

Secondary Prevention of Coronary Artery Disease

SCOTT L. HALL, MD, and TODD LORENC, MD, *University of Nevada School of Medicine, Reno, Nevada*

Coronary artery disease is the leading cause of mortality in the United States. In patients who have had a myocardial infarction or revascularization procedure, secondary prevention of coronary artery disease by comprehensive risk factor modification reduces mortality, decreases subsequent cardiac events, and improves quality of life. Options for secondary prevention include medical therapy and surgical revascularization in the form of coronary artery bypass grafting or percutaneous coronary intervention. Medical therapy focuses on comprehensive risk factor modification. Therapeutic lifestyle changes (including weight management, physical activity, tobacco cessation, and dietary modification) improve cardiac risk factors and are universally recommended by evidence-based guidelines. Treatment of hypertension and dyslipidemia reduces morbidity and mortality. Recommendations for persons with diabetes mellitus generally encourage glucose control, but current evidence has not shown reductions in mortality with intensive glucose management. Aspirin, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, and beta blockers reduce recurrent cardiac events in patients after myocardial infarction. Surgical revascularization by coronary artery bypass grafting is recommended for those with significant left main coronary artery stenosis, significant stenosis of the proximal left anterior descending artery, multivessel coronary disease, or disabling angina. Percutaneous coronary intervention may be considered in select patients with objective evidence of ischemia demonstrated by noninvasive testing. (*Am Fam Physician.* 2010;81(3):289-296. Copyright © 2010 American Academy of Family Physicians.)

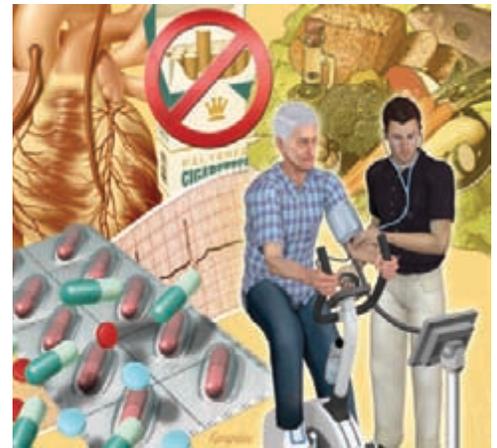


ILLUSTRATION BY JOHN KARAPETOU

Coronary artery disease (CAD) is the leading cause of death in the United States, with more than 1 million new and recurrent cardiovascular events occurring each year, and its prevalence and impact are expected to grow.^{1,2} Advances in treatment have improved survival after the initial event, but persons with established CAD have a high risk of future cardiovascular events.²

Recent clinical studies show that persons with CAD can reduce their risk of subsequent cardiovascular events through effective secondary prevention, which reduces mortality and improves quality of life.² Family physicians play an important role in initiating and maintaining risk factor modification using evidence-based standards. This article reviews the risk factors for recurrent CAD, current evidence-based interventions, and comprehensive risk factor improvement strategies.

Physical Activity

Regular physical activity is an important component of secondary prevention of CAD; it increases exercise capacity, treats comorbid risk factors, and improves quality of life.^{3,4} Exercise-based cardiac rehabilitation has been shown to reduce all-cause and cardiac mortality compared with usual care.³⁻⁷ The goal for all patients is 30 to 60 minutes of moderate-intensity physical activity (e.g., brisk walking, biking) on most, if not all, days of the week.^{2-4,8} Consistent physical activity improves cardiovascular risk factors—especially total cholesterol and triglyceride levels—and systolic blood pressure.⁵

Exercise-based cardiac rehabilitation programs may be initiated shortly after an acute coronary syndrome or revascularization procedure.^{2,3} Hospital-based cardiac rehabilitation has not been shown to be superior to home-based cardiac rehabilitation

SORT: KEY RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

<i>Clinical recommendation</i>	<i>Evidence rating</i>	<i>References</i>
Exercise-based cardiac rehabilitation reduces morbidity and mortality in patients with CAD.	A	3-7
Weight management is recommended by the AHA for the secondary prevention of CAD.	C	2, 4, 11
Smoking cessation reduces mortality by at least one third in patients after MI or cardiac surgery.	A	13, 14
The AHA and The Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure recommend treating hypertension for a blood pressure goal of < 140/90 mm Hg, or < 130/80 mm Hg in patients with diabetes mellitus or chronic kidney disease.	B	17, 18
Beta-blocker therapy reduces recurrent MI, sudden cardiac death, and mortality in patients after MI.	A	19-22
Aspirin therapy (81 to 162 mg daily) reduces recurrent vascular events by one fourth in patients with a previous vascular event.	A	2, 4, 35
Statins reduce recurrent vascular events and all-cause mortality in patients following acute coronary syndromes.	A	37, 38, 40, 41
Percutaneous coronary interventions have not been shown to be superior to optimal medical treatment alone for death or recurrent cardiovascular events in patients with stable CAD.	B	36, 52, 53

AHA = American Heart Association; CAD = coronary artery disease; MI = myocardial infarction.

