

**PRACTICE GUIDELINE**

## 2011 ACCF/AHA/SCAI Guideline for Percutaneous Coronary Intervention

A Report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines and the Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions

**Writing Committee Members\***

Glenn N. Levine, MD, FACC, FAHA, *Chair*<sup>†</sup>  
Eric R. Bates, MD, FACC, FAHA,  
*Vice Chair*<sup>\*†</sup>  
James C. Blankenship, MD, FACC, FSCAI,  
*Vice Chair*<sup>\*‡</sup>

Steven R. Bailey, MD, FACC, FSCAI<sup>\*‡</sup>  
John A. Bittl, MD, FACC<sup>†§</sup>  
Bojan Cercek, MD, FACC, FAHA<sup>†</sup>  
Charles E. Chambers, MD, FACC, FSCAI<sup>‡</sup>  
Stephen G. Ellis, MD, FACC<sup>\*†</sup>  
Robert A. Guyton, MD, FACC<sup>\*||</sup>  
Steven M. Hollenberg, MD, FACC<sup>\*†</sup>  
Umesh N. Khot, MD, FACC<sup>\*†</sup>

Richard A. Lange, MD, FACC, FAHA<sup>§</sup>  
Laura Mauri, MD, MSc, FACC, FSCAI<sup>\*†</sup>  
Roxana Mehran, MD, FACC, FAHA, FSCAI<sup>\*‡</sup>  
Issam D. Moussa, MD, FACC, FAHA, FSCAI<sup>‡</sup>  
Debabrata Mukherjee, MD, FACC, FSCAI<sup>†</sup>  
Brahmajee K. Nallamothu, MD, FACC<sup>¶||</sup>  
Henry H. Ting, MD, FACC, FAHA<sup>†</sup>

\*Writing committee members are required to recuse themselves from voting on sections to which their specific relationships with industry and other entities may apply; see Appendix 1 for recusal information. <sup>†</sup>ACCF/AHA Representative. <sup>‡</sup>SCAI Representative. <sup>§</sup>Joint Revascularization Section Author. <sup>||</sup>ACCF/AHA Task Force on Practice Guidelines Liaison. <sup>¶</sup>ACCF/AHA Task Force on Performance Measures Liaison.

**ACCF/AHA Task Force Members**

Alice K. Jacobs, MD, FACC, FAHA, *Chair*  
Jeffrey L. Anderson, MD, FACC, FAHA,  
*Chair-Elect*

Nancy Albert, PhD, CCNS, CCRN, FAHA  
Mark A. Creager, MD, FACC, FAHA  
Steven M. Ettinger, MD, FACC

Robert A. Guyton, MD, FACC  
Jonathan L. Halperin, MD, FACC, FAHA  
Judith S. Hochman, MD, FACC, FAHA  
Frederick G. Kushner, MD, FACC, FAHA  
E. Magnus Ohman, MD, FACC  
William Stevenson, MD, FACC, FAHA  
Clyde W. Yancy, MD, FACC, FAHA

This document was approved by the American College of Cardiology Foundation Board of Trustees and the American Heart Association Science Advisory and Coordinating Committee in July 2011, and the Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions in August 2011.

The American College of Cardiology Foundation requests that this document be cited as follows: Levine GN, Bates ER, Blankenship JC, Bailey SR, Bittl JA, Cercek B, Chambers CE, Ellis SG, Guyton RA, Hollenberg SM, Khot UN, Lange RA, Mauri L, Mehran R, Moussa ID, Mukherjee D, Nallamothu BK, Ting HH. 2011 ACCF/AHA/SCAI guideline for percutaneous coronary intervention: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines and the Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2011;58:XXX-XX.

This article is copublished in *Circulation* and *Catheterization and Cardiovascular Interventions*.

Copies: This document is available on the World Wide Web sites of the American College of Cardiology ([www.cardiosource.org](http://www.cardiosource.org)), the American Heart Association ([my.americanheart.org](http://my.americanheart.org)), and the Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions ([www.scai.org](http://www.scai.org)). For copies of this document, please contact Elsevier Inc. Reprint Department, fax (212) 633-3820, e-mail [reprints@elsevier.com](mailto:reprints@elsevier.com).

Permissions: Multiple copies, modification, alteration, enhancement, and/or distribution of this document are not permitted without the express permission of the American College of Cardiology Foundation. Please contact [healthpermissions@elsevier.com](mailto:healthpermissions@elsevier.com).

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>Preamble</b> .....	0
<b>1. Introduction</b> .....	0
<b>1.1. Methodology and Evidence Review</b> .....	0
<b>1.2. Organization of the Writing Committee</b> .....	0
<b>1.3. Document Review and Approval</b> .....	0
<b>1.4. PCI Guidelines: History and Evolution</b> .....	0
<b>2. CAD Revascularization</b> .....	0
<b>2.1. Heart Team Approach to Revascularization Decisions: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>2.2. Revascularization to Improve Survival: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>2.3. Revascularization to Improve Symptoms: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>2.4. CABG Versus Contemporaneous Medical Therapy</b> .....	0
<b>2.5. PCI Versus Medical Therapy</b> .....	0
<b>2.6. CABG Versus PCI</b> .....	0
2.6.1. CABG Versus Balloon Angioplasty or BMS.....	0
2.6.2. CABG Versus DES.....	0
<b>2.7. Left Main CAD</b> .....	0
2.7.1. CABG or PCI Versus Medical Therapy for Left Main CAD.....	0
2.7.2. Studies Comparing PCI Versus CABG for Left Main CAD.....	0
2.7.3. Revascularization Considerations for Left Main CAD.....	0
<b>2.8. Proximal LAD Artery Disease</b> .....	0
<b>2.9. Clinical Factors That May Influence the Choice of Revascularization</b> .....	0
2.9.1. Diabetes Mellitus.....	0
2.9.2. Chronic Kidney Disease.....	0
2.9.3. Completeness of Revascularization.....	0
2.9.4. LV Systolic Dysfunction.....	0
2.9.5. Previous CABG.....	0
2.9.6. Unstable Angina/Non–ST-Elevation Myocardial Infarction.....	0
2.9.7. DAPT Compliance and Stent Thrombosis: Recommendation.....	0
<b>2.10. TMR as an Adjunct to CABG</b> .....	0
<b>2.11. Hybrid Coronary Revascularization: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>3. PCI Outcomes</b> .....	0
<b>3.1. Definitions of PCI Success</b> .....	0
3.1.1. Angiographic Success.....	0
3.1.2. Procedural Success.....	0
3.1.3. Clinical Success.....	0
<b>3.2. Predictors of Clinical Outcome After PCI</b> .....	0
<b>3.3. PCI Complications</b> .....	0
<b>4. Preprocedural Considerations</b> .....	0
<b>4.1. Cardiac Catheterization Laboratory Requirements</b> .....	0
4.1.1. Equipment.....	0
4.1.2. Staffing.....	0
4.1.3. ‘Time-Out’ Procedures.....	0
<b>4.2. Ethical Aspects</b> .....	0
4.2.1. Informed Consent.....	0
4.2.2. Potential Conflicts of Interest.....	0
<b>4.3. Radiation Safety: Recommendation</b> .....	0
<b>4.4. Contrast-Induced AKI: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>4.5. Anaphylactoid Reactions: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>4.6. Statin Treatment: Recommendation</b> .....	0
<b>4.7. Bleeding Risk: Recommendation</b> .....	0
<b>4.8. PCI in Hospitals Without On-Site Surgical Backup: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>5. Procedural Considerations</b> .....	0
<b>5.1. Vascular Access: Recommendation</b> .....	0
<b>5.2. PCI in Specific Clinical Situations</b> .....	0
5.2.1. UA/NSTEMI: Recommendations.....	0
5.2.2. ST-Elevation Myocardial Infarction.....	0
5.2.2.1. CORONARY ANGIOGRAPHY STRATEGIES IN STEMI: RECOMMENDATIONS.....	0
5.2.2.2. PRIMARY PCI OF THE INFARCT ARTERY: RECOMMENDATIONS.....	0
5.2.2.3. DELAYED OR ELECTIVE PCI IN PATIENTS WITH STEMI: RECOMMENDATIONS.....	0
5.2.3. Cardiogenic Shock: Recommendations.....	0
5.2.3.1. PROCEDURAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR CARDIOGENIC SHOCK.....	0
5.2.4. Revascularization Before Noncardiac Surgery: Recommendations.....	0
<b>5.3. Coronary Stents: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>5.4. Adjunctive Diagnostic Devices</b> .....	0
5.4.1. FFR: Recommendation.....	0
5.4.2. IVUS: Recommendations.....	0
5.4.3. Optical Coherence Tomography.....	0
<b>5.5. Adjunctive Therapeutic Devices</b> .....	0
5.5.1. Coronary Atherectomy: Recommendations.....	0
5.5.2. Thrombectomy: Recommendation.....	0
5.5.3. Laser Angioplasty: Recommendations.....	0
5.5.4. Cutting Balloon Angioplasty: Recommendations.....	0
5.5.5. Embolic Protection Devices: Recommendation.....	0
<b>5.6. Percutaneous Hemodynamic Support Devices: Recommendation</b> .....	0
<b>5.7. Interventional Pharmacotherapy</b> .....	0
5.7.1. Procedural Sedation.....	0
5.7.2. Oral Antiplatelet Therapy: Recommendations.....	0
5.7.3. IV Antiplatelet Therapy: Recommendations.....	0
5.7.4. Anticoagulant Therapy.....	0
5.7.4.1. USE OF PARENTERAL ANTICOAGULANTS DURING PCI: RECOMMENDATION.....	0
5.7.4.2. UFH: RECOMMENDATION.....	0
5.7.4.3. ENOXAPARIN: RECOMMENDATIONS.....	0
5.7.4.4. BIVALIRUDIN AND ARGATROBAN: RECOMMENDATIONS.....	0
5.7.4.5. FONDAPARINUX: RECOMMENDATION.....	0
5.7.5. No-Reflow Pharmacological Therapies: Recommendation.....	0
<b>5.8. PCI in Specific Anatomic Situations</b> .....	0
5.8.1. CTOs: Recommendation.....	0
5.8.2. SVGs: Recommendations.....	0
5.8.3. Bifurcation Lesions: Recommendations.....	0
5.8.4. Aorto-Ostial Stenoses: Recommendations.....	0
5.8.5. Calcified Lesions: Recommendation.....	0

<b>5.9. PCI in Specific Patient Populations</b> .....	0
5.9.1. Elderly .....	0
5.9.2. Diabetes .....	0
5.9.3. Women .....	0
5.9.4. CKD: Recommendation .....	0
5.9.5. Cardiac Allografts .....	0
<b>5.10. Periprocedural MI Assessment: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>5.11. Vascular Closure Devices: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>6. Postprocedural Considerations</b> .....	0
<hr/>	
<b>6.1. Postprocedural Antiplatelet Therapy: Recommendations</b> .....	0
6.1.1. PPIs and Antiplatelet Therapy: Recommendations .....	0
6.1.2. Clopidogrel Genetic Testing: Recommendations .....	0
6.1.3. Platelet Function Testing: Recommendations .....	0
<b>6.2. Stent Thrombosis</b> .....	0
<b>6.3. Restenosis: Recommendations</b> .....	0
6.3.1. Background and Incidence .....	0
6.3.2. Restenosis After Balloon Angioplasty .....	0
6.3.3. Restenosis After BMS .....	0
6.3.4. Restenosis After DES .....	0
<b>6.4. Clinical Follow-Up</b> .....	0
6.4.1. Exercise Testing: Recommendations .....	0
6.4.2. Activity and Return to Work .....	0
6.4.3. Cardiac Rehabilitation: Recommendation .....	0
<b>6.5. Secondary Prevention</b> .....	0
<b>7. Quality and Performance Considerations</b> .....	0
<hr/>	
<b>7.1. Quality and Performance: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>7.2. Training</b> .....	0
<b>7.3. Certification and Maintenance of Certification: Recommendation</b> .....	0
<b>7.4. Operator and Institutional Competency and Volume: Recommendations</b> .....	0
<b>7.5. Participation in ACC NCDR or National Quality Database</b> .....	0
<b>8. Future Challenges</b> .....	0
<hr/>	
<b>References</b> .....	0
<hr/>	
<b>Appendix 1. Author Relationships With Industry and Other Entities (Relevant)</b> .....	0
<hr/>	
<b>Appendix 2. Reviewer Relationships With Industry and Other Entities (Relevant)</b> .....	0
<hr/>	
<b>Appendix 3. Abbreviation List</b> .....	0
<hr/>	
<b>Appendix 4. Additional Tables/Figures</b> .....	0
<hr/>	
<b>Preamble</b>	

detection, management, and prevention of disease. When properly applied, expert analysis of available data on the benefits and risks of these therapies and procedures can improve the quality of care, optimize patient outcomes, and favorably affect costs by focusing resources on the most effective strategies. An organized and directed approach to a thorough review of evidence has resulted in the production of clinical practice guidelines that assist physicians in selecting the best management strategy for an individual patient. Moreover, clinical practice guidelines can provide a foundation for other applications, such as performance measures, appropriate use criteria, and both quality improvement and clinical decision support tools.

The American College of Cardiology Foundation (ACCF) and the American Heart Association (AHA) have jointly produced guidelines in the area of cardiovascular disease since 1980. The ACCF/AHA Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Task Force), charged with developing, updating, and revising practice guidelines for cardiovascular diseases and procedures, directs and oversees this effort. Writing committees are charged with regularly reviewing and evaluating all available evidence to develop balanced, patient-centric recommendations for clinical practice.

Experts in the subject under consideration are selected by the ACCF and AHA to examine subject-specific data and write guidelines in partnership with representatives from other medical organizations and specialty groups. Writing committees are asked to perform a formal literature review; weigh the strength of evidence for or against particular tests, treatments, or procedures; and include estimates of expected outcomes where such data exist. Patient-specific modifiers, comorbidities, and issues of patient preference that may influence the choice of tests or therapies are considered. When available, information from studies on cost is considered, but data on efficacy and outcomes constitute the primary basis for the recommendations contained herein.

In analyzing the data and developing recommendations and supporting text, the writing committee uses evidence-based methodologies developed by the Task Force (1). The Class of Recommendation (COR) is an estimate of the size of the treatment effect considering risks versus benefits in addition to evidence and/or agreement that a given treatment or procedure is or is not useful/effective or in some situations may cause harm. The Level of Evidence (LOE) is an estimate of the certainty or precision of the treatment effect. The writing committee reviews and ranks evidence supporting each recommendation with the weight of evidence ranked as LOE A, B, or C according to specific definitions that are included in Table 1. Studies are identified as observational, retrospective, prospective, or randomized where appropriate. For certain conditions for which inadequate data are available, recommendations are based on expert consensus and clinical experience and are ranked as LOE C. When recommendations at LOE C are supported by historical clinical data, appropriate references (including clinical reviews) are cited if available. For issues for which sparse data are available, a survey of current

The medical profession should play a central role in evaluating the evidence related to drugs, devices, and procedures for the

**Table 1. Applying Classification of Recommendations and Level of Evidence**

ESTIMATE OF CERTAINTY (PRECISION) OF TREATMENT EFFECT	CLASS I	CLASS IIa	CLASS IIb	CLASS III No Benefit or CLASS III Harm										
	<i>Benefit &gt;&gt;&gt; Risk</i> Procedure/Treatment <b>SHOULD</b> be performed/administered	<i>Benefit &gt;&gt; Risk</i> Additional studies with <i>focused objectives needed</i> <b>IT IS REASONABLE</b> to perform procedure/administer treatment	<i>Benefit ≥ Risk</i> Additional studies with <i>broad objectives needed; additional registry data would be helpful</i> Procedure/Treatment <b>MAY BE CONSIDERED</b>	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Procedure/ Test</th> <th>Treatment</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>COR III: No benefit</td> <td>Not Helpful</td> <td>No Proven Benefit</td> </tr> <tr> <td>COR III: Harm</td> <td>Excess Cost w/o Benefit or Harmful</td> <td>Harmful to Patients</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>			Procedure/ Test	Treatment	COR III: No benefit	Not Helpful	No Proven Benefit	COR III: Harm	Excess Cost w/o Benefit or Harmful	Harmful to Patients
		Procedure/ Test	Treatment											
	COR III: No benefit	Not Helpful	No Proven Benefit											
COR III: Harm	Excess Cost w/o Benefit or Harmful	Harmful to Patients												
LEVEL A	LEVEL B	LEVEL C												
Multiple populations evaluated* Data derived from multiple randomized clinical trials or meta-analyses	Limited populations evaluated* Data derived from a single randomized trial or nonrandomized studies	Very limited populations evaluated* Only consensus opinion of experts, case studies, or standard of care												
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation that procedure or treatment is useful/effective</li> <li>Sufficient evidence from multiple randomized trials or meta-analyses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation in favor of treatment or procedure being useful/effective</li> <li>Some conflicting evidence from multiple randomized trials or meta-analyses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation's usefulness/efficacy less well established</li> <li>Greater conflicting evidence from multiple randomized trials or meta-analyses</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation that procedure or treatment is not useful/effective and may be harmful</li> <li>Sufficient evidence from multiple randomized trials or meta-analyses</li> </ul>										
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation that procedure or treatment is useful/effective</li> <li>Evidence from single randomized trial or nonrandomized studies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation in favor of treatment or procedure being useful/effective</li> <li>Some conflicting evidence from single randomized trial or nonrandomized studies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation's usefulness/efficacy less well established</li> <li>Greater conflicting evidence from single randomized trial or nonrandomized studies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation that procedure or treatment is not useful/effective and may be harmful</li> <li>Evidence from single randomized trial or nonrandomized studies</li> </ul>										
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation that procedure or treatment is useful/effective</li> <li>Only expert opinion, case studies, or standard of care</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation in favor of treatment or procedure being useful/effective</li> <li>Only diverging expert opinion, case studies, or standard of care</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation's usefulness/efficacy less well established</li> <li>Only diverging expert opinion, case studies, or standard of care</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Recommendation that procedure or treatment is not useful/effective and may be harmful</li> <li>Only expert opinion, case studies, or standard of care</li> </ul>										
Suggested phrases for writing recommendations	should is recommended is indicated is useful/effective/beneficial	is reasonable can be useful/effective/beneficial is probably recommended or indicated	may/might be considered may/might be reasonable usefulness/effectiveness is unknown/unclear/uncertain or not well established	COR III: No Benefit is not recommended is not indicated should not be performed/ administered/ other is not useful/ beneficial/ effective	COR III: Harm potentially harmful causes harm associated with excess morbidity/mortality should not be performed/ administered/ other									
Comparative effectiveness phrases <sup>†</sup>	treatment/strategy A is recommended/indicated in preference to treatment B treatment A should be chosen over treatment B	treatment/strategy A is probably recommended/indicated in preference to treatment B it is reasonable to choose treatment A over treatment B												

A recommendation with Level of Evidence B or C does not imply that the recommendation is weak. Many important clinical questions addressed in the guidelines do not lend themselves to clinical trials. Although randomized trials are unavailable, there may be a very clear clinical consensus that a particular test or therapy is useful or effective.

\*Data available from clinical trials or registries about the usefulness/efficacy in different subpopulations, such as sex, age, history of diabetes, history of prior myocardial infarction, history of heart failure, and prior aspirin use. †For comparative effectiveness recommendations (Class I and IIa; Level of Evidence A and B only), studies that support the use of comparator verbs should involve direct comparisons of the treatments or strategies being evaluated.

practice among the clinicians on the writing committee is the basis for LOE C recommendations and no references are cited. The schema for COR and LOE is summarized in Table 1, which also provides suggested phrases for writing recommendations within each COR. A new addition to this methodology is separation of the Class III recommendations to delineate if the recommendation is determined to be of “no benefit” or is associated with “harm” to the patient. In addition, in view of the increasing number of comparative effectiveness studies, comparator verbs and suggested phrases for writing recommendations for the comparative effectiveness of one treatment or strategy versus another have been added for COR I and IIa, LOE A or B only.

In view of the advances in medical therapy across the spectrum of cardiovascular diseases, the Task Force has designated the term *guideline-directed medical therapy (GDMT)* to represent optimal medical therapy as defined by ACCF/AHA guideline recommended therapies (primarily Class I). This new term, GDMT, will be used herein and throughout all future guidelines.

Because the ACCF/AHA practice guidelines address patient populations (and healthcare providers) residing in North America, drugs that are not currently available in North America are discussed in the text without a specific COR. For studies performed in large numbers of subjects outside North America, each writing committee reviews the potential influence of different practice patterns and patient

populations on the treatment effect and relevance to the ACCF/AHA target population to determine whether the findings should inform a specific recommendation.

The ACCF/AHA practice guidelines are intended to assist healthcare providers in clinical decision making by describing a range of generally acceptable approaches to the diagnosis, management, and prevention of specific diseases or conditions. The guidelines attempt to define practices that meet the needs of most patients in most circumstances. The ultimate judgment regarding care of a particular patient must be made by the healthcare provider and patient in light of all the circumstances presented by that patient. As a result, situations may arise for which deviations from these guidelines may be appropriate. Clinical decision making should involve consideration of the quality and availability of expertise in the area where care is provided. When these guidelines are used as the basis for regulatory or payer decisions, the goal should be improvement in quality of care. The Task Force recognizes that situations arise in which additional data are needed to inform patient care more effectively; these areas will be identified within each respective guideline when appropriate.

Prescribed courses of treatment in accordance with these recommendations are effective only if followed. Because lack of patient understanding and adherence may adversely affect outcomes, physicians and other healthcare providers should make every effort to engage the patient's active participation in prescribed medical regimens and lifestyles. In addition, patients should be informed of the risks, benefits, and alternatives to a particular treatment and be involved in shared decision making whenever feasible, particularly for COR IIa and IIb, where the benefit-to-risk ratio may be lower.

The Task Force makes every effort to avoid actual, potential, or perceived conflicts of interest that may arise as a result of industry relationships or personal interests among the members of the writing committee. All writing committee members and peer reviewers of the guideline are asked to disclose all such current relationships, as well as those existing 12 months previously. In December 2009, the ACCF and AHA implemented a new policy for relationships with industry and other entities (RWI) that requires the writing committee chair plus a minimum of 50% of the writing committee to have no *relevant* RWI (Appendix 1 for the ACCF/AHA definition of relevance). These statements are reviewed by the Task Force and all members during each conference call and/or meeting of the writing committee and are updated as changes occur. All guideline recommendations require a confidential vote by the writing committee and must be approved by a consensus of the voting members. Members are not permitted to write, and must recuse themselves from voting on, any recommendation or section to which their RWI apply. Members who recused themselves from voting are indicated in the list of writing committee members, and section recusals are noted in Appendix 1. Authors' and peer reviewers' RWI pertinent to this guideline

are disclosed in Appendixes 1 and 2, respectively. Additionally, to ensure complete transparency, writing committee members' comprehensive disclosure information—including RWI not pertinent to this document—is available as an [online supplement](#). Comprehensive disclosure information for the Task Force is also available online at [www.cardiosource.org/ACCF/About-ACCF/Leadership/Guidelines-and-Documents-Task-Forces.aspx](http://www.cardiosource.org/ACCF/About-ACCF/Leadership/Guidelines-and-Documents-Task-Forces.aspx). The work of the writing committee was supported exclusively by the ACCF, AHA, and the Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions (SCAI) without commercial support. Writing committee members volunteered their time for this activity.

In an effort to maintain relevance at the point of care for practicing physicians, the Task Force continues to oversee an ongoing process improvement initiative. As a result, in response to pilot projects, several changes to these guidelines will be apparent, including limited narrative text, a focus on summary and evidence tables (with references linked to abstracts in PubMed) and more liberal use of summary recommendation tables (with references that support LOE) to serve as a quick reference.

In April 2011, the Institute of Medicine released 2 reports: *Finding What Works in Health Care: Standards for Systematic Reviews* and *Clinical Practice Guidelines We Can Trust* (2,3). It is noteworthy that the ACCF/AHA guidelines were cited as being compliant with many of the standards that were proposed. A thorough review of these reports and of our current methodology is under way, with further enhancements anticipated.

The recommendations in this guideline are considered current until they are superseded by a focused update or the full-text guideline is revised. Guidelines are official policy of both the ACCF and AHA.

Alice K. Jacobs, MD, FACC, FAHA, Chair  
ACCF/AHA Task Force on Practice Guidelines

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Methodology and Evidence Review

The recommendations listed in this document are, whenever possible, evidence based. An extensive evidence review was conducted through November 2010, as well as selected other references through August 2011. Searches were limited to studies, reviews, and other evidence conducted in human subjects and that were published in English. Key search words included but were not limited to the following: *ad hoc angioplasty, angioplasty, balloon angioplasty, clinical trial, coronary stenting, delayed angioplasty, meta-analysis, percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty, randomized controlled trial (RCT), percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) and angina, angina reduction, antiplatelet therapy, bare-metal stents (BMS), cardiac rehabilitation, chronic stable angina, complication, coronary bifurcation lesion, coronary calcified lesion, coronary chronic total occlusion (CTO), coronary ostial lesions, coronary stent (BMS and drug-eluting stents*

[DES]; and BMS versus DES), diabetes, distal embolization, distal protection, elderly, ethics, late stent thrombosis, medical therapy, microembolization, mortality, multiple lesions, multivessel, myocardial infarction (MI), non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI), no-reflow, optical coherence tomography, proton pump inhibitor (PPI), return to work, same-day angioplasty and/or stenting, slow flow, stable ischemic heart disease (SIHD), staged angioplasty, STEMI, survival, and unstable angina (UA). Additional searches cross-referenced these topics with the following subtopics: anticoagulant therapy, contrast nephropathy, PCI-related vascular complications, unprotected left main PCI, multivessel coronary artery disease (CAD), adjunctive percutaneous interventional devices, percutaneous hemodynamic support devices, and secondary prevention. Additionally, the committee reviewed documents related to the subject matter previously published by the ACCF and AHA. References selected and published in this document are representative and not all-inclusive.

To provide clinicians with a comprehensive set of data, whenever deemed appropriate or when published, the absolute risk difference and number needed to treat or harm will be provided in the guideline, along with confidence intervals (CIs) and data related to the relative treatment effects such as odds ratio (OR), relative risk, hazard ratio (HR), or incidence rate ratio.

The focus of this guideline is the safe, appropriate, and efficacious performance of PCI. The risks of PCI must be balanced against the likelihood of improved survival, symptoms, or functional status. This is especially important in patients with SIHD.

## 1.2. Organization of the Writing Committee

The committee was composed of physicians with expertise in interventional cardiology, general cardiology, critical care cardiology, cardiothoracic surgery, clinical trials, and health services research. The committee included representatives from the ACCF, AHA, and SCAI.

## 1.3. Document Review and Approval

This document was reviewed by 2 official reviewers nominated by the ACCF, AHA, and SCAI, as well as 21 individual content reviewers (including members of the ACCF Interventional Scientific Council and ACCF Surgeons' Scientific Council). All information on reviewers' RWI was distributed to the writing committee and is published in this document (Appendix 2). This document was approved for publication by the governing bodies of the ACCF, AHA, and SCAI.

## 1.4. PCI Guidelines: History and Evolution

In 1982, a 2-page manuscript titled "Guidelines for the Performance of Percutaneous Transluminal Coronary Angioplasty" was published in *Circulation* (4). The document, which addressed the specific expertise and experience physicians should have to perform balloon angioplasty, as well as laboratory requirements and the need for surgical sup-

port, was written by an ad hoc group whose members included Andreas Grüntzig. In 1980, the ACC and the AHA established the Task Force on Assessment of Diagnostic and Therapeutic Cardiovascular Procedures, which was charged with the development of guidelines related to the role of new therapeutic approaches and of specific noninvasive and invasive procedures in the diagnosis and management of cardiovascular disease. The first ACC/AHA Task Force report on guidelines for coronary balloon angioplasty was published in 1988 (5). The 18-page document discussed and made recommendations about lesion classification and success rates, indications for and contraindications to balloon angioplasty, institutional review of angioplasty procedures, ad hoc angioplasty after angiography, and on-site surgical backup. Further iterations of the guidelines were published in 1993 (6), 2001 (7), and 2005 (8). In 2007 and 2009, focused updates to the guideline were published to expeditiously address new study results and recent changes in the field of interventional cardiology (9,10). The 2009 focused update is notable in that there was direct collaboration between the writing committees for the STEMI guidelines and the PCI guidelines, resulting in a single publication of focused updates on STEMI and PCI (10).

The evolution of the PCI guideline reflects the growth of knowledge in the field and parallels the many advances and innovations in the field of interventional cardiology, including primary PCI, BMS and DES, intravascular ultrasound (IVUS) and physiologic assessments of stenosis, and newer antiplatelet and anticoagulant therapies. The 2011 iteration of the guideline continues this process, addressing ethical aspects of PCI, vascular access considerations, CAD revascularization including hybrid revascularization, revascularization before noncardiac surgery, optical coherence tomography, advanced hemodynamic support devices, no-reflow therapies, and vascular closure devices. Most of this document is organized according to "patient flow," consisting of preprocedural considerations, procedural considerations, and postprocedural considerations. In a major undertaking, the STEMI, PCI, and coronary artery bypass graft (CABG) surgery guidelines were written concurrently, with additional collaboration with the SIHD guideline writing committee, allowing greater collaboration between the different writing committees on topics such as PCI in STEMI and revascularization strategies in patients with CAD (including unprotected left main PCI, multivessel disease revascularization, and hybrid procedures).

In accordance with direction from the Task Force and feedback from readers, in this iteration of the guideline, the text has been shortened, with an emphasis on summary statements rather than detailed discussion of numerous individual trials. Online supplemental evidence and summary tables have been created to document the

studies and data considered for new or changed guideline recommendations.

## 2. CAD Revascularization

Recommendations and text in this section are the result of extensive collaborative discussions between the PCI and CABG writing committees, as well as key members of the SIHD and UA/NSTEMI writing committees. Certain issues, such as older versus more contemporary studies, primary analyses versus subgroup analyses, and prospective versus post hoc analyses, have been carefully weighed in designating COR and LOE; they are addressed in the appropriate corresponding text. The goals of revascularization for patients with CAD are to 1) improve survival and/or 2) relieve symptoms.

Revascularization recommendations in this section are predominantly based on studies of patients with symptomatic SIHD and should be interpreted in this context. As discussed later in this section, recommendations on the type of revascularization are, in general, applicable to patients with UA/NSTEMI. In some cases (e.g., unprotected left main CAD), specific recommendations are made for patients with UA/NSTEMI or STEMI.

Historically, most studies of revascularization have been based on and reported according to angiographic criteria. Most studies have defined a “significant” stenosis as  $\geq 70\%$  diameter narrowing; therefore, for revascularization decisions and recommendations in this section, a “significant” stenosis has been defined as  $\geq 70\%$  diameter narrowing ( $\geq 50\%$  for left main CAD). Physiological criteria, such as an assessment of fractional flow reserve (FFR), has been used in deciding when revascularization is indicated. Thus, for recommendations about revascularization in this section, coronary stenoses with  $\text{FFR} \leq 0.80$  can also be considered to be “significant” (11,12).

As noted, the revascularization recommendations have been formulated to address issues related to 1) improved survival and/or 2) improved symptoms. When one method of revascularization is preferred over the other for improved survival, this consideration, in general, takes precedence over improved symptoms. When discussing options for revascularization with the patient, he or she should understand when the procedure is being performed in an attempt to improve symptoms, survival, or both.

Although some results from the SYNTAX (Synergy between Percutaneous Coronary Intervention with TAXUS and Cardiac Surgery) study are best characterized as subgroup analyses and “hypothesis generating,” SYNTAX nonetheless represents the latest and most comprehensive comparison of PCI and CABG (13,14). Therefore, the results of SYNTAX have been considered appropriately when formulating our revascularization recommendations. Although the limitations of using the SYNTAX score for certain revascularization recommendations are recognized,

the SYNTAX score is a reasonable surrogate for the extent of CAD and its complexity and serves as important information that should be considered when making revascularization decisions. Recommendations that refer to SYNTAX scores use them as surrogates for the extent and complexity of CAD.

Revascularization recommendations to improve survival and symptoms are provided in the following text and are summarized in Tables 2 and 3. References to studies comparing revascularization with medical therapy are presented when available for each anatomic subgroup.

*See Online Data Supplements 1 and 2 for additional data regarding the survival and symptomatic benefits with CABG or PCI for different anatomic subsets.*

### 2.1. Heart Team Approach to Revascularization Decisions: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. A Heart Team approach to revascularization is recommended in patients with unprotected left main or complex CAD (14–16). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIa

1. Calculation of the Society of Thoracic Surgeons (STS) and SYNTAX scores is reasonable in patients with unprotected left main and complex CAD (13,14,17–22). (Level of Evidence: B)

One protocol used in RCTs (14–16,23) often involves a multidisciplinary approach referred to as the Heart Team. Composed of an interventional cardiologist and a cardiac surgeon, the Heart Team 1) reviews the patient’s medical condition and coronary anatomy, 2) determines that PCI and/or CABG are technically feasible and reasonable, and 3) discusses revascularization options with the patient before a treatment strategy is selected. Support for using a Heart Team approach comes from reports that patients with complex CAD referred specifically for PCI or CABG in concurrent trial registries have lower mortality rates than those randomly assigned to PCI or CABG in controlled trials (15,16).

The SIHD, PCI, and CABG guideline writing committees endorse a Heart Team approach in patients with unprotected left main CAD and/or complex CAD in whom the optimal revascularization strategy is not straightforward. A collaborative assessment of revascularization options, or the decision to treat with GDMT without revascularization, involving an interventional cardiologist, a cardiac surgeon, and (often) the patient’s general cardiologist, followed by discussion with the patient about treatment options, is optimal. Particularly in patients with SIHD and unprotected left main and/or complex CAD for whom a revascularization strategy is not straightforward, an approach has been endorsed that involves terminating the procedure after diagnostic coronary angiography is completed: this allows a thorough discussion and affords both the interventional

**Table 2. Revascularization to Improve Survival Compared With Medical Therapy**

Anatomic Setting	COR	LOE	References
<b>UPLM or complex CAD</b>			
CABG and PCI	I—Heart Team approach recommended	C	(14–16)
CABG and PCI	Ia—Calculation of STS and SYNTAX scores	B	(13,14,17–22)
<b>UPLM*</b>			
CABG	I	B	(24–30)
PCI	Ia—For SIHD when <i>both</i> of the following are present: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Anatomic conditions associated with a low risk of PCI procedural complications and a high likelihood of good long-term outcome (e.g., a low SYNTAX score of <math>\leq 22</math>, ostial or trunk left main CAD)</li> <li>Clinical characteristics that predict a significantly increased risk of adverse surgical outcomes (e.g., STS-predicted risk of operative mortality <math>\geq 5\%</math>)</li> </ul>	B	(13,17,19,23,31–48)
	Ia—For UA/NSTEMI if not a CABG candidate	B	(13,36–39,44,45,47–49)
	Ia—For STEMI when distal coronary flow is TIMI flow grade $< 3$ and PCI can be performed more rapidly and safely than CABG	C	(33,50,51)
	Iib—For SIHD when <i>both</i> of the following are present: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Anatomic conditions associated with a low to intermediate risk of PCI procedural complications and an intermediate to high likelihood of good long-term outcome (e.g., low-intermediate SYNTAX score of <math>&lt; 33</math>, bifurcation left main CAD)</li> <li>Clinical characteristics that predict an increased risk of adverse surgical outcomes (e.g., moderate-severe COPD, disability from prior stroke, or prior cardiac surgery; STS-predicted risk of operative mortality <math>&gt; 2\%</math>)</li> </ul>	B	(13,17,19,23,31–48,52)
	III: Harm—For SIHD in patients (versus performing CABG) with unfavorable anatomy for PCI and who are good candidates for CABG	B	(13,17,19,24–32)
<b>3-vessel disease with or without proximal LAD artery disease*</b>			
CABG	I	B	(26,30,53–56)
	Ia—It is reasonable to choose CABG over PCI in patients with complex 3-vessel CAD (e.g., SYNTAX score $> 22$ ) who are good candidates for CABG.	B	(32,46,56,71,72)
PCI	Iib—Of uncertain benefit	B	(26,46,53,56,82)
<b>2-vessel disease with proximal LAD artery disease*</b>			
CABG	I	B	(26,30,53–56)
PCI	Iib—Of uncertain benefit	B	(26,53,56,82)
<b>2-vessel disease without proximal LAD artery disease*</b>			
CABG	Ia—With extensive ischemia	B	(60–63)
	Iib—Of uncertain benefit without extensive ischemia	C	(56)
PCI	Iib—Of uncertain benefit	B	(26,53,56,82)
<b>1-vessel proximal LAD artery disease</b>			
CABG	Ia—With LIMA for long-term benefit	B	(30,56,69,70)
PCI	Iib—Of uncertain benefit	B	(26,53,56,82)
<b>1-vessel disease without proximal LAD artery involvement</b>			
CABG	III: Harm	B	(30,53,60,61,94–98)
PCI	III: Harm	B	(30,53,60,61,94–98)
<b>LV dysfunction</b>			
CABG	Ia—EF 35% to 50%	B	(30,64–68)
CABG	Iib—EF $< 35\%$ without significant left main CAD	B	(30,64–68,83,84)
PCI	Insufficient data		N/A
<b>Survivors of sudden cardiac death with presumed ischemia-mediated VT</b>			
CABG	I	B	(57–59)
PCI	I	C	(57)
<b>No anatomic or physiologic criteria for revascularization</b>			
CABG	III: Harm	B	(30,53,60,61,94–98)
PCI	III: Harm	B	(30,53,60,61,94–98)

\*In patients with multivessel disease who also have diabetes, it is reasonable to choose CABG (with LIMA) over PCI (62,74–81) (Class IIa; LOE: B).

CABG indicates coronary artery bypass graft; CAD, coronary artery disease; COPD, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; COR, class of recommendation; EF, ejection fraction; LAD, left anterior descending; LIMA, left internal mammary artery; LOE, level of evidence; LV, left ventricular; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; SIHD, stable ischemic heart disease; STEMI, ST-elevation myocardial infarction; STS, Society of Thoracic Surgeons; SYNTAX, Synergy between Percutaneous Coronary Intervention with TAXUS and Cardiac Surgery; TIMI, Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction; UA/NSTEMI, unstable angina/non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction; UPLM, unprotected left main disease; and VT, ventricular tachycardia.



**Table 3. Revascularization to Improve Symptoms With Significant Anatomic ( $\geq 50\%$  Left Main or  $\geq 70\%$  Non-Left Main CAD) or Physiologic (FFR $\leq 0.80$ ) Coronary Artery Stenoses**

Clinical Setting	COR	LOE	References
$\geq 1$ significant stenoses amenable to revascularization and unacceptable angina despite GDMT	I – CABG I – PCI	A	(82,99–108)
$\geq 1$ significant stenoses and unacceptable angina in whom GDMT cannot be implemented because of medication contraindications, adverse effects, or patient preferences	Ila – CABG Ila – PCI	C	N/A
Previous CABG with $\geq 1$ significant stenoses associated with ischemia and unacceptable angina despite GDMT	Ila – PCI	C	(86,89,92)
	Ilb – CABG	C	(93)
Complex 3-vessel CAD (e.g., SYNTAX score $> 22$ ) with or without involvement of the proximal LAD artery and a good candidate for CABG	Ila – CABG preferred over PCI	B	(32,46,56,71,72)
Viable ischemic myocardium that is perfused by coronary arteries that are not amenable to grafting	Ilb – TMR as an adjunct to CABG	B	(109–113)
No anatomic or physiologic criteria for revascularization	III: Harm – CABG III: Harm – PCI	C	N/A

CABG indicates coronary artery bypass graft; CAD, coronary artery disease; COR, class of recommendation; FFR, fractional flow reserve; GDMT, guideline-directed medical therapy; LOE, level of evidence; N/A, not applicable; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; SYNTAX, Synergy between Percutaneous Coronary Intervention with TAXUS and Cardiac Surgery; and TMR, transmyocardial laser revascularization.

cardiologist and cardiac surgeon the opportunity to discuss revascularization options with the patient. Because the STS score and the SYNTAX score have been shown to predict adverse outcomes in patients undergoing CABG and PCI, respectively, calculation of these scores is often useful in making revascularization decisions (13,14,17–22).

## 2.2. Revascularization to Improve Survival: Recommendations

### Left Main CAD Revascularization

#### CLASS I

- CABG to improve survival is recommended for patients with significant ( $\geq 50\%$  diameter stenosis) left main coronary artery stenosis (24–30). (Level of Evidence: B)

#### CLASS Ila

- PCI to improve survival is reasonable as an alternative to CABG in selected stable patients with significant ( $\geq 50\%$  diameter stenosis) unprotected left main CAD with: 1) anatomic conditions associated with a low risk of PCI procedural complications and a high likelihood of good long-term outcome (e.g., a low SYNTAX score [ $\leq 22$ ], ostial or trunk left main CAD); and 2) clinical characteristics that predict a significantly increased risk of adverse surgical outcomes (e.g., STS-predicted risk of operative mortality  $\geq 5\%$ ) (13,17,19,23,31–48). (Level of Evidence: B)
- PCI to improve survival is reasonable in patients with UA/NSTEMI when an unprotected left main coronary artery is the culprit lesion and the patient is not a candidate for CABG (13,36–39,44,45,47–49). (Level of Evidence: B)
- PCI to improve survival is reasonable in patients with acute STEMI when an unprotected left main coronary artery is the culprit lesion, distal coronary flow is less than TIMI (Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction) grade 3, and PCI can be performed more rapidly and safely than CABG (33,50,51). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS Iib

- PCI to improve survival may be reasonable as an alternative to CABG in selected stable patients with significant ( $\geq 50\%$  diameter stenosis) unprotected left main CAD with: 1) anatomic conditions associated with a low to intermediate risk of PCI procedural com-

plications and an intermediate to high likelihood of good long-term outcome (e.g., low-intermediate SYNTAX score of  $< 33$ , bifurcation left main CAD); and 2) clinical characteristics that predict an increased risk of adverse surgical outcomes (e.g., moderate-severe chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, disability from previous stroke, or previous cardiac surgery; STS-predicted risk of operative mortality  $> 2\%$ ) (13,17,19,23,31–48,52). (Level of Evidence: B)

#### CLASS III: HARM

- PCI to improve survival should not be performed in stable patients with significant ( $\geq 50\%$  diameter stenosis) unprotected left main CAD who have unfavorable anatomy for PCI and who are good candidates for CABG (13,17,19,24–32). (Level of Evidence: B)

### Non-Left Main CAD Revascularization

#### CLASS I

- CABG to improve survival is beneficial in patients with significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) stenoses in 3 major coronary arteries (with or without involvement of the proximal left anterior descending [LAD] artery) or in the proximal LAD plus 1 other major coronary artery (26,30,53–56). (Level of Evidence: B)
- CABG or PCI to improve survival is beneficial in survivors of sudden cardiac death with presumed ischemia-mediated ventricular tachycardia caused by significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) stenosis in a major coronary artery. (CABG Level of Evidence: B [57–59]; PCI Level of Evidence: C [57])

#### CLASS Iia

- CABG to improve survival is reasonable in patients with significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) stenoses in 2 major coronary arteries with severe or extensive myocardial ischemia (e.g., high-risk criteria on stress testing, abnormal intracoronary hemodynamic evaluation, or  $> 20\%$  perfusion defect by myocardial perfusion stress imaging) or target vessels supplying a large area of viable myocardium (60–63). (Level of Evidence: B)
- CABG to improve survival is reasonable in patients with mild-moderate left ventricular (LV) systolic dysfunction (ejection fraction [EF] 35% to 50%) and significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter stenosis) multi-vessel CAD or proximal LAD coronary artery stenosis, when viable myocardium is present in the region of intended revascularization (30,64–68). (Level of Evidence: B)

3. CABG with a left internal mammary artery (LIMA) graft to improve survival is reasonable in patients with significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) stenosis in the proximal LAD artery and evidence of extensive ischemia (30,56,69,70). (Level of Evidence: B)
4. It is reasonable to choose CABG over PCI to improve survival in patients with complex 3-vessel CAD (e.g., SYNTAX score  $> 22$ ), with or without involvement of the proximal LAD artery who are good candidates for CABG (32,46,56,71,72). (Level of Evidence: B)
5. CABG is probably recommended in preference to PCI to improve survival in patients with multivessel CAD and diabetes mellitus, particularly if a LIMA graft can be anastomosed to the LAD artery (62,74-81). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS IIb**

1. The usefulness of CABG to improve survival is uncertain in patients with significant ( $\geq 70\%$ ) diameter stenoses in 2 major coronary arteries not involving the proximal LAD artery and without extensive ischemia (56). (Level of Evidence: C)
2. The usefulness of PCI to improve survival is uncertain in patients with 2- or 3-vessel CAD (with or without involvement of the proximal LAD artery) or 1-vessel proximal LAD disease (26,53,56,82). (Level of Evidence: B)
3. CABG might be considered with the primary or sole intent of improving survival in patients with SIHD with severe LV systolic dysfunction (EF  $< 35\%$ ) whether or not viable myocardium is present (30,64-68,83,84). (Level of Evidence: B)
4. The usefulness of CABG or PCI to improve survival is uncertain in patients with previous CABG and extensive anterior wall ischemia on noninvasive testing (85-93). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS III: HARM**

1. CABG or PCI should not be performed with the primary or sole intent to improve survival in patients with SIHD with 1 or more coronary stenoses that are not anatomically or functionally significant (e.g.,  $< 70\%$  diameter non-left main coronary artery stenosis, FFR  $> 0.80$ , no or only mild ischemia on noninvasive testing), involve only the left circumflex or right coronary artery, or subtend only a small area of viable myocardium (30,53,60,61,94-98). (Level of Evidence: B)

### 2.3. Revascularization to Improve Symptoms: Recommendations

**CLASS I**

1. CABG or PCI to improve symptoms is beneficial in patients with 1 or more significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) coronary artery stenoses amenable to revascularization and unacceptable angina despite GDMT (82,99-108). (Level of Evidence: A)

**CLASS IIa**

1. CABG or PCI to improve symptoms is reasonable in patients with 1 or more significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) coronary artery stenoses and unacceptable angina for whom GDMT cannot be implemented because of medication contraindications, adverse effects, or patient preferences. (Level of Evidence: C)
2. PCI to improve symptoms is reasonable in patients with previous CABG, 1 or more significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) coronary artery stenoses associated with ischemia, and unacceptable angina despite GDMT (86,89,92). (Level of Evidence: C)
3. It is reasonable to choose CABG over PCI to improve symptoms in patients with complex 3-vessel CAD (e.g., SYNTAX score  $> 22$ ), with

or without involvement of the proximal LAD artery who are good candidates for CABG (32,46,56,72,73). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS IIb**

1. CABG to improve symptoms might be reasonable for patients with previous CABG, 1 or more significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) coronary artery stenoses not amenable to PCI, and unacceptable angina despite GDMT (93). (Level of Evidence: C)
2. Transmyocardial laser revascularization (TMR) performed as an adjunct to CABG to improve symptoms may be reasonable in patients with viable ischemic myocardium that is perfused by arteries that are not amenable to grafting (109-113). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS III: HARM**

1. CABG or PCI to improve symptoms should not be performed in patients who do not meet anatomic ( $\geq 50\%$  diameter left main or  $\geq 70\%$  non-left main stenosis diameter) or physiological (e.g., abnormal FFR) criteria for revascularization. (Level of Evidence: C)

### 2.4. CABG Versus Contemporaneous Medical Therapy

In the 1970s and 1980s, 3 RCTs established the survival benefit of CABG compared with contemporaneous (although minimal by current standards) medical therapy without revascularization in certain subjects with stable angina: the Veterans Affairs Cooperative Study (114), European Coronary Surgery Study (55), and CASS (Coronary Artery Surgery Study) (115). Subsequently, a 1994 meta-analysis of 7 studies that randomized a total of 2,649 patients to medical therapy or CABG (30) showed that CABG offered a survival advantage over medical therapy for patients with left main or 3-vessel CAD. The studies also established that CABG is more effective than medical therapy for relieving anginal symptoms. These studies have been replicated only once during the past decade. In MASS II (Medicine, Angioplasty, or Surgery Study II), patients with multivessel CAD who were treated with CABG were less likely than those treated with medical therapy to have a subsequent MI, need additional revascularization, or experience cardiac death in the 10 years after randomization (104).

Surgical techniques and medical therapy have improved substantially during the intervening years. As a result, if CABG were to be compared with GDMT in RCTs today, the relative benefits for survival and angina relief observed several decades ago might no longer be observed. Conversely, the concurrent administration of GDMT may substantially improve long-term outcomes in patients treated with CABG in comparison with those receiving medical therapy alone. In the BARI 2D (Bypass Angioplasty Revascularization Investigation 2 Diabetes) trial of patients with diabetes mellitus, no significant difference in risk of mortality in the cohort of patients randomized to GDMT plus CABG or GDMT alone was observed, although the study was not powered for this endpoint, excluded patients with significant left main CAD, and included only a small percentage of patients with proximal

LAD artery disease or LV ejection fraction (LVEF) <0.50 (116). The PCI and CABG guideline writing committees endorse the performance of the ISCHEMIA (International Study of Comparative Health Effectiveness with Medical and Invasive Approaches) trial, which will provide contemporary data on the optimal management strategy (medical therapy or revascularization with CABG or PCI) of patients with SIHD, including multivessel CAD, and moderate to severe ischemia.

## 2.5. PCI Versus Medical Therapy

Although contemporary interventional treatments have lowered the risk of restenosis compared with earlier techniques, meta-analyses have failed to show that the introduction of BMS confers a survival advantage over balloon angioplasty (117–119) or that the use of DES confers a survival advantage over BMS (119,120).

No study to date has demonstrated that PCI in patients with SIHD improves survival rates (26,53,56,82,116, 119,121–124). Neither COURAGE (Clinical Outcomes Utilizing Revascularization and Aggressive Drug Evaluation) (82) nor BARI 2D (116), which treated all patients with contemporary optimal medical therapy, demonstrated any survival advantage with PCI, although these trials were not specifically powered for this endpoint. Although 1 large analysis evaluating 17 RCTs of PCI versus medical therapy (including 5 trials of subjects with acute coronary syndromes [ACS]) found a 20% reduction in death with PCI compared with medical therapy (123), 2 other large analyses did not (119,122). An evaluation of 13 studies reporting the data from 5,442 patients with nonacute CAD showed no advantage of PCI over medical therapy for the individual endpoints of all-cause death, cardiac death or MI, or nonfatal MI (124). Evaluation of 61 trials of PCI conducted over several decades shows that despite improvements in PCI technology and pharmacotherapy, PCI has not been demonstrated to reduce the risk of death or MI in patients without recent ACS (119).

The findings from individual studies and systematic reviews of PCI versus medical therapy can be summarized as follows:

- PCI reduces the incidence of angina (82,99,104, 107,108,125).
- PCI has not been demonstrated to improve survival in stable patients (119,121,122).
- PCI may increase the short-term risk of MI (82,121, 125,126).
- PCI does not lower the long-term risk of MI (82,116, 119,121,122,126).

## 2.6. CABG Versus PCI

The results of 26 RCTs comparing CABG and PCI have been published: Of these, 9 compared CABG with balloon angioplasty (75,105,128–142), 14 compared CABG with BMS implantation (88,143–160), and 3 compared CABG with DES implantation (14,161,162).

### 2.6.1. CABG Versus Balloon Angioplasty or BMS

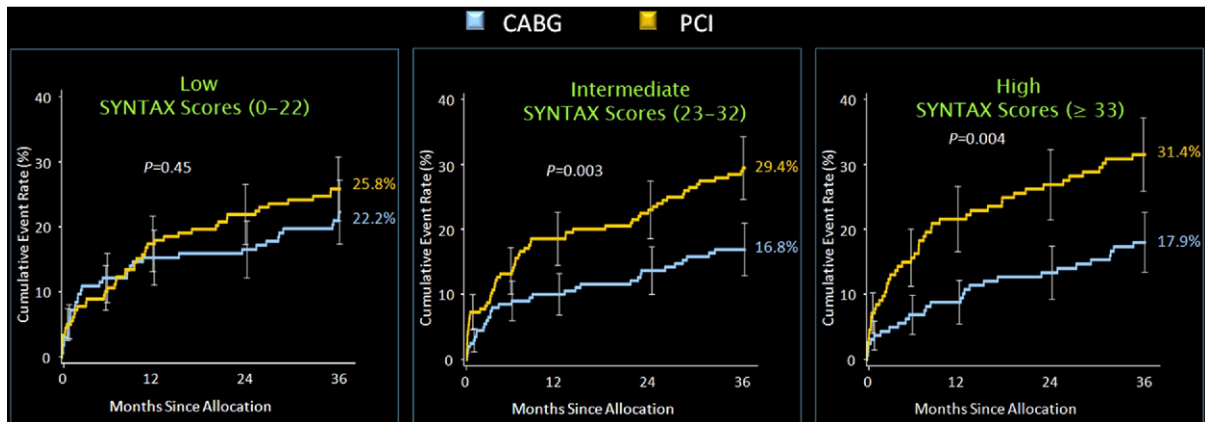
A systematic review of the 22 RCTs comparing CABG with balloon angioplasty or BMS implantation concluded the following (163):

1. Survival was similar for CABG and PCI (with balloon angioplasty or BMS) at 1 year and 5 years. Survival was similar for CABG and PCI in subjects with 1-vessel CAD (including those with disease of the proximal portion of the LAD artery) or multivessel CAD.
2. Incidence of MI was similar at 5 years after randomization.
3. Procedural stroke occurred more commonly with CABG than with PCI (1.2% versus 0.6%).
4. Relief of angina was accomplished more effectively with CABG than with PCI 1 year after randomization and 5 years after randomization.
5. During the first year after randomization, repeat coronary revascularization was performed less often after CABG than after PCI (3.8% versus 26.5%). This was also demonstrated after 5 years of follow-up (9.8% versus 46.1%). This difference was more pronounced with balloon angioplasty than with BMS.

A collaborative analysis of data from 10 RCTs comparing CABG with balloon angioplasty (6 trials) or with BMS implantation (4 trials) (164) permitted subgroup analyses of the data from the 7,812 patients. No difference was noted with regard to mortality rate 5.9 years after randomization or the composite endpoint of death or MI. Repeat revascularization and angina were noted more frequently in those treated with balloon angioplasty or BMS implantation (164). The major new observation of this analysis was that CABG was associated with better outcomes in patients with diabetes mellitus and in those >65 years old. Of interest, the relative outcomes of CABG and PCI were not influenced by other patient characteristics, including the number of diseased coronary arteries.

