
AHA/ASA Guidelines

Guidelines for Prevention of Stroke in Patients With Ischemic Stroke or Transient Ischemic Attack

A Statement for Healthcare Professionals From the American Heart Association/American Stroke Association Council on Stroke: Co-Sponsored by the Council on Cardiovascular Radiology and Intervention: The American Academy of Neurology affirms the value of this guideline.

Ralph L. Sacco, MD, MS, FAHA, FAAN, Chair; Robert Adams, MD, FAHA, Vice Chair; Greg Albers, MD; Mark J. Alberts, MD, FAHA; Oscar Benavente, MD; Karen Furie, MD, MPH, FAHA; Larry B. Goldstein, MD, FAHA, FAAN; Philip Gorelick, MD, MPH, FAHA, FAAN; Jonathan Halperin, MD, FAHA; Robert Harbaugh, MD, FACS, FAHA; S. Claiborne Johnston, MD, PhD; Irene Katzan, MD, FAHA; Margaret Kelly-Hayes, RN, EdD, FAHA; Edgar J. Kenton, MD, FAHA, FAAN; Michael Marks, MD; Lee H. Schwamm, MD, FAHA Thomas Tomsick, MD, FAHA

Abstract

The aim of this new statement is to provide comprehensive and timely evidence-based recommendations on the prevention of ischemic stroke among survivors of ischemic stroke or transient ischemic attack. Evidence-based recommendations are included for the control of risk factors, interventional approaches for atherosclerotic disease, antithrombotic treatments for cardioembolism, and the use of antiplatelet agents for noncardioembolic stroke. Further recommendations are provided for the prevention of recurrent stroke in a variety of other specific circumstances, including arterial dissections; patent foramen ovale; hyperhomocysteinemia; hypercoagulable states; sickle cell disease; cerebral venous sinus thrombosis; stroke among women, particularly with regard to pregnancy and the use of postmenopausal hormones; the use of anticoagulation after cerebral hemorrhage; and special approaches for the implementation of guidelines and their use in high-risk populations. (*Stroke. 2006;37:577-617.*)

Key Words: AHA Scientific Statements • ischemia • ischemia attack, transient • stroke

Survivors of a transient ischemic attack (TIA) or stroke have an increased risk of another stroke, which is a major source of increased mortality and morbidity. Among the estimated 700 000 people with stroke in the United States each year, 200 000 of them are among persons with a recurrent stroke. The number of people with TIA, and therefore at risk for stroke, is estimated to be much greater. Epidemiological studies have helped to identify the risk and determinants of recurrent stroke, and clinical trials have provided the

data to generate evidence-based recommendations to reduce this risk. Prior statements from the American Heart Association (AHA) have dealt with primary¹ and secondary stroke prevention.^{2,3} Because most strokes are cerebral infarcts, these recommendations focus primarily on the prevention of stroke among the ischemic stroke or TIA group. Other statements from the AHA have dealt with acute ischemic stroke,⁴ subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH),⁵ and intracerebral hemorrhage (ICH).⁶ Recommendations follow the AHA and the American College of Cardiology (ACC) methods of classifying the level of certainty of the treatment effect and the class of evidence (see [Table 1](#)).⁷

View this table:

[\[in this window\]](#)
[\[in a new window\]](#)

TABLE 1. Definition of Classes and Levels of Evidence Used in AHA Recommendations

The aim of this new statement is to provide comprehensive and timely evidence-based recommendations on the prevention of ischemic stroke among survivors of ischemic stroke or TIA. A writing committee chair and vice chair were designated by the Stroke Council Manuscript Oversight Committee. A writing committee roster was developed and approved by the Stroke Council with representatives from neurology, cardiology, radiology, surgery, nursing, and health services research. The committee met in person and had a number of teleconferences to develop the outline and text of the recommendations. The writing group conducted a comprehensive review of the relevant literature. Although the complete list of keywords is beyond the scope of this section, the committee reviewed all compiled reports from computerized searches and conducted additional searching by hand. Searches were limited to English language sources and to human subjects. Literature citations were generally restricted to published manuscripts appearing in journals listed in Index Medicus and reflected literature published as of December 31, 2004. Because of the scope and importance of certain ongoing clinical trials and other emerging information, published abstracts were cited when they were the only published information available. The references selected for this document are exclusively for peer-reviewed papers that are representative but not all inclusive. All members of the committee had frequent opportunities to review drafts of the document, comment in writing or during teleconference discussions, and reach consensus with the final recommendations.

Although prevention of stroke is the primary outcome of interest, many of the grades for the recommendations were chosen to reflect the existing evidence on the reduction of all vascular outcomes after stroke, including stroke, myocardial infarction (MI), and vascular death. We have organized our recommendations in this statement to aid the clinician who has arrived at a potential explanation of the cause of the ischemic stroke in an individual

patient and is embarking on therapy to reduce the risk of a recurrent event and other vascular outcomes. Our intention is to have these statements updated every 3 years, with additional interval updates as needed, to reflect the changing state of knowledge on the approaches to prevention of a recurrent stroke.

Definition of TIA and Ischemic Stroke Subtypes

The distinction between TIA and ischemic stroke has become less important in recent years because many of the preventive approaches are applicable to both groups. They share pathogenetic mechanisms; prognosis may vary, depending on their severity and cause; and definitions are dependent on the timing and degree of the diagnostic evaluation. By conventional clinical definitions, if the neurological symptoms continue for >24 hours, a person has been diagnosed with stroke; otherwise, a focal neurological deficit lasting <24 hours has been defined as a TIA. With the more widespread use of modern brain imaging, many patients with symptoms lasting <24 hours are found to have an infarction. The most recent definition of stroke for clinical trials has required either symptoms lasting >24 hours or imaging of an acute clinically relevant brain lesion in patients with rapidly vanishing symptoms. The proposed new definition of TIA is a "brief episode of neurological dysfunction caused by a focal disturbance of brain or retinal ischemia, with clinical symptoms typically lasting less than 1 hour, and without evidence of infarction."⁸ TIAs are an important determinant of stroke, with 90-day risks of stroke reported as high as 10.5% and the greatest stroke risk apparent in the first week.^{9,10}

Ischemic stroke is classified into various categories according to the presumed mechanism of the focal brain injury and the type and localization of the vascular lesion. The classic categories have been defined as large-artery atherosclerotic infarction, which may be extracranial or intracranial; embolism from a cardiac source; small-vessel disease; other determined cause such as dissection, hypercoagulable states, or sickle cell disease; and infarcts of undetermined cause.¹¹ The certainty of the classification of the ischemic stroke mechanism is far from ideal and reflects the inadequacy or timing of the diagnostic workup in some cases to visualize the occluded artery or to localize the source of the embolism. Recommendations for the timing and type of diagnostic workup for TIA and stroke patients are beyond the scope of this guideline statement.

I. Risk Factor Control for All Patients With TIA or Ischemic Stroke

A. Hypertension

It is estimated that ≈50 000 000 Americans have hypertension.¹² There is a continuous association between both systolic and diastolic blood pressures (BPs) and the risk of ischemic stroke.^{13,14} Meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials confirm an approximate 30% to 40% stroke risk reduction with BP lowering.^{14,15} Detailed evidence-based recommendations for the BP screening and treatment of persons with hypertension are summarized in the American Stroke Association Scientific Statement on the Primary Prevention of Ischemic Stroke¹ and the AHA Guidelines for Primary Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease and Stroke: 2002 Update¹⁶ and are detailed in the Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of

High Blood Pressure (JNC-7).¹⁷ JNC-7 stresses the importance of lifestyle modifications in the overall management of hypertension.¹⁷ Systolic BP reductions have been associated with weight loss; the consumption of a diet rich in fruits, vegetables, and low-fat dairy products; regular aerobic physical activity; and limited alcohol consumption.¹⁷

Although a wealth of data from a variety of sources support the importance of treatment of hypertension for primary cardiovascular disease prevention in general and in stroke in particular, only limited data directly address the role of BP treatment in secondary prevention among persons with stroke or TIA.¹⁵ There is a general lack of definitive data to help guide the immediate management of elevated BP in the setting of acute ischemic stroke; a cautious approach has been recommended, and the optimal time to initiate therapy remains uncertain.¹⁸

A systematic review focused on the relationship between BP reduction and the secondary prevention of stroke and other vascular events.¹⁹ The analysis included 7 published, nonconfounded, randomized controlled trials with a combined sample size of 15 527 participants with ischemic stroke, TIA, or ICH randomized from 3 weeks to 14 months after the index event and followed up for 2 to 5 years. No relevant trials tested the effects of nonpharmacological interventions. Treatment with antihypertensive drugs has been associated with significant reductions in all recurrent strokes, nonfatal recurrent stroke, MI, and all vascular events with similar, albeit nonsignificant, trends toward a reduction in fatal stroke and vascular death. These results were seen in studies that recruited patients regardless of whether they had hypertension.

Data on the relative benefits of specific antihypertensive regimens for secondary stroke prevention are largely lacking. A meta-analysis showed a significant reduction in recurrent stroke with diuretics and diuretics and ACE inhibitors (ACEIs) combined but not with β -blockers (BBs) or ACEIs used alone.¹⁹ Similar effects were found when all vascular events were considered as the outcome. The analysis included patients with ischemic stroke, TIA, or hemorrhagic stroke. The overall reductions in stroke and all vascular events were related to the degree of BP lowering achieved, and as pointed out in the meta-analysis, comparisons, "although internally consistent, are limited by the small numbers of trials, patients, and events for each drug class...especially for the β -receptor antagonists for which the findings might be falsely neutral."¹⁹

Given these considerations, whether a particular class of antihypertensive drug or a particular drug within a given class offers a particular advantage for use in patients after ischemic stroke remains uncertain. Much discussion has focused on the role of ACEIs. The Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation (HOPE) Study compared the effects of the ACEI ramipril with placebo in high-risk persons and found a 24% risk reduction (95% CI, 5 to 40) for stroke, MI, or vascular death among the 1013 patients with a history of stroke or TIA.¹⁴ Although the BP-lowering effect as measured during the study was minimal (average, 3/2 mm Hg), it may have been related to the methodology used to measure BP. A substudy using ambulatory BP monitoring found a substantial 10/4 mm Hg reduction over 24 hours and a 17/8 mm Hg reduction during the nighttime.²⁰

The Perindopril Protection Against Recurrent Stroke Study (PROGRESS) was specifically designed to test the effects of a BP-lowering regimen, including an ACEI, in 6105 patients with stroke or TIA within the previous 5 years.²¹ Randomization was stratified by intention to use single (ACEI) or combination (ACEI plus the diuretic indapamide) therapy in both hypertensive (>160 mm Hg systolic or >90 mm Hg diastolic) and nonhypertensive patients. The combination (reducing BP by an average of 12/5 mm Hg) resulted in a 43% (95% CI, 30 to 54) reduction in the risk of recurrent stroke and a 40% (95% CI, 29 to 49) reduction in the risk of major vascular events (coronary heart disease [CHD]), with the effect present in both the hypertensive and normotensive groups. However, there was no significant benefit when the ACEI was given alone. Those given combination therapy were younger, were more likely to be men, were more likely to be hypertensive, had a higher mean BP at entry, were more likely to have CHD, and were recruited sooner after the event. The JNC-7 report concluded that "recurrent stroke rates are lowered by the combination of an ACEI and thiazide-type diuretic."¹⁷

A preliminary phase II study randomized 342 hypertensive patients with acute ischemic stroke to an angiotensin receptor blocker (ARB) or placebo over the first week.²² There were no significant differences in blood pressures between the active treatment and placebo patients, with both groups receiving the ARB after the first week. Although the number of vascular events among the ARB group was significantly reduced over the first week (OR, 0.475; 95% CI, 0.252 to 0.895), there were no differences in outcome at 3 months. At 12 months, a significant reduction in mortality was observed in the ARB group. The mechanisms by which an acute treatment led to this difference at 12 months, but no difference at 3 months, are uncertain; further studies are needed.

Recommendations

- 1. Antihypertensive treatment is recommended for both prevention of recurrent stroke and prevention of other vascular events in persons who have had an ischemic stroke or TIA and are beyond the hyperacute period (Class I, Level of Evidence A). Because this benefit extends to persons with and without a history of hypertension, this recommendation should be considered for all ischemic stroke and TIA patients (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B). An absolute target BP level and reduction are uncertain and should be individualized, but benefit has been associated with an average reduction of \approx 10/5 mm Hg, and normal BP levels have been defined as <120/80 mm Hg by JNC-7 (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**
- 2. Several lifestyle modifications have been associated with blood pressure reductions and should be included as part of a comprehensive antihypertensive therapy (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C). The optimal drug regimen remains uncertain; however, the available data support the use of diuretics and the combination of diuretics and an ACEI (Class I, Level of Evidence A). The choice of specific drugs and targets should be individualized on the basis of reviewed data and consideration of specific patient characteristics (eg, extracranial cerebrovascular occlusive disease, renal impairment, cardiac disease, and diabetes) (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C).**

B. Diabetes

Diabetes is estimated to affect 8% of the adult population.²³ It is frequently encountered in stroke care, being present in 15%,²⁴ 21%,²⁵ and 33%²⁶ of patients with ischemic stroke. Diabetes is a clear risk factor for stroke.²⁷⁻³¹ The data supporting diabetes as a risk factor for recurrent stroke, however, are more sparse. Diabetes mellitus (DM) and age were the only significant independent predictors of recurrent stroke in a population-based study of stroke from Rochester, Minn.³² In another community-based stroke study, the Oxfordshire Stroke Project, diabetes was 1 of 2 factors independently associated with stroke recurrence (hazard ratio [HR] 1.85; 95% CI, 1.18 to 2.90; $P < 0.01$), and investigators estimated that 9.1% (95% CI, 2.0 to 20.2) of the recurrent strokes were attributable to diabetes.³³ In the evaluation of 2-year stroke recurrence in the Stroke Data Bank, patients at the lowest risk had no history of diabetes.³⁴ Furthermore, diabetes has been shown to be a strong determinant for the presence of multiple lacunar infarcts in 2 different stroke cohorts.^{35,36}

Most of the available data on stroke prevention in patients with diabetes are on the primary rather than secondary prevention of stroke. Multifactorial approaches with intensive treatments to control hyperglycemia, hypertension, dyslipidemia, and microalbuminuria have demonstrated reductions in the risk of cardiovascular events.³⁷ These intensive approaches included behavioral measures and the use of a statin, ACEI, ARB, and antiplatelet drug as appropriate. Primary stroke prevention guidelines have emphasized the more rigorous control of BP among both type 1 and type 2 diabetics¹ with lower targets of 130/80 mm Hg.^{16,17} Tight control of BP in diabetics has been shown to reduce the incidence of stroke significantly.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ In the United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS), diabetic patients with controlled BP (mean BP, 144/82 mm Hg) had a 44% reduced relative risk (RR) of stroke compared with diabetics with poorer BP control (mean BP, 154/87 mm Hg; 95% CI, 11 to 65; $P = 0.013$).³⁸ Intensive treatment of hypertension also significantly reduced the risk of the combined end point of MI, sudden death, stroke, and peripheral vascular disease by 34% ($P = 0.019$). Additional clinical trials have corroborated the risk reduction in stroke and/or cardiovascular events with BP control in diabetics.^{39,41-43} Although most of these studies did not reach the goal BP of 130/80 mm Hg, epidemiological analyses suggest a continual reduction in cardiovascular events to a BP of 120/80 mm Hg.⁴³⁻⁴⁵

Thiazide diuretics, BBs, ACEIs, and ARBs are beneficial in reducing cardiovascular events and stroke incidence in patients with diabetes^{43,46-50} and are therefore preferred for the initial treatment of hypertension. ACEIs have a favorable effect on stroke and other cardiovascular outcomes.^{21,41,51} ACEI- and ARB-based treatments have been shown to favorably affect the progression of diabetic nephropathy and to reduce albuminuria, and ARBs have been shown to reduce the progression to macroalbuminuria.^{23,38,52-56} The American Diabetes Association (ADA) now recommends that all patients with diabetes and hypertension should be treated with a regimen that includes either an ACEI or an ARB.²³ Some studies have shown an excess of selected cardiac events in patients treated with calcium channel blockers (CCBs) compared with ACEIs.^{57,58} The Antihypertensive and Lipid-Lowering Treatment to Prevent Heart Attack Trial (ALLHAT) study, which included >12 000 diabetic patients, demonstrated no difference between these 2 classes in

the primary end point of coronary events regardless of diabetic status, although the diuretic chlorthalidone was found to be superior to both an ACEI (lisinopril) and a CCB (amlodipine) for selected secondary vascular end points.⁴⁷ Both diabetic and nondiabetic patients had similar vascular event rates treated with CCBs or ARBs in the Valsartan Antihypertensive Long-Term Use Evaluation (VALUE) trial.⁵⁹ In the Hypertension Optimal Treatment (HOT) study and the Systolic Hypertension in Europe (Syst-Eur) Trial, CCBs in combination with ACEIs, BBs, and diuretics did not appear to be associated with increased cardiovascular morbidity.^{43,49} However, because of lingering concerns about a potential increase in cardiovascular events and in the ability to reduce progression of renal disease with CCBs, the ADA has suggested that this class of medications should be considered add-on agents in patients with diabetes.²³ It is important to note that polytherapy is usually needed to reach BP targets among diabetics and that the benefits of antihypertensive therapy depend more on BP achieved than the regimen used.²³

More rigorous control of lipids is now also recommended among diabetics with LDL cholesterol (LDL-C) targets as low as 70 mg/dL.⁶⁰ The Heart Protection Study (HPS) comparing simvastatin to placebo demonstrated the beneficial effect of lipid-lowering statin use in diabetic patients. In this randomized clinical trial (RCT), which included 5963 people with diabetes who were >40 years of age with a total cholesterol >135 mg/dL, simvastatin was associated with a 28% (95% CI, 8 to 44) reduction in ischemic strokes (3.4% simvastatin versus 4.7% placebo; $P=0.01$) and a 22% (95% CI, 13 to 30; $P<0.0001$) reduction in the first-event rate for vascular events, including major coronary artery events, strokes, and revascularizations. These results were independent of baseline LDL, preexisting vascular disease, type or duration of diabetes, or adequacy of glycemic control.⁶¹ Several other clinical trials of statin agents that have included smaller numbers of patients with diabetes have found similar reductions in both cardiovascular and cerebrovascular events.⁶²⁻⁶⁴

Glycemic control, shown to reduce the occurrence of microvascular complications (nephropathy, retinopathy, and peripheral neuropathy) in several clinical trials,^{62,65,66} is recommended in multiple guidelines of both primary and secondary prevention of stroke and cardiovascular disease.^{1,16,23,67-69} Data on the efficacy of glycemic control on macrovascular complications, including stroke, are more limited. RCTs of intensive glycemic control in patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes have shown trends in reducing the risk of cardiovascular events, although they did not reach statistical significance.^{30,70} Analysis of data from randomized trials suggests a continual reduction in vascular events with the progressive control of glucose to normal levels.⁷¹

Normal fasting glucose is defined as glucose <100 mg/dL (5.6 mmol/L), and impaired fasting glucose has been defined at levels between 100 and 126 mg/dL (5.6 and 6.9 mmol/L). A fasting plasma glucose level >126 mg/dL (7.0 mmol/L) or a casual plasma glucose >200 mg/dL (11.1 mmol/L) meets the threshold for the diagnosis of diabetes.²³ Hemoglobin A_{1c} level >7% is defined as inadequate control of hyperglycemia. Diet and exercise, oral hypoglycemic drugs, and insulin are recommended to obtain glycemic control.²³ Although the focus here is on the treatment of stroke patients with diabetes,

there is growing recognition of the high prevalence of insulin resistance. Ongoing trials are addressing the use of rosiglitazone agents in secondary stroke prevention among those with insulin resistance.

