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2 **Variability in functional outcome and treatment practices by treatment center after out-of-hospital cardiac**
3 **arrest: Analysis of International Cardiac Arrest Registry**
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45 **Disclosures:**

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55 **Abstract:**

56 **Purpose:** Functional outcomes vary between centers after out of hospital cardiac arrest (OHCA) and are partially
57 explained by preexisting health status and arrest characteristics, while the effects of in-hospital treatments on
58 functional outcome are less understood. We examined variation in functional outcomes by center after adjusting for
59 patient and arrest-specific characteristics and evaluated how in-hospital management differs between high and low
60 performing centers.

61
62 **Methods:** Analysis of observational registry data within the International Cardiac Arrest Registry (INTCAR) was
63 used to perform a hierarchical model of center-specific risk standardized rates for good outcome, adjusted for
64 demographics, pre-existing functional status, arrest related factors with treatment center as a random effect variable.
65 We described the variability in treatments and diagnostic tests that may influence outcome at centers with adjusted
66 rates significantly above and below registry average.

67
68 **Results:** 3855 patients admitted to an ICU following cardiac arrest with return of spontaneous circulation. The
69 overall prevalence of good outcome was 11-63% among centers. After adjustment, center-specific risk standardized
70 rates for good functional outcome ranged from 0.47 (0.37-0.58) to 0.20 (0.12-0.26). High performing centers had
71 faster time to goal temperature, were more likely to have goal temperature of 33°C, more likely to perform
72 unconscious cardiac catheterization and percutaneous coronary intervention, and had differing prognostication
73 practices that low performing centers.

74
75 **Conclusions:** Center-specific differences in outcomes after OHCA after adjusting for patient-specific factors exist.
76 This variation could partially be explained by in-hospital management differences. Future research should address
77 the contribution of these factors to the differences in outcomes after resuscitation.

78
79 **'Take Home Message':**

80 There are significant center-specific differences in outcomes after out of hospital cardiac arrest after adjusting for
81 patient-specific factors. These differences are partially explained by in-hospital treatment decisions.

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83 **Tweet:**

84 Largest study evaluating center-specific outcomes for out-of-hospital cardiac arrest; finding significant center-
85 specific differences after adjustment
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98 Introduction

99 Functional outcome of patients who survive out-of-hospital cardiac arrest (OHCA) and receive in-hospital care are
100 determined in part by their underlying health status and arrest-specific factors, but many aspects of medical care
101 after cardiac arrest may influence outcomes as well[1-5]. Reporting of cardiac arrest outcomes specific to individual
102 hospitals is increasing, but at this time there is no risk-adjustment standard to benchmark hospital performance [6].
103 Post-resuscitation care varies widely between centers, including many practices associated with outcome such as
104 targeted temperature management (TTM), utilization of coronary angiography and percutaneous coronary
105 intervention (PCI), mechanical circulatory support, glucose control, oxygenation and ventilation practices, blood
106 pressure management, sedation regimes and prognostication practices [4, 5, 7-9]. Some of these management
107 strategies align with the volume of patients cared for at a given center [9-11]. Given these inconsistencies and the
108 medical complexity of these high-risk patients and the need for urgent triage, an improved understanding of which
109 in-hospital treatment options and interventional strategies may affect outcomes is needed. The ability to risk-adjust
110 overall outcome by center is an important first step, enabling identification of modifiable differences between
111 management strategies.

112 Patient and arrest-specific risk factors for poor outcome following cardiac arrest have been described [12-17], but
113 few studies have reported center outcomes adjusted for risk using patient-level data[7, 8] or identified in-hospital
114 factors that may explain variation between centers. We sought to develop a risk-adjustment model to evaluate
115 between-center effects of functional outcome at hospital discharge in patients with OHCA who received TTM as an
116 initial step to identify potential in-hospital treatment variation that might explain such differences. We also explored
117 variation in various treatment modalities and diagnostic tests that may potentially explain some of the differences in
118 outcomes between high and low performing centers[18].

