JAMA Internal Medicine | Original Investigation

Lung Cancer Mortality Associated With Smoking and Smoking Cessation Among People Living With HIV in the United States

Krishna P. Reddy, MD; Chung Yin Kong, PhD; Emily P. Hyle, MD, SM; Travis P. Baggett, MD, MPH; Mingshu Huang, PhD; Robert A. Parker, ScD; A. David Paltiel, PhD; Elena Losina, PhD, MSc; Milton C. Weinstein, PhD; Kenneth A. Freedberg, MD, MSc; Rochelle P. Walensky, MD, MPH

IMPORTANCE Lung cancer has become a leading cause of death among people living with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (PLWH). Over 40% of PLWH in the United States smoke cigarettes; HIV independently increases the risk of lung cancer.

OBJECTIVE To project cumulative lung cancer mortality by smoking exposure among PLWH in care.

DESIGN Using a validated microsimulation model of HIV, we applied standard demographic data and recent HIV/AIDS epidemiology statistics with specific details on smoking exposure, combining smoking status (current, former, or never) and intensity (heavy, moderate, or light). We stratified reported mortality rates attributable to lung cancer and other non-AIDS-related causes by smoking exposure and accounted for an HIV-conferred independent risk of lung cancer. Lung cancer mortality risk ratios (vs never smokers) for male and female current moderate smokers were 23.6 and 24.2, respectively, and for those who quit smoking at age 40 years were 4.3 and 4.5. In sensitivity analyses, we accounted for nonadherence to antiretroviral therapy (ART) and for a range of HIV-conferred risks of death from lung cancer and from other non-AIDS-related diseases (eg, cardiovascular disease).

MAIN OUTCOMES AND MEASURES Cumulative lung cancer mortality by age 80 years (stratified by sex, age at entry to HIV care, and smoking exposure); total expected lung cancer deaths, accounting for nonadherence to ART.

RESULTS Among 40-year-old men with HIV, estimated cumulative lung cancer mortality for heavy, moderate, and light smokers who continued to smoke was 28.9%, 23.0%, and 18.8%, respectively; for those who quit smoking at age 40 years, it was 7.9%, 6.1%, and 4.3%; and for never smokers, it was 1.6%. Among women, the corresponding mortality for current smokers was 27.8%, 20.9%, and 16.6%; for former smokers, it was 7.5%, 5.2%, and 3.7%; and for never smokers, it was 1.2%. ART-adherent individuals who continued to smoke were 6 to 13 times more likely to die from lung cancer than from traditional AIDS-related causes, depending on sex and smoking intensity. Due to greater AIDS-related mortality risks, individuals with incomplete ART adherence had higher overall mortality but lower lung cancer mortality. Applying model projections to the approximately 644 200 PLWH aged 20 to 64 in care in the United States, 59 900 (9.3%) are expected to die from lung cancer if smoking habits do not change.

CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE Those PLWH who adhere to ART but smoke are substantially more likely to die from lung cancer than from AIDS-related causes.

JAMA Intern Med. doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2017.4349 Published online September 18, 2017.



Author Affiliations: Author affiliations are listed at the end of this article.

Corresponding Author: Krishna P. Reddy, MD, Medical Practice Evaluation Center, Massachusetts General Hospital, 50 Staniford St, 9th Flr, Boston, MA 02114 (kpreddy@mgh.harvard.edu). A ntiretroviral therapy (ART) has dramatically improved the life expectancy of people living with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (PLWH), with a concomitant shift in morbidity and mortality from AIDS to non-AIDS diseases.^{1,2} Much of the non-AIDS disease burden is tobacco-related. Over 40% of PLWH in the United States smoke cigarettes, more than double the smoking prevalence in the general population.³⁻⁷ Among PLWH undergoing ART, smoking now reduces life expectancy more than HIV itself.⁸⁻¹⁰

Tobacco use and HIV together may accelerate the development of lung cancer.¹¹⁻¹⁴ The risk of lung cancer is increased by the presence of HIV through mechanisms likely involving chronic inflammation, immunomodulation, and other infections.^{11,15-19} Lung cancer is the leading cause of cancer death among PLWH undergoing ART and is among the leading causes of death overall in this population.^{13,20}

Despite the high smoking prevalence and the risk of lung cancer and other tobacco-related diseases, smoking cessation programs generally have not been successfully implemented in HIV care. As the population of PLWH in the United States ages, estimates of projected comorbidities can help guide where to direct attention and resources in HIV care. We sought to understand the likely impact of smoking cessation on lung cancer mortality among PLWH in HIV care in the United States. We compared the risk of lung cancer death against the risks of death from other causes as a function of smoking exposure.

Methods

Analytic Overview

We used the Cost-Effectiveness of Preventing AIDS Complications (CEPAC)-US model, a validated, widely published Monte Carlo microsimulation of HIV disease and treatment.^{10,21-23} After populating the model with published data, we projected lung cancer mortality among PLWH in HIV care according to smoking exposure. We defined smoking exposure by both smoking status (current, former, or never) and, for current and former smokers, intensity (heavy, moderate, or light) based on number of cigarettes per day. We accounted for competing risks of death from AIDS-related and non-AIDS-related causes, the latter stratified by smoking exposure. We modeled cohorts of 1 million men or women of a particular smoking exposure entering HIV care at a specific age (eg, 30, 40, or 50 years).

The primary outcome was cumulative lung cancer mortality by age 80 years. We combined the model-generated estimates with published epidemiologic data to project the total expected lung cancer deaths among PLWH in care in the United States.

Model Overview

For this analysis, an individual enters the model at the time of linkage to HIV care and is followed until death or age 80 years, whichever comes first. The model draws randomly from user-defined initial distributions of CD4 count and HIV RNA and tracks clinical outcomes as an individual transitions monthly through states of disease progression and treatment. Probabilities of transition between HIV-related health states depend on factors including current CD4 count and HIV

Key Points

Question What is the risk of lung cancer death by smoking exposure for a person living with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)?