Recommendations

1. **More rigorous control of blood pressure and lipids should be considered in patients with diabetes (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B). Although all major classes of antihypertensives are suitable for BP control, most patients will require >1 agent. ACEIs and ARBs are more effective in reducing the progression of renal disease and are recommended as first-choice medications for patients with DM (Class I, Level of Evidence A).**
2. **Glucose control is recommended to near-normoglycemic levels among diabetics with ischemic stroke or TIA to reduce microvascular complications (Class I, Level of Evidence A) and possibly macrovascular complications (Class IIb, Level of Evidence B). The goal for hemoglobin A_{1c} should be ≤7% (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**

C. Lipids

Hypercholesterolemia and hyperlipidemia are not as well established as risk factors for first or recurrent stroke in contrast to what is seen in cardiac disease.^{72,73} Overall, prior observational cohort studies have shown only a weakly positive association for cholesterol level and risk of ischemic stroke or no clear relationship between plasma cholesterol and total stroke, and stroke risk reduction in statin trials may be primarily for nonfatal stroke.^{72,74} Recent clinical trial data suggest, however, that stroke may be reduced by the administration of statin agents in persons with CHD.⁷⁵⁻⁷⁷ The risk reductions with statins were beyond that expected solely through cholesterol reductions and have led to the consideration of other potential beneficial mechanisms. These findings led to approval of simvastatin and pravastatin for the prevention of stroke in those with CHD.⁷⁸

The Medical Research Council/British Heart Foundation HPS addressed the issue of stroke prevention with simvastatin administration in those with or without prior cerebrovascular disease.⁷⁹ In this study, 20 536 patients were identified who had coronary artery disease, occlusive vascular disease in other beds (including cerebrovascular disease), diabetes, or hypertension with other vascular risk factors. A patient was required to have a total cholesterol level of ≥ 135 mg/dL to qualify for the study. Patients were then assigned to either simvastatin 40 mg/d or placebo. Overall, there was a 25% RR reduction for the end point of stroke ($P < 0.0001$). HPS showed that among those with preexisting cerebrovascular disease, the addition of statin therapy resulted in a significant reduction of coronary events and fewer revascularization procedures regardless of baseline cholesterol levels. However, among those with preexisting cerebrovascular disease, the incidence of stroke was not significantly reduced. Although many stroke patients with a history of CHD or DM may qualify for statin therapy, it remains uncertain whether those without CHD will benefit from statin therapy to reduce the risk of recurrent stroke according to HPS findings. This important question is being addressed in the Stroke Prevention by Aggressive Reduction in Cholesterol Levels Study (SPARCL).⁸⁰

A review of recent prevention guidelines concerning cholesterol lowering by statin use in stroke prevention^{16,68} suggests that the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III)^{81,82} is the most comprehensive guide for management of lipids in persons at risk for or who have cerebrovascular disease. NCEP emphasizes LDL-C lowering and 2 major modalities for LDL-C lowering: therapeutic lifestyle change and drug-specific therapy. Therapeutic lifestyle change stresses a reduction in saturated fats and cholesterol intake, weight reduction, and an increase in physical activity. LDL-C goals and cutpoints for initiation of therapeutic lifestyle change and drug therapy are based on 3 categories of risk: CHD and CHD risk equivalents (the latter category includes diabetes and symptomatic carotid artery disease), ≥ 2 cardiovascular risk factors stratified by 10-year risk of 10% to 20% for CHD and $< 10\%$ for CHD according to the Framingham risk score, and 0 to 1 cardiovascular risk factor. When there is a history of CHD and CHD risk equivalents, the target LDL-C goal is < 100 mg/dL.^{81,82} Drug therapy options and management of metabolic syndrome and other dyslipidemias are addressed in the NCEP guideline. LDL-C lowering results in a reduction of total mortality, coronary mortality, major coronary events, coronary procedures, and stroke in persons with CHD.^{81,82}

Since the publication of ATP III, 5 major trials of statin therapy have been published that provide new insights for cholesterol lowering therapy in cardiovascular disease. On the basis of the results of these new studies, an addendum to the ATP III algorithm has been published.⁶⁰ The recommendation in very-high-risk persons is to aim for an LDL-C of < 70 mg/dL.⁶⁰ Very-high-risk patients are those who have 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 with low HDL cholesterol [< 40 mg/dL]), and (4) patients with acute coronary syndromes.

Other medications also used to treat dyslipidemia include niacin, fibrates, and cholesterol absorption inhibitors. These agents can be used in stroke or TIA patients who cannot tolerate statins, but data demonstrating their efficacy for prevention of stroke recurrence are scant. Niacin was associated with a reduction in cerebrovascular events in the Coronary Drug Project.⁸³ Gemfibrozil reduced the rate of un adjudicated total strokes among men with coronary artery disease and low levels of HDL-C (≤ 40 mg/dL) in the Veterans Administration HDL Intervention Trial (VA-HIT).⁸⁴ However, the results were not significant when only adjudicated events were analyzed.

Recommendations

1. **Patients with ischemic stroke or TIA with elevated cholesterol, comorbid coronary artery disease, or evidence of an atherosclerotic origin should be managed according to NCEP III guidelines, which include lifestyle modification, dietary guidelines, and medication recommendations (Class I, Level of Evidence A) (Table 2).** Statin agents are recommended, and the target goal for cholesterol lowering for those with CHD or symptomatic atherosclerotic

- disease is an LDL-C of <100 mg/dL and LDL-C of <70 mg/dL for very-high-risk persons with multiple risk factors (Class I, Level of Evidence A).
2. **Patients with ischemic stroke or TIA presumed to be due to an atherosclerotic origin but with no preexisting indications for statins (normal cholesterol levels, no comorbid coronary artery disease, or no evidence of atherosclerosis) are reasonable candidates for treatment with a statin agent to reduce the risk of vascular events (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**
 3. **Patients with ischemic stroke or TIA with low HDL cholesterol may be considered for treatment with niacin or gemfibrozil (Class IIb, Level of Evidence B) ([Table 2](#)).**

View this table: **TABLE 2. Recommendations for Treatable Vascular Risk Factors**
[\[in this window\]](#)
[\[in a new window\]](#)

D. Cigarette Smoking

There is strong and convincing evidence that cigarette smoking is a major independent risk factor for ischemic stroke.^{85–89} The risk associated with smoking is present at all ages, in both sexes, and among different racial/ethnic groups.^{88,90} In a meta-analysis, smoking has been shown to be associated with a doubling of risk among smokers compared with nonsmokers.⁸⁸ The pathological pathway contributing to increased risk includes changes in blood dynamics^{91,92} and vascular stenosis.^{86,93,94} Because ethical issues preclude conducting RCTs for smoking after stroke, RCTs of quitting after stroke are not available. However, from observational studies, we know that risk of stroke decreases after quitting and that the elevated risk disappears after 5 years.^{85,89,90} In addition, smoking cessation has been associated with a reduction in stroke-related hospitalizations^{95,96} and therefore supports secondary prevention efforts.

There is growing evidence that exposure to environmental tobacco smoke (or passive smoke) increases the risk of cardiovascular disease, including stroke.^{97–99} Given the high prevalence of smoking, exposure to environmental smoke needs consideration in overall risk assessment.

Tobacco dependence is a chronic condition for which there are now effective behavioral and pharmacotherapy treatments.^{100–103} A combination of nicotine replacement therapy, social support, and skills training has been proved to be the most effective approach for quitting.^{100,104} Updated information on how to treat tobacco dependence is available in the 2004 report, *The Health Consequences of Smoking: a Report of the Surgeon General*.¹⁰⁵

Recommendation

All healthcare providers should strongly advise every patient with stroke or TIA who has smoked in the last year to quit (Class I, Level of Evidence C). Avoidance of environmental tobacco smoke is recommended (Class IIa, Level of Evidence C). Counseling, nicotine products, and oral smoking cessation medications have been found to be effective in helping smokers to quit (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B) ([Table 3](#)).

View this table: **TABLE 3. Recommendations for Modifiable Behavioral Risk Factors**
[\[in this window\]](#)
[\[in a new window\]](#)

E. Alcohol Consumption

The effect of alcohol on stroke risk is controversial. There is strong evidence that chronic alcoholism and heavy drinking are risk factors for all stroke subtypes.¹⁰⁶⁻¹¹⁰ For ischemic stroke, studies have demonstrated an association between alcohol and stroke, ranging from a definite independent effect to no effect. Most studies have suggested a J-shaped association between alcohol and ischemic stroke, with a protective effect in light or moderate drinkers and an elevated stroke risk with heavy alcohol consumption.^{93,106,107,111-116} In a recent meta-analysis of 35 observational studies of the association between alcohol and stroke, alcohol consumption was categorized into 0, <1, 1 to 2, 2 to 5, >5 drinks per day; an average drink contained about 12 g, 15 mL, or 0.5 oz of alcohol, which was found in 1 bottle (12 oz) of beer, 1 small glass (4 oz) of wine, or 1 alcoholic (1.5 oz liquor) cocktail. Compared with nondrinkers, those who consumed >5 drinks per day had a 69% increased stroke risk (RR, 1.69).¹¹⁷ Consumption of <1 drink per day was associated with a reduced risk (RR, 0.80), and consumption of 1 to 2 drinks per day was associated with a reduced risk of 0.72. Although few studies have evaluated the association between alcohol consumption and recurrent stroke, stroke recurrence was significantly increased among those ischemic stroke patients with prior heavy alcohol use in the Northern Manhattan cohort.¹¹⁸ No studies have demonstrated that reduction of alcohol intake decreases stroke recurrence risk.

The mechanism for reduced risk of ischemic stroke with light to moderate alcohol consumption may be related to an increase in HDL,^{119,120} decreases in platelet aggregation,^{121,122} and lower plasma fibrinogen concentration.^{123,124} The deleterious risk mechanisms for those who are heavy alcohol consumers include alcohol-induced hypertension, hypercoagulable state, reduced cerebral blood flow, and atrial fibrillation (AF).^{106,115,125} In addition, the brain that has been subjected to heavy alcohol consumption is more vulnerable because of an increase in the presence of brain atrophy.^{126,127}

It has been well established that alcohol can induce dependence and that alcoholism is a major public health problem. When advising a patient about behaviors to reduce recurrent

stroke risk, clinicians need to take into consideration the interrelationship between other risk factors and alcohol consumption. A primary goal for secondary stroke prevention is to eliminate or reduce alcohol consumption in heavy drinkers through established screening and counseling methods as outlined in the US Preventive Services Task Force Update 2004.¹²⁸

Recommendation

Patients with ischemic stroke or TIA who are heavy drinkers should eliminate or reduce their consumption of alcohol (Class I, Level of Evidence A). Light to moderate levels of no more than 2 drinks per day for men and 1 drink per day for nonpregnant women may be considered (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) (Table 3).

F. Obesity

Obesity, defined as a body mass index (BMI) of $>30 \text{ kg/m}^2$, has been established as an independent risk factor for CHD and premature mortality.¹²⁹⁻¹³¹ The prevalence of obesity in the United States has increased dramatically over the past several decades, with current estimates of 63% of men and 55% of women considered overweight and 30% considered obese.^{132,133} For individuals with disabling conditions with associated physical disabilities, obesity is even more prevalent.¹³⁴

The relationship of obesity and weight gain in adult years to stroke is complex. Obesity is strongly related to several major risk factors, including hypertension, diabetes, and dyslipidemia.^{135,136} Studies documenting the specific impact of obesity to stroke have varied.¹³⁶⁻¹⁴² In men, findings from the Physicians' Health Study have shown that an increasing BMI is associated with a steady increase in ischemic stroke, independently of the effects of hypertension, diabetes, and cholesterol.¹⁴³ Among women, data are inconsistent, with some positive¹³⁸ and others with no association.¹⁴⁰⁻¹⁴²

Several studies have suggested that abdominal obesity, rather than general obesity, is more related to stroke risk.^{144,145} Clinically, abdominal obesity is defined by a waist circumference $>102 \text{ cm}$ (40 in) in men and 88 cm (35 in) in women. Temporal trends in waist circumference among adults in the United States show a rapid increase in obesity, especially abdominal obesity.¹⁴⁶ For stroke, a significant and independent association between abdominal obesity and ischemic stroke was found in all racial/ethnic groups in the Northern Manhattan Study.¹⁴⁴ Comparing the first quartile of waist-to-hip ratio with the third and fourth quartiles gave ORs of 2.4 (95% CI, 1.5 to 3.9) and 3.0 (95% CI, 1.8 to 4.8), respectively, after adjustment for other risk factors and BMI.

No study has demonstrated that weight reduction will reduce stroke recurrence. Losing weight, however, significantly improves BP, fasting glucose values, serum lipids, and physical endurance.¹⁴⁷ Because obesity is a contributing factor to other risk factors associated with recurrent stroke, promoting weight loss and the maintenance of a healthy weight is a high priority. Diets rich in fruits and vegetables, such as the Mediterranean diet, can help with weight control and have been shown to reduce the risk of stroke, MI, and death.^{148,149}

Dietary guidelines are more adequately addressed in other AHA statements, including the primary prevention guideline (Primary Prevention of Ischemic Stroke), which is currently being updated.^{1,150}

Recommendation

Weight reduction may be considered for all overweight ischemic stroke and TIA patients to maintain the goal of a BMI of between 18.5 and 24.9 kg/m² and a waist circumference of <35 in for women and <40 in for men (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C). Clinicians should encourage weight management through an appropriate balance of calorie intake, physical activity, and behavioral counseling (Table 3).

G. Physical Activity

Substantial evidence exists that physical activity exerts a beneficial effect on multiple cardiovascular disease risk factors, including those for stroke.^{16,151–155} In a recent review of existing studies on physical activity and stroke, overall moderately or highly active individuals had a lower risk of stroke incidence or mortality than did low-activity individuals.¹⁵⁴ Moderately active men and women had a 20% lower risk, and those who were highly active had a 27% lower risk. A plausible explanation for these observed reductions is that physical activity tends to lower BP and weight,^{151,156} enhance vasodilation,¹⁵⁷ improve glucose tolerance,^{158,159} and promote cardiovascular health.¹³⁰ Through lifestyle modification, exercise can minimize the need for more intensive medical and pharmacological interventions or enhance treatment end points.

Despite the established benefits of an active lifestyle, sedentary behaviors continue to be the national trends.^{160,161} For those at risk for recurrent stroke and TIA, these sedentary behaviors complicate the recovery process and affect recurrent risk status. Because disability after stroke is substantial¹² and because neurological deficits predispose to activity intolerance and physical deconditioning,¹⁶² the challenge for clinicians is to establish a safe therapeutic exercise regimen that allows the patient to regain prestroke levels of activity and then to attain sufficient physical activity and exercise to reduce stroke recurrence. Several studies support the implementation of aerobic exercise and strength training to improve cardiovascular fitness after stroke.^{162–165} Structured programs of therapeutic exercise have been shown to improve mobility, balance, and endurance.¹⁶³ Beneficial effects have been demonstrated in different ethnic groups and in both older and younger groups.¹⁶⁶ Encouragement of physical activity and exercise can optimize physical performance and functional capacity, thus reducing the risk for recurrent stroke. Recommendations on the benefits of physical activity for stroke survivors are reviewed more extensively in other AHA Scientific Statements.¹⁵⁷

Recommendation

For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA who are capable of engaging in physical activity, at least 30 minutes of moderate-intensity physical exercise most days may be considered to reduce the risk factors and comorbid conditions that increase the likelihood of recurrence of stroke (Class IIb,

Level of Evidence C). For those individuals with disability after ischemic stroke, a supervised therapeutic exercise regimen is recommended (Table 3).

II. Interventional Approaches for the Patient With Large-Artery Atherosclerosis

A. Extracranial Carotid Disease

Among patients with TIA or stroke and documented carotid stenosis, a number of randomized trials have compared endarterectomy plus medical therapy with medical therapy alone. For patients with symptomatic atherosclerotic carotid stenosis >70%, as defined using the North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial (NASCET) criteria, the value of carotid endarterectomy (CEA) has been clearly established from the results of 3 major prospective randomized trials: the NASCET, the European Carotid Surgery Trial (ECST), and the Veterans Affairs Cooperative Study Program.¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁶⁹ Among symptomatic patients with TIAs or minor strokes and high-grade carotid stenosis, each trial showed impressive relative and absolute risk reductions for those randomized to surgery.

For patients with carotid stenosis <50%, these trials showed that there was no significant benefit of surgery. In ECST, no benefit of surgery was demonstrated among those with <50% ipsilateral carotid stenosis.¹⁶⁸ Among those patients with <50% stenosis in NASCET, there was no significant reduction in the ipsilateral stroke risk among those treated with endarterectomy compared with those treated medically.¹⁷⁰ Although not specifically addressed by these trials, patients with nonstenosing ulcerative plaque generally would have been included in the groups with carotid stenosis <50% and would not have been found to benefit from endarterectomy.

For those with symptomatic carotid stenosis in the moderate category (50% to 69% stenosis), there is some uncertainty. The results from NASCET and ECST demonstrated less impressive benefits for CEA in this moderate group compared with medical therapy.^{170,171} In NASCET, the 5-year risk of fatal or nonfatal ipsilateral stroke over the 5-year period was 22.2% in the medically treated group and 15.7% in patients treated surgically ($P=0.045$).¹⁷⁰ The relative and absolute risk reductions for surgery were less impressive than those observed for more severe degrees of stenosis.

