was independently associated with neurological deterioration and unfavorable outcome through hematoma expansion in the present study. Although perihematomal edema was not measured, increased edema²² is also a potential mechanism for the relatively high proportion of neurological deterioration or unfavorable outcome in patients with high mean aSBP.

The rates of poor clinical outcomes increased gradually as mean aSBP rose with standardized BP lowering. Excessive BP reduction in acute ICH patients is considered to be harmful rather than beneficial.^{13–16} The optimal target SBP in patients with acute ICH has been unclear,^{1,2} and the present study showed that patients with the lowest quartile, corresponding to mean aSBP <132.8 mmHg or mean aSBP <130 mmHg, have the lowest proportions of worse clinical outcomes. On the basis of these results, the optimal threshold for worse clinical outcomes was \approx 130 mmHg, and therefore the optimal target SBP in acute ICH might be \approx 130 mmHg.

There are some limitations in the present study that need to be addressed. First, because the SAMURAI-ICH study was an

observational study that did not compare groups with different SBP targets, the optimal target SBP cannot be determined from the results of the present study. It is difficult to differentiate whether high aSBP is a cause or a consequence of worse clinical/radiological outcomes, although neurological deterioration or hematoma expansion was not reported to be followed by subsequent BP elevation.¹¹ Ongoing large randomized trials^{23–25} are expected to resolve these problems. Second, the present target SBP (<160 mmHg) follows the recent guidelines from the American Heart Association/American Stroke Association¹; the target level was different from that in the ongoing trials.^{23–25} Third, the use of nicardipine in patients with acute ICH may not be always beneficial, because nicardipine has mild antiplatelet properties,²⁶ although there is no direct evidence of hematoma expansion because of the antiplatelet effect of nicardipine.

In conclusion, high SBP after initiation of standardized antihypertensive treatment was independently associated with neurological deterioration, hematoma expansion, and unfavorable functional outcome in acute ICH. A mean aSBP \approx 130 mmHg was associated with the lowest odds ratios for worse clinical outcomes. Aggressive antihypertensive treatment for such patients may ameliorate clinical outcomes.

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Disclosures

None.

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