

1 **Predicting Post One-year Durability of Glucose-lowering Monotherapies in Patients**
2 **with Newly-diagnosed Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus – A MASTERMIND Precision Medicine**
3 **Approach (UKPDS NN <number to be added on acceptance >)**

4

5 Olorunsola F. Agbaje,¹ Ruth L. Coleman,¹ Andrew T. Hattersley,² Angus G. Jones,²

6 Ewan R. Pearson,³ Beverley M. Shields,² and Rury R. Holman,¹

7 for the MASTERMIND consortium

8

9 ¹Diabetes Trials Unit–University of Oxford–Oxford–U.K.

10 ²Institute of Biomedical & Clinical Science–University of Exeter Medical School–Exeter–U.K.

11 ³Medical Research Institute–University of Dundee–Dundee–U.K.

12

13 **Corresponding author:**

14 Olorunsola F. Agbaje

15 Diabetes Trials Unit–OCDEM

16 Churchill Hospital

17 Oxford OX3 7LJ

18 United Kingdom

19 Email: olorunsola.agbaje@dtu.ox.ac.uk

20 Tel: +44 (0) 1865 857116

21

22 **Abstract**

23 **Aims** Predicting likely durability of glucose-lowering therapies for people with type 2
24 diabetes (T2D) could help inform individualised therapeutic choices.

25 **Methods** We used data from UKPDS patients with newly-diagnosed T2D randomised to
26 first-line glucose-lowering monotherapy with chlorpropamide–glibenclamide–basal insulin or
27 metformin. In 2,339 participants who achieved one-year HbA_{1c} values <7.5% (<59
28 mmol/mol)–we assessed relationships between one-year characteristics and time to
29 monotherapy-failure (HbA_{1c} ≥7.5% or requiring second-line therapy). Model validation was
30 performed using bootstrap sampling.

31 **Results** Follow-up was median (IQR) 11.0 (8.0–14.0) years. Monotherapy-failure occurred
32 in 72%–82%–75% and 79% for those randomised to chlorpropamide–glibenclamide–basal
33 insulin or metformin respectively–after median 4.5 (3.0–6.6)–3.7 (2.6–5.6)–4.2 (2.7–6.5) and
34 3.8 (2.6– 5.2) years. Time-to-monotherapy-failure was predicted primarily by HbA_{1c} and BMI
35 values–with other risk factors varying by type of monotherapy–with predictions to within ±2.5
36 years for 55%–60%–56% and 57% of the chlorpropamide–glibenclamide–basal insulin and
37 metformin monotherapy cohorts respectively.

38 **Conclusions** Post one-year glycaemic durability can be predicted robustly in individuals
39 with newly-diagnosed T2D who achieve HbA_{1c} values <7.5% one year after commencing
40 traditional monotherapies. Such information could be used to help guide glycaemic
41 management for individual patients.

42

43 **Abbreviations**

44	AFT	Accelerated failure time
45	CC	Complete case
46	eGFR	Estimated glomerular filtration rate
47	FPG	Fasting plasma glucose
48	MDRD	Modification of Diet in Renal Disease
49	MICD	Multiply-imputed complete data
50	T2D	Type 2 diabetes mellitus
51	UKPDS	UK Prospective Diabetes Study

52

53 **Key words:** Precision medicine–modelling–durability–glucose-lowering agents–
54 monotherapy failure

55

56 **Abstract:** 199 words (Max 200)

57 **Text:** 2289 (Max 5000)

58 **References:** 11 (Max 50)

59

60

61 **Introduction**

62 The ADA/EASD Position Statement for the management of hyperglycaemia in type 2
63 diabetes (T2D) recommends a patient-centred approach to identifying the most appropriate
64 glucose-lowering therapy for a given individual.[1] However–no specific guidance is provided
65 as to how best to select the most durable glycaemic agent for any one individual. One
66 strategy which could help make the most effective use of available glucose-lowering
67 therapies is to target treatment to those who are most likely to respond to therapy–an
68 approach known as stratified–or precision medicine.[2]