Various comorbid features altered the benefit-to-risk ratio for CEA for moderate carotid stenosis. Benefits were greatest among those with more severe stenosis, those ≥ 75 years of age, men, patients with recent stroke (rather than TIA), and patients with hemispheric symptoms rather than transient monocular blindness.^{170,172} Other radiographic factors found to predict better outcomes after CEA included the presence of intracranial stenosis, the absence of leukoaraiosis, and the presence of collaterals.^{170,173,174} Gender and age differences, as well as comorbidity, must be considered when treatment options are evaluated in patients with stenosis between 50% and 69%, because the absolute benefit of surgery is less than that for more severe degrees of stenosis. Pooled analyses from endarterectomy trials have shown that early surgery is associated with increased benefits compared with delayed surgery. Benefit from surgery was greatest in men, patients ≥ 75

years of age, and those randomized within 2 weeks after their last ischemic event and fell rapidly with increasing delay.¹⁷⁵

Studies documenting the benefit of endarterectomy were conducted before the widespread use of medical treatments that have been demonstrated to reduce stroke risk in patients with vascular disease such as clopidogrel, extended-release dipyridamole and aspirin, statins, and more aggressive BP control. In NASCET, aspirin was the recommended antithrombotic agent, and only 14.5% of patients were on lipid-lowering therapy at the beginning of the study. During the NASCET study, although BP was monitored at regular office visits, there was not a recommended BP treatment algorithm across centers, and there was not consistent involvement by hypertension or vascular medicine specialists at each center. Whether the use of more aggressive medical therapy will alter the benefit of CEA plus best medical care over best medical care alone remains to be determined; however, it would be expected to reduce the stroke rates in both groups, leading to lower absolute risk reductions. Therefore, stroke or TIA patients who undergo interventional procedures also need to be treated with maximal medical therapies, as reviewed in the other recommendations in this document.

Extracranial-intracranial (EC/IC) bypass surgery was not found to provide any benefit for patients with carotid occlusion or those with carotid artery narrowing distal to the carotid bifurcation.¹⁷⁶ New efforts using more sensitive imaging to select patients with the greatest hemodynamic compromise for RCTs using EC/IC bypass surgery are ongoing.^{177,178}

Data on carotid artery balloon angioplasty and stenting (CAS) for symptomatic patients with internal carotid artery stenosis in stroke prevention consist primarily of a number of individual published case series but few controlled randomized multicenter comparisons of CEA and CAS.^{179–181} The Wallstent Trial randomized 219 symptomatic patients with 60% to 90% stenosis to CEA or CAS. CAS was performed without distal protection and currently accepted antiplatelet prophylaxis. Study design allowed operators with limited experience to participate. The risk of perioperative stroke or death was 4.5% for CEA and 12.1% for CAS, and the risk of major stroke or death at 1 year was 0.9% for CEA and 3.7% for CAS. The trial was halted because of poor results from CAS.¹⁸²

The Carotid and Vertebral Artery Transluminal Angioplasty Study (CAVATAS) trial randomly compared angioplasty with surgical therapy among 504 symptomatic carotid patients, in whom only 26% received stents.¹⁸³ Major outcome events within 30 days did not differ between endovascular treatment and surgery groups, with a 30-day risk of stroke or death of 10.0% and 9.9%, respectively. Despite the increased risk of severe ipsilateral carotid stenosis in the endovascular group at 1 year, no substantial difference in the rate of ipsilateral stroke was noted up to 3 years after randomization.

The Stenting and Angioplasty With Protection in Patients at High Risk for Endarterectomy (SAPPHIRE) trial randomized 334 patients to endarterectomy or stenting with the use of an emboli-protection device, testing the hypothesis that stenting was not inferior to endarterectomy. Only 30% of the study population was symptomatic. Qualified

CAS operators had a periprocedural stroke, death or MI complication rate of 4%. The primary end point of the study (the cumulative incidence of death, stroke, or MI within 30 days after the intervention, or death or ipsilateral stroke between 31 days and 1 year) occurred in 20 stent patients and 32 endarterectomy patients (30-day risk, 5.8% versus 12.6%; $P=0.004$ for noninferiority).¹⁸⁴ Most of the benefit was detected in the lower risk of MI for the stent compared with the high-surgical risk endarterectomy cases.

The National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Stroke (NINDS)–funded Carotid Revascularization With Endarterectomy or Stent Trial (CREST) is currently comparing CEA and CAS in patients with symptomatic severe stenosis ($\geq 70\%$ by ultrasonography or $\geq 50\%$ by NASCET angiography criteria). The primary objective is to compare the efficacy of CAS versus CEA in preventing stroke over a follow-up period of up to 4 years. Other randomized trials are ongoing in Europe and Australia.

At present, CAS has been used in selected patients in whom stenosis is difficult to access surgically, medical conditions that greatly increase the risk for surgery are present, or other specific circumstances exist such as radiation-induced stenosis or restenosis after CEA. CAS has also been used in selected cases after arterial dissection, fibromuscular hyperplasia, or Takayasu's arteritis. More definitive evidence is needed before we can advocate the widespread use of angioplasty plus stent as routine care for patients with extracranial carotid stenosis.

Recommendations

- 1. For patients with recent TIA or ischemic stroke within the last 6 months and ipsilateral severe (70% to 99%) carotid artery stenosis, CEA by a surgeon with a perioperative morbidity and mortality of <6% (Class I, Level of Evidence A) is recommended. For patients with recent TIA or ischemic stroke and ipsilateral moderate (50% to 69%) carotid stenosis, CEA is recommended, depending on patient-specific factors such as age, gender, comorbidities, and severity of initial symptoms (Class I, Level of Evidence A). When the degree of stenosis is <50%, there is no indication for CEA (Class III, Level of Evidence A) (Table 4).**
- 2. When CEA is indicated for patients with TIA or stroke, surgery within 2 weeks is suggested rather than delaying surgery (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**
- 3. Among patients with symptomatic severe stenosis (>70%) in whom the stenosis is difficult to access surgically, medical conditions are present that greatly increase the risk for surgery, or other specific circumstances exist such as radiation-induced stenosis or restenosis after CEA, CAS is not inferior to endarterectomy and may be considered (Class IIb, Level of Evidence B). CAS is reasonable when performed by operators with established periprocedural morbidity and mortality rates of 4% to 6%, similar to that observed in trials of CEA and CAS (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**
- 4. Among patients with symptomatic carotid occlusion, EC/IC bypass surgery is not routinely recommended (Class III, Level of Evidence A).**

View this
table:
[\[in this
window\]](#)
[\[in a new
window\]](#)

TABLE 4. Recommendations for Interventional Approaches to Patients With Stroke Caused by Large-Artery Atherosclerotic Disease

B. Extracranial Vertebrobasilar Disease

Revascularization procedures can be performed on patients with extracranial vertebral artery stenosis who are having repeated vertebrobasilar TIAs or strokes despite medical therapy. Atherosclerotic plaques of both the vertebral and carotid arteries that are concentric, smooth, fibrous lesions without ulceration are amenable to endovascular therapy, which has generally moved from simple angioplasty to stenting to prevent recoil and restenosis.^{185,186} Retrospective case series have shown that the procedure can be performed with a high degree of technical success.^{187–190} Long-term follow-up data are limited, and further randomized studies are needed to more clearly define evidence-based recommendations in this setting.

Recommendation

Endovascular treatment of patients with symptomatic extracranial vertebral stenosis may be considered when patients are having symptoms despite medical therapies (antithrombotics, statins, and other treatments for risk factors) (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) (Table 4).

C. Intracranial Atherosclerosis

Data from prospective studies show that patients with symptomatic intracranial atherosclerosis have a relatively high risk of recurrent stroke. The EC/IC bypass study randomized 352 patients with atherosclerotic disease of the middle cerebral artery to bypass surgery or medical treatment with aspirin.¹⁹¹ The medically treated patients were followed up for a mean of 42 months and had an overall stroke rate of 9.5% and an ipsilateral stroke rate of 7.8%. The Warfarin Aspirin Symptomatic Intracranial Disease (WASID) study evaluated 569 patients with symptomatic intracranial stenoses who were prospectively randomized to aspirin or warfarin.¹⁹² This study, which was stopped for safety reasons, showed no significant difference between groups in terms of the primary end point (ischemic stroke, brain hemorrhage, and nonstroke vascular death). In addition, retrospective data indicate that patients with symptomatic intracranial stenosis who fail antithrombotic therapy may have even greater rates of recurrent stroke.¹⁹³

Intracranial angioplasty and/or stenting provide an opportunity to rapidly improve cerebral blood flow. Results from single-center experiences suggest that the procedure can be performed with a high degree of technical success.^{194–198} These studies have

generally been performed among patients who have hemodynamically significant intracranial stenoses and symptoms despite medical therapy. More long-term follow-up has been lacking, but available data raise the possibility that angioplasty may improve the natural history compared with medical therapy.¹⁹⁴

It is not clear that stenting confers any improvement in the long-term clinical or angiographic outcome compared with angioplasty alone in this setting. One prospective trial has evaluated stenting in a mixed group of patients with intracranial and/or extracranial disease. The Stenting of Symptomatic Atherosclerotic Lesions in the Vertebral or Intracranial Arteries (SSYLVA) Trial, a corporate-sponsored multicenter, nonrandomized, prospective feasibility study, evaluated 1 stent for treatment of vertebral or intracranial artery stenosis.¹⁹⁹ Forty-three intracranial arteries (70.5%) and 18 extracranial vertebral arteries (29.5%) were treated. Successful stent placement was achieved in 58 of 61 cases (95%). Thirty-day stroke incidence was 6.6%, with no deaths. Four of 55 patients (7.3%) had strokes later than 30 days, 1 of which was in the only patient not stented. Recurrent stenosis >50% within 6 months occurred in 12 of 37 intracranial arteries (32.4%) and 6 of 14 extracranial vertebral arteries (42.9%). Seven recurrent stenoses (39%) were symptomatic. Although a few different stents have been approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for use in patients with arterial stenoses, further studies are necessary to determine whether these interventional procedures have short-term and long-term efficacy.

Recommendation

For patients with hemodynamically significant intracranial stenosis who have symptoms despite medical therapies (antithrombotics, statins, and other treatments for risk factors), the usefulness of endovascular therapy (angioplasty and/or stent placement) is uncertain and is considered investigational (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) (Table 4).

III. Medical Treatments for the Patient With Cardiogenic Embolism

Cardiogenic cerebral embolism derived from a diversity of cardiac disorders is responsible for ≈20% of ischemic strokes. There is a history of nonvalvular AF in about one half the cases, of valvular heart disease in one fourth, and of left ventricular (LV) mural thrombus in almost one third.²⁰⁰ Sixty percent of emboli of LV origin have been associated with acute MI.²⁰⁰ Intracavitary thrombus occurs in about one third of patients in the first 2 weeks after anterior MI and in an even greater proportion of those with large infarcts involving the LV apex.²⁰¹ Ventricular thrombi also occur in patients with chronic ventricular dysfunction resulting from coronary disease, hypertension, or other forms of dilated cardiomyopathy. Congestive heart failure affects >4 000 000 Americans and increases stroke risk by a factor of 2 to 3, accounting for ≈10% of ischemic stroke events.²⁰²

In general, patients with cardiac disease and cerebral infarction face a high risk of recurrent stroke. Because it is often difficult to determine the precise mechanism, the

choice of a platelet inhibitor or anticoagulant drug may be difficult. Patients who have suffered an ischemic stroke who have a high-risk source of cardiogenic embolism should generally be treated with anticoagulant drugs to prevent recurrence.

The reader should review other AHA statements on the recommendations for the management of cardiac disease when planning treatments for patients with stroke or TIA who have other cardiac conditions.²⁰³⁻²⁰⁸

A. Atrial Fibrillation

Both persistent AF and paroxysmal AF are potent predictors of first and recurrent stroke. More than 75 000 cases of stroke per year are attributed to AF. It has been estimated that AF affects >2 000 000 Americans and becomes more frequent with age, ranking as the leading cardiac arrhythmia in the elderly. Data from the AF clinical trials show that age, recent congestive heart failure, hypertension, diabetes, and prior thromboembolism have been found to identify high-risk groups for arterial thromboembolism among patients with AF. LV dysfunction, left atrial size, mitral annular calcification (MAC), spontaneous echo contrast, and left atrial thrombus by echocardiography have also been shown to predict increased thromboembolic risk. Overall, patients with prior stroke or TIA carry the highest stroke risk (RR, 2.5).

Multiple clinical trials have demonstrated the superior therapeutic effect of warfarin compared with placebo in the prevention of thromboembolic events among patients with nonvalvular AF. Pooled data from 5 primary prevention trials of warfarin versus control have been reported.²⁰⁹ The efficacy of warfarin has been shown to be consistent across studies, with an overall RR reduction of 68% (95% CI, 50 to 79) and an absolute reduction in annual stroke rate from 4.5% for the control patients to 1.4% in patients assigned to adjusted-dose warfarin. This absolute risk reduction indicates that 31 ischemic strokes will be prevented each year for every 1000 patients treated. Overall, warfarin use has been shown to be relatively safe, with an annual rate of major bleeding of 1.3% for patients on warfarin compared with 1% for patients on placebo or aspirin.

The optimal intensity of oral anticoagulation for stroke prevention in patients with AF appears to be 2.0 to 3.0. Results from a large case-control study²¹⁰ and two RCTs^{211,212} suggest that the efficacy of oral anticoagulation declines significantly below an international normalized ratio (INR) of 2.0. Unfortunately, a high percentage of AF patients have subtherapeutic levels of anticoagulation and therefore are inadequately protected from stroke.

Evidence supporting the efficacy of aspirin is substantially weaker than that for warfarin. A pooled analysis of data from 3 trials resulted in an estimated RR reduction of 21% compared with placebo (95% CI, 0 to 38). At present, data are sparse with regard to the efficacy of alternative antiplatelet agents for stroke prevention in AF patients who are allergic to aspirin.²¹³ An ongoing study, Atrial Fibrillation Clopidogrel Trial with Irbesartan for Prevention of Vascular Events (ACTIVE), is evaluating the safety and efficacy of the combination of clopidogrel and aspirin in AF patients.

The superior efficacy of anticoagulation over aspirin for stroke prevention in patients with AF and a recent TIA or minor stroke was demonstrated in the European Atrial Fibrillation Trial.²¹⁴ Therefore, unless a clear contraindication exists, AF patients with a recent stroke or TIA should receive long-term anticoagulation rather than antiplatelet therapy. There is no evidence that combining anticoagulation with an antiplatelet agent reduces the risk of stroke compared with anticoagulant therapy alone.

The narrow therapeutic margin of warfarin in conjunction with numerous associated food and drug interactions requires frequent INR testing and dose adjustments. These liabilities of warfarin contribute to significant underutilization, even in high-risk patients. Therefore, alternative therapies that are easier to use are needed.

Ximelagatran is a direct thrombin inhibitor that is orally administered, has stable pharmacokinetics independent of the hepatic P₄₅₀ enzyme system, and has a low potential for food or drug interactions. Two large studies, Stroke Prevention Using the Oral Direct Thrombin Inhibitor Ximelagatran in Patients With Atrial Fibrillation (SPORTIF) -III and -V,²¹⁵ compared ximelagatran with dose-adjusted warfarin (INR, 2 to 3) in high-risk patients with AF. A total of 7329 patients were included in these trials. Ximelagatran was administered at a fixed dose of 36 mg twice daily without coagulation monitoring. SPORTIF-III was an open-label study, involving 3407 patients randomized in 23 countries in Europe, Asia, and Australasia. SPORTIF-V was a double-blind trial otherwise identical in design that randomized 3922 patients in North America. About 25% of the patients in these trials had a history of stroke or TIA. In both trials, ximelagatran was noninferior to warfarin and was associated with fewer bleeding complications. In a pooled analysis of SPORTIF-III and -V, the rate of primary events (combined ischemic stroke, hemorrhagic stroke, and systemic embolic event) was 1.62% per year with ximelagatran and 1.65% per year with warfarin (difference, -0.03; 95% CI, -0.50 to 0.44; *P*=0.94) over 11 346 patient-years (mean, 18.5 months). The primary outcome event rate in patients with prior stroke was 2.83% per year in the ximelagatran group (n=786) and 3.27% per year in the warfarin group (n=753; *P*=0.63). There were no significant differences between treatments in rates of hemorrhagic stroke, fatal bleeding, or other major bleeding, but combined rates of minor and major bleeding were significantly lower with ximelagatran (31.7% versus 38.7% per year; *P*<0.0001). Serum alanine-aminotransferase levels rose transiently >3 times above normal in 26% of patients with ximelagatran, usually within 6 months.

The results of SPORTIF-III and -V provide evidence that ximelagatran 36 mg twice daily is essentially equivalent to well-controlled, dose-adjusted warfarin at INRs of 2.0 to 3.0. Because ximelagatran does not need anticoagulation monitoring or dose adjustment, it was developed to be an easier drug to administer than adjusted-dose warfarin; however, the need for monitoring hepatic enzymes may lessen its advantage in ease of use. At the time these guidelines were written, the FDA and certain European regulatory authorities have not approved ximelagatran; therefore, it will not be included in the recommendations.

Available data do not show greater efficacy of the acute administration of anticoagulants over antiplatelet agents in the setting of cardioembolic stroke.¹⁸ More studies are required to clarify whether certain subgroups of patients who are perceived to be at high risk of recurrent embolism may benefit from urgent anticoagulation.

No data are available to address the question of when to initiate oral anticoagulation in a patient with AF after a stroke or TIA. In the European Atrial Fibrillation Trial (EAFT),²¹⁴ oral anticoagulation was initiated within 14 days of symptom onset in about one half of the patients. Patients in this trial had minor strokes or TIAs and AF. In general, we recommend initiation of oral anticoagulation within 2 weeks of an ischemic stroke or TIA; however, for patients with large infarcts or uncontrolled hypertension, further delays may be appropriate.

For patients with AF who suffer an ischemic stroke or TIA despite therapeutic anticoagulation, no data indicate that either increasing the intensity of anticoagulation or adding an antiplatelet agent provides additional protection against future ischemic events. In addition, both strategies are associated with an increase in bleeding risk.

About one third of patients who present with AF and an ischemic stroke will be found to have other potential causes for the stroke such as carotid stenosis. For these patients, treatment decisions should focus on the presumed most likely stroke origin. In many cases, it will be appropriate to initiate anticoagulation, because of the AF, and additional therapy (such as CEA).

