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# Association Between Serum Calcium Levels and Blood Pressure with Infarct Volume in Acute Ischemic Stroke: A Cross-Sectional Study

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# ABSTRACT

**Background and Objectives:** Calcium homeostasis and blood pressure regulation play crucial roles in stroke pathophysiology. This study investigated associations between serum calcium levels, blood pressure parameters, and infarct volume in acute ischemic stroke.

**Methods:** We conducted a cross-sectional study of 100 consecutive patients with acute ischemic stroke presenting within 24 hours of symptom onset. Serum calcium levels were measured within 6 hours of admission. Infarct volume was calculated using semi-automated volumetric analysis of neuroimaging. Multiple linear regression analyzed independent predictors of infarct volume.

**Results:** Mean age was 64.5±12.3 years with 58% males. Median infarct volume was 28.5 mL (IQR: 12.3-68.4). Corrected calcium showed significant correlation with infarct volume (r=0.45, p<0.001), as did systolic blood pressure (r=0.38, p<0.001). In multivariable analysis, each 0.1 mmol/L increase in corrected calcium was associated with 8.24 mL larger infarct volume (95% CI: 3.98-12.50, p<0.001). Patients in the highest calcium tertile (>2.46 mmol/L) had median infarct volumes of 48.6 mL compared to 16.8 mL in the lowest tertile (p<0.001). Thirty-day mortality was 24.2% in the highest versus 6.1% in the lowest calcium tertile (p=0.044).

**Conclusion:** Elevated serum calcium levels are independently associated with larger infarct volumes in acute ischemic stroke. These findings suggest calcium measurement may provide prognostic information and identify high-risk patients requiring aggressive management.

Keywords: Ischemic stroke, serum calcium, blood pressure, infarct volume, prognosis

Stroke remains a leading cause of mortality and long-term disability worldwide, affecting approximately 15 million people annually and resulting in 5 million deaths (1). Ischemic stroke, which accounts for approximately 87% of all stroke cases, occurs when cerebral blood flow is interrupted, leading to neuronal death and tissue infarction (2). The extent of cerebral infarction and subsequent neurological outcome depends on multiple factors, including the duration of ischemia, collateral circulation, and various metabolic parameters that influence neuronal vulnerability to hypoxic injury (3).

Calcium homeostasis plays a crucial role in numerous physiological processes, including neuronal excitability, neurotransmitter release, and cellular signaling pathways. During ischemic stroke, disruption of calcium homeostasis represents a fundamental mechanism of neuronal injury. The ischemic cascade triggers excessive calcium influx into neurons through voltage-gated calcium channels and glutamate receptors, leading to mitochondrial dysfunction, activation of proteases and lipases, and ultimately cell death (4). Paradoxically, systemic calcium levels may also influence stroke severity through their effects on vascular tone, platelet aggregation, and blood pressure regulation.

Recent evidence suggests that serum calcium levels may serve as both a risk factor and prognostic indicator in acute ischemic stroke. A large prospective cohort study demonstrated that individuals with higher serum calcium levels had an

increased risk of stroke incidence, with each 0.1 mmol/L increase in serum calcium associated with a 1.4-fold increased risk of ischemic stroke (5). Furthermore, alterations in serum calcium levels during the acute phase of stroke have been associated with worse functional outcomes and increased mortality rates (6).

The relationship between calcium metabolism and blood pressure regulation has been well established. Calcium ions play a critical role in vascular smooth muscle contraction, and disturbances in calcium homeostasis can lead to altered vascular reactivity and hypertension. Epidemiological studies have shown an inverse relationship between dietary calcium intake and blood pressure, while serum calcium levels demonstrate a more complex association with hypertension (7). In the context of acute stroke, hypertension represents both a major risk factor and a common physiological response that may influence infarct expansion and clinical outcome.

The interaction between serum calcium levels, blood pressure, and cerebral infarction volume represents a complex pathophysiological relationship that remains incompletely understood. Elevated blood pressure during acute stroke may reflect a compensatory mechanism to maintain cerebral perfusion, but excessive hypertension can exacerbate hemorrhagic transformation and cerebral edema (8). Simultaneously, altered calcium homeostasis may influence both blood pressure regulation and the extent of ischemic injury through multiple mechanisms, including effects on vascular tone, neuronal excitotoxicity, and inflammatory responses.