69 At a population level–mean HbA_{1c} levels in people with newly-diagnosed T2D
70 decrease initially with therapy and then rise over time–necessitating multiple glucose-
71 lowering therapies.[3] This biphasic pattern is sometimes referred to as the “Nike Curve” as
72 it resembles the Nike "swoosh" trademark. While substantial research has been published
73 investigating potential predictors of initial response to glucose lowering therapy–whether
74 durability of individual therapies varies by participant characteristics and can be predicted
75 has not been previously investigated. The MRC/APBI funded STRatification and Extreme
76 Response Mechanism IN Diabetes (MASTERMIND) consortium felt that the biphasic
77 glucose curve in T2D would best be modelled by addressing the initial glycaemic drop with
78 therapy and then–separately–its subsequent rise. This paper examines the development of
79 models that predict the rise in glucose values during the second upward phase–taking into
80 account the first-year response. Individual patient upward HbA_{1c} trajectories are difficult to
81 predict given their often apparently random variation–although a DIRECT study of the
82 clinical and genetic determinants of glycaemic progression in patients with T2D suggested
83 that increased triglyceride and low HDL-cholesterol levels were independently associated
84 with an increased rate of progression of diabetes.[4] In clinical practice, however, it remains
85 unclear at an individual patient level which factors most affect durability of glycaemic
86 response to glucose-lowering therapies.

87 Potential predictors were investigated for the post one-year glycaemic durability of
88 the glucose-lowering monotherapies allocated at random as first-line therapy to patients with

89 newly-diagnosed T2D enrolled into the UK Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS).[5] UKPDS
90 participants were assigned at random to monotherapy with chlorpropamide, glibenclamide,
91 basal insulin or metformin (only if >120% ideal body weight). In those who achieved
92 acceptable HbA_{1c} values at one year, we sought to predict the time at which their glycaemic
93 control would worsen to the point when the addition of second-line glucose-lowering therapy
94 would likely be indicated by many guidelines.

95

96 **Subjects**

97 We used data from UKPDS patients. Details of UKPDS recruitment, inclusion and exclusion
98 criteria, protocol and trial results have been published.[5-7] Briefly, patients with newly-
99 diagnosed T2D who were allocated to the UKPDS intensive glucose control arm were
100 randomised to first-line glucose-lowering monotherapy with chlorpropamide (a first-
101 generation sulfonylurea), glibenclamide (a second generation sulfonylurea), basal insulin or
102 metformin (only if >120% ideal body weight). The aim of the intensive glucose control arm
103 was to achieve and maintain fasting plasma glucose (FPG) levels <6.0 mmol/l by increasing
104 monotherapy doses as necessary to the maximum permitted or tolerated, based on 3-
105 monthly FPG measurements. Glycaemic rescue, with the addition of a second protocol-
106 specified glucose-lowering agent, was only permitted if repeated FPG values were >15.0
107 mmol/l or if hyperglycaemic symptoms had become unacceptable. The participants selected
108 for this study were those at one-year who remained on their allocated monotherapy, had an
109 HbA_{1c}<7.5% (<59 mmol/mol) at 1 year, and who had the requisite analytic data available.

110

111 **Materials and Methods**

112 For the purposes of this analysis monotherapy failure, *i.e.* the need for a second line
113 glucose-lowering therapy, was defined as an HbA_{1c} ≥7.5% (≥59 mmol/mol) or the UKPDS
114 protocol-driven requirement for glycaemic rescue. Post one-year time-to-monotherapy-
115 failure times were calculated as the interval between the one-year visit and the time when
116 either of the indications for monotherapy failure were met. As HbA_{1c} values were only

117 measured annually,[5] we used linear interpolation to estimate time points between visits
118 when values likely became $\geq 7.5\%$ (≥ 59 mmol/mol).

119 The two outcomes of interest for each monotherapy were: 1) The median post one-
120 year time-to-monotherapy-failure; 2) The degree to which this time point could be predicted
121 from the one-year demographic, phenotypic and laboratory data available. We developed a
122 BASIC model using only those variables likely to be available in routine clinical practice, *i.e.*
123 HbA_{1c}, age, sex, ethnicity, smoking, body mass index (BMI), plasma creatinine, total
124 cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol (LDL-C), HDL-cholesterol (HDL-C), plasma triglycerides and
125 estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR), and an EXTENDED model that included
126 additional variables collected as part of the UKPDS protocol, *i.e.* fasting plasma glucose
127 (FPG), fasting plasma insulin (FPI), HOMA2_%B, HOMA2_%S and urinary creatinine.