The aforementioned meta-analysis and systematic review (163,164) comparing CABG and balloon angioplasty or BMS implantation were limited in several ways:

1. Many trials did not report outcomes for other important patient subsets. For example, the available data are insufficient to determine if race, obesity, renal dysfunction, peripheral arterial disease, or previous coronary revascularization affected the comparative outcomes of CABG and PCI.
2. Most of the patients enrolled in these trials were male, and most had 1- or 2-vessel CAD and normal LV systolic function (EF >50%)—subjects known to be unlikely to derive a survival benefit and less likely to experience complications after CABG (30).
3. The patients enrolled in these trials represented only a small fraction (generally <5% to 10%) of those who were screened. For example, most screened patients with



**Figure 1. Cumulative Incidence of MACE in Patients With 3-Vessel CAD Based on SYNTAX Score at 3-Year Follow-Up in the SYNTAX Trial Treated With Either CABG or PCI**

CABG indicates coronary artery bypass graft; CAD, coronary artery disease; MACE, major adverse cardiovascular event; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; and SYNTAX, Synergy between Percutaneous Coronary Intervention with TAXUS and Cardiac Surgery. Adapted with permission from Kappetein (46).

1-vessel CAD and many with 3-vessel CAD were not considered for randomization.

See *Online Data Supplements 3 and 4* for additional data comparing CABG with PCI.

## 2.6.2. CABG Versus DES

Although the results of 9 observational studies comparing CABG and DES implantation have been published (32,165–172), most of them had short (12 to 24 months) follow-up periods. In a meta-analysis of 24,268 patients with multivessel CAD treated with CABG or DES (173), the incidences of death and MI were similar for the 2 procedures, but the frequency with which repeat revascularization was performed was roughly 4 times higher after DES implantation. Only 1 large RCT comparing CABG and DES implantation has been published. The SYNTAX trial randomly assigned 1,800 patients (of a total of 4,337 who were screened) to receive DES or CABG (14,46). Major adverse cardiac events (MACE), a composite of death, stroke, MI, or repeat revascularization during the 3 years after randomization, occurred in 20.2% of CABG patients and 28.0% of those undergoing DES implantation ( $p < 0.001$ ). The rates of death and stroke were similar; however, MI (3.6% for CABG, 7.1% for DES) and repeat revascularization (10.7% for CABG, 19.7% for DES) were more likely to occur with DES implantation (46).

In SYNTAX, the extent of CAD was assessed using the SYNTAX score, which is based on the location, severity, and extent of coronary stenoses, with a low score indicating less complicated anatomic CAD. In post hoc analyses, a low score was defined as  $\leq 22$ ; intermediate, 23 to 32; and high,  $\geq 33$ . The occurrence of MACE correlated with the SYNTAX score for DES patients but not for those undergoing CABG. At 12-month follow-up, the primary endpoint was similar for CABG and DES in those with a low SYNTAX score. In contrast, MACE occurred more often after DES implantation than after CABG in those with an intermediate or high

SYNTAX score (14). At 3 years of follow-up, the mortality rate was greater in subjects with 3-vessel CAD treated with PCI than in those treated with CABG (6.2% versus 2.9%). The differences in MACE between those treated with PCI or CABG increased with an increasing SYNTAX score (Figure 1) (46).

Although the utility of using a SYNTAX score in everyday clinical practice remains uncertain, it seems reasonable to conclude from SYNTAX and other data that outcomes of patients undergoing PCI or CABG in those with relatively uncomplicated and lesser degrees of CAD are comparable, whereas in those with complex and diffuse CAD, CABG appears to be preferable (46).

See *Online Data Supplements 5 and 6* for additional data comparing CABG with DES.

## 2.7. Left Main CAD

### 2.7.1. CABG or PCI Versus Medical Therapy for Left Main CAD

CABG confers a survival benefit over medical therapy in patients with left main CAD. Subgroup analyses from RCTs performed 3 decades ago included 91 patients with left main CAD in the Veterans Administration Cooperative Study (28). A meta-analysis of these trials demonstrated a 66% reduction in relative risk in mortality with CABG, with the benefit extending to 10 years (30). The CASS Registry (24) contained data from 1,484 patients with  $\geq 50\%$  diameter stenosis left main CAD initially treated surgically or nonsurgically. Median survival duration was 13.3 years in the surgical group; and 6.6 years in the medical group. The survival benefit of CABG over medical therapy appeared to extend to 53 asymptomatic patients with left main CAD in the CASS Registry (29). Other therapies that subsequently have been shown to be associated with improved long-term outcome, such as the use of aspirin, statins, and internal mammary artery grafting, were not widely used in that era.

RCTs and subgroup analyses that compare PCI with medical therapy in patients with “unprotected” left main CAD do not exist.

### 2.7.2. Studies Comparing PCI Versus CABG for Left Main CAD

Of all subjects undergoing coronary angiography, approximately 4% are found to have left main CAD (175), >80% of whom have significant ( $\geq 70\%$  diameter) stenoses in other epicardial coronary arteries.

Published cohort studies have found that major clinical outcomes are similar with PCI or CABG 1 year after revascularization and that mortality rates are similar at 1, 2, and 5 years of follow-up; however, the risk of needing target-vessel revascularization is significantly higher with stenting than with CABG.

In the SYNTAX trial, 45% of screened patients with unprotected left main CAD had complex disease that prevented randomization; 89% of these underwent CABG (13,14). In addition, 705 of the 1,800 patients who were randomized had revascularization for unprotected left main CAD. The majority of patients with left main CAD and a low SYNTAX score had isolated left main CAD or left main CAD plus 1-vessel CAD; the majority of those with an intermediate score had left main CAD plus 2-vessel CAD; and most of those with a high SYNTAX score had left main CAD plus 3-vessel CAD. At 1 year, rates of all-cause death and MACE were similar for the 2 groups (13). Repeat revascularization rates were higher in the PCI group than the CABG group (11.8% versus 6.5%), but stroke occurred more often in the CABG group (2.7% versus 0.3%). At 3 years of follow-up, the incidence of death in those undergoing left main CAD revascularization with low or intermediate SYNTAX scores ( $\leq 32$ ) was 3.7% after PCI and 9.1% after CABG ( $p=0.03$ ), whereas in those with a high SYNTAX score ( $\geq 33$ ), the incidence of death after 3 years was 13.4% after PCI and 7.6% after CABG ( $p=0.10$ ) (46). Because the primary endpoint of SYNTAX was not met (i.e., noninferiority comparison of CABG and PCI), these subgroup analyses need to be considered in that context.

In the LE MANS (Study of Unprotected Left Main Stenting Versus Bypass Surgery) trial (23), 105 patients with left main CAD were randomized to receive PCI or CABG. Although a low proportion of patients treated with PCI received DES (35%) and a low proportion of patients treated with CABG received internal mammary grafts (72%), the outcomes at 30 days and 1 year were similar between the groups. In the PRECOMBAT (Premier of Randomized Comparison of Bypass Surgery versus Angioplasty Using Sirolimus-Eluting Stent in Patients with Left Main Coronary Artery Disease) trial of 600 patients with left main disease, the composite endpoint of death, MI, or stroke at 2 years occurred in 4.4% of patients treated with PCI patients and 4.7% of patients treated with CABG, but ischemia-driven target-vessel revascularization was more

often required in the patients treated with PCI (9.0% versus 4.2%) (52).

The results from these 3 RCTs suggest (but do not definitively prove) that major clinical outcomes in *selected* patients with left main CAD are similar with CABG and PCI at 1- to 2-year follow-up, but repeat revascularization rates are higher after PCI than after CABG. RCTs with extended follow-up of  $\geq 5$  years are required to provide definitive conclusions about the optimal treatment of left main CAD. In a meta-analysis of 8 cohort studies and 2 RCTs (41), death, MI, and stroke occurred with similar frequency in the PCI- and CABG-treated patients at 1, 2, and 3 years of follow-up. Target-vessel revascularization was performed more often in the PCI group at 1 year (OR: 4.36), 2 years (OR: 4.20), and 3 years (OR: 3.30).

*See Online Data Supplements 7 to 12 for additional data comparing PCI with CABG for left main CAD.*

### 2.7.3. Revascularization Considerations for Left Main CAD

Although CABG has been considered the “gold standard” for unprotected left main CAD revascularization, more recently PCI has emerged as a possible alternative mode of revascularization in carefully selected patients. Lesion location is an important determinant when considering PCI for unprotected left main CAD. Stenting of the left main ostium or trunk is more straightforward than treating distal bifurcation or trifurcation stenoses, which generally requires a greater degree of operator experience and expertise (176). In addition, PCI of bifurcation disease is associated with higher restenosis rates than when disease is confined to the ostium or trunk (39,177). Although lesion location influences technical success and long-term outcomes after PCI, location exerts a negligible influence on the success of CABG. In subgroup analyses, patients with left main CAD and a SYNTAX score  $\geq 33$  with more complex or extensive CAD had a higher mortality rate with PCI than with CABG (46). Physicians can estimate operative risk for all CABG candidates using a standard instrument, such as the [risk calculator](#) from the STS database. The above considerations are important factors when choosing among revascularization strategies for unprotected left main CAD and have been factored into revascularization recommendations. Use of a Heart Team approach has been recommended in cases in which the choice of revascularization is not straightforward. As discussed in Section 2.9.7, the ability of the patient to tolerate and comply with dual antiplatelet therapy (DAPT) is also an important consideration in revascularization decisions.

The 2005 PCI guideline (8) recommended routine angiographic follow-up 2 to 6 months after stenting for unprotected left main CAD. However, because angiography has limited ability to predict stent thrombosis and the results of SYNTAX suggest good intermediate-term results for PCI in subjects with left main CAD, this recommen-

dation was removed in the 2009 STEMI/PCI focused update (10).

Experts have recommended immediate PCI for unprotected left main CAD in the setting of STEMI (51). The impetus for such a strategy is greatest when left main CAD is the site of the culprit lesion, antegrade coronary flow is diminished (e.g., TIMI flow grade 0, 1, or 2), the patient is hemodynamically unstable, and it is believed that PCI can be performed more quickly than CABG. When possible, the interventional cardiologist and cardiac surgeon should decide together on the optimal form of revascularization for these subjects, although it is recognized that these patients are usually critically ill and therefore not amenable to a prolonged deliberation or discussion of treatment options.

### 2.8. Proximal LAD Artery Disease

A cohort study (53) and a meta-analysis (30) from the 1990s suggested that CABG confers a survival advantage over contemporaneous medical therapy for patients with disease in the proximal segment of the LAD artery. Cohort studies and RCTs (30,133,146,148,161,178–181) as well as collaborative- and meta-analyses (164,182–184) showed that PCI and CABG result in similar survival rates in these patients.

See Online Data Supplement 13 for additional data regarding proximal LAD artery revascularization.

### 2.9. Clinical Factors That May Influence the Choice of Revascularization

#### 2.9.1. Diabetes Mellitus

An analysis performed in 2009 of data on 7,812 patients (1,233 with diabetes) in 10 RCTs demonstrated a worse long-term survival rate in patients with diabetes mellitus after balloon angioplasty or BMS implantation than after CABG (164). The BARI 2D trial (116) randomly assigned 2,368 patients with type 2 diabetes and CAD to undergo intensive medical therapy or prompt revascularization with PCI or CABG, according to whichever was thought to be more appropriate. By study design, those with less extensive CAD more often received PCI, whereas those with more extensive CAD were more likely to be treated with CABG.

The study was not designed to compare PCI with CABG. At 5 year follow-up, no difference in rates of survival or MACE between the medical therapy group and those treated with revascularization was noted. In the PCI stratum, no significant difference in MACE between medical therapy and revascularization was demonstrated (DES in 35%; BMS in 56%); in the CABG stratum, MACE occurred less often in the revascularization group. One-year follow-up data from the SYNTAX study demonstrated a higher rate of repeat revascularization in patients with diabetes mellitus treated with PCI than with CABG, driven by a tendency for higher repeat revascularization rates in those with higher SYNTAX scores undergoing PCI (76). In summary, in subjects requiring revascularization for multivessel CAD, current evidence supports diabetes mellitus as an important factor when deciding on a revascularization strategy, particularly when complex or extensive CAD is present (Figure 2).

See Online Data Supplements 14 and 15 for additional data regarding diabetes mellitus.

#### 2.9.2. Chronic Kidney Disease

Cardiovascular morbidity and mortality rates are markedly increased in patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD) when compared with age-matched controls without CKD. The mortality rate for patients on hemodialysis is >20% per year, and approximately 50% of deaths among these patients are due to a cardiovascular cause (187,188).

To date, randomized comparisons of coronary revascularization (with CABG or PCI) and medical therapy in patients with CKD have not been reported. Some, but not all, observational studies or subgroup analyses have demonstrated an improved survival rate with revascularization compared with medical therapy in patients with CKD and multivessel CAD (189–191), despite the fact that the incidence of periprocedural complications (e.g., death, MI, stroke, infection, renal failure) is increased in patients with CKD compared with those without renal dysfunction. Some studies have shown that CABG is associated with a greater survival benefit than PCI among patients with severe renal dysfunction (190–196).

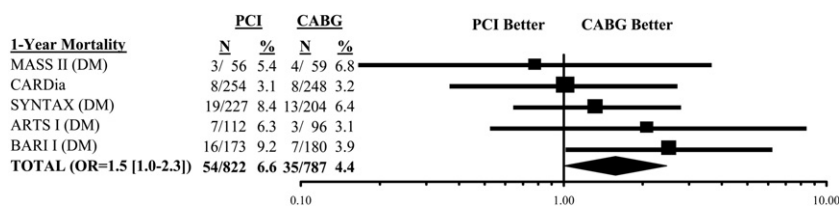


Figure 2. 1-Year Mortality After Revascularization for Multivessel Disease and Diabetes Mellitus

An OR of >1 suggests an advantage of CABG over PCI. ARTS I indicates Arterial Revascularization Therapy Study I (185); BARI I, Bypass Angioplasty Revascularization Investigation I (74); CABG, coronary artery bypass graft; CAD, coronary artery disease; CARDia, Coronary Artery Revascularization in Diabetes (186); CI, confidence interval; MASS II, Medicine, Angioplasty, or Surgery Study II (78); OR, odds ratio; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; SYNTAX, Synergy between Percutaneous Coronary Intervention with TAXUS and Cardiac Surgery; and W, weighted (76).

### 2.9.3. Completeness of Revascularization

Most patients undergoing CABG receive complete or nearly complete revascularization, which seems to influence long-term prognosis positively (197). In contrast, complete revascularization is accomplished less often in subjects receiving PCI (e.g., in <70% of patients), but the extent to which the absence of complete initial revascularization influences outcome is less clear. Rates of late survival and survival free of MI appears to be similar in patients with and without complete revascularization after PCI. Nevertheless, the need for subsequent CABG is usually higher in those whose initial revascularization procedure was incomplete (compared with those with complete revascularization) after PCI (198–200).

### 2.9.4. LV Systolic Dysfunction

Several older studies and a meta-analysis of the data from these studies reported that patients with LV systolic dysfunction (predominantly mild to moderate in severity) had better survival with CABG than with medical therapy alone (30,64–68). For patients with more severe LV systolic dysfunction, however, the evidence that CABG results in better survival compared with medical therapy is lacking. In the STICH (Surgical Treatment for Ischemic Heart Failure) trial of subjects with LVEF <35% with or without viability testing, CABG and GDMT resulted in similar rates of survival (death from any cause, the study's primary outcome) after 5 years of follow-up. For a number of secondary outcomes at this time point, including 1) death from any cause or hospitalization for heart failure, 2) death from any cause or hospitalization for cardiovascular causes, 3) death from any cause or hospitalization for any cause, or 4) death from any cause or revascularization with PCI or CABG, CABG was superior to GDMT. Although the primary outcome (death from any cause) was similar in the 2 treatment groups after an average of 5 years of follow-up, the data suggest the possibility that outcomes would differ if the follow-up were longer in duration; as a result, the study is being continued to provide follow-up for up to 10 years (83,84).

Only very limited data comparing PCI with medical therapy in patients with LV systolic dysfunction are available (68). In several ways, these data are suboptimal, in that many studies compared CABG with balloon angioplasty, many were retrospective, and many were based on cohort or registry data. Some of the studies demonstrated a similar survival rate in patients having CABG and PCI (71,164,201–203), whereas others showed that those undergoing CABG had better outcomes (32). The data that exist at present on revascularization in patients with CAD and LV systolic dysfunction are more robust for CABG than for PCI, although data from contemporary RCTs in this patient population are lacking. Therefore, the choice of revascularization in patients with CAD and LV systolic dysfunction is best based on clinical variables (e.g., coronary

anatomy, presence of diabetes mellitus, presence of CKD), magnitude of LV systolic dysfunction, patient preferences, clinical judgment, and consultation between the interventional cardiologist and the cardiac surgeon.

### 2.9.5. Previous CABG

In patients with recurrent angina after CABG, repeat revascularization is most likely to improve survival in subjects at highest risk, such as those with obstruction of the proximal LAD artery and extensive anterior ischemia (85–93). Patients with ischemia in other locations and those with a patent LIMA to the LAD artery are unlikely to experience a survival benefit from repeat revascularization (92).

Cohort studies comparing PCI and CABG among post-CABG patients report similar rates of mid- and long-term survival after the 2 procedures (85,88–91,93,204). In the patient with previous CABG who is referred for revascularization for medically refractory ischemia, factors that may support the choice of repeat CABG include vessels unsuitable for PCI, number of diseased bypass grafts, availability of the internal mammary artery for grafting chronically occluded coronary arteries, and good distal targets for bypass graft placement. Factors favoring PCI over CABG include limited areas of ischemia causing symptoms, suitable PCI targets, a patent graft to the LAD artery, poor CABG targets, and comorbid conditions.

### 2.9.6. Unstable Angina/Non-ST-Elevation Myocardial Infarction

The main difference between management of the patient with SIHD and the patient with UA/NSTEMI is that the impetus for revascularization is stronger in the setting of UA/NSTEMI, because myocardial ischemia occurring as part of an ACS is potentially life threatening, and associated anginal symptoms are more likely to be reduced with a revascularization procedure than with GDMT (205–207). Thus, the indications for revascularization are strengthened by the acuity of presentation, the extent of ischemia, and the ability to achieve full revascularization. The choice of revascularization method is generally dictated by the same considerations used to decide on PCI or CABG for patients with SIHD.

### 2.9.7. DAPT Compliance and Stent Thrombosis: Recommendation

#### CLASS III: HARM

1. PCI with coronary stenting (BMS or DES) should not be performed if the patient is not likely to be able to tolerate and comply with DAPT for the appropriate duration of treatment based on the type of stent implanted (208–211). (Level of Evidence: B)

The risk of stent thrombosis is increased dramatically in patients who prematurely discontinue DAPT, and stent thrombosis is associated with a mortality rate of 20% to 45% (208). Because the risk of stent thrombosis with BMS is greatest in the first 14 to 30 days, this is the generally

recommended minimum duration of DAPT therapy for these individuals. Consensus in clinical practice is to treat DES patients for at least 12 months with DAPT to avoid late (after 30 days) stent thrombosis (208,212). Therefore, the ability of the patient to tolerate and comply with at least 30 days of DAPT with BMS treatment and at least 12 months of DAPT with DES treatment is an important consideration in deciding whether to use PCI to treat patients with CAD.

### 2.10. TMR as an Adjunct to CABG

TMR has been used on occasion in patients with severe angina refractory to GDMT in whom complete revascularization cannot be achieved with PCI and/or CABG. Although the mechanism by which TMR might be efficacious in these patients is unknown (213,214), several RCTs of TMR as sole therapy demonstrated a reduction in anginal symptoms compared with intensive medical therapy alone (109-111,215-217). A single randomized multicenter comparison of TMR (with a holmium:YAG laser) plus CABG and CABG alone in patients in whom some myocardial segments were perfused by arteries considered not amenable to grafting (112) showed a significant reduction in perioperative mortality rate (1.5% versus 7.6%, respectively), and the survival benefit of the TMR-CABG combination was present after 1 year of follow-up (112). At the same time, a large retrospective analysis of data from the STS National Cardiac Database as well as a study of 169 patients from the Washington Hospital Center who underwent combined TMR-CABG, showed no difference in adjusted mortality rate compared with CABG alone (113,218). In short, a TMR-CABG combination does not appear to improve survival compared with CABG alone. In selected patients, however, such a combination may be superior to CABG alone in relieving angina.

### 2.11. Hybrid Coronary Revascularization: Recommendations

#### CLASS IIa

1. Hybrid coronary revascularization (defined as the planned combination of LIMA-to-LAD artery grafting and PCI of  $\geq 1$  non-LAD coronary arteries) is reasonable in patients with 1 or more of the following (219-225) (Level of Evidence: B):
  - a. Limitations to traditional CABG, such as heavily calcified proximal aorta or poor target vessels for CABG (but amenable to PCI);
  - b. Lack of suitable graft conduits;
  - c. Unfavorable LAD artery for PCI (i.e., excessive vessel tortuosity or CTO).

#### CLASS IIb

1. Hybrid coronary revascularization (defined as the planned combination of LIMA-to-LAD artery grafting and PCI of  $\geq 1$  non-LAD coronary arteries) may be reasonable as an alternative to multivessel PCI or CABG in an attempt to improve the overall risk-benefit ratio of the procedures. (Level of Evidence: C)

*Hybrid coronary revascularization*, defined as the planned combination of LIMA-to-LAD artery grafting and PCI of  $\geq 1$  non-LAD coronary arteries (226), is intended to com-

bine the advantages of CABG (i.e., durability of the LIMA graft) and PCI (227). Patients with multivessel CAD (e.g., LAD and  $\geq 1$  non-LAD stenoses) and an indication for revascularization are potentially eligible for this approach. Hybrid revascularization is ideal in patients in whom technical or anatomic limitations to CABG or PCI alone may be present and for whom minimizing the invasiveness (and therefore the risk of morbidity and mortality) of surgical intervention is preferred (221) (e.g., patients with severe preexisting comorbidities, recent MI, a lack of suitable graft conduits, a heavily calcified ascending aorta, or a non-LAD coronary artery unsuitable for bypass but amenable to PCI, and situations in which PCI of the LAD artery is not feasible because of excessive tortuosity or CTO).

Hybrid coronary revascularization may be performed in a hybrid suite in one operative setting or as a staged procedure (i.e., PCI and CABG performed in 2 different operative suites, separated by hours to 2 days, but typically during the same hospital stay). Because most hospitals lack a hybrid operating room, staged procedures are usually performed. With the staged procedure, CABG before PCI is preferred, because this approach allows the interventional cardiologist to 1) verify the patency of the LIMA-to-LAD artery graft before attempting PCI of other vessels and 2) minimize the risk of perioperative bleeding that would occur if CABG were performed after PCI (i.e., while the patient is receiving DAPT). Because minimally invasive CABG may be associated with lower graft patency rates compared with CABG performed through a midline sternotomy, it seems prudent to angiographically image all grafts performed through a minimally invasive approach to confirm graft patency (221).

To date, no RCTs involving hybrid coronary revascularization have been published. Over the past 10 years, several small, retrospective series of hybrid revascularization using minimally invasive CABG and PCI have reported low mortality rates (0 to 2%) and event-free survival rates of 83% to 92% at 6 to 12 months of follow-up. The few series that have compared the outcomes of hybrid coronary revascularization with standard CABG report similar outcomes at 30 days and 6 months (219-225).

## 3. PCI Outcomes

### 3.1. Definitions of PCI Success

The success of a PCI procedure is best defined by 3 interrelated components: angiographic findings, procedural events, and clinical outcomes.

#### 3.1.1. Angiographic Success

A successful PCI produces sufficient enlargement of the lumen at the target site to improve coronary artery blood flow. A successful balloon angioplasty is defined as the reduction of a minimum stenosis diameter to  $< 50\%$  with a final TIMI flow grade 3 (visually assessed by angiography)



without side branch loss, flow-limiting dissection, or angiographic thrombus (7). For coronary stents, a minimum stenosis diameter of <20% (as visually assessed by angiography) has previously been the clinical benchmark of an optimal angiographic result. Given improvements in technology and techniques, as well as recognition of the importance of an adequately deployed stent to decrease the risks of stent restenosis and thrombosis (12,228,229), the writing committee concluded that a minimum diameter stenosis of <10% (with an optimal goal of as close to 0% as possible) should be the new benchmark for lesions treated with coronary stenting. As with balloon angioplasty, there should be final TIMI flow grade 3, without occlusion of a significant side branch, flow-limiting dissection, distal embolization, or angiographic thrombus. Problems with determining angiographic success include disparities between the visual assessment and computer-aided quantitative stenosis measurement and self-reporting of success in clinical reports or databases.

### 3.1.2. Procedural Success

A successful PCI should achieve angiographic success without associated in-hospital major clinical complications (e.g., death, MI, stroke, emergency CABG) (7,8). Issues regarding the diagnosis and prognostic implications of procedure-related MI are discussed in Sections 3.3 and 5.10.

### 3.1.3. Clinical Success

In the short term, a clinically successful PCI requires both anatomic and procedural success along with relief of signs and/or symptoms of myocardial ischemia. Long-term clinical success requires that the short-term clinical success remain durable and that relief of signs and symptoms of myocardial ischemia persist >9 months after the procedure. Restenosis is the principal cause of lack of long-term clinical success after a short-term clinical success has been achieved. Restenosis is not a complication; it is the expected biological response to vascular injury. The frequency of clinically important restenosis may be judged by the frequency with which subsequent revascularization procedures are performed on target arteries after the index procedure.

## 3.2. Predictors of Clinical Outcome After PCI

Factors associated with increased PCI complication rates include advanced age, diabetes, CKD, ACS, congestive heart failure, and multivessel CAD (8,230–232). Several models have been developed and refined over the past 2 decades to predict mortality with PCI (230,233–236). At present, perhaps the best accepted system is from the ACC National Cardiovascular Data Registry (NCDR) CathPCI Risk Score system, which uses clinical variables and PCI setting to predict inpatient mortality (Appendix 4A) (236). In general, these models perform very well (C statistic: approximately 0.90), although predictive capability decreases in high-risk patients.

Models have also been developed to predict procedural success. Presently, the modified ACC/AHA score (230) and the SCAI score (Appendix 4B) (237) are both in use, with the latter slightly outperforming the former. Discrimination as measured by the C statistic is generally good to very good (0.70 to 0.82), depending on the outcome variable and patient population.

The angiographic SYNTAX score (238) has been developed to predict long-term risk of MACE after multivessel intervention. The SYNTAX score and its potential utility in helping guide revascularization strategies are discussed in Section 2. Composite models including angiographic and clinical variables have been developed but generally require validation in larger cohorts of patients.

## 3.3. PCI Complications

In an analysis of the NCDR CathPCI database of patients undergoing PCI between 2004 and 2007, the overall in-hospital mortality rate was 1.27%, ranging from 0.65% in elective PCI to 4.81% in STEMI (236). Factors associated with an increased risk of PCI-related death include advanced age, comorbidities (e.g., diabetes, CKD, congestive heart failure), multivessel CAD, high-risk lesions, and the setting of PCI (e.g., STEMI, urgent or emergency procedure, cardiogenic shock) (56,230–232,236).

Causes of procedural and periprocedural MI include acute artery closure, embolization and no-reflow, side branch occlusion, and acute stent thrombosis. The incidence of procedure-related MI depends to a great degree on the definition of MI used, the patient population studied, and whether or not cardiac biomarkers are routinely assessed after PCI. The definition and clinical significance of PCI-related MI have been controversial. Criteria for defining a PCI-related MI have evolved over time (8,239,240). The 2007 universal definition of MI (240) states that after PCI, elevations of cardiac biomarkers above the 99th percentile upper reference limit indicate periprocedural myocardial necrosis. Increases of biomarkers >3 times the 99th percentile upper reference limit were designated as defining PCI-related MI (240). According to this definition, ≥15% of patients undergoing PCI would be defined as having periprocedural MI (241,242). Issues in procedure-related MI are discussed in Section 5.10.

The need for emergency CABG has dramatically decreased with advances in PCI technology, particularly coronary stents (243,244). Recently the NCDR reported the rate of emergency CABG at 0.4% (244). Procedure-related indications for CABG in 1 large series included coronary dissection (27%), acute artery closure (16%), perforation (8%), and failure to cross the lesion (8%) (245). The strongest predictors of the need for emergency CABG in several analyses are cardiogenic shock (OR: 11.4), acute MI or emergency PCI (OR: 3.2 to 3.8), multivessel disease (OR: 2.3 to 2.4), and type C lesion (OR: 2.6) (243,245). In-hospital mortality for emergency CABG ranges from 7.8% to 14% (243,245,246).

In a contemporary analysis from the NCDR, the incidence of PCI-related stroke was 0.22% (247). In-hospital mortality in patients with PCI-related stroke is 25% to 30% (247,248). Factors associated with an increased risk of stroke include fibrinolytic therapy administered before PCI (OR: 4.7), known cerebrovascular disease (OR: 2.20), STEMI as the indication for PCI (OR: 3.2), use of an intra-aortic balloon pump (IABP) (OR: 2.6), older age (OR: 1.17 per 5-year increase), and female sex (247–249). Initial imaging after a stroke in 1 small series revealed hemorrhagic etiology in 18%, ischemic etiology in 58%, and no clear etiology in 24% (248). One potential algorithm for the treatment of catheterization-related stroke has been recently proposed (250). This document includes no specific recommendations for the management of PCI-related stroke but refers the reader to the AHA/American Stroke Association guidelines for the management of adults with stroke (251).

Vascular complications from PCI are primarily related to vascular access. Important femoral vascular complications include access site hematoma, retroperitoneal hematoma, pseudoaneurysm, arteriovenous fistula, and arterial dissection and/or occlusion (252). The incidence of these vascular complications in various reports generally ranges from 2% to 6% and has decreased with time (249,253–257). Factors associated with an increased risk of vascular complication include age  $\geq 70$  years, body surface area  $< 1.6 \text{ m}^2$ , emergency procedures, peripheral artery disease, periprocedural use of glycoprotein (GP) IIb/IIIa inhibitors, and female sex (if not corrected for body surface area) (249,253,254,257,258). Ultrasound guidance has been used for femoral artery access to potentially decrease complications (259). As discussed in Section 5.11, vascular closure devices have not been clearly demonstrated to decrease vascular complication rates. Radial site access decreases the rate of access-related bleeding and complications compared with femoral access (255,260). Loss of the radial pulse has been reported in  $\leq 5\%$  of radial procedures (261). Infrequent to rare complications occurring with the radial artery approach include compartment syndrome, pseudoaneurysm ( $< 0.01\%$ ), and sterile abscess (occurring with previous-generation hydrophilic sheaths) (262). Radial artery spasm may occur and treatment at times may be challenging. Local hematomas may occur from small-branch vessel hydrophilic wire perforation or inexperience with wristband use.

The risk of coronary perforation is approximately 0.2%, most commonly by wire perforation during PCI for CTO or by ablative or oversized devices during PCI of heavily diseased or tortuous coronary arteries (263). The risk of tamponade and management of the perforation varies with the type of perforation (264).

Periprocedural bleeding is now recognized to be associated with subsequent mortality (265,266), and the avoidance of bleeding complications has become an important consideration in performing PCI. The risk of bleeding is associated with patient factors (e.g., advanced age, low body

mass index, CKD, baseline anemia), as well as the degree of platelet and thrombin inhibition, vascular access site, and sheath size (267–269). Issues of periprocedural bleeding are discussed in Section 4.7.

The incidence of contrast-induced acute kidney injury (AKI) or “contrast nephropathy” in published reports depends on the definition of contrast nephropathy used and the frequency of risk factors for contrast-induced AKI in the patient population studied. Important risk factors for contrast-induced AKI include advanced age, CKD, congestive heart failure, diabetes, and the volume of contrast administered. Contrast-induced AKI and strategies to prevent it are discussed in Section 4.4.

## 4. Preprocedural Considerations

Table 4 contains recommendations for preprocedural considerations and interventions in patients undergoing PCI.

### 4.1. Cardiac Catheterization Laboratory Requirements

#### 4.1.1. Equipment

Defibrillators are considered by The Joint Commission to be life-support equipment requiring routine assessment and completion of appropriate logs. Many hospitals require periodic inspection of consoles for ancillary devices used in coronary intervention (e.g., Doppler wires, pressure-tipped sensor wires, and IVUS catheters). Point-of-care testing devices (e.g., activated clotting time and arterial blood gas machines) require routine calibration. Duration of storage of digital cine images is often mandated by law. Operating parameters for x-ray imaging equipment are adjusted at installation and periodically assessed by a qualified physicist in cooperation with the equipment manufacturer. Familiarity with radiation dose-reducing features of catheterization laboratory equipment and assistance from a qualified physicist are important for radiation dose minimization and image optimization.

#### 4.1.2. Staffing

An interventional cardiologist must be present in the laboratory for the duration of each procedure and is responsible for procedure outcome. Nursing and technical personnel are also required to be present in the catheterization laboratory, with specific staffing dependent on state requirements and laboratory caseload and mix. Catheterization laboratory technical staff may include nurse practitioners, registered nurses, licensed vocational or practical nurses, physician assistants, nursing assistants, radiology technicians, or catheterization laboratory technicians. All catheterization laboratory staff are usually certified in basic life support, advanced cardiovascular life support, and, where appropriate, pediatric advanced life support. Catheterization laboratory personnel have a nursing degree/certification or invasive cardiovascular credentials such as registered cardio-

**Table 4. Summary of Recommendations for Preprocedural Considerations and Interventions in Patients Undergoing PCI**

Recommendations	COR	LOE	References
<b>Contrast-induced AKI</b>			
Patients should be assessed for risk of contrast-induced AKI before PCI.	I	C	(270,271)
Patients undergoing cardiac catheterization with contrast media should receive adequate preparatory hydration.	I	B	(272–275)
In patients with CKD (creatinine clearance <60 mL/min), the volume of contrast media should be minimized.	I	B	(276–278)
Administration of N-acetyl-L-cysteine is not useful for the prevention of contrast-induced AKI.	III: No Benefit	A	(279–283)
<b>Anaphylactoid reactions</b>			
Patients with prior evidence of an anaphylactoid reaction to contrast media should receive appropriate prophylaxis before repeat contrast administration.	I	B	(252,284–286)
In patients with a prior history of allergic reactions to shellfish or seafood, anaphylactoid prophylaxis for contrast reaction is not beneficial.	III: No Benefit	C	(287–289)
<b>Statins</b>			
Administration of a high-dose statin is reasonable before PCI to reduce the risk of periprocedural MI.	IIa	A: Statin naïve	(290–296)
		B: Chronic statin therapy	(297)
<b>Bleeding risk</b>			
All patients should be evaluated for risk of bleeding before PCI.	I	C	N/A
<b>CKD</b>			
In patients undergoing PCI, the glomerular filtration rate should be estimated and the dosage of renally cleared medications should be adjusted.	I	B	(298–300)
<b>Aspirin</b>			
Patients already on daily aspirin therapy should take 81 mg to 325 mg before PCI.	I	B	(301–304)
Patients not on aspirin therapy should be given nonenteric aspirin 325 mg before PCI.	I	B	(301,303,304)

AKI indicates acute kidney injury; CKD, chronic kidney disease; COR, class of recommendation; LOE, level of evidence; MI, myocardial infarction; N/A, not applicable; and PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention.

vascular invasive specialist or American Society of Radiation technologists (305).

#### 4.1.3. ‘Time-Out’ Procedures

In 2003, The Joint Commission mandated a universal protocol requiring proper preoperative identification of the patient by the members of the catheterization laboratory team, marking of the operative site, and a final time-out just before the procedure (306). Although initially intended to prevent wrong-site surgery, this has been expanded to include all invasive procedures despite limited scientific evidence of its effectiveness (307). The intent of the time-out is for all members of the team to improve patient care by collectively discussing the case. The content of a time-out includes confirmation of the correct patient, correct side and site, agreement on the procedure to be performed, correct patient position, and availability of needed equipment, supplies, and implants. The time-out may be checklist driven or conversational, depending on laboratory preferences (308). The writing committee strongly endorses the practice of conducting a time-out before all PCI procedures.

#### 4.2. Ethical Aspects

The 3 principles of medical ethics are beneficence, autonomy, and justice. Beneficence involves the physician’s duty to act in the best interests of the patient and avoid maleficence, or harm (*primum non nocere*). Autonomy de-

scribes the physician’s duty to help the patient maintain control over his or her medical treatments. Justice describes the physician’s duty to treat the individual patient responsibly with due consideration of other patients and stakeholders in the healthcare system. Ethical considerations specific to PCI have been previously discussed (309) and are highlighted below:

- Place the patient’s best interest first and foremost when making clinical decisions (beneficence).
- Ensure that patients actively participate in decisions affecting their care (autonomy).
- Consider how decisions regarding one patient may also affect other patients and providers (justice).
- Plan and perform procedures and provide care with the intention of improving the patient’s quality of life and/or decreasing the risk of mortality, independent of reimbursement considerations and without inappropriate bias or influence from industry, administrators, referring physicians, or other sources.
- Before performing procedures, obtain informed consent after giving an explanation regarding the details of the procedure and the risks and benefits of both the procedure and alternatives to the procedure.
- Plan and perform procedures according to standards of care and recommended guidelines, and deviate from them when appropriate or necessary in the care of individual patients.

- Seek advice, assistance, or consultation from colleagues when such consultation would benefit the patient.

#### 4.2.1. Informed Consent

Obtaining informed consent for procedures is a legal and ethical necessity. Ideally, informed consent is obtained long enough before the procedure that the patient can fully consider informed consent issues and discuss them with family or other providers, avoiding any sense of coercion. Ad hoc PCI, or PCI immediately following diagnostic procedures, presents special problems. When informed consent for PCI is obtained before diagnostic catheterization is performed, it is impossible to predict the levels of risk and benefit from an ad hoc PCI (310,311). If diagnostic catheterization reveals anatomy that poses a particularly high risk or for which the superiority of PCI compared with other strategies is unclear, the precatheterization informed consent discussion may be inadequate. In such cases, deferral of PCI until additional informed consent discussions and/or consultations occur may be appropriate, even though it inconveniences the patient and the healthcare system. It is the responsibility of the interventionalist to act in the patient's best interest in these circumstances.

Informed consent before emergency procedures is particularly difficult (312–314). The patient presenting with STEMI is usually in distress and often sedated, making true informed consent impossible. Rapid triage, transport, and treatment of STEMI patients create a pressured atmosphere that by necessity limits a prolonged and detailed informed consent process. Nevertheless, the interventionist must attempt to provide information about the risks and benefits of different strategies to the patient and family and balance the benefit of thorough discussion with the benefits of rapid intervention.

#### 4.2.2. Potential Conflicts of Interest

Decisions about the performance and timing of PCI may pose additional ethical dilemmas. When considering whether to perform multivessel PCI in 1 stage versus 2 stages, safety and convenience for the patient must guide the decision, regardless of payment policies that maximize reimbursement when PCI is staged (311). A separate issue is self-referral, through which diagnostic catheterization often leads seamlessly to PCI by the same operator (315). The interventionist has an ethical obligation to the patient to consider all treatment options, consult with additional specialists (e.g., cardiac surgeons) when their input would be helpful to the patient, avoid unnecessary interventional procedures, and allow the patient to consult family members and other physicians (311).

#### 4.3. Radiation Safety: Recommendation

##### CLASS I

1. Cardiac catheterization laboratories should routinely record relevant available patient procedural radiation dose data (e.g., total air kerma at the international reference point [ $K_{a,r}$ ], air kerma air

product [ $P_{KA}$ ], fluoroscopy time, number of cine images), and should define thresholds with corresponding follow-up protocols for patients who receive a high procedural radiation dose. (Level of Evidence: C)

The issue of radiation exposure during imaging procedures has received increased attention, and the writing committee believes that radiation safety should be addressed in this guideline. Current standards for cardiac catheterization laboratories include the following:

- Specific procedures and policies are in place to minimize patient (and operator) risk.
- A radiation safety officer coordinates all radiation safety issues and works conjointly with the medical or health physicist.
- Patient radiation exposure is reduced to as low a level as reasonably can be achieved.
- Patients at increased risk for high procedural radiation exposure are identified.
- Informed consent includes radiation safety information, particularly for the high-risk patient.

A basic primer on the physics of x-ray imaging, essential to the safe practice of radiation dose management, has been published in an ACCF/AHA/Heart Rhythm Society/SCAI clinical competence statement (316). Appendix 4C summarizes strategies to minimize patient and operator radiation exposure. Adverse radiation effects are now well recognized as infrequent but potentially serious complications of prolonged interventional procedures (317). Fluoroscopic time does not include cine acquisition imaging and is therefore not an accurate measure of patient radiation dose. Total air kerma at the interventional reference point ( $K_{a,r}$ , in Gy) and air kerma area product ( $P_{KA}$ , in Gy $\text{cm}^2$ ) are required to be reported on interventional x-ray systems since 2006. These are useful in the assessment of potential tissue adverse effects or long-term radiation sequelae, respectively, and it is reasonable to include them in the catheterization record at the conclusion of each procedure. Appendix 4D summarizes considerations for patient follow-up based on radiation dose during the procedure (317).

#### 4.4. Contrast-Induced AKI: Recommendations

##### CLASS I

1. Patients should be assessed for risk of contrast-induced AKI before PCI (270,271). (Level of Evidence: C)
2. Patients undergoing cardiac catheterization with contrast media should receive adequate preparatory hydration (272–275). (Level of Evidence: B)
3. In patients with CKD (creatinine clearance <60 mL/min), the volume of contrast media should be minimized (276–278). (Level of Evidence: B)

##### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. Administration of N-acetyl-L-cysteine is not useful for the prevention of contrast-induced AKI (279–283). (Level of Evidence: A)

See Online Data Supplements 16 to 18 for additional data regarding contrast-induced AKI.

Contrast-induced AKI or “contrast nephropathy” is one of the leading causes of hospital-acquired AKI. Major risk factors for contrast-induced AKI include advanced age, CKD, congestive heart failure, diabetes, and the volume of contrast administered. A risk-scoring system is available to predict the risk of contrast nephropathy using these risk factors and additional variables (270). Thus far, the only strategies clearly shown to reduce the risk of contrast-induced AKI are hydration and minimizing the amount of contrast media. Other than saline hydration, measures that were believed to reduce the risk of contrast-induced AKI have been found to be neutral, to have deleterious effects, or to be characterized by heterogeneous and conflicting data.

Studies of hydration to reduce the risk of contrast-induced AKI suggest that isotonic saline is preferable to half isotonic saline, intravenous (IV) hydration is preferable to oral hydration, hydration for hours before and after exposure to contrast media is preferable to a bolus administration of saline immediately before or during contrast media exposure, and administration of isotonic saline alone is preferable to administration of isotonic saline plus mannitol or furosemide (272–275,320). On the basis of these studies, a reasonable hydration regimen would be isotonic crystalloid (1.0 to 1.5 mL/kg per hour) for 3 to 12 hours before the procedure and continuing for 6 to 24 hours after the procedure (272–275,284,320,321).

Prior studies of N-acetyl-L-cysteine and sodium bicarbonate have produced conflicting results. Some, often small, earlier studies suggested benefit, but many other more contemporary studies and meta-analyses found no clear evidence of benefit, and there are potential issues of publication bias and poor methodology issues in several analyses (279–282,322–332). The recently completed largest randomized study on N-acetyl-L-cysteine and contrast nephropathy in patients undergoing angiographic procedures, ACT (Acetylcysteine for Contrast-Induced Nephropathy Trial), demonstrated no benefit in primary or secondary endpoints. An updated meta-analysis using only high-quality trials similarly demonstrated no benefit (283). Taken as a whole, these studies do not support any recommendation for the use of N-acetyl-L-cysteine, they do, however, provide sufficient data to conclude that N-acetyl-L-cysteine does not prevent contrast-induced AKI in patients undergoing angiographic procedures.

The correlation between the volume of contrast media and the risk of contrast-induced AKI has been documented in several studies (276,277). Thus, minimization of contrast media volume is important to prevent contrast-induced AKI in patients undergoing angiography. The volume of contrast already administered during diagnostic catheterization is an important factor when considering possible “ad hoc” PCI.

Comparative studies of different contrast media (e.g., low-osmolar versus iso-osmolar, one agent versus another agent) have produced variable and sometimes contradictory results (334–339). Thus, current data are insufficient to justify specific recommendations about low- and iso-

osmolar contrast media. This issue is discussed in detail in the 2011 UA/NSTEMI focused update (340). For a further discussion of contrast media and PCI, the reader is referred to a position statement by the SCAI (284).

#### 4.5. Anaphylactoid Reactions: Recommendations

##### CLASS I

1. Patients with prior evidence of an anaphylactoid reaction to contrast media should receive appropriate steroid and antihistamine prophylaxis before repeat contrast administration (252,284–286). (Level of Evidence: B)

##### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. In patients with a prior history of allergic reactions to shellfish or seafood, anaphylactoid prophylaxis for contrast reaction is not beneficial (287–289). (Level of Evidence: C)

The incidence of anaphylactoid reactions to contrast media is  $\leq 1\%$ , and the incidence of severe reactions may be as low as 0.04% (284). Limited data suggest that in patients with a history of prior anaphylactoid reaction, the recurrence rate without prophylaxis is in the range of 16% to 44% (341). Adequate pretreatment of patients with prior anaphylactoid reactions reduces the recurrence rate to close to zero (284–286). A regimen of 50 mg of prednisone administered 13 hours, 7 hours, and 1 hour before the procedure (as well as 50 mg of diphenhydramine 1 hour before the procedure) has been shown to reduce the risk of recurrent anaphylactoid reaction (286). In practice, a regimen of 60 mg of prednisone the night before and morning of the procedure (as well as 50 mg of diphenhydramine 1 hour before the procedure) is often used (252). There are minimal data on the “pretreatment” of patients undergoing emergency PCI (342). One group has suggested IV steroids (e.g., 80 mg to 125 mg of methylprednisolone, 100 mg of hydrocortisone sodium succinate), as well as oral or IV diphenhydramine and possible IV cimetidine (284). For a more detailed discussion of issues related to contrast-induced anaphylactoid reactions, the reader is referred to several dedicated discussions on contrast agents (284,341).

There are no data to suggest that those patients with seafood or shellfish allergies are at risk for an anaphylactoid reaction from exposure to contrast media. Iodine does not mediate seafood, shellfish, or contrast media reactions. The common misconception that seafood allergies and contrast reactions are cross-reactions to iodine probably arose from a survey published in 1975 in which 15% of patients with a history of contrast reaction reported a personal history of shellfish allergy, but nearly identical proportions of patients reported allergies to other foods, such as milk and egg, in the same survey (287). Pretreatment of patients with steroids based only on a history of seafood or shellfish allergy has a small but non-zero risk of adverse effect (e.g., hyperglycemia in a patient with diabetes) without any demonstrated benefit (288,289).

## 4.6. Statin Treatment: Recommendation

### CLASS IIa

1. Administration of a high-dose statin is reasonable before PCI to reduce the risk of periprocedural MI. (Level of Evidence: A for statin-naïve patients [290–296]; Level of Evidence: B for those on chronic statin therapy [297])

See Online Data Supplement 19 for additional data regarding preprocedural statin treatment.

Statins have long-term benefits in patients with CAD (343,344) and ACS (345,346). The benefits of statins in ACS begin early, before substantial lipid lowering has occurred (345,347), suggesting pleiotropic effects of statins. These might include anti-inflammatory effects, improvement of endothelial function, decrease of oxidative stress, or inhibition of thrombogenic responses (348). Statins were beneficial when pretreatment was started from 7 days to just before PCI (290–297).

## 4.7. Bleeding Risk: Recommendation

### CLASS I

1. All patients should be evaluated for risk of bleeding before PCI. (Level of Evidence: C)

Periprocedural bleeding is now recognized as a major risk factor for subsequent mortality (265,266). Bleeding may lead to mortality directly (because of the bleeding event) or through ischemic complications that occur when antiplatelet or anticoagulant agents are withdrawn in response to the bleeding. Bleeding may also be a marker of comorbidities associated with worse prognosis (e.g., occult cancer). The risk of bleeding is associated with a number of patient factors (e.g., advanced age, low body mass index, CKD, baseline anemia), as well as the degree of platelet and thrombin inhibition, vascular access site, and sheath size (267–269). The overall approach to PCI should be individualized to minimize both ischemic and bleeding risks.

Measures to minimize the risks of bleeding complications are discussed in several sections of this guideline. These include use of anticoagulation regimens associated with a lower risk of bleeding, weight-based dosing of heparin and other agents, use of activated clotting times to guide unfractionated heparin (UFH) dosing, avoidance of excess anticoagulation (349), dosing adjustments in patients with CKD (e.g., eptifibatid, tirofiban, bivalirudin) (350), use of radial artery access site (255), and avoidance of femoral vein cannulation when possible. Vascular closure devices have not been clearly demonstrated to decrease bleeding complications and are discussed in detail in Section 5.11.

## 4.8. PCI in Hospitals Without On-Site Surgical Backup: Recommendations

### CLASS IIa

1. Primary PCI is reasonable in hospitals without on-site cardiac surgery, provided that appropriate planning for program development has been accomplished (351,352). (Level of Evidence: B)

### CLASS IIb

1. Elective PCI might be considered in hospitals without on-site cardiac surgery, provided that appropriate planning for program development has been accomplished and rigorous clinical and angiographic criteria are used for proper patient selection (352–354). (Level of Evidence: B)

### CLASS III: HARM

1. Primary or elective PCI should not be performed in hospitals without on-site cardiac surgery capabilities without a proven plan for rapid transport to a cardiac surgery operating room in a nearby hospital or without appropriate hemodynamic support capability for transfer. (Level of Evidence: C)

See Online Data Supplement 20 for additional data regarding hospitals without on-site surgical backup.

Primary and elective PCI can be performed at hospitals without on-site cardiac surgical backup with a high success rate, low in-hospital mortality rate, and low rate for emergency CABG (351,353,354). The best outcomes for patients with STEMI are achieved at hospitals with 24/7 access to primary PCI (355). Criteria for the performance of PCI without on-site surgical backup have been proposed in an SCAI expert consensus document (352). Consideration of elective PCI without on-site cardiac surgical backup is thought to be appropriate only when performed by experienced operators with complication rates and outcomes equivalent or superior to national benchmarks. Accurate assessment of complication rates and patient outcomes via a regional or national data registry, so that outcomes can be compared with established benchmarks, is an important quality control component of any PCI program. Desires for personal or institutional financial gain, prestige, market share, or other similar motives are not appropriate considerations for initiation of PCI programs without on-site cardiac surgery. It is only appropriate to consider initiation of a PCI program without on-site cardiac surgical backup if this program will clearly fill a void in the healthcare needs of the community. Competition with another PCI program in the same geographic area, particularly an established program with surgical backup, may not be in the best interests of the community.

Tables 5 and 6 list the SCAI expert consensus document requirements for PCI programs without on-site surgical backup. Table 7 gives the requirements for primary PCI and emergency CABG at hospitals without on-site cardiac surgery, and Table 8 lists the requirements for patient and lesion selection and backup strategy for nonemergency PCI (352).

## 5. Procedural Considerations

### 5.1. Vascular Access: Recommendation

#### CLASS IIa

1. The use of radial artery access can be useful to decrease access site complications (255,260,356–362). (Level of Evidence: A)

See Online Data Supplement 21 for additional data regarding radial access.

**Table 5. SCAI Expert Consensus Document Personnel and Facility Requirements for PCI Programs Without On-Site Surgical Backup**

---

Experienced nursing and technical laboratory staff with training in interventional laboratories. Personnel must be comfortable treating acutely ill patients with hemodynamic and electrical instability.

On-call schedule with operation of laboratory 24 h/d, 365 d/y.\*

Experienced coronary care unit nursing staff comfortable with invasive hemodynamic monitoring, operation of temporary pacemaker, and management of IABP. Personnel capable of endotracheal intubation and ventilator management both on-site and during transfer if necessary.

Full support from hospital administration in fulfilling the necessary institutional requirements, including appropriate support services (e.g., respiratory care, blood bank).

Written agreements for emergency transfer of patients to a facility with cardiac surgery. Transport protocols should be developed and tested a minimum of 2 times per year.

Well-equipped and maintained cardiac catheterization laboratory with high-resolution digital imaging capability and IABP equipment compatible with transport vehicles. The capability for real-time transfer of images and hemodynamic data (via T-1 transmission line) as well as audio and video images to review terminals for consultation at the facility providing surgical backup support is ideal.

Appropriate inventory of interventional equipment, including guide catheters, balloons, and stents in multiple sizes; thrombectomy and distal protection devices; covered stents; temporary pacemakers; and pericardiocentesis trays. Pressure wire device and IVUS equipment are optimal but not mandatory. Rotational or other atherectomy devices should be used cautiously in these facilities because of the greater risk of perforation.

Meticulous clinical and angiographic selection criteria for PCI (Tables 6 and 7).

Performance of primary PCI as the treatment of first choice for STEMI to ensure streamlined care paths and increased case volumes. Door-to-balloon times should be tracked, and <90 min outlier cases should be carefully reviewed for process improvement opportunities.

On-site rigorous data collection, outcomes analysis, benchmarking, quality improvement, and formalized periodic case review.

Participation in a national data registry where available, such as the ACC NCDR in the United States.

---

\*Required for U.S. facilities but may not be possible for all facilities worldwide.

ACC indicates American College of Cardiology; IABP, intra-aortic balloon pump; IVUS, intravascular ultrasound; NCDR, National Cardiovascular Data Registry; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; SCAI, Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions; and STEMI, ST-elevation myocardial infarction.

Adapted with permission from Dehmer *et al.* (352).

Femoral artery access remains the most commonly used approach in patients undergoing PCI in the United States. Choosing a femoral artery puncture site is facilitated by fluoroscopic landmark identification or ultrasound guidance. Low punctures have a high incidence of peripheral artery complications, whereas high punctures have an increased risk of retroperitoneal hemorrhage. In patients with a synthetic graft, arterial access is possible after the graft is a few months old and complication rates are not increased (254).

Radial site access is used frequently in Europe and Canada but not in the United States (260). A learning curve exists for the radial approach that will affect procedure time and radiation dose, with a trend toward lower procedural success rates for radial versus femoral access (255). However, compared with femoral access, radial access decreases the rate of access-related

bleeding and complications (255,260,363). In a recent large RCT comparing radial and femoral access in patients with ACS undergoing PCI, there was no difference in the primary composite endpoint (death, MI, stroke, major bleeding), although there was a lower rate of vascular complications with the use of radial access (362). Radial artery access is particularly appealing in patients with coagulopathy, elevated international normalized ratio due to warfarin, or morbid obesity.