Previous studies examining the relationship between serum calcium and stroke outcomes have yielded conflicting results. While some investigations have reported associations between hypercalcemia and larger infarct volumes, others have found no significant correlation or have suggested that mild hypocalcemia may be neuroprotective (9). These discrepancies may reflect differences in study populations, timing of calcium measurements, and failure to account for confounding factors such as blood pressure variations and comorbidities.

Understanding the interplay between serum calcium levels, blood pressure, and infarct volume in acute ischemic stroke has important clinical implications. If confirmed, these relationships could inform risk stratification strategies, guide acute management decisions, and potentially identify novel therapeutic targets. For instance, calcium channel blockers have shown promise in reducing stroke-related brain injury, though their use remains controversial due to concerns about blood pressure reduction and cerebral perfusion (10).

Despite the biological plausibility and clinical relevance of these relationships, comprehensive studies examining the simultaneous associations between serum calcium, blood pressure parameters, and infarct volume in acute stroke patients remain limited. Most previous investigations have focused on individual relationships rather than exploring the complex interactions between these variables. Additionally, many studies have been limited by small sample sizes, heterogeneous patient populations, or inadequate adjustment for confounding factors.

#### AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the association between serum calcium levels and infarct volume in patients presenting with acute ischemic stroke. The secondary aim was to examine the relationship between blood pressure parameters and infarct volume, as well as to explore potential interactions between serum calcium levels and blood pressure in determining stroke severity.

The specific objectives were:

- 1. To determine the correlation between admission serum calcium levels and infarct volume measured by neuroimaging
- 2. To evaluate the relationship between systolic and diastolic blood pressure at presentation and infarct volume
- 3. To assess whether serum calcium levels modify the association between blood pressure and infarct volume
- 4. To identify clinical and laboratory factors that influence these relationships

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### **Study Design and Setting**

This cross-sectional observational study was conducted at a tertiary care hospital between January 2023 and December 2023. The study protocol was approved by the institutional ethics committee, and all procedures were performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

## **Study Population**

The study population consisted of consecutive patients admitted to the stroke unit with a diagnosis of acute ischemic stroke. Patients were screened for eligibility within 24 hours of symptom onset.

#### **Inclusion Criteria**

Patients were included in the study if they met all of the following criteria: age 18 years or older; clinical diagnosis of acute ischemic stroke confirmed by neuroimaging (computed tomography or magnetic resonance imaging); presentation within 24 hours of symptom onset; availability of serum calcium measurement within 6 hours of admission; and documented blood pressure measurements at the time of presentation.

#### **Exclusion Criteria**

Patients were excluded if they had any of the following conditions: hemorrhagic stroke or hemorrhagic transformation of ischemic stroke; previous history of stroke with significant residual deficits; known parathyroid disorders or recent parathyroid surgery; chronic kidney disease stage 4 or 5 (estimated glomerular filtration rate <30 mL/min/1.73m²); active malignancy with known bone metastases; current use of calcium supplements or vitamin D therapy exceeding physiological doses; recent major surgery or trauma within the preceding month; or inability to undergo neuroimaging due to contraindications or clinical instability.

#### **Sample Size Calculation**

The sample size was calculated based on the primary objective of detecting a correlation between serum calcium levels and infarct volume. Assuming a moderate correlation coefficient of 0.3, with 80% power and a two-sided significance level of 0.05, a minimum sample size of 85 patients was required. To account for potential exclusions and incomplete data, the target recruitment was set at 100 patients.

#### **Data Collection**

Data collection was performed using a standardized case report form. Demographic information including age, sex, and body mass index was recorded. Clinical variables included time from symptom onset to presentation, National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale (NIHSS) score at admission, and Glasgow Coma Scale score. Vascular risk factors were documented, including history of hypertension, diabetes mellitus, dyslipidemia, atrial fibrillation, coronary artery disease, and smoking status.

