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Subclinical Atherosclerosis in Young, Socioeconomically Vulnerable Hispanic and Non-Hispanic Black Adults

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ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND Non-Hispanic Black persons are at greater risk of cardiovascular (CV) events than other racial/ethnic groups; however, their differential vulnerability to early subclinical atherosclerosis is poorly understood.

OBJECTIVES This work aims to study the impact of race/ethnicity on early subclinical atherosclerosis in young socioeconomically disadvantaged adults.



METHODS Bilateral carotid and femoral 3-dimensional vascular ultrasound examinations were performed on 436 adults (parents/caregivers and staff) with a mean age of 38.0 ± 11.1 years, 82.3% female, 66% self-reported as Hispanic, 34% self-reported as non-Hispanic Black, and no history of CV disease recruited in the FAMILIA (Family-based Approach to Promotion of Health—FAMILIA [Project 2]) trial from 15 Head Start preschools in Harlem (neighborhood in New York, New York, USA). The 10-year Framingham CV Hisperse score was calculated, and the relationship between race/ethnicity and the presence and extent of subclinical atheroscienosis was analyzed with multivariable logistic and linear regression models.

RESULTS The mean 10-year Framingham CV risk was 4.0%, with no differences by racial/ethnic category. The overall prevalence of subclinical atherosclerosis was significantly higher in the non-Hispanic Black (12.9%) than in the Hispanic subpopulation (6.6%). After adjusting for 10-year Framingham CV risk score, body mass index, fruit and vegetable consumption, physical activity, and employment status, non-Hispanic Black individuals were more likely than Hispanic individuals to have subclinical atherosclerosis (OR: 3.45; 95% CI: 1.44-8.29; P = 0.006) and multiterritorial disease (P = 0.026).

CONCLUSIONS After adjustment for classic CV risk, lifestyle, and socioeconomic factors, non-Hispanic Black younger adults seem more vulnerable to early subclinical atherosclerosis than their Hispanic peers, suggesting that the existence of emerging or undiscovered CV factors underlying the residual excess risk (Family-based Approach to Promotion of Health_FAMILIA (Project 2) [FAMILIA]; NCT02481401). (J Am Coll Cardiol 2022; **E**:**E**-**E**) © 2022 by the American College of Cardiology Foundation.

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| 109 | ABBREVIATIONS |
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| 110 | AND ACRONYMS |
| 111 | |
| 112 | 3DVUS = 3-dimensional vascular ultrasound |
| 113 | CV = cardiovascular |
| 114 | FAMILIA = Family-Based |
| 115 | Approach in a Minority |
| 116 | Community Integrating |
| 117 | Systems-Biology for Promotion |
| 118 | of Health |
| 119 | PESA = Progression and Early detection of Subclinical |
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Atherosclerosis

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ardiovascular (CV) disease tends to affect non-Hispanic Black persons earlier in life and to a greater extent than is the case with other racial and ethnic groups.¹ This may be attributable in part to an elevated prevalence of CV risk factors such as hypertension, diabetes, peripheral artery disease, and chronic kidney disease, or to a more frequent clustering of multiple risk factors; however, other factors could also play a critical role in generating these disparities.

Recently developed CV risk scores that consider race and ethnicity together with wellestablished CV risk factors have proved to be useful tools for predicting CV events and establishing prevention strategies.² Nevertheless, a substantial proportion of events occur in individuals classified at low or moderate risk. Because CV disease has a slowly progressing asymptomatic phase, interest has grown in the preventive potential of noninvasive imaging techniques used to detect direct signs of early subclinical CV disease. Progress in this area has been achieved with the recent establishment of 3-dimensional vascular ultrasound (3DVUS) as a safe, inexpensive, and reliable tool for detecting the presence and quantifying the extent or burden of subclinical atherosclerosis.3 The observed racial and ethnic disparities in CV disease may reflect differential vulnerability to early atherosclerosis; however, few studies have addressed this relationship.

The randomized interventional trial FAMILIA (Family-Based Approach in a Minority Community Integrating Systems-Biology for Promotion of Health) enrolled young families (preschool children and their parents/caregivers) and school staff from a low-income area in the neighborhood of Harlem, New York, New York, USA.⁴ A high proportion of FAMILIA participants are of African-American and Hispanic descent. The main goal of the trial was to test the efficacy of a family-based approach to CV health promotion across the lifespan that integrates behavioral and imaging strategies.^{5,6} At enrollment, adults (parents/caregivers and staff) underwent a comprehensive assessment of lifestyle and CV health, including bilateral carotid and femoral 3DVUS. Here, we assessed the impact of race and ethnicity on the presence, extent, and distribution of 3DVUS-detected subclinical atherosclerosis through a cross-sectional analysis of the information collected at baseline in adult participants enrolled in the FAMILIA study.