A = consistent, good-quality patient-oriented evidence; B = inconsistent or limited-quality patient-oriented evidence; C = consensus, disease-oriented evidence, usual practice, expert opinion, or case series. For information about the SORT evidence rating system, go to <http://www.aafp.org/afpsort.xml>.

for low-risk patients.⁹ Before patients begin a rigorous exercise program, physicians should assess their cardiovascular status by taking a physical activity history or performing an exercise test.⁴ Details of assessment tools and exercise prescriptions were reviewed in a previous article in *American Family Physician* (AFP).¹⁰

Weight and Dietary Management

Obesity is associated with increased CAD mortality and adversely affects cardiac function and comorbid CAD risk factors.¹¹ Obesity is classified using the body mass index (BMI; *Table 1*).¹¹ Weight loss is indicated for patients who are classified as overweight or obese according to their BMI. The American

Heart Association (AHA) recommends measuring BMI at each office visit, then providing objective feedback and consistent counseling on weight loss strategies.^{2,4,8,11} Long-term weight maintenance is best achieved through a balance of physical activity and moderation of caloric intake; improvements in cardiac risk factors are commonly observed with even modest weight loss (i.e., 10 percent of baseline weight).^{8,11} Insufficient evidence exists to determine whether weight reduction decreases cardiovascular mortality in persons who are obese.¹¹ The evidence for current dietary recommendations for primary and secondary prevention of CAD is summarized in a previous article in AFP.¹²

Tobacco Cessation

Tobacco cessation has been shown to reduce all-cause mortality in patients with established CAD.^{13,14} In a recent Cochrane review, investigators concluded that persons who quit smoking after a myocardial infarction (MI) or cardiac surgery reduce their risk of death by at least one third, and that discontinuing smoking is at least as beneficial as modifying other risk factors.^{13,14}

Physicians are encouraged to ask about tobacco use at each office visit, and to extend a clear recommendation to quit to every patient who smokes. If a patient is willing

Table 1. Weight Classification by Body Mass Index

<i>Classification</i>	<i>Body mass index (kg per m²)</i>
Underweight	< 18.5
Normal	18.5 to 24.9
Overweight	25.0 to 29.9
Obese	≥ 30.0

Information from reference 11.

to try to quit, physicians can assist with cessation through counseling and pharmacotherapy, which are most effective when combined.^{15,16} Providing behavior therapy, telephone support, and self-help materials for at least one month can help patients with CAD to quit smoking.^{15,16}

Hypertension

The Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure (JNC 7) and the AHA recommend treating hypertension (i.e., blood pressure greater than 140/90 mm Hg, or greater than 130/80 mm Hg for persons with diabetes mellitus or chronic kidney disease) for the secondary prevention of CAD.^{17,18} Lifestyle modifications involve weight management, regular physical activity, prudent alcohol consumption, and a low-sodium diet. The JNC 7 and the AHA recommend initial treatment of hypertension after an MI with beta blockers or angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, with additional medications added in a stepwise fashion to achieve goal blood pressure.^{17,18}

Beta Blockers

Multiple clinical trials have shown that beta-blocker therapy can reduce recurrent MI, sudden cardiac death, and mortality in patients after MI, even in those who are normotensive.¹⁹⁻²² Consequently, the AHA has recommended that a beta-blocker regimen be initiated and maintained indefinitely for the secondary prevention of CAD in all patients after having an MI, unless contraindicated.^{2,23} Common contraindications and precautions for beta-blocker therapy are listed in *Table 2*.²² There is no clear consensus as to which beta blocker is the safest or most effective.²²

ACE Inhibitors

Two large randomized trials have demonstrated the benefits of ACE inhibitors in the secondary prevention of CAD. The Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation (HOPE) study showed that 10 mg per day of ramipril (Altece) reduced cardiovascular death and