## **Blood Pressure Measurement**

Blood pressure was measured at the time of initial presentation using an automated oscillometric device. Measurements were obtained in the supine position after at least 5 minutes of rest. Three consecutive readings were taken at 2-minute intervals, and the average of the second and third readings was recorded. Both systolic and diastolic blood pressure values were documented, and mean arterial pressure was calculated using the formula: MAP = DBP + 1/3(SBP - DBP).

## **Laboratory Investigations**

Venous blood samples were collected within 6 hours of admission for laboratory analysis. Serum calcium levels were measured using automated colorimetric assay methods. Corrected calcium levels were calculated using the formula: Corrected calcium = Measured calcium +  $0.8 \times (4.0 - \text{serum albumin})$ . Additional laboratory parameters included complete blood count, serum electrolytes (sodium, potassium, magnesium), renal function tests (urea, creatinine), liver function tests, random blood glucose, glycated hemoglobin, lipid profile, and high-sensitivity C-reactive protein.

#### **Neuroimaging and Infarct Volume Measurement**

All patients underwent brain imaging within 24 hours of admission. Initial computed tomography was performed to exclude hemorrhage, followed by magnetic resonance imaging when clinically indicated. Diffusion-weighted imaging sequences were used for infarct identification and volume measurement. Infarct volume was calculated using semi-automated volumetric analysis software by trained radiologists who were blinded to clinical and laboratory data. The ABC/2 method was used for regular-shaped infarcts, while manual segmentation was performed for irregular lesions. Infarct location was classified according to vascular territory (anterior circulation, posterior circulation, or multiple territories).

## **Statistical Analysis**

Statistical analysis was performed using appropriate software. Continuous variables were expressed as mean ± standard deviation for normally distributed data or median with interquartile range for non-normally distributed data. Categorical variables were presented as frequencies and percentages. The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to assess normality of distribution. Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between serum calcium levels and infarct volume for normally distributed data, while Spearman rank correlation was used for non-parametric data. Multiple linear regression analysis was performed to adjust for potential confounders including age, sex, NIHSS score, time to

presentation, and vascular risk factors. Subgroup analyses were conducted based on stroke severity, infarct location, and presence of hypertension. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

#### RESULTS

The study enrolled a total of 100 patients with acute ischemic stroke who met the inclusion criteria. The mean age of the study population was  $64.5 \pm 12.3$  years, with 58% being male. The median time from symptom onset to presentation was 8.5 hours (IQR: 4.5-16.0 hours), and the median NIHSS score at admission was 9 (IQR: 5-14), indicating moderate stroke severity. The prevalence of vascular risk factors was high, with 72% of patients having a history of hypertension, 38% having diabetes mellitus, and 45% having dyslipidemia.

Table 1: Baseline Characteristics of Study Population (n=100)

Characteristic	Value
Age (years), mean ± SD	$64.5 \pm 12.3$
Male sex, n (%)	58 (58.0)
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> ), mean $\pm$ SD	$26.8 \pm 4.2$
Time to presentation (hours), median (IQR)	8.5 (4.5-16.0)
NIHSS score at admission, median (IQR)	9 (5-14)
Vascular Risk Factors	
Hypertension, n (%)	72 (72.0)
Diabetes mellitus, n (%)	38 (38.0)
Dyslipidemia, n (%)	45 (45.0)
Atrial fibrillation, n (%)	22 (22.0)
Current smoking, n (%)	28 (28.0)
Laboratory Parameters	
Serum calcium (mmol/L), mean ± SD	$2.38 \pm 0.18$
Corrected calcium (mmol/L), mean ± SD	$2.42 \pm 0.16$
Serum albumin (g/dL), mean ± SD	$3.6 \pm 0.5$
Creatinine (mg/dL), median (IQR)	0.9 (0.7-1.2)
Random glucose (mg/dL), mean ± SD	$142.5 \pm 58.2$
Blood Pressure Parameters	
Systolic BP (mmHg), mean ± SD	$162.4 \pm 28.6$
Diastolic BP (mmHg), mean ± SD	$92.3 \pm 16.4$
Mean arterial pressure (mmHg), mean $\pm$ SD	$115.7 \pm 19.2$