## 5.2. PCI in Specific Clinical Situations

### 5.2.1. UA/NSTEMI: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. An early invasive strategy (i.e., diagnostic angiography with intent to perform revascularization) is indicated in UA/NSTEMI patients who have refractory angina or hemodynamic or electrical instability

**Table 6. SCAI Expert Consensus Document Requirements for Off-Site Surgical Backup**

---

1. Interventional cardiologists establish a working relationship with cardiac surgeons at the receiving facility.
2. Cardiac surgeon must have privileges at the referring facility to allow review of treatment options as time allows.
3. Cardiac surgeon and receiving hospital agree to provide cardiac surgical backup for urgent cases at all hours and for elective cases at mutually agreed hours.
4. Surgeon and receiving facility ensure that patients will be accepted based on medical condition, capacity of surgeon to provide services at the time of request, and availability of resources. If this cannot be ensured before the start of an elective procedure, the case should not be done at this time.
5. Interventional cardiologists must review with surgeons the immediate needs and status of any patient transferred for urgent surgery.
6. Hospital administrations from both facilities endorse transfer agreement.
7. Transferring and receiving facilities establish a rigorous protocol for rapid transfer of patients, including the proper personnel with appropriate experience.
8. A transport provider is available to begin transport within 20 min of the request and provide vehicle/helicopter with necessary life-sustaining equipment, including IABP and monitoring capability.
9. Transferring physician obtains consent for surgery from patient or appropriate surrogate.
10. Initial informed consent for PCI discloses that the procedure is being done without on-site surgical backup and acknowledges the possibility of risks related to transfer. The consent process should include the risk of urgent surgery (approximately 0.3%) and state that a written plan for transfer exists.
11. As part of the local continuous quality improvement program, a regular review of all patients transferred for emergency surgery with the outcome of surgery and identification of any improvement opportunities.

---

IABP indicates intra-aortic balloon pump; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; and SCAI, Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions.

Adapted with permission from Dehmer *et al.* (352).

**Table 7. SCAI Expert Consensus Document Requirements for Primary PCI and Emergency Aortocoronary Bypass Surgery at Hospitals Without On-Site Cardiac Surgery**

**Avoid intervention in patients with**

- >50% diameter stenosis of left main artery proximal to infarct-related lesion, especially if the area in jeopardy is relatively small and overall LV function is not severely impaired
- Long, calcified, or severely angulated target lesions at high risk for PCI failure with TIMI flow grade 3 present during initial diagnostic angiography
- Lesions in other than the infarct artery (unless they appeared to be flow limiting in patients with hemodynamic instability or ongoing symptoms)
- Lesions with TIMI flow grade 3 that are not amenable to stenting in patients with left main or 3-vessel disease that will require coronary bypass surgery
- Culprit lesions in more distal branches jeopardizing only a modest amount of myocardium when there is more proximal disease that could be worsened by attempted intervention

**Transfer emergently for coronary bypass surgery patients with**

- High-grade left main or 3-vessel coronary disease with clinical or hemodynamic instability after successful or unsuccessful PCI of an occluded vessel and preferably with IABP support
- Failed or unstable PCI result and ongoing ischemia, with IABP support during transfer

IABP indicates intra-aortic balloon pump; LV, left ventricular; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; SCAI, Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions; and TIMI, Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction.

Adapted with permission from Dehmer et al. (352).

- (without serious comorbidities or contraindications to such procedures) (207,364,365). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. An early invasive strategy (i.e., diagnostic angiography with intent to perform revascularization) is indicated in initially stabilized UA/NSTEMI patients (without serious comorbidities or contraindications to such procedures) who have an elevated risk for clinical events (207,365-367). (Level of Evidence: A)
  3. The selection of PCI or CABG as the means of revascularization in the patient with ACS should generally be based on the same considerations as those without ACS (53,156,207,368). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS III: NO BENEFIT**

1. An early invasive strategy (i.e., diagnostic angiography with intent to perform revascularization) is not recommended in patients with

extensive comorbidities (e.g., liver or pulmonary failure, cancer) in whom (Level of Evidence: C)

- a. The risks of revascularization and comorbid conditions are likely to outweigh the benefits of revascularization,
- b. There is a low likelihood of ACS despite acute chest pain, or
- c. Consent to revascularization will not be granted regardless of the findings.

The goals of coronary angiography and revascularization in UA/NSTEMI patients are to reduce the risk of death and MI and provide symptom relief. To improve prognosis, early risk stratification is essential for selection of medical and/or invasive treatment strategies. Indications for revascularization depend on the patient's clinical risk characteristics and coronary anat-

**Table 8. SCAI Expert Consensus Document Requirements for Patient and Lesion Selection and Backup Strategy for Nonemergency PCI by Experienced Operators at Hospitals Without On-Site Cardiac Surgery**

**Patient risk:** expected clinical risk in case of occlusion caused by procedure

**High patient risk:** Patients with any of the following:

- Decompensated congestive heart failure (Killip Class 3) without evidence for active ischemia, recent CVA, advanced malignancy, known clotting disorders
- LVEF <25%
- Left main stenosis (≥50% diameter) or 3-vessel disease unprotected by prior bypass surgery (>70% stenoses in the proximal segment of all major epicardial coronary arteries)
- Single-target lesion that jeopardizes >50% of remaining viable myocardium

**Lesion risk:** probability that procedure will cause acute vessel occlusion

**Increased lesion risk:** lesions in open vessels with any of the following characteristics:

- Diffuse disease (>2 cm in length) and excessive tortuosity of proximal segments
  - More than moderate calcification of a stenosis or proximal segment
  - Location in an extremely angulated segment (>90%)
  - Inability to protect major side branches
  - Degenerated older vein grafts with friable lesions
  - Substantial thrombus in the vessel or at the lesion site
  - Any other feature that may, in the operator's judgment, impede successful stent deployment
- Aggressive measures to open CTOs are also discouraged because of an increased risk of perforation.

**Strategy for surgical backup based on lesion and patient risk:**

- **High-risk patients with high-risk lesions** should not undergo nonemergency PCI at a facility without on-site surgery.
- **High-risk patients with non-high-risk lesions:** Nonemergency patients with this profile may undergo PCI, but confirmation that a cardiac surgeon and operating room are immediately available is necessary.
- **Non-high-risk patients with high-risk lesions** require no additional precautions.
- **Non-high-risk patients with non-high-risk lesions** require no additional precautions. Best scenario for PCI without on-site surgery.

CTO indicates chronic total occlusion; CVA, cerebrovascular accident; LVEF, left ventricular ejection fraction; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; and SCAI, Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions.

Adapted with permission from Dehmer et al. (352).



**Table 9. Indications for Coronary Angiography in STEMI**

Indications	COR	LOE	References
<b>Immediate coronary angiography</b>			
Candidate for primary PCI	I	A	(351,379–382)
Severe heart failure or cardiogenic shock (if suitable revascularization candidate)	I	B	(383,384)
Moderate to large area of myocardium at risk and evidence of failed fibrinolysis	IIa	B	(385,386)
<b>Coronary angiography 3 to 24 h after fibrinolysis</b>			
Hemodynamically stable patients with evidence for successful fibrinolysis	IIa	A	(387–391)
<b>Coronary angiography before hospital discharge</b>			
Stable patients	IIb	C	N/A
<b>Coronary angiography at any time</b>			
Patients in whom the risks of revascularization are likely to outweigh the benefits or the patient or designee does not want invasive care	III: No Benefit	C	N/A

COR indicates class of recommendation; LOE, level of evidence; N/A, not applicable; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; and STEMI, ST-elevation myocardial infarction.

omy and are in general stronger in the presence of high-risk clinical presentation (e.g., dynamic electrocardiogram [ECG] changes, elevated troponin, high Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events score), recurrent symptoms, threatened viable myocardium, CKD, and larger ischemic burden (Appendix 4E). For choice of revascularization technique, the anatomical considerations are generally those used for stable CAD, although PCI may initially be performed in the index lesion to stabilize the patient (Section 2).

Contemporary studies variably comparing strategies of very early (within hours of admission), early (within 24 hours of admission), and delayed (1 to 7 days after admission) cardiac catheterization and revascularization support a strategy of *early* angiography and revascularization to reduce the risk of recurrent ischemia and MI, particularly among those at high risk (e.g., Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events score >140) (367,369,370), whereas a delayed approach is reasonable in low-intermediate risk patients (based on clinical course). There is no evidence that incremental benefit is derived by angiography and PCI performed within the first few hours of hospital admission (207,367,371–378).

### 5.2.2. ST-Elevation Myocardial Infarction

#### 5.2.2.1. CORONARY ANGIOGRAPHY STRATEGIES IN STEMI: RECOMMENDATIONS

##### CLASS I

1. A strategy of immediate coronary angiography with intent to perform PCI (or emergency CABG) in patients with STEMI is recommended for
  - a. Patients who are candidates for primary PCI (351,379–382). (Level of Evidence: A)
  - b. Patients with severe heart failure or cardiogenic shock who are suitable candidates for revascularization (383,384). (Level of Evidence: B)

##### CLASS IIa

1. A strategy of immediate coronary angiography (or transfer for immediate coronary angiography) with intent to perform PCI is reasonable for patients with STEMI, a moderate to large area of myocardium at risk, and evidence of failed fibrinolysis (385,386). (Level of Evidence: B)

2. A strategy of coronary angiography (or transfer for coronary angiography) 3 to 24 hours after initiating fibrinolytic therapy with intent to perform PCI is reasonable for hemodynamically stable patients with STEMI and evidence for successful fibrinolysis when angiography and revascularization can be performed as soon as logistically feasible in this time frame (387–391). (Level of Evidence: A)

##### CLASS IIb

1. A strategy of coronary angiography performed before hospital discharge might be reasonable in stable patients with STEMI who did not undergo cardiac catheterization within 24 hours of STEMI onset. (Level of Evidence: C)

##### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. A strategy of coronary angiography with intent to perform PCI is not recommended in patients with STEMI in whom the risks of revascularization are likely to outweigh the benefits or when the patient or designee does not want invasive care. (Level of Evidence: C)

The historical reperfusion strategies of “primary PCI,” “immediate PCI,” “rescue PCI,” “deferred PCI,” “facilitated PCI,” and the “pharmacoinvasive strategy” have evolved in parallel with advances in antithrombotic therapy and STEMI prehospital and hospital systems of care. The clinical challenge in primary PCI is achieving rapid time to treatment and increasing patient access to this preferred reperfusion strategy. The clinical challenge in patients treated with fibrinolytic therapy is deciding for whom and when to perform coronary angiography.

In unstable patients (e.g., severe heart failure or cardiogenic shock, hemodynamically compromising ventricular arrhythmias) not treated initially with primary PCI, a strategy of immediate coronary angiography with intent to perform PCI is implemented unless invasive management is considered futile or unsuitable given the clinical circumstances (383,384).

In stable patients treated with fibrinolytic therapy and clinical suspicion of reperfusion failure, a strategy of immediate coronary angiography followed by PCI improves outcome in those at high risk (385,386). Such a strategy is also implemented in patients with evidence for infarct artery reocclusion (Table 9). The clinical diagnosis of failed

fibrinolysis is difficult but is best made when there is <50% ST-segment resolution 90 minutes after initiation of therapy in the lead showing the greatest degree of ST-segment elevation at presentation. Given the association between bleeding events and adverse cardiac events, a reasonable approach is to select moderate- and high-risk patients for PCI and treat low-risk patients with medical therapy. ECG and clinical findings of anterior MI or inferior MI with right ventricular involvement or precordial ST-segment depression, as well as ongoing pain, usually predicts increased risk and the greatest potential benefit (392). Conversely, patients with symptom resolution, improving ST-segment elevation, or inferior MI localized to 3 ECG leads probably gain little benefit.

In stable patients treated with fibrinolytic therapy and clinical evidence for successful reperfusion, an early invasive strategy with cardiac catheterization performed within 24 hours decreases reinfarction and recurrent ischemic events (388,390,391). Because of the associated increased bleeding risk, very early (<2 to 3 hours) catheterization after administration of fibrinolytic therapy with intent to perform revascularization should be reserved for patients with evidence of failed fibrinolysis and significant myocardial jeopardy for whom immediate angiography and revascularization would be appropriate (393).

#### 5.2.2.2. PRIMARY PCI OF THE INFARCT ARTERY: RECOMMENDATIONS

##### CLASS I

1. Primary PCI should be performed in patients within 12 hours of onset of STEMI (379–382). (Level of Evidence: A)
2. Primary PCI should be performed in patients with STEMI presenting to a hospital with PCI capability within 90 minutes of first medical contact as a systems goal (394,395). (Level of Evidence: B)
3. Primary PCI should be performed in patients with STEMI presenting to a hospital without PCI capability within 120 minutes of first medical contact as a systems goal (396–398). (Level of Evidence: B)
4. Primary PCI should be performed in patients with STEMI who develop severe heart failure or cardiogenic shock and are suitable candidates for revascularization as soon as possible, irrespective of time delay (383,384). (Level of Evidence: B)
5. Primary PCI should be performed as soon as possible in patients with STEMI and contraindications to fibrinolytic therapy with ischemic symptoms for less than 12 hours (399,400). (Level of Evidence: B)

##### CLASS IIa

1. Primary PCI is reasonable in patients with STEMI if there is clinical and/or electrocardiographic evidence of ongoing ischemia between 12 and 24 hours after symptom onset (401–403). (Level of Evidence: B)

##### CLASS IIb

1. Primary PCI might be considered in asymptomatic patients with STEMI and higher risk presenting between 12 and 24 hours after symptom onset. (Level of Evidence: C)

##### CLASS III: HARM

1. PCI should not be performed in a noninfarct artery at the time of primary PCI in patients with STEMI without hemodynamic compromise (404–408). (Level of Evidence: B)

Primary PCI is preferred to fibrinolytic therapy when time-to-treatment delays are short and the patient presents to a high-volume, well-equipped center staffed with expert interventional cardiologists and skilled support staff. Compared with fibrinolytic therapy in RCTs, primary PCI produces higher rates for infarct artery patency, TIMI flow grade 3, and lower rates for recurrent ischemia, reinfarction, emergency repeat revascularization procedures, intracranial hemorrhage, and death (379). Early, successful PCI also greatly decreases the complications of STEMI that result from longer ischemic times or unsuccessful fibrinolytic therapy, allowing earlier hospital discharge and resumption of daily activities. The greatest mortality benefit of primary PCI is in high-risk patients. PCI outcomes may not be as successful with prolonged time-to-treatment or low-volume hospitals and operators (Table 10).

Several reports have shown excellent outcomes for patients with STEMI undergoing interhospital transfer where first medical contact-to-door balloon time modestly exceeded the systematic goal of <90 minutes (396–398,409). In these reports, the referring hospital and the receiving hospital established a transfer protocol that minimized transfer delays, and outcomes were similar to those of direct-admission patients. On the basis of these results, the PCI and STEMI guideline writing committees have modified the first medical contact-to-device time goal from 90 minutes to 120 minutes for interhospital transfer patients (397), while emphasizing that systems should continue to strive for times  $\leq$ 90 minutes. Hospitals that cannot meet these criteria should use fibrinolytic therapy as their primary reperfusion strategy.

PCI of a noninfarct artery at the time of primary PCI in stable patients is associated with worse clinical outcomes unless the patient is in cardiogenic shock where PCI of a severe stenosis in a coronary artery supplying a large territory of myocardium might improve hemodynamic stability (404,406,408). Delayed PCI can be performed in noninfarct arteries at a later time if clinically indicated (410–412).

#### 5.2.2.3. DELAYED OR ELECTIVE PCI IN PATIENTS WITH STEMI: RECOMMENDATIONS

##### CLASS IIa

1. PCI is reasonable in patients with STEMI and clinical evidence for fibrinolytic failure or infarct artery reocclusion (385,386). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. PCI is reasonable in patients with STEMI and a patent infarct artery 3 to 24 hours after fibrinolytic therapy (390,391). (Level of Evidence: B)
3. PCI is reasonable in patients with STEMI who demonstrate ischemia on noninvasive testing (410,411). (Level of Evidence: B)

**Table 10. Indications for PCI in STEMI**

Indications	COR	LOE	References
<b>Primary PCI*</b>			
STEMI symptoms within 12 h	I	A	(379–382)
Severe heart failure or cardiogenic shock	I	B	(383,384)
Contraindications to fibrinolytic therapy with ischemic symptoms <12 h	I	B	(399,400)
Clinical and/or electrocardiographic evidence of ongoing ischemia between 12 and 24 h after symptom onset	IIa	B	(401–403)
Asymptomatic patients presenting between 12 and 24 h after symptom onset and higher risk	IIb	C	N/A
Noninfarct artery PCI at the time of primary PCI in patients without hemodynamic compromise	III: Harm	B	(404–408)
<b>Delayed or elective PCI in patients with STEMI</b>			
Clinical evidence for fibrinolytic failure or infarct artery reocclusion	IIa	B	(385,386)
Patent infarct artery 3 to 24 h after fibrinolytic therapy	IIa	B	(390,391)
Ischemia on noninvasive testing	IIa	B	(410,411)
Hemodynamically significant stenosis in a patent infarct artery >24 h after STEMI	IIb	B	(413–417)
Totally occluded infarct artery >24 h after STEMI in a hemodynamically stable asymptomatic patient without evidence of severe ischemia	III: No Benefit	B	(418–420)

\*Systems goal of performing primary PCI within 90 min of first medical contact when the patient presents to a hospital with PCI capability (394,395) (Class I; LOE: B) and within 120 min when the patient presents to a hospital without PCI capability (396–398) (Class I; LOE: B).

COR indicates class of recommendation; LOE, level of evidence; N/A, not applicable; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; and STEMI, ST-elevation myocardial infarction.

**CLASS IIb**

1. PCI of a hemodynamically significant stenosis in a patent infarct artery greater than 24 hours after STEMI may be considered as part of an invasive strategy (413–417). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS III: NO BENEFIT**

1. PCI of a totally occluded infarct artery greater than 24 hours after STEMI should not be performed in asymptomatic patients with 1- or 2-vessel disease if patients are hemodynamically and electrically stable and do not have evidence of severe ischemia (418–420). (Level of Evidence: B)

Studies and meta-analyses suggest potential benefit for PCI in fibrinolytic failure (385,386). In stable patients treated with fibrinolytic therapy and clinical evidence for successful reperfusion, an early invasive strategy with cardiac catheterization performed within 24 hours decreases reinfarction and recurrent ischemic events (388,390,391).

PCI for a hemodynamically significant stenosis in a patent infarct artery >24 hours after STEMI as part of a revascularization strategy improves outcome (410,411,413–417). PCI of an occluded infarct artery 1 to 28 days after MI in asymptomatic patients without evidence of myocardial ischemia has no incremental benefit beyond optimal medical therapy with aspirin, beta blockers, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, and statins in preserving LV function and preventing subsequent cardiovascular events (418–420). It is important to note that elective PCI of an occluded infarct artery has not been studied in patients with New York Heart Association functional class III or IV heart failure, rest angina, serum creatinine >2.5 mg/dL, left main or 3-vessel CAD, clinical instability, or severe inducible ischemia on stress testing in an infarct zone that is not akinetic or dyskinetic.

**5.2.3. Cardiogenic Shock: Recommendations**

**CLASS I**

1. PCI is recommended for patients with acute MI who develop cardiogenic shock and are suitable candidates (384,421–423). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. A hemodynamic support device is recommended for patients with cardiogenic shock after STEMI who do not quickly stabilize with pharmacological therapy (384,424–427). (Level of Evidence: B)

See Online Data Supplement 22 for additional data regarding cardiogenic shock.

Cardiogenic shock is the leading cause of in-hospital mortality complicating STEMI. Revascularization is the only treatment proven to decrease mortality rates (384,421–423). Although revascularization is almost always accomplished through PCI, selected patients with severe 3-vessel or left main disease can benefit from emergency CABG. Revascularization attempts may be futile and not indicated in cases of severe multiorgan failure (427). Patient selection for revascularization is more important in the elderly, but several observational reports demonstrate acceptable outcomes in patients with few comorbidities and a reasonable potential for survival (428–431). Patients who present to hospitals without PCI capability are usually emergently transported to a PCI center, because mortality without transfer is markedly elevated (432).

**5.2.3.1. PROCEDURAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR CARIOGENIC SHOCK**

Patients with cardiogenic shock should receive standard pharmacological therapies, including aspirin, a P2Y<sub>12</sub> receptor antagonist, and anticoagulation (427,433). Inotropic and vasopressor therapy improves perfusion pressure. Historically, negative inotropes and vasodilators are avoided. IV

GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors have been shown to provide benefit in observational studies but not in 1 small RCT (433).

Endotracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation with positive end-expiratory pressure is usually necessary in patients with respiratory failure. Placement of a temporary pacemaker is indicated for patients with bradycardia or high-degree atrioventricular heart block. A pulmonary artery catheter can provide information to dose and titrate inotropes and pressors. Further hemodynamic support is available with IABP counterpulsation or percutaneous LV assist devices, although no data support a reduction in mortality rates (434).

Contrast medium injections should be minimized. Orthogonal angiograms of the left coronary artery and a left anterior oblique angiogram of the right coronary artery are usually sufficient to identify the infarct artery (435). Although most patients undergoing revascularization will receive a stent as part of the procedure, there are conflicting data on the impact of stenting over balloon angioplasty. Some studies reveal lower mortality rates (436–438), whereas others reveal no benefit (439) or higher mortality rates (440). There are no data comparing the choice of BMS versus DES in cardiogenic shock; however, BMS are often used because compliance with long-term DAPT is often unclear in the emergency setting.

In patients with multivessel disease, revascularization of the noninfarct artery may be necessary to maximize myocardial perfusion. Alternatively, in patients with multivessel disease and particularly left main disease, emergency CABG as a primary reperfusion strategy may be preferred (50,441). Refractory cardiogenic shock unresponsive to revascularization may necessitate institution of more intensive cardiac support with a ventricular assist device or other hemodynamic support devices to allow for myocardial recovery or subsequent cardiac transplantation in suitable patients.

#### 5.2.4. Revascularization Before Noncardiac Surgery: Recommendations

##### CLASS IIa

1. For patients who require PCI and are scheduled for elective noncardiac surgery in the subsequent 12 months, a strategy of balloon angioplasty, or BMS implantation followed by 4 to 6 weeks of DAPT, is reasonable (442–448). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. For patients with DES who must undergo urgent surgical procedures that mandate the discontinuation of DAPT, it is reasonable to continue aspirin if possible and restart the P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor as soon as possible in the immediate postoperative period (444). (Level of Evidence: C)

##### CLASS III: HARM

1. Routine prophylactic coronary revascularization should not be performed in patients with stable CAD before noncardiac surgery (449,450). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. Elective noncardiac surgery should not be performed in the 4 to 6 weeks after balloon angioplasty or BMS implantation or the 12 months after DES implantation in patients in whom the P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor will need to be discontinued perioperatively (208,447, 451,452). (Level of Evidence: B)

The 2007 and 2009 ACC/AHA Guidelines on Perioperative Cardiovascular Evaluation and Care for Noncardiac Surgery gave detailed recommendations for the evaluation of patients undergoing noncardiac surgery (444). Patients with evidence of ACS should receive standard therapy, including early revascularization, to minimize the risk of adverse events. Patients with known significant left main or 3-vessel CAD who would otherwise benefit from revascularization in terms of survival or symptomatic relief also generally undergo revascularization before elective noncardiac surgery.

Two RCTs (449,450) found no benefit with routine preoperative revascularization before noncardiac surgery. Noncardiac surgery early after coronary stenting, particularly in the first 4 weeks, is associated with a high risk of stent thrombosis and death (444,446,448). When emergency surgery is necessary, the patient should proceed to surgery without prior PCI. When surgery is required within 30 days and coronary revascularization is required before surgery, many clinicians perform balloon angioplasty alone to avoid the need for DAPT. In situations where preoperative revascularization is required and surgery can be deferred for at least 30 days, many clinicians use BMS and discontinue DAPT after 30 days. If surgery is elective and can be deferred for 1 year, most clinicians would consider DES to reduce the long-term risk of restenosis. A dilemma occurs when a patient has undergone PCI and then unexpectedly requires noncardiac surgery. Many patients can undergo surgery on DAPT, where the risk-benefit ratio will favor continued dual antiplatelet inhibition. If it is necessary to hold P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy, most clinicians will still continue aspirin uninterrupted during the perioperative period if the bleeding risk is not prohibitive. When the risk of delaying surgery or performing surgery while the patient is on DAPT exceeds the risk of stent thrombosis from stopping DAPT, the P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor is stopped before surgery and resumed as soon as possible afterward. No P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor “bridging” strategy (e.g., GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor, antithrombin therapy) has been validated.

#### 5.3. Coronary Stents: Recommendations

##### CLASS I

1. Before implantation of DES, the interventional cardiologist should discuss with the patient the need for and duration of DAPT and the ability of the patient to comply with and tolerate DAPT (212). (Level of Evidence: C)
2. DES are useful as an alternative to BMS to reduce the risk of restenosis in cases in which the risk of restenosis is increased and the patient is likely to be able to tolerate and comply with prolonged DAPT (Level of Evidence: A for elective PCI [453,453a,454–456]; Level of Evidence: C for UA/NSTEMI (453); Level of Evidence: A for STEMI [453,456–459]).
3. Balloon angioplasty or BMS should be used in patients with high bleeding risk, inability to comply with 12 months of DAPT, or anticipated invasive or surgical procedures within the next 12 months, during which time DAPT may be interrupted (208,460–462). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS III: HARM**

1. PCI with coronary stenting should not be performed if the patient is not likely to be able to tolerate and comply with DAPT (208–211). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. DES should not be implanted if the patient is not likely to be able to tolerate and comply with prolonged DAPT or this cannot be determined before stent implantation (208,460–462). (Level of Evidence: B)

Coronary stent implantation is commonly performed during PCI to prevent recoil, abrupt closure, and late restenosis (463,464). BMS are composed of either stainless steel or cobalt chromium alloys. Because the risk of stent thrombosis is greatest within the first 30 days after implantation, the use of DAPT is required for 30 days after implantation of BMS (208).

In the United States, 4 types of DES are currently approved: sirolimus-eluting stents, paclitaxel-eluting stents, zotarolimus-eluting stents, and everolimus-eluting stents. DES vary according to stent scaffold material and design, drug content, and the polymer used for drug elution; however, several common clinical features are present. First, sirolimus-eluting stents, paclitaxel-eluting stents, and zotarolimus-eluting stents have been demonstrated in RCTs to be associated with a reduced need for repeat revascularization and no increase in death or MI compared with BMS at 4 years' follow-up (465). Everolimus-eluting stents have been demonstrated in RCTs to be associated with a lower need for repeat revascularization than paclitaxel-eluting stents, and, by inference, a lower risk for repeat revascularization than BMS (466,467), with no increase in death or MI at 2-year follow-up (468). Second, each of these stents is presumed to be associated with delayed healing based on pathologic studies and longer periods of risk for thrombosis compared with BMS and require longer duration of DAPT (469). In the RCTs that led to the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approval of these stents, the recommended minimum duration of DAPT therapy was 3 to 6 months. Recently, the consensus of clinical practice has been 12 months of DAPT following DES implantation to avoid late (after 30 days) thrombosis (208), based on observational studies of paclitaxel-eluting stents and sirolimus-eluting stents that indicate lower risk of late stent thrombosis with >6 months of therapy (212). Extending DAPT beyond 1 year is considered reasonable by some practitioners based on observational data analysis (212), but RCTs to determine whether longer DAPT is associated with reduction in stent thrombosis risk have not been completed. Finally, DES therapy is more expensive than BMS. Cost-effectiveness analysis has shown a reduction in total cost associated with DES because of avoidance of repeat procedures, yet it may be reasonable to consider use of BMS in patient subsets in which the risk of restenosis is low (470).

This risk-benefit profile is most favorable for DES over BMS when the risk of restenosis with BMS is high (Table 11). Pooled and meta-analyses have demonstrated that in pa-

**Table 11. Clinical Situations Associated With DES or BMS Selection Preference**

DES Generally Preferred Over BMS (Efficacy Considerations)	BMS Preferred Over DES (Safety Considerations)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Left main disease</li> <li>• Small vessels</li> <li>• In-stent restenosis</li> <li>• Bifurcations</li> <li>• Diabetes</li> <li>• Long lesions</li> <li>• Multiple lesions</li> <li>• Saphenous vein grafts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unable to tolerate or comply with DAPT</li> <li>• Anticipated surgery requiring discontinuation of DAPT within 12 mo</li> <li>• High risk of bleeding</li> </ul>

BMS indicates bare-metal stent(s); DAPT, dual antiplatelet therapy; and DES, drug-eluting stent(s).

tients with diabetes, use of DES decreases the risk of restenosis compared with BMS (471,472). DES may be more appealing for unprotected left main PCI, given the rate and clinical consequences of restenosis in this location (473–475). The risk of stent thrombosis is higher in populations or lesion types excluded from RCTs of DES (e.g., STEMI, smaller arteries [ $<2.5$  mm diameter], longer lesions, bifurcations) (210,465). Importantly, these features also predict both stent thrombosis (476) and restenosis in BMS (477). The greatest risk of stent thrombosis is within the first year, ranging from 0.7% to 2.0%, depending on patient and lesion complexity. Late stent thrombosis risk after 1 year with DES is observed at a rate of 0.2% to 0.4% per year (210,478).

Compared with balloon angioplasty, routine BMS implantation during primary PCI decreases risk for target-vessel revascularization and possibly reduces MI rates but does not reduce mortality rates (479). More recent primary PCI studies and meta-analyses have demonstrated lower restenosis rates without increased risk of adverse stent outcome with DES compared with BMS. Although stent thrombosis rates in trials of STEMI are higher than in trials of elective PCI, the rates of stent thrombosis are not higher with DES compared with BMS in STEMI (453,456–459).

The greatest risk for DES thrombosis is early discontinuation of DAPT (208,460–462). It is therefore important to determine that the patient will likely be able to tolerate and comply with DAPT before implantation of DES. Therefore, DES should not be used in the presence of financial barriers to continuing prolonged DAPT, social barriers that may limit patient compliance, or medical issues involving bleeding risks or the need for invasive or surgical procedures in the following year that would interrupt antiplatelet therapy. The need for use of long-term warfarin and the associated increased risk of bleeding with long-term “triple therapy” is also a consideration in deciding on DES versus BMS (480).

Patients implanted with most contemporary coronary stents can undergo magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) examination any time after implantation (481,482). The effect of the MRI examination on heating of the drug or polymer coating used in DES is unknown. There is no

indication for antibiotic prophylaxis before dental or invasive procedures in patients with coronary stents (483).

## 5.4. Adjunctive Diagnostic Devices

### 5.4.1. FFR: Recommendation

#### CLASS IIa

1. FFR is reasonable to assess angiographic intermediate coronary lesions (50% to 70% diameter stenosis) and can be useful for guiding revascularization decisions in patients with SIHD (12,97, 484–486). (Level of Evidence: A)

See *Online Data Supplement 23* for additional data regarding FFR.

The limitations of coronary angiography for determination of lesion severity have been well described. Angiography may under- or overestimate lesion stenosis. Various physiologic measurements can be made in the catheterization laboratory, including coronary flow reserve and FFR. The correlation of ischemia on stress testing with FFR values of <0.75 has been established in numerous comparative studies with high sensitivity (88%), specificity (100%), positive predictive value (100%), and overall accuracy (93%) (487). The 5-year outcomes for patients with medical therapy based on an FFR >0.75 were superior compared with PCI in the DEFER (Deferral Versus Performance of Balloon Angioplasty in Patients Without Documented Ischemia) study (485). The FAME (Fractional Flow Reserve Versus Angiography for Multivessel Evaluation) study identified the benefit for deferring PCI in patients with multivessel disease and lesion FFR >0.80, with reduced rates of cardiac events at both 1 and 2 years (97,486). Whereas both FFR and IVUS have been used for assessment of intermediate angiographic stenosis with favorable outcomes, FFR may reduce the need for revascularization when compared with IVUS (488). Although IVUS is often considered in the assessment of equivocal left main stenosis, FFR may be similarly effective (484).

### 5.4.2. IVUS: Recommendations

#### CLASS IIa

1. IVUS is reasonable for the assessment of angiographically indeterminate left main CAD (489–491). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. IVUS and coronary angiography are reasonable 4 to 6 weeks and 1 year after cardiac transplantation to exclude donor CAD, detect rapidly progressive cardiac allograft vasculopathy, and provide prognostic information (492–494). (Level of Evidence: B)
3. IVUS is reasonable to determine the mechanism of stent restenosis (495). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIb

1. IVUS may be reasonable for the assessment of non-left main coronary arteries with angiographically intermediate coronary stenoses (50% to 70% diameter stenosis) (489,496,497). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. IVUS may be considered for guidance of coronary stent implantation, particularly in cases of left main coronary artery stenting (490,495,498). (Level of Evidence: B)

3. IVUS may be reasonable to determine the mechanism of stent thrombosis (495). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. IVUS for routine lesion assessment is not recommended when revascularization with PCI or CABG is not being contemplated. (Level of Evidence: C)

IVUS provides a unique coronary artery assessment of lesion characteristics, minimal and maximal lumen diameters, cross-sectional area, and plaque area. Diagnostic uses for IVUS include the assessment of angiographic indeterminate coronary artery stenoses, determination of the mechanism of stent restenosis or thrombosis, and postcardiac transplantation surveillance of CAD (488,490–492,499). For left main coronary artery stenoses, a minimal lumen diameter of <2.8 mm or a minimal lumen area of <6 mm<sup>2</sup> suggests a physiologically significant lesion for which patients may benefit from revascularization. A minimal lumen area >7.5 mm<sup>2</sup> suggests that revascularization may be safely deferred (490). A minimal lumen area between 6 and 7.5 mm<sup>2</sup> requires further physiological assessment, such as measurement of FFR (487,500). For non-left main stenoses, minimal lumen diameter >2.0 mm and minimal lumen area >4.0 mm<sup>2</sup> correlate with low event rates (489). However, in smaller-diameter arteries (minimal lumen area <3.0 mm<sup>2</sup>), measurement of FFR may more accurately reflect a significant stenosis (488). Studies correlating IVUS measures with ischemia have not specified the size of coronary arteries for which such correlations are valid (488,489,497).

IVUS assessment after stent thrombosis may serve to identify stent underexpansion or malapposition (499). IVUS is superior to angiography in the early detection of the diffuse, immune-mediated, cardiac allograft vasculopathy; recommendations about the use of IVUS for this purpose were published in 2010 by the International Society of Heart and Lung Transplantation (492). Whereas IVUS has been an important research tool in interventional cardiology, most clinical studies of IVUS have not been able to demonstrate that its routine use results in a reduction of MACE or restenosis rates (498,501,502). IVUS has been inappropriately used in clinical practice to justify implanting stents in mildly diseased segments that may require no intervention (503).

### 5.4.3. Optical Coherence Tomography

Compared with IVUS, optical coherence tomography has greater resolution (10 to 20 micrometer axially) but more limited depth of imaging (1 to 1.5 mm) (504,505). Unlike IVUS, optical coherence tomography requires that the artery be perfused with saline solution or crystalloid during image acquisition and therefore does not permit imaging of ostial lesions. Clinical studies have shown low optical coherence tomography complication rates (506,507), similar to those of IVUS (508). The excellent resolution of optical coherence tomography permits detailed in vivo 2-dimensional imaging of plaque morphological characteristics (e.g., calcification, lipid,

thrombus, fibrous cap thickness, and plaque ulceration or rupture) (508–510) and evaluation of the arterial response to stent implantation (e.g., stent strut neointimal thickness and apposition) (511–513) and may be of value in clinical research. The appropriate role for optical coherence tomography in routine clinical decision making has not been established.

## 5.5. Adjunctive Therapeutic Devices

### 5.5.1. Coronary Atherectomy: Recommendations

#### CLASS IIa

1. Rotational atherectomy is reasonable for fibrotic or heavily calcified lesions that might not be crossed by a balloon catheter or adequately dilated before stent implantation (514,515). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. Rotational atherectomy should not be performed routinely for de novo lesions or in-stent restenosis (516–519). (Level of Evidence: A)

Rotational atherectomy in RCTs was associated with higher rates of MACE at 30 days and no reduction in restenosis. It has a limited role in facilitating the dilation or stenting of lesions that cannot be crossed or expanded with PCI (520,521). Devices for directional coronary atherectomy are no longer marketed in the United States.

### 5.5.2. Thrombectomy: Recommendation

#### CLASS IIa

1. Aspiration thrombectomy is reasonable for patients undergoing primary PCI (522–524). (Level of Evidence: B)

The benefit of thrombectomy in patients with STEMI appears to be dependent on the type of thrombectomy technique used (522–526). No clinical benefit for routine rheolytic thrombectomy (AngioJet device, MEDRAD Interventional, Minneapolis, MN and Pittsburgh, PA) has been demonstrated in primary PCI (524–526). Two RCTs (522,523) and a meta-analysis (524) support the use of manual aspiration thrombectomy during primary PCI to improve microvascular reperfusion and decrease MACE. It is not known whether a strategy of selective thrombus aspiration in patients with a large thrombus burden might be equivalent to routine thrombus aspiration.

### 5.5.3. Laser Angioplasty: Recommendations

#### CLASS IIb

1. Laser angioplasty might be considered for fibrotic or moderately calcified lesions that cannot be crossed or dilated with conventional balloon angioplasty (527). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. Laser angioplasty should not be used routinely during PCI (516,518,528). (Level of Evidence: A)

RCTs of laser angioplasty have not demonstrated improved clinical or angiographic PCI outcomes, although some practitioners think that laser angioplasty may be of use in the treatment of lesions that are difficult to dilate with balloon angioplasty (527).

### 5.5.4. Cutting Balloon Angioplasty: Recommendations

#### CLASS IIb

1. Cutting balloon angioplasty might be considered to avoid slippage-induced coronary artery trauma during PCI for in-stent restenosis or ostial lesions in side branches (529). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. Cutting balloon angioplasty should not be performed routinely during PCI (516,529,530). (Level of Evidence: A)

Although some small, single-center trials have suggested that cutting balloon angioplasty was more efficacious than balloon angioplasty, it was not found to be safer or more effective in several large trials (516,529,531). When balloon dilation is required for in-stent restenosis, however, cutting balloons are less likely to slip and may offer a technical advantage over conventional balloons (529). Scoring balloons have been used by some cardiologists as an alternative to cutting balloons, but no RCTs have been reported (531).

### 5.5.5. Embolic Protection Devices: Recommendation

#### CLASS I

1. Embolic protection devices (EPDs) should be used during saphenous vein graft (SVG) PCI when technically feasible (532–535). (Level of Evidence: B)

The incidence of MACE doubles in SVG PCI compared with native-artery PCI (536). A distal balloon occlusion EPD decreased the 30-day composite outcome of death, MI, emergency CABG, or target-lesion revascularization (9.6% versus 16.5%) in the only RCT (532). Subsequent noninferiority comparisons have demonstrated similar benefit with proximal occlusion and distal filter EPDs, with benefit limited to reduction in periprocedural MI (534,535) (Section 5.10). Distal EPDs do not improve survival or reinfarction rates in patients undergoing native-artery PCI (524,537).

### 5.6. Percutaneous Hemodynamic Support Devices: Recommendation

#### CLASS IIb

1. Elective insertion of an appropriate hemodynamic support device as an adjunct to PCI may be reasonable in carefully selected high-risk patients. (Level of Evidence: C)

IABP counterpulsation is frequently used as an adjunct to PCI in hemodynamically unstable patients (538,539). In single-center series, the routine prophylactic use of IABP during PCI in high-risk patients was associated with lower mortality and fewer major complications compared with rescue use of IABP (540,541). In the only RCT in high-risk PCI patients (BCIS-1 [Balloon Pump-Assisted Coronary Intervention Study]) (542), there was no difference in the primary composite outcome between routine and provisional use of IABP. There were also no differences in major secondary endpoints except major procedural complications (e.g., prolonged hypotension, ventricular tachycardia/fibrillation, cardiopulmonary arrest), which were lower in the

routine IABP group. Bleeding and access site complication rates tended to be higher in the routine IABP group. The “bailout” rate of IABP insertion in the provisional IABP group was 12%, mostly for procedural hypotension (542). A meta-analysis of IABP therapy in patients with STEMI did not show improved outcomes with the use of IABP (434).

The Impella Recover LP 2.5 System (Abiomed, Aachen, Germany/Danvers, Massachusetts) is a 12.5 Fr catheter that is inserted percutaneously through a 13 Fr femoral artery sheath and placed across the aortic valve into the left ventricle, through which a transaxial blood pump provides flows of up to 2.5 L/min. This has been used in patients with cardiogenic shock (543,544) as well as elective PCI (545). The hemodynamic effects of the Impella 2.5 have been studied in high-risk PCI patients, demonstrating beneficial LV unloading effect (decreased end-diastolic pressure and wall stress) with no change in global or systolic LV function (546). The PROTECT I (A Prospective Feasibility Trial Investigating the Use of the IMPELLA Recover LP 2.5 System in Patients Undergoing High-Risk PCI) trial in 20 patients undergoing high-risk PCI with the Impella 2.5 system concluded that this device was safe, easy to implant, and hemodynamically effective (547). The Europella Registry included 144 patients undergoing high-risk PCI and reported the safety, feasibility, and potential usefulness of the device and that RCTs were warranted (548). The randomized PROTECT II (A Prospective, Multicenter, Randomized Controlled Trial of the IMPELLA Recover LP 2.5 System Versus Intra Aortic Balloon Pump in Patients Undergoing Non Emergent High Risk PCI) trial, which was designed to demonstrate superiority of Impella over IABP in terms of 1-month adverse events, was halted for futility after interim analysis of study results (549).

The TandemHeart (CardiacAssist, Inc, Pittsburgh, PA) is a left atrial to aorta catheter-based system that includes a centrifugal blood pump providing flows of up to 4 L/min. This device uses a 21 Fr cannula percutaneously inserted into the femoral vein for transseptal access of the left atrium with a 15 Fr catheter placed in the contralateral femoral artery and positioned above the aortic bifurcation. An extracorporeal pump then returns oxygenated blood from the left atrium to the arterial system, thereby unloading the left ventricle (550,551). The hemodynamic effects have been studied in patients undergoing high-risk PCI (552). Several small studies have addressed the clinical efficacy of the TandemHeart in high-risk patients undergoing PCI (551,553–556). In a single-center report of 68 patients undergoing high-risk PCI using either TandemHeart or Impella Recover 2.5, success rates (>90%) and vascular complications (7%) were similar (553).

High-risk patients may include those undergoing unprotected left main or last-remaining-conduit PCI, those with severely depressed EF undergoing PCI of a vessel supplying a large territory, and/or those with cardiogenic shock. Patient risk, hemodynamic support, ease of application/

removal, and operator and laboratory expertise are all factors involved in consideration of use of these devices. With devices that require large cannula insertion, the risk of vascular injury and related complications are important considerations regarding necessity and choice of device.

## 5.7. Interventional Pharmacotherapy

### 5.7.1. Procedural Sedation

The term *conscious sedation* is falling out of favor with the recognition that there is a spectrum of procedural sedation levels. Most patients undergoing PCI fall under the definition of either minimal sedation (anxiolysis) or moderate sedation (depressed consciousness with the ability to respond purposefully to verbal commands) (557). Nonetheless, an underlying principle of procedural sedation is that the physician should be prepared to manage one level of sedation deeper than the level intended. Thus, cardiologists should be cognizant of the principles of managing deep sedation (depressed consciousness without easy arousal that may require assistance in maintaining airway patency or spontaneous ventilation).

A full review of procedural sedation is beyond the scope of this document, but practice guidelines for sedation and analgesia by nonanesthesiologists, along with The Joint Commission standards, provides a reasonable framework. These guidelines outline several general principles (558,559). Before the procedure the patient should be assessed for predictors of difficult intubation or a history of prior difficult intubation. The patient should be monitored by someone dedicated to observing the level and effects of sedation. Level of consciousness, respiratory rate, blood pressure, cardiac rhythm, and oxygen saturation by pulse oximetry should be monitored. Available equipment should include a high-flow oxygen source, suction, airway management equipment, a defibrillator, resuscitation drugs, and reversal agents appropriate for the drugs being used. A free-flowing IV line should be established. Supplemental oxygen is usually administered, even in the absence of preexisting hypoxia, to provide a margin of safety.

Agents used for sedation are best given in incremental doses, allowing adequate time for the development and assessment of peak effect. The most commonly used agents are listed in [Appendix 4F](#).

### 5.7.2. Oral Antiplatelet Therapy: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. Patients already taking daily aspirin therapy should take 81 mg to 325 mg before PCI (301–304). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. Patients not on aspirin therapy should be given nonenteric aspirin 325 mg before PCI (301,303,304). (Level of Evidence: B)
3. After PCI, use of aspirin should be continued indefinitely (560–563). (Level of Evidence: A)
4. A loading dose of a P2Y<sub>12</sub> receptor inhibitor should be given to patients undergoing PCI with stenting (564–568) (Level of Evidence: A). Options include



- a. Clopidogrel 600 mg (ACS and non-ACS patients) (564–566) (Level of Evidence: B)
  - b. Prasugrel 60 mg (ACS patients) (567) (Level of Evidence: B)
  - c. Ticagrelor 180 mg (ACS patients) (568) (Level of Evidence: B)
5. The loading dose of clopidogrel for patients undergoing PCI after fibrinolytic therapy should be 300 mg within 24 hours and 600 mg more than 24 hours after receiving fibrinolytic therapy (565,569). (Level of Evidence: C)
6. Patients should be counseled on the need for and risks of DAPT before placement of intracoronary stents, especially DES, and alternative therapies should be pursued if patients are unwilling or unable to comply with the recommended duration of DAPT (208). (Level of Evidence: C)
7. The duration of P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy after stent implantation should generally be as follows:
- a. In patients receiving a stent (BMS or DES) during PCI for ACS, P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy should be given for at least 12 months. Options include clopidogrel 75 mg daily (570), prasugrel 10 mg daily (567), and ticagrelor 90 mg twice daily (568). (Level of Evidence: B)
  - b. In patients receiving DES for a non-ACS indication, clopidogrel 75 mg daily should be given for at least 12 months if patients are not at high risk of bleeding (208,212,571). (Level of Evidence: B)
  - c. In patients receiving BMS for a non-ACS indication, clopidogrel should be given for a minimum of 1 month and ideally up to 12 months (unless the patient is at increased risk of bleeding; then it should be given for a minimum of 2 weeks) (208,572). (Level of Evidence: B)

#### **CLASS IIa**

1. After PCI, it is reasonable to use aspirin 81 mg per day in preference to higher maintenance doses (302,573–576). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. If the risk of morbidity from bleeding outweighs the anticipated benefit afforded by a recommended duration of P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy after stent implantation, earlier discontinuation (e.g., <12 months) of P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy is reasonable. (Level of Evidence: C)

#### **CLASS IIb**

1. Continuation of DAPT beyond 12 months may be considered in patients undergoing DES implantation (567,568). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### **CLASS III: HARM**

1. Prasugrel should not be administered to patients with a prior history of stroke or transient ischemic attack (567). (Level of Evidence: B)

Aspirin reduces the frequency of ischemic complications after PCI. Although the minimum effective aspirin dosage in the setting of PCI has not been established, aspirin 325 mg given at least 2 hours, and preferably 24 hours, before PCI is recommended (302,303), after which aspirin 81 mg daily should be continued indefinitely.

Several investigations have explored various loading doses of clopidogrel before or during PCI. Compared with a 300-mg loading dose, doses of either 600 mg or 900 mg achieve greater degrees of platelet inhibition with fewer low responders (577). A meta-analysis of 7 studies that included 25,383 patients undergoing PCI demonstrated that intensified loading of clopidogrel with 600 mg reduces the rate of MACE without an increase in major bleeding compared

with 300 mg (578). Another study suggested that a 600-mg loading dose of clopidogrel is associated with improvements in procedural angiographic endpoints and 1-year clinical outcomes in patients with STEMI who undergo primary PCI compared with a 300-mg dose (579). There is no benefit with increasing the loading dose to 900 mg compared with 600 mg (577). Clopidogrel 75 mg daily should be given for a minimum of 4 weeks after balloon angioplasty or BMS implantation (a minimum of 2 weeks if increased bleeding risk is present) (580) and for at least 12 months after DES implantation (unless the risk of bleeding outweighs the anticipated benefit). Patients should be counseled on the need for and risks of DAPT before stent implantation, especially DES implantation, and alternative therapies pursued (BMS or balloon angioplasty) if they are unwilling or unable to comply with the recommended duration of DAPT.

The efficacy of clopidogrel pretreatment remains controversial. Although some studies have suggested that pretreatment with clopidogrel is associated with decreased platelet aggregation and a significantly lower incidence of periprocedural MI after elective PCI, others have suggested no benefit to pretreatment compared with administration of the drug in the catheterization laboratory (572,581,582).

When prasugrel was compared with clopidogrel in patients with ACS in TRITON-TIMI 38 (Trial to Assess Improvement in Therapeutic Outcomes by Optimizing Platelet Inhibition with Prasugrel-Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction), prasugrel was associated with a significant 2.2% reduction in absolute risk and a 19% reduction in relative risk in the composite endpoint of cardiovascular death, nonfatal MI, or nonfatal stroke, and a significant increase in the rate of TIMI major hemorrhage (1.8% versus 2.4%) (567). Prasugrel is contraindicated in patients with a history of transient ischemic attack or stroke. Patients weighing <60 kg have an increased risk of bleeding on the 10 mg daily maintenance dose. The package insert suggests that consideration should be given to lowering the maintenance dose to 5 mg daily, although the effectiveness and safety of the 5-mg dose has not been studied. Prasugrel is not recommended for patients >75 years of age because of the increased risk of fatal and intracranial bleeding and lack of benefit, except in patients with diabetes or a history of prior MI. Prasugrel should not be started in patients likely to undergo urgent CABG. Prasugrel has not been studied in elective PCI, and thus no recommendation can be made regarding its use in this clinical setting.

Ticagrelor reversibly binds the P2Y<sub>12</sub> receptor. Unlike clopidogrel or prasugrel, ticagrelor is not a thienopyridine. It also does not require metabolic conversion to an active metabolite. Compared with clopidogrel in patients with ACS in the PLATO (Platelet Inhibition and Patient Outcomes) trial, ticagrelor was associated with a significant 1.9% reduction in absolute risk and a 16% reduction in relative risk in the primary composite endpoint of vascular death, nonfatal MI, or nonfatal stroke (568). Importantly, a

significant reduction in vascular mortality and all-cause mortality was observed. Although CABG-related bleeding was not significantly increased with ticagrelor compared with clopidogrel, a significantly greater incidence of major bleeding was observed in patients not undergoing CABG. Ticagrelor was associated with higher rates of transient dyspnea and bradycardia compared with clopidogrel, although only a very small percentage of patients discontinued the study drug because of dyspnea. Based on post hoc analysis of the PLATO study, specifically the results in the U.S. patient cohort, a black box warning states that maintenance doses of aspirin above 100 mg reduce the effectiveness of ticagrelor and should be avoided. After any initial dose, ticagrelor should be used with aspirin 75 mg to 100 mg per day (583). Given the twice-daily dosing and reversible nature of the drug, patient compliance may be a particularly important issue to consider and emphasize. Ticagrelor has not been studied in elective PCI or in patients who received fibrinolytic therapy; thus, no recommendations about its use in these clinical settings can be made.

### 5.7.3. IV Antiplatelet Therapy: Recommendations

#### STEMI

##### **CLASS IIa**

1. In patients undergoing primary PCI treated with UFH, it is reasonable to administer a GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor (abciximab, double-bolus eptifibatide, or high-bolus dose tirofiban), whether or not patients were pretreated with clopidogrel (584–590). (For GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor administration in patients not pretreated with clopidogrel, Level of Evidence: A; for GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor administration in patients pretreated with clopidogrel, Level of Evidence: C)

##### **CLASS IIb**

1. In patients undergoing primary PCI with abciximab, it may be reasonable to administer intracoronary abciximab (589,591–604). (Level of Evidence: B)

##### **CLASS III: NO BENEFIT**

1. Routine precatheterization laboratory (e.g., ambulance or emergency department) administration of GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors as part of an upstream strategy for patients with STEMI undergoing PCI is not beneficial (605–612). (Level of Evidence: B)

#### UA/NSTEMI

##### **CLASS I**

1. In UA/NSTEMI patients with high-risk features (e.g., elevated troponin level) not treated with bivalirudin and not adequately pretreated with clopidogrel, it is useful at the time of PCI to administer a GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor (abciximab, double-bolus eptifibatide, or high-bolus dose tirofiban) in patients treated with UFH (613–618). (Level of Evidence: A)

##### **CLASS IIa**

1. In UA/NSTEMI patients with high-risk features (e.g., elevated troponin level) treated with UFH and adequately pretreated with clopidogrel, it is reasonable at the time of PCI to administer a GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor (abciximab, double-bolus eptifibatide, or high-bolus dose tirofiban) (616,619). (Level of Evidence: B)

#### SIHD

##### **CLASS IIa**

1. In patients undergoing elective PCI treated with UFH and not pretreated with clopidogrel, it is reasonable to administer a GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor (abciximab, double-bolus eptifibatide, or high-bolus dose tirofiban) (619–621). (Level of Evidence: B)

##### **CLASS IIb**

1. In patients undergoing elective PCI with stent implantation treated with UFH and adequately pretreated with clopidogrel, it might be reasonable to administer a GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor (abciximab, double-bolus eptifibatide, or high-bolus dose tirofiban) (619,622–624). (Level of Evidence: B)

See *Online Data Supplement 24* for additional data regarding IV antiplatelet therapy.

In the era before DAPT, trials of adequately dosed GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors in patients undergoing balloon angioplasty and coronary stent implantation demonstrated a reduction in the incidence of composite ischemic events with GP IIb/IIIa treatment, primarily through a reduction of enzymatically defined MI (613,615,618,620,621). Earlier RCTs of GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors were generally conducted in patients treated with UFH. In some trials, use of GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors are associated with some increased bleeding risk, and trials of these agents have generally excluded patients at high risk of bleeding (e.g., coagulopathy) (584,587–589,613–618,620–626). Thus, recommendations about use of GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors are best construed as applying to those patients not at high risk of bleeding complications. Abciximab, double-bolus eptifibatide (180 mcg/kg bolus followed 10 minutes later by a second 180 mcg/kg bolus), and high-bolus dose tirofiban (25 mcg/kg) all result in a high degree of platelet inhibition (627–629), have been demonstrated to reduce ischemic complications in patients undergoing PCI (608,609,613,615,618–621), and appear to lead to comparable angiographic and clinical outcomes (630,631).