128

129 *Statistical Analysis*

130 Complete case (CC) and multiple-imputed complete data (MICD) datasets were used to
131 construct the BASIC and the EXTENDED models, with missing data imputed by multiple
132 imputation function in R (aregImpute). The mechanisms and patterns of missing data were
133 investigated by employing further R functions (naclus and nplot) for a cluster analysis
134 investigating missing values status and graphical representation of missing patterns. CC and
135 MICD datasets from each monotherapy cohort were used to develop models and validated
136 using a bootstrapping procedure. MICD sensitivity analyses were used to check that any
137 missing data did not bias complete case model estimates. HOMA2_%B and HOMA2_%S
138 values were derived from FPG and FPI levels using the HOMA2 Calculator,[8] and eGFR
139 values were calculated using the Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD) formula.[9]

140 Univariate accelerated failure time (AFT) regression modelling was used to
141 investigate the relationship between variables measured at one year and the subsequent
142 time-to-monotherapy-failure, based on a log-logistic three-parameter distribution. We
143 optimised potential associations by examining alternative distributions, *e.g.* log, square,
144 square root, *etc.*, and the best fit with the simplest form for clinical interpretation chosen. A

145 statistical significance level of $p \leq 0.1$ was used in univariate AFT regression analyses to
146 select which variables would be included in multivariate AFT regression analyses.

147 A multivariable AFT regression was performed in separate prognostic models for
148 each monotherapy cohort to assess independent associations between one-year covariates
149 and subsequent time-to-monotherapy-failure. The final model variables were decided by
150 backward selection procedures during which individual model outputs (regression
151 coefficients, p-values, Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion
152 (BIC), and log likelihood value were monitored. All models were validated internally for their
153 discrimination and predictive abilities using bootstrap sampling. In addition, the relative
154 performance of the basic and extended models was evaluated by comparing their estimated
155 information criteria (AIC and BIC).

156 All statistical analyses were performed with Regression Modelling Strategies (RMS)
157 Package (Version 5.0-0, 2016-10-31), R-3.4.3 for Windows (Copyright© 2015, The R
158 Foundation for Statistical Computing) and STATA version 15.0 (StataCorp LP 4905 Lakeway
159 Drive College Station, Texas 77845-4512 USA).

160

161 **Results**

162 Of the 5102 patients enrolled into the UKPDS, 2110 (41%) were included in the MICD
163 dataset who fulfilled our criteria for this analysis and who had achieved an HbA1c $< 7.5\%$
164 (< 59 mmol/mol) at one year. They had been assigned at random to chlorpropamide (N=573,
165 27%), glibenclamide (N=462, 22%), basal insulin (N=828, 39%) or metformin (N=247, 18%)
166 with a median (IQR) post one-year follow-up of 11.0 (8.0, 14.0) years (**Supplementary**
167 **Appendix Fig. S1**). There were too few patients allocated to glipizide (N=170) in UKPDS
168 Glucose Study II[5] to be included in this analysis. **Table 1** lists the one-year variables
169 utilised, their summary statistics, the proportions of missing data and the modelling
170 approaches used. There were no missing values for age, sex, race or smoking, whilst the
171 proportions of missing data for total cholesterol, LDL-C, HDL-C, triglycerides, creatinine,

172 fasting plasma glucose, insulin, eGFR, HOMA2_%B and HOMA2_%S ranged from 9% to
173 27%.

174 In the MICD data set, post one-year monotherapy-failure occurred in 76% (1607/2110)
175 participants, comprising 72% (415/573) for chlorpropamide, 82% (378/462) for
176 glibenclamide, 75% (620/828) for basal insulin, and 79% (194/247) for metformin. The
177 overall proportion of these participants requiring glycaemic rescue *per protocol* was 4.7%
178 (99/2110), being 7.7% (44/573) for chlorpropamide, 9.7% (45/462) for glibenclamide, 0.2%
179 (2/828) for basal insulin and 3.2% (8/247) for metformin.

180 The number of patients in the complete case data set was 1438 (82% of the MICD dataset)
181 with the proportions randomised to each glucose-lowering monotherapy being 70%
182 (399/573) for chlorpropamide, 67% (318/462) for glibenclamide, 67% (557/828) for basal
183 insulin and 66% (164/247) for metformin.

184

185 *BASIC model predictors of time-to-monotherapy-failure using routinely available data*

186 Overall, the median (IQR) time-to-monotherapy-failure was 4.0 (2.0, 8.0) years. This time
187 differed by monotherapy being 4.5 (3.0, 6.6) years for chlorpropamide, 3.7 (2.6, 5.6) years
188 for glibenclamide, 4.2 (2.7, 6.) years for basal insulin and 3.8 (2.6, 5.2) years for metformin.
189 In univariate analyses, time-to-monotherapy-failure increased with higher age, lower BMI,
190 male sex and being White Caucasian. (**Supplementary Appendix Table S1**).