METHODS

STUDY DESIGN AND POPULATION. The FAMILIA trial rationale and design have been described elsewhere.⁴ The FAMILIA study recruited a total of 635 adult caregivers and school staff from 15 Head Start preschools in the neighborhood of Harlem, New York, New York, USA. These adult trial participants underwent a complete clinical evaluation at baseline, including lifestyle questionnaires supervised by trained personnel and point-of-care testing to determine blood glucose and lipid profile. All questionnaires were available in English and Spanish, and health counselors were fluent in both languages to accommodate participant language preferences. In addition, all participants were invited to sign a separate consent form to undergo noninvasive 3DVUS to examine for the presence and burden of atherosclerosis in the carotid and femoral arteries.

Non-Hispanic White, Asian, and Native American racial and ethnic groups each formed a small proportion of participants (2.3%, 2.3%, and 0.3%, respectively), and people in these groups were excluded from the present analysis. Also excluded were adults with a history of heart disease or stroke. The Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai Institutional Review Board approved the study (HS#:14-01054), which was conducted in accordance with institutional and federal guidelines involving human participants. The study is registered on ClinicalTrials.gov, identifier number NCT02481401.

BASELINE CHARACTERISTICS. The following characteristics were assessed at baseline before initiation of the FAMILIA trial intervention.⁵ Ethnic and racial background was self-reported and classified as Hispanic, non-Hispanic Black, or others (including non-Hispanic White, Asian, and Native American). Data were collected on well-established socioeconomic determinants of health, including self-reported employment status and average annual household income, as well as self-reported history of hypertension, diabetes, and dyslipidemia. Family history of CV disease was defined as a self-reported diagnosis of heart attack or stroke in a full parent or sibling by the age of 60 years. In addition, several health metrics (blood pressure, fasting blood glucose, total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol, highdensity lipoprotein-cholesterol, triglycerides, body mass index (BMI), fruit and vegetable consumption, smoking habits, and physical activity) were measured as detailed in the Supplemental Methods.

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 PREDICTED 10-YEAR CV RISK AND CATEGORIZA-TION OF HEALTH METRICS. The predicted 10-year CV disease risk for each participant at enrollment was calculated with the Framingham Heart Study CV risk score equation using the user-written Stata command "framingham."^{7,8} The equation includes the following parameters: age (in years), sex, measured systolic blood pressure (mm Hg), self-reported antihypertensive medication, smoking status, self-reported diabetes status, and measured total cholesterol and high-density lipoprotein-cholesterol (mg/dL). Based on Framingham CV risk scores, 10-year CV disease risk was classified as low (<10%), moderate (≥10-<20%), or high (≥20%).

Fruit and vegetable consumption and moderate/ vigorous physical activity were categorized according to thresholds described in the Fuster-BEWAT score (a health metric that includes 5 factors: blood pressure, exercise, weight, alimentation, and tobacco).⁹ This risk scale has a demonstrated accuracy for predicting subclinical atherosclerosis in relatively low-risk individuals similar to that of other American Heart Association-approved risk scales, but without the need for laboratory results.¹⁰

3DVUS IMAGING PROTOCOL/ANALYSIS AND DEFINITION 241 OF ATHEROSCLEROSIS. Imaging protocol. Vascular 242 ultrasound imaging to quantify the presence and 243 extent of atherosclerosis in carotid and femoral 244 arteries was performed with the Philips EPIQ-7G 245 246 ultrasonography system (Philips Healthcare). 247 Transducers used in this study were the 248 2-dimensional (2D) 9L-D linear array (9-3.1 MHz) and C1-6 curved array (6-1 MHz) transducers and the 3D 249 VL 13-5 linear volume array transducer (13-5 MHz). 250 251 The imaging protocol was adapted from the one 252 used in the PESA (Progression and Early detection of 253 Subclinical Atherosclerosis) study.³ The procedure was performed by experienced registered vascular 254 technologists who completed additional specialized 255 256 training with the Philips ultrasonography system. The scanning protocol included standard imaging of 257 the left and right carotid artery bifurcation and its 258 branches (internal and external carotid arteries) and 259 of the left and right common femoral artery 260 bifurcation and its branches (superficial and deep 261 femoral arteries). These 4 territories were scanned 262 in cross-section with a 2D linear or curved array 263 transducer to detect the presence of plaques and to 264 sum plaque burden. The same vessels were 265 examined by 3D ultrasound with the VL 13-5 linear 266 array volume transducer, which performs a 267 268 mechanical automated sweep in cross-section, allowing the assessment of plaque volume and 269 270 estimation of total atherosclerotic burden.

Image analysis. All ultrasound recordings and digital images were analyzed at the Zena and Michael A. Wiener Cardiovascular Institute at Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai by 2 observers (raters). Three-dimensional images were analyzed with dedicated software specially engineered by Philips (QStation-VPQ [vascular plaque quantification] 3.5). Each carotid and femoral 2D cross-sectional image was assessed for the presence of plaque. When a plaque was identified, QStation was used to assess the 3D dataset (displayed as multiple transverse slices) and to sum plaque volume in each vascular bed (carotid or femoral) on each side (left or right), as well as the total plaque volume in all vascular beds (bilateral carotid and femoral). Maximum percent stenosis was also estimated.