119

120 Methods:

121 *Data source*

122 The International Cardiac Arrest Registry (INTCAR) is a multicenter, international database of United States and
123 European centers including both in-hospital and out-of-hospital cardiac arrest patients. The registry began enrolling
124 patients in 2006 and as of November 2017, included 6010 patients from 42 hospitals. Centers enrolled consecutive
125 adult patients admitted to an intensive care unit after cardiac arrest. Management of patients was at the discretion of

126 the treating center, according to local best practices. Centers participated in the registry on a voluntary basis, there
127 was no reimbursement for enrolling patients, and all had institutional review board approval at their center. We
128 included patients from the INTCAR registry with OHCA enrolled between the years 2006 and 2017, and excluded
129 centers that enrolled less than 25 patients. The INTCAR registry consists of two sequential and non-overlapping
130 iterations; a 1.0 dataset (years of 2006-2011) and a 2.0 dataset (years 2011-2017); we combined these data sets and
131 included variables found in both. INTCAR data encompassed the Utstein data points[19] as well as many in-hospital
132 variables related to post-resuscitation care[14]. Although centers enrolled consecutive adult patients with both in-
133 hospital (IHCA) and out-of-hospital cardiac arrest (OHCA), only patients with OHCA were included in this
134 analysis.

135 *Outcome:*

136 The primary outcome was the Cerebral Performance Category (CPC) score at hospital discharge. Consistent with
137 previous reporting in large clinical trials, CPC was dichotomized into good outcome (normal to moderate cerebral
138 disability: CPC 1-2) and poor outcome (severe cerebral disability to brain death: CPC 3-5)[2, 20, 21]. The time point
139 of hospital discharge was chosen because longer-term outcome is influenced by factors other than hospital care,
140 including post-discharge services, insurance status, and various comorbidities, which was not recorded in the
141 registry [22-24]. Secondary outcome was delayed CPC which is typically determined at 6 months either by review
142 of medical records or a telephone call.

143 *Predictors:*

144 Candidate variables from both the 1.0 and 2.0 database included age, sex, pre-arrest CPC, past medical history
145 [composite endpoint of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), coronary artery disease (CAD), arrhythmia,
146 congestive heart failure (CHF), hypertension, chronic kidney disease, liver disease, obesity, malignancy, renal
147 disease, non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM), insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM)], initial
148 rhythm (shockable versus non-shockable), time to return of spontaneous circulation (ROSC) (including both no-flow
149 and low-flow time), bystander cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR), witnessed arrest, and defibrillation.

150 *In-hospital factors:*

151 In-hospital factors available between the two datasets included several temperature-related events, including target
152 temperature (32-34°C, 35-36°C, 37°C or greater), time to initiation of target temperature, and post-temperature
153 management fever. The utilization of cardiac interventions and hemodynamic support were analyzed, including

154 cardiac catheterization, percutaneous intervention, and coronary artery bypass grafting occurring while the patient
155 remained unconscious, while they were awake, or not performed (analyzed for all patients, patients with known ST-
156 elevation myocardial infarction on ECG, and those with a shockable rhythm), thrombolysis and intra-aortic balloon
157 pump use. Utilization of diagnostic tests used to guide neurologic care and prognostication were evaluated,
158 including use of electroencephalogram (EEG), continuous electroencephalogram (cEEG), magnetic resonance
159 imaging (MRI), computed tomography (CT), and somatosensory evoked potential (SSEP). Early withdrawal of life
160 support was evaluated as patients who had both withdrawal of life sustaining therapies and an ICU length of stay of
161 three days or less.

162 *Missing data:*

163 The effect of missing data was assessed with each explanatory and outcome variable. The distribution of the model
164 variables was compared between patients with complete and incomplete data to verify that the population of patients
165 with missing data was similar.

166 *Statistical analysis:*

167 Continuous variables were assessed for linearity of response on outcome and categorized if needed due to
168 nonlinearity. The relationship of candidate variables with outcome was initially assessed in a univariate manner
169 using logistic regression; these were retained in the model if the p-value was < 0.20 . The decision was made *a priori*
170 to force three selected variables into the model (time to ROSC, age, initial shockable rhythm), regardless of
171 statistical significance, based on prior evidence suggesting significant prognostic value [25-28]. A hierarchical
172 logistic regression model for good outcome as a function of patient demographic and clinical variables was created
173 with a random center-specific effect. Performance was assessed using area under the Receiver Operator
174 Characteristic (ROC) curve and likelihood ratio tests to predict good outcome. The model was then used to calculate
175 risk-standardized good functional outcome rates based on “Method 3” described in a comparison of national risk
176 adjustment[29]. This was done by first by finding the predicted outcome of each patient within each center
177 (predicted outcome) then measuring the expected rate of outcome at each facility, given the predicted probability for
178 outcome for patients at that center (expected outcome). The risk adjusted ratio was calculated as the registry average
179 outcome multiplied by the ratio of observed and expected outcomes. This approach allows for control of clustering
180 among the 25 centers by calculating a center-specific intercept within the model. Risk-standardized mortality rates
181 were then calculated as the observed rate divided by the expected rate at each center where the expected rate is the