Recommendations

1. **For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA with persistent or paroxysmal (intermittent) AF, anticoagulation with adjusted-dose warfarin (target INR, 2.5; range, 2.0 to 3.0) is recommended (Class I, Level of Evidence A) (Table 5).**
2. **For patients unable to take oral anticoagulants, aspirin 325 mg/d is recommended (Class I, Level of Evidence A).**

View this
table:
[\[in this
window\]](#)
[\[in a new
window\]](#)

TABLE 5. Recommendations for Patients With Cardioembolic Stroke Types

B. Acute MI and Left Ventricular Thrombus

Stroke or systemic embolism is less common among uncomplicated MI patients but can

occur in up to 12% of patients with acute MI complicated by a LV thrombus. The rate is higher in those with anterior than inferior infarcts and may reach 20% of those with the large anteroapical infarcts.²¹⁶ The incidence of embolism is highest during the period of active thrombus formation in the first 1 to 3 months, yet the embolic risk remains substantial even beyond the acute phase in patients with persistent myocardial dysfunction, congestive heart failure, or AF. Although thrombus remains echocardiographically apparent for 1 year after MI in more than one third of patients in whom the diagnosis is initially made and evidence of thrombus persists for 2 years in about one fourth of cases, relatively few of these persistent thrombi are associated with late embolic events. The concurrent use of aspirin with oral anticoagulation is based on ACC/AHA guidelines for patients with ST-segment elevation MI.²⁰⁶

Recommendations

1. **For patients with an ischemic stroke or TIA caused by an acute MI in whom LV mural thrombus is identified by echocardiography or another form of cardiac imaging, oral anticoagulation is reasonable, aiming for an INR of 2.0 to 3.0 for at least 3 months and up to 1 year (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**
2. **Aspirin should be used concurrently for ischemic coronary artery disease during oral anticoagulant therapy in doses up to 162 mg/d (Class IIa, Level of Evidence A).**

C. Cardiomyopathy

When LV systolic function is impaired, the reduced stroke volume creates a condition of relative stasis within the left ventricle that may activate coagulation processes and increase the risk of thromboembolic events. The cause of cardiomyopathy may be ischemia or infarction based on coronary artery disease or nonischemic as a result of genetic or acquired defects of myocardial cell structure or metabolism. Although stroke rate was not found to be related to the severity of heart failure, 2 large studies did find the incidence of stroke to be inversely proportional to ejection fraction (EF).^{217,218} In the Survival and Ventricular Enlargement (SAVE) study,^{217,218} patients with an EF of 29% to 35% (mean, 32%) had a stroke rate of 0.8% per year; the rate in patients with EF \leq 28% (mean, 23%) was 1.7% per year. There was an 18% increment in the risk of stroke for every 5% decline in EF. These findings apply mainly to men, who represented >80% of trial participants. A retrospective analysis of data from the Studies of Left Ventricular Dysfunction (SOLVD) trial,⁵¹ which excluded patients with AF, found a 58% increase in risk of thromboembolic events for every 10% decrease in EF among women ($P=0.01$). There was no significant increase in stroke risk among men.

In patients with nonischemic dilated cardiomyopathy, the rate of stroke appears similar to that associated with cardiomyopathy resulting from ischemic heart disease. An estimated 72 000 initial stroke events per year have been associated with LV systolic dysfunction, and the 5-year recurrent stroke rate in patients with cardiac failure has been reported to be as high as 45%.¹¹⁸ Warfarin is sometimes prescribed to prevent cardioembolic events in patients with cardiomyopathy; however, no randomized clinical studies have demonstrated the efficacy of anticoagulation, and considerable controversy surrounds the use of warfarin in patients with cardiac failure or reduced LV EF.^{219,220} Several trials have

been initiated to address this issue.^{221–223} The primary objective of the Warfarin/Aspirin Study in Heart Failure (WASH) was to demonstrate feasibility and aid in the design of a larger outcome study.²¹⁷ The study showed no significant differences in the primary outcome (death, nonfatal MI, or nonfatal stroke) between the groups, with 26%, 32%, and 26% of patients randomized to no antithrombotic treatment, aspirin, and warfarin, respectively. The Warfarin and Antiplatelet Therapy in Chronic Heart Failure Trial (WATCH) was designed to evaluate the efficacy of antithrombotic strategies among symptomatic heart failure patients in sinus rhythm with EFs \leq 35%.²¹⁸ Patients were randomized to open-label warfarin (target INR, 2.5 to 3.0) or double-blind antiplatelet therapy with aspirin 162 mg or clopidogrel 75 mg. The trial was terminated early for poor recruitment after 1587 patients among the 4500 planned were enrolled, with a resulting reduction of its power to achieve its original objective.

Two studies of patients with MI, involving a total of 4618 patients,^{224,225} found that warfarin (INR, 2.8 to 4.8) reduced the risk of stroke compared with placebo by 55%²²⁴ and 40%²²⁵ over 37 months. In the SAVE study, both warfarin and aspirin (given separately) were associated with a lower risk for stroke than no antithrombotic therapy.²¹⁸ Warfarin appears to exert a similar effect on the reduction of stroke both in patients with nonischemic cardiomyopathy and in those with ischemic heart disease.²²⁶ Aspirin reduces the stroke rate by \approx 20%.²²⁷ Potential antiplatelet therapies used to prevent recurrent stroke include aspirin (50 to 325 mg/d), the combination of aspirin (25 mg twice daily) and extended-release dipyridamole (200 mg twice daily), and clopidogrel (75 mg daily).

In the ongoing Warfarin Versus Aspirin for Reduced Cardiac Ejection Fraction (WARCEF) study, the primary end point includes both stroke and death, and patients with and without prior stroke are enrolled. This trial is not statistically powerful enough to determine whether warfarin has an effect on stroke risk reduction; however, by pooling results with those of other trials, we may be able to draw some conclusions about this issue. Despite the hemorrhagic risk associated with chronic anticoagulation, retrospective data suggest that warfarin may reduce mortality and both initial and recurrent ischemic stroke rates in patients with impaired LV function.

Recommendation

For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA who have dilated cardiomyopathy, either warfarin (INR, 2.0 to 3.0) or antiplatelet therapy may be considered for prevention of recurrent events (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) (Table 5).

View this table:
[\[in this window\]](#)
[\[in a new](#)

TABLE 6. Recommendations for Antithrombotic Therapy for Noncardioembolic Stroke or TIA (Oral Anticoagulant and Antiplatelet Therapies)

D. Valvular Heart Disease

Antithrombotic therapy can reduce, but not eliminate, the likelihood of stroke and systemic embolism in patients with valvular heart disease. As in all situations involving antithrombotic therapy, the risks of thromboembolism in various forms of native valvular heart disease and in patients with mechanical and biological heart valve prostheses must be balanced against the risk of bleeding. Because the frequency and permanent consequences of thromboembolic events usually are greater than the outcome of hemorrhagic complications, anticoagulant therapy is generally recommended, particularly when these conditions are associated with AF.²²⁸

1. Rheumatic Mitral Valve Disease

Recurrent embolism occurs in 30% to 65% of patients with rheumatic mitral valve disease who have a history of a previous embolic event.^{229–232} Between 60% and 65% of these recurrences develop within the first year,^{229,230} most within 6 months. Mitral valvuloplasty does not seem to eliminate the risk of thromboembolism^{233,234}; therefore, successful valvuloplasty does not eliminate the need for anticoagulation in patients requiring long-term anticoagulation preoperatively. Although not evaluated in randomized trials, multiple observational studies have reported that long-term anticoagulant therapy effectively reduces the risk of systemic embolism in patients with rheumatic mitral valve disease.^{235–238} Long-term anticoagulant therapy in patients with mitral stenosis who had left atrial thrombus identified by transesophageal echocardiography has been shown to result in the disappearance of the left atrial thrombus.²³⁹ Smaller thrombus and a lower New York Heart Association functional class were independent predictors of thrombus resolution.²³⁹ ACC/AHA statements are available for the management of patients with valvular heart disease.²⁴⁰

Recommendations

1. **For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA who have rheumatic mitral valve disease, whether or not AF is present, long-term warfarin therapy is reasonable, with a target INR of 2.5 (range, 2.0 to 3.0) (Class IIa, Level of Evidence C). Antiplatelet agents should not routinely be added to warfarin to avoid the additional bleeding risk (Class III, Level of Evidence C).**
2. **For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA with rheumatic mitral valve disease, whether or not AF is present, who have a recurrent embolism while receiving warfarin, adding aspirin (81 mg/d) is suggested (Class IIa, Level of Evidence C) (Table 5).**

2. Mitral Valve Prolapse

Mitral valve prolapse is the most common form of valve disease in adults.²⁴¹ Although generally innocuous, it is sometimes symptomatic, and serious complications can occur. Thromboembolic phenomena have been reported in patients with mitral valve prolapse in whom no other source could be found.^{242–246} No randomized trials have addressed the

efficacy of selected antithrombotic therapies for this specific subgroup of stroke or TIA patients. The evidence with regard to the efficacy of antiplatelet agents for general stroke and TIA patients was used to reach these recommendations.

Recommendation

For patients with mitral valve prolapse who have ischemic stroke or TIAs, antiplatelet therapy is reasonable (Class IIa, Level of Evidence C) ([Table 5](#)).

3. Mitral Annular Calcification

MAC²⁴⁷ predominates in women, is sometimes associated with significant mitral regurgitation, and is an uncommon nonrheumatic cause of mitral stenosis. Patients with MAC are also predisposed to endocarditis, conduction disturbances, arrhythmias, embolic phenomena, and calcific aortic stenosis.^{247–253} Although the incidence of systemic and cerebral embolism is not clear,^{249–251,254–256} thrombus has been found at autopsy on heavily calcified annular tissue, and echogenic densities have been identified in the LV outflow tract in patients with MAC who experience cerebral ischemic events.^{250,254} Aside from the risk of thromboembolism, spicules of fibrocalcific material may embolize from the calcified mitral annulus.^{249,251,255} The relative frequencies of calcific and thrombotic embolism are unknown.^{249,256} Because there is little reason to believe that anticoagulant therapy would effectively prevent calcific embolism, the rationale for antithrombotic therapy in patients with MAC is related mainly to the frequency of thromboembolism.

From these observations and in the absence of randomized trials, anticoagulant therapy may be considered for patients with MAC and a history of thromboembolism. However, if the mitral lesion is mild or if an embolic event is clearly identified as calcific rather than thrombotic, the risks from anticoagulation may outweigh the benefit of warfarin therapy in patients without AF. Most uncomplicated MAC patients with stroke or TIA may be managed best by antiplatelet therapy. For patients with repeated embolic events despite antiplatelet or warfarin therapy or in whom multiple calcific emboli are recognized, valve replacement surgery should be considered.

Recommendations

1. **For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA and MAC not documented to be calcific, antiplatelet therapy may be considered (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C).**
2. **Among patients with mitral regurgitation caused by MAC without AF, antiplatelet or warfarin therapy may be considered (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) ([Table 5](#)).**

4. Aortic Valve Disease

Clinically detectable systemic embolism in isolated aortic valve disease is increasingly recognized because of microthrombi or calcific emboli.²⁵⁷ In an autopsy study of 165 patients with calcific aortic stenosis, systemic embolism was found in 31 patients (19%); the heart and kidneys were affected most often, but most embolisms were not associated with clinically detected events.²⁵⁸ Therefore, it appears that calcific microemboli from

heavily calcified, stenotic aortic valves, because of their small size, are not readily detected unless they can be visualized in the retinal artery. In the absence of associated mitral valve disease or AF, systemic embolism in patients with aortic valve disease is uncommon. No randomized trials on selected patients with stroke and aortic valve disease exist, so recommendations were based on evidence from larger antiplatelet trials of stroke and TIA patients.

Recommendation

For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA and aortic valve disease who do not have AF, antiplatelet therapy may be considered (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) ([Table 5](#)).

5. Prosthetic Heart Valves

A variety of mechanical heart valve prostheses are available for clinical use, all of which require antithrombotic prophylaxis. Detailed information on the older types of prosthetic valves is beyond the scope of this review. The most convincing evidence that oral anticoagulants are effective in patients with prosthetic heart valves comes from patients randomized to treatment for 6 months with either warfarin in uncertain intensity or 1 of 2 aspirin-containing platelet-inhibitor drug regimens.²⁵⁹ Thromboembolic complications occurred more frequently in the antiplatelet group (RR, 60% to 79%), but the incidence of bleeding was highest in the warfarin group. Other studies yielded variable results, depending on the type and location of the prosthesis, the intensity of anticoagulation, and the addition of platelet inhibitor medication; none specifically addressed secondary stroke prevention.

In 2 randomized studies, concurrent treatment with dipyridamole and warfarin reduced the incidence of systemic embolism,^{260,261} and the combination of dipyridamole (450 mg/d) and aspirin (3.0 g/d) reduced the incidence of thromboembolism in patients with prosthetic heart valves.²⁶² A randomized study of aspirin (1.0 g/d) plus warfarin versus warfarin alone in 148 patients with prosthetic heart valves found a significant reduction of embolism in the aspirin-treated group.²¹³ Another trial showed that the addition of aspirin 100 mg/d to warfarin (INR, 3.0 to 4.5) improved efficacy compared with warfarin alone.²⁶³ This combination of low-dose aspirin and high-intensity warfarin was associated with reduced all-cause mortality, cardiovascular mortality, and stroke at the expense of increased minor bleeding; the difference in major bleeding, including cerebral hemorrhage, did not reach statistical significance.

Guidelines developed by the European Society of Cardiology²⁶⁴ called for anticoagulant intensity in proportion to the thromboembolic risk associated with specific types of prosthetic heart valves. For first-generation valves, an INR of 3.0 to 4.5 was recommended; an INR of 3.0 to 3.5 was recommended for second-generation valves in the mitral position, whereas an INR of 2.5 to 3.0 was advised for second-generation valves in the aortic position. The ACCP guidelines of 2004 recommended an INR of 2.5 to 3.5 for patients with mechanical prosthetic valves and 2.0 to 3.0 for those with bioprosthetic valves and low-risk patients with bileaflet mechanical valves (such as the St

Jude Medical device) in the aortic position.²⁶⁵ Similar guidelines have been promulgated conjointly by the ACC and the AHA.^{204,240}

Recommendations

1. **For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA who have modern mechanical prosthetic heart valves, oral anticoagulants are recommended, with an INR target of 3.0 (range, 2.5 to 3.5) (Class I, Level of Evidence B).**
2. **For patients with mechanical prosthetic heart valves who have an ischemic stroke or systemic embolism despite adequate therapy with oral anticoagulants, aspirin 75 to 100 mg/d in addition to oral anticoagulants and maintenance of the INR at a target of 3.0 (range 2.5 to 3.5) are reasonable (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**
3. **For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA who have bioprosthetic heart valves with no other source of thromboembolism, anticoagulation with warfarin (INR 2.0 to 3.0) may be considered (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C).**

IV. Antithrombotic Therapy for Noncardioembolic Stroke or TIA (Specifically Atherosclerosis, Lacunar, or Cryptogenic Infarcts)

A. Antiplatelet Agents

Four antiplatelet agents have been shown to reduce the risk of ischemic stroke after a stroke or TIA and are currently approved by the FDA for this indication. In a meta-analysis of results of 21 randomized trials comparing antiplatelet therapy with placebo in 18 270 patients with prior stroke or TIA, antiplatelet therapy was associated with a 28% relative odds reduction in nonfatal strokes and a 16% reduction in fatal strokes.²⁶⁶

1. Aspirin

Aspirin in doses ranging from 50 to 1300 mg/d is efficacious for preventing ischemic stroke after stroke or TIA.^{214,267,268} Two RCTs compared different doses of aspirin in TIA or stroke patients (1200 versus 300 mg/d and 283 versus 30 mg/d).^{269,270} In both trials, high- and low-dose aspirin had similar efficacy in preventing vascular events. However, higher doses of aspirin have been associated with a greater risk of gastrointestinal hemorrhage.^{43,266}

2. Ticlopidine

Ticlopidine, a thienopyridine, has been evaluated in 3 randomized trials of patients with cerebrovascular disease. The Canadian American Ticlopidine Study (CATS) compared ticlopidine (250 mg twice a day) with placebo for prevention of stroke, MI, or vascular death in 1053 patients with ischemic stroke and found that ticlopidine was associated with a 23% relative reduction in risk of the composite outcome.²⁷¹ The Ticlopidine Aspirin Stroke Study (TASS) compared ticlopidine 250 mg twice a day with aspirin 650 mg twice a day in 3069 patients with recent minor stroke or TIA.²⁷² In that study, ticlopidine was associated with a 21% RR reduction in stroke during a 3-year follow-up and produced a more modest and nonsignificant 9% reduction in risk of the combined outcome of stroke, MI, or vascular death. Finally, the African American Aspirin Stroke Prevention Study (AAASPS) enrolled 1800 black patients with recent noncardioembolic ischemic stroke

who were allocated to receive ticlopidine 250 mg twice a day or aspirin 650 mg/d.²⁷³ The study found no difference in the risk of the combination of stroke, MI, or vascular death at 2 years.

The most common side effects of ticlopidine are diarrhea (≈12%), other gastrointestinal symptoms, and rash, with a frequency of hemorrhagic complications similar to that of aspirin. Neutropenia occurred in ≈2% of patients treated with ticlopidine in CATS and TASS; however, it was severe in <1% and was almost always reversible with discontinuation. Thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura has also been described.

3. Clopidogrel

The efficacy of clopidogrel was compared with that of aspirin in the Clopidogrel Versus Aspirin in Patients at Risk of Ischemic Events (CAPRIE) trial.²⁷⁴ More than 19 000 patients with stroke, MI, or peripheral vascular disease were randomized to aspirin 325 mg/d or clopidogrel 75 mg/d. The primary end point, a composite outcome of ischemic stroke, MI, or vascular death, occurred in 8.7% fewer patients treated with clopidogrel compared with aspirin ($P=0.043$). However, in a subgroup analysis of those patients with prior stroke, the risk reduction with clopidogrel was slightly smaller and nonsignificant. Two post-hoc analyses indicated that diabetics and those with preexisting ischemic stroke or MI (before the index event) received relatively more benefit from clopidogrel than aspirin.^{275,276}

Overall, the safety of clopidogrel is comparable to that of aspirin, and it has clear advantages over ticlopidine. As with ticlopidine, diarrhea and rash are more frequent than with aspirin, but gastrointestinal symptoms and hemorrhages are less frequent. Neutropenia is not a problem with clopidogrel, but a few cases of thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura have been described.²⁷⁷

4. Dipyridamole and Aspirin

The combination of dipyridamole and aspirin was evaluated in several small trials that included patients with cerebral ischemia. The French Toulouse Study enrolled 440 patients with prior TIA. No significant differences were observed in outcomes among groups assigned to aspirin 900 mg/d, aspirin plus dipyridamole, aspirin plus dipyridamole, or dipyridamole alone.²⁷⁸

The Accidents ischémiques cérébraux liés à l'athérosclérose (AICLA) trial randomized 604 patients with TIA and ischemic stroke to placebo, aspirin 1000 mg/d, or aspirin 1000 mg/d plus dipyridamole 225 mg/d.²⁷⁹ Compared with placebo, aspirin and the combination of aspirin and dipyridamole reduced the risk of ischemic stroke by a similar amount. Thus, there was no apparent benefit of adding dipyridamole to aspirin. The European Stroke Prevention Study (ESPS-1) included 2500 patients randomized to either placebo or the combination of aspirin plus dipyridamole (225 mg/d dipyridamole and 975 mg aspirin).²⁸⁰ Compared with placebo, combination therapy reduced the risk of combined stroke and death by 33% and the risk of stroke alone by 38%. ESPS-1 did not include an aspirin arm, so it was not possible to evaluate the added benefit of dipyridamole.