The mean serum calcium level was  $2.38 \pm 0.18$  mmol/L, with corrected calcium levels averaging  $2.42 \pm 0.16$  mmol/L. Blood pressure measurements at presentation revealed significant elevations, with mean systolic blood pressure of  $162.4 \pm 28.6$  mmHg and mean diastolic blood pressure of  $92.3 \pm 16.4$  mmHg. The majority of infarcts (68%) occurred in the anterior circulation territory, while 24% were in the posterior circulation and 8% involved multiple vascular territories. The median infarct volume was 28.5 mL (IQR: 12.3-68.4 mL), with 38% classified as small infarcts, 42% as medium infarcts, and 20% as large infarcts.

**Table 2: Neuroimaging Characteristics and Infarct Volume** 

Characteristic	Value	
Infarct Location		
Anterior circulation, n (%)	68 (68.0)	
Posterior circulation, n (%)	24 (24.0)	
Multiple territories, n (%)	8 (8.0)	

Characteristic	Value	
Infarct Volume		
Total infarct volume (mL), median (IQR)	28.5 (12.3-68.4)	
Small infarcts (<20 mL), n (%)	38 (38.0)	
Medium infarcts (20-70 mL), n (%)	42 (42.0)	
Large infarcts (>70 mL), n (%)	20 (20.0)	

Correlation analysis revealed significant positive associations between serum calcium levels and infarct volume. The correlation coefficient for serum calcium and infarct volume was 0.42 (95% CI: 0.24-0.57, p<0.001), while corrected calcium showed a slightly stronger correlation of 0.45 (95% CI: 0.28-0.60, p<0.001). Blood pressure parameters also demonstrated significant correlations with infarct volume, with systolic blood pressure showing a correlation coefficient of 0.38 (95% CI: 0.20-0.54, p<0.001), diastolic blood pressure showing 0.32 (95% CI: 0.13-0.48, p=0.001), and mean arterial pressure showing 0.36 (95% CI: 0.18-0.52, p<0.001). Additionally, a significant positive correlation was observed between serum calcium levels and systolic blood pressure (r=0.28, 95% CI: 0.09-0.45, p=0.005).

Table 3: Correlation Between Serum Calcium, Blood Pressure, and Infarct Volume

Variables	Correlation Coefficient (r)	95% CI	p-value
Serum calcium vs. Infarct volume	0.42	0.24-0.57	< 0.001
Corrected calcium vs. Infarct volume	0.45	0.28-0.60	< 0.001
Systolic BP vs. Infarct volume	0.38	0.20-0.54	< 0.001
Diastolic BP vs. Infarct volume	0.32	0.13-0.48	0.001
MAP vs. Infarct volume	0.36	0.18-0.52	< 0.001
Serum calcium vs. Systolic BP	0.28	0.09-0.45	0.005

Multiple linear regression analysis was performed to identify independent predictors of infarct volume while adjusting for potential confounders. The model explained 52% of the variance in infarct volume (adjusted  $R^2$ =0.48, p<0.001). Corrected calcium remained a significant independent predictor, with each 0.1 mmol/L increase associated with an 8.24 mL increase in infarct volume (95% CI: 3.98-12.50, p<0.001). Systolic blood pressure also remained independently associated with infarct volume, with each 10 mmHg increase corresponding to a 4.36 mL increase in infarct volume (95% CI: 1.82-6.90, p=0.001). Other significant independent predictors included age ( $\beta$ =0.82 per year,  $\rho$ =0.009), NIHSS score ( $\beta$ =2.94 per point,  $\rho$ <0.001), presence of diabetes mellitus ( $\beta$ =12.45,  $\rho$ =0.034), and atrial fibrillation ( $\beta$ =18.62,  $\rho$ =0.011).

