

Original Research Article

Prevalence and pattern of NSAID consumption among patients with upper gastrointestinal bleeding

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Gastrointestinal bleeding is one of the most common causes of patient admissions at emergency wards. Despite considering NSAIDs, aspirin and Helicobacter pylori as the leading causes, mortality from GI bleeding is still high. So pattern of NSAID consumption and related conditions may help in preventative behavior.

Methods: This case-control study was conducted on 300 patients. Patients were divided into two groups: with and without gastrointestinal bleeding. Patient's information was extracted using their hospital records and the data eventually was statistically analyzed.

Results: The results of this study showed that the frequency of NSAIDs use was significantly higher in patients with gastrointestinal bleeding ($P = 0.016$) with the most NSAID use as Aspirin. The prevalence of smoking, using drugs and alcohol consumption was significantly higher in the study group ($P < 0.05$).

Conclusion: A history of consuming NSAIDs increases the risk of GI bleeding. The frequency of cigarette, drug, and alcohol consumption in the case study group was significantly higher than that of the control group.

Keywords: Gastrointestinal bleeding, Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, aspirin

Introduction:

Gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding is the most common reason for acute hospitalization of patients in gastroenterology wards(1). Different studies have evaluated the implemented cost of GI bleeding on both patients

28 and the health care system, in addition to its impact on mortality and
29 morbidity rates. These studies have concluded that GI bleeding, in fact,
30 incurs higher patient and system costs and raises mortality and morbidity
31 rates(2, 3). Several factors have been propounded as etiologic factors
32 behind GI bleeding, among which H.pylori, Non-Steroid Anti-Inflammatory
33 Drugs (NSAIDs), and aspirin have been deemed as the most significant,
34 especially in upper GI bleeding(4). Different epidemiologic studies have
35 suggested that a combination of several different NSAIDs, or a high dose
36 of any one of these drugs, can increase the risk of GI bleeding up to
37 seven and nine fold respectively(5). These results emphasize not only
38 the importance of NSAIDs but also their sensible usage. Recently, due to
39 the increased prevalence of arthritic diseases and osteoarthritis, the use
40 of NSAIDs has grown. The prescription of multiple NSAIDs to patients by
41 different physicians in various fields has led to the increased
42 simultaneous consumption of several NSAIDs. This raises the risk of GI
43 bleeding and other NSAID side effects, especially among the older
44 population.

45 In consideration of the rising usage of NSAIDs, it is imperative to study
46 the correlation between the use of NSAIDs and upper GI bleeding.
47 Although this relationship is now mentioned in textbooks, there has not
48 yet been any related study conducted in Mashhad, Iran to explore the

49 high prevalence of NSAID consumption, this despite numerous warnings
50 about the side effects following the unbridled use of these drugs.
51 Furthermore, since accurate statistics about NSAID side effects are
52 critical for future prophylaxis recommendations, it appears beneficial to
53 conduct a study on the correlation between upper GI bleeding and
54 NSAID consumption.

55 **Method and Materials:**

56 The present case control study was conducted in several steps. These
57 steps were performed simultaneously and by only one researcher in
58 order to reduce any possible risk of error. The steps were designed as a
59 checklist for utilization in the present study, by which samples were
60 chosen, data extracted and collected, and statistical calculations made.

61 Checklist Design:

62 The checklist was designed as two forms. The first form was intended for
63 patients hospitalized at the emergency ward of Qaem Hospital due to
64 upper GI bleeding and who had undergone diagnostic and therapeutic
65 measures. This checklist included identification code, gender, age,
66 weight, educational level, occupation, marital status, and residence. Also
67 listed was any history of digestive diseases, GI bleeding, non-digestive
68 diseases, smoking, alcohol consumption, drug abuse, and medications. In
69 addition, the following information was provided: endoscopy results,

70 primary hemoglobin, primary platelet, primary PT, INR, and the possible
71 need for a blood transfusion.