Trials of GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors in the setting of STEMI and primary PCI were conducted in the era before routine stenting and DAPT. The results of these and more recent trials, as well as several meta-analyses, have yielded mixed results (584–590). Therefore, it is reasonable to administer GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors in patients with STEMI undergoing PCI, although these agents cannot be definitively recommended as routine therapy. These agents might provide more benefit in selective use, such as in patients with large anterior MI and/or large thrombus burden. Trials of precatheterization laboratory (e.g., ambulance or emergency room) administered GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors in patients with STEMI undergoing PCI, with or without fibrinolytic therapy, have generally shown no clinical benefit, and GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor use in this setting may be associated with an increased risk of bleeding (605–610,612). Studies of intracoronary GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor administration (predominantly using abciximab) consist of several small RCTs, retrospective analyses, retrospective and prospective regis-

**Table 12. Dosing of Parenteral Anticoagulants During PCI**

Drug	Patient Has Received Prior Anticoagulant Therapy	Patient Has Not Received Prior Anticoagulant Therapy
UFH	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• IV GPI planned: additional UFH as needed (e.g., 2,000 to 5,000 U) to achieve an ACT of 200 to 250 s</li> <li>• No IV GPI planned: additional UFH as needed (e.g., 2,000 to 5,000 U) to achieve an ACT of 250 to 300 s for HemoTec, 300 to 350 s for HemoChron</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• IV GPI planned: 50 to 70 U/kg bolus to achieve an ACT of 200 to 250 s</li> <li>• No IV GPI planned: 70 to 100 U/kg bolus to achieve target ACT of 250 to 300 s for HemoTec, 300 to 350 s for HemoChron</li> </ul>
Enoxaparin	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• For prior treatment with enoxaparin, if the last SC dose was administered 8 to 12 h earlier or if only 1 SC dose of enoxaparin has been administered, an IV dose of 0.3 mg/kg of enoxaparin should be given.</li> <li>• If the last SC dose was administered within the prior 8 h, no additional enoxaparin should be given.</li> </ul>	0.5 to 0.75 mg/kg IV bolus
Bivalirudin	For patients who have received UFH, wait 30 min, then give 0.75 mg/kg IV bolus, then 1.75 mg/kg per h IV infusion.	0.75 mg/kg bolus, 1.75 mg/kg per h IV infusion
Fondaparinux	For prior treatment with fondaparinux, administer additional IV treatment with an anticoagulant possessing anti-IIa activity, taking into account whether GPI receptor antagonists have been administered.	N/A
Argatroban	200 mcg/kg IV bolus, then 15 mcg/kg per min IV infusion	350 mcg/kg bolus, then 15 mcg/kg per min IV infusion

ACT indicates activated clotting time; IV, intravenous; GPI, glycoprotein inhibitor; N/A, not applicable; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; SC, subcutaneous; and UFH, unfractionated heparin.

tries, cohort analyses, and case reports. Although most of these published studies have reported some benefit of intracoronary administration in terms of acute angiographic parameters, infarct size, left ventricle myocardial salvage, and composite clinical endpoints, several other studies have not detected any benefit with intracoronary administration (589,591–604).

Trials of GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors in patients with UA/NSTEMI undergoing PCI demonstrated reduced ischemic outcomes, particularly in those with high-risk features such as positive biomarkers. Most trials were conducted in a prior PCI era and without P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor pretreatment (613,615,618,632,633), although several trials have also demonstrated benefit in patients with high-risk features pretreated with clopidogrel (616,619). In most older studies of stable patients undergoing balloon angioplasty or coronary stenting, treatment with GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors resulted in a reduction of composite ischemic events, primarily enzymatically defined MI (613–618,620,621,634,635). More contemporary trials of patients pretreated with a thienopyridine have not demonstrated any benefit with GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor therapy in patients with stable symptoms undergoing elective PCI (619,622–624).

### 5.7.4. Anticoagulant Therapy

#### 5.7.4.1. USE OF PARENTERAL ANTICOAGULANTS DURING PCI: RECOMMENDATION

##### CLASS I

**1. An anticoagulant should be administered to patients undergoing PCI. (Level of Evidence: C)**

Anticoagulant therapy prevents thrombus formation at the site of arterial injury, on the coronary guidewire, and in the catheters used for PCI (8). With rare exceptions (636), all PCI studies have used some form of anticoagulant. It is the consensus of the writing committee that

PCI be performed with the use of some form of anticoagulant therapy. Suggested dosing regimens of parenteral agents used in PCI are given in Table 12. Recommendations for antiplatelet and antithrombin pharmacotherapy in PCI are given in Table 13.

#### 5.7.4.2. UFH: RECOMMENDATION

##### CLASS I

**1. Administration of IV UFH is useful in patients undergoing PCI. (Level of Evidence: C)**

As the only anticoagulant available for PCI for many years, UFH became the standard of care by default (8). The dose of UFH for PCI has been based on empiricism and experience from RCTs. Suggested UFH dosing regimens are given in Table 12. When UFH is used during PCI, most cardiologists assess the degree of anticoagulation by measuring the activated clotting time. Although measurements are useful to show that an anti-IIa anticoagulant has been given, the value of the activated clotting time in current practice has been questioned. Although studies in the balloon angioplasty era did demonstrate a relationship between activated clotting time levels and ischemic complications (653–655), more recent analyses from the coronary stent era have not found a clear relationship between activated clotting time and outcomes (349,656,657). There may, however, be a modest relation between bleeding and activated clotting time levels (349,657). In addition, not only are there differences between activated clotting time levels measured by HemoChron and HemoTec devices, but both devices have less than optimal precision (658). Thus, although traditional target activated clotting time levels are included in this document, the utility of measured activated clotting time levels in current practice should be considered uncertain.

**Table 13. Recommendations for Antiplatelet and Antithrombin Pharmacotherapy at the Time of PCI**

	COR	LOE	References	Relevant Caveats/Comments
<b>Oral antiplatelet agents</b>				
Aspirin	I	B	(301–304, 560–563)	N/A
P2Y <sub>12</sub> inhibitors	I	A	(564–568)	• A loading dose of a P2Y <sub>12</sub> inhibitor should be given to patients undergoing PCI with stenting.
• Clopidogrel	I	B	(564–566)	• 600-mg loading dose now recommended.
• Prasugrel	I	B	(567)	• Contraindicated in patients with prior TIA/CVA: <b>Class III: Harm; LOE: B.</b> • Generally not recommended in patients >75 y of age (Section 5.7.2). • Consideration of using a lower maintenance dose in patients weighing <60 kg suggested by FDA (Section 5.7.2).
• Ticagrelor	I	B	(568)	• Issues of patient compliance may be especially important.
<b>GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors (abciximab, double-bolus eptifibatide, high-bolus dose tirofiban)</b>				
• No clopidogrel pretreatment	STEMI: IIa	A	(584–590)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• UA/NSTEMI recommendation applies to those with high-risk features.</li> <li>• GPI use in STEMI may be most appropriate in those with large anterior MI and/or large thrombus burden.</li> <li>• IC abciximab administration in STEMI: <b>Class IIb; LOE: B.</b></li> <li>• Percatheterization laboratory GPI administration in STEMI: <b>Class III: No Benefit; LOE: B.</b></li> <li>• Recommendations apply to those not at high risk for bleeding complications.</li> </ul>
	UA/NSTEMI: I	A	(613–618)	
	SIHD: IIa	B	(619–621)	
• Clopidogrel pretreatment	STEMI: IIa	C	(584–590)	
	UA/NSTEMI: IIa	B	(616, 619)	
	SIHD: IIb	B	(619, 622–624)	
<b>Antithrombin agents</b>				
UFH	I	C	N/A	• Dosing based on whether or not GPI was administered.
Bivalirudin	I	B	(625, 637–645)	• Lower bleeding rates associated with bivalirudin are mitigated when used concomitantly with a GPI.
Enoxaparin	IIb	B	(646–650)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recommendations apply to administration of IV enoxaparin at the time of PCI for those who have not received prior antithrombin therapy or who have received “upstream” SC enoxaparin therapy for UA/NSTEMI.</li> <li>• An additional dose of 0.3 mg/kg IV enoxaparin should be administered at the time of PCI to patients who have received &lt;2 therapeutic subcutaneous doses (e.g., 1 mg/kg) or received the last subcutaneous enoxaparin dose 8 to 12 h before PCI: <b>Class I; LOE: B.</b></li> <li>• Patients treated with SC enoxaparin within 12 h of PCI should not receive additional treatment with UFH during PCI (“stacking”): <b>Class III: Harm; LOE: B.</b></li> </ul>
<b>Anti-Xa inhibitors</b>				
Fondaparinux	III: Harm	C	(651, 652)	• PCI should not be performed with fondaparinux as the sole antithrombin agent in patients treated with upstream fondaparinux. An additional anticoagulant with anti-IIa activity should be administered.

ACT indicates activated clotting time; COR, class of recommendation; CVA, cerebrovascular accident; FDA, U.S. Food and Drug Administration; GP, glycoprotein; GPI, glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitor; IC, intracoronary; IV, intravenous; LOE, level of evidence; MI, myocardial infarction; N/A, not applicable; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; SC, subcutaneous; SIHD, stable ischemic heart disease; STEMI, ST-elevation myocardial infarction; TIA, transient ischemic attack; UA/NSTEMI, unstable angina/non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction; and UFH, unfractionated heparin.

Most cardiologists remove femoral sheaths when the activated clotting time falls to <150 to 180 seconds or when the activated partial thromboplastin time falls to <50 seconds. Full-dose anticoagulation is no longer used after successful PCI procedures. Almost all large clinical trials have enrolled patients who underwent transfemoral PCI, but recent small studies assessing the transradial approach have used similar doses of UFH (659) and similar activated clotting time target levels (660).

**5.7.4.3. ENOXAPARIN: RECOMMENDATIONS**

**CLASS I**

1. An additional dose of 0.3 mg/kg IV enoxaparin should be administered at the time of PCI to patients who have received fewer than 2 ther-

apeutic subcutaneous doses (e.g., 1 mg/kg) or received the last subcutaneous enoxaparin dose 8 to 12 hours before PCI (649,661–664). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS IIb**

1. Performance of PCI with enoxaparin may be reasonable in patients either treated with “upstream” subcutaneous enoxaparin for UA/NSTEMI or who have not received prior antithrombin therapy and are administered IV enoxaparin at the time of PCI (646–650). (Level of Evidence: B)

**CLASS III: HARM**

1. UFH should not be given to patients already receiving therapeutic subcutaneous enoxaparin (649,665). (Level of Evidence: B)

Trials of enoxaparin relevant to PCI include both studies in which patients with UA/NSTEMI were started on upstream subcutaneous enoxaparin therapy that was continued up to the time of PCI and trials in which patients who had received no prior antithrombin therapy were treated with IV enoxaparin at the time of PCI (646–650,661–663,666). In the SYNERGY (Superior Yield of the New strategy of Enoxaparin, Revascularization and Glycoprotein IIb/IIIa Inhibitors) trial, there was an increased incidence of bleeding in those treated with upstream enoxaparin, later attributed at least in part to the fact that some patients being treated with enoxaparin were also administered UFH at the time of PCI (so-called “stacking”) (649,665). Almost all patients undergoing elective PCI who are administered enoxaparin (0.5 mg/kg IV) will have a peak anti-Xa level >0.5 IU/mL (647). Most clinical studies have used a regimen of 0.5 to 0.75 mg IV (667). Several studies have used this regimen in elective patients and those with STEMI (646). Patients who have received multiple doses of subcutaneously administered enoxaparin who undergo PCI within 8 hours of the last subcutaneous dose generally have adequate degrees of anticoagulation to undergo PCI, but the degree of anticoagulation may diminish in the 8- to 12-hour period after the last subcutaneous dose. In such patients, as well as in patients who have received only 1 subcutaneous dose of enoxaparin, the addition of enoxaparin (0.3 mg/kg IV) at the time of PCI provides an additional degree of anticoagulation and has become standard practice (648,661–664). Patients who undergo PCI >12 hours after the last subcutaneous dose are usually treated with full-dose de novo anticoagulation using an established regimen (e.g., full-dose UFH or bivalirudin).

#### 5.7.4.4. BIVALIRUDIN AND ARGATROBAN: RECOMMENDATIONS

##### CLASS I

1. For patients undergoing PCI, bivalirudin is useful as an anticoagulant with or without prior treatment with UFH (625,637–645). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. For patients with heparin-induced thrombocytopenia, it is recommended that bivalirudin or argatroban be used to replace UFH (668,669). (Level of Evidence: B)

Bivalirudin is being increasingly used in clinical practice (670) as evidence emerges from clinical trials across the spectrum of CAD (638–644). In individual trials and meta-analyses, the use of bivalirudin has been associated with reduced bleeding compared with UFH plus a GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor, although concerns about ischemic events have emerged in individual studies (625,637–645). Longer-term follow-up of the major bivalirudin trials, however, suggests that small or nominal increases in ischemic events have not translated into long-term consequences and that treatment at or before the time of PCI with clopidogrel may mitigate any increased early ischemic risk (637–645). Thus, a treatment strategy of bivalirudin compared with heparin (or enoxaparin) plus GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor appears to lower the risk of bleeding complications. The lower bleeding rates

associated with bivalirudin (compared with UFH plus a GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor) are mitigated when used concomitantly with a GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor (639). A strategy of use of provisional GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor in patients treated with bivalirudin is widely accepted (639,643,644).

In patients with heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (671,672), a direct-thrombin inhibitor (argatroban) has been approved as an alternative parenteral anticoagulant to be used during PCI (668). The use of bivalirudin for heparin-induced thrombocytopenia has been reported as well (669).

#### 5.7.4.5. FONDAPARINUX: RECOMMENDATION

##### CLASS III: HARM

1. Fondaparinux should not be used as the sole anticoagulant to support PCI. An additional anticoagulant with anti-IIa activity should be administered because of the risk of catheter thrombosis (651,652). (Level of Evidence: C)

Fondaparinux, a pentasaccharide, is an indirect factor Xa inhibitor but has no effect on thrombin. On the basis of reports of catheter thrombosis when fondaparinux is used alone during primary PCI (651,652), the writing committee recommends that an anticoagulant with anti-IIa activity be used in patients undergoing PCI (651,652). One study suggested that clinical outcomes were better when fondaparinux was replaced during PCI by a standard dose of UFH (85 U/kg, 60 U/kg with GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors) rather than by a low dose (50 U/kg) (673).

#### 5.7.5. No-Reflow Pharmacological Therapies: Recommendation

##### CLASS IIa

1. Administration of an intracoronary vasodilator (adenosine, calcium channel blocker, or nitroprusside) is reasonable to treat PCI-related no-reflow that occurs during primary or elective PCI (674–689). (Level of Evidence: B)

See *Online Data Supplement 25* for additional data regarding no-reflow therapies.

No-reflow is a broad term used to describe 2 distinct entities. The first is “interventional no-reflow” attributed to vasospasm and downstream embolization of debris dislodged during PCI, usually in the setting of atherectomy, thrombus, or degenerated SVGs. The second entity is suboptimal reperfusion of an infarct artery, attributed to endothelial injury in addition to embolization and vasospasm. Angiographic no-reflow is the most obvious sequela of the same pathophysiology that produces abnormal TIMI frame counts and TIMI blush scores, so these measures are often used interchangeably. The principal clinical sequela of no-reflow is myonecrosis. Efforts to prevent no-reflow overlap with strategies to reduce MI size and prevent periprocedural MI.

In the setting of MI, several drugs have been shown to reduce the incidence of no-reflow. Evidence for a beneficial effect on no-reflow exists for abciximab, adenosine, nic-

orandil, and nitroprusside (674,675,680,682,683,685,687, 688,690). However, their adoption into clinical practice has depended on their effect on hard clinical endpoints such as infarct size and mortality. These benefits, and consequentially the use of these agents, have been limited.

For interventional no-reflow, several therapies have proven effective after no-reflow has started. These include adenosine, calcium channel blockers, and nitroprusside (676,678,679,681,684,686,689,691). There are fewer data to support the use of epinephrine (692). No-reflow after rotational atherectomy was less common with nicorandil compared with verapamil infusions in 3 studies (693–695), and an infusion of nicorandil/adenosine during rotational atherectomy prevented no-reflow in 98% of patients (677). Trials of pre-PCI intracoronary verapamil, nicardipine, and adenosine have reported them to be safe but have not demonstrated reductions in post-PCI no-reflow (696–698). Mechanical devices to prevent interventional and myocardial infarct reperfusion no-reflow are also covered in Section 5.5.5.

## 5.8. PCI in Specific Anatomic Situations

### 5.8.1. CTOs: Recommendation

#### CLASS IIa

1. PCI of a CTO in patients with appropriate clinical indications and suitable anatomy is reasonable when performed by operators with appropriate expertise (699–703). (Level of Evidence: B)

See *Online Data Supplements 26 to 28 for additional data regarding CTOs.*

Approximately one third of patients with suspected CAD who undergo coronary angiography have  $\geq 1$  CTO (defined as occlusion of a duration  $>3$  months) (704). Although stress-induced ischemia can be elicited in the majority of patients with CTO despite the presence of collaterals (706,707), only 8% to 15% of these patients undergo PCI (708,709). The disparity between the frequency of CTOs and percutaneous treatment underscores not only the technical and procedural complexities of this lesion subtype but also the clinical uncertainties regarding which patients benefit from CTO revascularization. Studies suggest that patients who undergo successful, rather than failed, recanalization of CTOs fare better in terms of symptom status and need for CABG (699), as well as LV function (710). However, the impact of successful CTO recanalization on long-term survival remains unsettled (701,711,712). The decision to try PCI for a CTO (versus continued medical therapy or surgical revascularization) requires an individualized risk-benefit analysis encompassing clinical, angiographic, and technical considerations. Consultation with a cardiothoracic surgeon and use of the Heart Team approach in cases of CTO in which a large territory is subtended and/or multivessel CAD is present are frequently done.

From a technical perspective, successful recanalization of CTOs has steadily increased over the years due to adoption of dedicated wires, novel techniques, and increased operator

experience (702). In patients who undergo successful CTO recanalization, use of DES significantly reduces the need for repeated target-vessel revascularization, compared with BMS and balloon angioplasty, without compromising safety (703,713–719).

### 5.8.2. SVGs: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. EPDs should be used during SVG PCI when technically feasible (532–535). (Level of Evidence: B)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. Platelet GP IIb/IIIa inhibitors are not beneficial as adjunctive therapy during SVG PCI (212,571,720,721). (Level of Evidence: B)

#### CLASS III: HARM

1. PCI is not recommended for chronic SVG occlusions (722–724). (Level of Evidence: C)

See *Online Data Supplement 29 for additional data regarding SVG.*

Adverse cardiac event rates are doubled after SVG PCI compared with native-artery PCI (536). A distal balloon occlusion EPD decreased the 30-day composite outcome of death, MI, emergency CABG, or target-lesion revascularization (9.6% versus 16.5%) in the only RCT comparing embolic protection with no embolic protection (532). Subsequent noninferiority comparisons have demonstrated similar benefit with proximal occlusion and distal filter EPDs, with benefit limited to reduction in periprocedural MI (534,535). PCI in chronic SVG occlusion is associated with low success rates, high complication rates, and poor long-term patency rates (722,723). Restenosis and target-vessel revascularization rates are lower with DES compared with BMS, although mortality and stent thrombosis rates are similar (725). The use of covered stents is limited to the treatment of the uncommon complication of SVG perforation. Balloon angioplasty for distal SVG anastomotic stenoses has low restenosis rates (724), so stenting is commonly reserved at this location for suboptimal balloon angioplasty results or restenosis. Routine GP IIb/IIIa inhibitor therapy has not proven beneficial in SVG PCI (720). Fibrinolytic therapy is no longer used for thrombus-containing lesions, but rheolytic or manual aspiration thrombectomy is sometimes employed.

### 5.8.3. Bifurcation Lesions: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. Provisional side-branch stenting should be the initial approach in patients with bifurcation lesions when the side branch is not large and has only mild or moderate focal disease at the ostium (726–729). (Level of Evidence: A)

#### CLASS IIa

1. It is reasonable to use elective double stenting in patients with complex bifurcation morphology involving a large side branch where the risk of side-branch occlusion is high and the likelihood of

successful side-branch reaccess is low (730–733). (Level of Evidence: B)

Side-branch occlusion or severe stenosis after stenting the main artery in coronary bifurcation PCI occurs in 8% to 80% of unselected patients (732,734). The frequency of side-branch occlusion is related to complex bifurcation morphology (severe and/or long side-branch ostial stenosis, large plaque burden in the side-branch ostium, and/or unfavorable side-branch angulation) (732,735,736). Side-branch occlusion after PCI is associated with Q-wave and non-Q-wave MI (734,735). Therefore, preservation of physiologic flow in the side branch after PCI is important (736). There are 2 bifurcation PCI strategies: provisional stenting (stenting the main vessel with additional balloon angioplasty or stenting of the side branch only in the case of an unsatisfactory result) and elective double stenting of the main vessel and the side branch. When there is an unsatisfactory result in the side branch from the provisional stent in the main branch, sometimes balloon angioplasty alone in the side branch will improve the result and stenting the side branch is not necessary. Some experts have suggested that using the side-branch balloon alone will distort the main branch stent and thus this always needs to be a kissing balloon inflation.

In patients with low-risk bifurcation lesions (minimal or moderate ostial side-branch disease [ $<50\%$  diameter stenosis] of focal length [5 to 6 mm]), provisional stenting yields similar clinical outcome to elective double stenting, with lower incidence of periprocedural biomarker elevation (726–729). Conversely, in patients with high-risk bifurcations, elective double stenting is associated with a trend toward higher angiographic success rates, lower in-hospital MACE, and better long-term patency of the side branch compared with provisional stenting (193). Culotte, Crush, and T-stent techniques have been studied in RCTs (726–729,737). Use of DES yields better outcomes than BMS (738), and sirolimus-eluting stents yield better outcomes than paclitaxel-eluting stents (739–742). Clinical evidence supports the use of final kissing balloon inflation after elective double stenting (743).

#### 5.8.4. Aorto-Ostial Stenoses: Recommendations

##### CLASS IIa

1. IVUS is reasonable for the assessment of angiographically indeterminate left main CAD (744,745). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. Use of DES is reasonable when PCI is indicated in patients with an aorto-ostial stenosis (746,747). (Level of Evidence: B)

Aorto-ostial stenoses of native coronary arteries (left main coronary artery and right coronary artery) are most commonly caused by atherosclerosis, but they can also occur in patients with congenital malformations, radiation exposure, vasculitides, and aortic valve replacement. The angiographic diagnosis of aorto-ostial disease is not always straightforward, especially in the ostial left main coronary artery, where eccentricity and angulation can be mistaken for

stenosis (490,748). Aorto-ostial disease can be evaluated with IVUS (744,745); FFR (with IV adenosine) has also been used (484,749). The treatment of aorto-ostial stenoses with balloon angioplasty has been associated with lower procedural success rates, more frequent in-hospital complications, and a greater likelihood of late restenosis (750). Although atherectomy devices (directional atherectomy, rotational atherectomy, and excimer laser angioplasty) have improved acute angiographic results over balloon angioplasty, restenosis has remained a limitation (751). In patients with aorto-ostial stenoses undergoing PCI, use of DES has been shown to reduce restenosis compared with BMS (176,746,752).

#### 5.8.5. Calcified Lesions: Recommendation

##### CLASS IIa

1. Rotational atherectomy is reasonable for fibrotic or heavily calcified lesions that might not be crossed by a balloon catheter or adequately dilated before stent implantation (514,515,520). (Level of Evidence: C)

The presence of coronary calcification is a marker for significant CAD and increased long-term mortality (753). Calcified coronary lesions are not a homogenous entity, and their response to PCI varies according to severity of calcification. Severely calcified lesions respond poorly to balloon angioplasty (230,754), and when stents are implanted in such lesions, an incomplete and asymmetrical stent expansion occurs in the majority of cases (755). Attempts to remedy the underexpanded stents with aggressive high-pressure balloon dilatation may result in coronary artery rupture (756). All the published prospective RCTs that evaluated the various catheter-based coronary interventional devices excluded patients with severely calcified lesions. Therefore, the evidence base for best PCI practices in patients with severely calcified lesions comes from nonrandomized single-arm studies. Among the various adjunct devices that are used to facilitate PCI in severely calcified lesions, only rotational atherectomy has been shown to have potential utility (514,757). Although rotational atherectomy increases the chances of angiographic success in severely calcified lesions, its use as a stand-alone device has not led to a reduction in restenosis (520,521,758). Several retrospective studies have shown that in patients with severely calcified lesions, the use of rotational atherectomy before implantation of BMS (514) or DES (515) is safe. Intermediate-term patency is more favorable with DES than BMS (759).

#### 5.9. PCI in Specific Patient Populations

Several specific patient subsets with higher risks for PCI, and at times higher absolute clinical benefit, have traditionally been underrepresented in RCTs and are described below.

### 5.9.1. Elderly

The elderly constitute a growing proportion of patients considered for PCI (760). In 1 series examining trends over a 25-year period, the proportion of patients undergoing PCI who were 75 to 84 years of age doubled, and those >85 years of age increased 5-fold (761). Age is one of the strongest predictors of mortality after PCI (762), and elderly patients present with a substantially higher clinical risk profile (760). Nonetheless, the angiographic success rates and clinical benefits of PCI in elderly patients are similar to younger patients (763). In fact, the absolute benefit is typically greater due to higher absolute risk of adverse outcomes in these patients (764). However, increased risks of complications such as major bleeding and stroke mandate careful consideration of the benefits and risks of PCI in elderly patients (373).

### 5.9.2. Diabetes

Patients with diabetes represent approximately one third of patients undergoing PCI in the United States. Restenosis, which had been a major limitation of PCI, is significantly reduced in patients with diabetes treated with DES compared with BMS (471). However, there are no definitive data from RCTs supporting different clinical outcomes for different types of DES (765), with a recent meta-analysis of 35 RCTs involving 3,852 patients with diabetes unable to find major differences between patients receiving sirolimus-eluting stents or paclitaxel-eluting stents (472). Numerous analyses and clinical studies have evaluated how the presence of diabetes may impact the clinical outcome of patients undergoing PCI and decisions about PCI or CABG (14,116,163,164,186). These studies and the approach to revascularization decisions in diabetes are addressed in Section 4.

Diabetes is an important risk factor for the development of contrast-induced AKI. Strategies to reduce the risk of contrast-induced AKI in patients with diabetes are discussed in Section 4.4.

### 5.9.3. Women

Cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of death in women in the United States and Europe (766), and an estimated 35% of PCIs in the United States are performed in women (767,768). Women undergoing PCI usually have more risk factors (including hypertension, advanced age, elevated cholesterol, and more significant and diffuse CAD) compared with men (769). Women with STEMI are also less likely to receive early medical treatments and experience longer delays to reperfusion therapy (770,771). In subgroup analyses of clinical trials, use of DES appears to be similarly efficacious in women and men (772).

### 5.9.4. CKD: Recommendation

#### CLASS I

1. In patients undergoing PCI, the glomerular filtration rate should be estimated and the dosage of renally cleared medications should be adjusted (298-300). (Level of Evidence: B)

CKD is an independent risk factor for the development and progression of CAD (773,774), and is also associated with worse prognosis after MI or PCI (369,775). A glomerular filtration rate of <60 mL/min per 1.73 m<sup>2</sup> of body surface area should be considered abnormal. Patients with CKD undergoing PCI have a higher risk of complications, including bleeding (776), AKI, and death (236,777), but CKD is not a strong predictor of restenosis after BMS or DES (778). Strategies to reduce the risk of contrast-induced AKI in patients with CKD are discussed in Section 4.4. Platelet dysfunction and overdosing of antiplatelet and antithrombin drugs (350) in patients with CKD contribute to the increased risk of bleeding. The Cockcroft-Gault formula is commonly used as a surrogate marker for estimating creatinine clearance, which in turn estimates glomerular filtration rate (298,299,779,780). Medications that require dosage adjustments in patients with CKD include eptifibatide, tirofiban, bivalirudin, enoxaparin, and fondaparinux (781).

### 5.9.5. Cardiac Allografts

Cardiac allograft vasculopathy is a major cause of death in cardiac transplant recipients after their first year of survival (782). In general, revascularization for cardiac allograft vasculopathy with PCI is only palliative, with no evidence supporting benefit in regard to long-term survival or avoidance of retransplantation. The restenosis rate after PCI in patients with cardiac allograft vasculopathy is high, although stent implantation reduces early and midterm restenosis compared with balloon angioplasty. DES have been shown to have a tendency to lower restenosis rates compared with BMS (783,784). Thus, many clinicians perform stenting with DES or BMS in cardiac transplant patients with discrete lesions who have an abnormal stress test or symptoms suggestive of myocardial ischemia.

### 5.10. Periprocedural MI Assessment: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. In patients who have signs or symptoms suggestive of MI during or after PCI or in asymptomatic patients with significant persistent angiographic complications (e.g., large side-branch occlusion, flow-limiting dissection, no-reflow phenomenon, or coronary thrombosis), creatinine kinase-MB and troponin I or T should be measured. (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIb

1. Routine measurement of cardiac biomarkers (creatinine kinase-MB and/or troponin I or T) in all patients after PCI may be reasonable. (Level of Evidence: C)

Major events leading to ischemia or MI after PCI include acute closure, embolization and no-reflow, side-branch occlusion, and acute stent thrombosis. Issues surrounding



the routine assessment of cardiac biomarkers after PCI are complex, especially given that the definition of PCI-related MI has evolved over the years and most events are asymptomatic. The most recent consensus definition of MI considers troponin elevations of 3 times the upper limit of normal as a PCI-related MI in patients with normal baseline levels; this is further classified as a type 4a MI (240). This definition is supported by studies with delayed-enhancement MRI confirming that there is irreversible injury in the myocardium associated with biomarker elevations and that the size of this injury correlates with the degree of elevation (785). Furthermore, a meta-analysis of 15 observational studies found that troponin elevations at any level were linked with worse in-hospital and long-term outcomes; elevations >3 times the upper limit of normal predicted even worse outcomes (242). Other observational data, however, have raised concerns about whether the relationship is causal (786,787). A recent study found creatinine kinase-MB to correlate better with MRI-detected MI than troponin level (788). Definitions of PCI-related MI are being reevaluated by the Task Force for the Redefinition of Myocardial Infarction. Although there may be value for individual operators and hospitals to routinely measure cardiac biomarkers to track rates of PCI-related MI, at present there are not compelling data to recommend this for all PCI procedures.

### 5.11. Vascular Closure Devices: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. Patients considered for vascular closure devices should undergo a femoral angiogram to ensure their anatomic suitability for deployment. (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIa

1. The use of vascular closure devices is reasonable for the purposes of achieving faster hemostasis and earlier ambulation compared with the use of manual compression (257,789–791). (Level of Evidence: B)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. The routine use of vascular closure devices is not recommended for the purpose of decreasing vascular complications, including bleeding (256,257,789–792). (Level of Evidence: B)

See *Online Data Supplement 30* for additional data regarding vascular closure devices.

Vascular (arteriotomy) closure devices have been extensively reviewed (790), most recently in a 2010 AHA scientific statement (257), which issued several formal recommendations. The results of 4 meta-analyses have found that vascular closure devices decrease time to hemostasis compared with manual compression but do not decrease vascular complications, bleeding complications, or the need for blood transfusions (256,789,791,793). Future studies of vascular closure devices need to be randomized, include “high-risk” patients and “high-risk” anatomy, use blinded endpoint adjudication as much as possible, use well-defined and comprehensive complication endpoints, and be adequately powered to

detect clinically important endpoints, particularly bleeding and vascular complications.

## 6. Postprocedural Considerations

Postprocedural considerations in patients undergoing PCI are discussed below and summarized in Table 14. Some recommendations and text regarding DAPT in Section 5.7.2 are intentionally repeated in this section for reader ease of use.

### 6.1. Postprocedural Antiplatelet Therapy: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. After PCI, use of aspirin should be continued indefinitely (560–563). (Level of Evidence: A)
2. The duration of P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy after stent implantation should generally be as follows:
  - a. In patients receiving a stent (BMS or DES) during PCI for ACS, P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy should be given for at least 12 months. Options include clopidogrel 75 mg daily (570), prasugrel 10 mg daily (567), and ticagrelor 90 mg twice daily (568). (Level of Evidence: B)
  - b. In patients receiving DES for a non-ACS indication, clopidogrel 75 mg daily should be given for at least 12 months if the patient is not at high risk of bleeding (208,212,571). (Level of Evidence: B)
  - c. In patients receiving BMS for a non-ACS indication, clopidogrel should be given for a minimum of 1 month and ideally up to 12 months (unless the patient is at increased risk of bleeding; then it should be given for a minimum of 2 weeks) (572). (Level of Evidence: B)
3. Patients should be counseled on the importance of compliance with DAPT and that therapy should not be discontinued before discussion with their cardiologist (208). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIa

1. After PCI, it is reasonable to use aspirin 81 mg per day in preference to higher maintenance doses (302,573–576). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. If the risk of morbidity from bleeding outweighs the anticipated benefit afforded by a recommended duration of P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy after stent implantation, earlier discontinuation (e.g., <12 months) of P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy is reasonable. (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIb

1. Continuation of clopidogrel, prasugrel, or ticagrelor beyond 12 months may be considered in patients undergoing placement of DES (567,568). (Level of Evidence: C)

Continued treatment with the combination of aspirin and a P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor antagonist after PCI appears to reduce MACE (570,572). On the basis of RCT protocols, secondary prevention measures, and expert consensus opinion, aspirin 81 mg daily should be given indefinitely after PCI.

Likewise, P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitors should be given for a minimum of 1 month after BMS (minimum 2 weeks for patients at significant increased risk of bleeding) (580) and for 12 months after DES and ideally in all patients who are not at high risk of bleeding.

The 2009 STEMI/PCI guidelines update (10) listed the recommendation “if the risk of morbidity because of bleed-

**Table 14. Postprocedural Recommendations for Patients Undergoing PCI**

Recommendations	COR	LOE	References	
<b>Aspirin</b>				
After PCI, use of aspirin should be continued indefinitely.	I	A	(560–563)	
After PCI, it is reasonable to use aspirin 81 mg/d in preference to higher maintenance doses.	IIa	B	(302,573–576)	
<b>P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitors</b>				
In patients receiving a stent (BMS or DES) during PCI for ACS, P2Y <sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy should be given for at least 12 mo. Options include clopidogrel 75 mg/d, prasugrel 10 mg/d, and ticagrelor 90 mg twice daily.	I	B	(567,568,570)	
In patients receiving DES for a non-ACS indication, clopidogrel 75 mg/d should be given for at least 12 mo if patients are not at high risk of bleeding.	I	B	(208,212,571)	
In patients receiving BMS for a non-ACS indication, clopidogrel should be given for a minimum of 1 mo and ideally up to 12 mo (unless the patient is at increased risk of bleeding; then it should be given for a minimum of 2 wk).	I	B	(572)	
Patients should be counseled on the importance of compliance with DAPT and that therapy should not be discontinued before discussion with their cardiologist.	I	C	(208)	
PPIs should be used in patients with a history of prior GI bleeding who require DAPT.	I	C	(794)	
If the risk of morbidity from bleeding outweighs the anticipated benefit afforded by a recommended duration of P2Y <sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy after stent implantation, earlier discontinuation (e.g., <12 mo) of P2Y <sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy is reasonable.	IIa	C	N/A	
Use of PPIs is reasonable in patients with an increased risk of GI bleeding (e.g., advanced age, concomitant use of warfarin, steroids, NSAIDs, <i>Helicobacter pylori</i> infection) who require DAPT.	IIa	C	(794)	
Continuation of clopidogrel, prasugrel, or ticagrelor beyond 12 mo may be considered in patients undergoing placement of DES.	IIb	C	N/A	
Routine use of a PPI is not recommended for patients at low risk of GI bleeding, who have much less potential to benefit from prophylactic therapy.	III: No Benefit	C	(794)	
<b>Exercise testing</b>				
For patients entering a formal cardiac rehabilitation program after PCI, treadmill exercise testing is reasonable.	IIa	C	(567,568)	
Routine periodic stress testing of asymptomatic patients after PCI without specific clinical indications should not be performed.	III: No Benefit	C	(795)	
<b>Cardiac rehabilitation</b>				
Medically supervised exercise programs (cardiac rehabilitation) should be recommended to patients after PCI, particularly for patients at moderate to high risk, for whom supervised exercise training is warranted.	I	A	(796–804)	
<b>Secondary prevention (recommendations included from the 2011 AHA/ACCF Secondary Prevention and Risk Reduction Therapy Guideline) (805)</b>				
Lipid management with lifestyle modification and lipid-lowering pharmacotherapy	Lifestyle modification	I	B	(806,807)
	Statin therapy	I	A	(344,806,808–810,810a)
	Statin therapy which lowers LDL cholesterol to <100 mg/dL and achieves at least a 30% lowering of LDL cholesterol	I	C	(344,806,808–810,810a)
	Statin therapy which lowers LDL cholesterol to <70 mg/dL in very high-risk* patients	IIa	B	(345,808–810,810a,811,812)
Blood pressure control (with a blood pressure goal of <140/90 mm Hg)	Lifestyle modification	I	B	(813–817)
	Pharmacotherapy	I	A	(813,818,819)
Diabetes management (e.g., lifestyle modification and pharmacotherapy) coordinated with the patient's primary care physician and/or endocrinologist	I	C	N/A	
Complete smoking cessation	I	A	(820–823)	

\*Presence of established cardiovascular disease plus 1) multiple major risk factors (especially diabetes), 2) severe and poorly controlled risk factors (especially continued cigarette smoking), 3) multiple risk factors of the metabolic syndrome (especially high triglycerides  $\geq 200$  mg/dL plus non-HDL cholesterol  $\geq 130$  mg/dL with low HDL cholesterol [ $< 40$  mg/dL]), and 4) acute coronary syndromes. ACS indicates acute coronary syndromes; BMS, bare-metal stent(s); COR, class of recommendation; DAPT, dual antiplatelet therapy; DES, drug-eluting stent(s); GI, gastrointestinal; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; LOE, level of evidence; N/A, not applicable; NSAID, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; and PPI, proton pump inhibitor.

ing outweighs the anticipated benefit afforded by thienopyridine therapy, earlier discontinuation *should be considered*” as a Class I recommendation, although the language used, in part, was consistent with a Class IIa recommendation. To clarify the intent of the recommendation, as well as to acknowledge the inherent difficulties in weighing bleeding and stent thrombosis risks, the recommendation is designated a Class IIa recommendation, using the phrase “earlier discontinuation *is reasonable*.” Recommendations regarding P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor discontinuation before elective or urgent CABG are provided in the “2011 ACCF/AHA Guideline for Coronary Artery Bypass Graft Surgery” (824).

### 6.1.1. PPIs and Antiplatelet Therapy: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. PPIs should be used in patients with a history of prior gastrointestinal (GI) bleeding who require DAPT (794). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIa

1. Use of PPIs is reasonable in patients with an increased risk of GI bleeding (e.g., advanced age, concomitant use of warfarin, steroids, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, *Helicobacter pylori* infection) who require DAPT (794). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. Routine use of a PPI is not recommended for patients at low risk of GI bleeding, who have much less potential to benefit from prophylactic therapy (794). (Level of Evidence: C)

See *Online Data Supplement 31* for additional data regarding the clopidogrel–PPI interaction.

PPIs are often prescribed prophylactically when clopidogrel is started to prevent GI complications such as ulceration and bleeding due to DAPT (825). There is pharmacodynamic evidence that omeprazole interferes with clopidogrel metabolism (826,827), but there is no clear evidence implicating other PPIs. However, even with omeprazole, there are no convincing data supporting an important clinical drug–drug interaction (826). The FDA communication about an ongoing safety review of clopidogrel advises that healthcare providers avoid the use of clopidogrel in patients with impaired *CYP2C19* function due to known genetic variation or drugs that inhibit *CYP2C19* activity. The FDA notes that there is no evidence that other drugs that reduce stomach acid, such as histamine-2 receptor antagonists (except cimetidine) or antacids, interfere with clopidogrel responsiveness. The COGENT (Clopidogrel and the Optimization of Gastrointestinal Events) trial randomized patients with DAPT to clopidogrel and omeprazole or clopidogrel and placebo, and while there was no difference in cardiovascular events between the 2 groups, GI events were halved in those randomized to omeprazole (828). It is reasonable to carefully evaluate the indication for PPI therapy in patients treated with clopidogrel, based on the presence or absence of

the risk factors discussed above (794). The need for GI protection increases with the number of risk factors for bleeding. Prior upper GI bleeding is the strongest and most consistent risk factor for GI bleeding on antiplatelet therapy. Patients with ACS and prior upper GI bleeding are at substantial cardiovascular risk, so DAPT with concomitant use of a PPI may provide the optimal balance of risk and benefit. It should be noted that PPIs, by decreasing adverse GI effects related to clopidogrel, might decrease patients’ discontinuation of clopidogrel. In patients in whom there is a clear indication for PPI therapy, some clinicians may choose to use a PPI other than omeprazole.

### 6.1.2. Clopidogrel Genetic Testing: Recommendations

#### CLASS IIb

1. Genetic testing might be considered to identify whether a patient at high risk for poor clinical outcomes is predisposed to inadequate platelet inhibition with clopidogrel (829). (Level of Evidence: C)
2. When a patient predisposed to inadequate platelet inhibition with clopidogrel is identified by genetic testing, treatment with an alternate P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor (e.g., prasugrel or ticagrelor) might be considered (829). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. The routine clinical use of genetic testing to screen patients treated with clopidogrel who are undergoing PCI is not recommended (829). (Level of Evidence: C)

On March 12, 2010, the FDA approved a new label for clopidogrel with a “boxed warning” about the diminished effectiveness of clopidogrel in patients with impaired ability to convert the drug into its active metabolite (829). Patients with decreased *CYP2C19* function because of genetic polymorphisms metabolize clopidogrel poorly and have higher rates of cardiovascular events after ACS and PCI than patients with normal *CYP2C19* function. The warning also notes that tests are available to identify patients with genetic polymorphisms and that alternative treatment strategies should be considered for patients who are poor metabolizers. The clopidogrel boxed warning leaves the issue of whether to perform *CYP2C19* testing up to the individual physician. It does not specifically require genetic testing or other changes in evaluation or treatment and does not imply that there are solid evidence-based reasons for such actions. Rather, it serves to inform clinicians of genetic variations in response to clopidogrel and to emphasize that clinicians should use this knowledge to make decisions about how to treat individual patients. At the present time, the evidence base is insufficient to recommend routine genetic testing in patients undergoing PCI. There may be a potential role for genetic testing for patients undergoing elective high-risk PCI procedures (e.g., unprotected left main, bifurcating left main, or last patent coronary artery).

### 6.1.3. Platelet Function Testing: Recommendations

#### CLASS IIb

1. Platelet function testing may be considered in patients at high risk for poor clinical outcomes (829). (Level of Evidence: C)

2. In patients treated with clopidogrel with high platelet reactivity, alternative agents, such as prasugrel or ticagrelor, might be considered (829). (Level of Evidence: C)

**CLASS III: NO BENEFIT**

1. The routine clinical use of platelet function testing to screen patients treated with clopidogrel who are undergoing PCI is not recommended (829). (Level of Evidence: C)

Platelet function testing to tailor antiplatelet therapy has received considerable interest. The GRAVITAS (Gauging Responsiveness With A VerifyNow Assay–Impact On Thrombosis And Safety) trial and several other ongoing trials test the concept that tailoring antiplatelet therapy based on platelet responsiveness assessed in an ex vivo P2Y<sub>12</sub> assay will improve cardiovascular outcomes (830). In GRAVITAS, treatment with high-dose clopidogrel for 6 months in patients with high platelet reactivity on standard-dose clopidogrel was not beneficial. At the present time, the evidence base is insufficient to recommend routine platelet function testing. The results of 2 ongoing trials (DANTE [Dual Antiplatelet Therapy Tailored on the Extent of Platelet Inhibition] and ARCTIC [Double Randomization of a Monitoring Adjusted Antiplatelet Treatment Versus a Common Antiplatelet Treatment for DES Implantation, and Interruption Versus Continuation of Double Antiplatelet Therapy, One Year After Stenting]) will provide further information on the issue ([www.clinicaltrials.gov](http://www.clinicaltrials.gov)).

## 6.2. Stent Thrombosis

The majority of stent thrombosis occurs early (0 to 30 days after PCI). In broad clinical practice, the expected rate of early stent thrombosis is <1%, and beyond 30 days it is 0.2% to 0.6% per year (210,831). Acute stent thrombosis often presents as STEMI, and emergency revascularization is indicated. Acute stent thrombosis is associated with mortality rates of 20% to 45% (832). Survivors are also at risk of recurrent stent thrombosis (833).

Mechanical and pharmacological factors are the most frequent cause of acute stent thrombosis. After the usual measures to restore flow in the infarct-related artery, it is important to consider the etiology of stent thrombosis as it pertains to further therapy and avoidance of recurrence. IVUS may identify factors such as an undersized stent, incomplete stent apposition, residual stenosis, or dissection and can guide subsequent treatment. The most common cause of acute stent thrombosis is nonadherence to DAPT; however, resistance to aspirin or thienopyridines and prothrombotic states such as congenital or acquired thrombophilic states (malignancy) are additional risk factors (834,835).

Given the poor prognosis of stent thrombosis and the uncertainties surrounding treatment, the importance of prevention must be emphasized. This includes ensuring compliance with DAPT and adequate stent sizing and expansion (836).

## 6.3. Restenosis: Recommendations

**CLASS I**

1. Patients who develop clinical restenosis after balloon angioplasty should be treated with BMS or DES if anatomic factors are appropriate and if the patient is able to comply with and tolerate DAPT (837). (Level of Evidence: B)
2. Patients who develop clinical restenosis after BMS should be treated with DES if anatomic factors are appropriate and the patient is able to comply with and tolerate DAPT (838–840). (Level of Evidence: A)

**CLASS IIa**

1. IVUS is reasonable to determine the mechanism of stent restenosis (495). (Level of Evidence: C)

**CLASS IIb**

1. Patients who develop clinical restenosis after DES may be considered for repeat PCI with balloon angioplasty, BMS, or DES containing the same drug or an alternative antiproliferative drug if anatomic factors are appropriate and the patient is able to comply with and tolerate DAPT (495). (Level of Evidence: C)

### 6.3.1. Background and Incidence

After balloon angioplasty, mechanisms contributing to restenosis include smooth muscle cell migration and proliferation, platelet deposition, thrombus formation, elastic recoil, and negative arterial remodeling. Stents block elastic recoil and negative remodeling, and the predominant mechanism for restenosis after stent implantation is neointimal hyperplasia. Restenosis rates vary, depending on whether angiographic restenosis (defined as >50% diameter stenosis at follow-up angiography) or clinical restenosis (symptomatic and requiring target-lesion revascularization or target-vessel revascularization) is measured, as well as on patient characteristics, coronary anatomy considerations, and device type (balloon angioplasty, BMS, or DES). The incidence of angiographic restenosis rates for uncomplicated lesions treated in RCTs ranges from 32% to 42% after balloon angioplasty (463,464) and from 16% to 32% after BMS (463,464), and is generally <10% after DES (454,841). Less than half of patients with angiographic restenosis present with symptomatic, clinically relevant restenosis at 1-year follow-up, and a pooled analysis of 6,186 patients from 6 trials of BMS showed target-lesion revascularization was performed in 12% and target-vessel revascularization in 14% at 1 year (842,843). Patients with clinical restenosis typically present with recurrent exertional angina, but 5% to 10% of patients present with acute MI and 25% with UA (844,845).

Factors associated with an increased risk of restenosis in various models include clinical setting (STEMI, ACS, daily angina), patient characteristics (diabetes, age <55 to 60 years, prior PCI, male sex, multivessel CAD), lesion location (unprotected left main, SVG), and procedural characteristics (minimum stent diameter ≤2.5 mm, total stent length ≥40 mm) (778,846).

PCI strategies for treating restenosis after balloon angioplasty, BMS, and DES are reviewed in the following sections. In addition to repeat PCI, intensified medical therapy or CABG are often also reasonable strategies, dependent on initial treatment (e.g., balloon angioplasty, BMS), pattern of restenosis, likelihood of recurrent restenosis, ability to intensify medical therapy, suitability for CABG, and patient preference. Repeat PCI with BMS or DES is not appropriate if the patient is not able to comply with and tolerate DAPT.

### 6.3.2. Restenosis After Balloon Angioplasty

For clinical restenosis after balloon angioplasty, stent implantation is superior to repeat balloon angioplasty or atheroablation devices. The REST (REstenosis STent) study showed that target-lesion revascularization rates were 10% for stent-treated patients and 27% for balloon-treated patients ( $p=0.001$ ) (837).

### 6.3.3. Restenosis After BMS

In-stent restenosis is classified according to these angiographic characteristics: Pattern I includes focal lesions  $\leq 10$  mm in length; Pattern II is in-stent restenosis  $>10$  mm within the stent; Pattern III includes in-stent restenosis  $>10$  mm extending outside the stent; and Pattern IV is totally occluded in-stent restenosis (847). Treatment of in-stent restenosis with balloon angioplasty, repeat BMS, or atheroablation devices for Patterns I to IV resulted in 1-year target-lesion revascularization rates of 19%, 35%, 50%, and 83%, respectively. For clinical restenosis after BMS, repeat stenting with DES is preferred. Studies have demonstrated lower recurrent restenosis rates with DES compared with BMS or vascular brachytherapy (495,838–840).

### 6.3.4. Restenosis After DES

Clinical restenosis after placement of DES is becoming increasingly common due to the large numbers of patients who have been treated with DES. The predominant angiographic pattern for DES in-stent restenosis is focal ( $\leq 10$  mm in length). Several biologic, mechanical, and technical factors may contribute to DES in-stent restenosis, including drug resistance, hypersensitivity, stent underexpansion, stent strut fracture, nonuniform stent strut coverage, gap in stent coverage, and residual uncovered atherosclerotic lesion. IVUS might be considered to determine the cause for in-stent restenosis and help guide treatment strategy. Interventionists may treat focal DES restenosis with balloon angioplasty and treat nonfocal DES restenosis with BMS, CABG, or repeat DES with the same or an alternative antiproliferative drug (848,849). Small, observational cohort studies have demonstrated angiographic restenosis rates of 25% to 30% with repeat DES either with the same or an alternative drug (495,849,850). There are no RCTs, and the most appropriate treatment of restenosis of DES remains unknown.

## 6.4. Clinical Follow-Up

At the time of discharge, patients are instructed to contact their physician or seek immediate medical attention if symptoms recur. Most physicians will give the patient instructions on return to work and timing of return to full activities. The importance of strict compliance with aspirin and P2Y<sub>12</sub> inhibitor therapy is ideally emphasized to the patient at the time of discharge and during follow-up visits.

Secondary prevention measures after PCI are an essential part of long-term therapy, reducing both future morbidity and mortality associated with CAD, and are discussed in Section 6.5. A follow-up visit after PCI is usually scheduled to assess the patient's clinical status, the patient's compliance with secondary prevention therapies, and the success of secondary prevention measures (e.g., blood pressure control, low-density lipoprotein levels, smoking cessation). Routine, periodic stress testing of asymptomatic patients is not considered part of standard patient follow-up.

### 6.4.1. Exercise Testing: Recommendations

#### CLASS IIa

1. In patients entering a formal cardiac rehabilitation program after PCI, treadmill exercise testing is reasonable. (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. Routine periodic stress testing of asymptomatic patients after PCI without specific clinical indications should not be performed (795). (Level of Evidence: C)

Treadmill exercise testing before cardiac rehabilitation provides information about peak exercise capacity and heart rate, helping to stratify patients for the level of supervision during training, and seems reasonable for this purpose (851); nuclear imaging to assess ischemia in this context usually adds little.

The role of exercise testing to evaluate restenosis is much less certain. Although the presence of symptoms may not be a reliable means of detecting restenosis, there is no evidence that the detection of silent restenosis leads to improved outcome (852,853). Routine testing of all patients after PCI will also lead to many false-positive tests, particularly in the era of DES. As restenosis rates decline from 30% to 10%, the false-positive rate of stress imaging increases from 37% to 77% (854). A recent analysis of a national health insurance claims database and accompanying editorial find that stress testing after PCI is likely overused and rarely leads to repeat revascularization (855,856). In summary, there is no proven benefit or indication for routine periodic stress testing in patients after PCI, and, thus, it is not indicated (8,851). In cases in which there is a clear clinical indication for stress testing in a patient after PCI, exercise ECG alone is an insensitive predictor of restenosis (857,858); therefore, stress imaging is the preferred stress test (8). In cases of recurrent angina after PCI in which the pretest likelihood of restenosis is high and repeat revascularization based on symptoms is likely indicated, most

practitioners will proceed directly to cardiac catheterization rather than first obtain stress imaging.

#### 6.4.2. Activity and Return to Work

The timing of return to physical activity depends on the presenting condition as well as previous functional status. For STEMI, for example, daily walking is encouraged immediately, and driving can begin within 1 week after uncomplicated MI if allowed by local motor vehicle laws (859). Sexual activity usually can be resumed within days, provided exercise tolerance is adequate, normally assessed by the ability to climb a flight of stairs (859). Similar recommendations have been issued for UA/NSTEMI (860). Patients with UA who have undergone successful revascularization and are otherwise doing well may return to physical activity on an accelerated schedule, usually within a few days (860).

Return to work is more complex. Return to work rates after MI range from 63% to 94% and are confounded by factors such as job satisfaction, financial stability, and company policies (861). The physical demands and degree of stress of a particular job require that recommendations be individualized. In the PAMI-2 (Primary Angioplasty in Myocardial Infarction) trial, patients were encouraged to return to work 2 weeks after primary PCI for STEMI, and no adverse events were reported (862). In the RITA (Randomized Intervention Treatment of Angina) trial, revascularization with PCI led to earlier return to work compared with CABG, and subsequent employment rates were associated with relief of angina (105). Many practitioners use graded exercise treadmill testing to determine the safety of activity and return to work by measuring the metabolic equivalent of task (MET) level achieved and comparing that level to energy levels required to perform different activities (863).

#### 6.4.3. Cardiac Rehabilitation: Recommendation

##### CLASS I

1. Medically supervised exercise programs (cardiac rehabilitation) should be recommended to patients after PCI, particularly for moderate- to high-risk patients for whom supervised exercise training is warranted (796–804). (Level of Evidence: A)

Participation in cardiac rehabilitation is associated with significant reductions in all-cause mortality (OR: 0.80, 95% CI: 0.68 to 0.93) and cardiac mortality (796,797). Reports from community-based surveys, which in general enroll older and higher-risk patients than clinical trials, have confirmed that participation in comprehensive rehabilitation is independently associated with a reduction in recurrent MI and reduced mortality (799). Cardiac rehabilitation is also associated with improvements in exercise tolerance, cardiac symptoms, lipid levels, cigarette smoking cessation rates (in conjunction with a smoking cessation program), stress levels, improved medical regimen compliance, and improved psychosocial well-being (800). Cardiac rehabilitation is cost-effective as well (864). Physician referral may

be the most powerful predictor of patient participation in a cardiac rehabilitation program (865).