182 predicted rate from the hierarchical logistic regression model substituting a null center effect. Thus the risk
183 standardized rate using this approach allows for adjustment based on patient mix for each center and simultaneously
184 allows for shrinkage due to center clustering. This methodology of risk adjustment increases content validity
185 compared to classic logistic regression based modeling and has higher convergent validity compared to shrinkage
186 estimator-based risk-adjustment[29]. The analysis was repeated using the subgroup of patient who met Utstein
187 comparator criteria (shockable rhythm, received bystander CPR, and arrest was witnessed).
188 We then evaluated 'high' and 'low' performing centers defined as risk-standardized ratio confidence intervals
189 significantly above or below the registry average. These were pooled into high and low groups and in-center
190 resource utilization was compared. Factors found to be statistically significant between high and low performing
191 groups were then added into the full model and evaluated for improvement in model performance using ROC curves
192 and evaluation of Akaike information criterion.

193 Results

194 *Patient population*

195 The INTCAR registry data included 6010 patients from 42 centers and 4544 patients had OHCA. Three thousand
196 eight hundred fifty five patients from 25 centers had complete data and enrolled at least 25 patients (Table 1). The
197 average age of this study population was 61 years (± 15 years), 31% were female, 53% of patients had an initial
198 shockable rhythm, and the average time to ROSC was 26 (± 18) minutes. 34% achieved good functional outcome at
199 hospital discharge. Influence of individual components of past medical history are shown in supplement table 1.

200

201 *Missing data*

202 There were 420 patients with non-complete data. The variable most missing was time to ROSC, absent in 6% of
203 cases. The second most often missing variable was outcome at hospital discharge, absent in 1.6% of cases. A
204 sensitivity analysis was performed to compare patients with and without missing data, which revealed similar age
205 (60 ± 17 years vs 61 ± 15 years, $p=0.09$) and time to return of spontaneous circulation (26 ± 24 minutes vs 26 ± 18
206 minutes, $p=0.76$). There was a difference in incidence of initial shockable rhythm (46% vs 53%, $p=0.007$) for
207 missing and nonmissing data, respectively. Within the group of patients with missing data, 253 (60%) were missing
208 the variable for ROSC and 288 (67%) were unwitnessed. The outcome of good CPC at hospital discharge was 30%

209 for patients with missing data and 34% for patients without missing data (p=0.21). Multiple imputation was
210 performed with similar results in the multivariable model, with the exception of age (Supplement table 2).

211 *Model development*

212 Univariate and multivariate analysis of all candidate variables are shown in Table 2. Linearity with outcome was
213 assessed for age and time to ROSC. The relationship between time to ROSC and the primary outcome was found to
214 be nonlinear, therefore categorized by five-minute intervals and referenced to the largest subgroup (15-20 minutes).
215 Age, sex, number of medical diagnoses, initial rhythm, time to ROSC, witnessed arrest, bystander CPR, and
216 defibrillation were found to be statistically significant predictors of outcome and were retained in the model..

217 *Outcome by Center after Risk Adjustment*

218 The unadjusted frequency of a good functional outcome at hospital discharge ranged from 11%-63% with a center-
219 mean of 39% among the 25 centers. The risk-standardized outcome rate ranged from 20% (CI 12%- 27%) to 50%
220 (CI 39%- 61%). The distribution following adjustment is shown in figure 1. When limited to centers with
221 confidence intervals that did not overlap the registry average, four high performing centers were significantly above
222 average, with a range of 40% to 50% of risk adjusted good outcome by center, and an average for the group of 44%.
223 Similarly, five low performing centers were significantly below the average, with a range of 20% to 27% risk
224 adjusted good outcome by center and an average for the group of 24% (Figure 1). Observed, predicted, expected
225 rates of good outcome at hospital discharge and values of risk adjusted ratio are shown in supplement table 3.
226 For the secondary outcome of delayed CPC at the Registry average of 6 months, the unadjusted frequency of good
227 functional outcome at an average of six months ranged from 0%-54% with a center-mean of 35% among the 25
228 centers. The risk-standardized outcome rate ranged from 0 (CI 0%-13%) to 54% (CI 42%-65%). Following
229 adjustment, four centers performed significantly better than the registry average and five centers performed
230 significantly worse than registry average (Figure 2). Observed, predicted, expected rates of good outcome at six
231 months and values of risk adjusted ratio are shown in supplement table 4.