Table 4: Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for Predictors of Infarct Volume

Variable	β Coefficient	Standard Error	95% CI	p-value
Corrected calcium (per 0.1 mmol/L)	8.24	2.15	3.98-12.50	< 0.001
Systolic BP (per 10 mmHg)	4.36	1.28	1.82-6.90	0.001
Age (per year)	0.82	0.31	0.21-1.43	0.009
NIHSS score (per point)	2.94	0.68	1.59-4.29	< 0.001
Diabetes mellitus	12.45	5.82	0.94-23.96	0.034
Atrial fibrillation	18.62	7.24	4.31-32.93	0.011
Time to presentation (per hour)	0.54	0.42	-0.29-1.37	0.198

Model  $R^2 = 0.52$ , Adjusted  $R^2 = 0.48$ , p < 0.001

Subgroup analysis based on serum calcium tertiles revealed a dose-response relationship with stroke severity. Patients in the highest calcium tertile (>2.46 mmol/L) had significantly larger median infarct volumes (48.6 mL) compared to those in the middle tertile (28.4 mL) and lowest tertile (16.8 mL) (p<0.001 for trend). Similarly, systolic blood pressure increased across calcium tertiles, from  $152.6 \pm 24.8$  mmHg in the lowest tertile to  $172.1 \pm 30.4$  mmHg in the highest tertile (p=0.018). The median NIHSS scores also showed a progressive increase across tertiles (6, 9, and 12 respectively, p=0.002), and 30-day mortality rates were highest in the upper calcium tertile (24.2%) compared to the middle (11.8%) and lower tertiles (6.1%) (p=0.044).

Table 5: Subgroup Analysis by Serum Calcium Tertiles

Characteristic	`	Tertile 2 (2.28-2.46 mmol/L) n=34	`	p- value
111041411 (1211)	`	28.4 (14.6-56.3)	48.6 (24.8-112.4)	<0.001
Systolic BP (mmHg), mean ± SD	$152.6 \pm 24.8$	$162.8 \pm 28.2$	$172.1 \pm 30.4$	0.018
NIHSS score, median (IQR)	6 (4-10)	9 (5-14)	12 (8-18)	0.002
30-day mortality, n (%)	2 (6.1)	4 (11.8)	8 (24.2)	0.044

When stratified by stroke location, the association between serum calcium and infarct volume was most pronounced in anterior circulation strokes (r=0.48, p<0.001) compared to posterior circulation strokes (r=0.32, p=0.042). Among patients with pre-existing hypertension, the correlation between calcium levels and infarct volume was stronger (r=0.51, p<0.001) than in normotensive patients (r=0.28, p=0.048). Interaction analysis revealed a significant interaction between serum calcium and systolic blood pressure in predicting infarct volume (p for interaction=0.023), suggesting that the effect of calcium on infarct size was modified by blood pressure levels.

#### **DISCUSSION**

This cross-sectional study demonstrated significant associations between serum calcium levels, blood pressure parameters, and infarct volume in patients with acute ischemic stroke. The finding that higher serum calcium levels correlate with larger infarct volumes aligns with emerging evidence suggesting calcium's role in stroke pathophysiology beyond its well-established involvement in neuronal excitotoxicity.

Our results showing a correlation coefficient of 0.45 between corrected calcium and infarct volume are consistent with previous investigations. Buck et al. reported similar findings in a cohort of 248 stroke patients, where serum calcium levels above 2.45 mmol/L were associated with a 2.3-fold increased risk of large territorial infarcts (11). The magnitude of association in our study (8.24 mL increase per 0.1 mmol/L calcium) provides quantitative evidence for this relationship. In contrast, a smaller study by Ovbiagele et al. involving 89 patients found no significant association, possibly due to limited statistical power and differences in patient selection (12).

The observed correlation between systolic blood pressure and infarct volume (r=0.38, p<0.001) supports the complex relationship between acute hypertension and stroke severity. Our findings are comparable to those reported by Leonardi-Bee et al. in their systematic review of 32 studies, which found that each 10 mmHg increase in systolic blood pressure was associated with a 5% increase in early death and dependency (13). However, our study extends these findings by demonstrating the direct relationship with radiological infarct volume, with each 10 mmHg increase associated with 4.36 mL larger infarct volume.

The interaction between serum calcium and blood pressure in determining infarct volume represents a novel finding with important pathophysiological implications. The stronger correlation between calcium and infarct volume in hypertensive patients (r=0.51) compared to normotensive patients (r=0.28) suggests synergistic effects. This finding is supported by experimental data from Koide et al., who demonstrated that elevated extracellular calcium potentiates pressure-induced myogenic tone in cerebral arteries, potentially compromising collateral flow during ischemia (14).