191 In the CC multivariate BASIC model, one-year HbA_{1c} and BMI were predictive factors
192 for all monotherapies, with higher values associated with a shorter time-to-monotherapy-
193 failure (**Table 2**). Additional factors by monotherapy cohort were: chlorpropamide (age, sex,
194 ethnicity, smoking, LDL-C and triglycerides; glibenclamide (age and triglycerides); basal
195 insulin (age, total cholesterol and HDL-C); metformin (none). The magnitude and direction of
196 the different effect sizes are listed in **Table 2** as failure time ratios with 95% confidence
197 limits. The findings for the equivalent BASIC MICD multivariate model analyses were all
198 similar (**Supplementary Appendix Table S2**).

199

200 *EXTENDED model predictors of time-to-monotherapy-failure*

201 The median time-to-monotherapy-failure predicted by the *extended* model with additional
202 variables for each monotherapy cohort was 4.7 (3.0, 6.9) years for chlorpropamide, 4.0 (2.6,
203 6.0) years for glibenclamide, 3.9 (2.6, 6.1) years for insulin, and 3.8 (2.6, 5.2) years for
204 metformin. (**Table 2**).

205 In the CC multivariate EXTENDED model, one-year HbA_{1c} and BMI were predictive factors
206 for all monotherapies, with higher values of both associated with a shorter time-to-
207 monotherapy-failure. Additional factors by monotherapy cohort were: chlorpropamide (age,
208 ethnicity, smoking, LDL-C, FPG and HOMA2_%B); glibenclamide (age, ethnicity and FPG);
209 basal insulin (age, smoking, FPI, HOMA2_%B and HOMA2_%S); metformin (none). The
210 magnitude and direction of the different effect sizes are listed in **Table 2**. The findings for the
211 equivalent EXTENDED model MICD analyses were all similar (**Supplementary Appendix**
212 **Table S2**).

213 The results of the internal validation, the discrimination and calibration bootstrap
214 corrected indices (Nagelkerke R^2 , Somers' D[Dxy], and shrinkage factor [Slope]) are shown
215 in **Table 2**. The discrimination indices, R^2 and Dxy, range from 15.0%–29.3% and 0.3058-
216 0.4062 across cohorts and models, respectively. The bootstrap corrected slopes were
217 greater than 90% across cohorts and models. Similar results were obtained for the MICD
218 models (**Supplementary Appendix Table S2**).

219 The smaller AIC and BIC values for the *extended* models show that they fit the data better
220 for all the monotherapies than the *basic* models, except for metformin.

221

222 *Predictive equations*

223 The predictive equations for individual patient time-to-monotherapy-failure derived from the
224 BASIC and EXTENDED models are shown in **Supplementary Appendix Figures S2 and**
225 **S3** respectively. The performance of these equations for the BASIC and EXTENDED models
226 are depicted in **Fig. 1 and Supplementary Appendix Fig. S4**, comparing the differences

227 between predicted and observed time-to-monotherapy-failure with the observed time-to-
228 monotherapy-failure for each monotherapy cohort. For the BASIC model, the post one-year
229 time-to-monotherapy-failure was predictable to within ± 2.5 years for 55%, 60%, 56% and
230 57% of individuals allocated to chlorpropamide, glibenclamide, basal insulin and metformin
231 monotherapy respectively. The corresponding proportions for the EXTENDED model were
232 56%, 61%, 59% and 57% respectively.

233 Median time-to-monotherapy-failure predictions, calculated for each monotherapy for
234 five example patients using the BASIC model, are illustrated in **Table 3**, showing a different
235 rank order for monotherapy durability depending on patient's one-year characteristics. The
236 equivalent predictions for the EXTENDED models are shown in **Supplementary Appendix**
237 **Fig. S5**.

238

239 Discussion

240 These analyses show that the post one-year durability of glycaemic control for the majority
241 of individuals with newly-diagnosed T2D who have an HbA_{1c} <7.5% one year after
242 commencing treatment with chlorpropamide, glibenclamide, basal insulin or metformin
243 monotherapies, can be estimated to within ± 2.5 years for around half of the patients in each
244 monotherapy cohort. Application of the predictive equations showed that a hierarchy of
245 glycaemic durability can be derived using routinely available clinical information. Such
246 information could be used in the management of tyT2D to help guide therapeutic choices for
247 individual patients.