Findings In this microsimulation model-based analysis, cumulative lung cancer mortality by age 80 years for men and women who entered HIV care in the United States at age 40 years and continued to smoke an average number of cigarettes daily was 23.0% and 20.9%, respectively; if they quit smoking, the respective risks decreased to 6.1% and 5.2%. Those who continued to smoke were 6 to 13 times more likely to die from lung cancer than from traditional AIDS-related causes.

Meaning Smoking cessation should be a priority in the care of people living with HIV.

RNA. All individuals are ART eligible, regardless of CD4 count.²⁴ An individual may die from an AIDS-related cause (opportunistic infection or chronic AIDS-related disease), lung cancer, or another non-AIDS-related cause (eg, cardiovascular disease; eFigure 1 in the Supplement). Model details are available at http://www.massgeneral.org/mpec/cepac/.

Cohort Stratifications

We simulated cohorts stratified by sex, age at entry to HIV care, and smoking exposure (eg, current moderate smokers, former heavy smokers). We assumed no change in smoking status or intensity stratification over time. Former smokers are stratified by past smoking intensity. Within each cohort of former smokers, all individuals stop smoking at the same age (at entry to HIV care, except in sensitivity analysis, in which they quit later) and remain abstinent. We did not evaluate those who had quit smoking before entering HIV care.

Lung Cancer Mortality

We derived lung cancer mortality probabilities by sex, age, and smoking exposure. For current smokers, risks depend on smoking intensity. At the time of quitting smoking, risks decrease to those of former smokers and depend on age at cessation and prior smoking intensity.

Lung Cancer-Deleted, Non-AIDS-Related Mortality

We applied probabilities of non-AIDS-related death from all causes besides lung cancer (eg, other cancers, cardiovascular disease) by sex, age, and smoking exposure. Risks for current and former smokers are stratified in a similar manner to lung cancer risks. We additionally stratified former smokers' risks by years since cessation, in accordance with available data.²⁵

Antiretroviral Therapy and HIV Care

In the pre-ART era, smoking was not an important driver of mortality among PLWH.²⁶ Untreated individuals were unlikely to survive long enough to develop lung cancer. Recognizing that smoking emerges as an important competing risk in the presence of virologic suppression, we assumed, in the base case, complete ART adherence and no loss to follow-up from HIV care. These in-care individuals are more likely to participate in a smoking cessation intervention. In sensitivity

Table 1. Input Parameters for Model Simulations of Smoking and Lung Cancer	
Among People Living With HIV in the United States	

Parameter	Patient Cha		Source		
HIV- and ART-related parameters	Base case				
CD4 count at entry to HIV care, cells/µL, mean (SD)	360 (280)				Althoff et al ³²
First-line ART suppression (dolutegravir/abacavir/lamivudine), <50 copies/mL at 48 wk, %	87				Walmsley et al ³³ and Raffi et al ³⁴
Virologic failure for suppressed patients (dolutegravir/abacavir/ lamivudine), % per month	0.1				Raffi et al ³⁵
Smoking and non-AIDS-related parameters	Men		Women		
Cigarettes per day at age 40 years, No.ª					Rosenberg et al ²
Heavy smokers	35		28		
Moderate smokers	18		14		
Light smokers	2		2		
Lung cancer mortality RR vs never smokers					Thun et al ³⁶
Current smokers					
Heavy smokers	32.4		36.1		
Moderate smokers	23.6		24.2		
Light smokers	15.8		16.7		
Former smokers (quit at age 40 years)					
Heavy smokers	5.8		6.8		
Moderate smokers	4.3		4.5		
Light smokers	2.9		3.1		
Lung cancer mortality RR, people with HIV vs HIV-uninfected people (independent of smoking) ^b	1.7		1.7		Sigel et al ¹¹
Lung cancer-deleted, non-AIDS-related mortality RR, people with HIV vs HIV-uninfected people (independent of smoking) ^c	1.0		1.0		Triant et al, ³⁷ Freiberg et al, ³⁸ and Althoff et al
Monthly lung cancer-deleted, non-AIDS-related mortality probability in men only, ^d ×10 ⁻⁴	Age 40 y	Age 50 y	Age 60 y	Age 70 y	Rosenberg et al ²
Current smokers					
Heavy smokers	6.1	8.6	17.1	40.1	
Moderate smokers	3.9	7.0	16.2	38.6	
Light smokers	3.0	5.4	11.2	26.7	
Former smokers (quit at age 40 years)					
Heavy smokers	6.1	5.6	9.0	20.3	
Moderate smokers	3.9	4.3	7.9	19.2	
Light smokers	3.0	3.5	7.1	18.6	
Never smokers	1.7	2.7	6.7	18.5	

ART, antiretroviral therapy; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; RR, risk ratio.

Abbreviations:

- ^a The number of cigarettes per day changes with age, based on published data (Supplement).
- ^b In sensitivity analysis, we varied the HIV-associated lung cancer mortality risk ratio from 1.0 to 1.9.¹¹
- ^c In sensitivity analysis, we varied the HIV-associated, lung cancer-deleted, non-AIDS-related mortality risk ratio from 1.0 to 1.7.³⁷⁻³⁹
- ^d Assumes age at smoking initiation is 15 years. Mortality probabilities for women, based on published data, are slightly lower.²⁵

analysis, we relaxed this assumption, accounting for reported rates of ART nonadherence and loss to follow-up (Supplement).²⁷ Additional specifications are described elsewhere.^{23,27}

Model Validation

There are few published data on smoking-related mortality specific to PLWH. We therefore pursued 2 validation strategies. First, we compared our model-generated cumulative lung cancer mortality among HIV-uninfected people to results reported in general population studies in Western Europe.^{28,29} Second, we compared our model-generated cumulative lung cancer mortality among PLWH (accounting for ART nonadherence and loss to follow-up) with the modeled cumulative lung cancer incidence reported by the North American AIDS Cohort Collaboration on Research and Design (NA-ACCORD) (Supplement).^{30,31}

Input Parameters

Cohort Characteristics

We simulated PLWH reflecting those initiating HIV care in the United States^{25,32-39} (**Table 1** and Supplement). In the base case, we assumed the same CD4 distribution regardless of cohort age at entry to care.