#### 6.5. Secondary Prevention

The treatment of the patient does not end with PCI; secondary prevention measures are a critical component of patient management. Important secondary prevention measures were presented in detail in the “2006 AHA/ACC Guidelines for Secondary Prevention for Patients With Coronary and Other Atherosclerotic Vascular Disease” (562) and have recently been updated in the “AHA/ACCF Secondary Prevention and Risk Reduction Therapy for Patients With Coronary and Other Vascular Disease: 2011 Update” (805). The reader is referred to this document for detailed discussions of secondary prevention. Among the important recommendations are the following:

- Lipid management with lifestyle modification (Class I; Level of Evidence: B) (805–807) and statin therapy are recommended. (Level of Evidence: A) (344,806,808–810,810a) An adequate statin dose should be employed which reduces low-density lipoprotein cholesterol to <100 mg/dL AND achieves at least a 30% lowering of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol. (Class I; Level of Evidence: C) (806–810,810a) It is reasonable to treat patients with statin therapy which lowers low-density lipoprotein cholesterol to <70 mg/dL in very high risk\* patients. (Class IIa; Level of Evidence: C) (345,808–810,810a,811,812) Patients who have triglycerides  $\geq$ 200 mg/dL should be treated with statins to lower non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol to <130 mg/dL. (Class I; Level of Evidence: B) (344,809,810,866) In patients who are very high risk\* and have triglycerides  $\geq$ 200 mg/dL, a non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol goal of <100 mg/dL is reasonable. (Class IIa; Level of Evidence: C) (344,809, 810,866)
- Blood pressure control with lifestyle modification (Class I; Level of Evidence: B) (813–817) and pharmacotherapy (Class I; Level of Evidence: A) (805,813, 818,819), with the goal of blood pressure <140/90 mm Hg.
- Diabetes management (e.g., lifestyle modification and pharmacotherapy), coordinated with the patient’s primary care physician and/or endocrinologist. (Class I; Level of Evidence: C) (805)
- Advising patients on the need for complete smoking cessation. (Class I; Level of Evidence: A) (805,820–823)

\*Presence of established cardiovascular disease plus 1) multiple major risk factors (especially diabetes), 2) severe and poorly controlled risk factors (especially continued cigarette smoking), 3) multiple risk factors of the metabolic syndrome (especially high triglycerides >200 mg/dL plus non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol >130 mg/dL with low high-density lipoprotein cholesterol [ $<$ 40 mg/dL]), and 4) acute coronary syndromes.

## 7. Quality and Performance Considerations

### 7.1. Quality and Performance: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. Every PCI program should operate a quality-improvement program that routinely 1) reviews quality and outcomes of the entire program; 2) reviews results of individual operators; 3) includes risk adjustment; 4) provides peer review of difficult or complicated cases; and 5) performs random case reviews. (Level of Evidence: C)
2. Every PCI program should participate in a regional or national PCI registry for the purpose of benchmarking its outcomes against current national norms. (Level of Evidence: C)

PCI quality and performance considerations are defined by attributes related to structure, processes, and risk-adjusted outcomes. Structural attributes include elements such as equipment, supplies, staffing, institutional and operator-level volumes, and the availability of electronic medical records. Processes include strategies for the appropriate patient, protocols for pre- and postprocedural care, appropriate procedural execution and management of complications, and participation in databases and registries for benchmarking performance of the program and individual operator. Risk-adjusted outcomes are the end result of these structures and processes of care, and when available are more reliable measures of quality than the institutional and individual operator volumes discussed in Section 7.4.

PCI process and outcomes assessments can be used for internal quality-improvement efforts and public reporting. Public reporting of institutional risk-adjusted outcomes is becoming more common. Although operator-level outcomes can be assessed and risk adjusted, the results are much less reliable due to lack of statistical power resulting from lower volumes. Any public reporting must use statistical methods that meet the high criteria established by the AHA Work Group (867).

### 7.2. Training

The cognitive knowledge and technical skill required to perform PCI continue to grow. Details on the training required for interventional cardiology are found in the most recent ACCF Core Cardiology Training Statement (868).

### 7.3. Certification and Maintenance of Certification: Recommendation

#### CLASS IIa

1. It is reasonable for all physicians who perform PCI to participate in the American Board of Internal Medicine interventional cardiology board certification and maintenance of certification program. (Level of Evidence: C)

The American Board of Internal Medicine established interventional cardiology board certification in 1999 as an “added qualification” to the cardiovascular disease board certification. Since 1990 all certificates from the American Board of Internal Medicine are time limited for a 10-year period and require all diplomats to participate in maintenance of certification to maintain their board-certified

status. Maintenance of certification in interventional cardiology requires physicians to document a minimum of 150 interventional cases over the 2 years before expiration of the current certification, complete self-assessment modules of their medical knowledge, participate in practice-based quality-improvement activities, and pass a secure, knowledge-based examination (869–871). For those who cannot meet the case volume requirement, an alternative option is to submit a log of 25 consecutive cases including patient characteristics and procedural outcomes. The maintenance of certification process is likely to change, as the American Board of Internal Medicine intends to evolve maintenance of certification from an episodic event that occurs once every 10 years to a more continuous process of continuous professional development.

### 7.4. Operator and Institutional Competency and Volume: Recommendations

#### CLASS I

1. Elective/urgent PCI should be performed by operators with an acceptable annual volume ( $\geq 75$  procedures) at high-volume centers ( $>400$  procedures) with on-site cardiac surgery (872,873). (Level of Evidence: C)
2. Elective/urgent PCI should be performed by operators and institutions whose current risk-adjusted outcomes statistics are comparable to those reported in contemporary national data registries. (Level of Evidence: C)
3. Primary PCI for STEMI should be performed by experienced operators who perform more than 75 elective PCI procedures per year and, ideally, at least 11 PCI procedures for STEMI per year. Ideally, these procedures should be performed in institutions that perform more than 400 elective PCIs per year and more than 36 primary PCI procedures for STEMI per year (872,874–877). (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIa

1. It is reasonable that operators with acceptable volume ( $\geq 75$  PCI procedures per year) perform elective/urgent PCI at low-volume centers (200 to 400 PCI procedures per year) with on-site cardiac surgery (872). (Level of Evidence: C)
2. It is reasonable that low-volume operators ( $<75$  PCI procedures per year) perform elective/urgent PCI at high-volume centers ( $>400$  PCI procedures per year) with on-site cardiac surgery. Ideally, operators with an annual procedure volume of fewer than 75 procedures per year should only work at institutions with an activity level of more than 600 procedures per year. Operators who perform fewer than 75 procedures per year should develop a defined mentoring relationship with a highly experienced operator who has an annual procedural volume of at least 150 procedures per year. (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS IIb

1. The benefit of primary PCI for STEMI patients eligible for fibrinolysis when performed by an operator who performs fewer than 75 procedures per year ( $<11$  PCIs for STEMI per year) is not well established. (Level of Evidence: C)

#### CLASS III: NO BENEFIT

1. It is not recommended that elective/urgent PCI be performed by low-volume operators ( $<75$  procedures per year) at low-volume

centers (200 to 400 procedures per year) with or without on-site cardiac surgery. An institution with a volume of fewer than 200 procedures per year, unless in a region that is underserved because of geography, should carefully consider whether it should continue to offer this service (872). (Level of Evidence: C)

Older observational evidence supported a volume-outcome relationship in PCI at both the institutional and operator level (873). However, this relationship is complicated and may be inconsistent across low-volume institutions or operators. More recent data on primary PCI suggest that operator experience may modify the volume-outcome relationship at the institutional level (876,878). Risk-adjusted outcomes remain preferable to institutional and individual operator volumes as quality measures.

Operator and hospital volume recommendations have been carried over from the 2005 PCI guideline. However, the writing committee recognizes that these volume recommendations are controversial. In addition, after extensive review of all relevant data, the writing committee believes that the LOE in support of all the above recommendations is best categorized as LOE C rather than LOE B as it has been in prior guidelines for some recommendations. We encourage the ACCF/AHA/ACP Clinical Competence and Training writing group for PCI and other expert writing groups to review this issue so that new recommendations can be considered by the next PCI guideline writing committee.

### 7.5. Participation in ACC NCDR or National Quality Database

Assessment of PCI quality and outcomes is important both at the level of the entire program and at the level of the individual physician. This requires collection of clinical and procedural data for PCI that allows regular comparison of risk-adjusted outcomes and complications with national benchmarks. The ACC NCDR CathPCI Registry is an example of a national registry to fulfill the goals of assessing and benchmarking quality and outcomes.

## 8. Future Challenges

Although this latest guideline reflects significant advancements in the field of PCI, there remain future challenges to the formulation and updating of guidelines for PCI. The proliferation of studies comparing the many newer drugs and devices with older therapies (or other newer therapies), often using different or novel study endpoints, endpoint definitions, and noninferiority designs, pose increasing challenges to objectively evaluating newer therapies and generating recommendations for their use. Numerous potential advances in the field of PCI, including intracoronary stem cell infusions for chronic and acute ischemic heart disease, designer drugs, novel intracoronary imaging technologies such as optical coherence tomography and virtual histology, new stent composition and designs (e.g., drug-eluting, biodegradable, bifurcation), and drug-eluting balloons were

considered for formal evaluation by the current writing committee, but it was thought that there were insufficient data at present to formulate any formal recommendations on these topics. These and other emerging technologies and treatments will need to be addressed in future PCI guidelines.

Finally, with this proliferation of new technology, the amount of data generated in the evaluation of these potential therapeutic advances will grow dramatically, adding significant challenges to future guideline generations. Of note, the Web site [www.clinicaltrials.gov](http://www.clinicaltrials.gov) currently lists several hundred PCI-related clinical trials.

## Staff

### *American College of Cardiology Foundation*

David R. Holmes, Jr., MD, FACC, President

John C. Lewin, MD, Chief Executive Officer

Janet Wright, MD, FACC, Senior Vice President,  
Science and Quality

Charlene May, Senior Director, Science and Clinical Policy

Erin A. Barrett, MPS, Senior Specialist, Science and  
Clinical Policy

### *American College of Cardiology Foundation/ American Heart Association*

Lisa Bradfield, CAE, Director, Science and Clinical Policy

Sue Keller, BSN, MPH, Senior Specialist, Evidence-Based  
Medicine

Jesse M. Welsh, Specialist, Science and Clinical Policy

Debjani Mukherjee, MPH, Associate Director,  
Evidence-Based Medicine

### *American Heart Association*

Ralph L. Sacco, MS, MD, FAAN, FAHA, President

Nancy Brown, Chief Executive Officer

Rose Marie Robertson, MD, FAHA, Chief Science Officer

Gayle R. Whitman, PhD, RN, FAHA, FAAN, Senior Vice  
President, Office of Science Operations

Mark D. Stewart, MPH, Science and Medicine Advisor,  
Office of Science and Medicine

## REFERENCES

1. ACCF/AHA Task Force on Practice Guidelines. Methodologies and Policies from the ACCF/AHA Task Force on Practice Guideline. Available at: [http://assets.cardiosource.com/Methodology\\_Manual\\_for\\_ACC\\_AHA\\_Writing\\_Committees.pdf](http://assets.cardiosource.com/Methodology_Manual_for_ACC_AHA_Writing_Committees.pdf) and <http://circ.ahajournals.org/site/manual/index.xhtml>. Accessed July 1, 2011.
2. Institute of Medicine. Clinical Practice Guidelines We Can Trust. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press, 2011.
3. Institute of Medicine. Finding What Works in Health Care: Standards for Systematic Reviews. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press, 2011.
4. Williams DO, Gruntzig A, Kent KM, et al. Guidelines for the performance of percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty. *Circulation*. 1982;66:693–4.
5. Guidelines for percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty. A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Assessment of Diagnostic and Therapeutic Cardiovascular Procedures (Subcommittee on Percutaneous Transluminal Coronary Angioplasty). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1988;12: 529–45.



6. Ryan TJ, Bauman WB, Kennedy JW, et al. Guidelines for percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty. A report of the American Heart Association/American College of Cardiology Task Force on Assessment of Diagnostic and Therapeutic Cardiovascular Procedures (Committee on Percutaneous Transluminal Coronary Angioplasty). *Circulation*. 1993;88:2987-3007.
7. Smith SC Jr., Dove JT, Jacobs AK, et al. ACC/AHA guidelines of percutaneous coronary interventions (revision of the 1993 PTCA guidelines). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2001;37:2215-39.
8. Smith SC Jr., Feldman TE, Hirshfeld JW Jr., et al. ACC/AHA/SCAI 2005 guideline update for percutaneous coronary intervention. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006;47:e1-121.
9. King SBI, Smith SC Jr., Hirshfeld JW Jr., et al. 2007 focused update of the ACC/AHA/SCAI 2005 guideline update for percutaneous coronary intervention. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;51:172-209.
10. Kushner FG, Hand M, Smith SC Jr., et al. 2009 focused updates: ACC/AHA guidelines for the management of patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction (updating the 2004 guideline and 2007 focused update) and ACC/AHA/SCAI guidelines on percutaneous coronary intervention (updating the 2005 guideline and 2007 focused update). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2009;54:2205-41.
11. Beller GA, Ragosta M. Decision making in multivessel coronary disease: the need for physiological lesion assessment. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2010;3:315-7.
12. Tonino PA, Fearon WF, De Bruyne B, et al. Angiographic versus functional severity of coronary artery stenoses in the FAME study fractional flow reserve versus angiography in multivessel evaluation. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:2816-21.
13. Morice MC, Serruys PW, Kappetein AP, et al. Outcomes in patients with de novo left main disease treated with either percutaneous coronary intervention using paclitaxel-eluting stents or coronary artery bypass graft treatment in the Synergy between Percutaneous Coronary Intervention with TAXUS and Cardiac Surgery (SYNTAX) trial. *Circulation*. 2010;121:2645-53.
14. Serruys PW, Morice MC, Kappetein AP, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention versus coronary-artery bypass grafting for severe coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;360:961-72.
15. Feit F, Brooks MM, Sopko G, et al., BARI Investigators. Long-term clinical outcome in the Bypass Angioplasty Revascularization Investigation Registry: comparison with the randomized trial. *Circulation*. 2000;101:2795-802.
16. King SBI, Barnhart HX, Kosinski AS, et al., Emory Angioplasty versus Surgery Trial Investigators. Angioplasty or surgery for multivessel coronary artery disease: comparison of eligible registry and randomized patients in the EAST trial and influence of treatment selection on outcomes. *Am J Cardiol*. 1997;79:1453-9.
17. Chakravarty T, Buch MH, Naik H, et al. Predictive accuracy of SYNTAX score for predicting long-term outcomes of unprotected left main coronary artery revascularization. *Am J Cardiol*. 2011;107:360-6.
18. Grover FL, Shroyer AL, Hammermeister K, et al. A decade's experience with quality improvement in cardiac surgery using the Veterans Affairs and Society of Thoracic Surgeons national databases. *Ann Surg*. 2001;234:464-72.
19. Kim YH, Park DW, Kim WJ, et al. Validation of SYNTAX (Synergy between PCI with TAXUS and Cardiac Surgery) score for prediction of outcomes after unprotected left main coronary revascularization. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2010;3:612-23.
20. Shahian DM, O'Brien SM, Filardo G, et al. The Society of Thoracic Surgeons 2008 cardiac surgery risk models: part 1—coronary artery bypass grafting surgery. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2009;88 1 Suppl:S2-22.
21. Shahian DM, O'Brien SM, Normand SL, et al. Association of hospital coronary artery bypass volume with processes of care, mortality, morbidity, and the Society of Thoracic Surgeons composite quality score. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2010;139:273-82.
22. Welke KF, Peterson ED, Vaughan-Sarrazin MS, et al. Comparison of cardiac surgery volumes and mortality rates between the Society of Thoracic Surgeons and Medicare databases from 1993 through 2001. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2007;84:1538-46.
23. Buszman PE, Kiesz SR, Bochenek A, et al. Acute and late outcomes of unprotected left main stenting in comparison with surgical revascularization. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;51:538-45.
24. Caracciolo EA, Davis KB, Sopko G, et al. Comparison of surgical and medical group survival in patients with left main coronary artery disease. Long-term CASS experience. *Circulation*. 1995;91:2325-34.
25. Chaitman BR, Fisher LD, Bourassa MG, et al. Effect of coronary bypass surgery on survival patterns in subsets of patients with left main coronary artery disease. Report of the Collaborative Study in Coronary Artery Surgery (CASS). *Am J Cardiol*. 1981;48:765-77.
26. Dzavik V, Ghali WA, Norris C, et al. Long-term survival in 11,661 patients with multivessel coronary artery disease in the era of stenting: a report from the Alberta Provincial Project for Outcome Assessment in Coronary Heart Disease (APPROACH) Investigators. *Am Heart J*. 2001;142:119-26.
27. Takaro T, Hultgren HN, Lipton MJ, et al. The VA cooperative randomized study of surgery for coronary arterial occlusive disease II. Subgroup with significant left main lesions. *Circulation*. 1976;54:III107-17.
28. Takaro T, Peduzzi P, Detre KM, et al. Survival in subgroups of patients with left main coronary artery disease. Veterans Administration Cooperative Study of Surgery for Coronary Arterial Occlusive Disease. *Circulation*. 1982;66:14-22.
29. Taylor HA, Deumite NJ, Chaitman BR, et al. Asymptomatic left main coronary artery disease in the Coronary Artery Surgery Study (CASS) registry. *Circulation*. 1989;79:1171-9.
30. Yusuf S, Zucker D, Peduzzi P, et al. Effect of coronary artery bypass graft surgery on survival: overview of 10-year results from randomised trials by the Coronary Artery Bypass Graft Surgery Trialists Collaboration. *Lancet*. 1994;344:563-70.
31. Capodanno D, Caggigi A, Miano M, et al. Global risk classification and Clinical SYNTAX (Synergy between Percutaneous Coronary Intervention with TAXUS and Cardiac Surgery) score in patients undergoing percutaneous or surgical left main revascularization. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2011;4:287-97.
32. Hannan EL, Wu C, Walford G, et al. Drug-eluting stents vs coronary-artery bypass grafting in multivessel coronary disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;358:331-41.
33. Ellis SG, Tamai H, Nobuyoshi M, et al. Contemporary percutaneous treatment of unprotected left main coronary stenoses: initial results from a multicenter registry analysis 1994-1996. *Circulation*. 1997;96:3867-72.
34. Biondi-Zoccai GG, Lotrionte M, Moretti C, et al. A collaborative systematic review and meta-analysis on 1278 patients undergoing percutaneous drug-eluting stenting for unprotected left main coronary artery disease. *Am Heart J*. 2008;155:274-83.
35. Boudriot E, Thiele H, Walther T, et al. Randomized comparison of percutaneous coronary intervention with sirolimus-eluting stents versus coronary artery bypass grafting in unprotected left main stem stenosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2011;57:538-45.
36. Brener SJ, Galla JM, Bryant RI, et al. Comparison of percutaneous versus surgical revascularization of severe unprotected left main coronary stenosis in matched patients. *Am J Cardiol*. 2008;101:169-72.
37. Chieffo A, Magni V, Latib A, et al. 5-year outcomes following percutaneous coronary intervention with drug-eluting stent implantation versus coronary artery bypass graft for unprotected left main coronary artery lesions: the Milan experience. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2010;3:595-601.
38. Chieffo A, Morici N, Maisano F, et al. Percutaneous treatment with drug-eluting stent implantation versus bypass surgery for unprotected left main stenosis: a single-center experience. *Circulation*. 2006;113:2542-7.
39. Lee MS, Kapoor N, Jamal F, et al. Comparison of coronary artery bypass surgery with percutaneous coronary intervention with drug-eluting stents for unprotected left main coronary artery disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006;47:864-70.
40. Makikallio TH, Niemela M, Kervinen K, et al. Coronary angioplasty in drug eluting stent era for the treatment of unprotected left main stenosis compared to coronary artery bypass grafting. *Ann Med*. 2008;40:437-43.
41. Naik H, White AJ, Chakravarty T, et al. A meta-analysis of 3,773 patients treated with percutaneous coronary intervention or surgery for unprotected left main coronary artery stenosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2009;2:739-47.
42. Palmerini T, Marzocchi A, Marzocchini C, et al. Comparison between coronary angioplasty and coronary artery bypass surgery for the

- treatment of unprotected left main coronary artery stenosis (the Bologna Registry). *Am J Cardiol.* 2006;98:54-9.
43. Park DW, Seung KB, Kim YH, et al. Long-term safety and efficacy of stenting versus coronary artery bypass grafting for unprotected left main coronary artery disease: 5-year results from the MAIN-COMPARE (Revascularization for Unprotected Left Main Coronary Artery Stenosis: Comparison of Percutaneous Coronary Angioplasty Versus Surgical Revascularization) registry. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;56:117-24.
  44. Rodes-Cabau J, Deblois J, Bertrand OF, et al. Nonrandomized comparison of coronary artery bypass surgery and percutaneous coronary intervention for the treatment of unprotected left main coronary artery disease in octogenarians. *Circulation.* 2008;118:2374-81.
  45. Sanmartin M, Baz JA, Claro R, et al. Comparison of drug-eluting stents versus surgery for unprotected left main coronary artery disease. *Am J Cardiol.* 2007;100:970-3.
  46. Kappetein AP, Mohr FW, Feldman TE, et al. Comparison of coronary bypass surgery with drug-eluting stenting for the treatment of left main and/or three-vessel disease: 3-year follow-up of the SYNTAX trial. *Eur Heart J.* 2011;17:2125-34.
  47. Seung KB, Park DW, Kim YH, et al. Stents versus coronary-artery bypass grafting for left main coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med.* 2008;358:1781-92.
  48. White AJ, Kedia G, Mirocha JM, et al. Comparison of coronary artery bypass surgery and percutaneous drug-eluting stent implantation for treatment of left main coronary artery stenosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2008;1:236-45.
  49. Montalescot G, Brieger D, Eagle KA, et al. Unprotected left main revascularization in patients with acute coronary syndromes. *Eur Heart J.* 2009;30:2308-17.
  50. Lee MS, Tseng CH, Barker CM, et al. Outcome after surgery and percutaneous intervention for cardiogenic shock and left main disease. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2008;86:29-34.
  51. Lee MS, Bokhoo P, Park SJ, et al. Unprotected left main coronary disease and ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: a contemporary review and argument for percutaneous coronary intervention. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2010;3:791-5.
  52. Park SJ, Kim YH, Park DW, et al. Randomized Trial of Stents versus Bypass Surgery for Left Main Coronary Artery Disease. *N Engl J Med.* 2011;364:1718-27.
  53. Jones RH, Kesler K, Phillips HR III, et al. Long-term survival benefits of coronary artery bypass grafting and percutaneous transluminal angioplasty in patients with coronary artery disease. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 1996;111:1013-25.
  54. Myers WO, Schaff HV, Gersh BJ, et al. Improved survival of surgically treated patients with triple vessel coronary artery disease and severe angina pectoris. A report from the Coronary Artery Surgery Study (CASS) registry. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 1989;97:487-95.
  55. Varnauskas E. Twelve-year follow-up of survival in the randomized European Coronary Surgery Study. *N Engl J Med.* 1988;319:332-7.
  56. Smith PK, Califf RM, Tuttle RH, et al. Selection of surgical or percutaneous coronary intervention provides differential longevity benefit. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2006;82:1420-8.
  57. Borger van der Burg AE, Bax JJ, Boersma E, et al. Impact of percutaneous coronary intervention or coronary artery bypass grafting on outcome after nonfatal cardiac arrest outside the hospital. *Am J Cardiol.* 2003;91:785-9.
  58. Every NR, Fahrenbruch CE, Hallstrom AP, et al. Influence of coronary bypass surgery on subsequent outcome of patients resuscitated from out of hospital cardiac arrest. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1992;19:1435-9.
  59. Kaiser GA, Ghahramani A, Bolooki H, et al. Role of coronary artery surgery in patients surviving unexpected cardiac arrest. *Surgery.* 1975;78:749-54.
  60. Di Carli MF, Maddahi J, Rokhsar S, et al. Long-term survival of patients with coronary artery disease and left ventricular dysfunction: implications for the role of myocardial viability assessment in management decisions. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 1998;116:997-1004.
  61. Hachamovitch R, Hayes SW, Friedman JD, et al. Comparison of the short-term survival benefit associated with revascularization compared with medical therapy in patients with no prior coronary artery disease undergoing stress myocardial perfusion single photon emission computed tomography. *Circulation.* 2003;107:2900-7.
  62. Sorajja P, Chareonthaitawee P, Rajagopalan N, et al. Improved survival in asymptomatic diabetic patients with high-risk SPECT imaging treated with coronary artery bypass grafting. *Circulation.* 2005;112:I311-6.
  63. Davies RF, Goldberg AD, Forman S, et al. Asymptomatic Cardiac Ischemia Pilot (ACIP) study two-year follow-up: outcomes of patients randomized to initial strategies of medical therapy versus revascularization. *Circulation.* 1997;95:2037-43.
  64. Alderman EL, Fisher LD, Litwin P, et al. Results of coronary artery surgery in patients with poor left ventricular function (CASS). *Circulation.* 1983;68:785-95.
  65. O'Connor CM, Velazquez EJ, Gardner LH, et al. Comparison of coronary artery bypass grafting versus medical therapy on long-term outcome in patients with ischemic cardiomyopathy (a 25-year experience from the Duke Cardiovascular Disease Databank). *Am J Cardiol.* 2002;90:101-7.
  66. Phillips HR, O'Connor CM, Rogers J. Revascularization for heart failure. *Am Heart J.* 2007;153:65-73.
  67. Tarakji KG, Brunken R, McCarthy PM, et al. Myocardial viability testing and the effect of early intervention in patients with advanced left ventricular systolic dysfunction. *Circulation.* 2006;113:230-7.
  68. Tsuyuki RT, Shrive FM, Galbraith PD, et al. Revascularization in patients with heart failure. *CMAJ.* 2006;175:361-5.
  69. Cameron A, Davis KB, Green G, et al. Coronary bypass surgery with internal-thoracic-artery grafts—effects on survival over a 15-year period. *N Engl J Med.* 1996;334:216-9.
  70. Loop FD, Lytle BW, Cosgrove DM, et al. Influence of the internal-mammary-artery graft on 10-year survival and other cardiac events. *N Engl J Med.* 1986;314:1-6.
  71. Brener SJ, Lytle BW, Casserly IP, et al. Propensity analysis of long-term survival after surgical or percutaneous revascularization in patients with multivessel coronary artery disease and high-risk features. *Circulation.* 2004;109:2290-5.
  72. Hannan EL, Racz MJ, Walford G, et al. Long-term outcomes of coronary-artery bypass grafting versus stent implantation. *N Engl J Med.* 2005;352:2174-83.
  73. Deleted in proof.
  74. The BARI Investigators. Influence of diabetes on 5-year mortality and morbidity in a randomized trial comparing CABG and PTCA in patients with multivessel disease: the Bypass Angioplasty Revascularization Investigation (BARI). *Circulation.* 1997;96:1761-9.
  75. The BARI Investigators. The final 10-year follow-up results from the BARI randomized trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2007;49:1600-6.
  76. Banning AP, Westaby S, Morice MC, et al. Diabetic and nondiabetic patients with left main and/or 3-vessel coronary artery disease: comparison of outcomes with cardiac surgery and paclitaxel-eluting stents. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;55:1067-75.
  77. Hoffman SN, TenBrook JA, Wolf MP, et al. A meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials comparing coronary artery bypass graft with percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty: one- to eight-year outcomes. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2003;41:1293-304.
  78. Hueb W, Lopes NH, Gersh BJ, et al. Five-year follow-up of the Medicine, Angioplasty, or Surgery Study (MASS II): a randomized controlled clinical trial of 3 therapeutic strategies for multivessel coronary artery disease. *Circulation.* 2007;115:1082-9.
  79. Malenka DJ, Leavitt BJ, Hearne MJ, et al. Comparing long-term survival of patients with multivessel coronary disease after CABG or PCI: analysis of BARI-like patients in northern New England. *Circulation.* 2005;112:I371-6.
  80. Niles NW, McGrath PD, Malenka D, et al. Northern New England Cardiovascular Disease Study Group. Survival of patients with diabetes and multivessel coronary artery disease after surgical or percutaneous coronary revascularization: results of a large regional prospective study. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2001;37:1008-15.
  81. Weintraub WS, Stein B, Kosinski A, et al. Outcome of coronary bypass surgery versus coronary angioplasty in diabetic patients with multivessel coronary artery disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1998;31:10-9.
  82. Boden WE, O'Rourke RA, Teo KK, et al. Optimal medical therapy with or without PCI for stable coronary disease. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;356:1503-16.

83. Bonow RO, Maurer G, Lee KL, et al. Myocardial viability and survival in ischemic left ventricular dysfunction. *N Engl J Med.* 2011;364:1617-25.
84. Velazquez EJ, Lee KL, DeJa MA, et al. Coronary artery bypass surgery in patients with left ventricular dysfunction. *N Engl J Med.* 2011;364:1607-16.
85. Brener SJ, Lytle BW, Casserly IP, et al. Predictors of revascularization method and long-term outcome of percutaneous coronary intervention or repeat coronary bypass surgery in patients with multivessel coronary disease and previous coronary bypass surgery. *Eur Heart J.* 2006;27:413-8.
86. Gurfinkel EP, Perez de la Hoz R, Brito VM, et al. Invasive vs non-invasive treatment in acute coronary syndromes and prior bypass surgery. *Int J Cardiol.* 2007;119:65-72.
87. Lytle BW, Loop FD, Taylor PC, et al. The effect of coronary reoperation on the survival of patients with stenoses in saphenous vein bypass grafts to coronary arteries. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 1993;105:605-12.
88. Morrison DA, Sethi G, Sacks J, et al., Investigators of the Department of Veterans Affairs Cooperative Study #385, the Angina With Extremely Serious Operative Mortality Evaluation (AWESOME). Percutaneous coronary intervention versus coronary artery bypass graft surgery for patients with medically refractory myocardial ischemia and risk factors for adverse outcomes with bypass: a multicenter, randomized trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2001;38:143-9.
89. Pfautsch P, Frantz E, Ellmer A, et al. [Long-term outcome of therapy of recurrent myocardial ischemia after surgical revascularization]. *Z Kardiol.* 1999;88:489-97.
90. Sergeant P, Blackstone E, Meyns B, et al. First cardiologic or cardio-surgical reintervention for ischemic heart disease after primary coronary artery bypass grafting. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg.* 1998;14:480-7.
91. Stephan WJ, O'Keefe JH Jr., Piehler JM, et al. Coronary angioplasty versus repeat coronary artery bypass grafting for patients with previous bypass surgery. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1996;28:1140-6.
92. Subramanian S, Sabik JFI, Houghtaling PL, et al. Decision-making for patients with patent left internal thoracic artery grafts to left anterior descending. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2009;87:1392-8.
93. Weintraub WS, Jones EL, Morris DC, et al. Outcome of reoperative coronary bypass surgery versus coronary angioplasty after previous bypass surgery. *Circulation.* 1997;95:868-77.
94. Shaw LJ, Berman DS, Maron DJ, et al. Optimal medical therapy with or without percutaneous coronary intervention to reduce ischemic burden: results from the Clinical Outcomes Utilizing Revascularization and Aggressive Drug Evaluation (COURAGE) trial nuclear substudy. *Circulation.* 2008;117:1283-91.
95. Cashin WL, Sanmarco ME, Nessim SA, et al. Accelerated progression of atherosclerosis in coronary vessels with minimal lesions that are bypassed. *N Engl J Med.* 1984;824-8.
96. Pijls NH, De Bruyne B, Peels K, et al. Measurement of fractional flow reserve to assess the functional severity of coronary-artery stenoses. *N Engl J Med.* 1996;334:1703-8.
97. Tonino PA, De Bruyne B, Pijls NH, et al. Fractional flow reserve versus angiography for guiding percutaneous coronary intervention. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;360:213-24.
98. Sawada S, Bapat A, Vaz D, et al. Incremental value of myocardial viability for prediction of long-term prognosis in surgically revascularized patients with left ventricular dysfunction. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2003;42:2099-105.
99. Trial of invasive versus medical therapy in elderly patients with chronic symptomatic coronary-artery disease (TIME): a randomised trial. *Lancet.* 2001;358:951-7.
100. Benzer W, Hofer S, Oldridge NB. Health-related quality of life in patients with coronary artery disease after different treatments for angina in routine clinical practice. *Herz.* 2003;28:421-8.
101. Bonaros N, Schachner T, Ohlinger A, et al. Assessment of health-related quality of life after coronary revascularization. *Heart Surg Forum.* 2005;8:E380-5.
102. Bucher HC, Hengstler P, Schindler C, et al. Percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty versus medical treatment for non-acute coronary heart disease: meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *BMJ.* 2000;321:73-7.
103. Favarato ME, Hueb W, Boden WE, et al. Quality of life in patients with symptomatic multivessel coronary artery disease: a comparative post hoc analyses of medical, angioplasty or surgical strategies—MASS II trial. *Int J Cardiol.* 2007;116:364-70.
104. Hueb W, Lopes N, Gersh BJ, et al. Ten-year follow-up survival of the Medicine, Angioplasty, or Surgery Study (MASS II): a randomized controlled clinical trial of 3 therapeutic strategies for multivessel coronary artery disease. *Circulation.* 2010;122:949-57.
105. Pocock SJ, Henderson RA, Seed P, et al. Quality of life, employment status, and anginal symptoms after coronary angioplasty or bypass surgery. 3-year follow-up in the Randomized Intervention Treatment of Angina (RITA) Trial. *Circulation.* 1996;94:135-42.
106. Pocock SJ, Henderson RA, Clayton T, et al. Quality of life after coronary angioplasty or continued medical treatment for angina: three-year follow-up in the RITA-2 trial. *Randomized Intervention Treatment of Angina. J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2000;35:907-14.
107. Weintraub WS, Spertus JA, Kolm P, et al. Effect of PCI on quality of life in patients with stable coronary disease. *N Engl J Med.* 2008;359:677-87.
108. Wijesundera HC, Nallamothu BK, Krumholz HM, et al. Meta-analysis: effects of percutaneous coronary intervention versus medical therapy on angina relief. *Ann Intern Med.* 2010;152:370-9.
109. Schofield PM, Sharples LD, Caine N, et al. Transmyocardial laser revascularisation in patients with refractory angina: a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet.* 1999;353:519-24.
110. Aaberge L, Nordstrand K, Dragsund M, et al. Transmyocardial revascularization with CO2 laser in patients with refractory angina pectoris. Clinical results from the Norwegian randomized trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2000;35:1170-7.
111. Burkhoff D, Schmidt S, Schulman SP, et al., ATLANTIC Investigators. Transmyocardial laser revascularisation compared with continued medical therapy for treatment of refractory angina pectoris: a prospective randomised trial. *Angina Treatments-Lasers and Normal Therapies in Comparison. Lancet.* 1999;354:885-90.
112. Allen KB, Dowling RD, DelRossi AJ, et al. Transmyocardial laser revascularization combined with coronary artery bypass grafting: a multicenter, blinded, prospective, randomized, controlled trial. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg.* 2000;119:540-9.
113. Stamou SC, Boyce SW, Cooke RH, et al. One-year outcome after combined coronary artery bypass grafting and transmyocardial laser revascularization for refractory angina pectoris. *Am J Cardiol.* 2002;89:1365-8.
114. The VA Coronary Artery Bypass Surgery Cooperative Study Group. Eighteen-year follow-up in the Veterans Affairs Cooperative Study of Coronary Artery Bypass Surgery for stable angina. *Circulation.* 1992;86:121-30.
115. Passamani E, Davis KB, Gillespie MJ, et al. A randomized trial of coronary artery bypass surgery. Survival of patients with a low ejection fraction. *N Engl J Med.* 1985;312:1665-71.
116. Frye RL, August P, Brooks MM, et al. A randomized trial of therapies for type 2 diabetes and coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;360:2503-15.
117. Al Suwaidi J, Holmes DR Jr., Salam AM, et al. Impact of coronary artery stents on mortality and nonfatal myocardial infarction: meta-analysis of randomized trials comparing a strategy of routine stenting with that of balloon angioplasty. *Am Heart J.* 2004;147:815-22.
118. Brophy JM, Belisle P, Joseph L. Evidence for use of coronary stents. A hierarchical bayesian meta-analysis. *Ann Intern Med.* 2003;138:777-86.
119. Trikalinos TA, Alsheikh-Ali AA, Tatsioni A, et al. Percutaneous coronary interventions for non-acute coronary artery disease: a quantitative 20-year synopsis and a network meta-analysis. *Lancet.* 2009;373:911-8.
120. Kastrati A, Mehilli J, Pache J, et al. Analysis of 14 trials comparing sirolimus-eluting stents with bare-metal stents. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;356:1030-9.
121. Cecil WT, Kasteridis P, Barnes JW Jr., et al. A meta-analysis update: percutaneous coronary interventions. *Am J Manag Care.* 2008;14:521-8.
122. Katritsis DG, Ioannidis JP. Percutaneous coronary intervention versus conservative therapy in nonacute coronary artery disease: a meta-analysis. *Circulation.* 2005;111:2906-12.
123. Schomig A, Mehilli J, de Waha A, et al. A meta-analysis of 17 randomized trials of a percutaneous coronary intervention-based strategy in patients with stable coronary artery disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2008;52:894-904.

124. Katritsis DG, Ioannidis JP. PCI for stable coronary disease. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357:414-5.
125. Hambrecht R, Walther C, Mobius-Winkler S, et al. Percutaneous coronary angioplasty compared with exercise training in patients with stable coronary artery disease: a randomized trial. *Circulation.* 2004;109:1371-8.
126. Pitt B, Waters D, Brown WV, et al., Atorvastatin versus Revascularization Treatment Investigators. Aggressive lipid-lowering therapy compared with angioplasty in stable coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med.* 1999;341:70-6.
127. Deleted in proof.
128. The RITA Investigators. Coronary angioplasty versus coronary artery bypass surgery: the Randomized Intervention Treatment of Angina (RITA) trial. *Lancet.* 1993;341:573-80.
129. CABRI Trial Participants. First-year results of CABRI (Coronary Angioplasty versus Bypass Revascularisation Investigation). *Lancet.* 1995;346:1179-84.
130. The Bypass Angioplasty Revascularization Investigation (BARI) Investigators. Comparison of coronary bypass surgery with angioplasty in patients with multivessel disease. *N Engl J Med.* 1996;335:217-25.
131. Writing Group for the Bypass Angioplasty Revascularization Investigation (BARI) Investigators. Five-year clinical and functional outcome comparing bypass surgery and angioplasty in patients with multivessel coronary disease. A multicenter randomized trial. *JAMA.* 1997;277:715-21.
132. Carrie D, Elbaz M, Puel J, et al. Five-year outcome after coronary angioplasty versus bypass surgery in multivessel coronary artery disease: results from the French Monocentric Study. *Circulation.* 1997;96:II6.
133. Goy JJ, Eeckhout E, Burnand B, et al. Coronary angioplasty versus left internal mammary artery grafting for isolated proximal left anterior descending artery stenosis. *Lancet.* 1994;343:1449-53.
134. Goy JJ, Eeckhout E, Moret C, et al. Five-year outcome in patients with isolated proximal left anterior descending coronary artery stenosis treated by angioplasty or left internal mammary artery grafting. A prospective trial. *Circulation.* 1999;99:3255-9.
135. Hamm CW, Reimers J, Ischinger T, et al. A randomized study of coronary angioplasty compared with bypass surgery in patients with symptomatic multivessel coronary disease. German Angioplasty Bypass Surgery Investigation (GABI). *N Engl J Med.* 1994;331:1037-43.
136. Henderson RA, Pocock SJ, Sharp SJ, et al. Long-term results of RITA-1 trial: clinical and cost comparisons of coronary angioplasty and coronary-artery bypass grafting. *Randomised Intervention Treatment of Angina. Lancet.* 1998;352:1419-25.
137. Hueb WA, Soares PR, Almeida De Oliveira S, et al. Five-year follow-up of the medicine, angioplasty, or surgery study (MASS): a prospective, randomized trial of medical therapy, balloon angioplasty, or bypass surgery for single proximal left anterior descending coronary artery stenosis. *Circulation.* 1999;100:III107-13.
138. King SBI, Lembo NJ, Weintraub WS, et al. A randomized trial comparing coronary angioplasty with coronary bypass surgery. Emory Angioplasty versus Surgery Trial (EAST). *N Engl J Med.* 1994;331:1044-50.
139. King SBI, Kosinski AS, Guyton RA, et al. Eight-year mortality in the Emory Angioplasty versus Surgery Trial (EAST). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2000;35:1116-21.
140. Rodriguez A, Bouillon F, Perez-Balino N, et al., ERACI Group. Argentine randomized trial of percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty versus coronary artery bypass surgery in multivessel disease (ERACI): in-hospital results and 1-year follow-up. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1993;22:1060-7.
141. Rodriguez A, Mele E, Peyregne E, et al. Three-year follow-up of the Argentine Randomized Trial of Percutaneous Transluminal Coronary Angioplasty Versus Coronary Artery Bypass Surgery in Multivessel Disease (ERACI). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1996;27:1178-84.
142. Wahrborg P. Quality of life after coronary angioplasty or bypass surgery. 1-year follow-up in the Coronary Angioplasty versus Bypass Revascularization investigation (CABRI) trial. *Eur Heart J.* 1999;20:653-8.
143. The SoS Investigators. Coronary artery bypass surgery versus percutaneous coronary intervention with stent implantation in patients with multivessel coronary artery disease (the Stent or Surgery trial): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2002;360:965-70.
144. Cisowski M, Drzewiecki J, Drzewiecka-Gerber A, et al. Primary stenting versus MIDCAB: preliminary report-comparison of two methods of revascularization in single left anterior descending coronary artery stenosis. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2002;74:S1334-9.
145. Cisowski M, Drzewiecka-Gerber A, Ulczok R, et al. Primary direct stenting versus endoscopic atraumatic coronary artery bypass surgery in patients with proximal stenosis of the left anterior descending coronary artery—a prospective, randomised study. *Kardiol Pol.* 2004;61:253-61.
146. Diegeler A, Thiele H, Falk V, et al. Comparison of stenting with minimally invasive bypass surgery for stenosis of the left anterior descending coronary artery. *N Engl J Med.* 2002;347:561-6.
147. Drenth DJ, Veeger NJ, Winter JB, et al. A prospective randomized trial comparing stenting with off-pump coronary surgery for high-grade stenosis in the proximal left anterior descending coronary artery: three-year follow-up. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2002;40:1955-60.
148. Drenth DJ, Veeger NJ, Middel B, et al. Comparison of late (four years) functional health status between percutaneous transluminal angioplasty intervention and off-pump left internal mammary artery bypass grafting for isolated high-grade narrowing of the proximal left anterior descending coronary artery. *Am J Cardiol.* 2004;94:1414-7.
149. Eefting F, Nathoe H, van Dijk D, et al. Randomized comparison between stenting and off-pump bypass surgery in patients referred for angioplasty. *Circulation.* 2003;108:2870-6.
150. Goy JJ, Kaufmann U, Goy-Eggenberger D, et al. A prospective randomized trial comparing stenting to internal mammary artery grafting for proximal, isolated de novo left anterior coronary artery stenosis: the SIMA trial. Stenting vs Internal Mammary Artery. *Mayo Clin Proc.* 2000;75:1116-23.
151. Hueb W, Soares PR, Gersh BJ, et al. The medicine, angioplasty, or surgery study (MASS-II): a randomized, controlled clinical trial of three therapeutic strategies for multivessel coronary artery disease: one-year results. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2004;43:1743-51.
152. Kim JW, Lim DS, Sun K, et al. Stenting or MIDCAB using ministernotomy for revascularization of proximal left anterior descending artery? *Int J Cardiol.* 2005;99:437-41.
153. Pohl T, Giehl W, Reichart B, et al. Retroinfusion-supported stenting in high-risk patients for percutaneous intervention and bypass surgery: results of the prospective randomized myoprotect I study. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2004;62:323-30.
154. Reeves BC, Angelini GD, Bryan AJ, et al. A multi-centre randomised controlled trial of minimally invasive direct coronary bypass grafting versus percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty with stenting for proximal stenosis of the left anterior descending coronary artery. *Health Technol Assess.* 2004;8:1-43.
155. Rodriguez A, Bernardi V, Navia J, et al., ERACI II Investigators. Argentine randomized study: coronary angioplasty with stenting versus coronary bypass surgery in patients with multiple-vessel disease (ERACI II): 30-day and one-year follow-up results. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2001;37:51-8.
156. Rodriguez AE, Baldi J, Fernandez PC, et al. Five-year follow-up of the Argentine randomized trial of coronary angioplasty with stenting versus coronary bypass surgery in patients with multiple vessel disease (ERACI II). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2005;46:582-8.
157. Serruys PW, Unger F, Sousa JE, et al. Comparison of coronary-artery bypass surgery and stenting for the treatment of multivessel disease. *N Engl J Med.* 2001;344:1117-24.
158. Serruys PW, Ong AT, van Herwerden LA, et al. Five-year outcomes after coronary stenting versus bypass surgery for the treatment of multivessel disease: the final analysis of the Arterial Revascularization Therapies Study (ARTS) randomized trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2005;46:575-81.
159. Stroupe KT, Morrison DA, Hlatky MA, et al. Cost-effectiveness of coronary artery bypass grafts versus percutaneous coronary intervention for revascularization of high-risk patients. *Circulation.* 2006;114:1251-7.
160. Thiele H, Oettel S, Jacobs S, et al. Comparison of bare-metal stenting with minimally invasive bypass surgery for stenosis of the left anterior descending coronary artery: a 5-year follow-up. *Circulation.* 2005;112:3445-50.
161. Hong SJ, Lim DS, Seo HS, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention with drug-eluting stent implantation vs. minimally invasive direct coronary artery bypass (MIDCAB) in patients with left anterior

- descending coronary artery stenosis. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2005;64:75-81.
162. Thiele H, Neumann-Schiedewind P, Jacobs S, et al. Randomized comparison of minimally invasive direct coronary artery bypass surgery versus sirolimus-eluting stenting in isolated proximal left anterior descending coronary artery stenosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;53:2324-31.
163. Bravata DM, Gienger AL, McDonald KM, et al. Systematic review: the comparative effectiveness of percutaneous coronary interventions and coronary artery bypass graft surgery. *Ann Intern Med.* 2007;147:703-16.
164. Hlatky MA, Boothroyd DB, Bravata DM, et al. Coronary artery bypass surgery compared with percutaneous coronary interventions for multivessel disease: a collaborative analysis of individual patient data from ten randomised trials. *Lancet.* 2009;373:1190-7.
165. Briguori C, Condorelli G, Airolidi F, et al. Comparison of coronary drug-eluting stents versus coronary artery bypass grafting in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Am J Cardiol.* 2007;99:779-84.
166. Javaid A, Steinberg DH, Buch AN, et al. Outcomes of coronary artery bypass grafting versus percutaneous coronary intervention with drug-eluting stents for patients with multivessel coronary artery disease. *Circulation.* 2007;116:1200-6.
167. Lee MS, Jamal F, Kedia G, et al. Comparison of bypass surgery with drug-eluting stents for diabetic patients with multivessel disease. *Int J Cardiol.* 2007;123:34-42.
168. Park DW, Yun SC, Lee SW, et al. Long-term mortality after percutaneous coronary intervention with drug-eluting stent implantation versus coronary artery bypass surgery for the treatment of multivessel coronary artery disease. *Circulation.* 2008;117:2079-86.
169. Tarantini G, Ramondo A, Napodano M, et al. PCI versus CABG for multivessel coronary disease in diabetics. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2009;73:50-8.
170. Varani E, Balducci M, Vecchi G, et al. Comparison of multiple drug-eluting stent percutaneous coronary intervention and surgical revascularization in patients with multivessel coronary artery disease: one-year clinical results and total treatment costs. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2007;19:469-75.
171. Yang JH, Gwon HC, Cho SJ, et al. Comparison of coronary artery bypass grafting with drug-eluting stent implantation for the treatment of multivessel coronary artery disease. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2008;85:65-70.
172. Yang ZK, Shen WF, Zhang RY, et al. Coronary artery bypass surgery versus percutaneous coronary intervention with drug-eluting stent implantation in patients with multivessel coronary disease. *J Interv Cardiol.* 2007;20:10-6.
173. Benedetto U, Melina G, Angeloni E, et al. Coronary artery bypass grafting versus drug-eluting stents in multivessel coronary disease. A meta-analysis on 24,268 patients. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg.* 2009;36:611-5.
174. Deleted in proof.
175. Ragosta M, Dee S, Sarembok IJ, et al. Prevalence of unfavorable angiographic characteristics for percutaneous intervention in patients with unprotected left main coronary artery disease. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2006;68:357-62.
176. Chieffo A, Park SJ, Valgimigli M, et al. Favorable long-term outcome after drug-eluting stent implantation in nonbifurcation lesions that involve unprotected left main coronary artery: a multicenter registry. *Circulation.* 2007;116:158-62.
177. Tamburino C, Capranzano P, Capodanno D, et al. Plaque distribution patterns in distal left main coronary artery to predict outcomes after stent implantation. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2010;3:624-31.
178. Ben-Gal Y, Mohr R, Braunstein R, et al. Revascularization of left anterior descending artery with drug-eluting stents: comparison with minimally invasive direct coronary artery bypass surgery. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2006;82:2067-71.
179. Cisowski M, Drzewiecka-Gerber A, Ulczok R, et al. Primary direct stenting versus endoscopic atraumatic coronary artery bypass surgery in patients with proximal stenosis of the left anterior descending coronary artery—a prospective, randomised study. *Kardiol Pol.* 2004;61:253-61.
180. Fraund S, Herrmann G, Witzke A, et al. Midterm follow-up after minimally invasive direct coronary artery bypass grafting versus percutaneous coronary intervention techniques. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 2005;79:1225-31.
181. Goy JJ, Kaufmann U, Hurni M, et al. 10-year follow-up of a prospective randomized trial comparing bare-metal stenting with internal mammary artery grafting for proximal, isolated de novo left anterior coronary artery stenosis the SIMA (Stenting versus Internal Mammary Artery grafting) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2008;52:815-7.
182. Aziz O, Rao C, Panesar SS, et al. Meta-analysis of minimally invasive internal thoracic artery bypass versus percutaneous revascularisation for isolated lesions of the left anterior descending artery. *BMJ.* 2007;334:617.
183. Jaffery Z, Kowalski M, Weaver WD, et al. A meta-analysis of randomized control trials comparing minimally invasive direct coronary bypass grafting versus percutaneous coronary intervention for stenosis of the proximal left anterior descending artery. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg.* 2007;31:691-7.
184. Kapoor JR, Gienger AL, Ardehali R, et al. Isolated disease of the proximal left anterior descending artery comparing the effectiveness of percutaneous coronary interventions and coronary artery bypass surgery. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2008;1:483-91.
185. Abizaid A, Costa MA, Centemero M, et al. Clinical and economic impact of diabetes mellitus on percutaneous and surgical treatment of multivessel coronary disease patients: insights from the Arterial Revascularization Therapy Study (ARTS) trial. *Circulation.* 2001;104:533-8.
186. Kapur A, Hall RJ, Malik IS, et al. Randomized comparison of percutaneous coronary intervention with coronary artery bypass grafting in diabetic patients. 1-year results of the CARDia (Coronary Artery Revascularization in Diabetes) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;55:432-40.
187. Sarnak MJ, Levey AS, Schoolwerth AC, et al. Kidney disease as a risk factor for development of cardiovascular disease: a statement from the American Heart Association Councils on Kidney in Cardiovascular Disease, High Blood Pressure Research, Clinical Cardiology, and Epidemiology and Prevention. *Circulation.* 2003;108:2154-69.
188. Lloyd-Jones D, Adams RJ, Brown TM, et al. Executive summary: heart disease and stroke statistics—2010 update: a report from the American Heart Association. *Circulation.* 2010;121:948-54.
189. Sedlis SP, Jurkovic CT, Hartigan PM, et al. Optimal medical therapy with or without percutaneous coronary intervention for patients with stable coronary artery disease and chronic kidney disease. *Am J Cardiol.* 2009;104:1647-53.
190. Hemmelgarn BR, Southern D, Culleton BF, et al. Survival after coronary revascularization among patients with kidney disease. *Circulation.* 2004;110:1890-5.
191. Reddan DN, Szczech LA, Tuttle RH, et al. Chronic kidney disease, mortality, and treatment strategies among patients with clinically significant coronary artery disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2003;14:2373-80.
192. Bae KS, Park HC, Kang BS, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention versus coronary artery bypass grafting in patients with coronary artery disease and diabetic nephropathy: a single center experience. *Korean J Intern Med.* 2007;22:139-46.
193. Herzog CA, Ma JZ, Collins AJ. Comparative survival of dialysis patients in the United States after coronary angioplasty, coronary artery stenting, and coronary artery bypass surgery and impact of diabetes. *Circulation.* 2002;106:2207-11.
194. Ix JH, Mercado N, Shlipak MG, et al. Association of chronic kidney disease with clinical outcomes after coronary revascularization: the Arterial Revascularization Therapies Study (ARTS). *Am Heart J.* 2005;149:512-9.
195. Koyanagi T, Nishida H, Kitamura M, et al. Comparison of clinical outcomes of coronary artery bypass grafting and percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty in renal dialysis patients. *Ann Thorac Surg.* 1996;61:1793-6.
196. Szczech LA, Reddan DN, Owen WF, et al. Differential survival after coronary revascularization procedures among patients with renal insufficiency. *Kidney Int.* 2001;60:292-9.
197. Jones EL, Craver JM, Guyton RA, et al. Importance of complete revascularization in performance of the coronary bypass operation. *Am J Cardiol.* 1983;51:7-12.
198. Bell MR, Bailey KR, Reeder GS, et al. Percutaneous transluminal angioplasty in patients with multivessel coronary disease: how important is complete revascularization for cardiac event-free survival? *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1990;16:553-62.
199. Bourassa MG, Yeh W, Holubkov R, et al. Long-term outcome of patients with incomplete vs complete revascularization after multi-

- vessel PTCA. A report from the NHLBI PTCA Registry. *Eur Heart J*. 1998;19:103-11.
200. Faxon DP, Ghalillli K, Jacobs AK, et al. The degree of revascularization and outcome after multivessel coronary angioplasty. *Am Heart J*. 1992;123:854-9.
  201. Berger PB, Velianou JL, Aslanidou VH, et al. Survival following coronary angioplasty versus coronary artery bypass surgery in anatomic subsets in which coronary artery bypass surgery improves survival compared with medical therapy. Results from the Bypass Angioplasty Revascularization Investigation (BARI). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2001;38:1440-9.
  202. Gioia G, Matthai W, Gillin K, et al. Revascularization in severe left ventricular dysfunction: outcome comparison of drug-eluting stent implantation versus coronary artery by-pass grafting. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2007;70:26-33.
  203. O'Keefe JH Jr., Allan JJ, McCallister BD, et al. Angioplasty versus bypass surgery for multivessel coronary artery disease with left ventricular ejection fraction < or = 40%. *Am J Cardiol*. 1993;71:897-901.
  204. Cole JH, Jones EL, Craver JM, et al. Outcomes of repeat revascularization in diabetic patients with prior coronary surgery. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002;40:1968-75.
  205. Choudhry NK, Singh JM, Barolet A, et al. How should patients with unstable angina and non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction be managed? A meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Am J Med*. 2005;118:465-74.
  206. Fox KA, Poole-Wilson PA, Henderson RA, et al. Interventional versus conservative treatment for patients with unstable angina or non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction: the British Heart Foundation RITA 3 randomised trial. *Randomized Intervention Trial of unstable Angina*. *Lancet*. 2002;360:743-51.
  207. Fox KA, Clayton TC, Damman P, et al. Long-term outcome of a routine versus selective invasive strategy in patients with non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndrome a meta-analysis of individual patient data. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:2435-45.
  208. Grines CL, Bonow RO, Casey DE Jr., et al. Prevention of premature discontinuation of dual antiplatelet therapy in patients with coronary artery stents: a science advisory from the American Heart Association, American College of Cardiology, Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions, American College of Surgeons, and American Dental Association, with representation from the American College of Physicians. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;49:734-9.
  209. Leon MB, Baim DS, Popma JJ, et al., Stent Anticoagulation Restenosis Study Investigators. A clinical trial comparing three antithrombotic-drug regimens after coronary-artery stenting. *N Engl J Med*. 1998;339:1665-71.
  210. Mauri L, Hsieh WH, Massaro JM, et al. Stent thrombosis in randomized clinical trials of drug-eluting stents. *N Engl J Med*. 2007;356:1020-9.
  211. McFadden EP, Stabile E, Regar E, et al. Late thrombosis in drug-eluting coronary stents after discontinuation of antiplatelet therapy. *Lancet*. 2004;364:1519-21.
  212. Eisenstein EL, Anstrom KJ, Kong DF, et al. Clopidogrel use and long-term clinical outcomes after drug-eluting stent implantation. *JAMA*. 2007;297:159-68.
  213. Bridges CR, Horvath KA, Nugent WC, et al. The Society of Thoracic Surgeons practice guideline series: transmyocardial laser revascularization. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2004;77:1494-502.
  214. Vineberg A. Development of an anastomosis between the coronary vessels and a transplanted internal mammary artery. *Can Med Assoc J*. 1946;55:117-9.
  215. Aaberge L, Rootwelt K, Blomhoff S, et al. Continued symptomatic improvement three to five years after transmyocardial revascularization with CO(2) laser: a late clinical follow-up of the Norwegian Randomized trial with transmyocardial revascularization. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002;39:1588-93.
  216. Allen KB, Dowling RD, Fudge TL, et al. Comparison of transmyocardial revascularization with medical therapy in patients with refractory angina. *N Engl J Med*. 1999;341:1029-36.
  217. Frazier OH, March RJ, Horvath KA. Transmyocardial revascularization with a carbon dioxide laser in patients with end-stage coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med*. 1999;341:1021-8.
  218. Peterson ED, Kaul P, Kaczmarek RG, et al. From controlled trials to clinical practice: monitoring transmyocardial revascularization use and outcomes. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2003;42:1611-6.
  219. Bonatti J, Schachner T, Bonaros N, et al. Simultaneous hybrid coronary revascularization using totally endoscopic left internal mammary artery bypass grafting and placement of rapamycin eluting stents in the same interventional session. The COMBINATION pilot study. *Cardiology*. 2008;110:92-5.
  220. Gilard M, Bezon E, Cornily JC, et al. Same-day combined percutaneous coronary intervention and coronary artery surgery. *Cardiology*. 2007;108:363-7.
  221. Holzhey DM, Jacobs S, Mochalski M, et al. Minimally invasive hybrid coronary artery revascularization. *Ann Thorac Surg*. 2008;86:1856-60.
  222. Kon ZN, Brown EN, Tran R, et al. Simultaneous hybrid coronary revascularization reduces postoperative morbidity compared with results from conventional off-pump coronary artery bypass. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2008;135:367-75.
  223. Reicher B, Poston RS, Mehra MR, et al. Simultaneous "hybrid" percutaneous coronary intervention and minimally invasive surgical bypass grafting: feasibility, safety, and clinical outcomes. *Am Heart J*. 2008;155:661-7.
  224. Vassiliades TA Jr., Douglas JS, Morris DC, et al. Integrated coronary revascularization with drug-eluting stents: immediate and seven-month outcome. *J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg*. 2006;131:956-62.
  225. Zhao DX, Leacche M, Balaguer JM, et al. Routine intraoperative completion angiography after coronary artery bypass grafting and 1-stop hybrid revascularization results from a fully integrated hybrid catheterization laboratory/operating room. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2009;53:232-41.
  226. Angelini GD, Wilde P, Salerno TA, et al. Integrated left small thoracotomy and angioplasty for multivessel coronary artery revascularisation. *Lancet*. 1996;347:757-8.
  227. Simoons ML. Myocardial revascularization—bypass surgery or angioplasty? *N Engl J Med*. 1996;335:275-7.
  228. Sonoda S, Morino Y, Aho J, et al. Impact of final stent dimensions on long-term results following sirolimus-eluting stent implantation: serial intravascular ultrasound analysis from the Sirius trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;43:1959-63.
  229. Pijls NH, Klauss V, Siebert U, et al. Coronary pressure measurement after stenting predicts adverse events at follow-up: a multicenter registry. *Circulation*. 2002;105:2950-4.
  230. Ellis SG, Vandormael MG, Cowley MJ, et al. Coronary morphologic and clinical determinants of procedural outcome with angioplasty for multivessel coronary disease. Implications for patient selection. Multivessel Angioplasty Prognosis Study Group. *Circulation*. 1990;82:1193-202.
  231. Singh M, Lennon RJ, Holmes DR Jr., et al. Correlates of procedural complications and a simple integer risk score for percutaneous coronary intervention. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002;40:387-93.
  232. Tan K, Sulke N, Taub N, et al. Clinical and lesion morphologic determinants of coronary angioplasty success and complications: current experience. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1995;25:855-65.
  233. Moscucci M, Kline-Rogers E, Share D, et al. Simple bedside additive tool for prediction of in-hospital mortality after percutaneous coronary interventions. *Circulation*. 2001;104:263-8.
  234. Resnic FS, Ohno-Machado L, Selwyn A, et al. Simplified risk score models accurately predict the risk of major in-hospital complications following percutaneous coronary intervention. *Am J Cardiol*. 2001;88:5-9.
  235. Singh M, Rihal CS, Lennon RJ, et al. Comparison of Mayo Clinic risk score and American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association lesion classification in the prediction of adverse cardiovascular outcome following percutaneous coronary interventions. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;44:357-61.
  236. Peterson ED, Dai D, DeLong ER, et al. Contemporary mortality risk prediction for percutaneous coronary intervention: results from 588,398 procedures in the National Cardiovascular Data Registry. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:1923-32.
  237. Kimmel SE, Berlin JA, Strom BL, et al. Development and validation of simplified predictive index for major complications in contemporary percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty practice. The Registry Committee of the Society for Cardiac Angiography and Interventions. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1995;26:931-8.