Definition of atherosclerosis. Plaque was defined according to the Mannheim consensus criteria as a focal structure encroaching into the arterial lumen and measuring \geq 0.5 mm or >50% of the surrounding intima-media thickness or having a diffuse thickness \geq 1.5 mm measured from the media-adventitia to the intima-lumen interface in any of the territories.³

The extent of atherosclerosis was defined according to the number of regions with presence of plaque (disease-free, 0 vascular sites affected; focal disease, 1 territory affected; multiterritorial disease, >1 territory affected). Plaque burden was defined as the plaque volume (mm³), and global plaque burden corresponded to the sum of all plaque areas from all images showing plaque, including both carotid and femoral arteries.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS. Summary statistics describing baseline characteristics are presented as mean \pm SD for continuous variables and as count and frequencies for categorical variables. Unpaired Student's *t*-tests were used to assess crude differences between continuous variables; the chi-square test and Fischer exact test were used to determine crude differences between categorical variables. The Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel test was used to assess crude differences across ordered categorical variables.

To assess the adjusted impact of race and ethnicity on the presence and burden of atherosclerosis, we used multivariable logistic regression models for categorical outcome variables (presence or absence of atherosclerosis) and linear regression models for continuous outcomes (atherosclerosis burden in mm³). Participant race and ethnicity were included in all models as the main independent variable. Other covariates were selected according to their reported

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ultrasound (3DVUS) imaging. After exclusion of participants with a history of cardiovascular (CV) disease (n = 12), those self-reporting a race and ethnicity other than Hispanic or non-Hispanic Black (n = 57), and those with missing data for calculating the Framingham CV risk score (n = 10), a total of 436 adults were included in this study.

> association with atherosclerosis (clinical plausibility) or as potential confounders according to the rules proposed by Kleinbaum and colleagues using the user-written Stata command "confound."11 The covariates included in the multivariable models were as follows: participant 10-year CV Framingham risk score (categorical variable: low, moderate, high), participant employment status (categorical variable: employed, unemployed, other status, unknown), BMI (continuous variable), physical activity (categorical variable: <10, 10-<75, ≥75-<150, and ≥150 minutes/ week of moderate-to-vigorous exercise) and fruit and vegetable consumption (categorical variable: <1, 1-2, 3-4, >4 daily servings). Practical and clinical interpretations are presented as measures of association (OR) and estimated mean differences with 95% CIs. Statistical significance was assigned at P <0.05.

> Prevalence-adjusted and bias-adjusted kappa coefficients were calculated in a subsample of FAMILIA

participants to assess intraobserver and interobserver reproducibility for plaque detection. For intraobserver and interobserver reproducibility analysis of atherosclerosis burden (plaque volume quantification), the intraclass correlation coefficient and Bland-Altman plots were used for all plaque-positive FAM-ILIA participants. Methodological details of agreement and reproducibility analysis are presented in the Supplemental Methods. Statistical analyses were performed with STATA (2017, Stata Statistical Software: Release 15; StataCorp LLC).

RESULTS

The FAMILIA trial enrolled 635 adults, of whom 515 consented to and underwent 3DVUS imaging. Participants with a history of CV disease were excluded, as were those self-reporting a race and ethnicity other than Hispanic or non-Hispanic Black and those with missing data for calculating the Framingham CV risk score. A final total of 436 adults were included in this study (Figure 1).

BASELINE CHARACTERISTICS, HEALTH METRICS, AND PREDICTED CV RISK. Participants self-reporting as Hispanic or non-Hispanic Black accounted for approximately two-thirds (n = 289, 66.3%) and onethird (n = 147, 33.7%) of the study population, respectively. The mean age was 38.0 \pm 11.1 years, and 82.3% were women. Age and sex profiles did not differ significantly between racial and ethnic groups. Baseline characteristics of adults included in this study are summarized in Table 1, whereas baseline characteristics of all individuals enrolled in the FAMILIA trial grouping subjects by availability of 3DVUS information are presented in Supplemental Table 1.