MI in those who were at high risk of or had established vascular disease without heart failure.²⁴ The European Trial on Reduction of Cardiac Events with Perindopril in Stable Coronary Artery Disease (EUROPA) revealed a 20 percent reduction in cardiovascular mortality and MI in patients with stable CAD without heart failure who were treated with perindopril (Aceon).²⁵ Investigators who performed a combined analysis of several studies concluded that there is strong evidence for consistent cardiovascular protection with ACE-inhibitor therapy by improving survival and reducing the risk of major cardiovascular events in patients with vascular disease.²⁶

Management of Patients with Diabetes

The mortality rate of CAD is higher in patients with diabetes than in those without diabetes.²⁷ Controversy exists regarding appropriate glucose control for diabetes management. Several guidelines recommend treatment to reduce A1C levels to less than 7 percent; however, recent randomized clinical trials have not demonstrated reductions in cardiovascular events or mortality with intensive glucose

Table 2. Contraindications and Precautions for Beta-Blocker Therapy

Contraindications

- Asthma that requires the use of bronchodilators and/or steroids
- Cardiogenic shock
- Heart rate < 50 to 60 beats per minute
- Second- or third-degree atrioventricular block
- Severe heart failure that requires the use of intravenous diuretics or inotropes
- Systolic blood pressure < 90 to 100 mm Hg

Precautions

- Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
- Diabetes mellitus (although some experts do not consider this a precaution)
- First-degree atrioventricular block
- Heart failure*
- Peripheral vascular disease

*—Beta blockers are beneficial in many patients with moderate to severe heart failure.

Information from reference 22.

control.^{2,27-30} Studies have shown inconsistent improvement with intensive glucose control in microvascular complications, including nephropathy, but increased adverse effects were observed, including weight gain, fluid retention, and symptomatic hypoglycemia.²⁸⁻³¹ The largest recent trial investigating cardiovascular

Clinical trials have not shown significant reductions in cardiovascular events or mortality with intensive glucose control.

outcomes with intensive glucose control was discontinued early because of a 22 percent increased risk of all-cause mortality in the group treated toward an A1C goal of 6 percent compared with less-intensive glucose control.²⁸

In summary, recent randomized clinical trials have not shown significant reductions in cardiovascular events or mortality with intensive glucose control.²⁸⁻³¹

Secondary prevention of CAD in patients with diabetes also includes treatment of comorbid hypertension, dyslipidemia, and hypercoagulability.³² Treatment of diabetes with statins reduces vascular morbidity and mortality regardless of cholesterol values, and a 2008 meta-analysis³³ reported a proportional reduction in major vascular events, with a reduction in low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol levels in those with diabetes.^{27,32-34} A multifactorial approach to diabetic care that includes glucose control; blood pressure management with renin-angiotensin system blockers; aspirin therapy; and lipid management with statins has been shown to reduce vascular complications and cardiovascular mortality.³²

Antiplatelet Agents

Antiplatelet agents are recommended in all patients for the secondary prevention of CAD. In a large meta-analysis, antiplatelet therapy reduced recurrent vascular events by one fourth in patients with a previous vascular event.³⁵ Aspirin treatment (81 to 162 mg per day) should begin immediately after diagnosis of CAD and continue indefinitely unless contraindicated.^{2,4,35} Clopidogrel (Plavix) is an effective alternative in patients who cannot take aspirin, and the AHA recommends using clopidogrel in combination with aspirin for up to 12 months after an acute cardiac event or

percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) with stent placement.^{35,36}

Lipid Management

Recent clinical trials have demonstrated that reducing cholesterol levels decreases the risk of recurrent coronary events, and evidence-based cholesterol-lowering guidelines have been established by the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel III (ATP III).³⁷⁻³⁹ The AHA and ATP III recommend that all patients with CAD initiate lipid management through therapeutic lifestyle changes.^{2,4,38} For the secondary prevention of CAD, ATP III recommends LDL levels of less than 100 mg per dL (2.59 mmol per L), with an optional goal of less than 70 mg per dL (1.81 mmol per L); if the LDL level is greater than 130 mg per dL (3.37 mmol per L), cholesterol-lowering medications are indicated in addition to lifestyle changes.³⁸