Cohort Stratifications by Smoking Exposure

Smoking intensity for current and former smokers was based on number of cigarettes per day as derived by Rosenberg et al,²⁵ who categorized US smokers into quintiles of cigarettes per day stratified by sex, age, and 5-year birth cohort, through the year 2000.²⁵ Among current and former smokers, we considered the fifth, third, and first quintiles to be heavy, moderate, and light smokers. For example, among 40-year-old men, heavy, moderate, and light smokers consumed 35, 18, and 2 cigarettes per day, respectively (Table 1). These quantities changed with age according to published data (Supplement).²⁵

Lung Cancer Mortality

To derive monthly lung cancer mortality by smoking exposure, we combined US general population data on lung cancer mortality rates in 2000 (to match the latest year of the lung cancer-deleted life tables²⁵), lung cancer mortality risk ratios for current and former smokers (further stratified by smoking intensity) vs never smokers, and the proportions of current, former, and never smokers in the population (Supplement).^{25,36,40-42} Compared with never smokers, the lung cancer mortality risk ratio for male and female current moderate smokers was 23.6 and 24.2, respectively, and for those who quit at age 40 years, it was 4.3 and 4.5.

The derived smoking exposure-stratified lung cancer rates were not specific to PLWH. Therefore, in the base case, we accounted for an HIV-associated independent risk of lung cancer by multiplying the derived rates by 1.7. This was the multivariable-adjusted risk ratio (PLWH vs HIV-uninfected people) reported by the Veterans Aging Cohort Study,¹¹ the largest study of the association between HIV and lung cancer.

Lung Cancer-Deleted, Non-AIDS-Related Mortality

We applied lung cancer-deleted, non-AIDS-related mortality probabilities (eg, from other cancers and cardiovascular disease) based on published lung cancer-deleted life tables through 2000 (Supplement).²⁵ Mortality risks were stratified by sex, age, and smoking exposure. In the base case, we assumed no HIV-associated increase in these causes of death. We did not specify the cause of death within this group; estimates would have been inaccurate owing to the absence of many cause-deleted life tables.

Sensitivity Analysis

To understand the robustness of our findings under parameter uncertainty, we performed sensitivity analyses with alternative assumptions and parameter estimates. These included (1) accounting for reported rates of ART nonadherence and loss to follow-up from HIV care, which increase AIDSrelated death risk; (2) varying the HIV-associated risk ratio for lung cancer from 1.0 to 1.9¹¹; (3) varying initial CD4 count at entry to HIV care, which affects AIDS-related death risk; and (4) varying when former smokers quit: 10 or 20 years after entering HIV care, rather than at the time of entering care.

Our base case did not include a link between HIV and other non-AIDS-related causes of death (besides lung cancer). This reflected the inconsistency of reported smoking-adjusted, HIVassociated risks of death from these causes. However, we conducted an additional sensitivity analysis using a multiplicative risk factor of 1.7 to increase the independent effect of HIV on other non-AIDS-related mortality, including that from other cancers and cardiovascular disease. This value highlighted the reported HIV-conferred risk of myocardial infarction and matched the HIV-associated lung cancer risk ratio we applied in the base case.^{37-39,43}

Population-Level Impact

We derived the number of current, former, and never smokers among PLWH aged 20 to 64 years in HIV care in the United States by sex and 5-year age increment (the overall prevalence of current, former, and never smokers among PLWH was approximately 42%, 20%, and 37%, respectively, in 2009).^{3,31} Accounting for reported rates of ART nonadherence and loss to follow-up from care, we used model-generated cumulative lung cancer mortality for each sex, age, and smoking stratum to derive the expected total number of lung cancer deaths by age 80 years among PLWH in HIV care in the United States. To examine the potential impact of a smoking cessation intervention, we estimated the reduction in lung cancer deaths if 20% of current smokers in each sex and age cohort were to quit smoking (Supplement).

Results

Model Validation

For HIV-uninfected people, model-generated cumulative lung cancer mortalities by age 75 years for current heavy smokers were 24.5% and 19.5% for men and women, respectively; these values are similar to those reported in the United Kingdom, 24.4% and 18.5% (eTables 1 and 2 in the Supplement).²⁸ For 20-year-old PLWH in the United States, our model-generated cumulative lung cancer mortality by age 75 years was 5.0%, while the modeled cumulative lung cancer incidence reported by NA-ACCORD was 3.7% (Supplement).³⁰

Base Case

Among men, cumulative lung cancer mortality by age 80 years for heavy, moderate, and light current smokers entering HIV care at age 40 years was 28.9%, 23.0%, and 18.8%, respectively; for heavy, moderate, and light former smokers who quit smoking at age 40 years, it was 7.9%, 6.1%, and 4.3%; and for never smokers, it was 1.6%. Among women, the corresponding respective cumulative lung cancer mortality for heavy, moderate, and light current smokers was 27.8%, 20.9%, and 16.6%; for heavy, moderate, and light former smokers who quit at age 40 years, it was 7.5%, 5.2%, and 3.7%; for never smokers, it was 1.2% (**Table 2** and **Figure 1**). Cumulative lung cancer mortality for ART-adherent current and never smokers varied little by age at entry to HIV care, with slightly higher results among those entering care at older ages owing to survival bias (Table 2).

Risk of Mortality From Lung Cancer vs Other Causes

Risks of mortality from lung cancer vs other causes varied by smoking exposure. For men who entered HIV care at age 40 years, adhered to the ART regimen, and continued to smoke at a moderate ("average") level, cumulative mortality from lung cancer was 10 times that from AIDS-related causes (23.0% vs 2.3%; **Figure 2**A). The mortality for former smokers in this

Table 2. Model-Generated Cumulative Lung Cancer Mortality by Age at Entry to HIV Care and Smoking Exposure^a

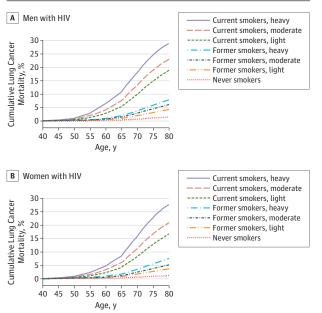
	Cumulative Lung Cancer Mortality by Age 80 y, %						
	Enter at Age 30 y		Enter at Age 40 y (Base Case)		Enter at Age 50 y		
Smoking Exposure	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	
Current smokers, heavy	28.2	27.1	28.9	27.8	30.9	28.3	
Current smokers, moderate	22.4	20.3	23.0	20.9	24.0	21.0	
Current smokers, light	18.4	16.2	18.8	16.6	19.4	16.8	
Former smokers, heavy	4.2	2.9	7.9	7.5	13.5	11.6	
Former smokers, moderate	3.2	2.0	6.1	5.2	10.6	8.2	
Former smokers, light	2.1	1.4	4.3	3.7	7.7	6.0	
Never smokers	1.5	1.2	1.6	1.2	1.6	1.2	

Abbreviation: HIV, human immunodeficiency virus.