Compared with their Hispanic counterparts, non-Hispanic Black participants were ~3.5 times more likely to be hypertensive (OR: 3.54; 95% CI: 2.14-5.87; P < 0.001). Non-Hispanic Black participants similarly were 3 times more likely to be active smokers (OR: 3.15; 95% CI: 1.83-5.41; P < 0.001), and also had a higher BMI (mean betweengroup difference = 1.45 kg/m²; 95% CI: 0.17-2.74; P = 0.027) and reported higher consumption of fruits and vegetables (P < 0.001). There was no betweengroup difference in the prevalence of self-reported diabetes (P = 0.735) or determined fasting glucose (P = 0.402) and total cholesterol (P = 0.873). The mean 10-year Framingham CV risk score for the whole study population was 4.0% \pm 5.6%, and there were no significant differences between racial and ethnic groups (P = 0.104). Most participants (89%) were classified at low risk, with ~9% and 2% classified at

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P Value

0.191

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0.018

< 0.001

< 0.001

< 0.001

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0.735

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0.026

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0.279

0.753

< 0.001

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434 Hispanic Overall Non-Hispanic Black 435 (N = 436) (n = 289 [66.3%]) (n = 147 [33.7%]) 436 38.0 ± 11.1 39.0 ± 11.3 Age 37.5 ± 11.0 437 Female 359 (82 3) 232 (80.3) 127 (86 4) 438 Employment status 439 Employed 276 (63.3) 168 (58.1) 108 (73.5) 440 Unemployed/unable to work/homemaker 123 (28.2) 92 (31.8) 31 (21.1) 23 (5.3) 18 (6.2) 5 (3.4) 441 Other (student, retired) Unknown 14 (3.2) 11 (3.8) 3 (2.0) 442 Annual household income 443 <\$25,000 214 (59.8) 151 (67.4) 63 (47.0) 444 ≥\$25,000 144 (40.2) 73 (32.6) 71 (53.0) 445 Unknown 78 (17.9) 65 (22.5) 13 (8.8) 446 Cardiovascular risk factors Self-reported hypertension 447 77 (17.7) 32 (11.1) 45 (30.6) 63 (14.5) 36 (24.5) 448 Active smoking 27 (9.3) Body mass index, kg/m² 449 Low. <18.5 4 (0.9) 2 (0.7) 2 (1.4) 450 Normal, 18.5-<25 74 (17.0) 49 (17.0) 25 (17.0) 451 Overweight, 25-<30 156 (35.8) 113 (39.1) 43 (29.3) 452 Obese. ≥ 30 202 (46.3) 125 (43.3) 77 (52.4) 453 Self-reported diabetes 56 (12.8) 36 (12.5) 20 (13.6) 454 Self-reported dyslipidemia 104 (23.9) 77 (26.6) 27 (18.4) 455 Family history of CV disease 30 (7.7) 14 (5.5) 16 (11.9) Mean 10-y Framingham CV risk score 4.0 + 5.63.6 + 5.14.6 + 6.4456 Categorized 10-y Framingham CV risk 457 388 (89.0) 261 (90.3) Low risk. <10% 127 (86.4) 458 Moderate risk, 10%-<20% 40 (9.2) 23 (8.0) 17 (11.6) 459 High risk, ≥20% 8 (1.8) 5 (1.7) 3 (2.0) 460 Physical activity, mod/vig activity, min/wk 461 25 (17.4) <10 83 (19.9) 58 (21.2) 462 10-<75 60 (14.4) 33 (12.0) 27 (18.8) 463 75-<150 85 (20.3) 54 (19.7) 31 (21.5) ≥150 190 (45.5) 129 (47.1) 61 (42.4) 464 Fruit/vegetable consumption, n daily servings 465

TABLE 1 Baseline Characteristics of Enrolled Adults in the FAMILIA Trial Included in This Study

Values are mean ± SD or n (%). *P* values are derived from unpaired Student's *t*-tests for continuous variables, chi-square test and Fischer exact test for binary categorical variables, and the Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel tests for ordered categorical variables. CV = cardiovascular; FAMILIA = Family-based Approach to Promotion of Health-FAMILIA (Project -2); mod/vig = moderate-to-vigorous.

13 (4.5)

173 (59.9)

86 (29.8)

17 (5.9)

22 (5.1)

239 (54.8)

139 (31.9)

36 (8.3)

moderate and high risk, respectively. Measured CV
risk and health factors of adults included in this study
are listed in Supplemental Table 2, whereas those of
all individuals enrolled in the FAMILIA trial grouping
subjects by availability of 3DVUS information are
presented in Supplemental Table 3.

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481**PREVALENCE, EXTENT, AND DISTRIBUTION OF**482**SUBCLINICAL ATHEROSCLEROSIS.** The overall483prevalence of subclinical atherosclerosis assessed by4843DVUS was 8.7%, and the mean global plaque burden485was 5.0 \pm 27.9 mm³ (Table 2). The prevalence of486subclinical atherosclerosis was higher in non-

Hispanic Black participants across all 10-year Framingham CV risk score categories, and this difference was especially prominent in the high-risk category (**Central Illustration**). Overall, the crude odds of having subclinical atherosclerosis were 2 times higher among non-Hispanic Black persons than in the Hispanic subpopulation (OR: 2.11; 95% CI: 1.09-4.08; P = 0.026). Non-Hispanic Black participants had a higher mean disease burden (mean difference in total plaque volume = 6.17 mm³; 95% CI: 0.68-11.66; P = 0.028) and a higher prevalence of multiterritorial disease (P = 0.026).