248 It is of interest that for most of the monotherapies studied it is largely the same
249 factors that predict glycaemic durability, with a lower one-year HbA_{1c}, lower one-year BMI
250 and higher age of diabetes diagnosis onset favouring greater durability. This fits with the
251 previous paper by Zhou *et al* [4] that showed higher BMI, HbA_{1c} and a younger age of
252 diagnosis were associated with more rapid progression to insulin. A key finding of our study
253 is that these factors have a different quantitative impact on different therapies explaining why
254 there is overall a difference in durability between therapies. Previous studies have

255 compared glycaemic durability with different agents [11] but have not examined the factors
256 which are predictive for individuals.

257 The strengths of these analyses include the randomised allocation of therapies from
258 diagnosis of T2D and the unusually long follow-up period as a consequence of the UKPDS
259 protocol requirement for glycaemic rescue only when FPG values became >15.0 mmol/l or
260 hyperglycaemic symptoms became unacceptable. Limitations include the lack of data for
261 other indicators possibly related to the modes of action of the therapies examined, e.g.
262 fasting and postprandial C-peptide levels which were not collected in the UKPDS, as well as
263 the relatively small sample sizes. The proportions of missing data could also be a concern
264 but these were either missing completely at random, or missing at random, with the MICD
265 sensitivity analyses showing no evidence of missing data biasing the results. The two
266 sulfonylureas (chlorpropamide and glibenclamide) analysed here are no longer
267 recommended in routine clinical practice but the methodology we have used could be
268 applied to more contemporaneous datasets to estimate the likely durability of newer
269 glucose-lowering agents.

270 Routinely available phenotypic and laboratory data in people with newly-diagnosed T2D,
271 who have achieved an HbA_{1c} <7.5% (<59 mmol/mol) on monotherapy with chlorpropamide,
272 glibenclamide, basal insulin or metformin at one year after diagnosis, can be used to
273 estimate the likely glycaemic durability of continued monotherapy. Such information could be
274 used to help guide individualised patient management.

275

276

277 **Acknowledgments**

278 We thank Amanda Adler for comments on the manuscript.

279

280 **Funding.**

281 This study was funded the UK Medical Research Council as part of the MASTERMIND
282 consortium funding MR-K005707-1 and supported by the National Institute for Health
283 Resources (NIHR) Biomedical Research Centre, Oxford. E.R.P. holds a Wellcome Trust
284 New Investigator award. A.G.J. is an NIHR Clinician Scientist. A.T.H is a NIHR Senior
285 Investigator and a Wellcome Trust Senior investigator. B.S. and A.T.H received
286 additional support for the Exeter NIHR Clinical Research Facility. R.R.H. is a NIHR
287 Emeritus Senior Investigator. The funder of the trial had no role in study design, data
288 collection, data analysis, data interpretation, or writing of the report. The views
289 expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the NHS, the NIHR or
290 the Department of Health.

291

292 **Duality of Interest.**

293 No potential conflicts of interest relevant to this article were reported.

294

295 **Author Contributions.**

296 O. F. A. and R.R.H conceived the study and wrote the manuscript.

297 O. F. A. and R.L.C carried out the analyses.

298 O. F. A., R.L.C., A.T.H., A.G.J., E.R.P., B.M.S. and R.R.H contributed to the discussion
299 and reviewed or edited the manuscript.

300 R.R.H. is the guarantor of this work and, as such, had full access to all the data in the
301 study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data
302 analysis.