Statins should be the initial medication choice; however, additional agents may be considered if the LDL goal is not reached through statin therapy alone.^{2,37,38} Recent studies have shown intensive statin therapy reduces all-cause mortality in patients after acute coronary syndromes compared with standard therapy; consequently, some have encouraged statin use in all patients who have CAD.^{40,41} For every sustained 2 mg per dL reduction in LDL cholesterol, statin therapy has been shown to reduce major coronary events, coronary revascularization, and stroke by 1 percent.⁴¹ The AHA suggests that physicians consider advising patients to increase dietary intake of omega-3 fatty acids to improve cholesterol levels,⁴² but a Cochrane review found insufficient evidence to recommend for or against supplementation.⁴³

Influenza Vaccination

Influenza vaccination has been shown to reduce the risk of hospitalizations for heart disease and all-cause mortality in older persons, and annual influenza vaccination is recommended by the AHA for patients with CAD.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶ However, a recent Cochrane review concluded that the data were insufficient to evaluate the effect of vaccination in the secondary prevention of CAD.⁴⁷

Depression

Observational studies have shown that depression is about three times more common in patients after having an MI than in the general population, and 15 to 20 percent of hospitalized patients with acute MI meet criteria for major depression.⁴⁸ Studies have shown that depression is associated with a higher risk of recurrent cardiac events one to two years after an MI.^{48,49} Results of a retrospective review showed that patients with CAD who were depressed and treated with a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) were 42 percent less likely to experience recurrent MI or death compared with patients who had depression but did not take an antidepressant.^{48,49} However, a subsequent randomized trial in patients who had an MI found that treatment with an SSRI and cognitive behavior therapy (CBT) did not reduce mortality,⁵⁰ and the authors of a recent systematic review concluded that treatment of depression with medication or CBT in patients with cardiovascular disease is associated with modest improvement in depressive symptoms, but no improvement in cardiac outcomes.⁵¹ The AHA recommends screening for depression during secondary prevention of CAD and, if diagnosed, beginning appropriate treatment.^{2,4,48,50}

PCI and Coronary Artery Bypass Grafting

Interventional treatment options for the secondary prevention of CAD include surgical revascularization by coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) or PCI. No standardized assessment tool exists, but several factors influence decision making, including the extent of CAD, the severity of ischemia on noninvasive testing, and the presence of left ventricular dysfunction.² The AHA recommends that persons with CAD undergo risk stratification by exercise stress testing with left ventricular functional assessment or radionuclide myocardial perfusion imaging to identify who would benefit from surgical intervention.²³

The role of PCI in the secondary prevention of CAD is limited. Clinical trials involving patients with stable CAD have not shown that

PCI prevents further events.^{36,52,53} One recent trial showed no difference between optimal medical therapy with PCI versus optimal medical therapy alone for death or recurrent cardiovascular events⁵²; however, PCI remains indicated for treatment of angina in select patients because there may be transient improvement in physical limitations, angina frequency, and quality of life.^{36,52,53} Current guidelines support obtaining objective evidence of ischemia before elective PCI.^{36,52-54}

CABG has been shown to reduce mortality in patients who have established CAD with appropriate findings on noninvasive testing (*Table 3*).²³ For those without indications for CABG, medical therapy should be optimized to minimize disease progression.^{2,23} Despite appropriate medical management, disease progression remains a possibility,

Table 3. Indications for CABG in Patients with Stable CAD

CABG is recommended for patients with:

- Disabling angina despite maximal medical therapy, given acceptable surgical risk (if angina is atypical, obtain objective evidence of ischemia)
- Significant proximal LAD stenosis (≥ 70 percent diameter)
- Substantial left main coronary artery stenosis
- 1- or 2-vessel CAD without proximal LAD stenosis, but with a large area of viable myocardium and high-risk criteria on noninvasive testing
- 2-vessel CAD with significant proximal LAD stenosis and either ejection fraction < 50 percent or ischemia on noninvasive testing
- 3-vessel CAD (especially if left ventricular ejection fraction < 50 percent)

CABG may be considered for patients with:

- Proximal LAD stenosis with 1-vessel CAD
- 1- or 2-vessel CAD without significant proximal LAD stenosis, but with moderate area of viable myocardium and demonstrable ischemia on noninvasive testing