9 (6.1)

66 (44.9)

53 (36.1)

19 (12.9)

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| | Overall (N = 436) | Hispanic (n = 289) | Non-Hispanic Black (n = 147) | P Valu |
|--|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------|
| Evidence of atherosclerosis | | | | |
| Any territory | 38 (8.7) | 19 (6.6) | 19 (12.9) | 0.02 |
| Carotids | 33 (7.6) | 14 (4.8) | 19 (12.9) | 0.00 |
| Femorals | 18 (4.1) | 11 (3.8) | 7 (4.8) | 0.63 |
| Extent of atherosclerosis | | | | |
| Disease free | 398 (91.3) | 270 (93.4) | 128 (87.1) | 0.02 |
| Focal | 15 (3.4) | 8 (2.8) | 7 (4.8) | |
| Multiterritorial | 23 (5.3) | 11 (3.8) | 12 (8.2) | |
| Burden of atherosclerosis, mm ³ | | | | |
| Carotid and femoral | $\textbf{5.0} \pm \textbf{27.9}$ | $\textbf{2.9} \pm \textbf{19.6}$ | $\textbf{9.0} \pm \textbf{38.8}$ | 0.02 |
| Carotid | $\textbf{3.7} \pm \textbf{22.0}$ | 1.5 ± 13.0 | $\textbf{7.9} \pm \textbf{32.8}$ | 0.00 |
| Femoral | $\textbf{1.3} \pm \textbf{7.8}$ | $\textbf{1.3}\pm\textbf{8.0}$ | 1.2 ± 7.5 | 0.81 |

Values are n (%) or mean \pm SD. P values are derived from unpaired Student's t-test for continuous variables, and chi-square test and Fischer exact test for binary categorical variables.

In the multivariable analysis, race and ethnicity showed an independent association with the presence and extent of subclinical atherosclerosis. Compared with the Hispanic subpopulation, non-Hispanic Black participants had an adjusted OR for having subclinical atherosclerosis of 3.45 (95% CI: 1.44-8.29; P = 0.006). The adjusted mean difference between racial and ethnic groups in total plaque volume was 6.94 mm³ (95% CI: 1.43-12.46 mm³; P = 0.014). Adjustment for individual risk factors instead of Framingham risk score was performed as sensitivity analysis, and associations of race and ethnicity with the presence and extent of subclinical atherosclerosis remained similar.

Separate analyses of carotid and femoral involvement revealed significant differences by race and ethnicity in the carotid territory, with the adjusted odds of finding plaques in the carotids ~6 times higher in non-Hispanic Black participants than in their Hispanic peers (adjusted OR: 5.94; 95% CI: 2.17-16.26; P = 0.001). In contrast, no between-group differences were observed in the femoral arteries (adjusted OR: 1.72; 95% CI: 0.53-5.53; P = 0.364). Similar results were observed for the comparison of atherosclerosis burden; the mean adjusted difference in total plaque volume between the non-Hispanic Black and Hispanic groups was 7.06 mm³ (95% CI: 2.65-11.48 mm³; P = 0.002) in the carotid region and -0.12 mm³ (95% CI: -1.66 to 1.42 mm³; P = 0.877) in the femoral territory.

Intraobserver and interobserver agreement were excellent for the detection of plaque and very good for volume plaque quantification (Supplemental Tables 4 to 6 and Supplemental Figure 1).

DISCUSSION

This cross-sectional study of adult FAMILIA trial participants is one of the first to report the presence of 3DVUS-assessed subclinical atherosclerosis in a young cohort of mainly women, from a socioeconomically disadvantaged community. The study generated a number of key findings, 1) Compared with the Hispanic subcohort, non-Hispanic Black participants had higher rates of hypertension, active smoking, BMI, and self-reported fruit and vegetable consumption. 2) There was an overall low prevalence of subclinical atherosclerosis assessed by carotid and femoral 3DVUS (~9%), and plaques were more frequently found in the carotid than in the femoral arteries. 3) Although 10-year Framingham CV risk scores were similar in the 2 study subcohorts, non-Hispanic Black participants had higher odds of having subclinical atherosclerosis, a higher disease burden, and a higher prevalence of multiterritorial disease. 4) These racial and ethnic differences were mainly driven by differences in the carotid arteries (Figure 2). These findings may help to explain the observed differences in CV-disease prevalence between racial and ethnic groups.

Hispanic and non-Hispanic Black populations in the United States both have a higher prevalence of subclinical atherosclerosis and a higher CV-disease burden than other ethnic groups.¹² Previous studies have also reported an earlier and more diffuse involvement, particularly in the non-Hispanic Black population, which might reflect the presence of more CV risk factors at an earlier age, poorer CV health habits, or other factors such as different genetic predisposition to atherosclerosis.^{13,14} However, data on these underrepresented populations are limited, especially in relation to younger age groups.