72 The second form was designed for patients hospitalized at Khatam-
73 al_Anbia Hospital of Ophthalmology with a chief complaint and reason
74 for hospitalization that was unrelated to GI bleeding (control group). This
75 checklist included the following: identification code, gender, age, weight,
76 educational level, occupation, marital status, and residence. Also listed
77 was any history of digestive diseases, GI bleeding, non-digestive
78 diseases, smoking, alcohol consumption, drug abuse, and medications.

79 Selection of Cases and Control Samples:

80 The method of sampling in the current study was simple nonrandomized.
81 Two groups were studied. The first group (case group) consisted of
82 patients hospitalized for gastrointestinal bleeding at the emergency ward
83 of Qaem Hospital and who had undergone diagnostic and therapeutic
84 measures. The second group (control group) was made up of
85 patients hospitalized at Khatam-al_Anbia Hospital of Ophthalmology due
86 to a chief complaint and reason for hospitalization unrelated to
87 gastrointestinal bleeding.

88 Data Extraction and Collection:

89 In this step of the present study, required data were collected and
90 registered onto the appropriate checklist. The case study group data
91 were collected from the patients' hospital files. The control group data
92 was obtained by conducting direct interviews and also by accessing the
93 patients' previous files. To accomplish this, at Khatam-al Anbia Hospital,
94 the researcher first explained the study and its purpose to the patients
95 and obtained their consent before reviewing files or interviewing.

96 Statistical Calculations:

97 First, the data were input into SPSS ver.16 software. The mean and
98 Interquartile rangewere utilized to describe the quantitative data indexes,
99 such as mode.Frequency and frequency percentage served asthe
100 indexes for explainingqualitative data.In order to compare qualitative
101 variables in the case study and control groups, the Chi-squared test or
102 exact fisher test were utilized. If the data had a normal distribution, the
103 independent t-test compared the quantitative data from the two groups;
104 otherwise, its nonparametric equivalent (Man-Whiteny) performed this
105 comparison.The confidence interval and the level of significance were
106 deemed as 95% and 0.05% respectively.

107 **Results:**

108 The present work studied a total number of 300 patients aged above 35.
109 Patients were dividedinto two groups: 1)those suffering from upper GI

110 bleeding (case study) and 2) those without GI bleeding (control group).

111 The mean age of the patients was 45.81 ± 21.28 years (in the range of 40
112 to 87 years).

113 The patient demographics of the two groups are compared in Table 1-4
114 and 2-4. Statistical tests showed no significant difference between the
115 two groups in terms of age, gender, marital status, distribution of weight,
116 and education level ($P > 0.05$). In regard to residence, the results indicated
117 a significant difference between that of the case study and the control
118 group ($p = 0.002$).

119 **Table 1-4:** Comparison of Mean and Interquartile Range

| §P-value | Control Group (without GI bleeding) | Case Study Group (with GI bleeding) | Variable Group |
|----------|---|---|-------------------|
| | Median (IQR)(150n=) | (IQR) Median (150n=) | |
| 0.116 | (65-45) 54 | (65-47) 59 | Age |

120 §: Mann-Whitney statistical test

121 **Table 2-4:** Comparison of Qualitative Variable Frequency

| *P-value | Control Group Frequency & Frequency Percentage | Case Study Group Frequency & Frequency Percentage | Variable Group | |
|----------|---|---|----------------|--------|
| 0.726 | 84 (56%) | 88 (58.6%) | male | Gender |

| | | | | |
|-------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| | 66 (44%) | 62 (41.3%) | female | |
| 0.796 | 40 (26.7%) | 45 (28.7%) | single | Marital Status |
| | 110 (73.3%) | 105 (71.3%) | married | |
| 0.615 | 31 (20.7%) | 25 (16.6%) | < 50 | Weight (kg) |
| | 74 (49.3%) | 81 (54%) | 50 - 70 | |
| | 45 (30%) | 44 (29.4%) | >70 | |
| 0.107 | 12 (8%) | 12 (8%) | illiterate | Educational Level |
| | 20 (13.3%) | 36 (24%) | only reading & writing | |
| | 36 (24%) | 32 (21.3%) | up to elementary school | |
| | 51 (34%) | 53 (35.3%) | high school diploma | |
| | 25 (16.7%) | 13 (8.7%) | associate degree | |
| | 6 (4%) | 4 (2.7%) | Bachelor degree&higher | |
| 0.002 | 124 (82.7%) | 94 (62.7%) | city | Residence |
| | 26 (17.3%) | 56 (37.3%) | village | |