238. Sianos G, Morel MA, Kappetein AP, et al. The SYNTAX score: an angiographic tool grading the complexity of coronary artery disease. *EuroIntervention*. 2005;1:219-27.
239. Alpert JS, Thygesen K, Antman E, et al. Myocardial infarction redefined—a consensus document of the Joint European Society of Cardiology/American College of Cardiology Committee for the redefinition of myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2000;36:959-69.
240. Thygesen K, Alpert JS, White HD. Universal definition of myocardial infarction. *Eur Heart J*. 2007;28:2525-38.
241. Alcock RF, Roy P, Adorini K, et al. Incidence and determinants of myocardial infarction following percutaneous coronary interventions according to the revised Joint Task Force definition of troponin T elevation. *Int J Cardiol*. 2010;140:66-72.
242. Testa L, Van Gaal WJ, Biondi Zoccai GG, et al. Myocardial infarction after percutaneous coronary intervention: a meta-analysis of troponin elevation applying the new universal definition. *QJM*. 2009;102:369-78.
243. Yang EH, Gumina RJ, Lennon RJ, et al. Emergency coronary artery bypass surgery for percutaneous coronary interventions: changes in the incidence, clinical characteristics, and indications from 1979 to 2003. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2005;46:2004-9.
244. Kutcher MA, Klein LW, Ou FS, et al. Percutaneous coronary interventions in facilities without cardiac surgery on site: a report from the National Cardiovascular Data Registry (NCDR). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2009;54:16-24.
245. Roy P, de Labriolle A, Hanna N, et al. Requirement for emergent coronary artery bypass surgery following percutaneous coronary intervention in the stent era. *Am J Cardiol*. 2009;103:950-3.
246. Seshadri N, Whitlow PL, Acharya N, et al. Emergency coronary artery bypass surgery in the contemporary percutaneous coronary intervention era. *Circulation*. 2002;106:2346-50.
247. Aggarwal A, Dai D, Rumsfeld JS, et al. Incidence and predictors of stroke associated with percutaneous coronary intervention. *Am J Cardiol*. 2009;104:349-53.
248. Dukkipati S, O'Neill WW, Harjai KJ, et al. Characteristics of cerebrovascular accidents after percutaneous coronary interventions. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;43:1161-7.
249. Duvernoy CS, Smith DE, Manohar P, et al. Gender differences in adverse outcomes after contemporary percutaneous coronary intervention: an analysis from the Blue Cross Blue Shield of Michigan Cardiovascular Consortium (BMC2) percutaneous coronary intervention registry. *Am Heart J*. 2010;159:677-83.
250. Hamon M, Baron JC, Viader F, et al. Periprocedural stroke and cardiac catheterization. *Circulation*. 2008;118:678-83.
251. Adams HP Jr., del Zoppo G, Alberts MJ, et al. Guidelines for the early management of adults with ischemic stroke: a guideline from the American Heart Association/American Stroke Association Stroke Council, Clinical Cardiology Council, Cardiovascular Radiology and Intervention Council, and the Atherosclerotic Peripheral Vascular Disease and Quality of Care Outcomes in Research Interdisciplinary Working Groups: The American Academy of Neurology affirms the value of this guideline as an educational tool for neurologists. *Circulation*. 2007;115:e478-534.
252. Levine GN, Kern MJ, Berger PB, et al. Management of patients undergoing percutaneous coronary revascularization. *Ann Intern Med*. 2003;139:123-36.
253. Ahmed B, Piper WD, Malenka D, et al. Significantly improved vascular complications among women undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: a report from the Northern New England Percutaneous Coronary Intervention Registry. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2009;2:423-9.
254. Applegate RJ, Sacrinty MT, Kutcher MA, et al. Trends in vascular complications after diagnostic cardiac catheterization and percutaneous coronary intervention via the femoral artery, 1998 to 2007. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2008;1:317-26.
255. Jolly SS, Amlani S, Hamon M, et al. Radial versus femoral access for coronary angiography or intervention and the impact on major bleeding and ischemic events: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Am Heart J*. 2009;157:132-40.
256. Nikolsky E, Mehran R, Halkin A, et al. Vascular complications associated with arteriotomy closure devices in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary procedures: a meta-analysis. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;44:1200-9.
257. Patel MR, Jneid H, Derdeyn CP, et al. Arteriotomy closure devices for cardiovascular procedures: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2010;122:1882-93.
258. Piper WD, Malenka DJ, Ryan TJ Jr., et al. Predicting vascular complications in percutaneous coronary interventions. *Am Heart J*. 2003;145:1022-9.
259. Seto AH, Abu-Fadel MS, Sparling JM, et al. Real-time ultrasound guidance facilitates femoral arterial access and reduces vascular complications: FAUST (Femoral Arterial Access With Ultrasound Trial). *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2010;3:751-8.
260. Rao SV, Cohen MG, Kandzari DE, et al. The transradial approach to percutaneous coronary intervention: historical perspective, current concepts, and future directions. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:2187-95.
261. Stella PR, Kiemeneij F, Laarman GJ, et al. Incidence and outcome of radial artery occlusion following transradial artery coronary angioplasty. *Cathet Cardiovasc Diagn*. 1997;40:156-8.
262. Freestone B, Nolan J. Transradial cardiac procedures: the state of the art. *Heart*. 2010;96:883-91.
263. Ellis SG, Ajluni S, Arnold AZ, et al. Increased coronary perforation in the new device era. Incidence, classification, management, and outcome. *Circulation*. 1994;90:2725-30.
264. Javadi A, Buch AN, Satler LF, et al. Management and outcomes of coronary artery perforation during percutaneous coronary intervention. *Am J Cardiol*. 2006;98:911-4.
265. Feit F, Voeltz MD, Attubato MJ, et al. Predictors and impact of major hemorrhage on mortality following percutaneous coronary intervention from the REPLACE-2 Trial. *Am J Cardiol*. 2007;100:1364-9.
266. Manoukian SV, Feit F, Mehran R, et al. Impact of major bleeding on 30-day mortality and clinical outcomes in patients with acute coronary syndromes: an analysis from the ACUITY Trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;49:1362-8.
267. Mehran R, Pocock SJ, Nikolsky E, et al. A risk score to predict bleeding in patients with acute coronary syndromes. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:2556-66.
268. Nikolsky E, Mehran R, Dangas G, et al. Development and validation of a prognostic risk score for major bleeding in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention via the femoral approach. *Eur Heart J*. 2007;28:1936-45.
269. Subherwal S, Bach RG, Chen AY, et al. Baseline risk of major bleeding in non-ST-segment-elevation myocardial infarction: the CRUSADE (Can Rapid risk stratification of Unstable angina patients Suppress ADverse outcomes with Early implementation of the ACC/AHA Guidelines) Bleeding Score. *Circulation*. 2009;119:1873-82.
270. Mehran R, Aymong ED, Nikolsky E, et al. A simple risk score for prediction of contrast-induced nephropathy after percutaneous coronary intervention: development and initial validation. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;44:1393-9.
271. Moscucci M, Rogers EK, Montoye C, et al. Association of a continuous quality improvement initiative with practice and outcome variations of contemporary percutaneous coronary interventions. *Circulation*. 2006;113:814-22.
272. Bader BD, Berger ED, Heede MB, et al. What is the best hydration regimen to prevent contrast media-induced nephrotoxicity? *Clin Nephrol*. 2004;62:1-7.
273. Mueller C, Buerkle G, Buettner HJ, et al. Prevention of contrast media-associated nephropathy: randomized comparison of 2 hydration regimens in 1620 patients undergoing coronary angioplasty. *Arch Intern Med*. 2002;162:329-36.
274. Solomon R, Werner C, Mann D, et al. Effects of saline, mannitol, and furosemide to prevent acute decreases in renal function induced by radiocontrast agents. *N Engl J Med*. 1994;331:1416-20.
275. Trivedi HS, Moore H, Nasr S, et al. A randomized prospective trial to assess the role of saline hydration on the development of contrast nephrotoxicity. *Nephron Clin Pract*. 2003;93:C29-34.
276. Marenzi G, Assanelli E, Campodonico J, et al. Contrast volume during primary percutaneous coronary intervention and subsequent contrast-induced nephropathy and mortality. *Ann Intern Med*. 2009;150:170-7.
277. McCullough PA, Wolyn R, Rocher LL, et al. Acute renal failure after coronary intervention: incidence, risk factors, and relationship to mortality. *Am J Med*. 1997;103:368-75.

278. Russo D, Minutolo R, Cianciaruso B, et al. Early effects of contrast media on renal hemodynamics and tubular function in chronic renal failure. *J Am Soc Nephrol.* 1995;6:1451-8.
279. Gonzales DA, Norsworthy KJ, Kern SJ, et al. A meta-analysis of N-acetylcysteine in contrast-induced nephrotoxicity: unsupervised clustering to resolve heterogeneity. *BMC Med.* 2007;5:32. Published online November 14, 2007. doi:10.1186/1741-7015-5-32.
280. Ozcan EE, Guneri S, Akdeniz B, et al. Sodium bicarbonate, N-acetylcysteine, and saline for prevention of radiocontrast-induced nephropathy. A comparison of 3 regimens for protecting contrast-induced nephropathy in patients undergoing coronary procedures. A single-center prospective controlled trial. *Am Heart J.* 2007;154:539-44.
281. Thiele H, Hildebrand L, Schirdehahn C, et al. Impact of high-dose N-acetylcysteine versus placebo on contrast-induced nephropathy and myocardial reperfusion injury in unselected patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction undergoing primary percutaneous coronary intervention: the LIPSIA-N-ACC (Prospective, Single-Blind, Placebo-Controlled, Randomized Leipzig Immediate Percutaneous Coronary Intervention Acute Myocardial Infarction N-ACC) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;55:2201-9.
282. Webb JG, Pate GE, Humphries KH, et al. A randomized controlled trial of intravenous N-acetylcysteine for the prevention of contrast-induced nephropathy after cardiac catheterization: lack of effect. *Am Heart J.* 2004;148:422-9.
283. ACT Investigators. Acetylcysteine for prevention of renal outcomes in patients undergoing coronary and peripheral vascular angiography main results from the randomized Acetylcysteine for Contrast-Induced Nephropathy Trial (ACT). *Circulation.* 2011;124:1250-9.
284. Klein LW, Sheldon MW, Brinker J, et al. The use of radiographic contrast media during PCI: a focused review: a position statement of the Society of Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2009;74:728-46.
285. Tramer MR, von Elm E, Loubeyre P, et al. Pharmacological prevention of serious anaphylactic reactions due to iodinated contrast media: systematic review. *BMJ.* 2006;333:675.
286. Greenberger PA, Patterson R, Tapio CM. Prophylaxis against repeated radiocontrast media reactions in 857 cases. Adverse experience with cimetidine and safety of beta-adrenergic antagonists. *Arch Intern Med.* 1985;145:2197-200.
287. Shehadi WH. Adverse reactions to intravascularly administered contrast media. A comprehensive study based on a prospective survey. *Am J Roentgenol Radium Ther Nucl Med.* 1975;124:145-52.
288. Gill BV, Rice TR, Cartier A, et al. Identification of crab proteins that elicit IgE reactivity in snow crab-processing workers. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2009;124:1055-61.
289. Swoboda I, Bugajska-Schretter A, Verdino P, et al. Recombinant carp parvalbumin, the major cross-reactive fish allergen: a tool for diagnosis and therapy of fish allergy. *J Immunol.* 2002;168:4576-84.
290. Briguori C, Colombo A, Airoldi F, et al. Statin administration before percutaneous coronary intervention: impact on periprocedural myocardial infarction. *Eur Heart J.* 2004;25:1822-8.
291. Briguori C, Visconti G, Focaccio A, et al. Novel approaches for preventing or limiting events (Naples) II trial: impact of a single high loading dose of atorvastatin on periprocedural myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;54:2157-63.
292. Pasceri V, Patti G, Nusca A, et al. Randomized trial of atorvastatin for reduction of myocardial damage during coronary intervention: results from the ARMYDA (Atorvastatin for Reduction of MYocardial Damage during Angioplasty) study. *Circulation.* 2004;110:674-8.
293. Patti G, Pasceri V, Colonna G, et al. Atorvastatin pretreatment improves outcomes in patients with acute coronary syndromes undergoing early percutaneous coronary intervention: results of the ARMYDA-ACS randomized trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2007;49:1272-8.
294. Yun KH, Jeong MH, Oh SK, et al. The beneficial effect of high loading dose of rosuvastatin before percutaneous coronary intervention in patients with acute coronary syndrome. *Int J Cardiol.* 2009;137:246-51.
295. Zhang F, Dong L, Ge J. Effect of statins pretreatment on periprocedural myocardial infarction in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: a meta-analysis. *Ann Med.* 2010;42:171-7.
296. Winchester DE, Wen X, Xie L, et al. Evidence of pre-procedural statin therapy a meta-analysis of randomized trials. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;56:1099-109.
297. Di Sciascio G, Patti G, Pasceri V, et al. Efficacy of atorvastatin reload in patients on chronic statin therapy undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: results of the ARMYDA-RECAPTURE (Atorvastatin for Reduction of Myocardial Damage During Angioplasty) randomized trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;54:558-65.
298. Levey AS, Coresh J, Greene T, et al. Using standardized serum creatinine values in the modification of diet in renal disease study equation for estimating glomerular filtration rate. *Ann Intern Med.* 2006;145:247-54.
299. Stevens LA, Nolin TD, Richardson MM, et al. Comparison of drug dosing recommendations based on measured GFR and kidney function estimating equations. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2009;54:33-42.
300. Hassan Y, Al-Ramahi RJ, Aziz NA, et al. Impact of a renal drug dosing service on dose adjustment in hospitalized patients with chronic kidney disease. *Ann Pharmacother.* 2009;43:1598-605.
301. Barnathan ES, Schwartz JS, Taylor L, et al. Aspirin and dipyridamole in the prevention of acute coronary thrombosis complicating coronary angioplasty. *Circulation.* 1987;76:125-34.
302. Jolly SS, Pogue J, Haladyn K, et al. Effects of aspirin dose on ischaemic events and bleeding after percutaneous coronary intervention: insights from the PCI-CURE study. *Eur Heart J.* 2009;30:900-7.
303. Popma JJ, Berger P, Ohman EM, et al. Antithrombotic therapy during percutaneous coronary intervention: the Seventh ACCP Conference on Antithrombotic and Thrombolytic Therapy. *Chest.* 2004;126:576S-99S.
304. Schwartz L, Bourassa MG, Lesperance J, et al. Aspirin and dipyridamole in the prevention of restenosis after percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty. *N Engl J Med.* 1988;318:1714-9.
305. Marshall D, Chambers CE, Heupler F Jr. Performance of adult cardiac catheterization: nonphysicians should not function as independent operators—a position statement. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 1999;48:167-9.
306. Hospital National Patient Safety Goals. UP.01.01.01. Conduct a preprocedure verification process. Available at: [http://www.jointcommission.org/assets/1/6/NPSG\\_EPS\\_Scoring\\_HAP\\_20110706.pdf](http://www.jointcommission.org/assets/1/6/NPSG_EPS_Scoring_HAP_20110706.pdf). Accessed September 9, 2011.
307. Kwaan MR, Studdert DM, Zinner MJ, et al. Incidence, patterns, and prevention of wrong-site surgery. *Arch Surg.* 2006;141:353-7.
308. Nundy S, Mukherjee A, Sexton JB, et al. Impact of preoperative briefings on operating room delays: a preliminary report. *Arch Surg.* 2008;143:1068-72.
309. Cameron AA, Laskey WK, Sheldon WC. Ethical issues for invasive cardiologists: Society for cardiovascular angiography and interventions. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2004;61:157-62.
310. Blankenship JC, Mishkel GJ, Chambers CE, et al. Ad hoc coronary intervention. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2000;49:130-4.
311. Blankenship JC, Klein LW, Laskey WK, et al. SCAI statement on ad hoc versus the separate performance of diagnostic cardiac catheterization and coronary intervention. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2004;63:444-51.
312. Agard A, Herlitz J, Hermeren G. Obtaining informed consent from patients in the early phase of acute myocardial infarction: physicians' experiences and attitudes. *Heart.* 2004;90:208-10.
313. Foex BA. Is informed consent possible in acute myocardial infarction? *Heart.* 2004;90:1237-8.
314. Williams BF, French JK, White HD. Informed consent during the clinical emergency of acute myocardial infarction (HERO-2 consent substudy): a prospective observational study. *Lancet.* 2003;361:918-22.
315. Ritchie JL, Wolk MJ, Hirshfeld JW Jr, et al. Task force 4: appropriate clinical care and issues of "self-referral." *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2004;44:1740-6.
316. Hirshfeld JW Jr, Balter S, Brinker JA, et al. ACCF/AHA/HRS/SCAI clinical competence statement on physician knowledge to optimize patient safety and image quality in fluoroscopically guided invasive cardiovascular procedures: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association/American College of Physicians Task Force on Clinical Competence and Training. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2004;44:2259-82.



317. Chambers C, Fetterly K, Holzer R, et al. Radiation safety program for the cardiac catheterization laboratory. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2011;77:546-56.
318. Deleted in proof.
319. Deleted in proof.
320. Krasuski RA, Beard BM, Geoghagan JD, et al. Optimal timing of hydration to erase contrast-associated nephropathy: the OTHER CAN study. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2003;15:699-702.
321. Taylor AJ, Hotchkiss D, Morse RW, et al. PREPARED: Preparation for Angiography in Renal Dysfunction: a randomized trial of inpatient vs outpatient hydration protocols for cardiac catheterization in mild-to-moderate renal dysfunction. *Chest.* 1998;114:1570-4.
322. Adolph E, Holdt-Lehmann B, Chatterjee T, et al. Renal Insufficiency Following Radiocontrast Exposure Trial (REINFORCE): a randomized comparison of sodium bicarbonate versus sodium chloride hydration for the prevention of contrast-induced nephropathy. *Coron Artery Dis.* 2008;19:413-9.
323. Brar SS, Shen AY, Jorgensen MB, et al. Sodium bicarbonate vs sodium chloride for the prevention of contrast medium-induced nephropathy in patients undergoing coronary angiography: a randomized trial. *JAMA.* 2008;300:1038-46.
324. Brar SS, Hiremath S, Dangas G, et al. Sodium bicarbonate for the prevention of contrast induced-acute kidney injury: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2009;4:1584-92.
325. Briguori C, Airoldi F, D'Andrea D, et al. Renal Insufficiency Following Contrast Media Administration Trial (REMEDIAL): a randomized comparison of 3 preventive strategies. *Circulation.* 2007;115:1211-7.
326. From AM, Bartholmai BJ, Williams AW, et al. Sodium bicarbonate is associated with an increased incidence of contrast nephropathy: a retrospective cohort study of 7977 patients at Mayo Clinic. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol.* 2008;3:10-8.
327. Hoste EA, De Waele JJ, Gevaert SA, et al. Sodium bicarbonate for prevention of contrast-induced acute kidney injury: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2010;25:747-58.
328. Kelly AM, Dwamena B, Cronin P, et al. Meta-analysis: effectiveness of drugs for preventing contrast-induced nephropathy. *Ann Intern Med.* 2008;148:284-94.
329. Maioli M, Toso A, Leoncini M, et al. Sodium bicarbonate versus saline for the prevention of contrast-induced nephropathy in patients with renal dysfunction undergoing coronary angiography or intervention. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2008;52:599-604.
330. Merten GJ, Burgess WP, Gray LV, et al. Prevention of contrast-induced nephropathy with sodium bicarbonate: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2004;291:2328-34.
331. Pannu N, Manns B, Lee H, et al. Systematic review of the impact of N-acetylcysteine on contrast nephropathy. *Kidney Int.* 2004;65:1366-74.
332. Vaitkus PT, Brar C. N-acetylcysteine in the prevention of contrast-induced nephropathy: publication bias perpetuated by meta-analyses. *Am Heart J.* 2007;153:275-80.
333. Deleted in proof.
334. Heinrich MC, Haberle L, Muller V, et al. Nephrotoxicity of iso-osmolar iodixanol compared with nonionic low-osmolar contrast media: meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Radiology.* 2009;250:68-86.
335. Kuhn MJ, Chen N, Sahani DV, et al. The PREDICT study: a randomized double-blind comparison of contrast-induced nephropathy after low- or iso-osmolar contrast agent exposure. *AJR Am J Roentgenol.* 2008;191:151-7.
336. Reed M, Meier P, Tamhane UU, et al. The relative renal safety of iodixanol compared with low-osmolar contrast media: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2009;2:645-54.
337. Rudnick MR, Davidson C, Laskey W, et al. Nephrotoxicity of iodixanol versus ioversol in patients with chronic kidney disease: the Visipaque Angiography/Interventions with Laboratory Outcomes in Renal Insufficiency (VALOR) Trial. *Am Heart J.* 2008;156:776-82.
338. Solomon RJ, Natarajan MK, Doucet S, et al. Cardiac Angiography in Renally Impaired Patients (CARE) study: a randomized double-blind trial of contrast-induced nephropathy in patients with chronic kidney disease. *Circulation.* 2007;115:3189-96.
339. Thomsen HS, Morcos SK, Erley CM, et al. The ACTIVE Trial: comparison of the effects on renal function of iomeprol-400 and iodixanol-320 in patients with chronic kidney disease undergoing abdominal computed tomography. *Invest Radiol.* 2008;43:170-8.
340. Wright RS, Anderson JL, Adams CD, et al. 2011 ACCF/AHA focused update of the guidelines for the management of patients with unstable angina/non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (updating the 2007 guideline): a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2011;57:1920-59.
341. Goss JE, Chambers CE, Heupler FA Jr. Systemic anaphylactoid reactions to iodinated contrast media during cardiac catheterization procedures: guidelines for prevention, diagnosis, and treatment. Laboratory Performance Standards Committee of the Society for Cardiac Angiography and Interventions. *Cathet Cardiovasc Diagn.* 1995;34:99-104.
342. Hubbard CR, Blankenship JC, Scott TD, et al. Emergency pretreatment for contrast allergy before direct percutaneous coronary intervention for ST-elevation myocardial infarction. *Am J Cardiol.* 2008;102:1469-72.
343. Randomised trial of cholesterol lowering in 4444 patients with coronary heart disease: the Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study (4S). *Lancet.* 1994;344:1383-9.
344. MRC/BHF Heart Protection Study of cholesterol lowering with simvastatin in 20,536 high-risk individuals: a randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2002;360:7-22.
345. Cannon CP, Braunwald E, McCabe CH, et al. Intensive versus moderate lipid lowering with statins after acute coronary syndromes. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;350:1495-504.
346. Sacks FM, Pfeffer MA, Moye LA, et al. The effect of pravastatin on coronary events after myocardial infarction in patients with average cholesterol levels. Cholesterol and Recurrent Events Trial investigators. *N Engl J Med.* 1996;335:1001-9.
347. Schwartz GG, Olsson AG, Ezekowitz MD, et al. Effects of atorvastatin on early recurrent ischemic events in acute coronary syndromes: the MIRACL study: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2001;285:1711-8.
348. Ray KK, Cannon CP. The potential relevance of the multiple lipid-independent (pleiotropic) effects of statins in the management of acute coronary syndromes. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2005;46:1425-33.
349. Chew DP, Bhatt DL, Lincoff AM, et al. Defining the optimal activated clotting time during percutaneous coronary intervention: aggregate results from 6 randomized, controlled trials. *Circulation.* 2001;103:961-6.
350. Alexander KP, Chen AY, Roe MT, et al. Excess dosing of antiplatelet and antithrombin agents in the treatment of non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndromes. *JAMA.* 2005;294:3108-16.
351. Aversano T, Aversano LT, Passamani E, et al. Thrombolytic therapy vs primary percutaneous coronary intervention for myocardial infarction in patients presenting to hospitals without on-site cardiac surgery: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2002;287:1943-51.
352. Dehmer GJ, Blankenship J, Wharton TP Jr., et al. The current status and future direction of percutaneous coronary intervention without on-site surgical backup: an expert consensus document from the Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2007;69:471-8.
353. Melberg T, Nilsen DW, Larsen AI, et al. Nonemergent coronary angioplasty without on-site surgical backup: a randomized study evaluating outcomes in low-risk patients. *Am Heart J.* 2006;152:888-95.
354. Singh PP, Singh M, Bedi US, et al. Outcomes of nonemergent percutaneous coronary intervention with and without on-site surgical backup: a meta-analysis. *Am J Ther.* 2011;18:e22-8.
355. Nallamothu BK, Wang Y, Magid DJ, et al. Relation between hospital specialization with primary percutaneous coronary intervention and clinical outcomes in ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: National Registry of Myocardial Infarction-4 analysis. *Circulation.* 2006;113:222-9.
356. Brueck M, Bandorski D, Kramer W, et al. A randomized comparison of transradial versus transfemoral approach for coronary angiography and angioplasty. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2009;2:1047-54.
357. Jaffe R, Hong T, Sharieff W, et al. Comparison of radial versus femoral approach for percutaneous coronary interventions in octogenarians. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2007;69:815-20.
358. Louvard Y, Benamer H, Garot P, et al. Comparison of transradial and transfemoral approaches for coronary angiography and angio-

- plasty in octogenarians (the OCTOPLUS study). *Am J Cardiol.* 2004;94:1177-80.
359. Pristipino C, Trani C, Nazzaro MS, et al. Major improvement of percutaneous cardiovascular procedure outcomes with radial artery catheterisation: results from the PREVAIL study. *Heart.* 2009;95:476-82.
  360. Rao SV, Ou FS, Wang TY, et al. Trends in the prevalence and outcomes of radial and femoral approaches to percutaneous coronary intervention: a report from the National Cardiovascular Data Registry. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2008;1:379-86.
  361. Hamon M, Rasmussen LH, Manoukian SV, et al. Choice of arterial access site and outcomes in patients with acute coronary syndromes managed with an early invasive strategy: the ACUITY trial. *Euro-Intervention.* 2009;5:115-20.
  362. Jolly SS, Yusuf S, Cairns J, et al. Radial versus femoral access for coronary angiography and intervention in patients with acute coronary syndromes (RIVAL): a randomised, parallel group, multicentre trial. *Lancet.* 2011;377:1409-20.
  363. Vavalle JP, Rao SV. The association between the transradial approach for percutaneous coronary interventions and bleeding. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2009;21:21A-4A.
  364. Bavry AA, Kumbhani DJ, Rassi AN, et al. Benefit of early invasive therapy in acute coronary syndromes: a meta-analysis of contemporary randomized clinical trials. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2006;48:1319-25.
  365. Cannon CP, Weintraub WS, Demopoulos LA, et al. Comparison of early invasive and conservative strategies in patients with unstable coronary syndromes treated with the glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitor tirofiban. *N Engl J Med.* 2001;344:1879-87.
  366. FRagmin and Fast Revascularisation during InStability in Coronary artery disease Investigators. Invasive compared with non-invasive treatment in unstable coronary-artery disease: FRISC II prospective randomised multicentre study. *Lancet.* 1999;354:708-15.
  367. Mehta SR, Granger CB, Boden WE, et al. Early versus delayed invasive intervention in acute coronary syndromes. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;360:2165-75.
  368. Valgimigli M, Dawkins K, Macaya C, et al. Impact of stable versus unstable coronary artery disease on 1-year outcome in elective patients undergoing multivessel revascularization with sirolimus-eluting stents: a subanalysis of the ARTS II trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2007;49:431-41.
  369. Fox KA, Dabbous OH, Goldberg RJ, et al. Prediction of risk of death and myocardial infarction in the six months after presentation with acute coronary syndrome: prospective multinational observational study (GRACE). *BMJ.* 2006;333:1091.
  370. Pieper KS, Gore JM, Fitzgerald G, et al. Validity of a risk-prediction tool for hospital mortality: the Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events. *Am Heart J.* 2009;157:1097-105.
  371. Damman P, Hirsch A, Windhausen F, et al. 5-year clinical outcomes in the ICTUS (Invasive versus Conservative Treatment in Unstable Coronary Syndromes) trial: a randomized comparison of an early invasive versus selective invasive management in patients with non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndrome. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;55:858-64.
  372. Fox KA, Poole-Wilson P, Clayton TC, et al. 5-year outcome of an interventional strategy in non-ST-elevation acute coronary syndrome: the British Heart Foundation RITA 3 randomised trial. *Lancet.* 2005;366:914-20.
  373. Guagliumi G, Stone GW, Cox DA, et al. Outcome in elderly patients undergoing primary coronary intervention for acute myocardial infarction: results from the Controlled Abciximab and Device Investigation to Lower Late Angioplasty Complications (CADILLAC) trial. *Circulation.* 2004;110:1598-604.
  374. Lagerqvist B, Husted S, Kontny F, et al. 5-year outcomes in the FRISC-II randomised trial of an invasive versus a non-invasive strategy in non-ST-elevation acute coronary syndrome: a follow-up study. *Lancet.* 2006;368:998-1004.
  375. Montalescot G, Cayla G, Collet JP, et al. Immediate vs delayed intervention for acute coronary syndromes: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA.* 2009;302:947-54.
  376. Neumann FJ, Kastrati A, Pogatsa-Murray G, et al. Evaluation of prolonged antithrombotic pretreatment ("cooling-off" strategy) before intervention in patients with unstable coronary syndromes: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2003;290:1593-9.
  377. Riezebos RK, Ronner E, Ter BE, et al. Immediate versus deferred coronary angioplasty in non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndromes. *Heart.* 2009;95:807-12.
  378. Yan AT, Yan RT, Tan M, et al. In-hospital revascularization and one-year outcome of acute coronary syndrome patients stratified by the GRACE risk score. *Am J Cardiol.* 2005;96:913-6.
  379. Keeley EC, Boura JA, Grines CL. Primary angioplasty versus intravenous thrombolytic therapy for acute myocardial infarction: a quantitative review of 23 randomised trials. *Lancet.* 2003;361:13-20.
  380. Zijlstra F, de Boer MJ, Hoorntje JC, et al. A comparison of immediate coronary angioplasty with intravenous streptokinase in acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 1993;328:680-4.
  381. Keeley EC, Grines CL. Primary coronary intervention for acute myocardial infarction. *JAMA.* 2004;291:736-9.
  382. Keeley EC, Hillis LD. Primary PCI for myocardial infarction with ST-segment elevation. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;356:47-54.
  383. Wu AH, Parsons L, Every NR, et al. Hospital outcomes in patients presenting with congestive heart failure complicating acute myocardial infarction: a report from the Second National Registry of Myocardial Infarction (NORMI-2). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2002;40:1389-94.
  384. Hochman JS, Sleeper LA, Webb JG, et al. Early revascularization in acute myocardial infarction complicated by cardiogenic shock. SHOCK Investigators. Should We Emergently Revascularize Occluded Coronaries for Cardiogenic Shock. *N Engl J Med.* 1999;341:625-34.
  385. Gershlick AH, Stephens-Lloyd A, Hughes S, et al. Rescue angioplasty after failed thrombolytic therapy for acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 2005;353:2758-68.
  386. Wijeyesundera HC, Vijayaraghavan R, Nallamothu BK, et al. Rescue angioplasty or repeat fibrinolysis after failed fibrinolytic therapy for ST-segment myocardial infarction: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2007;49:422-30.
  387. Bohmer E, Hoffmann P, Abdelnoor M, et al. Efficacy and safety of immediate angioplasty versus ischemia-guided management after thrombolysis in acute myocardial infarction in areas with very long transfer distances results of the NORDISTEMI (NORwegian study on DIstrict treatment of ST-elevation myocardial infarction). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;55:102-10.
  388. Di Mario C, Dudek D, Piscione F, et al. Immediate angioplasty versus standard therapy with rescue angioplasty after thrombolysis in the Combined Abciximab REteplase Stent Study in Acute Myocardial Infarction (CARESS-in-AMI): an open, prospective, randomised, multicentre trial. *Lancet.* 2008;371:559-68.
  389. Fernandez-Aviles F, Alonso JJ, Castro-Beiras A, et al. Routine invasive strategy within 24 hours of thrombolysis versus ischaemia-guided conservative approach for acute myocardial infarction with ST-segment elevation (GRACIA-1): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2004;364:1045-53.
  390. Borgia F, Goodman SG, Halvorsen S, et al. Early routine percutaneous coronary intervention after fibrinolysis vs standard therapy in ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: a meta-analysis. *Eur Heart J.* 2010;31:2156-69.
  391. Cantor WJ, Fitchett D, Borgundvaag B, et al. Routine early angioplasty after fibrinolysis for acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;360:2705-18.
  392. Bates ER. Revisiting reperfusion therapy in inferior myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1997;30:334-42.
  393. White HD. Systems of care: need for hub-and-spoke systems for both primary and systematic percutaneous coronary intervention after fibrinolysis. *Circulation.* 2008;118:219-22.
  394. Lambert L, Brown K, Segal E, et al. Association between timeliness of reperfusion therapy and clinical outcomes in ST-elevation myocardial infarction. *JAMA.* 2010;303:2148-55.
  395. Terkelsen CJ, Sorensen JT, Maeng M, et al. System delay and mortality among patients with STEMI treated with primary percutaneous coronary intervention. *JAMA.* 2010;304:763-71.
  396. Aguirre FV, Varghese JJ, Kelley MP, et al. Rural interhospital transfer of ST-elevation myocardial infarction patients for percutaneous coronary revascularization: the Stat Heart Program. *Circulation.* 2008;117:1145-52.
  397. Blankenship JC, Scott TD, Skelding KA, et al. Door-to-balloon times under 90 min can be routinely achieved for patients transferred for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction percutaneous coro-

- nary intervention in a rural setting. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2011;57:272-9.
398. Henry TD, Sharkey SW, Burke MN, et al. A regional system to provide timely access to percutaneous coronary intervention for ST-elevation myocardial infarction. *Circulation.* 2007;116:721-8.
399. Zahn R, Schuster S, Schiele R, et al. Maximal Individual Therapy in Acute Myocardial Infarction (MITRA) Study Group. Comparison of primary angioplasty with conservative therapy in patients with acute myocardial infarction and contraindications for thrombolytic therapy. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 1999;46:127-33.
400. Grzybowski M, Clements EA, Parsons L, et al. Mortality benefit of immediate revascularization of acute ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction in patients with contraindications to thrombolytic therapy: a propensity analysis. *JAMA.* 2003;290:1891-8.
401. Fibrinolytic Therapy Trialists' (FTT) Collaborative Group. Indications for fibrinolytic therapy in suspected acute myocardial infarction: collaborative overview of early mortality and major morbidity results from all randomised trials of more than 1000 patients. *Lancet.* 1994;343:311-22.
402. Schomig A, Mehilli J, Antoniucci D, et al. Mechanical reperfusion in patients with acute myocardial infarction presenting more than 12 hours from symptom onset: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2005;293:2865-72.
403. Gierlotka M, Gasior M, Wilczek K, et al. Reperfusion by primary percutaneous coronary intervention in patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction within 12 to 24 hours of the onset of symptoms (from a prospective national observational study [PL-ACS]). *Am J Cardiol.* 2011;107:501-8.
404. Toma M, Buller CE, Westerhout CM, et al. Non-culprit coronary artery percutaneous coronary intervention during acute ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: insights from the APEX-AMI trial. *Eur Heart J.* 2010;31:1701-7.
405. Widimsky P, Holmes DR Jr. How to treat patients with ST-elevation acute myocardial infarction and multi-vessel disease? *Eur Heart J.* 2011;32:396-403.
406. Politi L, Sgura F, Rossi R, et al. A randomised trial of target-vessel versus multi-vessel revascularisation in ST-elevation myocardial infarction: major adverse cardiac events during long-term follow-up. *Heart.* 2010;96:662-7.
407. Vlaar PJ, Mahmoud KD, Holmes DR Jr., et al. Culprit vessel only versus multivessel and staged percutaneous coronary intervention for multivessel disease in patients presenting with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: a pairwise and network meta-analysis. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2011;58:692-703.
408. Kornowski R, Mehran R, Dangas G, et al. Prognostic impact of staged versus "one-time" multivessel percutaneous interventions in acute myocardial infarction: analysis from the HORIZONS-AMI trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2011;58:704-11.
409. Rathore SS, Curtis JP, Chen J, et al. Association of door-to-balloon time and mortality in patients admitted to hospital with ST elevation myocardial infarction: national cohort study. *BMJ.* 2009;338:b1807.
410. Erne P, Schoenenberger AW, Burckhardt D, et al. Effects of percutaneous coronary interventions in silent ischemia after myocardial infarction: the SWISSI II randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2007;297:1985-91.
411. Madsen JK, Grande P, Saunamaki K, et al. Danish multicenter randomized study of invasive versus conservative treatment in patients with inducible ischemia after thrombolysis in acute myocardial infarction (DANAMI). DANish trial in Acute Myocardial Infarction. *Circulation.* 1997;96:748-55.
412. Hannan EL, Samadashvili Z, Walford G, et al. Culprit vessel percutaneous coronary intervention versus multivessel and staged percutaneous coronary intervention for ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction patients with multivessel disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2010;3:22-31.
413. Stenestrand U, Wallentin L. Early revascularisation and 1-year survival in 14-day survivors of acute myocardial infarction: a prospective cohort study. *Lancet.* 2002;359:1805-11.
414. Alter DA, Tu JV, Austin PC, et al. Waiting times, revascularization modality, and outcomes after acute myocardial infarction at hospitals with and without on-site revascularization facilities in Canada. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2003;42:410-9.
415. Zeymer U, Uebis R, Vogt A, et al. Randomized comparison of percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty and medical therapy in stable survivors of acute myocardial infarction with single vessel disease: a study of the Arbeitsgemeinschaft Leitende Kardiologische Krankenhausärzte. *Circulation.* 2003;108:1324-8.
416. Gupta M, Chang WC, Van de Werf F, et al. International differences in in-hospital revascularization and outcomes following acute myocardial infarction: a multilevel analysis of patients in ASSENT-2. *Eur Heart J.* 2003;24:1640-50.
417. Gibson CM, Karha J, Murphy SA, et al. Early and long-term clinical outcomes associated with reinfarction following fibrinolytic administration in the Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction trials. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2003;42:7-16.
418. Ioannidis JP, Katritsis DG. Percutaneous coronary intervention for late reperfusion after myocardial infarction in stable patients. *Am Heart J.* 2007;154:1065-71.
419. Steg PG, Thuairé C, Himpert D, et al. DECOPI (DEsobstruction COronaire en Post-Infarctus): a randomized multi-centre trial of occluded artery angioplasty after acute myocardial infarction. *Eur Heart J.* 2004;25:2187-94.
420. Hochman JS, Lamas GA, Buller CE, et al. Coronary intervention for persistent occlusion after myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 2006;355:2395-407.
421. Hochman JS, Sleeper LA, White HD, et al. One-year survival following early revascularization for cardiogenic shock. *JAMA.* 2001;285:190-2.
422. Hochman JS, Sleeper LA, Webb JG, et al. Early revascularization and long-term survival in cardiogenic shock complicating acute myocardial infarction. *JAMA.* 2006;295:2511-5.
423. Urban P, Stauffer JC, Bleed D, et al. A randomized evaluation of early revascularization to treat shock complicating acute myocardial infarction. The (Swiss) Multicenter Trial of Angioplasty for Shock-(S)MASH. *Eur Heart J.* 1999;20:1030-8.
424. Sanborn TA, Sleeper LA, Bates ER, et al. Impact of thrombolysis, intra-aortic balloon pump counterpulsation, and their combination in cardiogenic shock complicating acute myocardial infarction: a report from the SHOCK Trial Registry. SHould we emergently revascularize Occluded Coronaries for cardiogenic shock? *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2000;36:1123-9.
425. Chen EW, Canto JG, Parsons LS, et al. Relation between hospital intra-aortic balloon counterpulsation volume and mortality in acute myocardial infarction complicated by cardiogenic shock. *Circulation.* 2003;108:951-7.
426. Barron HV, Every NR, Parsons LS, et al. The use of intra-aortic balloon counterpulsation in patients with cardiogenic shock complicating acute myocardial infarction: data from the National Registry of Myocardial Infarction 2. *Am Heart J.* 2001;141:933-9.
427. Reynolds HR, Hochman JS. Cardiogenic shock: current concepts and improving outcomes. *Circulation.* 2008;117:686-97.
428. Antoniucci D, Valenti R, Migliorini A, et al. Comparison of impact of emergency percutaneous revascularization on outcome of patients > or =75 to those < 75 years of age with acute myocardial infarction complicated by cardiogenic shock. *Am J Cardiol.* 2003;91:1458-61.
429. Dauerman HL, Ryan TJ Jr., Piper WD, et al. Outcomes of percutaneous coronary intervention among elderly patients in cardiogenic shock: a multicenter, decade-long experience. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2003;15:380-4.
430. Dzavik V, Sleeper LA, Cocke TP, et al. Early revascularization is associated with improved survival in elderly patients with acute myocardial infarction complicated by cardiogenic shock: a report from the SHOCK Trial Registry. *Eur Heart J.* 2003;24:828-37.
431. Prasad A, Lennon RJ, Rihal CS, et al. Outcomes of elderly patients with cardiogenic shock treated with early percutaneous revascularization. *Am Heart J.* 2004;147:1066-70.
432. Babaev A, Every NR, Frederick P. Trends in revascularization and mortality in patients with cardiogenic shock complicating acute myocardial infarction. *Circulation.* 2002;106 Suppl II:364. Abstract.
433. Thiele H, Allam B, Chatellier G, et al. Shock in acute myocardial infarction: the Cape Horn for trials? *Eur Heart J.* 2010;31:1828-35.
434. Sjauw KD, Engstrom AE, Vis MM, et al. A systematic review and meta-analysis of intra-aortic balloon pump therapy in ST-elevation myocardial infarction: should we change the guidelines? *Eur Heart J.* 2009;30:459-68.
435. Bates ER. Percutaneous coronary intervention for cardiogenic shock. In: Hochman JS, Ohman EM, editors. *Cardiogenic Shock.* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell; 2009:220-39.

436. Antoniucci D, Valenti R, Santoro GM, et al. Systematic direct angioplasty and stent-supported direct angioplasty therapy for cardiogenic shock complicating acute myocardial infarction: in-hospital and long-term survival. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1998;31:294-300.
437. Chan AW, Chew DP, Bhatt DL, et al. Long-term mortality benefit with the combination of stents and abciximab for cardiogenic shock complicating acute myocardial infarction. *Am J Cardiol*. 2002;89:132-6.
438. Huang R, Sacks J, Thai H, et al. Impact of stents and abciximab on survival from cardiogenic shock treated with percutaneous coronary intervention. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2005;65:25-33.
439. Yip HK, Wu CJ, Chang HW, et al. Comparison of impact of primary percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty and primary stenting on short-term mortality in patients with cardiogenic shock and evaluation of prognostic determinants. *Am J Cardiol*. 2001;87:1184-8.
440. Giri S, Mitchel J, Azar RR, et al. Results of primary percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty plus abciximab with or without stenting for acute myocardial infarction complicated by cardiogenic shock. *Am J Cardiol*. 2002;89:126-31.
441. Mehta RH, Lopes RD, Ballotta A, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention or coronary artery bypass surgery for cardiogenic shock and multivessel coronary artery disease? *Am Heart J*. 2010;159:141-7.
442. Berger PB, Bell MR, Hasdai D, et al. Safety and efficacy of ticlopidine for only 2 weeks after successful intracoronary stent placement. *Circulation*. 1999;99:248-53.
443. Cruden NL, Harding SA, Flapan AD, et al. Previous coronary stent implantation and cardiac events in patients undergoing noncardiac surgery. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2010;3:236-42.
444. Fleisher LA, Beckman JA, Brown KA, et al. 2009 ACCF/AHA focused update on perioperative beta blockade incorporated into the ACC/AHA 2007 guidelines on perioperative cardiovascular evaluation and care for noncardiac surgery. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2009;54:e13-118.
445. Kaluza GL, Joseph J, Lee JR, et al. Catastrophic outcomes of noncardiac surgery soon after coronary stenting. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2000;35:1288-94.
446. Reddy PR, Vaitkus PT. Risks of noncardiac surgery after coronary stenting. *Am J Cardiol*. 2005;95:755-7.
447. Sharma AK, Ajani AE, Hamwi SM, et al. Major noncardiac surgery following coronary stenting: when is it safe to operate? *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2004;63:141-5.
448. Wilson SH, Fasseas P, Orford JL, et al. Clinical outcome of patients undergoing non-cardiac surgery in the two months following coronary stenting. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2003;42:234-40.
449. McFalls EO, Ward HB, Moritz TE, et al. Coronary-artery revascularization before elective major vascular surgery. *N Engl J Med*. 2004;351:2795-804.
450. Schouten O, van Kuijk JP, Flu WJ, et al. Long-term outcome of prophylactic coronary revascularization in cardiac high-risk patients undergoing major vascular surgery (from the randomized DECREASE-V Pilot Study). *Am J Cardiol*. 2009;103:897-901.
451. Kaluza GL, Joseph J, Lee JR, et al. Catastrophic outcomes of noncardiac surgery soon after coronary stenting. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2000;35:1288-94.
452. Win HK, Caldera AE, Maresh K, et al. Clinical outcomes and stent thrombosis following off-label use of drug-eluting stents. *JAMA*. 2007;297:2001-9.
453. Mauri L, Silbaugh TS, Garg P, et al. Drug-eluting or bare-metal stents for acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;359:1330-42.
- 453a. Mehilli J, Pache J, Abdel-Wahab M, et al. Drug-eluting versus bare-metal stents in saphenous vein graft lesions (ISAR-CABG): a randomised controlled superiority trial. *Lancet*. 2011: published online before print August 28, 2011, doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(11)61255-5.
454. Moses JW, Leon MB, Popma JJ, et al. Sirolimus-eluting stents versus standard stents in patients with stenosis in a native coronary artery. *N Engl J Med*. 2003;349:1315-23.
455. Stone GW, Ellis SG, Cox DA, et al. One-year clinical results with the slow-release, polymer-based, paclitaxel-eluting TAXUS stent: the TAXUS-IV trial. *Circulation*. 2004;109:1942-7.
456. Stone GW, Lansky AJ, Pocock SJ, et al. Paclitaxel-eluting stents versus bare-metal stents in acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med*. 2009;360:1946-59.
457. Pan XH, Chen YX, Xiang MX, et al. A meta-analysis of randomized trials on clinical outcomes of paclitaxel-eluting stents versus bare-metal stents in ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction patients. *J Zhejiang Univ Sci B*. 2010;11:754-61.
458. Hao PP, Chen YG, Wang XL, et al. Efficacy and safety of drug-eluting stents in patients with acute ST-segment-elevation myocardial infarction: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Tex Heart Inst J*. 2010;37:516-24.
459. Suh HS, Song HJ, Choi JE, et al. Drug-eluting stents versus bare-metal stents in acute myocardial infarction: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Int J Technol Assess Health Care*. 2011;27:11-22.
460. Park DW, Park SW, Park KH, et al. Frequency of and risk factors for stent thrombosis after drug-eluting stent implantation during long-term follow-up. *Am J Cardiol*. 2006;98:352-6.
461. Spertus JA, Kettelkamp R, Vance C, et al. Prevalence, predictors, and outcomes of premature discontinuation of thienopyridine therapy after drug-eluting stent placement: results from the PREMIER registry. *Circulation*. 2006;113:2803-9.
462. Nasser M, Kapeliovich M, Markiewicz W. Late thrombosis of sirolimus-eluting stents following noncardiac surgery. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2005;65:516-9.
463. Fischman DL, Leon MB, Baim DS, et al. A randomized comparison of coronary-stent placement and balloon angioplasty in the treatment of coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med*. 1994;331:496-501.
464. Serruys PW, De Jaegere P, Kiemeneij F, et al. A comparison of balloon-expandable-stent implantation with balloon angioplasty in patients with coronary artery disease. Benestent Study Group. *N Engl J Med*. 1994;331:489-95.
465. Stone GW, Moses JW, Ellis SG, et al. Safety and efficacy of sirolimus- and paclitaxel-eluting coronary stents. *N Engl J Med*. 2007;356:998-1008.
466. Stone GW, Midei M, Newman W, et al. Comparison of an everolimus-eluting stent and a paclitaxel-eluting stent in patients with coronary artery disease: a randomized trial. *JAMA*. 2008;299:1903-13.
467. Stone GW, Rizvi A, Newman W, et al. Everolimus-eluting versus paclitaxel-eluting stents in coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2010;362:1663-74.
468. Stone GW, Midei M, Newman W, et al. Randomized comparison of everolimus-eluting and paclitaxel-eluting stents: two-year clinical follow-up from the Clinical Evaluation of the Xience V Everolimus Eluting Coronary Stent System in the Treatment of Patients with de novo Native Coronary Artery Lesions (SPIRIT) III trial. *Circulation*. 2009;119:680-6.
469. Joner M, Finn AV, Farb A, et al. Pathology of drug-eluting stents in humans: delayed healing and late thrombotic risk. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006;48:193-202.
470. Cohen DJ, Bakhai A, Shi C, et al. Cost-effectiveness of sirolimus-eluting stents for treatment of complex coronary stenoses: results from the Sirolimus-Eluting Balloon Expandable Stent in the Treatment of Patients With De Novo Native Coronary Artery Lesions (SIRIUS) trial. *Circulation*. 2004;110:508-14.
471. Boyden TF, Nallamothu BK, Moscucci M, et al. Meta-analysis of randomized trials of drug-eluting stents versus bare metal stents in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Am J Cardiol*. 2007;99:1399-402.
472. Stettler C, Allemann S, Wandel S, et al. Drug eluting and bare metal stents in people with and without diabetes: collaborative network meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2008;337:a1331.
473. Chieffo A, Stankovic G, Bonizzi E, et al. Early and mid-term results of drug-eluting stent implantation in unprotected left main. *Circulation*. 2005;111:791-5.
474. Erglis A, Narbute I, Kumsars I, et al. A randomized comparison of paclitaxel-eluting stents versus bare-metal stents for treatment of unprotected left main coronary artery stenosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;50:491-7.
475. Price MJ, Cristea E, Sawhney N, et al. Serial angiographic follow-up of sirolimus-eluting stents for unprotected left main coronary artery revascularization. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006;47:871-7.
476. Cutlip DE, Baim DS, Ho KK, et al. Stent thrombosis in the modern era: a pooled analysis of multicenter coronary stent clinical trials. *Circulation*. 2001;103:1967-71.