^a Individuals in the simulation model were assumed to enter HIV care at the specified age and to remain in the model until death or age 80. These model simulations

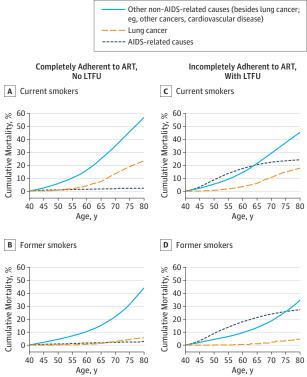
assumed complete adherence to antiretroviral therapy and no loss to follow-up from HIV care. Current smokers continued smoking until the end of follow-up. Former smokers quit at the time of entering HIV care (ie, at model entry).

Figure 1. Cumulative Lung Cancer Mortality for People Entering HIV Care at Age 40 Years by Smoking Exposure



Individuals in the simulation model were assumed to enter human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) care at age 40 years and to remain in the model until death or age 80 years. Current smokers continued smoking until the end of follow-up. Former smokers quit at age 40 years and remained abstinent. "Number at risk" tables are not needed here. The graphs represent model-generated outcomes, each line a simulated cohort of 1 million people entering HIV care at age 40 years. The number at risk are the number of people still alive at each time point, with no other form of censoring.

category is illustrated in Figure 2B, and for never smokers, it is illustrated in eFigure 2A in the Supplement. For women who entered HIV care at age 40 years, adhered to the ART regimen, and continued to smoke at a moderate ("average") level, cumulative mortality from lung cancer was 8 times that from AIDS-related causes (20.9% vs 2.5%). Depending on sex and smoking intensity, ART-adherent smokers were 6 to 13 times more likely to die from lung cancer than from AIDS-related causes. For 40-year-old ART-adherent men who were current moderate smokers, the combined cumulative mortality from Figure 2. Cumulative Mortality by Cause Among Men Entering HIV Care at Age 40 Years



ART indicates antiretroviral therapy; LTFU, loss to follow-up. The intensity of smoking (number of cigarettes per day) was considered to be moderate ("average"). Current smokers continued smoking until the end of follow-up. Former smokers quit at age 40 years and remained abstinent. "Number at risk" tables are not needed here. The graphs represent model-generated outcomes, each line a simulated cohort of 1 million people entering HIV care at age 40 years. While some people are lost to follow-up from clinical care (in the sensitivity analyses that allow for loss to follow-up), the model still keeps track of them, recording when and how they die, so they are not lost from the model or from the results. The number at risk are the number of people still alive at each time point, with no other form of censoring.

lung cancer and other non-AIDS-related causes—both of which were increased by smoking—was approximately 35 times that from AIDS-related causes (79.9% vs 2.3%); for women in this

Table 3. Effect of Varying the HIV-Associated Mortality Risk Ratios Among Current Smokers for Lung Cancer and for Other Non-AIDS-Related Causes^a

	Cumulative Mortality by Age 80 y (Men/Women), %					
HIV-Associated Mortality Risk Ratios	Lung Cancer	Other Non-AIDS-Related Causes ^b	AIDS-Related Causes ^c			
Lung cancer, 1.7; other non-AIDS-related causes, 1.0 ^d	23.0/20.9	56.9/45.7	2.3/2.5			
Lung cancer, 1.0; other non-AIDS-related causes, 1.0	14.6/13.0	61.3/48.6	2.4/2.5			
Lung cancer, 1.0; other non-AIDS-related causes, 1.7	10.7/10.5	78.0/66.6	2.1/2.3			
Lung cancer, 1.7; other non-AIDS-related causes, 1.7	16.9/16.8	73.3/63.1	2.1/2.3			
Abbreviation: HIV, human immunodeficiency virus.		1.0 indicates no increased risk for a person w	ith HIV compared with an			
^a The model generated results are for people who entered h	IV caro at ago 40	HIV-uninfected person of otherwise similar characteristics.				

The model-generated results are for people who entered HIV care at age 40 years and were followed up until death or age 80 years. These simulations assumed moderate ("average") intensity of smoking, based on number of cigarettes per day. Individuals continued smoking until the end of follow-up. The HIV-associated mortality risk ratios represent the independent risk conferred by HIV, compared with HIV-uninfected people, of mortality from either lung cancer or other non-AIDS-related causes. A mortality risk ratio of

^b Non-AIDS-related causes of death include cardiovascular disease and cancers besides lung cancer

^c AIDS-related causes of death include opportunistic infections and chronic AIDS-related conditions such as wasting.

^d Base case

category, it was approximately 27 times higher (66.6% vs 2.5%) (eTable 3 in the Supplement). See eTable 4 in the Supplement for results for different ages at entry to HIV care.

Sensitivity Analysis

For the sensitivity analyses described in the Methods section, we report instances where input data were most uncertain and/or where variation in the underlying parameter had a material impact on our findings. Results of other sensitivity analyses (including varying CD4 count at entry to HIV care and timing of smoking cessation) are reported in the Supplement.

Incomplete Adherence and Loss to Follow-up

When we accounted for reported rates of ART nonadherence and loss to follow-up from HIV care, cumulative lung cancer mortality among moderate smokers decreased, and cumulative AIDS-related mortality increased (Figure 2C and D). The results for never smokers are depicted in eFigure 2B in the Supplement. For men who were current heavy smokers, cumulative lung cancer mortality (22.7%) was similar to AIDSrelated mortality (23.0%); for women, the corresponding results were 21.6% vs 25.5% (eTable 5 in the Supplement).