232 *Characteristics of high versus low performing centers*

233 Patient characteristics and in-hospital resource utilization were compared between high- and low-performing centers
234 (Table 3). Treatment variables that were significantly different between high and lower performing centers included
235 time to start of target temperature, TTM target goal, use of cardiac catheterization and PCI while patients were
236 unconscious (for patients with STEMI, shockable rhythm, and all patients) and use of thrombolysis. Of patients with

237 a poor outcome, the use of prognostication variables differed with the use of continuous EEG, MRI, and SSEP.
238 Withdrawal of life sustaining therapies within the first three days were more common in the high performing centers
239 (194 patients (23%) versus 181 patients (15%), $p < 0.001$) (supplement table 5). There was no difference between
240 higher and lower performing centers in the incidence of fever in the first 72 hours, diagnosis of pneumonia, use of
241 intra-aortic balloon pump, or treatment by coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG). Adding these significant
242 variables to the model resulted in only a modest improvement AUC (0.84 to 0.89) and a lower Akaike information
243 criterion, suggesting these treatment factors only modestly improve model performance (Figure2).

244 *Utstein Comparator Subgroup*

245 A total of 1296 patients (25% of cohort) met criteria of having a shockable rhythm, receiving bystander CPR, and
246 having a witnessed arrest. The incidence of good outcome was higher than the full cohort, at 57.3%. High and low
247 performing centers were similar (in low performing group, one was no longer in that group and another was
248 included that otherwise would not have been and in the high performing group, one hospital was not included in the
249 Utsein group).

250 Discussion

251 In a large, international registry of patients treated with TTM after OHCA, profound differences in center-specific
252 rates of good functional outcomes were observed and persisted after adjustment for the major patient-specific factors
253 known to be associated with outcome. The four high-performing centers reported a greater use of temperature
254 management goal of 33 degrees, faster time to initiation of target temperature, higher rates early cardiac
255 catheterization and PCI (prior to awakening). There was also a higher utilization of continuous EEG and SSEP than
256 the low-performing centers. These post-resuscitation processes of care include treatments that could influence
257 outcome, such as TTM performance and PCI as well as diagnostic modalities (EEG, SSEP) that may be markers for
258 other elements of care such as a more nuanced approach to neurologic prognostication that incorporates multimodal
259 diagnostics[30, 31]. The center-specific differences in outcome were not fully explained by the treatment factors we
260 evaluated, suggesting others contribute, possibly including rewarming rate, hemodynamic management, oxygenation
261 and ventilation parameters, and glucose management, all of which have been shown to be independently associated
262 with outcome in prior studies[5, 32], but were not available in our data. Moreover, direct prognostication data
263 related to withdrawal of life sustaining therapy were also not available and may greatly impact outcomes[33-36]. We
264 did find that there was a difference in withdrawal of life sustaining therapy and ICU length of stay of three days or

265 less, suggesting that early prognostication practices differed between high and low-performing centers. Center
266 volume, although associated with outcome in the univariate model, was not associated with outcome in the
267 multivariable model and is inconsistent with other publications of high volume centers having more favorable
268 overall outcomes[9, 10]. The reason for this may be due to lack of statistical power to detect this effect. Our data
269 suggest there are center effects influencing OHCA outcomes. Reporting such severity-adjusted data may ultimately
270 help identify key features of high-quality post-resuscitation care, and define standards for assessing hospital
271 performance.