122

123 *: Chi-Square statistical test

124 Table 3-4 compares the two groups' frequency of cigarette and alcohol
125 consumption and drug abuse. As seen, the frequency was significantly
126 higher in the case study group ($p < 0.05$). In addition, the most common

127 substance consumed was cigarettes, followed in prevalence by drugs
128 and alcohol respectively.

129 **Table3-4:**Comparison of the Consumption of Cigarettes, Drugs, and
130 Alcohol

131

| *P-value | Control Group Frequency & Frequency Percentage | Case Study Group Frequency & Frequency Percentage | Variable Group | |
|----------|---|---|----------------|--------------------------------------|
| 0.001 | 31 (20.7%) | 58 (38.7%) | yes | History of Cigarette Use |
| | 119 (79.3%) | 92 (61.3%) | no | |
| 0.004 | 8 (5.3%) | 24 (16%) | yes | History of Drug Abuse |
| | 142 (94.7%) | 126(84%) | no | |
| 0.026 | 4 (2.7%) | 14(9.4%) | yes | History of Alcohol Consumption |
| | 146 (97.3%) | 136 (90.6%) | no | |

132

133 *: Fisher Exact statistical test

134 The frequency of a history of digestive and non-digestive diseases is
135 presented in Table 4-4.As observed, the comparison does not show any
136 significant difference between the case study and the control group.On
137 the other hand,there was a significant difference in the frequency of non-
138 digestive disease history between the two groups (p=0.027).

139

140

Table4-4: Comparison of the Frequency of Diseases History ¹⁴¹

| P-value* | Control Group Frequency Percentage | Case Group Frequency Percentage | Variable Group | |
|----------|--|---------------------------------------|----------------|--------------------------------------|
| | | | 0.078 | 38 (25.3%) |
| | 112 (74.7%) | 100 (66.7%) | no | |
| 0.0272 | 73 (48.7%) | 93 (62%) | yes | History of Non- digestive Disease |
| | 77 (51.3%) | 57 (38%) | no | |

142

143 *: Chi-Square statistical test

144 Table 4-5 provides the frequency of NSAID consumption in the two
145 groups. As indicated, NSAID consumption in patients with GI bleeding
146 was significantly higher compared to those not suffering from this
147 condition ($p=0.016$). Furthermore, the comparison among the types of
148 NSAID consumed by patients of the two groups showed a significant
149 difference in regard to type ($p<0.001$). The most commonly used NSAID
150 in the case study group was aspirin, either as an ongoing consumption or
151 at least for a past period of time. In fact, except for six patients, all
152 subjects in the control group using NSAIDs were taking aspirin. After
153 aspirin, the most common NSAID in the case study group was
154 ibuprofen. However, in the control group, there was greater consumption
155 of ibuprofen followed by aspirin and diclofenac respectively. In both

156 study groups, other NSAIDs, such as indomethacin and naproxen, were
 157 less commonly used.

158 **Table 4-5** : Comparison of the frequency of NSAID consumption and its
 159 subtypes

| | | | | |
|---------|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------------|
| 0.022** | 35 (23.4%) | 55 (36%) | yes | NSAID Consumption |
| | 115 (76.6%) | 95 (64%) | no | |
| *0.001< | 13 (8.7%) | 49 (32.66%) | Aspirin | Type of NSAID |
| | 14 (3.9%) | 5 (34.3%) | Ibuprofen | |
| | 7 (7.4%) | 0 (0%) | Diclofenac | |
| | 0 (0%) | 1 (7.0%) | Indomethacin | |
| | 1 (7.0%) | 0 (0%) | Naproxen | |
| | 0 (0%) | 0 (0%) | Other | |