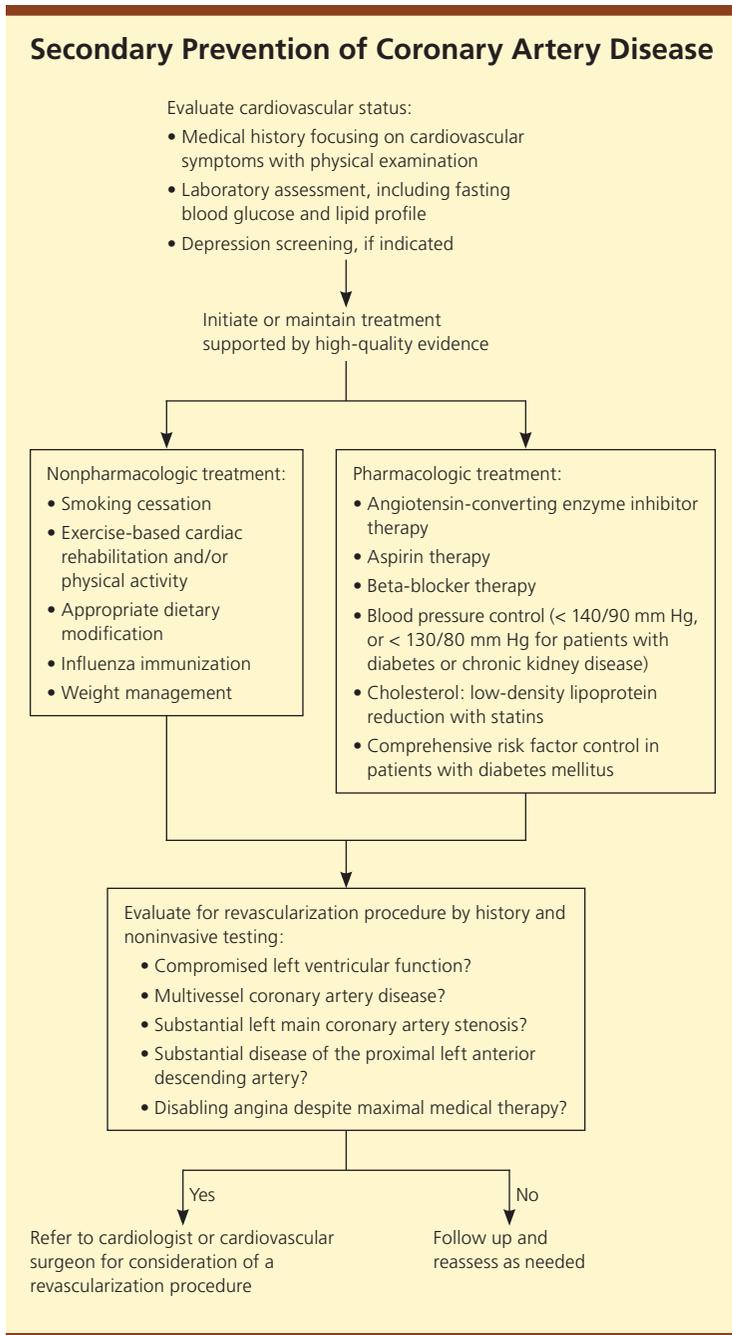
CABG is not recommended for patients with:

- Borderline coronary artery stenosis (< 60 percent diameter) in locations other than the left main coronary artery, and no demonstrable ischemia on noninvasive testing
- Insignificant coronary artery stenosis (< 50 percent diameter)
- 1- or 2-vessel CAD without significant proximal LAD stenosis, mild symptoms unlikely caused by ischemia, or inadequate trial of medical therapy *and* a small area of viable myocardium or no demonstrable ischemia on noninvasive testing

CABG = coronary artery bypass grafting; CAD = coronary artery disease; LAD = left anterior descending (coronary artery).

Information from reference 23.

and surgical revascularization can be reconsidered based on symptoms and clinical assessment.²³ Figure 1 provides an algorithm of evaluation and treatment considerations for the secondary prevention of CAD.^{2,23}



The Authors

SCOTT L. HALL, MD, is a clinical assistant professor and sports medicine specialist in the Department of Family and Community Medicine at the University of Nevada School of Medicine in Reno. Dr. Hall is also in private practice where he directs SpecialtyHealth in Reno.

TODD LORENC, MD, is the sports medicine fellow of the Department of Family and Community Medicine at the University of Nevada School of Medicine.

Address correspondence to Scott L. Hall, MD, University of Nevada School of Medicine, MIS 316 Brigham Building, Reno, NV 89557 (e-mail: shallmd@specialtyhealth.com). Reprints are not available from the authors.

Author disclosure: Nothing to disclose.