272
273 Our data agree with previous studies showing differences in cardiac arrest outcomes by center after various types of
274 adjustment. Merchant et al evaluated 135,896 in-hospital arrests from the American Heart Association's Get With
275 the Guidelines-Resuscitation Registry adjusted for 36 predictors of outcome and found adjusted in-hospital survival
276 rates ranged from 12.4 to 22.7% at different centers; although they included patients that did not achieve ROSC and
277 others treated without TTM[7]. Carr et al evaluated a multicenter clinical registry of ICU patients found in-hospital
278 mortality ranged from 46-68% between the 39 centers after adjusting for age, severity of illness and ventilation
279 status.[8] Our demonstration of variability in outcomes between centers after adjusting for the case mix is consistent
280 with these findings in a different population. Our methodology of risk adjustment decreased the likelihood of
281 overestimating center differences, which is a frequent error in random center effects modeling[29, 37].

282 The variations we observed in risk-standardized outcomes suggest that center-specific characteristics, either in terms
283 of resources, protocols, or practices may directly affect functional outcomes after cardiac arrest. These variations in
284 outcome represent an opportunity to identify which treatment factors, from the many identified as candidates, most
285 affect outcome. We identified several that appear to be important; time to initiation target temperature, early cardiac
286 catheterization and early PCI. Unfortunately, limitations in the data set precluded analysis of hemodynamic
287 management, ventilation and oxygenation parameters, glucose control, or how prognostication testing was
288 interpreted including withdrawal of life sustaining therapies policy. Other post-resuscitation treatments such as
289 sedation and shivering management[1], and seizure management [38] have also been shown to vary by center and
290 may contribute to outcomes. Our study did not have patient-level data for specific aspects of some of these
291 treatments including sedation and shivering data, seizure management, and how prognostic testing was interpreted.
292 Evaluating these factors in future studies may further improve our model. The differences in outcome associated

293 with use prognostication tests is likely more complex than the mere presence or absence of these tools; they could be
294 a marker for neurologist or neurointensivist involvement, and could relate to which patients receive that testing and
295 how the data are used to guide care, such as the early withdrawal of life support. Similar challenges have been
296 identified in other multicenter practice studies in other disease states[39], where an in-depth communication and
297 quality improvement effort was initiated with an improvement in outcomes[39]. This could be used as a platform for
298 process-improvement in centers that provide post-resuscitation care.

299 *Study Strengths and Limitations*

300 The strengths of this study include the benefits of a large, international dataset, which allows comparisons between
301 centers. We also used a method of risk adjustment that captures and corrects for differences in center size as
302 recommended by Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services[29]. The INTCAR registry also allowed us to
303 evaluate some in-hospital factors to help understand some of the clinical differences between high and low
304 performing centers.

305 This study should be interpreted within the context of several limitations. Although data dictionaries were developed
306 to reduce variability in data entry and the registry guidelines were to enroll consecutive patients, sites were
307 responsible for internally monitoring the quality of their data entry. We also found that patients with nonshockable
308 rhythm were more likely to be unwitnessed. We believe this explains why there are fewer missing data among
309 patients with shockable rhythm. This did not appear to cluster at any particular hospital. Analysis after multiple
310 imputation showed similar odds ratios, with the exception of age, which was significant in nonimputed data and
311 nonsignificant in the imputed dataset. Limiting our analysis to data points that were concordant between the 1.0 and
312 2.0 data restricted our analysis and there were some variables that were not available in both datasets that may have
313 been useful, including etiology of arrest. The ability to further understand differences in care between high and low
314 performing centers would benefit from in-depth interviews and a review of full protocols and adherence to those
315 protocols to identify themes that may explain the variability in outcomes. Also, because centers participated in the
316 Registry at different time points, we were not able to evaluate patient volume, which has been associated with
317 improved outcomes[10, 11, 30]. Lastly, hospital discharge CPC was the outcome of interest rather than six month
318 CPC. Since longer-term outcome is influenced by other factors including post-discharge services, insurance status,
319 and other comorbidities, we felt that restricting the outcome to hospital discharge was the most appropriate for
320 addressing our research question.

321
322 This is the first study of its kind that introduces an accessible risk-adjustment model for comparing center
323 performance based on patient-level data for patients admitted with OHCA. Outcome differences for these patients
324 are not solely explained by differences in patient case mix, but also represent variations in patient care, which are
325 often unmeasured. The next steps of comparing processes across centers would be to attempt to uncover root causes
326 of systematic differences among centers; including sedation, shivering management, metabolic management,
327 applications prognostic tests, hemodynamic and ventilator targets, and seizure management. Nonetheless, it is of
328 interest that in an era where some are now questioning the utility of post cardiac arrest use of therapeutic
329 hypothermia and early coronary angiography, these results from a large post arrest car registry affirm their value in
330 high performing centers[40].