Varying HIV-Associated Risks of Lung Cancer and of Other Non-AIDS-Related Mortality

Model-generated cumulative mortality varied depending on the HIV-associated risk ratios applied for lung cancer and for other non-AIDS-related causes. For male and female current moderate smokers, cumulative lung cancer mortality varied from 10.5% to 23.0%, and cumulative other non-AIDSrelated mortality varied from 45.7% to 78.0%. The lower numbers reflected scenarios assuming no direct influence of HIV on these causes of death (Table 3).

Population-Level Impact

Applying sex- and age-specific, model-projected results to the approximately 644 200 PLWH aged 20 to 64 years in care in the United States (including current, former, and never smokers), 59 900 lung cancer deaths by age 80 years are expected (9.3% of this population) if smoking status does not change. If 20% of the 273 200 current smokers quit, their lung cancer risk would decrease to that of former smokers, and 6900 (11.5%) lung cancer deaths could be averted.

Discussion

Using a microsimulation model, we found that ART-adherent PLWH in the United States who smoke cigarettes are 6 to 13 times more likely to die from lung cancer than from AIDSrelated causes. Even when accounting for reported rates of ART nonadherence and loss to follow-up, we found that nearly 10% of PLWH initially linked to HIV care (including both smokers and nonsmokers) are expected to die from lung cancer if smoking habits do not change. Smoking cessation could substantially reduce lung cancer risk for an individual and avert many lung cancer deaths at the population level.

People with HIV whose virus is suppressed now have a life expectancy approaching that of HIV-uninfected people.44 However, life expectancy gaps persist, and smoking is a key driver of this difference.⁴⁵ This smoking footprint will likely grow as PLWH age and develop lung cancer and other smoking-associated diseases. Lung cancer was already the leading cause of death in a study of PLWH in France in 2010; the smoking prevalence among PLWH is similar in France and the United States.^{3,20,46}

In stratifying mortality risks by smoking status and intensity, our results can inform important conversations between clinicians and PLWH who smoke, helping both clinician and patient understand the patient's risks of different diseases and the potential benefits of smoking cessation. Recognizing the increased risk of death from lung cancer vs that from traditionally feared AIDS-related causes may motivate a smoker to quit smoking,⁴⁷ although this is not always the case. Our analyses also accounted for the smoking-conferred increase in risk of death from causes besides lung cancer and AIDS-this includes other cancers, other lung diseases, and cardiovascular disease. Our results provide evidence for HIV care programs and policymakers to include smoking cessation interventions as a key component of the comprehensive care of PLWH. Though smoking cessation is challenging, smoking prevalence among the US general population has decreased substantially in recent decades, from 42% in 1965 to 15% in 2015.7,48 While the

E6 JAMA Internal Medicine Published online September 18, 2017 current smoking prevalence among PLWH is much higher than that among HIV-uninfected people, a similar proportion of smokers in the 2 groups want to quit, offering hope for a potential decrease in smoking prevalence in PLWH as well.⁴⁹

Perhaps counterintuitively, lung cancer risk is linked to adherence to HIV therapy. Those who are not ART-adherent are more likely to die of AIDS-related causes before developing lung cancer. Nonetheless, even when accounting for reported rates of ART nonadherence and loss to follow-up from HIV care, we found that for male heavy smokers, the risk of dying from lung cancer is similar to the risk of dying from AIDS-related causes.

Limitations

Our results are subject to limitations inherent in the assumptions and simplifications of any model-based study. These include the following: (1) using data from the US general population in 2000 in the absence of smoking-stratified lung cancer data for PLWH; (2) uncertainty around the HIV-conferred risk of lung cancer, which could be lower or higher than what we applied in this analysis, and could vary by age^{11,13-17,50}; (3) assuming no relationship between CD4 count and lung cancer risk, given conflicting reports affected by confounders such as smoking intensity^{15,19,51-54}; (4) assuming that the HIVassociated increase in lung cancer mortality is similar to the increase in incidence, since median survival after lung cancer diagnosis is short^{11,40}; (5) not accounting for disparities between PLWH and HIV-uninfected people in mortality after lung cancer diagnosis^{17,55-58}; (6) not examining race: African American men are overrepresented among PLWH in the United States and may be more susceptible to lung cancer than people of other races^{31,59}; (7) not differentiating by HIV transmission risk category: the national survey data for smoking prevalence among PLWH indicated little difference by sexual transmission risk category, but there were few injection drug users³; (8) not accounting for possibly higher average daily cigarette consumption among PLWH who smoke compared with HIVuninfected people who smoke¹¹; (9) assuming, in the base case, that smoking status does not change over time; and (10) not examining a potential impact on mortality from lung cancer screening with computed tomography.^{60,61} Estimating smoking-attributable mortality for various diseases would be informative, but the data for non-AIDS, non-lung cancer outcomes were too limited to do so. The smoking-conferred risk of death from smoking-related diseases may be even greater than that applied in our analyses, especially in PLWH.⁴³ Though the model-generated estimates may be influenced by input parameter uncertainty, the magnitude of smoking-related harm with respect to lung cancer and other non-AIDS-related mortality, and the magnitude of the benefit from smoking cessation, remain robust, as shown in our sensitivity analysis.

Conclusions

In conclusion, there is a large expected burden of lung cancer among PLWH in the United States because (1) the smoking prevalence is very high in this population; (2) HIV itself increases the risk of lung cancer; and (3) PLWH are increasingly living long enough to develop lung cancer. For PLWH who adhere to ART, smoking is a much greater threat to their health than HIV itself. Clinicians caring for PLWH should offer guideline-based behavioral and pharmacologic treatments for tobacco use.⁶² Lung cancer is now a leading cause of death among PLWH, but smoking cessation can greatly reduce the risk. Lung cancer prevention, especially through smoking cessation, should be a priority in the comprehensive care of PLWH.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

Accepted for Publication: July 5, 2017. Published Online: September 18, 2017. doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2017.4349

Author Affiliations: Medical Practice Evaluation Center, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston (Reddy, Hyle, Huang, Parker, Freedberg, Walensky); Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine. Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston (Reddy); Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts (Reddy, Kong, Hyle, Baggett, Huang, Parker, Losina, Weinstein, Freedberg, Walensky); Institute for Technology Assessment, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston (Kong); Division of Infectious Diseases, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston (Hyle, Freedberg, Walensky); Division of General Internal Medicine, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston (Baggett, Parker, Freedberg, Walensky); Tobacco Research and Treatment Center, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston (Baggett); Biostatistics Center, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston (Huang, Parker): Yale School of Public Health, New Haven, Connecticut (Paltiel); Department of Orthopedic Surgery, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts (Losina): Department of Biostatistics, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts (Losina); Department of Health Policy and

Management, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts (Weinstein, Freedberg); Department of Epidemiology, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts (Freedberg); Division of Infectious Diseases, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts (Walensky).