REFERENCES

1. American Heart Association. Heart attack and angina statistics. <http://www.americanheart.org/presenter.jhtml?identifier=4591>. Accessed November 5, 2008.
2. Smith SC Jr, Allen J, Blair SN, et al. AHA/ACC guidelines for secondary prevention for patients with coronary and other atherosclerotic vascular disease: 2006 update: endorsed by the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute [published correction appears in *Circulation*. 2006;113(22):e847]. *Circulation*. 2006;113(19):2363-2372.
3. Thompson PD, Buchner D, Pina IL, et al., for the American Heart Association. Exercise and physical activity in the prevention and treatment of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease: a statement from the Council on Clinical Cardiology (Subcommittee on Exercise, Rehabilitation, and Prevention) and the Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism (Subcommittee on Physical Activity). *Circulation*. 2003;107(24):3109-3116.
4. Leon AS, Franklin BA, Costa F, et al. Cardiac rehabilitation and secondary prevention of coronary heart disease: an American Heart Association scientific statement from the Council on Clinical Cardiology (Subcommittee on Exercise, Cardiac Rehabilitation, and Prevention) and the Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism (Subcommittee on Physical Activity), in collaboration with the American Association of Cardiovascular and Pulmonary Rehabilitation [published correction appears in *Circulation*. 2005;111(13):1717]. *Circulation*. 2005;111(3):369-376.
5. Larcombe JH. Review: exercise based cardiac rehabilitation reduces all cause and cardiac mortality in coronary heart disease. *Evid Based Med*. 2004;9(6):175.
6. Jolliffe JA, Rees K, Taylor RS, Thompson D, Oldridge N, Ebrahim S. Exercise-based rehabilitation for coronary heart disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2001;(1):CD001800.
7. Taylor RS, Brown A, Ebrahim S, et al. Exercise-based rehabilitation for patients with coronary heart disease: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Am J Med*. 2004;116(10):682-692.
8. Balady GJ, Williams MA, Ades PA, et al. Core components of cardiac rehabilitation/secondary prevention programs: 2007 update: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association Exercise, Cardiac

Figure 1. Algorithm for the secondary prevention of coronary artery disease.

Information from references 2 and 23.