In our cohort, non-Hispanic Black individuals had significantly higher blood pressure and a higher prevalence of self-reported smoking, risk factors known to trigger earlier atherosclerotic-plaque formation and adverse epigenetic pathway activations, and subsequent CV disease.^{15,16} Furthermore, both groups had high prevalence rates for other risk factors, including overall diabetes and overweight/ obesity prevalence rates of 12.8% and 82.1%, respectively, potentially contributing to earlier vascular aging.¹⁷ These observations are consistent with National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey statistics showing that the non-Hispanic Black population has the lowest prevalence of ≥ 5 ideal CV health metrics, both in children and adults aged ≥ 20 years.¹² Together, these findings support the notion

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that specific racial and ethnic groups would benefit more from targeted early health promotion programs, CV screening campaigns, and other interventions, such as more intense antismoking health marketing strategies or increased access to cessation treatments, counseling, and medication.¹⁸

Nevertheless, in our study population, subclinical atherosclerosis prevalence and atherosclerotic burden were both higher in the non-Hispanic Black group than in the Hispanic population, despite both groups having similar 10-year Framingham CV risk scores. These findings were consistent across all Framingham CV risk score categories and suggest that nontraditional or unknown risk factors could potentially work through distinct epigenetic path-ways that might explain the earlier and more encroaching progression of subclinical atheroscle-rosis among the non-Hispanic Black population.¹⁹ The extent to which these differences may be heri-table could be addressed through the implementation of genome-wide association study methods to un-derstand the genetic contributions to disease. Nevertheless, evidence of biological differences in disease pathogenesis between racial and ethnic

groups remains limited, and previous work has shown that disease development and progression are at least equally influenced by other factors, such as acculturation, socioeconomic status, educational attainment, behavioral and psychological conditions, food environment, access to health care, and other social determinants of health.^{20,21} As long ago as 1985, the Task Force on Black and Minority Health reported that noticeable health disparities existed among minority communities and that these communities were underrepresented in health research. This report prompted research initiatives such as the Jackson Heart Study and the creation of the CARDIA (Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults), ARIC (Atherosclerotic Risk In Communities), and MESA (Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis) cohorts. These cohorts have since yielded substantial data on the use of noninvasive imaging techniques to assess subclinical atherosclerosis and on the contribution of nonbiological factors to poorer health, including the association between subclinical disease and socioeconomic status.^{20,22}

Although the non-Hispanic Black members of our cohort reported higher employment rates and annual



play an important role in prevention programs in different populations. Abbreviations as in Figure 1.

household income than their Hispanic counterparts, the unemployment rate in the whole study population was approximately 28%, and almost 2 of 3 participants reported an annual household income <\$25,000, just below the \$25,465 2018 U.S. Census Bureau Poverty Threshold for a family of 4 members including 2 children.²³ When we additionally included annual household income in multivariable models, the effect of race and ethnicity remained significant for plaque presence and disease burden (total plaque volume). These findings suggest that household income was not the main driver of the racial and ethnic differences observed in this study.

Although data on subclinical disease in vulnerable communities remain limited, there are numerous noninvasive imaging tests available to assess early atherosclerosis and their use for CV prevention and health promotion is steadily expanding.²⁴ Moreover, some of these techniques have a low-cost; thus, they offer economic savings and the opportunity for largescale implementation in a clinical setting, including screening and follow-up studies. In younger populations, noninvasive imaging also offers opportunities to reclassify risk given that traditional risk scores, mathematically dominated by age and sex, provide insufficient accuracy for the assessment of individual risk. Although 2D imaging has long been used to identify plaques and measure plaque thickness, a major advantage of 3DVUS is that it visualizes and quantifies plaques in the longitudinal and crosssectional planes, providing a more accurate volumetric assessment of disease than 2D ultrasound.²⁵ The analysis of global plaque burden in our cohort revealed a higher disease burden among non-Hispanic Black participants (Table 2). When only individuals with plaque were considered, the median plaque volume overall, including both the carotid and the femoral territories, was 40.3 mm3 (IQR: 13.7-63.0 mm³), whereas for the non-Hispanic Black group the value was 53.5 mm³ (IQR: 13.7-71.2 mm³) and for the Hispanic group 36.8 mm³ (IQR: 10.3-45.7 mm³). In the PESA study, 3DVUS was used to quantify subclinical disease burden in 3,860 adults (mean age: 45 years; 63% male; 99.9% Caucasian).²⁶ This analysis detected extensive atherosclerosis in a considerable number of low-risk individuals. Median global plaque burden was 50.8 mm³ (IQR: 18.7-121.5 mm³) among participants with atherosclerosis and 31.2 mm³ (IQR: 12.7-78.2 mm³) among those aged 40-44 years. These findings suggest possible applications for noninvasive imaging in the more accurate individual diagnosis, intervention, and prevention.²⁷