Author Contributions: Dr Reddy had full access to all of the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis. Concept and design: Reddy, Parker, Paltiel, Weinstein, Freedberg, Walensky. Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: Reddy, Kong, Hyle, Baggett, Huang, Parker, Paltiel, Losina, Freedberg, Walensky. Drafting of the manuscript: Reddy. Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: All authors. Statistical analysis: Reddy, Kong, Huang, Parker, Losina, Weinstein, Obtained funding: Reddy, Freedberg, Walensky. Administrative, technical, or material support: Baggett, Paltiel, Freedberg, Walensky Supervision: Kong, Walensky.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: None reported.

Funding/Support: This work was supported by awards from the National Institute on Drug Abuse

(K01 DA042687, K23 DA034008, and R01 DA015612), the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (T32 HL116275 and K01 HL123349), the National Cancer Institute (U01 CA199284), the National Institute of Mental Health (R01 MH105203), and the National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (R01 Al042006 and R37 Al093269) of the National Institutes of Health, and Massachusetts General Hospital (Steve and Deborah Gorlin Research Scholars Award to Dr Walensky).

Role of the Funder/Sponsor: The funders had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

Disclaimer: The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health or Massachusetts General Hospital.

Additional Contributions: The authors thank Emily Martey, BA, Amy Zheng, BA, and Ethan Borre, BA (all of Massachusetts General Hospital), for their technical assistance. They received no compensation for their contributions beyond that received for their normal employment.

jamainternalmedicine.com

REFERENCES

 Smith CJ, Ryom L, Weber R, et al; D:A:D Study Group. Trends in underlying causes of death in people with HIV from 1999 to 2011 (D:A:D): a multicohort collaboration. *Lancet*. 2014;384 (9939):241-248. doi:10.1016/S0140 -6736(14)60604-8

2. Morlat P, Roussillon C, Henard S, et al; ANRS EN20 Mortalité 2010 Study Group. Causes of death among HIV-infected patients in France in 2010 (national survey): trends since 2000. *AIDS*. 2014; 28(8):1181-1191. doi:10.1097/QAD .000000000000222

3. Mdodo R, Frazier EL, Dube SR, et al. Cigarette smoking prevalence among adults with HIV compared with the general adult population in the United States: cross-sectional surveys. *Ann Intern Med.* 2015;162(5):335-344. doi:10.7326/M14-0954

4. Tesoriero JM, Gieryic SM, Carrascal A, Lavigne HE. Smoking among HIV positive New Yorkers: prevalence, frequency, and opportunities for cessation. *AIDS Behav*. 2010;14(4):824-835. doi:10.1007/s10461-008-9449-2

5. Wilson SM, Pacek LR, Dennis PA, Bastian LA, Beckham JC, Calhoun PS. Veterans living with HIV: a high-risk group for cigarette smoking. *AIDS Behav*. 2017;21(7):1950-1955. doi:10.1007/s10461 -017-1717-6

 Weinberger AH, Smith PH, Funk AP, Rabin S, Shuter J. Sex differences in tobacco use among persons living with HIV/AIDS: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2017;74(4):439-453. doi:10.1097/QAI .000000000001279

7. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Office on Smoking and Health. Smoking and tobacco use: trends in current cigarette smoking among high school students and adults, United States, 1965-2011. https://www.cdc.gov/tobacco /data_statistics/tables/trends/cig_smoking/. Accessed May 3, 2017.

8. Helleberg M, Afzal S, Kronborg G, et al. Mortality attributable to smoking among HIV-1-infected individuals: a nationwide, population-based cohort study. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2013;56(5):727-734. doi:10.1093/cid/cis933

9. Helleberg M, May MT, Ingle SM, et al. Smoking and life expectancy among HIV-infected individuals on antiretroviral therapy in Europe and North America. *AIDS*. 2015;29(2):221-229. doi:10.1097 /QAD.000000000000540

10. Reddy KP, Parker RA, Losina E, et al. Impact of cigarette smoking and smoking cessation on life expectancy among people with HIV: a US-based modeling study. *J Infect Dis.* 2016;214(11):1672-1681. doi:10.1093/infdis/jiw430

11. Sigel K, Wisnivesky J, Gordon K, et al. HIV as an independent risk factor for incident lung cancer. *AIDS*. 2012;26(8):1017-1025. doi:10.1097/QAD .0b013e328352d1ad

12. Hleyhel M, Hleyhel M, Bouvier AM, et al; Cancer Risk Group of the French Hospital Database on HIV (FHDH-ANRS CO4). Risk of non-AIDS-defining cancers among HIV-1-infected individuals in France between 1997 and 2009: results from a French cohort. *AIDS*. 2014;28(14):2109-2118. doi:10.1097/OAD.000000000000382

13. Yanik EL, Katki HA, Engels EA. Cancer risk among the HIV-infected elderly in the United

States. *AIDS*. 2016;30(10):1663-1668. doi:10.1097 /QAD.00000000001077

14. Shiels MS, Althoff KN, Pfeiffer RM, et al; North American AIDS Cohort Collaboration on Research and Design (NA-ACCORD) of the International Epidemiologic Databases to Evaluate AIDS (IeDEA). HIV infection, immunosuppression, and age at diagnosis of non-AIDS-defining cancers. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2017;64(4):468-475. doi:10.1093/cid/ciw764