477. Singh M, Gersh BJ, McClelland RL, et al. Predictive factors for ischemic target vessel revascularization in the Prevention of Restenosis with Tranilast and its Outcomes (PRESTO) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2005;45:198-203.
478. Schulz S, Schuster T, Mehilli J, et al. Stent thrombosis after drug-eluting stent implantation: incidence, timing, and relation to discontinuation of clopidogrel therapy over a 4-year period. *Eur Heart J*. 2009;30:2714-21.
479. Nordmann AJ, Hengstler P, Harr T, et al. Clinical outcomes of primary stenting versus balloon angioplasty in patients with myocardial infarction: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Am J Med*. 2004;116:253-62.
480. Gao F, Zhou YJ, Wang ZJ, et al. Meta-analysis of the combination of warfarin and dual antiplatelet therapy after coronary stenting in patients with indications for chronic oral anticoagulation. *Int J Cardiol*. 2011;148:96-101.
481. Levine GN, Gomes AS, Arai AE, et al. Safety of magnetic resonance imaging in patients with cardiovascular devices: an American Heart Association scientific statement from the Committee on Diagnostic and Interventional Cardiac Catheterization, Council on Clinical Cardiology, and the Council on Cardiovascular Radiology and Intervention. *Circulation*. 2007;116:2878-91.
482. Hundley WG, Bluemke DA, Finn JP, et al. ACCF/ACR/AHA/NASCI/SCMR 2010 expert consensus document on cardiovascular magnetic resonance. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:2614-62.
483. Wilson W, Taubert KA, Gewitz M, et al. Prevention of infective endocarditis: guidelines from the American Heart Association: a guideline from the American Heart Association Rheumatic Fever, Endocarditis, and Kawasaki Disease Committee, Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young, and the Council on Clinical Cardiology, Council on Cardiovascular Surgery and Anesthesia, and the Quality of Care and Outcomes Research Interdisciplinary Working Group. *Circulation*. 2007;116:1736-54.
484. Hamilos M, Muller O, Cuisset T, et al. Long-term clinical outcome after fractional flow reserve-guided treatment in patients with angiographically equivocal left main coronary artery stenosis. *Circulation*. 2009;120:1505-12.
485. Pijls NH, van Schaardenburgh P, Manoharan G, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention of functionally nonsignificant stenosis: 5-year follow-up of the DEFER Study. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;49:2105-11.
486. Pijls NH, Fearon WF, Tonino PA, et al. Fractional flow reserve versus angiography for guiding percutaneous coronary intervention in patients with multivessel coronary artery disease: 2-year follow-up of the FAME (Fractional Flow Reserve Versus Angiography for Multivessel Evaluation) study. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;56:177-84.
487. Kern MJ, Samady H. Current concepts of integrated coronary physiology in the catheterization laboratory. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:173-85.
488. Nam CW, Yoon HJ, Cho YK, et al. Outcomes of percutaneous coronary intervention in intermediate coronary artery disease: fractional flow reserve-guided versus intravascular ultrasound-guided. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2010;3:812-7.
489. Briguori C, Anzuini A, Airolidi F, et al. Intravascular ultrasound criteria for the assessment of the functional significance of intermediate coronary artery stenoses and comparison with fractional flow reserve. *Am J Cardiol*. 2001;87:136-41.
490. Fassa AA, Wagatsuma K, Higano ST, et al. Intravascular ultrasound-guided treatment for angiographically indeterminate left main coronary artery disease: a long-term follow-up study. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2005;45:204-11.
491. Kang SJ, Lee JY, Ahn JM, et al. Validation of intravascular ultrasound-derived parameters with fractional flow reserve for assessment of coronary stenosis severity. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2011;4:65-71.
492. Costanzo MR, Dipchand A, Starling R, et al. The International Society of Heart and Lung Transplantation Guidelines for the care of heart transplant recipients. *J Heart Lung Transplant*. 2010;29:914-56.
493. Kobashigawa JA, Tobis JM, Starling RC, et al. Multicenter intravascular ultrasound validation study among heart transplant recipients: outcomes after five years. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2005;45:1532-7.
494. Kapadia SR, Nissen SE, Ziada KM, et al. Development of transplantation vasculopathy and progression of donor-transmitted atherosclerosis: comparison by serial intravascular ultrasound imaging. *Circulation*. 1998;98:2672-8.
495. Dangas GD, Claessen BE, Caixeta A, et al. In-stent restenosis in the drug-eluting stent era. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;56:1897-907.
496. Takagi A, Tsurumi Y, Ishii Y, et al. Clinical potential of intravascular ultrasound for physiological assessment of coronary stenosis: relationship between quantitative ultrasound tomography and pressure-derived fractional flow reserve. *Circulation*. 1999;100:250-5.
497. Magni V, Chieffo A, Colombo A. Evaluation of intermediate coronary stenosis with intravascular ultrasound and fractional flow reserve: its use and abuse. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2009;73:441-8.
498. Park SJ, Kim YH, Park DW, et al. Impact of intravascular ultrasound guidance on long-term mortality in stenting for unprotected left main coronary artery stenosis. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2009;2:167-77.
499. Lee CW, Kang SJ, Park DW, et al. Intravascular ultrasound findings in patients with very late stent thrombosis after either drug-eluting or bare-metal stent implantation. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:1936-42.
500. Okabe T, Mintz GS, Lee SY, et al. Five-year outcomes of moderate or ambiguous left main coronary artery disease and the intravascular ultrasound predictors of events. *J Invasive Cardiol*. 2008;20:635-9.
501. Parikh, SV, Selzer, F, Abbott, JD, Marroquin, OC. No long term clinical effect of IVUS guided PCI: results from the NHLBI dynamic registry. *Circulation*. 2009;120 Abstract.
502. Wijns W, Kolh P, Danchin N, et al. Guidelines on myocardial revascularization: the Task Force on Myocardial Revascularization of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and the European Association for Cardio-Thoracic Surgery (EACTS). *Eur Heart J*. 2010;31:2501-55.
503. Hodgson JM. If you want to stent . . . do intravascular ultrasound! *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2010;3:818-20.
504. Bezerra HG, Costa MA, Guagliumi G, et al. Intracoronary optical coherence tomography: a comprehensive review clinical and research applications. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2009;2:1035-46.
505. Prati F, Regar E, Mintz GS, et al. Expert review document on methodology, terminology, and clinical applications of optical coherence tomography: physical principles, methodology of image acquisition, and clinical application for assessment of coronary arteries and atherosclerosis. *Eur Heart J*. 2010;31:401-15.
506. Barlis P, Gonzalo N, Di Mario C, et al. A multicentre evaluation of the safety of intracoronary optical coherence tomography. *EuroIntervention*. 2009;5:90-5.
507. Yamaguchi T, Terashima M, Akasaka T, et al. Safety and feasibility of an intravascular optical coherence tomography image wire system in the clinical setting. *Am J Cardiol*. 2008;101:562-7.
508. Mintz GS, Nissen SE, Anderson WD, et al. American College of Cardiology clinical expert consensus document on standards for acquisition, measurement and reporting of intravascular ultrasound studies (IVUS). A report of the American College of Cardiology task force on clinical expert consensus documents. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2001;37:1478-92.
509. Fujii K, Kawasaki D, Masutani M, et al. OCT assessment of thin-cap fibroatheroma distribution in native coronary arteries. *J Am Coll Cardiol Img*. 2010;3:168-75.
510. Mizukoshi M, Imanishi T, Tanaka A, et al. Clinical classification and plaque morphology determined by optical coherence tomography in unstable angina pectoris. *Am J Cardiol*. 2010;106:323-8.
511. Chen BX, Ma FY, Luo W, et al. Neointimal coverage of bare-metal and sirolimus-eluting stents evaluated with optical coherence tomography. *Heart*. 2008;94:566-70.
512. Kubo T, Imanishi T, Kitabata H, et al. Comparison of vascular response after sirolimus-eluting stent implantation between patients with unstable and stable angina pectoris: a serial optical coherence tomography study. *J Am Coll Cardiol Img*. 2008;1:475-84.
513. Serruys PW, Ormiston JA, Onuma Y, et al. A bioabsorbable everolimus-eluting coronary stent system (ABSORB): 2-year outcomes and results from multiple imaging methods. *Lancet*. 2009;373:897-910.
514. Moussa I, Di Mario C, Moses J, et al. Coronary stenting after rotational atherectomy in calcified and complex lesions. Angiographic and clinical follow-up results. *Circulation*. 1997;96:128-36.
515. Vaquerizo B, Serra A, Miranda F, et al. Aggressive plaque modification with rotational atherectomy and/or cutting balloon before

- drug-eluting stent implantation for the treatment of calcified coronary lesions. *J Interv Cardiol.* 2010;23:240-8.
516. Bittl JA, Chew DP, Topol EJ, et al. Meta-analysis of randomized trials of percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty versus atherectomy, cutting balloon atherotomy, or laser angioplasty. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2004;43:936-42.
  517. Mauri L, Reisman M, Buchbinder M, et al. Comparison of rotational atherectomy with conventional balloon angioplasty in the prevention of restenosis of small coronary arteries: results of the Dilatation vs Ablation Revascularization Trial Targeting Restenosis (DART). *Am Heart J.* 2003;145:847-54.
  518. Reifart N, Vandormael M, Krajcar M, et al. Randomized comparison of angioplasty of complex coronary lesions at a single center. Excimer Laser, Rotational Atherectomy, and Balloon Angioplasty Comparison (ERBAC) Study. *Circulation.* 1997;96:91-8.
  519. vom Dahl J, Dietz U, Haager PK, et al. Rotational atherectomy does not reduce recurrent in-stent restenosis: results of the angioplasty versus rotational atherectomy for treatment of diffuse in-stent restenosis trial (ARTIST). *Circulation.* 2002;105:583-8.
  520. Brogan WCI, Popma JJ, Pichard AD, et al. Rotational coronary atherectomy after unsuccessful coronary balloon angioplasty. *Am J Cardiol.* 1993;71:794-8.
  521. Kobayashi Y, Teirstein P, Linnemeier T, et al. Rotational atherectomy (stentablation) in a lesion with stent underexpansion due to heavily calcified plaque. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2001;52:208-11.
  522. Sardella G, Mancone M, Bucciarelli-Ducci C, et al. Thrombus aspiration during primary percutaneous coronary intervention improves myocardial reperfusion and reduces infarct size: the EXPIRA (thrombectomy with export catheter in infarct-related artery during primary percutaneous coronary intervention) prospective, randomized trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;53:309-15.
  523. Vlaar PJ, Svilaas T, van der Horst IC, et al. Cardiac death and reinfarction after 1 year in the Thrombus Aspiration during Percutaneous coronary intervention in Acute myocardial infarction Study (TAPAS): a 1-year follow-up study. *Lancet.* 2008;371:1915-20.
  524. Bavry AA, Kumbhani DJ, Bhatt DL. Role of adjunctive thrombectomy and embolic protection devices in acute myocardial infarction: a comprehensive meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Eur Heart J.* 2008;29:2989-3001.
  525. Ali A, Cox D, Dib N, et al. Rheolytic thrombectomy with percutaneous coronary intervention for infarct size reduction in acute myocardial infarction: 30-day results from a multicenter randomized study. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2006;48:244-52.
  526. Migliorini A, Stabile A, Rodriguez AE, et al. Comparison of AngioJet rheolytic thrombectomy before direct infarct artery stenting with direct stenting alone in patients with acute myocardial infarction: the JETSTENT trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;56:1298-306.
  527. Noble S, Bilodeau L. High energy excimer laser to treat coronary in-stent restenosis in an underexpanded stent. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2008;71:803-7.
  528. Stone GW, de Marchena E, Dageforde D, et al., The Laser Angioplasty Versus Angioplasty (LAVA) Trial Investigators. Prospective, randomized, multicenter comparison of laser-facilitated balloon angioplasty versus stand-alone balloon angioplasty in patients with obstructive coronary artery disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1997;30:1714-21.
  529. Albiero R, Silber S, Di Mario C, et al. Cutting balloon versus conventional balloon angioplasty for the treatment of in-stent restenosis: results of the restenosis cutting balloon evaluation trial (RESCUT). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2004;43:943-9.
  530. Mauri L, Bonan R, Weiner BH, et al. Cutting balloon angioplasty for the prevention of restenosis: results of the Cutting Balloon Global Randomized Trial. *Am J Cardiol.* 2002;90:1079-83.
  531. de Ribamar CJ Jr., Mintz GS, Carlier SG, et al. Nonrandomized comparison of coronary stenting under intravascular ultrasound guidance of direct stenting without predilation versus conventional predilation with a semi-compliant balloon versus predilation with a new scoring balloon. *Am J Cardiol.* 2007;100:812-7.
  532. Baim DS, Wahr D, George B, et al. Randomized trial of a distal embolic protection device during percutaneous intervention of saphenous vein aorto-coronary bypass grafts. *Circulation.* 2002;105:1285-90.
  533. Coolong A, Baim DS, Kuntz RE, et al. Saphenous vein graft stenting and major adverse cardiac events: a predictive model derived from a pooled analysis of 3958 patients. *Circulation.* 2008;117:790-7.
  534. Mauri L, Cox D, Hermiller J, et al. The PROXIMAL trial: proximal protection during saphenous vein graft intervention using the Proxis Embolic Protection System: a randomized, prospective, multicenter clinical trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2007;50:1442-9.
  535. Stone GW, Rogers C, Hermiller J, et al. Randomized comparison of distal protection with a filter-based catheter and a balloon occlusion and aspiration system during percutaneous intervention of diseased saphenous vein aorto-coronary bypass grafts. *Circulation.* 2003;108:548-53.
  536. Hoffmann R, Hamm C, Nienaber CA, et al. Implantation of sirolimus-eluting stents in saphenous vein grafts is associated with high clinical follow-up event rates compared with treatment of native vessels. *Coron Artery Dis.* 2007;18:559-64.
  537. Kunadian B, Dunning J, Vijayalakshmi K, et al. Meta-analysis of randomized trials comparing anti-embolic devices with standard PCI for improving myocardial reperfusion in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2007;69:488-96.
  538. Cohen M, Urban P, Christenson JT, et al. Intra-aortic balloon counterpulsation in US and non-US centres: results of the Benchmark Registry. *Eur Heart J.* 2003;24:1763-70.
  539. Stone GW, Ohman EM, Miller MF, et al. Contemporary utilization and outcomes of intra-aortic balloon counterpulsation in acute myocardial infarction: the benchmark registry. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2003;41:1940-5.
  540. Briguori C, Sarais C, Pagnotta P, et al. Elective versus provisional intra-aortic balloon pumping in high-risk percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty. *Am Heart J.* 2003;145:700-7.
  541. Mishra S, Chu WW, Torguson R, et al. Role of prophylactic intra-aortic balloon pump in high-risk patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention. *Am J Cardiol.* 2006;98:608-12.
  542. Perera D, Stables R, Thomas M, et al. Elective intra-aortic balloon counterpulsation during high-risk percutaneous coronary intervention: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2010;304:867-74.
  543. Gupta A, Allaqaband S, Bajwa T. Combined use of Impella device and intra-aortic balloon pump to improve survival in a patient in profound cardiogenic shock post cardiac arrest. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2009;74:975-6.
  544. Seyfarth M, Sibbing D, Bauer I, et al. A randomized clinical trial to evaluate the safety and efficacy of a percutaneous left ventricular assist device versus intra-aortic balloon pumping for treatment of cardiogenic shock caused by myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2008;52:1584-8.
  545. Henriques JP, Rummelink M, Baan J Jr., et al. Safety and feasibility of elective high-risk percutaneous coronary intervention procedures with left ventricular support of the Impella Recover LP 2.5. *Am J Cardiol.* 2006;97:990-2.
  546. Rummelink M, Sjaun KD, Henriques JP, et al. Effects of mechanical left ventricular unloading by Impella on left ventricular dynamics in high-risk and primary percutaneous coronary intervention patients. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2010;75:187-94.
  547. Dixon SR, Henriques JP, Mauri L, et al. A prospective feasibility trial investigating the use of the Impella 2.5 system in patients undergoing high-risk percutaneous coronary intervention (The PROTECT I Trial): initial US experience. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2009;2:91-6.
  548. Sjaun KD, Konorza T, Erbel R, et al. Supported high-risk percutaneous coronary intervention with the Impella 2.5 device the Impella registry. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;54:2430-4.
  549. PROTECT II (A Prospective, Multicenter, Randomized Controlled Trial of the IMPELLA RECOVER LP 2.5 System Versus Intra Aortic Balloon Pump in Patients Undergoing Non Emergent High Risk PCI) trial. Available at: <http://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT00562016>. Accessed August 16, 2011.
  550. Kar B, Gregoric ID, Basra SS, et al. The percutaneous ventricular assist device in severe refractory cardiogenic shock. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2011;57:688-96.
  551. Kar B, Adkins LE, Civitello AB, et al. Clinical experience with the TandemHeart percutaneous ventricular assist device. *Tex Heart Inst J.* 2006;33:111-5.
  552. Singh IM, Holmes DR Jr., Rihal CS. Impact of tandem heart percutaneous left ventricular assist device on invasive hemodynamics. *i2 Oral Contributions.* Presentation Number: 2904-10. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;55:A180.E1684. Abstract.
  553. Kovacic JC, Nguyen HT, Karajgikar R, et al. The Impella Recover 2.5 and TandemHeart ventricular assist devices are safe and associ-

- ated with equivalent clinical outcomes in patients undergoing high-risk percutaneous coronary intervention. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2011; published online before print January 13, 2011, doi:10.1002/ccd.22929.
554. Vranckx P, Schultz CJ, Valgimigli M, et al. Assisted circulation using the TandemHeart during very high-risk PCI of the unprotected left main coronary artery in patients declined for CABG. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2009;74:302-10.
555. Aragon J, Lee MS, Kar S, et al. Percutaneous left ventricular assist device: "TandemHeart" for high-risk coronary intervention. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2005;65:346-52.
556. Rajdev S, Krishnan P, Irani A, et al. Clinical application of prophylactic percutaneous left ventricular assist device (TandemHeart) in high-risk percutaneous coronary intervention using an arterial pre-closure technique: single-center experience. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2008; 20:67-72.
557. Green SM, Krauss B. Procedural sedation terminology: moving beyond "conscious sedation." *Ann Emerg Med.* 2002;39:433-5.
558. American Society of Anesthesiologists Task Force on Sedation and Analgesia by Non-Anesthesiologists. Practice guidelines for sedation and analgesia by non-anesthesiologists. *Anesthesiology.* 2002;96: 1004-17.
559. Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organization. Comprehensive Accreditation Manual: CAMH for Hospitals. Oakbrook Terrace, IL: Joint Commission Resources; 2010.
560. Schomig A, Neumann FJ, Kastrati A, et al. A randomized comparison of antiplatelet and anticoagulant therapy after the placement of coronary-artery stents. *N Engl J Med.* 1996;334:1084-9.
561. Collaborative meta-analysis of randomised trials of antiplatelet therapy for prevention of death, myocardial infarction, and stroke in high risk patients. *BMJ.* 2002;324:71-86.
562. Smith SC Jr., Allen J, Blair SN, et al. AHA/ACC guidelines for secondary prevention for patients with coronary and other atherosclerotic vascular disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2006;47:2130-9.
563. Baigent C, Blackwell L, Collins R, et al. Aspirin in the primary and secondary prevention of vascular disease: collaborative meta-analysis of individual participant data from randomised trials. *Lancet.* 2009; 373:1849-60.
564. Gurbel PA, Bliden KP, Zaman KA, et al. Clopidogrel loading with eptifibatid to arrest the reactivity of platelets: results of the Clopidogrel Loading With Eptifibatid to Arrest the Reactivity of Platelets (CLEAR PLATELETS) study. *Circulation.* 2005;111:1153-9.
565. Sabatine MS, Cannon CP, Gibson CM, et al. Effect of clopidogrel pretreatment before percutaneous coronary intervention in patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction treated with fibrinolytics: the PCI-CLARITY study. *JAMA.* 2005;294:1224-32.
566. van der Heijden DJ, Westendorp IC, Riezebos RK, et al. Lack of efficacy of clopidogrel pre-treatment in the prevention of myocardial damage after elective stent implantation. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2004; 44:20-4.
567. Wiviott SD, Braunwald E, McCabe CH, et al. Prasugrel versus clopidogrel in patients with acute coronary syndromes. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;357:2001-15.
568. Wallentin L, Becker RC, Budaj A, et al. Ticagrelor versus clopidogrel in patients with acute coronary syndromes. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;361: 1045-57.
569. Chen ZM, Jiang LX, Chen YP, et al. Addition of clopidogrel to aspirin in 45,852 patients with acute myocardial infarction: randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2005;366:1607-21.
570. Mehta SR, Yusuf S, Peters RJ, et al. Effects of pretreatment with clopidogrel and aspirin followed by long-term therapy in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: the PCI-CURE study. *Lancet.* 2001;358:527-33.
571. Brar SS, Kim J, Brar SK, et al. Long-term outcomes by clopidogrel duration and stent type in a diabetic population with de novo coronary artery lesions. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2008;51:2220-7.
572. Steinhubl SR, Berger PB, Mann JTI, et al. Early and sustained dual oral antiplatelet therapy following percutaneous coronary intervention: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2002;288:2411-20.
573. Patrono C, Baigent C, Hirsh J, et al. Antiplatelet drugs: American College of Chest Physicians Evidence-Based Clinical Practice Guidelines (8th edition). *Chest.* 2008;133:199S-233S.
574. Steinhubl SR, Bhatt DL, Brennan DM, et al. Aspirin to prevent cardiovascular disease: the association of aspirin dose and clopidogrel with thrombosis and bleeding. *Ann Intern Med.* 2009;150:379-86.
575. Serebruany VL, Steinhubl SR, Berger PB, et al. Analysis of risk of bleeding complications after different doses of aspirin in 192,036 patients enrolled in 31 randomized controlled trials. *Am J Cardiol.* 2005;95:1218-22.
576. Peters RJ, Mehta SR, Fox KA, et al. Effects of aspirin dose when used alone or in combination with clopidogrel in patients with acute coronary syndromes: observations from the Clopidogrel in Unstable angina to prevent Recurrent Events (CURE) study. *Circulation.* 2003;108:1682-7.
577. von Beckerath N, Taubert D, Pogatsa-Murray G, et al. Absorption, metabolism, and antiplatelet effects of 300-, 600-, and 900-mg loading doses of clopidogrel: results of the ISAR-CHOICE (Intra-coronary Stenting and Antithrombotic Regimen: Choose Between 3 High Oral Doses for Immediate Clopidogrel Effect) trial. *Circulation.* 2005;112:2946-50.
578. Siller-Matula JM, Huber K, Christ G, et al. Impact of clopidogrel loading dose on clinical outcome in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Heart.* 2011;97:98-105.
579. Mangiacapra F, Muller O, Ntalianis A, et al. Comparison of 600 versus 300-mg clopidogrel loading dose in patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction undergoing primary coronary angioplasty. *Am J Cardiol.* 2010;106:1208-11.
580. Berger PB, Mahaffey KW, Meier SJ, et al. Safety and efficacy of only 2 weeks of ticlopidine therapy in patients at increased risk of coronary stent thrombosis: results from the Antiplatelet Therapy alone versus Lovenox plus Antiplatelet therapy in patients at increased risk of Stent Thrombosis (ATLAST) trial. *Am Heart J.* 2002;143:841-6.
581. Di Sciascio G, Patti G, Pasceri V, et al. Effectiveness of in-laboratory high-dose clopidogrel loading versus routine pre-load in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: results of the ARMYDA-5 PRELOAD (Antiplatelet therapy for Reduction of MYocardial Damage during Angioplasty) randomized trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;56:550-7.
582. Widimsky P, Motovska Z, Simek S, et al. Clopidogrel pre-treatment in stable angina: for all patients > 6 h before elective coronary angiography or only for angiographically selected patients a few minutes before PCI? A randomized multicentre trial PRAGUE-8. *Eur Heart J.* 2008;29:1495-503.
583. AstraZeneca. Brilinta REMS document. NDA 22-433. Reference ID: 2976456. Available at: <http://www.fda.gov/downloads/Drugs/DrugSafety/PostmarketDrugSafetyInformationforPatientsandProviders/UCM264004.pdf>. [Package insert]. Accessed September 9, 2011.
584. Antoniucci D, Migliorini A, Parodi G, et al. Abciximab-supported infarct artery stent implantation for acute myocardial infarction and long-term survival: a prospective, multicenter, randomized trial comparing infarct artery stenting plus abciximab with stenting alone. *Circulation.* 2004;109:1704-6.
585. Neumann FJ, Kastrati A, Schmitt C, et al. Effect of glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor blockade with abciximab on clinical and angiographic restenosis rate after the placement of coronary stents following acute myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2000;35:915-21.
586. Stone GW, Grines CL, Cox DA, et al. Comparison of angioplasty with stenting, with or without abciximab, in acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 2002;346:957-66.
587. Montalescot G, Barragan P, Wittenberg O, et al. Platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibition with coronary stenting for acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 2001;344:1895-903.
588. De Luca G, Suryapranata H, Stone GW, et al. Abciximab as adjunctive therapy to reperfusion in acute ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. *JAMA.* 2005;293:1759-65.
589. Mehilli J, Kastrati A, Schulz S, et al. Abciximab in patients with acute ST-segment-elevation myocardial infarction undergoing primary percutaneous coronary intervention after clopidogrel loading: a randomized double-blind trial. *Circulation.* 2009;119:1933-40.
590. De Luca G, Navarese E, Marino P. Risk profile and benefits from Gp IIb-IIIa inhibitors among patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction treated with primary angioplasty: a meta-regression analysis of randomized trials. *Eur Heart J.* 2009;30:2705-13.

591. Bellandi F, Maioli M, Gallopin M, et al. Increase of myocardial salvage and left ventricular function recovery with intracoronary abciximab downstream of the coronary occlusion in patients with acute myocardial infarction treated with primary coronary intervention. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2004;62:186–92.
592. Romagnoli E, Burzotta F, Trani C, et al. Angiographic evaluation of the effect of intracoronary abciximab administration in patients undergoing urgent PCI. *Int J Cardiol.* 2005;105:250–5.
593. Iversen A, Galatius S, Jensen JS. The optimal route of administration of the glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor antagonist abciximab during percutaneous coronary intervention; intravenous versus intracoronary. *Curr Cardiol Rev.* 2008;4:293–9.
594. Wöhrle J, Nusser T, Mayer C, et al. Intracoronary application of abciximab in patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction. *EuroIntervention.* 2008;3:465–9.
595. Kakkar AK, Moustapha A, Hanley HG, et al. Comparison of intracoronary vs. intravenous administration of abciximab in coronary stenting. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2004;61:31–4.
596. Wöhrle J, Grebe OC, Nusser T, et al. Reduction of major adverse cardiac events with intracoronary compared with intravenous bolus application of abciximab in patients with acute myocardial infarction or unstable angina undergoing coronary angioplasty. *Circulation.* 2003;107:1840–3.
597. Bertrand OF, Rodes-Cabau J, Larose E, et al. Intracoronary compared to intravenous abciximab and high-dose bolus compared to standard dose in patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction undergoing transradial primary percutaneous coronary intervention: a two-by-two factorial placebo-controlled randomized study. *Am J Cardiol.* 2010;105:1520–7.
598. Deibele AJ, Kirtane AJ, Pinto DS, et al. Intracoronary bolus administration of eptifibatid during percutaneous coronary stenting for non ST elevation myocardial infarction and unstable angina. *J Thromb Thrombolysis.* 2006;22:47–50.
599. Yang XC, Zhang DP, Wang LF, et al. [Effects of intracoronary or intravenous tirofiban administration in patients with acute ST-elevation myocardial infarction undergoing primary percutaneous coronary intervention]. *Zhonghua Xin Xue Guan Bing Za Zhi.* 2007;35:517–22.
600. Deibele AJ, Jennings LK, Tcheng JE, et al. Intracoronary eptifibatid bolus administration during percutaneous coronary revascularization for acute coronary syndromes with evaluation of platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor occupancy and platelet function: the Intracoronary Eptifibatid (ICE) Trial. *Circulation.* 2010;121:784–91.
601. Hansen PR, Iversen A, Abdulla J. Improved clinical outcomes with intracoronary compared to intravenous abciximab in patients with acute coronary syndromes undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2010;22:278–82.
602. Galache Osuna JG, Sanchez-Rubio J, Calvo I, et al. [Does intracoronary abciximab improve the outcome of percutaneous coronary interventions? A randomized controlled trial]. *Rev Esp Cardiol.* 2006;59:567–74.
603. Wu TG, Zhao Q, Huang WG, et al. Effect of intracoronary tirofiban in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention for acute coronary syndrome. *Circ J.* 2008;72:1605–9.
604. Marciniak SJ Jr., Mascelli MA, Furman MI, et al. An additional mechanism of action of abciximab: dispersal of newly formed platelet aggregates. *Thromb Haemost.* 2002;87:1020–5.
605. Montalescot G, Borentain M, Payot L, et al. Early vs late administration of glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitors in primary percutaneous coronary intervention of acute ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: a meta-analysis. *JAMA.* 2004;292:362–6.
606. Maioli M, Bellandi F, Leoncini M, et al. Randomized early versus late abciximab in acute myocardial infarction treated with primary coronary intervention (RELAX-AMI Trial). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2007;49:1517–24.
607. Keeley EC, Boura JA, Grines CL. Comparison of primary and facilitated percutaneous coronary interventions for ST-elevation myocardial infarction: quantitative review of randomised trials. *Lancet.* 2006;367:579–88.
608. Van't Hof AWJ, ten Berg JM, Heestermans T, et al. Prehospital initiation of tirofiban in patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction undergoing primary angioplasty (On-TIME 2): a multi-centre, double-blind, randomised controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2008;372:537–46.
609. ten Berg JM, van't Hof AWJ, Dill T, et al. Effect of early, pre-hospital initiation of high bolus dose tirofiban in patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction on short- and long-term clinical outcome. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2010;55:2446–55.
610. Ellis SG, Tendera M, de Belder MA, et al. 1-year survival in a randomized trial of facilitated reperfusion: results from the FINESSE (Facilitated Intervention with Enhanced Reperfusion Speed to Stop Events) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol Intv.* 2009;2:909–16.
611. Ellis SG, Tendera M, de Belder MA, et al. Facilitated PCI in patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 2008;358:2205–17.
612. El Khoury C, Dubien PY, Mercier C, et al. Prehospital high-dose tirofiban in patients undergoing primary percutaneous intervention. The AGIR-2 study. *Arch Cardiovasc Dis.* 2010;103:285–92.
613. The EPILOG Investigators. Platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor blockade and low-dose heparin during percutaneous coronary revascularization. *N Engl J Med.* 1997;336:1689–96.
614. Boersma E, Akkerhuis KM, Theroux P, et al. Platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor inhibition in non-ST-elevation acute coronary syndromes: early benefit during medical treatment only, with additional protection during percutaneous coronary intervention. *Circulation.* 1999;100:2045–8.
615. Hamm CW, Heeschen C, Goldmann B, et al. Benefit of abciximab in patients with refractory unstable angina in relation to serum troponin T levels. c7E3 Fab Antiplatelet Therapy in Unstable Refractory Angina (CAPTURE) Study Investigators. *N Engl J Med.* 1999;340:1623–9.
616. Kastrati A, Mehilli J, Neumann FJ, et al. Abciximab in patients with acute coronary syndromes undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention after clopidogrel pretreatment: the ISAR-REACT 2 randomized trial. *JAMA.* 2006;295:1531–8.
617. Roffi M, Chew DP, Mukherjee D, et al. Platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitors reduce mortality in diabetic patients with non-ST-segment-elevation acute coronary syndromes. *Circulation.* 2001;104:2767–71.
618. The EPIC Investigators. Use of a monoclonal antibody directed against the platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor in high-risk coronary angioplasty. The EPIC Investigation. *N Engl J Med.* 1994;330:956–61.
619. Valgimigli M, Percoco G, Barbieri D, et al. The additive value of tirofiban administered with the high-dose bolus in the prevention of ischemic complications during high-risk coronary angioplasty: the ADVANCE Trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2004;44:14–9.
620. EPISTENT Investigators. Randomised placebo-controlled and balloon-angioplasty-controlled trial to assess safety of coronary stenting with use of platelet glycoprotein-IIb/IIIa blockade. *Lancet.* 1998;352:87–92.
621. ESPIRIT Investigators. Novel dosing regimen of eptifibatid in planned coronary stent implantation (ESPRIT): a randomised, placebo-controlled trial [published correction appears in *Lancet.* 2001;357:1370]. *Lancet.* 2000;356:2037–44.
622. Kastrati A, Mehilli J, Schühlen H, et al. A clinical trial of abciximab in elective percutaneous coronary intervention after pretreatment with clopidogrel. *N Engl J Med.* 2004;350:232–8.
623. Mehilli J, Kastrati A, Schühlen H, et al. Randomized clinical trial of abciximab in diabetic patients undergoing elective percutaneous coronary interventions after treatment with a high loading dose of clopidogrel. *Circulation.* 2004;110:3627–35.
624. Hausleiter J, Kastrati A, Mehilli J, et al. A randomized trial comparing phosphorylcholine-coated stenting with balloon angioplasty as well as abciximab with placebo for restenosis reduction in small coronary arteries. *J Intern Med.* 2004;256:388–97.
625. De Luca G, Casseti E, Verdoia M, et al. Bivalirudin as compared to unfractionated heparin among patients undergoing coronary angioplasty: a meta-analysis of randomised trials. *Thromb Haemost.* 2009;102:428–36.
626. Stone GW, Moliterno DJ, Bertrand M, et al. Impact of clinical syndrome acuity on the differential response to 2 glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitors in patients undergoing coronary stenting: the TARGET Trial. *Circulation.* 2002;105:2347–54.
627. Danzi GB, Capuano C, Sesana M, et al. Variability in extent of platelet function inhibition after administration of optimal dose of



- glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor blockers in patients undergoing a high-risk percutaneous coronary intervention. *Am J Cardiol.* 2006;97:489-93.
628. Steinhubl SR, Kottke-Marchant K, Moliterno DJ, et al. Attainment and maintenance of platelet inhibition through standard dosing of abciximab in diabetic and nondiabetic patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention. *Circulation.* 1999;100:1977-82.
629. Gilchrist IC, O'Shea JC, Kosoglou T, et al. Pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics of higher-dose, double-bolus eptifibatid in percutaneous coronary intervention. *Circulation.* 2001;104:406-11.
630. Gurm HS, Tamhane U, Meier P, et al. A comparison of abciximab and small-molecule glycoprotein IIb/IIIa inhibitors in patients undergoing primary percutaneous coronary intervention: a meta-analysis of contemporary randomized controlled trials. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv.* 2009;2:230-6.
631. De Luca G, Ucci G, Cassetti E, et al. Benefits from small molecule administration as compared with abciximab among patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction treated with primary angioplasty: a meta-analysis. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;53:1668-73.
632. McKay RG, Boden WE. Small peptide GP IIb/IIIa receptor inhibitors as upstream therapy in non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndromes: results of the PURSUIT, PRISM, PRISM-PLUS, TACTICS, and PARAGON trials. *Curr Opin Cardiol.* 2001;16:364-9.
633. The RESTORE Investigators. Effects of platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa blockade with tirofiban on adverse cardiac events in patients with unstable angina or acute myocardial infarction undergoing coronary angioplasty. Randomized Efficacy Study of Tirofiban for Outcomes and REstenosis. *Circulation.* 1997;96:1445-53.
634. Bonz AW, Lengenfelder B, Strotmann J, et al. Effect of additional temporary glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor inhibition on troponin release in elective percutaneous coronary interventions after pretreatment with aspirin and clopidogrel (TOPSTAR trial). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2002;40:662-8.
635. Juergens CP, White HD, Belardi JA, et al. A multicenter study of the tolerability of tirofiban versus placebo in patients undergoing planned intracoronary stent placement. *Clin Ther.* 2002;24:1332-44.
636. Stabile E, Nammias W, Salemme L, et al. The CIAO (Coronary Interventions Antiplatelet-based Only) study: a randomized study comparing standard anticoagulation regimen to absence of anticoagulation for elective percutaneous coronary intervention. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2008;52:1293-8.
637. Lincoff AM, Steinhubl SR, Manoukian SV, et al. Influence of timing of clopidogrel treatment on the efficacy and safety of bivalirudin in patients with non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndromes undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: an analysis of the ACUITY (Acute Catheterization and Urgent Intervention Triage strategy) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol Intv.* 2008;1:639-48.
638. Kastrati A, Neumann FJ, Mehilli J, et al. Bivalirudin versus unfractionated heparin during percutaneous coronary intervention. *N Engl J Med.* 2008;359:688-96.
639. Lincoff AM, Bittl JA, Harrington RA, et al. Bivalirudin and provisional glycoprotein IIb/IIIa blockade compared with heparin and planned glycoprotein IIb/IIIa blockade during percutaneous coronary intervention: REPLACE-2 randomized trial. *JAMA.* 2003;289:853-63.
640. Lincoff AM, Kleiman NS, Kereiakes DJ, et al. Long-term efficacy of bivalirudin and provisional glycoprotein IIb/IIIa blockade vs heparin and planned glycoprotein IIb/IIIa blockade during percutaneous coronary revascularization: REPLACE-2 randomized trial. *JAMA.* 2004;292:696-703.
641. Mehran R, Lansky AJ, Witzenbichler B, et al. Bivalirudin in patients undergoing primary angioplasty for acute myocardial infarction (HORIZONS-AMI): 1-year results of a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet.* 2009;374:1149-59.
642. Schulz S, Mehilli J, Ndrepepa G, et al. Bivalirudin vs. unfractionated heparin during percutaneous coronary interventions in patients with stable and unstable angina pectoris: 1-year results of the ISAR-REACT 3 trial. *Eur Heart J.* 2010;31:582-7.
643. Stone GW, McLaurin BT, Cox DA, et al. Bivalirudin for patients with acute coronary syndromes. *N Engl J Med.* 2006;355:2203-16.
644. Stone GW, Witzenbichler B, Guagliumi G, et al. Bivalirudin during primary PCI in acute myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 2008;358:2218-30.
645. Dangas G, Mehran R, Guagliumi G, et al. Role of clopidogrel loading dose in patients with ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction undergoing primary angioplasty: results from the HORIZONS-AMI (harmonizing outcomes with revascularization and stents in acute myocardial infarction) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;54:1438-46.
646. Brieger D, Collet JP, Silvain J, et al. Heparin or enoxaparin anticoagulation for primary percutaneous coronary intervention. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2011;77:182-90.
647. Choussat R, Montalescot G, Collet JP, et al. A unique, low dose of intravenous enoxaparin in elective percutaneous coronary intervention. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2002;40:1943-50.
648. Collet JP, Montalescot G, Lison L, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention after subcutaneous enoxaparin pretreatment in patients with unstable angina pectoris. *Circulation.* 2001;103:658-63.
649. Ferguson JJ, Califf RM, Antman EM, et al. Enoxaparin vs unfractionated heparin in high-risk patients with non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndromes managed with an intended early invasive strategy: primary results of the SYNERGY randomized trial. *JAMA.* 2004;292:45-54.
650. Montalescot G, Gallo R, White HD, et al. Enoxaparin versus unfractionated heparin in elective percutaneous coronary intervention 1-year results from the STEEPLE (SafeTy and efficacy of enoxaparin in percutaneous coronary intervention patients, an international randomized evaluation) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol Intv.* 2009;2:1083-91.
651. Yusuf S, Mehta SR, Chrolavicius S, et al. Comparison of fondaparinux and enoxaparin in acute coronary syndromes. *N Engl J Med.* 2006;354:1464-76.
652. Yusuf S, Mehta SR, Chrolavicius S, et al. Effects of fondaparinux on mortality and reinfarction in patients with acute ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: the OASIS-6 randomized trial. *JAMA.* 2006;295:1519-30.
653. Ferguson JJ, Dougherty KG, Gaos CM, et al. Relation between procedural activated coagulation time and outcome after percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1994;23:1061-5.
654. McGarry TF Jr., Gottlieb RS, Morganroth J, et al. The relationship of anticoagulation level and complications after successful percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty. *Am Heart J.* 1992;123:1445-51.
655. Narins CR, Hillegeass WB Jr., Nelson CL, et al. Relation between activated clotting time during angioplasty and abrupt closure. *Circulation.* 1996;93:667-71.
656. Brener SJ, Moliterno DJ, Lincoff AM, et al. Relationship between activated clotting time and ischemic or hemorrhagic complications: analysis of 4 recent randomized clinical trials of percutaneous coronary intervention. *Circulation.* 2004;110:994-8.
657. Tolleson TR, O'Shea JC, Bittl JA, et al. Relationship between heparin anticoagulation and clinical outcomes in coronary stent intervention: observations from the ESPRIT trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2003;41:386-93.
658. Doherty TM, Shavelle RM, French WJ. Reproducibility and variability of activated clotting time measurements in the cardiac catheterization laboratory. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2005;65:330-7.
659. Plante S, Cantor WJ, Goldman L, et al. Comparison of bivalirudin versus heparin on radial artery occlusion after transradial catheterization. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2011;76:654-8.
660. Bertrand OF, Rodes-Cabau J, Rinfret S, et al. Impact of final activated clotting time after transradial coronary stenting with maximal antiplatelet therapy. *Am J Cardiol.* 2009;104:1235-40.
661. Cohen M, Levine GN, Pieper KS, et al. Enoxaparin 0.3 mg/kg IV supplement for patients transitioning to PCI after subcutaneous enoxaparin therapy for NSTEMI ACS: a subgroup analysis from the SYNERGY trial. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2010;75:928-35.
662. Collet JP, Montalescot G, Golmard JL, et al. Subcutaneous enoxaparin with early invasive strategy in patients with acute coronary syndromes. *Am Heart J.* 2004;147:655-61.
663. Levine GN, Ferrando T. Degree of anticoagulation after one subcutaneous and one subsequent intravenous booster dose of enoxaparin: implications for patients with acute coronary syndromes undergoing early percutaneous coronary intervention. *J Thromb Thrombolysis.* 2004;17:167-71.
664. Martin JL, Fry ET, Sanderink GJ, et al. Reliable anticoagulation with enoxaparin in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary interven-

- tion: the pharmacokinetics of enoxaparin in PCI (PEPCI) study. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2004;61:163-70.
665. Drouet L, Bal dit Sollier C, Martin J. Adding intravenous unfractionated heparin to standard enoxaparin causes excessive anticoagulation not detected by activated clotting time: results of the STACK-on to ENOXaparin (STACKENOX) study. *Am Heart J.* 2009;158:177-84.
  666. Martin JL, Fry ET, Sanderink GJ, et al. Reliable anticoagulation with enoxaparin in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: The pharmacokinetics of enoxaparin in PCI (PEPCI) study. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2004;61:163-70.
  667. Dumaine R, Borentain M, Bertel O, et al. Intravenous low-molecular-weight heparins compared with unfractionated heparin in percutaneous coronary intervention: quantitative review of randomized trials. *Arch Intern Med.* 2007;167:2423-30.
  668. Lewis BE, Matthai WH Jr, Cohen M, et al. Argatroban anticoagulation during percutaneous coronary intervention in patients with heparin-induced thrombocytopenia. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2002;57:177-84.
  669. Mahaffey KW, Lewis BE, Wildermann NM, et al. The anticoagulant therapy with bivalirudin to assist in the performance of percutaneous coronary intervention in patients with heparin-induced thrombocytopenia (ATBAT) study: main results. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2003;15:611-6.
  670. Rassen JA, Mittleman MA, Glynn RJ, et al. Safety and effectiveness of bivalirudin in routine care of patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention. *Eur Heart J.* 2010;31:561-72.
  671. Aster RH. Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia and thrombosis. *N Engl J Med.* 1995;332:1374-6.
  672. Brieger DB, Mak KH, Kottke-Marchant K, et al. Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1998;31:1449-59.
  673. Steg PG, Jolly SS, Mehta SR, et al. Low-dose vs standard-dose unfractionated heparin for percutaneous coronary intervention in acute coronary syndromes treated with fondaparinux: the FUTURA/OASIS-8 randomized trial. *JAMA.* 2010;304:1339-49.
  674. Amit G, Cafri C, Yaroslavtsev S, et al. Intracoronary nitroprusside for the prevention of the no-reflow phenomenon after primary percutaneous coronary intervention in acute myocardial infarction. A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial. *Am Heart J.* 2006;152:887.e9-887.e14.
  675. Assali AR, Sdringola S, Ghani M, et al. Intracoronary adenosine administered during percutaneous intervention in acute myocardial infarction and reduction in the incidence of "no reflow" phenomenon. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2000;51:27-31.
  676. Barcin C, Denktas AE, Lennon RJ, et al. Comparison of combination therapy of adenosine and nitroprusside with adenosine alone in the treatment of angiographic no-reflow phenomenon. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2004;61:484-91.
  677. Fischell TA, Haller S, Pulkurthy S, et al. Nicardipine and adenosine "flush cocktail" to prevent no-reflow during rotational atherectomy. *Cardiovasc Revasc Med.* 2008;9:224-8.
  678. Hillegeass WB, Dean NA, Liao L, et al. Treatment of no-reflow and impaired flow with the nitric oxide donor nitroprusside following percutaneous coronary interventions: initial human clinical experience. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2001;37:1335-43.
  679. Huang RI, Patel P, Walinsky P, et al. Efficacy of intracoronary nicardipine in the treatment of no-reflow during percutaneous coronary intervention. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2006;68:671-6.
  680. Ito H, Taniyama Y, Iwakura K, et al. Intravenous nicorandil can preserve microvascular integrity and myocardial viability in patients with reperfused anterior wall myocardial infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1999;33:654-60.
  681. Kaplan BM, Benzuly KH, Kinn JW, et al. Treatment of no-reflow in degenerated saphenous vein graft interventions: comparison of intracoronary verapamil and nitroglycerin. *Cathet Cardiovasc Diagn.* 1996;39:113-8.
  682. Marzilli M, Orsini E, Marraccini P, et al. Beneficial effects of intracoronary adenosine as an adjunct to primary angioplasty in acute myocardial infarction. *Circulation.* 2000;101:2154-9.
  683. Ono H, Osanai T, Ishizaka H, et al. Nicorandil improves cardiac function and clinical outcome in patients with acute myocardial infarction undergoing primary percutaneous coronary intervention: role of inhibitory effect on reactive oxygen species formation. *Am Heart J.* 2004;148:611.
  684. Piana RN, Paik GY, Moscucci M, et al. Incidence and treatment of 'no-reflow' after percutaneous coronary intervention. *Circulation.* 1994;89:2514-8.
  685. Ross AM, Gibbons RJ, Stone GW, et al. A randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled multicenter trial of adenosine as an adjunct to reperfusion in the treatment of acute myocardial infarction (AMISTAD-II). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2005;45:1775-80.
  686. Sdringola S, Assali A, Ghani M, et al. Adenosine use during aortocoronary vein graft interventions reverses but does not prevent the slow-no reflow phenomenon. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2000;51:394-9.
  687. Stoel MG, Marques KM, de Cock CC, et al. High dose adenosine for suboptimal myocardial reperfusion after primary PCI: A randomized placebo-controlled pilot study. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2008;71:283-9.
  688. Werner GS, Lang K, Kuehnert H, et al. Intracoronary verapamil for reversal of no-reflow during coronary angioplasty for acute myocardial infarction. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2002;57:444-51.
  689. Weyrens FJ, Mooney J, Lesser J, et al. Intracoronary diltiazem for microvascular spasm after interventional therapy. *Am J Cardiol.* 1995;75:849-50.
  690. Montalescot G, Antoniucci D, Kastrati A, et al. Abciximab in primary coronary stenting of ST-elevation myocardial infarction: a European meta-analysis on individual patients' data with long-term follow-up. *Eur Heart J.* 2007;28:443-9.
  691. Fischell TA, Carter AJ, Foster MT, et al. Reversal of "no reflow" during vein graft stenting using high velocity boluses of intracoronary adenosine. *Cathet Cardiovasc Diagn.* 1998;45:360-5.
  692. Skelding KA, Goldstein JA, Mehta L, et al. Resolution of refractory no-reflow with intracoronary epinephrine. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2002;57:305-9.
  693. Iwasaki K, Samukawa M, Furukawa H. Comparison of the effects of nicorandil versus verapamil on the incidence of slow flow/no reflow during rotational atherectomy. *Am J Cardiol.* 2006;98:1354-6.
  694. Matsuo H, Watanabe S, Watanabe T, et al. Prevention of no-reflow/slow-flow phenomenon during rotational atherectomy: a prospective randomized study comparing intracoronary continuous infusion of verapamil and nicorandil. *Am Heart J.* 2007;154:994-6.
  695. Tsubokawa A, Ueda K, Sakamoto H, et al. Effect of intracoronary nicorandil administration on preventing no-reflow/slow flow phenomenon during rotational atherectomy. *Circ J.* 2002;66:1119-23.
  696. Fischell TA, Subraya RG, Ashraf K, et al. "Pharmacologic" distal protection using prophylactic, intragraft nicardipine to prevent no-reflow and non-Q-wave myocardial infarction during elective saphenous vein graft intervention. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2007;19:58-62.
  697. Michaels AD, Appleby M, Otten MH, et al. Pretreatment with intragraft verapamil prior to percutaneous coronary intervention of saphenous vein graft lesions: results of the randomized, controlled vasodilator prevention on no-reflow (VAPOR) trial. *J Invasive Cardiol.* 2002;14:299-302.
  698. Vijayalakshmi K, Whittaker VJ, Kunadian B, et al. Prospective, randomised, controlled trial to study the effect of intracoronary injection of verapamil and adenosine on coronary blood flow during percutaneous coronary intervention in patients with acute coronary syndromes. *Heart.* 2006;92:1278-84.
  699. Olivari Z, Rubartelli P, Piscione F, et al. Immediate results and one-year clinical outcome after percutaneous coronary interventions in chronic total occlusions: data from a multicenter, prospective, observational study (TOAST-GISE). *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2003;41:1672-8.
  700. Suero JA, Marso SP, Jones PG, et al. Procedural outcomes and long-term survival among patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention of a chronic total occlusion in native coronary arteries: a 20-year experience. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2001;38:409-14.
  701. de Labriolle A, Bonello L, Roy P, et al. Comparison of safety, efficacy, and outcome of successful versus unsuccessful percutaneous coronary intervention in "true" chronic total occlusions. *Am J Cardiol.* 2008;102:1175-81.
  702. Rathore S, Matsuo H, Terashima M, et al. Procedural and in-hospital outcomes after percutaneous coronary intervention for chronic total occlusions of coronary arteries 2002 to 2008: impact of novel guidewire techniques. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2009;2:489-97.