- Rehabilitation, and Prevention Committee, the Council on Clinical Cardiology; the Councils on Cardiovascular Nursing, Epidemiology and Prevention, and Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism; and the American Association of Cardiovascular and Pulmonary Rehabilitation. *Circulation*. 2007;115(20):2675-2682.
9. Jolly K, Taylor RS, Lip GY, Stevens A. Home-based cardiac rehabilitation compared with centre-based rehabilitation and usual care: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Cardiol*. 2006;111(3):343-351.
 10. Meriwether RA, Lee JA, Lafleur AS, Wiseman P. Physical activity counseling. *Am Fam Physician*. 2008;77(8):1129-1136.
 11. Klein S, Burke LE, Bray GA, et al. Clinical implications of obesity with specific focus on cardiovascular disease: a statement for professionals from the American Heart Association Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism: endorsed by the American College of Cardiology Foundation. *Circulation*. 2004;110(18):2952-2967.
 12. Walker C, Reamy BV. Diets for cardiovascular disease prevention: what is the evidence? *Am Fam Physician*. 2009;79(7):571-578.
 13. Critchley J, Capewell S. Smoking cessation for the secondary prevention of coronary heart disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2003;(4):CD003041.
 14. Critchley JA, Capewell S. Mortality risk reduction associated with smoking cessation in patients with coronary heart disease: a systematic review. *JAMA*. 2003;290(1):86-97.
 15. Fiore M, Jaen CR, Baker TB, et al. A clinical practice guideline for treating tobacco use and dependence: 2008 update. A U.S. Public Health Service report. *Am J Prev Med*. 2008;35(2):158-176.
 16. Barth J, Critchley J, Bengel J. Psychosocial interventions for smoking cessation in patients with coronary heart disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2008;(1):CD006886.
 17. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, et al., for the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; National High Blood Pressure Education Program Coordinating Committee. Seventh report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure. *Hypertension*. 2003;42(6):1206-1252.
 18. Rosendorff C, Black HR, Cannon CP, et al. Treatment of hypertension in the prevention and management of ischemic heart disease: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association Council for High Blood Pressure Research and the Councils on Clinical Cardiology and Epidemiology and Prevention [published correction appears in *Circulation*. 2007;116(5):e121]. *Circulation*. 2007;115(21):2761-2788.
 19. A randomized trial of propranolol in patients with acute myocardial infarction. I. Mortality results. *JAMA*. 1982;247(12):1707-1714.
 20. A randomized trial of propranolol in patients with acute myocardial infarction. II. Morbidity results. *JAMA*. 1983;250(20):2814-2819.
 21. Freemantle N, Cleland J, Young P, Mason J, Harrison J. beta Blockade after myocardial infarction: systematic review and meta regression analysis. *BMJ*. 1999;318(7200):1730-1737.
 22. Gheorghiadu M, Goldstein S. Beta-blockers in the post-myocardial infarction patient. *Circulation*. 2002;106(4):394-398.
 23. Eagle KA, Guyton RA, Davidoff R, et al., for the American College of Cardiology; American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines; American Society for Thoracic Surgery and the Society of Thoracic Surgeons. ACC/AHA 2004 guideline update for coronary artery bypass graft surgery: summary article: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee to Update the 1999 Guidelines for Coronary Artery Bypass Graft Surgery). *Circulation*. 2004;110(9):1168-1176.
 24. Yusuf S, Sleight P, Pogue J, Bosch J, Davies R, Dagenais G. Effects of an angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor, ramipril, on cardiovascular events in high-risk patients. The Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation Study Investigators [published corrections appear in *N Engl J Med*. 2000;342(10):748, and *N Engl J Med*. 2000;342(18):1376]. *N Engl J Med*. 2000;342(3):145-153.
 25. Fox KM, for the EUROpean trial On reduction of cardiac events with Perindopril in stable coronary Artery disease Investigators. Efficacy of perindopril in reduction of cardiovascular events among patients with stable coronary artery disease: randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, multicentre trial (the EUROPA study). *Lancet*. 2003;362(9386):782-788.
 26. Brugs JJ, Ninomiya T, Boersma E, et al. The consistency of the treatment effect of an ACE-inhibitor based treatment regimen in patients with vascular disease or high risk of vascular disease: a combined analysis of individual data of ADVANCE, EUROPA, and PROGRESS trials. *Eur Heart J*. 2009;30(11):1385-1394.
 27. Hammoud T, Tanguay JF, Bourassa MG. Management of coronary artery disease: therapeutic options in patients with diabetes. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2000;36(2):355-365.
 28. Gerstein HC, Miller ME, Byington RP, et al., for the Action to Control Cardiovascular Risk in Diabetes Study Group. Effects of intensive glucose lowering in type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;358(24):2545-2559.
 29. Duckworth W, Abraira C, Moritz T, et al., for the VADT Investigators. Glucose control and vascular complications in veterans with type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;360(2):129-139.
 30. Patel A, MacMahon S, Chalmers J, et al., for the ADVANCE Collaborative Group. Intensive blood glucose control and vascular outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;358(24):2560-2572.
 31. Intensive blood-glucose control with sulphonylureas or insulin compared with conventional treatment and risk of complications in patients with type 2 diabetes (UKPDS 33). UK Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS) Group [published correction appears in *Lancet*. 1999;354(9178):602]. *Lancet*. 1998;352(9131):837-853.
 32. Gaede P, Lund-Andersen H, Parving HH, Pedersen O. Effect of a multifactorial intervention on mortality in type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;358(6):580-591.
 33. Kearney PM, Blackwell L, Collins R, et al., for the Cholesterol Treatment Trialists' (CTT) Collaborators. Efficacy of cholesterol-lowering therapy in 18,686 people with diabetes in 14 randomised trials of statins: a meta-analysis. *Lancet*. 2008;371(9607):117-125.
 34. Collins R, Armitage J, Parish S, Sleight P, Peto R, for the Heart Protection Study Collaborative Group.