ESPS-2 randomized 6602 patients with prior stroke or TIA in a factorial design using a different dipyridamole formulation and aspirin dose compared with ESPS-1. The treatment groups were as follows: (1) aspirin 50 mg/d plus extended-release dipyridamole at a dose of 400 mg/d, (2) aspirin alone, (3) extended-release dipyridamole alone, and (4) placebo. The risk of stroke was significantly reduced, by 18% on aspirin alone, 16% with dipyridamole alone, and 37% with a combination of aspirin plus dipyridamole. The outcome of death alone was not reduced by any of the interventions. The combination was superior to aspirin in reducing recurrence of stroke (by 23%), and 25% superior to dipyridamole alone.²⁶⁷

Headache is the most common side effect of extended-release dipyridamole. Bleeding was not significantly increased by dipyridamole. Although there are concerns about the use of immediate-release dipyridamole in patients with stable angina, a post hoc analysis from ESPS-2 that used extended-release dipyridamole showed no excess of adverse cardiac events compared with placebo or aspirin.^{203,281} Although the daily dose of aspirin in extended-release dipyridamole plus aspirin is only 50 mg and below the recommended dose of 75 mg used for cardiac patients, no clinical data suggest that additional aspirin could alter the safety and efficacy of this combination antiplatelet agent.

5. Combination Clopidogrel and Aspirin

Recently, the results of the Management of Atherothrombosis With Clopidogrel in High-Risk Patients With TIA or Stroke (MATCH) trial were reported.²⁸² Patients with a prior stroke or TIA plus additional risk factors (n=7599) were allocated to clopidogrel 75 mg or combination therapy with clopidogrel 75 mg plus aspirin 75 mg per day. The primary outcome was the composite of ischemic stroke, MI, vascular death, or rehospitalization secondary to ischemic events. There was no significant benefit of combination therapy compared with clopidogrel alone in reducing the primary outcome or any of the secondary outcomes. The risk of major hemorrhage was significantly increased in the combination group compared with clopidogrel alone, with a 1.3% absolute increase in life-threatening bleeding. Although clopidogrel plus aspirin is recommended over aspirin for acute coronary syndromes, with most guidelines advocating for up to 12 months of treatment, the results of MATCH do not suggest a similar risk benefit ratio for stroke and TIA survivors.

6. Selection of Oral Antiplatelet Therapy

Several factors may guide the decision to select a specific antiplatelet agent to initiate first after TIA or ischemic stroke. Comorbid illnesses, side effects, and costs may influence the decision to initiate aspirin, combination aspirin and dipyridamole, or clopidogrel. Aspirin is less expensive, which may affect long-term adherence.^{283,284} However, even small reductions in vascular events compared with aspirin may make combination dipyridamole and aspirin or clopidogrel cost-effective from a broader societal perspective.²⁸⁵ For patients intolerant to aspirin because of allergy or gastrointestinal side effects, clopidogrel is an appropriate choice. Dipyridamole is not tolerated by some patients because of persistent headache. The combination of aspirin and clopidogrel may be appropriate for patients with recent presentation with acute coronary syndromes or after vascular stenting.²⁸⁶ Ongoing trials are evaluating direct comparisons between clopidogrel and aspirin and extended-release dipyridamole, as well as the

efficacy of the combination of aspirin plus clopidogrel among patients with stroke. At present, the selection of antiplatelet therapy after stroke and TIA should be individualized.

B. Oral Anticoagulants

Randomized trials have addressed the use of oral anticoagulants to prevent recurrent stroke among patients with noncardioembolic stroke, including strokes caused by large-artery EC or IC atherosclerosis, small penetrating artery disease, and cryptogenic infarcts. The Stroke Prevention in Reversible Ischemia Trial (SPIRIT) was stopped early because of increased bleeding among those treated with high-intensity oral anticoagulation (INR, 3.0 to 4.5) compared with aspirin (30 mg/d) in 1316 patients.^{287,288} This trial was reformulated as the European-Australian Stroke Prevention in Reversible Ischemia Trial (ESPRIT) and is continuing with a lower dose of warfarin (INR, 2 to 3) versus either aspirin (30 to 325 mg) or aspirin plus extended-release dipyridamole 200 mg BID.

The Warfarin Aspirin Recurrent Stroke Study (WARSS) compared the efficacy of warfarin (INR, 1.4 to 2.8) with aspirin (325 mg) for the prevention of recurrent ischemic stroke among 2206 patients with a noncardioembolic stroke.²⁸⁹ This randomized, double-blind, multicenter trial found no significant difference between the treatments for the prevention of recurrent stroke or death (warfarin, 17.8%; aspirin, 16.0%). Rates of major bleeding were not significantly different between the warfarin and aspirin groups (2.2% and 1.5% per year, respectively). A variety of subgroups were evaluated, with no evidence of efficacy observed across baseline stroke subtypes, including large-artery atherosclerotic and cryptogenic categories. Although there was no difference in the 2 treatments, the potential increased bleeding risk in the community setting and cost of monitoring were considered in the recommendation to choose antiplatelets over anticoagulants in the setting of noncardioembolic stroke.

WASID was stopped prematurely for safety concerns among those treated with warfarin. This trial was designed to test the efficacy of warfarin with a target INR of 2 to 3 (mean, 2.5) versus aspirin for those with angiographically documented >50% intracranial stenosis. At the time of termination, warfarin was associated with significantly higher rates of adverse events and provided no benefit over aspirin. During a mean follow-up of 1.8 years, adverse events in the 2 groups were death (aspirin, 4.3%; warfarin, 9.7%; HR, 0.46; 95% CI, 0.23 to 0.90; $P=0.02$), major hemorrhage (aspirin, 3.2%; warfarin, 8.3%; HR, 0.39; 95% CI, 0.18 to 0.84; $P=0.01$), and MI or sudden death (aspirin, 2.9%; warfarin, 7.3%; HR, 0.40; 95% CI, 0.18 to 0.91; $P=0.02$). The primary end point (ischemic stroke, brain hemorrhage, and nonstroke vascular death) occurred in 22% of patients in both treatment arms (HR, 1.04; 95% CI, 0.73 to 1.48; $P=0.83$).²⁹⁰

Recommendations

- 1. For patients with noncardioembolic ischemic stroke or TIA, antiplatelet agents rather than oral anticoagulation are recommended to reduce the risk of recurrent stroke and other cardiovascular events (Class I, Level of Evidence A). Aspirin (50 to 325 mg/d), the combination of aspirin and**

- extended-release dipyridamole, and clopidogrel are all acceptable options for initial therapy (Class IIa, Level of Evidence A).
2. Compared with aspirin alone, both the combination of aspirin and extended-release dipyridamole and clopidogrel are safe. The combination of aspirin and extended-release dipyridamole is suggested instead of aspirin alone (Class IIa, Level of Evidence A), and clopidogrel may be considered instead of aspirin alone (Class IIb, Level of Evidence B) on the basis of direct-comparison trials. Insufficient data are available to make evidence-based recommendations about choices between antiplatelet options other than aspirin. The selection of an antiplatelet agent should be individualized on the basis of patient risk factor profiles, tolerance, and other clinical characteristics.
 3. The addition of aspirin to clopidogrel increases the risk of hemorrhage and is not routinely recommended for ischemic stroke or TIA patients (Class III, Level of Evidence A).
 4. For patients allergic to aspirin, clopidogrel is reasonable (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).
 5. For patients who have an ischemic stroke while taking aspirin, there is no evidence that increasing the dose of aspirin provides additional benefit. Although alternative antiplatelet agents are often considered for noncardioembolic patients, no single agent or combination has been studied in patients who have had an event while receiving aspirin ([Table 6](#)).

V. Treatments for Stroke Patients With Other Specific Conditions

A. Arterial Dissections

Dissections of the carotid and vertebral arteries are now recognized as relatively common causes of strokes, particularly among young patients. Although trauma to the neck and spine is commonly associated with such dissections, at least 50% of patients with dissections and stroke have no clear history of antecedent neck trauma.^{291,292} Imaging studies such as MRI and magnetic resonance angiography with fat saturation protocols are now commonly used for the noninvasive detection of such dissections.^{293,294}

Dissections lead to ischemic strokes through artery-to-artery embolism or by causing significant stenosis and occlusion of the proximal vessel.²⁹⁵ In some cases, dissections can lead to formation of a pseudoaneurysm, which can also serve as a source of thrombus formation. Intracranial dissections in the vertebrobasilar territory have a higher risk of rupture, leading to an SAH.^{296,297} Hemorrhagic complications of dissections are not discussed further in this section.

The goals of therapy when treating patients with dissections and ischemic stroke are to prevent further ischemic strokes and to promote healing of the dissected vessel. Several therapeutic options currently are available, including anticoagulant therapy (typically intravenous heparin followed by oral Coumadin, antiplatelet therapy, endovascular treatment (usually stenting), surgical repair, and conservative management.

Studies have shown that the risk of recurrent stroke and dissection is low, typically in the range of 1% to 4% over the next 2 to 5 years.^{298,299} A large study of >400 patients with carotid dissections found a stroke recurrence rate of 1% and a recurrent dissection rate of 1%.²⁹⁹ A prospective study of 116 patients with cervical dissections found a recurrence rate of 4% for stroke after enrollment.³⁰⁰ Many of these patients were treated with anticoagulants or antiplatelet agents for several months; therefore, it is difficult to determine the natural history rate of recurrence.

Anatomic healing of the dissection with recanalization occurs in 72% to 100% of patients.^{294,301,302} Those dissections that do not fully heal do not appear to be associated with an increased risk of recurrent strokes.^{299,303} Therefore, further treatment of currently asymptomatic lesions to achieve anatomic cure does not appear to be warranted in most cases.³⁰¹⁻³⁰³

Although it is often stated that treatment with intravenous heparin, followed by 3 to 6 months of therapy with Coumadin, is routine care for patients with a carotid or vertebral dissection (with or without an ischemic stroke), there are no data from prospective randomized studies supporting such an approach. Some data suggest that intravenous heparin may be effective for preventing further arterial embolization in the setting of cervical dissections.^{291,294,301,302} Heparin and similar agents may also promote or hasten the dissolution of the intramural thrombus found in many patients with dissections, thereby promoting healing of the dissection.²⁹⁴ The risk of heparin causing hemorrhagic transformation in these patients appears to be low (<5%).³⁰¹ Use of heparin or other anticoagulants in patients with an SAH related to a dissection is contraindicated.

Small case series have used antiplatelet agents in patients with dissections, with results generally comparable to those for anticoagulants.^{301,304} Aspirin often is used in such cases, although other antiplatelet agents may also be considered. A case series of 116 consecutive patients treated with anticoagulation (n=71) and antiplatelet agents (n=23) found no significant difference in outcomes (eg, TIA, stroke, or death) of 8.3% versus 12.4%, respectively.³⁰⁰ Meta-analyses comparing rates of death and disability have not found any significant differences between treatment with anticoagulants and antiplatelet agents.³⁰⁴

Endovascular therapy, particularly stent placement, is emerging as an increasingly popular option to treat dissections that fail standard medical therapy. Stent placement will often reduce the degree of vessel stenosis and may prevent extension of the dissection³⁰⁵⁻³⁰⁸; it may be useful for preventing pseudoaneurysm formation. As with the various medical therapies, endovascular therapy has not been studied within randomized trials.

Surgical therapy involves repairing the damaged vessel by direct replacement with a new vessel or by a patch-graft approach. Such treatments have been associated with complication rates of at least 10% to 12% (stroke and death combined), which are higher than those reported with medical therapy alone.³⁰⁸⁻³¹⁰ However, some of these patients may have failed standard medical therapy.

Most experts advise patients who experience a cervical arterial dissection to avoid future activities that may lead to neck injury, extreme straining, or excessive force and motion on the neck,^{311,312} including contact sports, activities causing hyperextension of the neck, weight lifting, labor related to child birth, other strenuous exercises, and chiropractic manipulation of the neck region.

Recommendations

1. **For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA and extracranial arterial dissection, use of warfarin for 3 to 6 months or use of antiplatelet agents is reasonable (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B). Beyond 3 to 6 months, long-term antiplatelet therapy is reasonable for most stroke or TIA patients. Anticoagulant therapy beyond 3 to 6 months may be considered among patients with recurrent ischemic events (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) (Table 7+).**
2. **For patients who have definite recurrent ischemic events despite adequate antithrombotic therapy, endovascular therapy (stenting) may be considered (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C). Patients who fail or are not candidates for endovascular therapy may be considered for surgical treatment (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) (Table 7+).**

View this table:
[\[in this window\]](#)
[\[in a new window\]](#)

TABLE 7. Recommendations for Stroke Patients With Other Specific Conditions

View this table:
[\[in this window\]](#)
[\[in a new window\]](#)

TABLE 7. Continued

B. Patent Foramen Ovale

Patent foramen ovale (PFO), a persistence of an embryonic defect in the interatrial septum, is present in up to 27% of the general population. Atrial septal aneurysms, defined as >10-mm excursions of the interatrial septum, are less common, affecting ~2% of the population. The prevalence of PFOs and atrial septal aneurysms does not appear to vary by race/ethnicity.³¹³ The presence of an atrial septal aneurysm or a large right-to-left shunt has been reported to increase the risk of stroke in patients with PFO.³¹⁴⁻³²²

Studies have found an association between PFO and cryptogenic stroke.^{323–327} In a study of 581 patients <55 years of age with cryptogenic stroke, the prevalence of PFO was reported to be 46%.³²⁸ In the Patent Foramen Ovale in Cryptogenic Stroke Study (PICSS), a substudy of WARSS, which randomized patients between 30 and 85 years of age with noncardioembolic stroke to either warfarin or aspirin, the prevalence of PFO was 34%.³²⁷ PFOs were identified in 39% of patients with cryptogenic stroke compared with 29% in those with a defined mechanism ($P<0.02$).³²⁷

Estimates for the rate of annual stroke recurrence in cryptogenic stroke patients with PFO vary widely, ranging from 1.5% to 12%, depending on the study population.^{314,315,317,323,327,329} In the Lausanne Study, 140 patients representing 41% of a population-based cohort with stroke or TIA were found to have a PFO (mean age, 44±14 years) and were followed up for an average of 3 years. Venous thrombus was detected in 5.5%. An alternative cause of stroke was identified in 16%. PFO was not a significant predictor of 2-year risk of stroke recurrence in PICSS.

In another study from France, recurrent stroke risks were evaluated among patients 18 to 55 years of age with ischemic cryptogenic stroke and PFO on transesophageal echocardiography treated with aspirin.³¹⁵ After 4 years, the rates of recurrent stroke were 2.3% for PFO alone, 15.2% for PFO with atrial septal aneurysm, and 4.2% with neither. Although the increased risk associated with PFO and atrial septal aneurysms is supported by some studies, this finding remains controversial because other studies have failed to show a higher risk.^{314,316,323,327}

1. Medical Therapy

In the Lausanne Study, the annual infarction rate on conventional therapies (66% aspirin, 26% anticoagulation, 8% PFO closure) was 1.9%. The rate of stroke and death was 2.4%. There were no ICHs.³²³ Cujec et al³²⁹ analyzed a cohort of 90 cryptogenic stroke patients <60 years of age, more than one half of whom had a PFO, and reported that warfarin was more effective than antiplatelet therapy for secondary stroke prevention. PICSS provides the only randomized comparison of warfarin and aspirin in patients with PFO. Because this was a substudy of WARSS, it was not designed to evaluate the superiority of an antithrombotic strategy among those with stroke and a PFO.³²⁷ In PICSS, 33.8% of 630 patients found to have a PFO on transesophageal echocardiography and randomized to either aspirin 325 mg or warfarin (target INR range, 1.4 to 2.8) were followed up for 2 years. There was no significant difference in rates of recurrent stroke or death in patients with PFO versus those with no PFO. Event rates among the cryptogenic stroke patients with PFO treated with aspirin (17.9%, n=56) and warfarin (9.5%, n=42) were not statistically significant (HR, 0.52; 95% CI, 0.16 to 1.67; $P=0.28$) and similar to those cryptogenic stroke patients without PFO (HR, 0.50; 95% CI, 0.19 to 1.31; $P=0.16$).

2. Surgical Closure

There are conflicting reports concerning the safety and efficacy of surgical PFO closure. After 19 months of follow-up, there were no major complications or recurrent vascular events found among a series of 32 young patients with PFO and cryptogenic embolism or TIA and PFO who underwent surgical closure.³³⁰ Similar results were reported in another independent series of 30 patients.³³¹ In a 2-year follow-up of a cohort of 91 patients with

cryptogenic stroke or TIA who underwent surgical closure, 7 TIAs but no major complications were reported.³³² Another series found poorer outcomes, with a recurrence rate of 19.5% at 13 months after surgical closure.³³³

3. Transcatheter Closure

A recent review of 10 nonrandomized unblinded transcatheter closure studies for secondary prevention reported a 1-year rate of recurrent neurological events of 0% to 4.9% in patients undergoing transcatheter closure compared with 3.8% to 12.0% in medically treated patients.³³⁴ The incidence of major and minor procedural complications was 1.45% and 7.9%, respectively.³³⁴ Other randomized trials evaluating the efficacy of transcatheter closure devices are ongoing.