703. Stone GW, Reifart NJ, Moussa I, et al. Percutaneous recanalization of chronically occluded coronary arteries: a consensus document: part II. *Circulation*. 2005;112:2530-7.
704. Kahn JK. Angiographic suitability for catheter revascularization of total coronary occlusions in patients from a community hospital setting. *Am Heart J*. 1993;126:561-4.
705. Deleted in proof.
706. He ZX, Mahmarian JJ, Verani MS. Myocardial perfusion in patients with total occlusion of a single coronary artery with and without collateral circulation. *J Nucl Cardiol*. 2001;8:452-7.
707. Aboul-Enein F, Kar S, Hayes SW, et al. Influence of angiographic collateral circulation on myocardial perfusion in patients with chronic total occlusion of a single coronary artery and no prior myocardial infarction. *J Nucl Med*. 2004;45:950-5.
708. Anderson HV, Shaw RE, Brindis RG, et al. A contemporary overview of percutaneous coronary interventions. The American College of Cardiology-National Cardiovascular Data Registry (ACC-NCDR). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002;39:1096-103.
709. Williams DO, Holubkov R, Yeh W, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention in the current era compared with 1985-1986: the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Registries. *Circulation*. 2000;102:2945-51.
710. Kirschbaum SW, Baks T, van den Ent M, et al. Evaluation of left ventricular function three years after percutaneous recanalization of chronic total coronary occlusions. *Am J Cardiol*. 2008;101:179-85.
711. Prasad A, Rihal CS, Lennon RJ, et al. Trends in outcomes after percutaneous coronary intervention for chronic total occlusions: a 25-year experience from the Mayo Clinic. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;49:1611-8.
712. Safley DM, House JA, Marso SP, et al. Improvement in survival following successful percutaneous coronary intervention of coronary chronic total occlusions: variability by target vessel. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2008;1:295-302.
713. Sirmes PA, Golf S, Myreng Y, et al. Stenting in Chronic Coronary Occlusion (SICCO): a randomized, controlled trial of adding stent implantation after successful angioplasty. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1996; 28:1444-51.
714. Rubartelli P, Niccoli L, Verna E, et al. Stent implantation versus balloon angioplasty in chronic coronary occlusions: results from the GISSOC trial. Gruppo Italiano di Studio sullo Stent nelle Occlusioni Coronariche. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1998;32:90-6.
715. Mori M, Kurogane H, Hayashi T, et al. Comparison of results of intracoronary implantation of the Plamaz-Schatz stent with conventional balloon angioplasty in chronic total coronary arterial occlusion. *Am J Cardiol*. 1996;78:985-9.
716. Hoher M, Wöhrle J, Grebe OC, et al. A randomized trial of elective stenting after balloon recanalization of chronic total occlusions. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1999;34:722-9.
717. Buller CE, Dzavik V, Carere RG, et al. Primary stenting versus balloon angioplasty in occluded coronary arteries: the Total Occlusion Study of Canada (TOSCA). *Circulation*. 1999;100:236-42.
718. Lotan C, Rozenman Y, Hendler A, et al. Stents in total occlusion for restenosis prevention. The multicenter randomized STOP study. The Israeli Working Group for Interventional Cardiology. *Eur Heart J*. 2000;21:1960-6.
719. Rahel BM, Suttorp MJ, Laarman GJ, et al. Primary stenting of occluded native coronary arteries: final results of the Primary Stenting of Occluded Native Coronary Arteries (PRISON) study. *Am Heart J*. 2004;147:e16-20.
720. Roffi M, Mukherjee D, Chew DP, et al. Lack of benefit from intravenous platelet glycoprotein IIb/IIIa receptor inhibition as adjunctive treatment for percutaneous interventions of aortocoronary bypass grafts: a pooled analysis of five randomized clinical trials. *Circulation*. 2002;106:3063-7.
721. Ellis SG, Lincoff AM, Miller D, et al. Reduction in complications of angioplasty with abciximab occurs largely independently of baseline lesion morphology. EPIC and EPILOG Investigators. Evaluation of 7E3 for the Prevention of Ischemic Complications. Evaluation of PTCA to Improve Long-term Outcome with abciximab GPIIb/IIIa Receptor Blockade. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1998;32:1619-23.
722. Al-Lamee R, Ielasi A, Latib A, et al. Clinical and angiographic outcomes after percutaneous recanalization of chronic total saphenous vein graft occlusion using modern techniques. *Am J Cardiol*. 2010;106:1721-7.
723. de Feyter PJ, Serruys P, van den Brand M, et al. Percutaneous transluminal angioplasty of a totally occluded venous bypass graft: a challenge that should be resisted. *Am J Cardiol*. 1989;64:88-90.
724. de Feyter PJ, van Suylen RJ, de Jaegere PP, et al. Balloon angioplasty for the treatment of lesions in saphenous vein bypass grafts. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1993;21:1539-49.
725. Lee MS, Yang T, Kandzari DE, et al. Comparison by meta-analysis of drug-eluting stents and bare metal stents for saphenous vein graft intervention. *Am J Cardiol*. 2010;105:1076-82.
726. Colombo A, Bramucci E, Sacca S, et al. Randomized study of the crush technique versus provisional side-branch stenting in true coronary bifurcations: the CACTUS (Coronary Bifurcations: Application of the Crushing Technique Using Sirolimus-Eluting Stents) Study. *Circulation*. 2009;119:71-8.
727. Ferenc M, Gick M, Kienzle RP, et al. Randomized trial on routine vs. provisional T-stenting in the treatment of de novo coronary bifurcation lesions. *Eur Heart J*. 2008;29:2859-67.
728. Hildick-Smith D, de Belder AJ, Cooter N, et al. Randomized trial of simple versus complex drug-eluting stenting for bifurcation lesions: the British Bifurcation Coronary Study: old, new, and evolving strategies. *Circulation*. 2010;121:1235-43.
729. Steigen TK, Maeng M, Wiseth R, et al. Randomized study on simple versus complex stenting of coronary artery bifurcation lesions: the Nordic bifurcation study. *Circulation*. 2006;114:1955-61.
730. Chen SL, Santoso T, Zhang JJ, et al. A randomized clinical study comparing double kissing crush with provisional stenting for treatment of coronary bifurcation lesions results from the DKCRUSH-II (double kissing crush versus provisional stenting technique for treatment of coronary bifurcation lesions) Trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2011;57:914-20.
731. Moussa ID. Coronary artery bifurcation interventions: the disconnect between randomized clinical trials and patient centered decision-making. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2011;77:537-45.
732. Aliabadi D, Tilli FV, Bowers TR, et al. Incidence and angiographic predictors of side branch occlusion following high-pressure intracoronary stenting. *Am J Cardiol*. 1997;80:994-7.
733. Galassi AR, Tomasello SD, Capodanno D, et al. Mini-crush versus T-provisional techniques in bifurcation lesions: clinical and angiographic long-term outcome after implantation of drug-eluting stents. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv*. 2009;2:185-94.
734. Bhargava B, Waksman R, Lansky AJ, et al. Clinical outcomes of compromised side branch (stent jail) after coronary stenting with the NIR stent. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2001;54:295-300.
735. Chaudhry EC, Daurman KP, Sarnoski CL, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention for major bifurcation lesions using the simple approach: risk of myocardial infarction. *J Thromb Thrombolysis*. 2007;24:7-13.
736. Koo BK, Waseda K, Kang HJ, et al. Anatomic and functional evaluation of bifurcation lesions undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2010;3:113-9.
737. Erglis A, Kumsars I, Niemela M, et al. Randomized comparison of coronary bifurcation stenting with the crush versus the culotte technique using sirolimus eluting stents: the Nordic stent technique study. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2009;2:27-34.
738. Thuesen L, Kelbaek H, Klovgaard L, et al. Comparison of sirolimus-eluting and bare metal stents in coronary bifurcation lesions: subgroup analysis of the Stenting Coronary Arteries in Non-Stress/Benestent Disease Trial (SCANDSTENT). *Am Heart J*. 2006;152: 1140-5.
739. Chen S, Zhang J, Ye F, et al. Crush stenting with paclitaxel-eluting or sirolimus-eluting stents for the treatment of coronary bifurcation lesions. *Angiology*. 2008;59:475-83.
740. Latib A, Cosgrave J, Godino C, et al. Sirolimus-eluting and paclitaxel-eluting stents for the treatment of coronary bifurcations. *Am Heart J*. 2008;156:745-50.
741. Pan M, Suarez de LJ, Medina A, et al. Drug-eluting stents for the treatment of bifurcation lesions: a randomized comparison between paclitaxel and sirolimus stents. *Am Heart J*. 2007;153:15-7.
742. Song YB, Hahn JY, Choi SH, et al. Sirolimus- versus paclitaxel-eluting stents for the treatment of coronary bifurcations results: from the COBIS (Coronary Bifurcation Stenting) Registry. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;55:1743-50.
743. Ge L, Airolidi F, Iakovou I, et al. Clinical and angiographic outcome after implantation of drug-eluting stents in bifurcation lesions with

- the crush stent technique: importance of final kissing balloon post-dilation. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2005;46:613-20.
744. Gil RJ, Gziut AI, Prati F, et al. Threshold parameters of left main coronary artery stem stenosis based on intracoronary ultrasound examination. *Kardiol Pol*. 2005;63:223-31.
  745. Sano K, Mintz GS, Carlier SG, et al. Assessing intermediate left main coronary lesions using intravascular ultrasound. *Am Heart J*. 2007;154:983-8.
  746. Park DW, Hong MK, Suh IW, et al. Results and predictors of angiographic stenosis and long-term adverse cardiac events after drug-eluting stent implantation for aorto-ostial coronary artery disease. *Am J Cardiol*. 2007;99:760-5.
  747. Iakovou I, Ge L, Michev I, et al. Clinical and angiographic outcome after sirolimus-eluting stent implantation in aorto-ostial lesions. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;44:967-71.
  748. Kim SW, Mintz GS, Ohlmann P, et al. Comparative intravascular ultrasound analysis of ostial disease in the left main versus the right coronary artery. *J Invasive Cardiol*. 2007;19:377-80.
  749. Curtis J, Rodes-Cabau J, Larose E, et al. Usefulness of coronary fractional flow reserve measurements in guiding clinical decisions in intermediate or equivocal left main coronary stenoses. *Am J Cardiol*. 2009;103:943-9.
  750. Topol EJ, Ellis SG, Fishman J, et al. Multicenter study of percutaneous transluminal angioplasty for right coronary artery ostial stenosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1987;9:1214-8.
  751. Jain SP, Liu MW, Dean LS, et al. Comparison of balloon angioplasty versus debulking devices versus stenting in right coronary ostial lesions. *Am J Cardiol*. 1997;79:1334-8.
  752. Palmerini T, Sangiorgi D, Marzocchi A, et al. Ostial and midshaft lesions vs bifurcation lesions in 1111 patients with unprotected left main coronary artery stenosis treated with drug-eluting stents: results of the survey from the Italian Society of Invasive Cardiology. *Eur Heart J*. 2009;30:2087-94.
  753. Williams M, Shaw LJ, Raggi P, et al. Prognostic value of number and site of calcified coronary lesions compared with the total score. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;1:61-9.
  754. Fitzgerald PJ, Ports TA, Yock PG. Contribution of localized calcium deposits to dissection after angioplasty. An observational study using intravascular ultrasound. *Circulation*. 1992;86:64-70.
  755. Tanigawa J, Barlis P, Di Mario C. Heavily calcified coronary lesions preclude strut apposition despite high pressure balloon dilatation and rotational atherectomy: in-vivo demonstration with optical coherence tomography. *Circ J*. 2008;72:157-60.
  756. Reimers B, von Birgelen C, van der Giessen WJ, et al. A word of caution on optimizing stent deployment in calcified lesions: acute coronary rupture with cardiac tamponade. *Am Heart J*. 1996;131:192-4.
  757. Ellis SG, Popma JJ, Buchbinder M, et al. Relation of clinical presentation, stenosis morphology, and operator technique to the procedural results of rotational atherectomy and rotational atherectomy-facilitated angioplasty. *Circulation*. 1994;89:882-92.
  758. Warth DC, Leon MB, O'Neill W, et al. Rotational atherectomy multicenter registry: acute results, complications and 6-month angiographic follow-up in 709 patients. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1994;24:641-8.
  759. Khattab AA, Otto A, Hochadel M, et al. Drug-eluting stents versus bare metal stents following rotational atherectomy for heavily calcified coronary lesions: late angiographic and clinical follow-up results. *J Interv Cardiol*. 2007;20:100-6.
  760. Johnman C, Oldroyd KG, Mackay DF, et al. Percutaneous coronary intervention in the elderly: changes in case-mix and periprocedural outcomes in 31,758 patients treated between 2000 and 2007. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2010;3:341-5.
  761. Singh M, Rihal CS, Gersh BJ, et al. Twenty-five-year trends in in-hospital and long-term outcome after percutaneous coronary intervention: a single-institution experience. *Circulation*. 2007;115:2835-41.
  762. Singh M, Peterson ED, Roe MT, et al. Trends in the association between age and in-hospital mortality after percutaneous coronary intervention: National Cardiovascular Data Registry experience. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2009;2:20-6.
  763. Moonen LA, van't Veer M, Pijls NH. Procedural and long-term outcome of primary percutaneous coronary intervention in octogenarians. *Neth Heart J*. 2010;18:129-34.
  764. de Boer SP, Westerhout CM, Simes RJ, et al. Mortality and morbidity reduction by primary percutaneous coronary intervention is independent of the patient's age. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;3:324-31.
  765. Mahmud E, Bromberg-Marin G, Palakodeti V, et al. Clinical efficacy of drug-eluting stents in diabetic patients: a meta-analysis. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;51:2385-95.
  766. Stramba-Badiale M, Fox KM, Priori SG, et al. Cardiovascular diseases in women: a statement from the policy conference of the European Society of Cardiology. *Eur Heart J*. 2006;27:994-1005.
  767. Glaser R, Herrmann HC, Murphy SA, et al. Benefit of an early invasive management strategy in women with acute coronary syndromes. *JAMA*. 2002;288:3124-9.
  768. Mueller C, Neumann FJ, Roskamm H, et al. Women do have an improved long-term outcome after non-ST-elevation acute coronary syndromes treated very early and predominantly with percutaneous coronary intervention: a prospective study in 1,450 consecutive patients. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002;40:245-50.
  769. Singh M, Rihal CS, Gersh BJ, et al. Mortality differences between men and women after percutaneous coronary interventions. A 25-year, single-center experience. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;51:2313-20.
  770. Jneid H, Fonarow GC, Cannon CP, et al. Sex differences in medical care and early death after acute myocardial infarction. *Circulation*. 2008;118:2803-10.
  771. Mehta RH, Bufalino VJ, Pan W, et al. Achieving rapid reperfusion with primary percutaneous coronary intervention remains a challenge: insights from American Heart Association's Get With the Guidelines program. *Am Heart J*. 2008;155:1059-67.
  772. Solinas E, Nikolsky E, Lansky AJ, et al. Gender-specific outcomes after sirolimus-eluting stent implantation. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;50:2111-6.
  773. Weiner DE, Tabatabai S, Tighiouart H, et al. Cardiovascular outcomes and all-cause mortality: exploring the interaction between CKD and cardiovascular disease. *Am J Kidney Dis*. 2006;48:392-401.
  774. Weiner DE, Krassilnikova M, Tighiouart H, et al. CKD classification based on estimated GFR over three years and subsequent cardiac and mortality outcomes: a cohort study. *BMC Nephrol*. 2009;10:26.
  775. Eagle KA, Lim MJ, Dabbous OH, et al. A validated prediction model for all forms of acute coronary syndrome: estimating the risk of 6-month postdischarge death in an international registry. *JAMA*. 2004;291:2727-33.
  776. Mehta SK, Frutkin AD, Lindsey JB, et al. Bleeding in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary intervention: the development of a clinical risk algorithm from the National Cardiovascular Data Registry. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2009;2:222-9.
  777. Szczech LA, Best PJ, Crowley E, et al. Outcomes of patients with chronic renal insufficiency in the bypass angioplasty revascularization investigation. *Circulation*. 2002;105:2253-8.
  778. Stolker JM, Kennedy KF, Lindsey JB, et al. Predicting restenosis of drug-eluting stents placed in real-world clinical practice: derivation and validation of a risk model from the EVENT Registry. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2010;3:327-34.
  779. Cockcroft DW, Gault MH. Prediction of creatinine clearance from serum creatinine. *Nephron*. 1976;16:31-41.
  780. Gault MH, Longrich LL, Harnett JD, et al. Predicting glomerular function from adjusted serum creatinine. *Nephron*. 1992;62:249-56.
  781. Levine GN, Berger PB, Cohen DJ, et al. Newer pharmacotherapy in patients undergoing percutaneous coronary interventions: a guide for pharmacists and other health care professionals. *Pharmacotherapy*. 2006;26:1537-56.
  782. Taylor DO, Stehlik J, Edwards LB, et al. Registry of the International Society for Heart and Lung Transplantation: twenty-sixth official adult heart transplant report-2009. *J Heart Lung Transplant*. 2009;28:1007-22.
  783. Bader FM, Kfoury AG, Gilbert EM, et al. Percutaneous coronary interventions with stents in cardiac transplant recipients. *J Heart Lung Transplant*. 2006;25:298-301.
  784. Lee MS, Kobashigawa J, Tobis J. Comparison of percutaneous coronary intervention with bare-metal and drug-eluting stents for cardiac allograft vasculopathy. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;1:710-5.
  785. Selvanayagam JB, Porto I, Channon K, et al. Troponin elevation after percutaneous coronary intervention directly represents the extent of

- irreversible myocardial injury: insights from cardiovascular magnetic resonance imaging. *Circulation*. 2005;111:1027-32.
786. Prasad A, Rihal CS, Lennon RJ, et al. Significance of periprocedural myonecrosis on outcomes after percutaneous coronary intervention: an analysis of preintervention and postintervention troponin T levels in 5487 patients. *Circ Cardiovasc Interv*. 2008;1:10-9.
787. Prasad A, Gersh BJ, Bertrand ME, et al. Prognostic significance of periprocedural versus spontaneously occurring myocardial infarction after percutaneous coronary intervention in patients with acute coronary syndromes: an analysis from the ACUTY (Acute Catheterization and Urgent Intervention Triage Strategy) trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2009;54:477-86.
788. Lim CC, Van Gaal WJ, Testa L, et al. With the "universal definition," measurement of creatine kinase-myocardial band rather than troponin allows more accurate diagnosis of periprocedural necrosis and infarction after coronary intervention. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2011;57:653-61.
789. Biancari F, D'Andrea V, Di Marco C, et al. Meta-analysis of randomized trials on the efficacy of vascular closure devices after diagnostic angiography and angioplasty. *Am Heart J*. 2010;159:518-31.
790. Dauerman HL, Applegate RJ, Cohen DJ. Vascular closure devices: the second decade. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;50:1617-26.
791. Koreny M, Riedmuller E, Nikfardjam M, et al. Arterial puncture closing devices compared with standard manual compression after cardiac catheterization: systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA*. 2004;291:350-7.
792. Hoffer EK, Bloch RD. Percutaneous arterial closure devices. *J Vasc Interv Radiol*. 2003;14:865-85.
793. Vaitkus PT. A meta-analysis of percutaneous vascular closure devices after diagnostic catheterization and percutaneous coronary intervention. *J Invasive Cardiol*. 2004;16:243-6.
794. Abraham NS, Hlatky MA, Antman EM, et al. ACCF/ACG/AHA 2010 expert consensus document on the concomitant use of proton pump inhibitors and thienopyridines. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;56:2051-66.
795. Eisenberg MJ, Blankenship JC, Huynh T, et al. Evaluation of routine functional testing after percutaneous coronary intervention. *Am J Cardiol*. 2004;93:744-7.
796. Goel K, Lennon RJ, Tilbury RT, et al. Impact of cardiac rehabilitation on mortality and cardiovascular events after percutaneous coronary intervention in the community. *Circulation*. 2011;123:2344-52.
797. 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;116:682-92.
798. Giannuzzi P, Temporelli PL, Marchioli R, et al. Global secondary prevention strategies to limit event recurrence after myocardial infarction: results of the GOSPEL study, a multicenter, randomized controlled trial from the Italian Cardiac Rehabilitation Network. *Arch Intern Med*. 2008;168:2194-204.
799. Witt BJ, Jacobsen SJ, Weston SA, et al. Cardiac rehabilitation after myocardial infarction in the community. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;44:988-96.
800. Fletcher GF, Balady GJ, Amsterdam EA, et al. Exercise standards for testing and training: a statement for healthcare professionals from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2001;104:1694-740.
801. Thompson PD. Exercise and physical activity in the prevention and treatment of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2003;23:1319-21.
802. Clark AM, Hartling L, Vandermeer B, et al. Meta-analysis: secondary prevention programs for patients with coronary artery disease. *Ann Intern Med*. 2005;143:659-72.
803. Thomas RJ, King M, Lui K, et al. AACVPR/ACC/AHA 2007 performance measures on cardiac rehabilitation for referral to and delivery of cardiac rehabilitation/secondary prevention services. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;50:1400-33.
804. Walther C, Mobius-Winkler S, Linke A, et al. Regular exercise training compared with percutaneous intervention leads to a reduction of inflammatory markers and cardiovascular events in patients with coronary artery disease. *Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil*. 2008;15:107-12.
805. Smith S Jr., Benjamin E, Bonow R. AHA/ACCF secondary prevention and risk reduction therapy for patients with coronary and other vascular disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2011: published online before print November 3, 2011, doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2011.xx.xxx. Accessed November 3, 2011.
806. 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) final report. *Circulation*. 2002;106:3143-421.
807. Dattilo AM, Kris-Etherton PM. Effects of weight reduction on blood lipids and lipoproteins: a meta-analysis. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1992;56:320-8.
808. Baigent C, Blackwell L, Emberson J, et al. Efficacy and safety of more intensive lowering of LDL cholesterol: a meta-analysis of data from 170,000 participants in 26 randomised trials. *Lancet*. 2010;376:1670-81.
809. Pedersen TR, Faergeman O, Kastelein JJ, et al. High-dose atorvastatin vs usual-dose simvastatin for secondary prevention after myocardial infarction: the IDEAL study: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2005;294:2437-45.
810. LaRosa JC, Grundy SM, Waters DD, et al. Intensive lipid lowering with atorvastatin in patients with stable coronary disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2005;352:1425-35.
- 810a. Cholesterol Treatment Trialists' (CTT) Collaboration, Baigent C, Blackwell L, et al. Efficacy and safety of more intensive lowering of LDL cholesterol: a meta-analysis of data from 170,000 participants in 26 randomised trials. *Lancet*. 2010;376:1670-81.
811. Cannon CP, Steinberg BA, Murphy SA, et al. Meta-analysis of cardiovascular outcomes trials comparing intensive versus moderate statin therapy. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006;48:438-45.
812. Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Merz CN, et al. Implications of recent clinical trials for the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel III guidelines. *Circulation*. 2004;110:227-39.
813. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, et al. Seventh report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure. *Hypertension*. 2003;42:1206-52.
814. Whelton SP, Chin A, Xin X, et al. Effect of aerobic exercise on blood pressure: a meta-analysis of randomized, controlled trials. *Ann Intern Med*. 2002;136:493-503.
815. Appel LJ, Frohlich ED, Hall JE, et al. The importance of population-wide sodium reduction as a means to prevent cardiovascular disease and stroke: a call to action from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2011;123:1138-43.
816. Sacks FM, Svetkey LP, Vollmer WM, et al. Effects on blood pressure of reduced dietary sodium and the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet. DASH-Sodium Collaborative Research Group. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;344:3-10.
817. Appel LJ, Moore TJ, Obarzanek E, et al. A clinical trial of the effects of dietary patterns on blood pressure. DASH Collaborative Research Group. *N Engl J Med*. 1997;336:1117-24.
818. The ALLHAT Officers and Coordinators for the ALLHAT Collaborative Research Group. Major outcomes in high-risk hypertensive patients randomized to angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor or calcium channel blocker vs diuretic: the Antihypertensive and Lipid-Lowering Treatment to Prevent Heart Attack Trial (ALLHAT) [published corrections appear in *JAMA*. 2003;289:178; *JAMA*. 2004;291:2916]. *JAMA*. 2002;288:2981-97.
819. SHEP Cooperative Research Group. Prevention of stroke by anti-hypertensive drug treatment in older persons with isolated systolic hypertension. Final results of the Systolic Hypertension in the Elderly Program (SHEP). *JAMA*. 1991;265:3255-64.
820. Duncan C, Stein MJ, Cummings SR. Staff involvement and special follow-up time increase physicians' counseling about smoking cessation: a controlled trial. *Am J Public Health*. 1991;81:899-901.
821. Cornuz J, Humair JP, Seematter L, et al. Efficacy of resident training in smoking cessation: a randomized, controlled trial of a program based on application of behavioral theory and practice with standardized patients. *Ann Intern Med*. 2002;136:429-37.
822. Rosser W, McDowell I, Newell C. Documenting smoking status: trial of three strategies. *Can Fam Physician*. 1992;38:1623-8.
823. Cummings SR, Richard RJ, Duncan CL, et al. Training physicians about smoking cessation: a controlled trial in private practice. *J Gen Intern Med*. 1989;4:482-9.
824. Hillis LD, Smith P, Anderson J. ACCF/AHA guidelines for coronary artery bypass graft surgery. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2011:

- published online before print November 7, 2011, doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2011.08.009. Accessed November 7, 2011.
825. Bhatt DL, Scheiman J, Abraham NS, et al. ACCF/ACG/AHA 2008 expert consensus document on reducing the gastrointestinal risks of antiplatelet therapy and NSAID use. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;52:1502–17.
  826. Bates ER, Lau WC, Angiolillo DJ. Clopidogrel-drug interactions. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2011;57:1251–63.
  827. Juurlink DN, Gomes T, Ko DT, et al. A population-based study of the drug interaction between proton pump inhibitors and clopidogrel. *CMAJ*. 2009;180:713–8.
  828. Bhatt DL, Cryer BL, Contant CF, et al. Clopidogrel with or without omeprazole in coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2010;363:1909–17.
  829. Holmes DR Jr., Dehmer GJ, Kaul S, et al. ACCF/AHA clopidogrel clinical alert: approaches to the FDA “boxed warning.” *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;56:321–41.
  830. Price MJ, Berger PB, Teirstein PS, et al. Standard- vs high-dose clopidogrel based on platelet function testing after percutaneous coronary intervention: the GRAVITAS randomized trial. *JAMA*. 2011;305:1097–105.
  831. Daemen J, Wenaweser P, Tsuchida K, et al. Early and late coronary stent thrombosis of sirolimus-eluting and paclitaxel-eluting stents in routine clinical practice: data from a large two-institutional cohort study. *Lancet*. 2007;369:667–78.
  832. Holmes DR Jr., Kereiakes DJ, Garg S, et al. Stent thrombosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;56:1357–65.
  833. de la Torre-Hernandez JM, Alfonso F, Hernandez F, et al. Drug-eluting stent thrombosis: results from the multicenter Spanish registry ESTROFA (Estudio ESpañol sobre TROMbosis de stents FArmacoactivos). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2008;51:986–90.
  834. Iakovou I, Schmidt T, Bonizzoni E, et al. Incidence, predictors, and outcome of thrombosis after successful implantation of drug-eluting stents. *JAMA*. 2005;293:2126–30.
  835. van Werkum JW, Heestermaans AA, Zomer AC, et al. Predictors of coronary stent thrombosis: the Dutch Stent Thrombosis Registry. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2009;53:1399–409.
  836. Moses JW, Dangas G, Mehran R, et al. Drug-eluting stents in the real world: how intravascular ultrasound can improve clinical outcome. *Am J Cardiol*. 2008;102:24J–8J.
  837. Erbel R, Haude M, Hopp HW, et al. Coronary-artery stenting compared with balloon angioplasty for restenosis after initial balloon angioplasty. Restenosis Stent Study Group. *N Engl J Med*. 1998;339:1672–8.
  838. Dibra A, Kastrati A, Alfonso F, et al. Effectiveness of drug-eluting stents in patients with bare-metal in-stent restenosis: meta-analysis of randomized trials. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;49:616–23.
  839. Holmes DR Jr., Teirstein P, Satler L, et al. Sirolimus-eluting stents vs vascular brachytherapy for in-stent restenosis within bare-metal stents: the SISR randomized trial. *JAMA*. 2006;295:1264–73.
  840. Kastrati A, Mehilli J, von Beckerath N, et al. Sirolimus-eluting stent or paclitaxel-eluting stent vs balloon angioplasty for prevention of recurrences in patients with coronary in-stent restenosis: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2005;293:165–71.
  841. Kirtane AJ, Gupta A, Iyengar S, et al. Safety and efficacy of drug-eluting and bare metal stents: comprehensive meta-analysis of randomized trials and observational studies. *Circulation*. 2009;119:3198–206.
  842. Cutlip DE, Chauhan MS, Baim DS, et al. Clinical restenosis after coronary stenting: perspectives from multicenter clinical trials. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002;40:2082–9.
  843. Cutlip DE, Chhabra AG, Baim DS, et al. Beyond restenosis: five-year clinical outcomes from second-generation coronary stent trials. *Circulation*. 2004;110:1226–30.
  844. Chen MS, John JM, Chew DP, et al. Bare metal stent restenosis is not a benign clinical entity. *Am Heart J*. 2006;151:1260–4.
  845. Mishkel GJ, Moore AL, Markwell S, et al. Long-term outcomes after management of restenosis or thrombosis of drug-eluting stents. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;49:181–4.
  846. Singh M, Gersh BJ, McClelland RL, et al. Clinical and angiographic predictors of restenosis after percutaneous coronary intervention: insights from the Prevention of Restenosis With Tranilast and Its Outcomes (PRESTO) trial. *Circulation*. 2004;109:2727–31.
  847. Mehran R, Dangas G, Abizaid AS, et al. Angiographic patterns of in-stent restenosis: classification and implications for long-term outcome. *Circulation*. 1999;100:1872–8.
  848. Whan Lee C, Kim S, Suh J, et al. Long-term clinical outcomes after sirolimus-eluting stent implantation for treatment of restenosis within bare-metal versus drug-eluting stents. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv*. 2008;71:594–8.
  849. Lemos PA, van Mieghem CA, Arampatzis CA, et al. Post-sirolimus-eluting stent restenosis treated with repeat percutaneous intervention: late angiographic and clinical outcomes. *Circulation*. 2004;109:2500–2.
  850. Cosgrave J, Melzi G, Corbett S, et al. Repeated drug-eluting stent implantation for drug-eluting stent restenosis: the same or a different stent. *Am Heart J*. 2007;153:354–9.
  851. Gibbons RJ, Balady GJ, Bricker JT, et al. ACC/AHA 2002 guideline update for exercise testing: summary article. a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee to Update the 1997 Exercise Testing Guidelines). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002;40:1531–40.
  852. Eisenberg MJ, Wilson B, Lauzon C, et al. Routine functional testing after percutaneous coronary intervention: results of the aggressive diagnosis of restenosis in high-risk patients (ADORE II) trial. *Acta Cardiol*. 2007;62:143–50.
  853. Babapulle MN, Diodati JG, Blankenship JC, et al. Utility of routine exercise treadmill testing early after percutaneous coronary intervention. *BMC Cardiovasc Disord*. 2007;7:12, doi:10.1186/1471-2261-7-12.
  854. Garzon PP, Eisenberg MJ. Functional testing for the detection of restenosis after percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty: a meta-analysis. *Can J Cardiol*. 2001;17:41–8.
  855. Beller GA. Stress testing after coronary revascularization too much, too soon. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;56:1335–7.
  856. Shah BR, Cowper PA, O'Brien SM, et al. Patterns of cardiac stress testing after revascularization in community practice. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2010;56:1328–34.
  857. Cheitlin MD, Armstrong WF, Aurigemma GP, et al. ACC/AHA/ASE 2003 guideline update for the clinical application of echocardiography—summary article: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (ACC/AHA/ASE Committee to Update the 1997 Guidelines for the Clinical Application of Echocardiography). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2003;42:954–70.
  858. Klocke FJ, Baird MG, Lorell BH, et al. ACC/AHA/ASNC guidelines for the clinical use of cardiac radionuclide imaging—executive summary: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (ACC/AHA/ASNC Committee to Revise the 1995 Guidelines for the Clinical Use of Cardiac Radionuclide Imaging). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2003;42:1318–33.
  859. Antman EM, Anbe DT, Armstrong PW, et al. ACC/AHA guidelines for the management of patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction—executive summary. A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Writing Committee to revise the 1999 guidelines for the management of patients with acute myocardial infarction). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2004;44:671–719.
  860. Anderson JL, Adams CD, Antman EM, et al. 2011 ACCF/AHA focused update incorporated into the ACC/AHA 2007 guidelines for the management of patients with unstable angina/non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction: a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2011;57:e215–367.
  861. Lewin R. Return to work after MI, the roles of depression, health beliefs and rehabilitation. *Int J Cardiol*. 1999;72:49–51.
  862. Grines CL, Marsalese DL, Brodie B, et al. PAMI-II Investigators. Safety and cost-effectiveness of early discharge after primary angioplasty in low risk patients with acute myocardial infarction. Primary Angioplasty in Myocardial Infarction. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1998;31:967–72.
  863. Haskell WL. Rehabilitation of the coronary patient. In: Wenger NK, Hellerstein HK, editors. Design and Implantation of Cardiac Conditioning Programs. New York, NY: Churchill Livingstone; 1978.
  864. Fidan D, Unal B, Critchley J, et al. Economic analysis of treatments reducing coronary heart disease mortality in England and Wales, 2000–2010. *QJM*. 2007;100:277–89.

865. Barber K, Stommel M, Kroll J, et al. Cardiac rehabilitation for community-based patients with myocardial infarction: factors predicting discharge recommendation and participation. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 2001;54:1025-30.
866. Robinson JG, Wang S, Smith BJ, et al. Meta-analysis of the relationship between non-high-density lipoprotein cholesterol reduction and coronary heart disease risk. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;53:316-22.
867. Krumholz HM, Brindis RG, Brush JE, et al. Standards for statistical models used for public reporting of health outcomes: an American Heart Association Scientific Statement from the Quality of Care and Outcomes Research Interdisciplinary Writing Group: cosponsored by the Council on Epidemiology and Prevention and the Stroke Council. Endorsed by the American College of Cardiology Foundation. *Circulation.* 2006;113:456-62.
868. Jacobs AK, Babb JD, Hirshfeld JW Jr., et al. Task force 3: training in diagnostic and interventional cardiac catheterization endorsed by the Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2008;51:355-61.
869. Dargas GD, Popma JJ. Recertification in interventional cardiology. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2008;1:332-4.
870. Levinson W, King TE Jr., Goldman L, et al. Clinical decisions. American Board of Internal Medicine maintenance of certification program. *N Engl J Med.* 2010;362:948-52.
871. Yeung AC. American board of internal medicine maintenance of certification requirements. *J Am Coll Cardiol Interv.* 2008;1:598-9.
872. Hannan EL, Wu C, Walford G, et al. Volume-outcome relationships for percutaneous coronary interventions in the stent era. *Circulation.* 2005;112:1171-9.
873. Post PN, Kuijpers M, Ebels T, et al. The relation between volume and outcome of coronary interventions: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur Heart J.* 2010;31:1985-92.
874. Cannon CP, Gibson CM, Lambrew CT, et al. Relationship of symptom-onset-to-balloon time and door-to-balloon time with mortality in patients undergoing angioplasty for acute myocardial infarction. *JAMA.* 2000;283:2941-7.
875. Canto JG, Every NR, Magid DJ, et al. The volume of primary angioplasty procedures and survival after acute myocardial infarction. National Registry of Myocardial Infarction 2 Investigators. *N Engl J Med.* 2000;342:1573-80.
876. Srinivas VS, Hailpern SM, Koss E, et al. Effect of physician volume on the relationship between hospital volume and mortality during primary angioplasty. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2009;53:574-9.
877. Vakili BA, Kaplan R, Brown DL. Volume-outcome relation for physicians and hospitals performing angioplasty for acute myocardial infarction in New York state. *Circulation.* 2001;104:2171-6.
878. Kumbhani DJ, Cannon CP, Fonarow GC, et al. Association of hospital primary angioplasty volume in ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction with quality and outcomes. *JAMA.* 2009;302:2207-13.
879. Krone RJ, Shaw RE, Klein LW, et al. Evaluation of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association and the Society for Coronary Angiography and Interventions lesion classification system in the current "stent era" of coronary interventions (from the ACC-National Cardiovascular Data Registry). *Am J Cardiol.* 2003;92:389-94.

---

**Key Words:** ACCF/AHA Practice Guidelines ■ acute coronary syndromes ■ anticoagulants ■ antiplatelet agents ■ arrhythmias, cardiac ■ coronary angiography ■ coronary artery revascularization interventions: stents ■ drug therapy ■ drug delivery systems ■ heart diseases ■ myocardial revascularization ■ platelet aggregation inhibitor ■ ultrasound.





Committee Member	Employer/Title	Consultant	Speaker's Bureau	Ownership/ Partnership/ Principal	Personal Research	Institutional, Organizational, or Other Financial Benefit	Expert Witness	Voting Recusals by Section Number*
Laura Mauri	Brigham and Women's Hospital—Associate Professor of Medicine, Harvard Medical School	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Abbott</li> <li>• Conor Medsystems (Johnson &amp; Johnson)</li> <li>• Cordis</li> <li>• Medtronic</li> </ul>	None	None	• Lutonix	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Abbott</li> <li>• Abiomed</li> <li>• Boston Scientific</li> <li>• Bristol-Myers Squibb</li> <li>• Conor Medsystems</li> <li>• Cordis</li> <li>• Daiichi-Sankyo</li> <li>• Eli Lilly</li> <li>• Medtronic Cardiovascular</li> <li>• Sanofi-aventis</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Defendant, Conor, interpretation of clinical trial results, 2010</li> </ul>	2.9.7 5.2.3 5.3 5.4.2 5.5.1 5.5.2 5.5.4 5.5.5 5.6 5.7.2 5.7.3 5.8.2 5.8.4 5.8.5 5.11 6.1 6.1.2 6.1.3 6.2
Roxana Mehran	Columbia University Medical Center—Associate Professor of Medicine; Director, Data Coordinating Analysis Center	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Abbott Vascular</li> <li>• Abiomed</li> <li>• AlphaMedical</li> <li>• AstraZeneca</li> <li>• Bracco</li> <li>• BMS/sanofi-aventis</li> <li>• DataScope</li> <li>• Eli Lilly/Daichi-Sankyo</li> <li>• Guerbet</li> <li>• The Medicines Company</li> <li>• Medtronic Vascular</li> <li>• St. Jude</li> </ul>	None	None	None	None	None	4.7 5.1 5.2.4 5.3 5.4.1 5.4.2 5.5.1 5.5.2 5.6 5.7.2 5.7.3 5.7.4.1 5.7.4.2 5.7.4.3 5.7.4.4 5.7.4.5 5.8.3 5.8.4 5.11 6.1 6.1.1 6.1.2 6.1.3
Issam D. Moussa	Mayo Clinic—Professor of Medicine; Chair, Division of Cardiovascular Diseases	None	None	None	None	None	None	None
Debabrata Mukherjee	Texas Tech University—Chief, Cardiovascular Medicine	None	None	None	None	None	None	None
Brahmajee K. Nallamothu	University of Michigan—Assistant Professor of Medicine	None	None	None	None	None	None	None
Henry H. Ting	Mayo Clinic—Professor of Medicine; Assistant Dean for Quality	None	None	None	None	None	None	None

This table represents the relationships of committee members with industry and other entities that were determined to be relevant to this document. These relationships were reviewed and updated in conjunction with all meetings and/or conference calls of the writing committee during the document development process. The table does not necessarily reflect relationships with industry at the time of publication. A person is deemed to have a significant interest in a business if the interest represents ownership of  $\geq 5\%$  of the voting stock or share of the business entity, or ownership of  $\geq \$10,000$  of the fair market value of the business entity; or if funds received by the person from the business entity exceed 5% of the person's gross income for the previous year. Relationships that exist with no financial benefit are also included for the purpose of transparency. Relationships in this table are modest unless otherwise noted.

According to the ACCF/AHA, a person has a *relevant* relationship if: a) The *relationship or interest* relates to the same or similar subject matter, intellectual property or asset, topic, or issue addressed in the *document*; or b) The *company/entity* (with whom the relationship exists) makes a drug, drug class, or device addressed in the *document*, or makes a competing drug or device addressed in the *document*; or c) The *person or a member of the person's household* has a reasonable potential for financial, professional, or other personal gain or loss as a result of the issues/content addressed in the *document*.

\*Writing committee members are required to recuse themselves from voting on sections to which their specific relationships with industry and other entities may apply. †Significant relationship.

**APPENDIX 2. REVIEWER RELATIONSHIPS WITH INDUSTRY AND OTHER ENTITIES (RELEVANT)—  
 2011 ACCF/AHA/SCAI GUIDELINE FOR PERCUTANEOUS CORONARY INTERVENTION**

Peer Reviewer	Representation	Consultant	Speaker's Bureau	Ownership/ Partnership/ Principal	Personal Research	Institutional, Organizational, or Other Financial Benefit	Expert Witness
Deepak L. Bhatt	Official Reviewer—AHA	None	None	None	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• AstraZeneca*</li> <li>• Bristol-Myers Squibb*</li> <li>• Eisai*</li> <li>• Eli Lilly</li> <li>• Ethicon*</li> <li>• The Medicines Company*</li> <li>• PLx Pharma†</li> <li>• Sanofi-aventis*</li> </ul>	None	None
Mauricio G. Cohen	Official Reviewer—AHA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• AstraZeneca*</li> <li>• Momenta Pharma</li> <li>• Xoma</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Terumo Medical</li> </ul>	None	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Invitrox*</li> </ul>	None	None
John P. Erwin III	Official Reviewer—ACCF/AHA Task Force on Performance Measures	None	None	None	None	None	None
Kirk Garratt	Official Reviewer—SCAI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Boston Scientific</li> <li>• Cordis/Johnson &amp; Johnson</li> <li>• The Medicines Company</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Boston Scientific</li> <li>• BMS/sanofi-aventis*</li> <li>• Daiichi-Sankyo/Eli Lilly*</li> <li>• Medtronic</li> <li>• The Medicines Company</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Abbott Vascular</li> <li>• Boston Scientific</li> </ul>	None	None	None
Steven L. Goldberg	Official Reviewer—SCAI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• AGA</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bristol-Myers Squibb</li> <li>• Sanofi-aventis</li> </ul>	None	None	None	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Plaintiff, patient litigation, 2010</li> </ul>
Alice K. Jacobs	Official Reviewer—ACCF/AHA Task Force on Practice Guidelines	None	None	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Wyeth*</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Abbott Vascular*</li> <li>• Abiomed*</li> <li>• Accumetrics*</li> <li>• Cardiovascular Research Foundation (DSMB)†</li> <li>• Harvard Clinical Research Institute†</li> <li>• TIMI Study Group (DSMB)†</li> </ul>	None	None
G. B. John Mancini	Official Reviewer—ACCF Board of Governors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• GlaxoSmithKline</li> <li>• Merck</li> <li>• Pfizer</li> <li>• Sanofi-aventis</li> </ul>	None	None	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Merck*</li> </ul>	None	None



Peer Reviewer	Representation	Consultant	Speaker's Bureau	Ownership/ Partnership/ Principal	Personal Research	Institutional, Organizational, or Other Financial Benefit	Expert Witness
Thomas C. Piemonte	Content Reviewer—ACCF Board of Governors	None	None	None	None	None	• Defendant, stent perforation, 2010
Peter K. Smith	Content Reviewer	• Eli Lilly	None	None	None	None	None
Sidney C. Smith	Content Reviewer	None	None	None	None	None	None
Richard W. Snyder	Content Reviewer—ACCF Board of Governors	None	None	None	None	• Hospital Corporation of America	None
Patrick L. Whitlow	Content Reviewer	• Edwards Lifesciences* • eValve* • Medtronic*	None	None	None	• ICON	None
David O. Williams	Content Reviewer	• Light Lab/St. Jude Medical	None	None	None	None	None
R. Scott Wright	Content Reviewer	• Hoffman LaRoche*	None	None	None	None	None

This table represents the relationships of reviewers with industry and other entities that were disclosed at the time of peer review and determined to be relevant. It does not necessarily reflect relationships with industry at the time of publication. A person is deemed to have a significant interest in a business if the interest represents ownership of  $\geq 5\%$  of the voting stock or share of the business entity, or ownership of  $\geq \$10,000$  of the fair market value of the business entity; or if funds received by the person from the business entity exceed 5% of the person's gross income for the previous year. A relationship is considered to be modest if it is less than significant under the preceding definition. Relationships that exist with no financial benefit are also included for the purpose of transparency. Relationships in this table are modest unless otherwise noted. Names are listed in alphabetical order within each category of review.

According to the ACCF/AHA, a person has a *relevant* relationship if: a) The *relationship or interest* relates to the same or similar subject matter, intellectual property or asset, topic, or issue addressed in the *document*; or b) The *company/entity* (with whom the relationship exists) makes a drug, drug class, or device addressed in the *document*, or makes a competing drug or device addressed in the *document*; or c) The *person or a member of the person's household* has a reasonable potential for financial, professional, or other personal gain or loss as a result of the issues/content addressed in the *document*.

\*Significant relationship. †No financial benefit.

ACCF indicates American College of Cardiology Foundation; AHA, American Heart Association; DSMB, data safety and monitoring board; NHLBI, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; NIH, National Institutes of Health; SCAI, Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions; and TIMI, Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction.

### APPENDIX 3. ABBREVIATION LIST

ACS = acute coronary syndromes	IVUS = intravascular ultrasound
AKI = acute kidney injury	LAD = left anterior descending
BMS = bare-metal stent(s)	LIMA = left internal mammary artery
CABG = coronary artery bypass graft surgery	LV = left ventricular
CAD = coronary artery disease	LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction
CKD = chronic kidney disease	MACE = major adverse cardiac event
CTO = chronic total occlusion	MI = myocardial infarction
DAPT = dual antiplatelet therapy	MRI = magnetic resonance imaging
DES = drug-eluting stent(s)	NCDR = National Cardiovascular Data Registry
ECG = electrocardiogram	PCI = percutaneous coronary intervention
EF = ejection fraction	PPI = proton pump inhibitor
EPD = embolic protection device	RCT = randomized controlled trial
FDA = U.S. Food and Drug Administration	SIHD = stable ischemic heart disease
FFR = fractional flow reserve	STEMI = ST-elevation myocardial infarction
GDMT = guideline-directed medical therapy	SVG = saphenous vein graft
GI = gastrointestinal	TIMI = Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction
GP = glycoprotein	TMR = transmyocardial laser revascularization
IABP = intra-aortic balloon pump	UA/NSTEMI = unstable angina/non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction
IV = intravenous	UFH = unfractionated heparin

## APPENDIX 4. ADDITIONAL TABLES/FIGURES

### Appendix 4A. The NCDR CathPCI Risk Score System

Variable	Scoring Response Categories				Risk Score Calculation	
	<60	≥60, <70	≥70, <80	≥80	Total Points	Risk of In-Patient Mortality (%)
Age	<60	≥60, <70	≥70, <80	≥80	0	0.0
	0	4	8	14	5	0.1
Cardiogenic shock	No	Yes			10	0.1
	0	25			15	0.2
Prior CHF	No	Yes			20	0.3
	0	5			25	0.6
Peripheral vascular disease	No	Yes			30	1.1
	0	5			35	2.0
Chronic lung disease	No	Yes			40	3.6
	0	4			45	6.3
GFR	<30	30-60	60-90	>90	50	10.9
	18	10	6	0	55	18.3
NYHA functional class IV	No	Yes			60	29.0
	0	4			65	42.7
PCI status (STEMI)	Elective	Urgent	Emergent	Salvage	70	57.6
	12	15	20	38	75	71.2
PCI status (no STEMI)	Elective	Urgent	Emergent	Salvage	80	81.0
	0	8	20	42	85	89.2
					90	93.8
					95	96.5
					100	98.0

CathPCI indicates catheterization percutaneous coronary intervention; CHF, congestive heart failure; GFR, glomerular filtration rate; NCDR, National Cardiovascular Data Registry; NYHA, New York Heart Association; and STEMI, ST-elevation myocardial infarction. Reproduced with permission from Peterson et al. (236).

### Appendix 4B. The SCAI Lesion Classification System

#### Type I lesions (highest success expected, lowest risk)

1. Does not meet criteria for C lesion
2. Patent

#### Type II lesions

1. Meets any of these criteria for ACC/AHA C lesion
  - Diffuse (>2 cm length)
  - Excessive tortuosity of proximal segment
  - Extremely angulated segments, >90°
  - Inability to protect major side branches
  - Degenerated vein grafts with friable lesions
2. Patent

#### Type III lesions

1. Does not meet criteria for C lesion
2. Occluded

#### Type IV lesions

1. Meets any of these criteria for ACC/AHA C lesion
  - Diffuse (>2 cm length)
  - Excessive tortuosity of proximal segment
  - Extremely angulated segments, >90°
  - Inability to protect major side branches
  - Degenerated vein grafts with friable lesions
  - Occluded for >3 mo
2. Occluded

ACC indicates American College of Cardiology; AHA, American Heart Association; and SCAI, Society for Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions. Reprinted with permission from Krone et al. (879).

### Appendix 4C. Strategies to Reduce Radiation Exposure to Patient and Operator

#### Precautions to minimize exposure to patient and operator

- Use radiation only when imaging is necessary to support clinical care
- Minimize use of cine
- Minimize use of steep angles of x-ray beam
- Minimize use of magnification modes
- Minimize frame rate of fluoroscopy and cine
- Keep the image receptor close to the patient
- Utilize collimation to the fullest extent possible
- Monitor radiation dose in real time to assess patient risk-benefit during procedure

#### Precautions to specifically minimize exposure to operator

- Use and maintain appropriate protective garments
- Maximize distance of operator from x-ray source and patient
- Keep above-table and below-table shields in optimal position at all times
- Keep all body parts out of field of view at all times

#### Precautions to specifically minimize exposure to patient

- Keep table height as high as comfortably possible for operator
- Vary imaging beam angle to minimize exposure to any single skin area
- Keep patient's extremities out of beam

### Appendix 4D. Patient Care Consideration Based on Procedural Radiation Dose

$K_{a,r}^*$	$P_{KA}^\dagger$	FT‡	Action
>5 Gray	>500 Gray cm <sup>2</sup>	>60 min	Physician charts documentation about why exposure at this level occurred, documents whether multiple skin entry angles were used, assesses risk, educates patient about potential for skin injury, and arranges for appropriate follow-up within 30 d. Phone calls may be sufficient with an office visit arranged if issues/questions arise or a potential tissue injury is suspected.
≥10 Gray			Physician contacts radiation safety officer/medical physicist. The radiation safety officer/medical physicist should perform a detailed analysis of PSD. Document a) FOV, b) skin entrance port number, c) known geometry, with a "rough" geometric setup required. Educate patient about the potential for skin injury and document this in chart. Schedule an office visit in 2 to 4 wk.
PSD§ >15 Gray			If calculated PSD is indeed >15 Gray, the physician and/or radiation safety officer/medical physicist should contact hospital risk management within 24 h. Report the event to the Joint Commission and as needed to the appropriate State Department of Health.

\* $K_{a,r}$  is total air kerma at reference point; † $P_{KA}$  is air kerma-area product; ‡FT is total fluoroscopy time, does not include cine; §PSD is peak skin dose, which requires calculations made by a qualified physicist.

FOV indicates field of view; and FT, fluoroscopy time.

Adapted with permission from Chambers et al. (317).

#### Appendix 4E. General Considerations in Deciding Between Early Invasive Strategy and Initial Conservative Strategy

Early Invasive Strategy Generally Preferred	Initial Conservative Strategy Generally Preferred or Reasonable
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recurrent angina or ischemia at rest or with low-level activities despite intensive medical therapy</li> <li>• Elevated cardiac biomarkers (TnT or Tnl)</li> <li>• New or presumably new ST-segment depression</li> <li>• Signs or symptoms of heart failure</li> <li>• Hemodynamic instability</li> <li>• High-risk score (e.g., GRACE, TIMI)</li> <li>• Sustained ventricular tachycardia</li> <li>• PCI within 6 mo</li> <li>• Prior CABG</li> <li>• Diabetes mellitus</li> <li>• Mild to moderate renal dysfunction</li> <li>• Reduced LV function (LVEF &lt;40%)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low-risk score (e.g., GRACE, TIMI)</li> <li>• Absence of high-risk features</li> <li>• High risk for catheterization-related complications</li> <li>• Patient not a candidate for revascularization (with either PCI or CABG)</li> <li>• Patient prefers conservative therapy</li> </ul>

CABG indicates coronary artery bypass graft surgery; GRACE, Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events; LV, left ventricular; LVEF, left ventricular ejection fraction; PCI, percutaneous coronary intervention; TIMI, Thrombolysis In Myocardial Infarction; Tnl, troponin I; and TnT, troponin T.

#### Appendix 4F. Agents for Procedural Sedation and Analgesia

Drug	Clinical Effects	Dose	Onset	Duration	Comments
<b>Midazolam</b>	Sedation, anxiolysis. No analgesia.	Initial 0.5 to 1 mg IV, then titrated.	2 to 3 min	45 to 60 min	Reduce dose when used in combination with opioids. May produce paradoxical excitement. Reversible with flumazenil.
<b>Fentanyl</b>	Analgesia	50 mcg IV. May repeat every 3 min, titrate to effect.	3 to 5 min	30 to 60 min	Reduce dosing when combined with benzodiazepines. Reversible with naloxone.
<b>Etomidate</b>	Sedation, anxiolysis. No analgesia.	Sedation: 0.1 mg/kg IV; repeat if inadequate response.	<1 min	5 to 15 min	Respiratory depression may occur; institutional guidelines vary about administration to nonintubated patients by nonanesthesiologists. May cause myoclonus, nausea, and vomiting. Adrenocortical suppression occurs but is rarely of clinical significance. Not reversible.
<b>Propofol</b>	Sedation, anxiolysis. No analgesia.	Load 1 mg/kg IV; may administer additional 0.5 mg/kg doses as needed to enhance or prolong sedation.	<1 min	5 to 15 min	Frequent hypotension and respiratory depression; institutional guidelines vary concerning administration to nonintubated patients by nonanesthesiologists. Avoid with egg or soy allergies. Not reversible.
<b>Reversal Agents</b>					
<b>Naloxone</b>	Opioid reversal	0.4 to 2 mg IV	2 min	20 to 40 min	If shorter acting than reversed drug, serial doses may be required.
<b>Flumazenil</b>	Benzodiazepine reversal	0.2 mg IV. May repeat every 1 min up to 1 mg.	1 to 2 min	30 to 60 min	If shorter acting than reversed drug, serial doses may be required. Do not use in patients receiving long-term benzodiazepines, cyclosporine, isoniazid, lithium, propoxyphene, theophylline, or tricyclic antidepressants.

IV indicates intravenous.