15. Engels EA, Brock MV, Chen J, Hooker CM, Gillison M, Moore RD. Elevated incidence of lung cancer among HIV-infected individuals. *J Clin Oncol.* 2006;24(9):1383-1388. doi:10.1200/JCO.2005.03 .4413

16. Kirk GD, Merlo C, O' Driscoll P, et al. HIV infection is associated with an increased risk for lung cancer, independent of smoking. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2007;45(1):103-110. doi:10.1086/518606

17. Shiels MS, Cole SR, Mehta SH, Kirk GD. Lung cancer incidence and mortality among HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected injection drug users. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2010;55(4):510-515. doi:10.1097/QAI.0b013e3181f53783

18. Rossouw TM, Anderson R, Feldman C. Impact of HIV infection and smoking on lung immunity and related disorders. *Eur Respir J.* 2015;46(6):1781-1795. doi:10.1183/13993003.00353-2015

19. Sigel K, Wisnivesky J, Crothers K, et al. Immunological and infectious risk factors for lung cancer in US veterans with HIV: a longitudinal cohort study. *Lancet HIV*. 2017;4(2):e67-e73. doi:10.1016/S2352-3018(16)30215-6

20. Vandenhende M-A, Roussillon C, Henard S, et al; ANRS EN20 Mortalité 2010 study group. Cancer-related causes of death among HIV-infected patients in France in 2010: evolution since 2000. *PLoS One*. 2015;10(6):e0129550. doi:10.1371 /journal.pone.0129550

21. Freedberg KA, Losina E, Weinstein MC, et al. The cost effectiveness of combination antiretroviral therapy for HIV disease. *N Engl J Med.* 2001;344 (11):824-831. doi:10.1056/NEJM200103153441108

22. Paltiel AD, Weinstein MC, Kimmel AD, et al. Expanded screening for HIV in the United States—an analysis of cost-effectiveness. *N Engl J Med.* 2005;352(6):586-595. doi:10.1056 (NEJMsa042088

23. Walensky RP, Sax PE, Nakamura YM, et al. Economic savings versus health losses: the cost-effectiveness of generic antiretroviral therapy in the United States. Ann Intern Med. 2013;158(2): 84-92. doi:10.7326/0003-4819-158-2-201301150 -00002

24. US Department of Health and Human Services, Panel on Antiretroviral Guidelines for Adults and Adolescents. Guidelines for the use of antiretroviral agents in HIV-1-infected adults and adolescents. https://aidsinfo.nih.gov/contentfiles/lvguidelines /adultandadolescentgl.pdf. Accessed May 3, 2017.

25. Rosenberg MA, Feuer EJ, Yu B, et al. Chapter 3: Cohort life tables by smoking status, removing lung cancer as a cause of death. *Risk Anal*. 2012;32(suppl 1):S25-S38. doi:10.1111/j.1539-6924.2011.01662.x

26. Galai N, Park LP, Wesch J, Visscher B, Riddler S, Margolick JB. Effect of smoking on the clinical progression of HIV-1 infection. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol*. 1997;14(5):451-458.

27. Ross EL, Weinstein MC, Schackman BR, et al. The clinical role and cost-effectiveness of

long-acting antiretroviral therapy. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2015;60(7):1102-1110. doi:10.1093/cid/ciu1159

28. Peto R, Darby S, Deo H, Silcocks P, Whitley E, Doll R. Smoking, smoking cessation, and lung cancer in the UK since 1950: combination of national statistics with two case-control studies. *BMJ*. 2000;321(7257):323-329. doi:10.1136/bmj.321.7257.323

29. Crispo A, Brennan P, Jöckel K-H, et al. The cumulative risk of lung cancer among current, exand never-smokers in European men. *Br J Cancer*. 2004;91(7):1280-1286. doi:10.1038/sj.bjc.6602078

30. Silverberg MJ, Lau B, Achenbach CJ, et al; North American AIDS Cohort Collaboration on Research and Design of the International Epidemiologic Databases to Evaluate AIDS. Cumulative incidence of cancer among persons with HIV in North America: a cohort study. *Ann Intern Med*. 2015;163(7):507-518. doi:10.7326/MI4-2768

31. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. HIV Surveillance Report, 2013; vol. 25. https://www.cdc.gov/hiv/library/reports /surveillance/. Accessed May 3, 2017.

32. Althoff KN, Gange SJ, Klein MB, et al. Late presentation for human immunodeficiency virus care in the United States and Canada. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2010;50(11):1512-1520. doi:10.1086/652650

33. Walmsley SL, Antela A, Clumeck N, et al; SINGLE Investigators. Dolutegravir plus abacavir-lamivudine for the treatment of HIV-1 infection. *N Engl J Med*. 2013;369(19):1807-1818. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1215541

34. Raffi F, Rachlis A, Stellbrink H-J, et al; SPRING-2 Study Group. Once-daily dolutegravir versus raltegravir in antiretroviral-naive adults with HIV-1 infection: 48 week results from the randomised, double-blind, non-inferiority SPRING-2 study. *Lancet*. 2013;381(9868):735-743. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736 (12)61853-4

35. Raffi F, Jaeger H, Quiros-Roldan E, et al; extended SPRING-2 Study Group. Once-daily dolutegravir versus twice-daily raltegravir in antiretroviral-naive adults with HIV-1 infection (SPRING-2 study): 96 week results from a randomised, double-blind, non-inferiority trial. *Lancet Infect Dis.* 2013;13(11):927-935. doi:10.1016 /S1473-3099(13)70257-3

36. Thun MJ, Carter BD, Feskanich D, et al. 50-year trends in smoking-related mortality in the United States. *N Engl J Med*. 2013;368(4):351-364. doi:10.1056/NEJMsa1211127

37. Triant VA, Lee H, Hadigan C, Grinspoon SK. Increased acute myocardial infarction rates and cardiovascular risk factors among patients with human immunodeficiency virus disease. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2007;92(7):2506-2512. doi:10.1210/jc.2006-2190

38. Freiberg MS, Chang C-CH, Kuller LH, et al. HIV infection and the risk of acute myocardial infarction. *JAMA Intern Med.* 2013;173(8):614-622. doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2013.3728

39. Althoff KN, McGinnis KA, Wyatt CM, et al; Veterans Aging Cohort Study (VACS). Comparison of risk and age at diagnosis of myocardial infarction, end-stage renal disease, and non-AIDS-defining cancer in HIV-infected versus uninfected adults. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2015;60(4):627-638. doi:10.1093/cid/ciu869

E8 JAMA Internal Medicine Published online September 18, 2017

40. National Cancer Institute. SEER Cancer Statistics Review 1975-2000. https://seer.cancer .gov/archive/csr/1975_2000/results_merged/sect _15_lung_bronchus.pdf. Accessed May 3, 2017.