Our recommendations are consistent with those of other organizations that have also published recommendations with regard to the management of stroke and TIA patients with PFO.³³⁵

Recommendations

- 1. For patients with an ischemic stroke or TIA and a PFO, antiplatelet therapy is reasonable to prevent a recurrent event (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B). Warfarin is reasonable for high-risk patients who have other indications for oral anticoagulation such as those with an underlying hypercoagulable state or evidence of venous thrombosis (Class IIa, Level of Evidence C).**
- 2. Insufficient data exist to make a recommendation about PFO closure in patients with a first stroke and a PFO. PFO closure may be considered for patients with recurrent cryptogenic stroke despite optimal medical therapy (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) (Table 7 ↗).**

C. Hyperhomocysteinemia

Cohort and case-control studies have consistently demonstrated a 2-fold-greater risk of stroke associated with hyperhomocysteinemia.^{336–341} The Vitamin Intervention for Stroke Prevention (VISP) study randomized patients with a noncardioembolic stroke and mild to moderate hyperhomocysteinemia ($>9.5 \mu\text{mol/L}$ for men, $\geq 8.5 \mu\text{mol/L}$ for women) to receive either a high- or low-dose vitamin therapy (eg, folate, B6, or B12) for 2 years.³⁴² The risk of stroke was related to level of homocysteine; the mean reduction in homocysteine was greater in the high-dose group, but there was no reduction in stroke rates in the patients given high-dose vitamin. The 2-year stroke rates were 9.2% in the high-dose and 8.8% in the low-dose arms. Although there is no proven clinical benefit to high-dose vitamin therapy for mild to moderate hyperhomocysteinemia, patients should be encouraged to take a daily standard multivitamin preparation, given the low risk and cost associated with vitamin therapy. Additional research is needed to determine whether there are subgroups that might benefit from more aggressive vitamin therapy, particularly over the long term.

Recommendation

For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA and hyperhomocysteinemia (levels >10 µmol/L), daily standard multivitamin preparations with adequate B6 (1.7 mg/d), B12 (2.4 µg/d), and folate (400 µg/d) are reasonable to reduce the level of homocysteine, given their safety and low cost (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B). However, there is no evidence that reducing homocysteine levels will lead to a reduction in stroke recurrence (Table 7 †).

D. Hypercoagulable States

1. Inherited Thrombophilias

Inherited thrombophilias (such as protein C, protein S, or antithrombin III deficiency; factor V Leiden (FVL); or the prothrombin G20210A mutation) rarely contribute to adult stroke but may play a larger role in pediatric stroke.^{343,344} Activated protein C resistance, caused by a defect in factor V, is the most common inherited coagulation disorder. More commonly a cause of venous thromboembolism, case reports have linked activated protein C resistance to ischemic stroke.^{345–347} The link between activated protein C resistance and arterial stroke is tenuous in adults, but it may play a larger role in juvenile stroke.^{348,349} FVL, a mutation causing activated protein C resistance, and the G20210A polymorphism in the prothrombin gene have similarly been linked to venous thrombosis, but their role in ischemic stroke remains controversial.^{334,341,350–360}

Studies in younger patients have shown an association between these prothrombotic genetic variants and ischemic stroke, but this finding remains controversial in an older population with vascular risk factors and competing high-risk stroke mechanisms. Even in the young, results have been inconsistent. In 1 small study of cryptogenic stroke patients <50 years of age, there was an increased risk (odds ratio [OR], 3.75; 95% CI, 1.05 to 13.34) associated with the PT G20210A mutation but no significant association with FVL.³⁶¹ In contrast, 2 other studies of young (<50 years of age) patients found no association between ischemic stroke and the FVL, PT G20210A, or the methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR) C677T mutations.^{341,362} Genetic factors associated with venous thromboembolism were compared in a study of young stroke patients (<45 years of age) to determine whether there was a higher prevalence of prothrombotic tendencies in those with PFO, which could reflect a susceptibility to paradoxical embolism. The prothrombin G20210A mutation, but not FVL, was significantly more common in the PFO+ group compared with PFO– or nonstroke controls.³⁵⁹

Three meta-analyses have examined the most commonly studied prothrombotic mutations in FVL, MTHFR, and PT G20210A. The first pooled ischemic stroke candidate gene association studies involving white adults and found statistically significant associations between stroke and FVL Arg506Gln (OR, 1.33; 95% CI, 1.12 to 1.58), MTHFR C677T (OR, 1.24; 95% CI, 1.08 to 1.42), and PT G20210A (OR, 1.44; 95% CI, 1.11 to 1.86).³⁶³ A second meta-analysis explored the association between FVL, PT G20210A, and MTHFR C677T and arterial thrombotic events (MI, ischemic stroke, or peripheral vascular disease) and found no significant link to FVL mutation and modest associations with PT G20210A (OR 1.32; 95% CI 1.03 to 1.69) and MTHFR C677T (OR 1.20; 95% CI 1.02 to 1.41). These associations were stronger in the young (<55 years of age).³⁶⁴ A third meta-analysis focused on the MTHFR C677T polymorphism, which is associated

with high levels of homocysteine. The OR for stroke was 1.26 (95% CI, 1.14 to 1.40) for TT versus CC homozygotes.³⁶³ Thus, although there appears to be a weak association between these prothrombotic mutations and ischemic stroke, particularly in the young, major questions remain as to the mechanism of risk (eg, potential for paradoxical venous thromboembolism), the effect of gene-environment interaction, and the optimal strategies for stroke prevention.

The presence of venous thrombosis is an indication for short- or long-term therapy, depending on the clinical and hematologic circumstances.^{365,366} Although there are guidelines for the general management of acquired hypercoagulable states such as heparin-induced thrombocytopenia, disseminated intravascular coagulation, or cancer-related thrombosis, none are specific for the secondary prevention of stroke.^{367–370}

Recommendation

Patients with ischemic stroke or TIA with an established inherited thrombophilia should be evaluated for deep vein thrombosis, which is an indication for short- or long-term anticoagulant therapy, depending on the clinical and hematologic circumstances (Class I, Level of Evidence A). Patients should be fully evaluated for alternative mechanisms of stroke. In the absence of venous thrombosis, long-term anticoagulants or antiplatelet therapy is reasonable (Class IIa, Level of Evidence C). Patients with a history of recurrent thrombotic events may be considered for long-term anticoagulation (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) ([Table 7+](#)).

2. Antiphospholipid Antibodies

Antiphospholipid (APL) antibody prevalence ranges from 1% to 6.5%, higher in the elderly and in patients with lupus.³⁷¹ Less commonly, the APL antibody syndrome consists of venous and arterial occlusive disease in multiple organs, miscarriages, and livedo reticularis.³⁷² The association between APL antibodies and stroke is strongest for young adults (<50 years of age).^{373,374} In the Antiphospholipid Antibodies in Stroke Study (APASS), 9.7% of ischemic stroke patients and 4.3% of control subjects were anticardiolipin positive.³⁷⁵ In the Antiphospholipid Antibodies in Stroke substudy of WARSS (WARSS/APASS), APL antibodies were detected in 40.7% of stroke patients, but they had no significant effect on the risk of stroke recurrence.³⁷⁶

Multiple studies have shown high recurrence rates in patients with APL antibodies in the young.^{377–379} In 1 study of patients with arterial or venous thrombotic events (76% with venous thrombosis and only 32% with a history of thromboembolism in the prior 6 months) and 2 positive anticardiolipin antibodies separated by 3 months, higher intensities of oral anticoagulation were more beneficial than conventional programs in preventing recurrent events.³⁸⁰ However, there are conflicting data on the association between APL antibodies and stroke recurrence in the elderly.^{377,381–383}

The WARSS/APASS collaboration was the first study to compare randomly assigned warfarin (INR, 1.4 to 2.8) with aspirin (325 mg) for the prevention of a second stroke in patients with APL antibodies. APASS enrolled 720 APL antibody-positive WARSS

participants.³⁷⁶ The overall event rate was 22.2% among APL-positive patients and 21.8% among APL-negative patients. Patients with both lupus anticoagulant and anticardiolipin antibodies had a higher event rate (31.7%) than patients negative for both antibodies (24.0%), but this was not statistically significant. There was no difference between the risk of the composite end point of death from any cause, ischemic stroke, TIA, MI, deep vein thrombosis, pulmonary embolism, and other systemic thrombo-occlusive events in patients treated with either warfarin (RR, 0.99; 95% CI, 0.75 to 1.31; $P=0.94$) or aspirin (RR, 0.94; 95% CI, 0.70 to 1.28; $P=0.71$).

Recommendations

1. **For cases of cryptogenic ischemic stroke or TIA and positive APL antibodies, antiplatelet therapy is reasonable (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**
2. **For patients with ischemic stroke or TIA who meet the criteria for the APL antibody syndrome with venous and arterial occlusive disease in multiple organs, miscarriages, and livedo reticularis, oral anticoagulation with a target INR of 2 to 3 is reasonable (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B) ([Table 7](#) †).**

E. Sickle Cell Disease

Stroke is a common complication of sickle cell disease (SCD). The risk of stroke depends on the genotype; it is highest with homozygous SS and less pronounced with variants such as hemoglobin SC, whereas patients with sickle trait hemoglobin AS have little or no elevation of stroke rate.^{384,385} Although there are few direct data and no animal model for stroke in SCD, a large-artery arteriopathy, fibrous in nature, presumably resulting from repeated endothelial injury, is usually cited as the most common SCD-specific cause for brain infarction.³⁸⁶ In adults with SCD and brain or retinal ischemia, other potential stroke mechanisms should be considered and an appropriate diagnostic workup undertaken. There has been only 1 randomized trial for stroke prevention in SCD, and that was in children for primary prevention based on risk stratification by transcranial Doppler.³⁸⁷ These data are not applicable to this guideline and are summarized in the Primary Prevention statement.¹

Although SCD is considered a hypercoagulable state, with evidence of increased thrombin generation, platelet activation,³⁸⁸ and inflammatory markers,³⁸⁹ there has been no systematic experience with antiplatelet agents, anticoagulation, or antiinflammatory agents for stroke prevention. Elevation of systolic BP has been linked to stroke in SCD, whereas lipid elevation and coronary artery disease are not commonly reported in SCD.³⁹⁰ Cardiac disease causing cerebral embolus is either rare or underreported. Despite the absence of data on how SCD-specific risk factors might interact with traditional stroke risk factors (such as hypertension, diabetes, and abnormal lipids), risk factor identification and reduction can be recommended on the basis of its importance in the general population. Markers of hypercoagulable state, anticardiolipin antibodies, and elevated homocysteine levels have all been reported and in some cases linked to adverse events, not necessarily stroke³⁹¹; for these reasons, other mechanisms or risk factors associated with stroke in young adults should be considered.

Although no randomized controlled trial has been performed, a retrospective multicenter review of SCD patients with stroke, either observed or transfused, suggested that regular blood transfusion sufficient to suppress native hemoglobin S formation reduces recurrent stroke risk. The transfusion target most often used is the percentage of hemoglobin S as a fraction of total hemoglobin assessed just before transfusion. Reduction of hemoglobin S to <30% (from a typical baseline of 90% before initiating regular transfusions) was associated with a reduction in the rate of recurrence at 3 years from >50% to ≈10%.³⁹² Most of the patients in this series were children, and it is not clear whether adults have the same untreated risk or benefit from treatment. Regular transfusions are associated with long-term complications, especially iron overload, making its long-term use problematic. Some experts recommend using transfusion for 1 to 3 years after stroke, a presumed period of higher risk for recurrence, then switching to other therapies. A small number of patients treated with bypass operations used in moyamoya have been reported to have good outcomes, but no randomized or controlled data are available.³⁹³

Two small studies of secondary stroke prevention in children and young adults with stroke reported encouraging results using hydroxyurea to replace regular blood transfusion after ≥3 years of transfusion therapy.^{394,395} For a small number of patients with a suitable donor and access to expert care, bone marrow transplantation can be curative from a hematologic perspective but is usually undertaken in young children, not adults, with SCD. Stroke and other brain-related concerns are frequently cited as reasons for undertaking transplant. Experience is limited, but both clinical and subclinical infarctions have been reported to be arrested by this procedure.³⁹⁶

Recommendation

For adults with SCD and ischemic stroke or TIA, general treatment recommendations cited above are applicable with regard to the control of risk factors and the use of antiplatelet agents (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B). Additional therapies that may be considered include regular blood transfusion to reduce hemoglobin S to <30% to 50% of total hemoglobin, hydroxyurea, or bypass surgery in cases of advanced occlusive disease (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) (Table 7+).

F. Cerebral Venous Sinus Thrombosis

Cerebral venous sinus thrombosis is frequently a challenging diagnosis because patients can present with a variety of signs and symptoms, including headache, focal neurological deficits, seizures, alterations of consciousness, and papilledema.³⁹⁷ Routine neuroimaging studies such as CT or MRI may produce subtle findings that can be missed if there is not a high index of suspicion. MR venography can confirm the diagnosis, and conventional angiography is rarely needed now that MR venography is widely available.³⁹⁸ Cerebral venous infarctions are frequently hemorrhagic and are associated with considerable vasogenic edema. Both high and low apparent diffusion coefficient values can be present on diffusion-weighted imaging.³⁹⁹ Risk factors include factor V gene mutations and other hypercoagulable states, pregnancy/postpartum, oral contraceptives, and infections located near cerebral sinuses.

Two small randomized trials of anticoagulant therapy have been performed.^{400,401} The first trial compared dose-adjusted unfractionated heparin (UFH) (partial thromboplastin time at least 2 times control) with placebo. The study was terminated early, after only 20 patients had been enrolled, because of the superiority of heparin therapy ($P<0.01$). Eight of the 10 patients randomized to heparin recovered completely, and the other 2 had only mild neurological deficits. In the placebo group, only 1 patient had a complete recovery, and 3 died.⁴⁰⁰ The same research group also reported a retrospective study of 43 patients with cerebral venous sinus thrombosis associated with intracranial bleeding; 27 of these patients were treated with dose-adjusted heparin. The mortality rate in the heparin group was considerably lower than in the nonanticoagulated group.⁴⁰⁰

In a more recent and slightly larger randomized study of cerebral venous sinus thrombosis ($n=59$), nadroparin (90 anti-Xa units/kg twice daily) was compared with placebo.⁴⁰¹ After 3 months of follow-up, 13% of the patients in the anticoagulation group and 21% in the placebo group had poor outcomes (RR reduction, 38%; $P=NS$). Two patients in the nadroparin group died versus 4 in the placebo group. Patients with intracranial bleeding were included, and no new symptomatic cerebral hemorrhages occurred in either group.

From the results of these 2 small trials and observational data, it appears that both UFH and low-molecular-weight heparin (LMWH) are safe and probably effective in cerebral venous sinus thrombosis. Anticoagulation is recommended, even in patients with hemorrhagic venous infarcts. No adequate studies are available to address the optimal duration of anticoagulation. We recommend continuation of anticoagulation with an oral agent for 3 to 6 months. For patients who demonstrate continued neurological deterioration despite anticoagulation, local intrathrombus infusion of a thrombolytic agent has been reported to produce effective clot dissolution.^{398,402} Further investigation of this option is needed.

Recommendation

For patients with cerebral venous sinus thrombosis, UFH or LMWH is reasonable even in the presence of hemorrhagic infarction (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B). Continuation of anticoagulation with an oral anticoagulant agent is reasonable for 3 to 6 months, followed by antiplatelet therapy (Class IIa, Level of Evidence C) (Table 7*).

VI. Stroke Among Women

A. Pregnancy

Pregnancy increases the risk for several types of stroke and complicates the selection of preventive treatments.⁴⁰³ There are no direct randomized data for stroke prevention in pregnant women; therefore, the choice of agents for prevention has to be made by inference from other studies, primarily prevention of deep vein thrombosis and the use of anticoagulants in women with high-risk cardiac conditions. Even in these situations, specific RCT data are lacking. For stroke prevention treatment during pregnancy, recommendations will be based on 2 scenarios: (1) the clinical situation reveals a

condition that in nonpregnant women would require anticoagulation with warfarin, or (2) no such condition is present and antiplatelet therapy would be the treatment recommendation if pregnancy were not present. The first can be considered a high-risk and the second a lower- or uncertain-risk situation.

A full review of this complex topic is beyond the scope of this guideline; however, a recent detailed discussion of options is available from a writing group of the ACCP.⁴⁰⁴ From their review, the following guidance can be offered.

1. Although warfarin may be safe for the fetus after a certain early period (6 to 12 weeks) and approaches to its use are varied, in the US, warfarin is not usually recommended during pregnancy primarily because of concerns of fetal safety, but it is an option identified by the ACCP.
2. Low-dose aspirin (<150 mg/d) appears safe after the first trimester.
3. LMWH is an acceptable option to UFH and may avoid the problem of osteoporosis associated with long-term heparin therapy.

Recommendations

1. **For pregnant women with ischemic stroke or TIA and high-risk thromboembolic conditions such as known coagulopathy or mechanical heart valves, the following options may be considered: adjusted-dose UFH throughout pregnancy, eg, a subcutaneous dose every 12 hours with activated partial thromboplastin time monitoring; adjusted-dose LMWH with factor Xa monitoring throughout pregnancy; or UFH or LMWH until week 13, followed by warfarin until the middle of the third trimester, when UFH or LMWH is then reinstated until delivery (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C).**
2. **Pregnant women with lower-risk conditions may be considered for treatment with UFH or LMWH in the first trimester, followed by low-dose aspirin for the remainder of the pregnancy (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) ([Table 7+](#)).**

B. Postmenopausal Hormone Therapy

Despite the prior suggestions from observational studies that postmenopausal hormone therapy may be beneficial for the prevention of heart disease and stroke, randomized trials of heart disease and stroke survivors and primary prevention trials have failed to demonstrate any significant benefits. Three randomized trials have addressed this subject. The Women's Estrogen for Stroke Trial (WEST) failed to show any reduction in the risk of stroke recurrence or death with estradiol.⁴⁰⁵ Within the first 6 months, the risk of stroke was higher among those randomized to estradiol (RR, 2.3; 95% CI, 1.1 to 5.0). Moreover, those who had a recurrent stroke and were randomized to hormonal therapy were less likely to recover. The Heart and Estrogen/Progesterone Replacement Study (HERS) Trial did not demonstrate any benefit of hormone therapy among postmenopausal women who had a MI.^{406,407} The Women's Health Initiative (WHI), which examined the role of hormonal therapy for the primary prevention of cardiovascular disease and stroke among postmenopausal women, was stopped early because of an increase in vascular events.⁴⁰⁸ An increased stroke risk among women with a previous hysterectomy who were randomized to hormonal therapy was also observed in a separate parallel trial.⁴⁰⁹

Recommendation

For women with ischemic stroke or TIA, postmenopausal hormone therapy (with estrogen with or without a progestin) is not recommended (Class III, Level of Evidence A) ([Table 7+](#)).