160

161 *: Chi-Square statistical test

162 **: Fisher Exact statistical test

163

164 The frequency of other medications taken by patients is presented in
 165 Table 6-4. A significant difference in the type of drugs taken is evident
 166 between the two groups ($p=0.035$). In the case study group, the most
 167 common were corticosteroids (15.3%), Warfarin (14%), and Plavix
 168 (13.3%). However, in the control group, the most prevalent drugs were
 169 SSRIs (10.6%), Plavix (4%), and corticosteroids (4%). Generally, the
 170 amount of medications taken by the case study patients was significantly

171 higher. In both groups, the consumption of Heparin was less than any
 172 other of the drugs.

173 **Table 6-4:** Comparison of the Frequency of Other Drug Consumption

174

175

| P-Value* | Control Group Frequency & Frequency Percentage | Case Study Group Frequency & Frequency Percentage | Other Drugs |
|----------|---|---|-----------------|
| 0.038 | 5(%3.3) | 21 (14%) | Warfarin |
| | 6(4%) | 20 (%13.3) | Plavix |
| | 6(4%) | 23 (%15.3) | Corticosteroids |
| | 5(%3.3) | 15 (10%) | Other NSAIDs |
| | 16(%10.6) | 14 (%9.3) | SSRIs |
| | 2(%1.3) | 8 (%5.3) | Heparin |

176

177 *:Chi-Square statistical test

178 Table 7-4 provides patient endoscopy results. As seen, out of 150
 179 patients with GI bleeding, 97 had undergone an endoscopy while the
 180 other 53 patients had not because of various reasons, such as patient
 181 unwillingness or medical conditions. The most common pathologic
 182 finding following endoscopy was ulcers (38.1%), while a mass was the

183 least commonly observed pathology (4.2%). In 20.6 % of the patients, the
 184 endoscopy results were normal.

185 **Table 7-4:** Frequency of Endoscopic Findings in Patients with Upper
 186 GI Bleeding

187

| Frequency Percentage | Frequency | Variable | |
|----------------------|-----------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| 20.6% | 20 | Normal | Endoscopy Results |
| 38.1% | 37 | Observed Ulceration | |
| 23.7% | 23 | Observed Inflammation | |
| 6.2% | 6 | Observed Varicose | |
| 4.2% | 4 | Observed Mass | |
| 7.2% | 7 | Other | |

188

189 The results of the coagulative and hemoglobin tests of patients with
 190 upper GI bleeding are also given in Table 8-4. As observed, the mean
 191 amount of hemoglobin was 10.23 gr/dl and that of platelets was 235000
 192 per microliter, with hemoglobin results being less than normal. In
 193 addition, the PT, PTT, and INR indexes of the patients showed that the
 194 amount of PT was 16.3 and INR 1.41, indexes that are slightly higher
 195 than normal. The mean PTT was 30.42%, which is in the normal range.
 196 The logistic regression test was employed to assess the extent of the
 197 studied variables' prediction effect on GI bleeding. As seen, in a

198 comparison between the case study and the control group, cigarette use,
 199 alcohol consumption, and, finally, a history of NSAID consumption can
 200 lead to an increased risk of upper GI bleeding incidence with an OR of
 201 1.81, 4.241, and 1.838 respectively.

202 From these variables, drug abuse, gender, and age did not have any
 203 effect on raising or lowering the risk of upper GI bleeding incidence.

204 Table 8-4 lists the results for each studied variable.

205 **Table 8-4:** Evaluating the Predictive Effect of Variables under Study
 206 on the Establishment of GI Bleeding

207

| CI 95% for OR (lower-upper) | Odds Ratio(OR) | P- value** | Variable |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| 0.942-1.004 | 0.965 | 0.175 | Age |
| 0.634-1.664 | 1.029 | 0.92 | Gender* |
| 1.071-3.151 | 1.838 | 0.024 | Cigarette Use |
| 0.941-5.459 | 2.72 | 0.06 | Drug Abuse |
| 1.415-13.29 | 4.421 | 0.02 | Alcohol Use |
| 1.076-3.067 | 1.812 | 0.021 | History of NSAID |