Our results also show that non-Hispanic Black participants tended to have more extensive

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multiterritorial involvement. Nevertheless, separate 865 analyses of the carotid and femoral territories 866 revealed significant between-group differences in 867 868 atherosclerosis prevalence and disease burden only in 869 the carotid arteries. The disease burden was also 870 generally higher in the carotid than in the femoral 871 arteries. These findings diverge from studies of larger 872 populations such as PESA, in which the iliofemoral 873 territory was more extensively affected.3 The PESA 874 study cohort consisted of office workers at the Banco 875 de Santander headquarters in Madrid, and the higher 876 femoral involvement may have been driven by the presumably longer working hours per day spent in a 877 878 sitting posture, which is associated with low oscilla-879 tory shear stress, high hydrostatic pressure, and disturbed flow caused by vessel curvature.²⁸ Howev-880 881 er, historically, iliofemoral involvement in athero-882 sclerosis has received comparatively little attention, and the differences from the FAMILIA population 883 884 could be explained by other factors, such as differ-885 ences in the age profile or in the proportion of male 886 and female participants. Exploration of the impact of 887 socioeconomic status in the PESA population revealed 888 no significant association between the presence of 889 subclinical atherosclerosis and economic status but 890 did find an association with lower education level, 891 mainly related to higher tobacco consumption, a 892 relationship well-described in the literature and also seen in our study.^{29,30} These results highlighted once 893 again the critical importance of implementing health 894 895 promotion and targeted CV prevention strategies, 896 such as smoking cessation and blood pressure control. Efforts in this area should be targeted at the more 897 affected vulnerable communities, where the largest 898 899 net gains are likely to be made.

900 **STUDY LIMITATIONS.** This is a cross-sectional study; 901 therefore, causal inference cannot be evaluated. Most study participants were at low CV risk, and most were 902 women who are known to have a low prevalence of CV 903 disease, particularly at a younger age.¹² These factors 904 explain the overall low presence of identifiable pla-905 ques. However, this is one of the first studies to assess 906 the presence of subclinical atherosclerosis by 3DVUS in 907 an underrepresented younger population. 908

Given the heterogeneity among racial and ethnic 909 910 groups, assessing associations between self-reported racial or ethnic identity and disease is complex and 911 912 is vulnerable to confounding due to the effects of socioeconomic inequality, environmental disparity, 913 unequal access to care, and other possible emerging 914 or unknown CV risk factors.^{31,32} Although racial and 915 916 ethnic identity may track the existence of certain alleles, these terms tend to denote superficial physical 917 918 and sociocultural characteristics, and a more precise categorization of the distinct geographical origins in an individual's lineage can be obtained through analysis of genetic ancestry, especially given the history of genetic admixture and exchange between people of different ancestry. For example, the term Hispanic usually denotes a mixed European, Native American, and African ancestry.³³ Thus, whereas race is more a proxy for socioenvironmental exposure, genetic ancestry examines fixed characteristics in the genome and may help to improve understanding of health disparities and improve precision medicine in the future.

The population included in this study was from a specific area (Harlem, New York City) with known intrinsic health disparities compared with other areas in New York City. This could, to some extent, limit our results' generalizability. Nevertheless, the population studied was predominantly low-income, with participants mainly of Hispanic or non-Hispanic Black origin. Although data on other potential nontraditional risk factors such as glycated hemoglobin or liproprotein(a) levels was not determined, this study controlled for a battery of risk factors, lifestyle habits, and socioeconomic status for the primary analysis, yielding relevant information on these underrepresented communities.

CONCLUSIONS

For the same predicted CV risk, non-Hispanic Black individuals appear to be more vulnerable than people of Hispanic origin to early subclinical atherosclerosis (particularly in the carotid arteries), potentially placing them at increased risk of clinical CV disease. Despite its limitations, including intrinsic socioenvironmental exposures partially captured by selfreported race and ethnicity, this study contributes to the understanding of higher rates of CV disease observed at an early age in disadvantaged communities. Until underlying biological factors and other undiscovered CV risk factors are better understood and can be addressed by precision medicine, affordable noninvasive imaging techniques such as the 3DVUS can provide valuable information about population disparities and increase the precision of health promotion and prevention programs.

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PERSPECTIVES

COMPETENCY IN SYSTEMS-BASED PRACTICE: Atherosclerosis affects non-Hispanic Black individuals earlier in life and more severely than members of other racial and ethnic groups, and may contribute to racial and ethnic disparities in cardiovascular outcomes.

TRANSLATIONAL OUTLOOK: Further research is warranted to identify risk factors that explain the excess risk of cardiovascular disease in certain racial and ethnic groups.