331

332 Conclusions

333 Considerable variability persists between centers in functional outcome among patients after OHCA at hospital
334 discharge despite adjustment for baseline risk. High performing centers more frequently have a faster time to target
335 temperature, provide cardiac catheterization and PCI prior to awakening, are more likely to utilize continuous EEG
336 and SSEP compared to low performing centers, but these differences only partially explain the differences in
337 outcomes noted. This model provides an opportunity to explore difference in care delivery and potentially improve
338 processes of care. Additional work is needed to establish normative standards for good outcomes after resuscitation
339 from out-of-hospital cardiac arrest based on risk adjustment, and to fairly assess hospital performance and
340 investigate the specific features of post-resuscitation care that directly influence patient outcomes.

341

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535 **Figure legends:**

536 Figure 1: Good outcome at hospital discharge by center after risk adjustment.

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538 Figure 2: Good outcome at follow-up by center after risk adjustment.

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581 **Tables:**
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Patient Characteristics	
Number of patients	3855
Age mean (sd)	61.3 (15.4)
Female n (%)	1207 (31.3)
Witnessed n(%)	3061 (79.4)
European center n(%)	1520 (39.4)
Shockable Rhythm n(%)	2040 (52.9)
Medical diagnosis (median [IQR])	2 [0, 3]
Bystander CPR n(%)	2546 (66.0)
Time to ROSC (mean (sd))	26.2 (18.0)
Defibrillation n(%)	2472 (64.1)
Hospital CPC 1-2 n(%)	1,325 (34.4)

583 Table1: Patient characteristics
584 CPR = cardiopulmonary resuscitation; CPC = cerebral performance category; ROSC = return of
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Variable	Univariate OR (CI)	Multivariate OR (CI)
Age*	1.32 (1.27-1.38)	0.71 (0.67-0.76)
Female sex	1.91 (1.64-2.22)	0.72 (0.60-0.89)
Time to ROSC	0.95 (0.94-0.94)	0.95 (0.94-0.95)
Medical Comorbidities**	0.73 (0.70-0.77)	0.83 (0.78-0.88)
Rhythm (shockable)	6.85 (5.85-8.06)	3.06 (2.79-4.66)
Bystander CPR	1.89 (1.62-2.19)	1.44 (1.20-1.74)
Witnessed	2.59 (2.14-3.15)	1.96 (1.55- 2.48)
Defibrillation	5.62 (4.73-6.71)	1.95 (1.47-2.60)

614 Table 2: Full univariate and multivariate model for outcome of dichotomized hospital discharge
615 CPC

616 Intercept: -3.06

617 *age by decade

618 **see supplement for individual medical comorbidities components

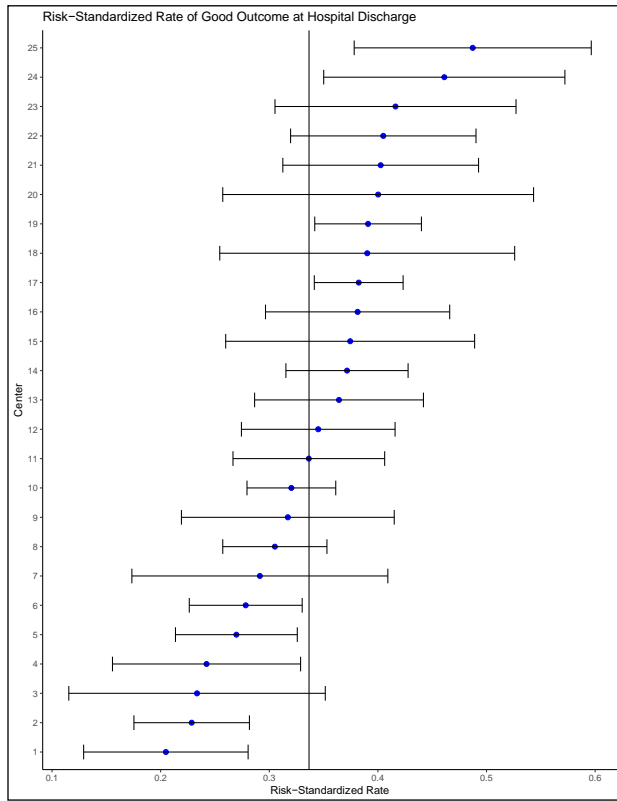
619 CPR = cardiopulmonary resuscitation; ROSC = return of spontaneous circulation