*risk of males compared to females

208

Logistic regression test**

209

210

211

212

Discussion

213

214 In the present research, a total of 300 patients aged above 35 were
215 studied in two groups. One group consisted of subjects suffering from GI
216 bleeding and the other group of subjects without this condition. Statistical
217 tests revealed that there was no significant difference between the two
218 groups in regard to gender frequency, age, marital status, weight group
219 frequency, and educational level. However, the statistical tests did reveal
220 that there was a significant difference between the two study groups
221 where patient residence was concerned; patients in the control group
222 more frequently lived in urban areas, a finding that had barely been
223 investigated previously. For instance, the Button et al. study conducted
224 in 2010 showed that a higher number of patients with upper GI bleeding
225 lived in urban areas (6). Likewise, in the 2012 study by Whiskey et al.,
226 the prevalence of varicose and non-varicose upper GI bleeding was
227 reported to be greater among the urban population (7). Yet, these two
228 above mentioned studies did not further explore the possible reasons
229 behind their findings. In any case, it seems that the stronger presence of
230 risk factors for upper GI bleeding in urban areas has led to a greater
231 number of patients in these areas. Furthermore, in the case of the
232 present study, the location of Qaem Hospital in the urban center of
233 Mashhad may explain the higher incidence of GI bleeding in the area. As
234 a matter of fact, the urban population served by Qaem Hospital is larger

235 than the number of its patients from rural areas, which can explain the
236 greater prevalence of upper GI bleeding reported in the present
237 research.

238 Based on the current study's results, it can be said that the case study
239 and control group were rather similar in regard to demographic variables
240 that can affect upper GI disease; there was an appropriate selection of
241 the groups and the background risk factors were alike.

242 The present research's other findings suggest that the prevalence of
243 cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, and drug abuse was
244 significantly higher in the case study group when compared to the control
245 group. Furthermore, by studying the predictive effects of upper GI
246 bleeding, it was observed that variables, such as alcohol, cigarettes, and
247 drug abuse, raise the risk of upper GI bleeding in patients. These findings
248 have also been reported in other similar studies. For example, the
249 Crooks et al. 2013 study found that cigarette use (whether active or
250 passive) and alcohol consumption increased the risk of upper GI
251 bleeding (non-variceal GI bleeding). In the case control study, 16,355
252 patients with upper GI bleeding were compared to subjects similar in age,
253 gender, and occupation. As for alcohol consumption, the study also
254 reported that the risk of bleeding incidence grew following a rise in
255 consumption. Lastly, alcohol and cigarette consumption were deemed
256 as significant risk factors for upper GI bleeding and the study noted the

257 importance of focusing on these(8). The results of the research are
258 completely in accordance with the present work. Another US study in
259 2016 investigated the risk of GI bleeding in patients with a history of
260 cigarette or alcohol use. 48,000 men between the ages of 40 to 75 were
261 tracked for a period of 26 years. The results reported 305 cases of GI
262 bleeding. In the analysis of the variables of alcohol and cigarette
263 consumption by the research subjects, drinking more than 30 gr of
264 alcohol per day was shown to increase the risk of GI bleeding as
265 opposed to the abstaining control group. Furthermore, consuming
266 alcohol more than 5 times per week was deemed to be an independent
267 risk factor increasing the incidence of GI bleeding. The study also
268 suggested that cigarette use is not related to GI bleeding(9).Despite no
269 correlation found between smoking and GI bleeding by the study, the
270 results were more or less in accordance with those ofthe current
271 research in thatalcohol consumption was reported as a GI bleeding risk
272 factor.