Our subgroup analysis revealing a dose-response relationship across calcium tertiles provides compelling evidence for a biological gradient. The 30-day mortality rates increasing from 6.1% in the lowest tertile to 24.2% in the highest tertile (p=0.044) are particularly striking. These findings parallel those of Chung et al., who reported that patients in the highest calcium quartile had a 3.8-fold increased risk of poor functional outcome at 3 months compared to the lowest quartile in their study of 312 patients (15).

The stronger association observed in anterior circulation strokes compared to posterior circulation strokes may reflect differences in collateral circulation and metabolic demands. Appel et al. similarly found that calcium-related injury was more pronounced in cortical regions supplied by the middle cerebral artery, with correlation coefficients of 0.52 versus 0.28 for posterior circulation infarcts in their analysis of 185 patients (16). This regional variation could be explained by differences in calcium channel density and glutamate receptor distribution between brain regions.

Several mechanisms may explain the observed associations. Elevated serum calcium levels can increase vascular tone through enhanced calcium influx into vascular smooth muscle cells, potentially reducing cerebral perfusion during acute ischemia. Additionally, higher serum calcium may exacerbate intracellular calcium overload during ischemia, amplifying excitotoxic injury. Zhang et al. demonstrated in their experimental model that mild elevations in serum calcium (0.2 mmol/L above normal) resulted in 28% larger infarct volumes and increased blood-brain barrier permeability (17).

The clinical implications of our findings warrant careful consideration. While calcium channel blockers have shown neuroprotective effects in experimental models, clinical trials have yielded mixed results. The NINDS rt-PA Stroke Study post-hoc analysis by Silver et al. found that patients receiving calcium channel blockers had 18% smaller infarct volumes, but this did not translate to improved functional outcomes (18). Our data suggesting harmful effects of elevated calcium must be balanced against the risks of inducing hypocalcemia, which can cause cardiac arrhythmias and seizures. Comparison with international studies reveals geographic variations in these associations. A Japanese cohort study by Ishigami et al. involving 423 patients found weaker correlations between calcium and infarct volume (r=0.28, p=0.02), possibly reflecting genetic differences in calcium metabolism or dietary factors (19). Conversely, a European multicenter study by Rodriguez-Yanez et al. reported stronger associations (r=0.54, p<0.001) but included only severe strokes, which may have amplified the relationship (20).

Our study has several strengths, including systematic measurement of calcium levels within 6 hours of admission, volumetric analysis of infarct size using standardized methods, and comprehensive adjustment for confounding factors. The inclusion of both anterior and posterior circulation strokes enhances generalizability. However, limitations must be acknowledged. The cross-sectional design precludes causal inference, and single-center recruitment may limit external validity. We did not measure ionized calcium, which may provide more accurate assessment of biologically active calcium. Additionally, we could not account for pre-stroke calcium levels or medication use that might influence calcium homeostasis.

Future research should focus on prospective studies examining temporal changes in calcium levels and their relationship to infarct evolution. Investigation of genetic polymorphisms affecting calcium channels and transporters may identify susceptible populations. Clinical trials testing targeted interventions to modulate calcium levels while maintaining physiological balance are warranted. The potential for personalized treatment strategies based on admission calcium levels deserves exploration.

#### **CONCLUSION**

This cross-sectional study provides robust evidence for significant associations between serum calcium levels, blood pressure parameters, and infarct volume in acute ischemic stroke. Higher serum calcium levels were independently associated with larger infarct volumes, with each 0.1 mmol/L increase in corrected calcium corresponding to an 8.24 mL increase in infarct volume. The correlation was stronger in patients with hypertension and anterior circulation strokes. These findings suggest that serum calcium measurement at admission may serve as a readily available biomarker for stroke severity and prognosis. The interaction between calcium levels and blood pressure in determining infarct size highlights the complex pathophysiology of acute stroke and may inform future therapeutic strategies aimed at modulating these parameters to limit ischemic injury.

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