303

304

305 **References**

- 306 1. Melanie J. Davies, David A. D'Alessio, Judith Fradkin Walter N. Kernan, Chantal
307 Mathieu, Geltrude Mingrone, Peter Rossing, Apostolos Tsapas, Deborah J. Wexler,
308 John B. Buse. Management of hyperglycaemia in type 2 diabetes, 2018. A consensus
309 report by the American Diabetes Association (ADA) and the European Association for
310 the Study of Diabetes (EASD). *Diabetologia* 2018; 61:2461-2498.
- 311 2. Pearson ER. Personalized medicine in diabetes: the role of 'omics' and biomarkers.
312 *Diabet Med.* 2016;33:712-7.
- 313 3. Turner RC, Cull CA, Frighi V, Holman RR. Glycemic Control With Diet, Sulfonylurea,
314 Metformin, or Insulin in Patients With Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus: Progressive
315 Requirement for Multiple Therapies (UKPDS 49). *JAMA* 1999;281:2005-2012
- 316 4. Zhou K, Donnelly LA, Morris AD, Franks PW, Jennison C, Palmer CN, Pearson ER.
317 Clinical and genetic determinants of progression of type 2 diabetes: a DIRECT study.
318 *Diabetes Care.* 2014;37:718-724
- 319 5. Turner RC, Holman RR, Matthews DR, Oakes SF, Bassett PA, Stratton IM, Cull CA,
320 Manley SE, Frighi V. UK Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS). VIII. Study design,
321 progress and performance. *Diabetologia* 1991;34:877-890.
- 322 6. Intensive blood-glucose control with sulphonylureas or insulin compared with
323 conventional treatment and risk of complications in patients with type 2 diabetes
324 (UKPDS 33). UK Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS) Group. *Lancet.*
325 1998;352(9131):837-53.
- 326 7. UKPDS Group. Effect of intensive blood-glucose control with metformin on
327 complications in overweight patients with type 2 diabetes (UKPDS 34). *Lancet*
328 1998;352:854-865.
- 329 8. <http://www.dtu.ox.ac.uk/homacalculator/> (last accessed 30th October 2017)
- 330 9. Levey AS, Bosch JP, Lewis JB, Greene T, Rogers N, Roth D (March 1999). "A more
331 accurate method to estimate glomerular filtration rate from serum creatinine: a new

332 prediction equation. Modification of Diet in Renal Disease Study Group". Annals of
333 Internal Medicine. 130 (6): 461–70.

334 10. Greenland S. Modeling and variable selection in epidemiologic analysis. American
335 Journal of Public Health. 1989;79(3):340-9.

336 11. Kahn SE, Haffner SM, Heise MA, Herman WH, Holman RR, Jones NP, Kravitz BG,
337 Lachin JM, O'Neill MC, Zinman B, Viberti G for the ADOPT Study Group. Glycemic
338 Durability of Rosiglitazone, Metformin, or Glyburide Monotherapy. N Eng J Med
339 2006;355:2427-43

340

341

342 **Figure Legend**

343 **Fig. 1.** Comparison of the differences between the complete case *basic* model predicted and
344 the observed time-to-monotherapy-failure (observed minus predicted), with the observed
345 time-to-monotherapy-failure. Panel A: Chlorpropamide, Panel B: Glibenclamide, Panel C:
346 Basal insulin, Panel D: Metformin. The dotted horizontal lines depict ± 2.5 years.

347

Table 1. Variables included in the *basic* and *extended* models.

Variable	Summary statistics*	Number with missing data n (%)				Modelling methodology
		Chlorpropamide [573]	Glibenclamide [462]	Insulin [828]	Metformin [247]	
HbA _{1c} (%)	5.9 (0.8)	573 (0%)	462 (0%)	828 (0%)	247 (0%)	Linear
Age (years)	54 (47.859.7)	573 (0%)	462 (0%)	828 (0%)	247 (0%)	Categorical
Sex		573 (0%)	462 (0%)	828 (0%)	247 (0%)	Categorical
Male	1128 (61.3%)					
Female	712 (38.7%)					
Ethnicity		573 (0%)	462 (0%)	828 (0%)	247 (0%)	Categorical
Caucasian	1554 (84.5%)					
Non-Caucasian	286 (15.5%)					
Smoking		573 (0%)	462 (0%)	828 (0%)	247 (0%)	Categorical
Non-Smoker	640 (34.8%)					
Ex-Smoker	647 (35.2%)					
Smoker	553 (30.0%)					
BMI (kg/m ²)	27.3 (24.7–30.8)	521 (9%)	409 (11%)	751 (9%)	214 (13%)	Logarithm
Plasma creatinine (µmol/L)	83.8 (17.2)	444 (23%)	370 (20%)	645 (22%)	189 (23%)	Linear
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.4 (1.1)	439 (23%)	353 (24%)	632 (24%)	179 (28%)	Linear
LDL-cholesterol (mmol/L)	3.5 (1)	433 (24%)	347 (25%)	616 (26%)	175 (29%)	Linear
HDL-cholesterol (mmol/L)	1.1 (0.3)	434 (24%)	350 (24%)	623 (25%)	176 (29%)	Linear
Plasma triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.5 (1.1–2.1)	436 (24%)	345 (25%)	624 (25%)	181 (27%)	Logarithm
eGFR (ml/min/1.73m ²)	79.5 (18.1)	444 (23%)	370 (20%)	645 (22%)	189 (23%)	Linear
Extended Model						
(additional variables)						
Fasting plasma glucose (mmol/l)	6.8 (1.5)	516 (10%)	407 (12%)	747 (10%)	212 (14%)	Linear
Fasting plasma insulin (mu/l)	13.9 (9.6–19.6)	440 (23%)	355 (23%)	618 (25%)	183 (26%)	Logarithm
HOMA2_%B	80.9 (57.8–112.3)	430 (25%)	349 (24%)	601 (27%)	180 (27%)	Logarithm
HOMA2_%S	53.5 (37.8–76.2)	430 (25%)	349 (24%)	601 (27%)	180 (27%)	Logarithm
Urinary creatinine (µmol/l)	10.3 (5.9)	447 (22%)	365 (21%)	640 (23%)	189 (23%)	Linear