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| 1206 | adults from a vulnerable community enrolled in the FAMILIA (Family-based Approach to Promotion | | 1260 |
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| 1208 | atherosclerosis prevalence was 12.9% among non-Hispanic Black participants and 6.6% among | | 1201 |
| 1200 | those identifying as Hispanic. After multivariable adjustment, non-Hispanic Black participants | | 1202 |
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| Action | Adobe Reader version 9 | Adobe Reader version X and XI | | |
| Insert text | Click the 'Text Edits' button Text Edits • on the Commenting tool bar. Click to set the cursor location in the text and simply start typing. The text will appear in a commenting box. You may also cut-and-paste text from another file into the commenting box. Close the box by clicking on 'x' in the top right-hand corner. | Click the 'Insert Text' icon T on the Comment tool bar. Click to set the cursor location in the text and simply start typing. The text will appear in a commenting box. You may also cut-and-paste text from another file into the commenting box. Close the box by clicking on '_' in the top right-hand corner. | | |
| Replace text | Click the 'Text Edits' button Text Edits • on the Commenting tool bar. To highlight the text to be replaced, click and drag the cursor over the text. Then simply type in the replacement text. The replacement text will appear in a commenting box. You may also cut-and-paste text from another file into this box. To replace formatted text (an equation for example) please <u>Attach a file</u> (see below). | Click the 'Replace (Ins)' icon on the Comment tool bar. To highlight the text to be replaced, click and drag the cursor over the text. Then simply type in the replacement text. The replacement text will appear in a commenting box. You may also cut-and-paste text from another file into this box. To replace formatted text (an equation for example) please <u>Attach a file</u> (see below). | | |
| Remove text | Click the 'Text Edits' button on the Commenting tool bar. Click and drag over the text to be deleted. Then press the delete button on your keyboard. The text to be deleted will then be struck through. | Click the 'Strikethrough (Del)' icon on the Comment tool bar. Click and drag over the text to be deleted. Then press the delete button on your keyboard. The text to be deleted will then be struck through. | | |
| Highlight text/ make a comment | Click on the 'Highlight' button on the Commenting tool bar. Click and drag over the text. To make a comment, double click on the highlighted text and simply start typing. | Click on the 'Highlight Text' icon on the Comment tool bar. Click and drag over the text. To make a comment, double click on the highlighted text and simply start typing. | | |
| Attach a file | Click on the 'Attach a File' button on the Commenting tool bar. Click on the figure, table or formatted text to be replaced. A window will automatically open allowing you to attach the file. To make a comment, go to 'General' in the 'Properties' window, and then 'Description'. A graphic will appear in the PDF file indicating the insertion of a file. | Click on the 'Attach File' icon on the Comment tool bar. Click on the figure, table or formatted text to be replaced. A window will automatically open allowing you to attach the file. A graphic will appear indicating the insertion of a file. | | |
| Leave a note/ comment | Click on the 'Note Tool' button Note Tool on the Commenting tool bar. Click to set the location of the note on the document and simply start typing. Do not use this feature to make text edits. | Click on the 'Add Sticky Note' icon on the Comment tool bar. Click to set the location of the note on the document and simply start typing. <u>Do</u> not use this feature to make text edits. | | |

| | HOW TO | |
|-----------------------|--|--|
| Action | Adobe Reader version 9 | Adobe Reader version X and XI |
| Review | To review your changes, click on the 'Show' button on the Commenting tool bar. Choose 'Show Comments List'. Navigate by clicking on a correction in the list. Alternatively, double click on any mark-up to open the commenting box. | Your changes will appear automatically in a list below the Comment tool bar. Navigate by clicking on a correction in the list. Alternatively, double click on any mark-up to open the commenting box. |
| Undo/delete change | To undo any changes made, use the right click button on your mouse (for PCs, Ctrl-Click for the Mac). Alternatively click on 'Edit' in the main Adobe menu and then 'Undo'. You can also delete edits using the right click (Ctrl-click on the Mac) and selecting 'Delete'. | To undo any changes made, use the right click button on your mouse (for PCs, Ctrl-Click for the Mac). Alternatively click on 'Edit' in the main Adobe menu and then 'Undo'. You can also delete edits using the right click (Ctrl-click on the Mac) and selecting 'Delete'. |

SEND YOUR ANNOTATED PDF FILE BACK TO ELSEVIER

Save the annotations to your file and return as instructed by Elsevier. Before returning, please ensure you have answered any questions raised on the Query Form and that you have inserted all corrections: later inclusion of any subsequent corrections cannot be guaranteed.

FURTHER POINTS

- Any (grey) halftones (photographs, micrographs, etc.) are best viewed on screen, for which they are optimized, and your local printer may not be able to output the greys correctly.
- If the PDF files contain colour images, and if you do have a local colour printer available, then it will be likely that you will not be able to correctly reproduce the colours on it, as local variations can occur.
- If you print the PDF file attached, and notice some 'non-standard' output, please check if the problem is also present on screen. If the correct printer driver for your printer is not installed on your PC, the printed output will be distorted.