273 The relation between alcohol and upper GI bleeding has been explored
274 by other studies as well, many of which were case controls investigating
275 the correlation between alcohol consumption and different causes of
276 upper GI bleeding, such as pepticulcer (10).However, research looking
277 specifically into the link between alcohol consumption and upper GI
278 bleeding is generally in theminority(9, 11). However, those studies

279 observed a strong correlation that is in accordance with the current work.
280 From a biological perspective, the relation between alcohol consumption
281 and GI bleeding is valid as it is now understood that alcohol can lead to
282 desquamation of the gastric epithelium, edematous change in the lamina
283 propria, tissue necrosis in deep layers, and also bleeding erosions.
284 Alcohol related mucosal damage can be caused by a rise in the
285 production of oxygen-free radical species, a fall in the level of
286 prostaglandins, and also the release of mucosal leukotrienes (12, 13).
287 As for cigarette smoking and upper GI bleeding, different results have
288 been reported by various studies. This factor requires larger population
289 size for evaluation. Similar to the current work, some researchers have
290 propounded cigarettes as a risk factor for GI bleeding, while some others
291 have not (9, 14, 15).
292 In regard to a history of GI disease, some research has reported no
293 significant difference between the case study and the control group.
294 However, there has been a significant difference observed when
295 comparing the history of non-digestive disease frequency. In the UK,
296 Hearnshaw et al. studied 6,750 patients suffering from GI bleeding. It
297 was found that 50% of the patients studied had at least one of the
298 following diseases: ischemic heart disease, heart failure, respiratory
299 disease, brain stroke, dementia, cancer, and cirrhosis, all of which are
300 associated with a higher risk of mortality. Similar to the present work, the

301 study reported a high number of patients with upper GI bleeding who
302 also suffered from several other non-digestive diseases. It must be noted,
303 however, that, unlike the present research, the study did not include a
304 control group, thus making comparisons impossible(16). Another study
305 by Rockall et al. assessed upper GI bleeding risk factors and found that
306 many non-digestive diseases are related to an increased risk of upper GI
307 bleeding. These diseases include ischemic heart disease, heart failure,
308 asthma, chronic pulmonary obstructive diseases, kidney failure, renal
309 failure, cancer, dementia, hypertension, and pneumonia. Similar to the
310 Hearnshaw et al. research, the study observed a correlation between the
311 prevalence of these diseases and a higher mortality risk among
312 patients(17). The relation between upper GI bleeding and some specific
313 diseases has been previously reported. As an example, in 2000, Weil et
314 al. found a higher rate of upper GI bleeding in diabetic patients as
315 compared to a non-diabetic population(10). Similarly, Kalman and
316 Petrosa studied patients with renal diseases and indicated a higher rate
317 of gastric disease and especially upper GI bleeding when compared to a
318 normal population. Other studies share the same findings(18, 19). In
319 agreement with the present research, the studies presented above all
320 recognize the link between non-digestive diseases in the incidence of
321 upper GI bleeding. In general, it appears that patients suffering from

322 different diseases also have an increased risk of both the incidence of
323 upper GI bleeding and a higher mortality rate.

324 In the present study's comparison of NSAID consumption between the
325 case study and control group, there was a significant difference in the
326 type of NSAID used. Except for six patients, all of the case study patients
327 had used NSAIDs, of which aspirin was the most commonly consumed
328 followed by ibuprofen. Patients in the control group, however, had
329 comparatively higher ibuprofen consumption, with aspirin being the
330 second most common drug consumed. After aspirin, the control group
331 used Diclofenac at a higher rate than that of the case study
332 patients. Both groups had a lower consumption of other types of NSAIDs,
333 such as indomethacin and naproxen. In conclusion, the present study
334 generally associates aspirin consumption with greater GI bleeding. This
335 finding has also been noted in several previous studies. For example,
336 the 2012 review article by Castellsague et al. concluded that ibuprofen,
337 the most commonly used drug in the control group, is the safest NSAID
338 from the aspect of upper GI bleeding (20). Also, in their 2012 study, De
339 Abajo et al. investigated the relation of NSAIDs and other drug
340 consumption with upper GI bleeding. It was revealed that aspirin poses a
341 higher risk of upper GI disease than the consumption of other
342 drugs (21). The results of the two studies described above are in
343 accordance with the present work's findings in that the case study and

344 control group most commonly consumed aspirin and
345 ibuprofen respectively.