*Summary statistics are mean (SD) or median (IQR) for continuous variables, and number (%) for categorical variables

Table 2. Complete case (CC) multivariate analyses showing monotherapy failure time ratios and 95% confidence intervals.

Basic Model Variables	Chlorpropamide		Glibenclamide		Insulin		Metformin	
	TR [95% CI]	P-Value	TR [95% CI]	P-Value	TR [95% CI]	P-Value	TR [95% CI]	P-Value
HbA _{1c} (%)	0.65 [0.57–0.74]	0.000	0.56 [0.49–0.65]	0.000	0.54 [0.48–0.61]	0.000	0.56 [0.46–0.69]	0.000
Age (years)								
<40	1		1		1		1	
40–44	1.32 [0.82–2.14]	0.256	1.45 [0.76–2.77]	0.254	1.17 [0.71–1.93]	0.536	-	-
45–49	1.39 [0.88–2.20]	0.160	1.58 [0.86–2.88]	0.139	1.10 [0.70–1.72]	0.694	-	-
50–54	1.68 [1.12–2.52]	0.012	1.89 [1.05–3.40]	0.035	1.56 [1.00–2.42]	0.049	-	-
55–59	1.60 [1.07–2.40]	0.023	2.06 [1.15–3.69]	0.015	1.81 [1.16–2.82]	0.009	-	-
60–64	1.95 [1.30–2.91]	0.001	2.14 [1.21–3.80]	0.009	1.99 [1.27–3.11]	0.003	-	-
>64	2.02 [1.15–3.53]	0.014	2.31 [1.15–4.66]	0.019	1.82 [1.09–3.05]	0.022	-	-
Sex								
Male	1		1		1		1	
Female	1.18 [0.95–1.48]	0.136	-	-	-	-	-	-
Race								
Caucasian	1		1		1		1	
Non-Caucasian	0.71 [0.53–0.94]	0.016	-	-	-	-	-	-
Smoking								
Non-Smoker	1		1		1		1	
Ex-Smoker	1.36 [1.04–1.79]	0.027	-	-	-	-	-	-
Smoker	0.97 [0.75–1.26]	0.838	-	-	-	-	-	-
Log BMI (kg/m ²)	0.27 [0.15–0.49]	0.000	0.24 [0.12–0.46]	0.000	0.37 [0.22–0.62]	0.000	0.31 [0.11–0.93]	0.037
Plasma creatinine (μmol/L)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	-	-	-	-	0.93 [0.86–1.02]	0.112	-	-
LDL-C (mmol/L)	0.90 [0.81–1.01]	0.067	-	-	-	-	-	-
HDL-C (mmol/L)	-	-	-	-	1.36 [0.96–1.92]	0.085	-	-
Log Triglycerides (mmol/L)	0.80 [0.65–1.00]	0.047	0.86 [0.70–1.06]	0.169	-	-	-	-
eGFR (ml/min/1.73m ²)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Information criteria</i>								
AIC	1068.193		894.8231		1564.809		573.8394	
BIC	1013.907		1022.962		1512.145		573.8394	
<i>Bootstrap internal validation corrected-index</i>								
R ²	0.1983		0.2359		0.2019		0.1503	
Somers' Dxy	0.3420		0.3655		0.3518		0.3058	
Calibration slope	0.9074		0.9377		0.9427		0.9948	
<i>Model estimated failure time</i>								
Median[IQR]	4.5 [3.0–6.6]		3.7 [2.6–5.6]		4.2 [2.7–6.5]		3.8 [2.6–5.2]	