41. Pleis J, Benson V, Schiller J. Summary health statistics for U.S. Adults: National Health Interview Survey, 2000. National Center for Health Statistics. Vital Health Stat. 2003;10(215). https://www.cdc .gov/nchs/data/series/sr_10/sr10_215.pdf. Accessed May 3, 2017.

42. Hyland A, Li Q, Bauer JE, Giovino GA, Steger C, Cummings KM. Predictors of cessation in a cohort of current and former smokers followed over 13 years. *Nicotine Tob Res*. 2004;6(suppl 3):5363-5369. doi:10.1080/14622200412331320761

43. Rasmussen LD, Helleberg M, May MT, et al. Myocardial infarction among Danish HIV-infected individuals: population-attributable fractions associated with smoking. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2015;60 (9):1415-1423. doi:10.1093/cid/civ013

44. Samji H, Cescon A, Hogg RS, et al; North American AIDS Cohort Collaboration on Research and Design (NA-ACCORD) of IeDEA. Closing the gap: increases in life expectancy among treated HIV-positive individuals in the United States and Canada. *PLoS One*. 2013;8(12):e81355. doi:10.1371 /journal.pone.0081355

45. Marcus JL, Chao CR, Leyden WA, et al. Narrowing the gap in life expectancy between HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected individuals with access to care. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2016; 73(1):39-46. doi:10.1097/QAI.000000000001014

46. Tron L, Lert F, Spire B, Dray-Spira R; ANRS-Vespa2 study group. Tobacco smoking in HIV-infected versus general population in France: heterogeneity across the various groups of people living with HIV. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(9):e107451. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0107451

47. US Department of Health and Human Services. Treating tobacco use and dependence: 2008 update. https://bphc.hrsa.gov/buckets /treatingtobacco.pdf. Accessed May 3, 2017. **48**. Jamal A, King BA, Neff LJ, Whitmill J, Babb SD, Graffunder CM. Current cigarette smoking among adults–United States, 2005-2015. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2016;65(44):1205-1211. doi:10.15585/mmwr.mm6544a2

49. Shahrir S, Tindle HA, McGinnis KA, et al. Contemplation of smoking cessation and quit attempts in human immunodeficiency virus-infected and uninfected veterans. *Subst Abus*. 2016;37(2):315-322. doi:10.1080/08897077.2015 .1062458

50. Crothers K, Huang L, Goulet JL, et al. HIV infection and risk for incident pulmonary diseases in the combination antiretroviral therapy era. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2011;183(3):388-395. doi:10.1164/rccm.201006-08360C

51. Clifford GM, Lise M, Franceschi S, et al; Swiss HIV Cohort Study. Lung cancer in the Swiss HIV Cohort Study: role of smoking, immunodeficiency and pulmonary infection. *Br J Cancer*. 2012;106(3): 447-452. doi:10.1038/bjc.2011.558

52. Guiguet M, Boué F, Cadranel J, Lang JM, Rosenthal E, Costagliola D; Clinical Epidemiology Group of the FHDH-ANRS CO4 cohort. Effect of immunodeficiency, HIV viral load, and antiretroviral therapy on the risk of individual malignancies (FHDH-ANRS CO4): a prospective cohort study. *Lancet Oncol.* 2009;10(12):1152-1159. doi:10.1016 /S1470-2045(09)70282-7

53. Kesselring A, Gras L, Smit C, et al. Immunodeficiency as a risk factor for non-AIDS-defining malignancies in HIV-1-infected patients receiving combination antiretroviral therapy. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2011;52(12):1458-1465. doi:10.1093/cid/cir207

54. Marcus JL, Leyden WA, Chao CR, et al. Immunodeficiency, AIDS-related pneumonia, and risk of lung cancer among HIV-infected individuals. *AIDS*. 2017;31(7):989-993. doi:10.1097/QAD .00000000001434

55. Marcus JL, Chao C, Leyden WA, et al. Survival among HIV-infected and HIV-uninfected individuals

with common non-AIDS-defining cancers. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2015;24(8):1167-1173. doi:10.1158/1055-9965.EPI-14-1079

56. Sigel K, Crothers K, Dubrow R, et al. Prognosis in HIV-infected patients with non-small cell lung cancer. *Br J Cancer*. 2013;109(7):1974-1980. doi:10.1038/bjc.2013.545

57. Coghill AE, Shiels MS, Suneja G, Engels EA. Elevated cancer-specific mortality among HIV-infected patients in the United States. *J Clin Oncol.* 2015;33(21):2376-2383. doi:10.1200 /JCO.2014.59.5967

58. Zucchetto A, Virdone S, Taborelli M, et al. Non-AIDS-defining cancer mortality: emerging patterns in the late HAART era. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2016;73(2):190-196. doi:10.1097 /QAI.00000000001033

59. Haiman CA, Stram DO, Wilkens LR, et al. Ethnic and racial differences in the smoking-related risk of lung cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2006;354(4):333-342. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa033250

60. Makinson A, Eymard-Duvernay S, Raffi F, et al; ANRS EP48 HIV CHEST study Team. Feasibility and efficacy of early lung cancer diagnosis with chest computed tomography in HIV-infected smokers. *AIDS*. 2016;30(4):573-582. doi:10.1097 /QAD.000000000000943

61. Moyer VA; U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for lung cancer: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2014;160(5):330-338. doi:10.7326/M13-2771

62. Siu AL; U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Behavioral and pharmacotherapy interventions for tobacco smoking cessation in adults, including pregnant women: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2015;163(8):622-634. doi:10.7326/M15-2023