346 Another result of the present study addresses the frequency of other
347 drug consumption by the patients of the two groups. In both the case
348 study and the control group, a large spectrum of drugs were taken by
349 patients, out of which the current work attempted to discern which are
350 closer related to upper GI bleeding. The findings show a significant
351 difference in the amount of drugs consumed by the two groups. Among
352 the cases study subjects, the most common were corticosteroids
353 (15.3%), Warfarin (14%), and Clopidogrel (13.3%). However, the most
354 prevalent medications for control group subjects were SSRIs (10.6%),
355 clopidogrel (4%), and corticosteroids (4%). In general, the drug
356 consumption in the case study group was significantly higher. In both
357 groups, Heparin was the least used. Previous studies have also
358 investigated the correlation between the use of various drugs and upper
359 GI bleeding. For instance, the 2014 review of 159 articles by Narum et al.
360 studied the link between corticosteroids and upper GI bleeding. It was
361 finally concluded that corticosteroids use is associated with an increased
362 risk of upper GI bleeding and gastric ulcers (22). As mentioned in the
363 present study, using these drugs in the case study group was more than
364 in the control group. Regarding Warfarin and Clopidogrel and their
365 relation to upper GI bleeding, previously conducted studies concur with

366 thecurrentpaper's findings. In 2013, De Abajo et al. investigated the use
367 of these drugs in patients with upper GI bleedingand concluded that their
368 consumption can heighten the risk of upper GI bleeding in comparison to
369 healthy individuals(21). The subjects in the present paper's case study
370 group also took more multiple NSAIDs than did the control group.
371 Previous studies have stressed that the consumption of multiple NSAIDs
372 increase the risk of upper GI bleeding. After exploring the risk factor of
373 upper GI bleeding in their 2010 research, Scarpiganto and Hunt
374 concluded that taking multiple NSAIDs or anticoagulant drugs, such as
375 Warfarin and corticosteroids, all can increase the risk of gastric
376 bleedings,a finding with which the present paper is in accordance(23).

377 The current paper's other results deal with patient endoscopies. 97
378 patients with GI bleeding underwent endoscopy while the other 53
379 patients did not for reasons such as medical issues orunwillingness to
380 consent to the procedure. The most common pathologic finding was
381 ulcers, which were observed in 38.1% of patients undergoing
382 endoscopy, while the least common pathology was a mass as observed
383 in 4.2% of these patients. In 20.6% of the patients, the endoscopy
384 results were normal. In the 2011Hearnshaw et al. study of 6,750 patients
385 with upper GI bleeding, the most commonly observed pathology was
386 ulcers,with inflammation as the second most prevalent(16),findings
387 similar to those ofthe current research.

388 The other result of the present study dealt with the hemoglobin, platelet,
389 and coagulation profiles of patients suffering from upper GI bleeding, as
390 provided in the results section. The mean amount of blood hemoglobin
391 of these patients was 10.32 gr/dl, indicating a low and thus anemia. It
392 must be noted that blood tests were only conducted on subjects with
393 upper GI bleeding and so comparison against the control group was
394 regrettably not possible. However, in consideration of the subjects' GI
395 bleeding, low readings in reported blood hemoglobin, in comparison with
396 normal results, can be expected. In Hearnshaw et al.'s study, the mean
397 amount of hemoglobin in patients was also low at 11gr/dl, again below
398 the normal cut-off(16). In addition, Gonzalez-Gonzalez et al. reported a
399 low mean amount of 9.2 gr/d, again less than normal(24).

400 **Conclusion:**

401 The results of the present study indicate that greater consumption of
402 NSAIDs in patients with upper GI bleeding is significantly higher in
403 comparison with patients not suffering from this condition. Moreover, a
404 history of consuming NSAIDs increases a patient's risk of acquiring GI
405 bleeding. Likewise, the frequency of cigarette, drug, and alcohol
406 consumption in the case study group was significantly higher than that of
407 the control group, thus signifying that variables, such as alcohol and
408 cigarettes, increase the risk of GI bleeding in patients.

409

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