VII. Use of Anticoagulation After Cerebral Hemorrhage

One of the most difficult problems that clinicians face is how to handle anticoagulation therapy in patients who have had a cerebral hemorrhage. In such a setting, there are several key variables to consider, including the type of cerebral hemorrhage, patient age, risk factors for recurrent hemorrhage, and the indication for anticoagulation. Most studies or case series have focused on patients with an ICH or subdural hematoma who are receiving anticoagulants because of a mechanical heart valve or AF. There are very few case series that focus on SAH. The risks of recurrent hemorrhage must be weighed against the risk of an ischemic cerebrovascular event. There is a paucity of data from large, prospective, randomized studies to answer these important management questions.

In the acute setting of a patient with an ICH or subdural hematoma and a therapeutic or supratherapeutic INR, it is imperative that the INR be normalized as soon as possible through the use of vitamin K, fresh frozen plasma, or other agents.^{410,411} Studies have shown that 30% to 40% of ICHs will expand during the first 12 to 36 hours of their formation.⁴¹² Such expansions are usually associated with neurological worsening.⁶ Elevated INRs are presumed to enhance such expansions and are unlikely to be beneficial in this setting. Therefore, rapid normalization of the coagulation status is mandatory for any anticoagulated patient with an ICH or subdural hematoma, although there are no data demonstrating the efficacy of reversal of oral anticoagulation. The general consensus is that rebleeding is so common after an SAH that all anticoagulation should be reversed until the aneurysm is clipped or coiled.^{413,414}

The appropriate duration of the period off anticoagulation among high-risk patients is unknown. Several case series have followed up patients off of anticoagulants for several days and weeks, with few reported instances of ischemic stroke. One study found that among 35 patients with hemorrhages followed up for up to 19 days off of Coumadin, there were no recurrent ischemic strokes.⁴¹¹ In a study of 141 patients with an ICH while taking warfarin, warfarin was reversed and stopped for a median of 10 days. The risk of an ischemic event was 2.1% within 30 days. The risk of an ischemic stroke during cessation of warfarin was 2.9% in patients with a prosthetic heart valve, 2.6% in those with AF and a prior embolic stroke, and 4.8% for those with a prior TIA or ischemic stroke.⁴¹⁵ None of the 35 patients in whom warfarin was restarted had another ICH during the hospitalization.⁴¹⁵ Another study of 28 patients with prosthetic heart valves found that during a mean period of 15 days of no anticoagulation, no patient had an embolic event.⁴¹⁶ A study of 35 patients with an ICH or spinal hemorrhage reported no recurrent ischemic events among the 14 patients with prosthetic valves after a median of 7 days without anticoagulation.⁴¹¹ One study of 100 patients who underwent intracranial surgery for treatment of a cerebral aneurysm found that 14% developed evidence of deep vein

thrombosis postoperatively. These patients were treated with systemic anticoagulation without any bleeding complications.⁴¹⁷

Bleed location and MR findings appear to be important variables in determining the risk of a new or recurrent ICH. Bleeds in a lobar location may pose a higher risk of recurrence when anticoagulation is reinstated, perhaps because of the presence of cerebral amyloid angiopathy in some of these patients. A decision analysis recommended against restarting anticoagulation in patients with lobar ICH and AF.⁴¹⁸ Several other risk factors for new or recurrent ICH have been identified and include advanced age, hypertension, degree of anticoagulation, dialysis, leukoaraiosis, and the presence of microbleeds on MRI.⁴¹⁹⁻⁴²² The presence of microbleeds on MRI (often seen on gradient echo images) may signify an underlying microangiopathy or the presence of cerebral amyloid angiopathy. One study found the risk of ICH in patients receiving anticoagulation to be 9.3% in patients with such microbleeds compared with 1.3% in those without such MRI findings.⁴¹⁹

In patients with compelling indications for early reinstatement of anticoagulation, some studies suggest that intravenous heparin (with partial thromboplastin time 1.5 to 2.0 times normal) or LMWH may be safer options for acute therapy than restarting oral warfarin.⁴¹⁰ Failure to reverse the warfarin and achieve a normal INR has been associated with an increased risk of rebleeding, and failure to achieve a therapeutic partial thromboplastin time using IV heparin has been associated with an increased risk of ischemic stroke.⁴¹⁰ An advantage of intravenous heparin is that it can be easily titrated, discontinued, and rapidly reversed should bleeding recur. We do not recommend heparin boluses on the basis of studies showing that bolus therapy may increase the risk of bleeding.⁴²³ There are few data from prospective, randomized studies with regard to the use of other agents for emergent anticoagulation in this setting.

Hemorrhagic transformation within an ischemic stroke appears to have a different course and natural history compared with an ICH. In general, such bleeds are often asymptomatic or cause minimal symptoms, rarely progress in size or extent, and are relatively common occurrences.^{424,425} Some case series suggest continuing anticoagulation even in the presence of hemorrhagic transformation as long as there is a compelling indication and the patient is not symptomatic from the hemorrhagic transformation.⁴²⁶ Each case must be assessed individually on the basis of variables such as size of the hemorrhagic transformation, patient status, and indication for anticoagulation.

Recommendations

- 1. For patients who develop an ICH, SAH, or subdural hematoma, all anticoagulants and antiplatelets should be discontinued during the acute period for at least 1 to 2 weeks after the hemorrhage, and the anticoagulant effect should be reversed immediately with appropriate agents (ie, vitamin K, fresh frozen plasma) (Class III, Level of Evidence B).**
- 2. For patients who require anticoagulation soon after a cerebral hemorrhage, intravenous heparin may be safer than oral anticoagulation. Oral**

- anticoagulants may be resumed after 3 to 4 weeks, with rigorous monitoring and maintenance of INRs in the lower end of the therapeutic range (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C).**
- 3. Special circumstances: anticoagulation should not be resumed after an SAH until the ruptured aneurysm is definitively secured (Class III, Level of Evidence C). Patients with lobar ICHs or microbleeds and suspected cerebral amyloid angiopathy on MRI may be at a higher risk for recurrent ICH if anticoagulation needs to be resumed (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C). For patients with hemorrhagic infarction, anticoagulation may be continued, depending on the specific clinical scenario and underlying indication for anticoagulant therapy (Class IIb, Level of Evidence C) ([Table 7](#) +).**

VIII. Special Approaches for Implementing Guidelines and Their Use in High-Risk Populations

National consensus guidelines are published to increase provider awareness of evidence-based approaches to disease management. This assumes that increased awareness of guideline content alone will lead to changes in physician behavior and ultimately patient behavior and outcomes. Experience with previously published guidelines suggests otherwise, and compliance with secondary stroke and coronary artery disease prevention strategies has not increased dramatically.^{427–431} For example, hypertension treatment to reduce stroke risk has been the subject of many guidelines and public education campaigns. Among adults with hypertension, 60% are on therapy, but only half of those are actually at their target goal, whereas another 30% are unaware that they even have the disease.⁴³² In a survey among physicians who were highly knowledgeable about target cholesterol goals for therapy, few were successful in achieving these goals for patients in their own practices.⁴³³ The use of retrospective performance data to improve compliance has produced small changes in adherence to guideline-derived measures in coronary artery disease prevention.⁴²⁹

Systematic approaches to guideline implementation are needed to overcome the barriers to effective use by healthcare professionals. This was recognized by the authors of the Third Report of the Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (ATP III) who stated⁸²: Although traditional CME programs that use lectures and conferences to teach physicians rarely change professional practice, they can increase awareness and motivate physicians to learn more specific approaches to therapy. Moreover, when physician-training programs supply important background material (ie, science) and guidance on ways to implement treatment guidelines into everyday practice, they are more likely to influence practice. For example, when training programs provide the physician with enabling strategies (eg, office reminders), reinforcing strategies (eg, feedback), and predisposing strategies (eg, practice guidelines), improvements in the quality of practice are more commonly seen.

An AHA pilot program to improve post-MI implementation of coronary artery disease secondary prevention (Get With the Guidelines–CAD) demonstrated substantial improvements in care.⁴³⁴ The program uses a collaborative model embedded in a systems

approach that includes online access to relevant guidelines, preprinted and discharge order sets, and physician reminders to achieve increases in smoking cessation counseling from 53% to 88% ($P<0.05$), lipid therapy at discharge from 54% to 78% ($P<0.05$), and referral to cardiac rehabilitation from 33% to 73% ($P<0.05$) over a 1-year period.

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) has recognized the treatment gap between clinically proven therapies and actual treatment rates in the community and has created a new Roadmap for Medical Research to reengineer clinical research and "remove some of the biggest roadblocks that are keeping research findings from reaching the public as swiftly as possible."⁴³⁵ To ensure that scientific knowledge is translated effectively into practice and that healthcare disparities are addressed, the Institute of Medicine of the National Academy of Sciences has recommended the establishment of coordinated systems of care that integrate preventive and treatment services and promote patient access to evidence-based care.⁴³⁶

Guideline recommendations should be defined as explicitly as possible, with an eye toward how they will be interpreted in the care-delivery setting and in populations that differ from the original study populations. To remain relevant, these guidelines should be updated frequently so that they reflect the latest evidence-based consensus among experts. This process of updating guidelines should take into account information about levels of compliance with previously published guidelines and challenges to implementation. Implementation of guidelines offers a unique opportunity to identify and help address disparities in healthcare delivery. The science of guideline implementation and the methods available to facilitate behavior change among patients and physicians should be the subject of formal study by organizations that promulgate guidelines.

Identifying and Responding to Populations at Highest Risk

Substantial evidence from observational epidemiological studies, clinical trials, and published data indicates that recurrent ischemic stroke can be prevented.⁴²⁸ These studies highlight the need for special approaches for populations at high risk for recurrent stroke and TIA. Those at high risk have been identified as the aged, socially disadvantaged, and specific ethnic groups.⁴³⁷⁻⁴³⁹

The elderly are at a greater risk of stroke but also at the highest risk of complications from treatments such as oral anticoagulants and carotid endarterectomy.^{209,440} Despite the need to consider different interventional approaches, some trials do not include a sufficient number of subjects >80 years of age to fully evaluate the efficacy of a therapy within this important subgroup. In SAPPHERE, only 11% (85 of 776 CEA patients) were >80 years of age, and comparison of high-risk and low-risk CEAs demonstrated no difference in stroke rates.⁴⁴¹ However, other medical therapies such as the statin trials have included large numbers of elderly patients with coronary artery disease and uniformly support safety and event reduction in these groups.⁴⁴²⁻⁴⁴⁴

The socially disadvantaged constitute that population at high risk for stroke primarily because of limited access to care.^{445,446} As indicated in the report of the American Academy of Neurology Task Force on Access to Healthcare in 1996, access to medical

care in general and neurological conditions such as stroke remains limited. Hospitalized stroke patients with little or no insurance receive fewer angiograms and endarterectomies. Disparities in health care need to be addressed by the federal government and organizations such as the AHA and the American Stroke Association with the long-term goal of reducing the incidence and mortality of stroke.^{447,448}

Equally socially disadvantaged for stroke care are those residing in rural America. Many rural institutions lack the resources for adequate emergency stroke treatment and the extensive community and professional educational services that address stroke awareness and prevention compared with urban areas. Telemedicine is emerging as a tool to support improved rural health care and the acute treatment and primary and secondary prevention of stroke.^{449,450} The feasibility and reliability studies of the interpretation of brain CT and the administration of the NIH Stroke Scale and intravenous thrombolytic therapy have demonstrated the potential for telemedicine to address some of these resource disparities.⁴⁵¹⁻⁴⁵⁵ Larger studies are needed to validate these preliminary findings.

Stroke prevention efforts are of particular concern in those ethnic groups identified to be at the highest risk.⁴⁵⁶ Although death rates attributed to stroke have declined by 11% in the United States from 1990 through 1998, not all groups have benefited equally, and substantial differences among ethnic groups persist.⁴⁵⁷ Gender disparities remain, as evidenced by the fact that although the 3 leading causes of death for black men are heart disease, cancer, and HIV infection/AIDS, stroke replaces HIV infection as the third leading cause in black women.⁴⁵⁸ Black women are particularly vulnerable to obesity, with a prevalence rate of >50%, and their higher morbidity and mortality from heart disease, diabetes, and stroke have been attributed in part to this increased BMI. The Basic Project notes the similarities in both Mexican Americans and non-Hispanic whites in that biological and social variables are associated with stroke rates in both groups to a similar extent.⁴⁵⁹ The role of hypertension in blacks and its disproportionate impact on stroke risk have been clearly identified,⁴⁶⁰⁻⁴⁶² yet studies indicate that risk factors differ between different ethnic groups within the worldwide black population.⁴⁶³

For the aged, socially disadvantaged, and specific ethnic groups, inadequate implementation of guidelines and noncompliance with prevention recommendations are critical problems. Expert panels have indicated the need for a multilevel approach to include the patient, provider, and organization delivering health care. The evidence for such is well documented, yet further research is sorely needed.⁴⁶⁴ The NINDS Stroke Disparities Planning Panel, convened in June 2002, is developing strategies that include establishing data collection systems and exploring effective community impact programs and instruments in stroke prevention.⁴⁶⁵ Alliances with the federal government through the NINDS, nonprofit organizations such as the AHA/American Stroke Association, and medical specialty groups such as the American Academy of Neurology and the Brain Attack Coalition to coordinate, develop, and enhance such strategies are continuing in a more focused fashion. Finally, patients are becoming more effective advocates for stroke prevention through community awareness programs. The NINDS report of the Stroke Progress Review Group serves as a framework for stroke research over this decade and joins the federal government's Healthy People 2010 and the AHA/American Stroke

Association strategic goal to significantly reduce stroke and those at risk for stroke by the year 2010.⁴⁶⁶

Recommendations

1. **To prevent underutilization or disparities in the use of therapies recommended in national guidelines, the guideline development and distribution process should recognize and incorporate strategies for increased implementation (Class I, Level of Evidence B).**
2. **It is reasonable that intervention strategies emphasize improved access to care for the aged, underserved, and ethnic populations by addressing economic barriers (eg, coverage for services required), geographic barriers (eg, expanded use of telemedicine), and a multidisciplinary approach to increase patient and healthcare provider compliance with guidelines and practice parameters (Class IIa, Level of Evidence B).**

♦♦

View this table: Writing Group Disclosures
[\[in this window\]](#)
[\[in a new window\]](#)

--	--

View this table: Reviewers' Disclosures
[\[in this window\]](#)
[\[in a new window\]](#)

--	--

Footnotes

The American Heart Association makes every effort to avoid any actual or potential conflicts of interest that may arise as a result of an outside relationship or a personal, professional, or business interest of a member of the writing panel. Specifically, all members of the writing group are required to complete and submit a Disclosure Questionnaire showing all such relationships that might be perceived as real or potential conflicts of interest.

This statement was approved by the American Heart Association Science Advisory and Coordinating Committee on September 16, 2005. A single reprint is available by calling 800-242-8721 (US only) or writing the American Heart Association, Public Information, 7272 Greenville Ave, Dallas, TX 75231-4596. Ask for reprint No. 71-0339. To purchase additional reprints: up to 999 copies, call 800-611-6083 (US only) or fax 413-665-2671; 1000 or more copies, call 410-528-4121, fax 410-528-4264, or e-mail kramsay@lww.com. To make photocopies for personal or educational use, call the Copyright Clearance Center, 978-750-8400.

Expert peer review of AHA Scientific Statements is conducted at the AHA National Center. For more on AHA statements and guidelines development, visit <http://www.americanheart.org/presenter.jhtml?identifier=3023366>.

References

1. Goldstein LB, Adams R, Becker K, Furberg CD, Gorelick PB, Hademenos G, Hill M, Howard G, Howard VJ, Jacobs B, Levine SR, Mosca L, Sacco RL, Sherman DG, Wolf PA, del Zoppo GJ. Primary prevention of ischemic stroke: a statement for healthcare professionals from the Stroke Council of the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2001; 103: 163–182. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
2. Wolf PA, Clagett GP, Easton JD, Goldstein LB, Gorelick PB, Kelly-Hayes M, Sacco RL, Whisnant JP. Preventing ischemic stroke in patients with prior stroke and transient ischemic attack: a statement for healthcare professionals from the Stroke Council of the American Heart Association. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 1991–1994. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
3. Albers GW, Hart RG, Lutsep HL, Newell DW, Sacco RL. Supplement to the guidelines for the management of transient ischemic attacks: a statement from the Ad Hoc Committee on Guidelines for the Management of Transient Ischemic Attacks, Stroke Council, American Heart Association. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 2502–2511. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
4. Culebras A, Kase CS, Masdeu JC, Fox AJ, Bryan RN, Grossman CB, Lee DH, Adams HP, Thies W. Practice guidelines for the use of imaging in transient ischemic attacks and acute stroke: a report of the Stroke Council, American Heart Association. *Stroke*. 1997; 28: 1480–1497. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
5. Mayberg MR, Batjer HH, Dacey R, Diringer M, Haley EC, Heros RC, Sternau LL, Torner J, Adams HP Jr, Feinberg W, et al. Guidelines for the management of aneurysmal subarachnoid hemorrhage: a statement for healthcare professionals from a special writing group of the Stroke Council, American Heart Association. *Stroke*. 1994; 25: 2315–2328. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
6. Broderick JP, Adams HP Jr, Barsan W, Feinberg W, Feldmann E, Grotta J, Kase C, Krieger D, Mayberg M, Tilley B, Zabramski JM, Zuccarello M. Guidelines for

- the management of spontaneous intracerebral hemorrhage: a statement for healthcare professionals from a special writing group of the Stroke Council, American Heart Association. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 905–915. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
7. Measuring and improving quality of care: a report from the American Heart Association/American College of Cardiology First Scientific Forum on Assessment of Healthcare Quality in Cardiovascular Disease and Stroke. *Circulation*. 2000; 101: 1483–1493. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
 8. Albers GW, Caplan LR, Easton JD, Fayad PB, Mohr JP, Saver JL, Sherman DG, for the TIA Working Group. Transient ischemic attack: proposal for a new definition. *N Engl J Med*. 2002; 347: 1713–1716. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
 9. Johnston SC, Gress DR, Browner WS, Sidney S. Short-term prognosis after emergency department diagnosis of TIA. *JAMA*. 2000; 284: 2901–2906. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 10. Rothwell PM, Warlow CP. Timing of TIAs preceding stroke: time window for prevention is very short. *Neurology*. 2005; 64: 817–820. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 11. Adams HP Jr, Bendixen BH, Kappelle LJ, Biller J, Love BB, Gordon DL, Marsh EE 3rd. Classification of subtype of acute ischemic stroke: definitions for use in a multicenter clinical trial: TOAST: Trial of Org 10172 in Acute Stroke Treatment. *Stroke*. 1993; 24: 35–41. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 12. American Heart Association. *Heart Disease and Stroke Statistics: 2004 Update*. Available at: http://www.americanheart.org/Heart_and_Stroke_A_Z_Guide/strokes.html. Accessed May 2005.
 13. Rodgers A, MacMahon S, Gamble G, Slattery J, Sandercock P, Warlow C. Blood pressure and risk of stroke in patients with cerebrovascular disease: the United Kingdom Transient Ischaemic Attack Collaborative Group. *BMJ*. 1996; 313: 147. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
 14. Yusuf S, Sleight P, Pogue J, Bosch J, Davies R, Dagenais G. Effects of an angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor, ramipril, on cardiovascular events in high-risk patients: the Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation Study Investigators. *N Engl J Med*. 2000; 342: 145–153. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 15. Lawes CMM, Bennett DA, Feigin VL, Rodgers A. Blood pressure and stroke: an overview of published reviews. *Stroke*. 2004; 35: 776–785. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 16. Pearson TA, Blair SN, Daniels SR, Eckel RH, Fair JM, Fortmann SP, Franklin BA, Goldstein LB, Greenland P, Grundy SM, Hong Y, Miller NH, Lauer RM, Ockene IS, Sacco RL, Sallis JF Jr, Smith SC Jr, Stone NJ, Taubert KA. AHA