- MRC/BHF Heart Protection Study of cholesterol-lowering with simvastatin in 5963 people with diabetes: a randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2003; 361(9374):2005-2016.
35. Antithrombotic Trialists' Collaboration. Collaborative meta-analysis of randomised trials of antiplatelet therapy for prevention of death, myocardial infarction, and stroke in high risk patients [published correction appears in *BMJ*. 2002;324(7330):141]. *BMJ*. 2002;324(7329):71-86.
 36. King SB III, Smith SC Jr, Hirshfeld JW Jr, et al. 2007 focused update of the ACC/AHA/SCAI 2005 guideline update for percutaneous coronary intervention: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;51(2):172-209.
 37. Koren MJ, Hunninghake DB, for the ALLIANCE Investigators. Clinical outcomes in managed-care patients with coronary heart disease treated aggressively in lipid-lowering disease management clinics: the alliance study. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;44(9):1772-1779.
 38. Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults. Executive Summary of the Third Report of The National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). *JAMA*. 2001;285(19):2486-2497.
 39. Pitt B, Waters D, Brown WV, et al. Aggressive lipid-lowering therapy compared with angioplasty in stable coronary artery disease. Atorvastatin versus Revascularization Treatment Investigators. *N Engl J Med*. 1999;341(2):70-76.
 40. Baigent C, Keech A, Kearney PM, et al., for the Cholesterol Treatment Trialists' (CTT) Collaborators. Efficacy and safety of cholesterol-lowering treatment: prospective meta-analysis of data from 90,056 participants in 14 randomised trials of statins [published corrections appear in *Lancet*. 2005;366(9494):1358, and *Lancet*. 2008;371(9630):2084]. *Lancet*. 2005; 366(9493):1267-1278.
 41. Josan K, Majumdar SR, McAlister FA. The efficacy and safety of intensive statin therapy: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. *CMAJ*. 2008;178(5):576-584.
 42. Kris-Etherton PM, Harris WS, Appel LJ, for the American Heart Association Nutrition Committee. Fish consumption, fish oil, omega-3 fatty acids, and cardiovascular disease [published correction appears in *Circulation*. 2003;107(3):512]. *Circulation*. 2002;106(21):2747-2757.
 43. Hooper L, Thompson RK, Harrison RA, et al. Omega 3 fatty acids for prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2004;(4): CD003177.
 44. Nichol KL, Nordin J, Mullooly J, Lask R, Fillbrandt K, Iwane M. Influenza vaccination and reduction in hospitalizations for cardiac disease and stroke among the elderly. *N Engl J Med*. 2003;348(14):1322-1332.
 45. Harper SA, Fukuda K, Uyeki TM, Cox NJ, Bridges CB, for the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP), Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Prevention and control of influenza. Recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Immunization Practices (ACIP) [published correction appears in *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2005;54(30):750]. *MMWR Recomm Rep*. 2005;54(RR-8):1-40.
 46. Davis MM, Taubert K, Benin AL, et al., for the American Heart Association; American College of Cardiology. Influenza vaccination as secondary prevention for cardiovascular disease: a science advisory from the American Heart Association/American College of Cardiology [published correction appears in *Circulation*. 2006;114(22): e616]. *Circulation*. 2006;114(14):1549-1553.
 47. Keller T, Weeda VB, van Dongen CJ, Levi M. Influenza vaccines for preventing coronary heart disease. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2008;(3):CD005050.
 48. Lichtman JH, Bigger JT Jr, Blumenthal JA, et al. Depression and coronary heart disease: recommendations for screening, referral, and treatment: a science advisory from the American Heart Association Prevention Committee of the Council on Cardiovascular Nursing, Council on Clinical Cardiology, Council on Epidemiology and Prevention, and Interdisciplinary Council on Quality of Care and Outcomes Research: endorsed by the American Psychiatric Association. *Circulation*. 2008;118(17):1768-1775.
 49. Taylor CB, Youngblood ME, Catellier D, et al., for the ENRICHD Investigators. Effects of antidepressant medication on morbidity and mortality in depressed patients after myocardial infarction. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2005;62(7):792-798.
 50. Berkman LF, Blumenthal J, Burg M, et al. Effects of treating depression and low perceived social support on clinical events after myocardial infarction: the Enhancing Recovery in Coronary Heart Disease Patients (ENRICH) Randomized Trial. *JAMA*. 2003;289(23):3106-3116.
 51. Thombs BD, de Jonge P, Coyne JC, et al. Depression screening and patient outcomes in cardiovascular care: a systematic review. *JAMA*. 2008;300(18):2161-2171.
 52. Boden WE, O'Rourke RA, Teo KK, et al., for the COURAGE Trial Research Group. Optimal medical therapy with or without PCI for stable coronary disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2007;356(15):1503-1516.
 53. Weintraub WS, Spertus JA, Kolm P, et al., for the COURAGE Trial Research Group. Effect of PCI on quality of life in patients with stable coronary disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;359(7):677-687.
 54. Lin GA, Dudley RA, Lucas FL, Malenka DJ, Vittinghoff E, Redberg RF. Frequency of stress testing to document ischemia prior to elective percutaneous coronary intervention. *JAMA*. 2008;300(15):1765-1773.