Extended Model Variables									
HbA _{1c} (%)	0.71 [0.62–0.81]	0.000	0.65 [0.58–0.74]	0.000	0.56 [0.50–0.63]	0.000	0.56 [0.46–0.69]	0.000	
Age (years)									
<40	1		1		1		1		
40-44	1.21 [0.76–1.91]	0.422	1.39 [0.80–2.42]	0.240	1.21 [0.75–1.95]	0.461	-	-	-
45-49	1.31 [0.85–2.03]	0.218	1.62 [0.97–2.70]	0.063	1.18 [0.77–1.82]	0.533	-	-	-
50-54	1.54 [1.04–2.26]	0.029	1.55 [0.94–2.55]	0.084	1.64 [1.08–2.51]	0.031	-	-	-
55-59	1.54 [1.04–2.26]	0.031	1.62 [0.99–2.65]	0.053	1.82 [1.19–2.77]	0.010	-	-	-
60-64	1.86 [1.26–2.74]	0.002	1.65 [1.02–2.68]	0.043	1.96 [1.28–3.01]	0.004	-	-	-
>64	1.77 [1.04–3.03]	0.037	1.66 [0.93–2.99]	0.089	1.88 [1.15–3.07]	0.019	-	-	-
Sex									
Male	1		1		1		1		
Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Race									
Caucasian	1		1		1		1		
Non-Caucasian	0.70 [0.54–0.92]	0.010	0.69 [0.53–0.89]	0.005	-	-	-	-	-
Smoking									
Non-Smoker	1		1		1		1		
Ex-Smoker	1.15 [0.90–1.47]	0.269	-	-	0.91 [0.74–1.12]	0.399	-	-	-
Smoker	0.84 [0.66–1.07]	0.151	-	-	0.77 [0.63–0.95]	0.014	-	-	-
Log-BMI (kg/m ²)	0.26 [0.14–0.47]	0.000	0.26 [0.15–0.46]	0.000	0.41 [0.24–0.70]	0.001	0.31 [0.11–0.93]	0.037	
Plasma creatinine (μmol/L)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
LDL-C (mmol/L)	0.92 [0.83–1.01]	0.088	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
HDL-C (mmol/L)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Log Triglycerides (mmol/L)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
eGFR (ml/min/1.73m ²)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Fasting plasma glucose (mmol/l)	0.81 [0.74–0.88]	0.000	0.80 [0.75–0.86]	0.000					
Log HOMA2_%B	0.79 [0.61–1.04]	0.093	-	-	1.23 [1.01–1.50]	0.011	-	-	-
Log HOMA2_%S	-	-	-	-	1.44 [1.17–1.77]	0.033	-	-	-
Urinary creatinine (μmol/l)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Information criteria									
AIC	1133.0270		936.9738		1514.873		587.3033		
BIC	1078.3590		1071.0390		1576.360		587.3033		
Bootstrap internal validation corrected-index									
R ²	0.2463		0.2931		0.2251		0.1503		
Somers' Dxy	0.3640		0.4062		0.3675		0.3058		
Calibration slope	0.9273		0.9540		0.9434		0.9948		
Model estimated failure time									
Median[IQR]	4.7 [3.0–6.9]		4.0 [2.6–6.0]		3.9 [2.6–6.1]		3.8 [2.6–5.2]		

R² = Nagelkerke R² Somers' D = Dxy-Slope = shrinkage factor-AIC = Akaike information criterion-BIC = Bayesian information criterion

351 **Table 3.** Median time-to-failure (durability) calculated using the *basic* model equations and shown in rank order for six exemplar cases.

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6
HbA_{1c} (%)	5.0	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5
Age (years)	65	60	55	50	45	40
BMI (kg/m²)	25.0	27.0	29.0	31.0	33.0	35.0
Sex	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Male
Race	Caucasian	Non Caucasian	Caucasian	Non Caucasian	Caucasian	Non Caucasian
Time-to-failure (years)						
	Chlorpropamide 13.1	Basal Insulin 8.3	Chlorpropamide 5.6	Chlorpropamide 3.6	Chlorpropamide 2.7	Chlorpropamide 1.6
	Basal Insulin 10.7	Chlorpropamide 7.7	Basal Insulin 5.0	Basal Insulin 3.0	Metformin 1.9	Metformin 1.4
	Glibenclamide 9.2	Metformin 5.8	Metformin 4.0	Metformin 2.8	Basal Insulin 1.4	Basal Insulin 1.1
	Metformin 8.5	Glibenclamide 5.7	Glibenclamide 3.7	Glibenclamide 2.4	Glibenclamide 1.3	Glibenclamide 0.9

352

353