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Characteristics	Low performing centers (n=1,311)	High performing centers (n=873)	p-value
Time to start of target temperature (mean, SD)	176 (141)	80 (80)	<0.001
Target temperature 33	1018 (83)	791 (91)	<0.001
Target temperature 36	157(13)	61 (7)	0.002
No TTM provided	49 (4)	20 (2.3)	0.08
Cardiac Catheterization unconscious- all patients (n, %)	411 (32)	451 (53)	<0.001
PCI unconscious- all patients (n, %)	201 (20)	246 (33)	<0.001
CABG unconscious- all patients (n, %)	5 (0.4)	3 (0.3)	
Cardiac Catheterization unconscious- all STEMI patients (n, %)	178 (15)	205 (24)	<0.001
Cardiac Catheterization unconscious- all patients with shockable rhythm (n, %)	303 (57)	347 (72)	<0.001
Cardiac Catheterization- all patients with shockable rhythm(n, %)	361 (68)	400 (83)	<0.001
PCI- all patients with shockable rhythm (n, %)	274 (51)	301 (62)	<0.001
Thrombolysis (n, %)	79 (7)	24 (3)	<0.001
Intra-aortic balloon pump (n, %)	152 (13)	103 (12)	0.423
Pneumonia diagnosis (n, %)	417 (36)	322 (37)	0.662
Fever in first 72 hours (n, %)	337 (34)	290 (36)	0.395
Volume (median, IQR)	42 (22, 44)	46 (45, 46)	<0.001
In patients with poor outcome; use of diagnostic tests			
	1005	485	
EEG in poor outcome (n, %)	614 (61)	283 (58)	0.338
Continuous EEG (n, %)	351 (35)	196 (40)	0.045
MRI (n, %)	179 (18)	58 (12)	0.005
SSEP (n, %)	64 (6)	89 (18)	<0.001
CT (n, %)	588 (59)	274 (56)	0.496

651 Table 3: Characteristics of 4 high performing centers and 5 low performing centers
652 CABG = cardiopulmonary resuscitation; CPR = cardiopulmonary resuscitation; CPC = cerebral
653 performance category; CT = computed tomography; EEG = electroencephalography; ICU =
654 intensive care unit; MRI = magnetic resonance imaging; ROSC = return of spontaneous
655 circulation; SSEP = somatosensory evoked potentials
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Figure 1

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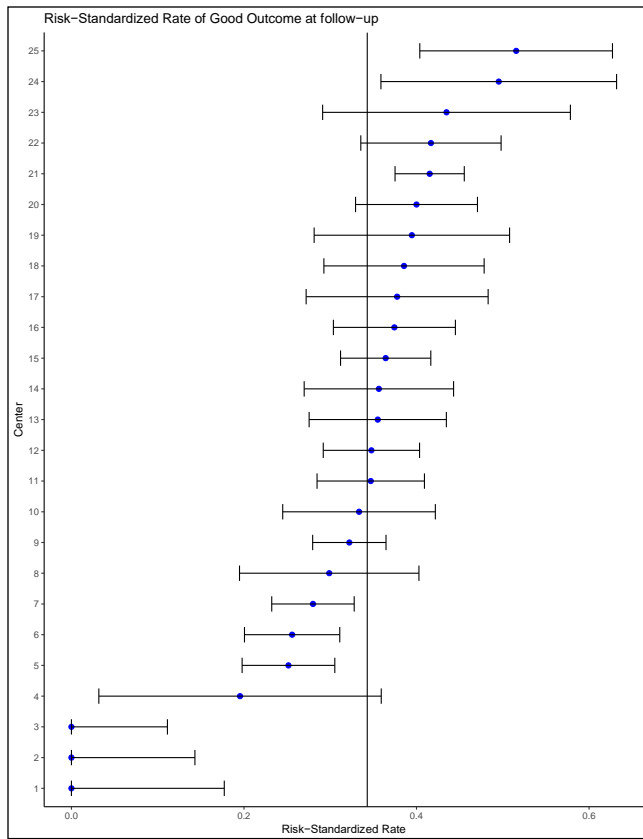
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Figure 2