- guidelines for primary prevention of cardiovascular disease and stroke: 2002 update: Consensus Panel guide to comprehensive risk reduction for adult patients without coronary or other atherosclerotic vascular diseases: American Heart Association Science Advisory and Coordinating Committee. *Circulation*. 2002; 106: 388–391.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
17. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, Cushman WC, Green LA, Izzo JL Jr, Jones DW, Materson BJ, Oparil S, Wright JT Jr, Roccella EJ, for the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure; National High Blood Pressure Education Program Coordinating Committee. The Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure: the JNC 7 Report. *JAMA*. 2003; 289: 2560–2571.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 18. Adams HP Jr, Adams RJ, Brott T, del Zoppo GJ, Furlan A, Goldstein LB, Grubb RL, Higashida R, Kidwell C, Kwiatkowski TG, Marler JR, Hademenos GJ, for the Stroke Council of the American Stroke Association. Guidelines for the early management of patients with ischemic stroke: a scientific statement from the Stroke Council of the American Stroke Association. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 1056–1083.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
 19. Rashid P, Leonardi-Bee J, Bath P. Blood pressure reduction and secondary prevention of stroke and other vascular events: a systematic review. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 2741–2748.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 20. Svensson P, de Faire U, Sleight P, Yusuf S, Ostergren J. Comparative effects of ramipril on ambulatory and office blood pressures: a HOPE Substudy. *Hypertension*. 2001; 38: e28–e32.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 21. PROGRESS Collaborative Group. Randomised trial of a perindopril-based blood-pressure-lowering regimen among 6105 individuals with previous stroke or transient ischaemic attack. *Lancet*. 2001; 358: 1033–1041.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#)
[\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
 22. Schrader J, Luders S, Kulschewski A, Berger J, Zidek W, Treib J, Einhaupl K, Diener HC, Dominiak P, for the Acute Candesartan Cilexetil Therapy in Stroke Survivors Study Group. The ACCESS Study: evaluation of Acute Candesartan Cilexetil Therapy in Stroke Survivors. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 1699–1703.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 23. American Diabetes Association. ADA clinical practice recommendations. *Diabetes Care*. 2004; 27: S1–S143.[\[CrossRef\]](#)

24. Karapanayiotides T, Piechowski-Jozwiak B, van Melle G, Bogousslavsky J, Devuyst G. Stroke patterns, etiology, and prognosis in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Neurology*. 2004; 62: 1558–1562. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
25. Megherbi SE, Milan C, Minier D, Couvreur G, Osseby GV, Tilling K, Di Carlo A, Inzitari D, Wolfe CD, Moreau T, Giroud M, for the European BIOMED Study of Stroke Care Group. Association between diabetes and stroke subtype on survival and functional outcome 3 months after stroke: data from the European BIOMED Stroke Project. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 688–694. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
26. Woo D, Gebel J, Miller R, Kothari R, Brott T, Khoury J, Salisbury S, Shukla R, Pancioli A, Jauch E, Broderick J. Incidence rates of first-ever ischemic stroke subtypes among blacks: a population-based study. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 2517–2522. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
27. Burchfiel CM, Curb JD, Rodriguez BL, Abbott RD, Chiu D, Yano K. Glucose intolerance and 22-year stroke incidence: the Honolulu Heart Program. *Stroke*. 1994; 25: 951–957. [\[Abstract\]](#)
28. Kannel WB, McGee DL. Diabetes and cardiovascular disease: the Framingham study. *JAMA*. 1979; 241: 2035–2038. [\[Abstract\]](#)
29. Manson JE, Colditz GA, Stampfer MJ, Willett WC, Krolewski AS, Rosner B, Arky RA, Speizer FE, Hennekens CH. A prospective study of maturity-onset diabetes mellitus and risk of coronary heart disease and stroke in women. *Arch Intern Med*. 1991; 151: 1141–1147. [\[Abstract\]](#)
30. Stamler J, Vaccaro O, Neaton JD, Wentworth D. Diabetes, other risk factors, and 12-yr cardiovascular mortality for men screened in the Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial. *Diabetes Care*. 1993; 16: 434–444. [\[Abstract\]](#)
31. Jamrozik K, Broadhurst RJ, Anderson CS, Stewart-Wynne EG. The role of lifestyle factors in the etiology of stroke: a population-based case-control study in Perth, Western Australia. *Stroke*. 1994; 25: 51–59. [\[Abstract\]](#)
32. Petty GW, Brown RD Jr, Whisnant JP, Sicks JD, O’Fallon WM, Wiebers DO. Survival and recurrence after first cerebral infarction: a population-based study in Rochester, Minnesota, 1975 through 1989. *Neurology*. 1998; 50: 208–216. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
33. Hillen T, Coshall C, Tilling K, Rudd AG, McGovern R, Wolfe CD, for the South London Stroke Register. Cause of stroke recurrence is multifactorial: patterns, risk factors, and outcomes of stroke recurrence in the South London Stroke Register. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 1457–1463. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

34. Hier DB, Foulkes MA, Swiontoniowski M, Sacco RL, Gorelick PB, Mohr JP, Price TR, Wolf PA. Stroke recurrence within 2 years after ischemic infarction. *Stroke*. 1991; 22: 155–161. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
35. Mast H, Thompson JL, Lee SH, Mohr JP, Sacco RL. Hypertension and diabetes mellitus as determinants of multiple lacunar infarcts. *Stroke*. 1995; 26: 30–33. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
36. Arauz A, Murillo L, Cantu C, Barinagarrementeria F, Higuera J. Prospective study of single and multiple lacunar infarcts using magnetic resonance imaging: risk factors, recurrence, and outcome in 175 consecutive cases. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 2453–2458. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
37. Gaede P, Vedel P, Larsen N, Jensen GV, Parving HH, Pedersen O. Multifactorial intervention and cardiovascular disease in patients with type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2003; 348: 383–393. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
38. Tight blood pressure control and risk of macrovascular and microvascular complications in type 2 diabetes: UKPDS 38: UK Prospective Diabetes Study Group. *BMJ*. 1998; 317: 703–713. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
39. Schrier RW, Estacio RO, Esler A, Mehler P. Effects of aggressive blood pressure control in normotensive type 2 diabetic patients on albuminuria, retinopathy and strokes. *Kidney Int*. 2002; 61: 1086–1097. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
40. Tuomilehto J, Rastenyte D. Diabetes and glucose intolerance as risk factors for stroke. *J Cardiovasc Risk*. 1999; 6: 241–249. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
41. Effects of ramipril on cardiovascular and microvascular outcomes in people with diabetes mellitus: results of the HOPE study and MICRO-HOPE substudy: Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation Study Investigators. *Lancet*. 2000; 355: 253–259. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
42. Curb JD, Pressel SL, Cutler JA, Savage PJ, Applegate WB, Black H, Camel G, Davis BR, Frost PH, Gonzalez N, Guthrie G, Oberman A, Rutan GH, Stamler J. Effect of diuretic-based antihypertensive treatment on cardiovascular disease risk in older diabetic patients with isolated systolic hypertension: Systolic Hypertension in the Elderly Program Cooperative Research Group. *JAMA*. 1996; 276: 1886–1892. [\[Abstract\]](#)
43. Hansson L, Zanchetti A, Carruthers SG, Dahlof B, Elmfeldt D, Julius S, Menard J, Rahn KH, Wedel H, Westerling S. Effects of intensive blood-pressure lowering and low-dose aspirin in patients with hypertension: principal results of the

- Hypertension Optimal Treatment (HOT) randomised trial: HOT Study Group. *Lancet*. 1998; 351: 1755–1762.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
44. Adler AI, Stratton IM, Neil HA, Yudkin JS, Matthews DR, Cull CA, Wright AD, Turner RC, Holman RR. Association of systolic blood pressure with macrovascular and microvascular complications of type 2 diabetes (UKPDS 36): prospective observational study. *BMJ*. 2000; 321: 412–419.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 45. Genuth S, Eastman R, Kahn R, Klein R, Lachin J, Lebovitz H, Nathan D, Vinicor F, for the American Diabetes Association. Implications of the United Kingdom prospective diabetes study. *Diabetes Care*. 2003; 26 (suppl 1): S28–S32.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
 46. Efficacy of atenolol and captopril in reducing risk of macrovascular and microvascular complications in type 2 diabetes: UKPDS 39: UK Prospective Diabetes Study Group. *BMJ*. 1998; 317: 713–720.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 47. ALLHAT Officers and Coordinators for the ALLHAT Collaborative Research Group, the Antihypertensive and Lipid-Lowering Treatment to Prevent Heart Attack Trial. 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). *JAMA*. 2002; 288: 2981–2997.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 48. Weber MA, Julius S, Kjeldsen SE, Brunner HR, Ekman S, Hansson L, Hua T, Laragh JH, McInnes GT, Mitchell L, Plat F, Schork MA, Smith B, Zanchetti A. Blood pressure dependent and independent effects of antihypertensive treatment on clinical events in the VALUE Trial. *Lancet*. 2004; 363: 2049–2051.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
 49. Tuomilehto J, Rastenyte D, Birkenhager WH, Thijs L, Antikainen R, Bulpitt CJ, Fletcher AE, Forette F, Goldhaber A, Palatini P, Sarti C, Fagard R. Effects of calcium-channel blockade in older patients with diabetes and systolic hypertension: Systolic Hypertension in Europe Trial Investigators. *N Engl J Med*. 1999; 340: 677–684.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
 50. Hansson L, Hedner T, Lund-Johansen P, Kjeldsen SE, Lindholm LH, Syvertsen JO, Lanke J, de Faire U, Dahlof B, Karlberg BE. Randomised trial of effects of calcium antagonists compared with diuretics and beta-blockers on cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in hypertension: the Nordic Diltiazem (NORDIL) study. *Lancet*. 2000; 356: 359–365.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
 51. Shindler DM, Kostis JB, Yusuf S, Quinones MA, Pitt B, Stewart D, Pinkett T, Ghali JK, Wilson AC. Diabetes mellitus, a predictor of morbidity and mortality in

- the Studies of Left Ventricular Dysfunction (SOLVD) Trials and Registry. *Am J Cardiol.* 1996; 77: 1017–1020.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
52. Lewis EJ, Hunsicker LG, Bain RP, Rohde RD. The effect of angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibition on diabetic nephropathy: the Collaborative Study Group. *N Engl J Med.* 1993; 329: 1456–1462.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
53. Laffel LM, McGill JB, Gans DJ. The beneficial effect of angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibition with captopril on diabetic nephropathy in normotensive IDDM patients with microalbuminuria: North American Microalbuminuria Study Group. *Am J Med.* 1995; 99: 497–504.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
54. Lewis EJ, Hunsicker LG, Clarke WR, Berl T, Pohl MA, Lewis JB, Ritz E, Atkins RC, Rohde R, Raz I, for the Collaborative Study Group. Renoprotective effect of the angiotensin-receptor antagonist irbesartan in patients with nephropathy due to type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med.* 2001; 345: 851–860.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
55. Lewis EJ, Hunsicker LG, Clarke WR, Berl T, Pohl MA, Lewis JB, Ritz E, Atkins RC, Rohde R, Raz I, for the Collaborative Study Group. Effects of losartan on renal and cardiovascular outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes and nephropathy. *N Engl J Med.* 2001; 345: 861–869.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
56. Parving HH, Lehnert H, Brochner-Mortensen J, Gomis R, Andersen S, Arner P, for the Irbesartan in Patients with Type 2 Diabetes and Microalbuminuria Study Group. The effect of irbesartan on the development of diabetic nephropathy in patients with type 2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med.* 2001; 345: 870–878.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
57. Tatti P, Pahor M, Byington RP, Di Mauro P, Guarisco R, Strollo G, Strollo F. Outcome results of the Fosinopril Versus Amlodipine Cardiovascular Events Randomized Trial (FACET) in patients with hypertension and NIDDM. *Diabetes Care.* 1998; 21: 597–603.[\[Abstract\]](#)
58. Estacio RO, Jeffers BW, Hiatt WR, Biggerstaff SL, Gifford N, Schrier RW. The effect of nisoldipine as compared with enalapril on cardiovascular outcomes in patients with non-insulin-dependent diabetes and hypertension. *N Engl J Med.* 1998; 338: 645–652.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
59. Julius S, Kjeldsen SE, Weber M, Brunner HR, Ekman S, Hansson L, Hua T, Laragh J, McInnes GT, Mitchell L, Plat F, Schork A, Smith B, Zanchetti A, for the VALUE trial group. Outcomes in hypertensive patients at high cardiovascular risk treated with regimens based on valsartan or amlodipine: the VALUE randomised trial. *Lancet.* 2004; 363: 2022–2031.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)

60. Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Merz CN, Brewer HB Jr, Clark LT, Hunninghake DB, Pasternak RC, Smith SC Jr, Stone NJ, for the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American College of Cardiology Foundation; and American Heart Association. Implications of recent clinical trials for the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel III guidelines. *Circulation*. 2004; 110: 227–239. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
61. Collins R, Armitage J, Parish S, Sleight P, Peto R, for the Heart Protection Study Collaborative Group. MRC/BHF Heart Protection Study of cholesterol-lowering with simvastatin in 5963 people with diabetes: a randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2003; 361: 2005–2016. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
62. Prevention of cardiovascular events and death with pravastatin in patients with coronary heart disease and a broad range of initial cholesterol levels: the Long-Term Intervention With Pravastatin in Ischaemic Disease (LIPID) Study Group. *N Engl J Med*. 1998; 339: 1349–1357. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
63. Pyorala K, Pedersen TR, Kjekshus J, Faergeman O, Olsson AG, Thorgeirsson G. Cholesterol lowering with simvastatin improves prognosis of diabetic patients with coronary heart disease: a subgroup analysis of the Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study (4S). *Diabetes Care*. 1997; 20: 614–620. [[Abstract](#)]
64. Goldberg RB, Mellies MJ, Sacks FM, Moya LA, Howard BV, Howard WJ, Davis BR, Cole TG, Pfeffer MA, Braunwald E. Cardiovascular events and their reduction with pravastatin in diabetic and glucose-intolerant myocardial infarction survivors with average cholesterol levels: subgroup analyses in the Cholesterol and Recurrent Events (CARE) trial: The Care Investigators. *Circulation*. 1998; 98: 2513–2519. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
65. Reichard P, Nilsson BY, Rosenqvist U. The effect of long-term intensified insulin treatment on the development of microvascular complications of diabetes mellitus. *N Engl J Med*. 1993; 329: 304–309. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
66. Ohkubo Y, Kishikawa H, Araki E, Miyata T, Isami S, Motoyoshi S, Kojima Y, Furuyoshi N, Shichiri M. Intensive insulin therapy prevents the progression of diabetic microvascular complications in Japanese patients with non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus: a randomized prospective 6-year study. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 1995; 28: 103–117. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
67. Grundy SM, Howard B, Smith S Jr, Eckel R, Redberg R, Bonow RO. Prevention Conference VI: Diabetes and Cardiovascular Disease: executive summary: conference proceeding for healthcare professionals from a special writing group of the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2002; 105: 2231–2239. [[Free Full Text](#)]

68. Smith SC Jr, Blair SN, Bonow RO, Brass LM, Cerqueira MD, Dracup K, Fuster V, Gotto A, Grundy SM, Miller NH, Jacobs A, Jones D, Krauss RM, Mosca L, Ockene I, Pasternak RC, Pearson T, Pfeffer MA, Starke RD, Taubert KA. AHA/ACC scientific statement: AHA/ACC guidelines for preventing heart attack and death in patients with atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease: 2001 update: a statement for healthcare professionals from the American Heart Association and the American College of Cardiology. *Circulation*. 2001; 104: 1577–1579. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
69. Grundy SM, Benjamin IJ, Burke GL, Chait A, Eckel RH, Howard BV, Mitch W, Smith SC Jr, Sowers JR. Diabetes and cardiovascular disease: a statement for healthcare professionals from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 1999; 100: 1134–1146. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
70. Intensive blood-glucose control with sulphonylureas or insulin compared with conventional treatment and risk of complications in patients with type 2 diabetes (UKPDS 33): UK Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS) Group. *Lancet*. 1998; 352: 837–853. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
71. American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care for patients with diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care*. 2003; 26 (suppl 1): S33–S50. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
72. Gorelick PB. Stroke prevention therapy beyond antithrombotics: unifying mechanisms in ischemic stroke pathogenesis and implications for therapy: an invited review. *Stroke*. 2002; 33: 862–875. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
73. Amarenco P, Tonkin AM. Statins for stroke prevention: disappointment and hope. *Circulation*. 2004; 109 (suppl 1): III-44–III-49. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
74. Sandercock P. Statins for stroke prevention? *Lancet*. 2001; 357: 1548–1549. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
75. Heart Protection Study Collaborative Group. 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. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
76. Sacks FM, Pfeffer MA, Moye LA, Rouleau JL, Rutherford JD, Cole TG, Brown L, Warnica JW, Arnold JM, Wun CC, Davis BR, Braunwald E. 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: 1001–1009. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

77. Randomised trial of cholesterol lowering in 4444 patients with coronary heart disease: the Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study (4S). *Lancet*. 1994; 344: 1383–1389. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
78. Pandey DK, Gorelick PB. Expanding indications for statins in cerebral ischemia: a quantitative study. *Arch Neurol*. 2005; 62: 67–72. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
79. Collins R, Armitage J, Parish S, Sleight P, Peto R, for the Heart Protection Study Collaborative Group. Effects of cholesterol-lowering with simvastatin on stroke and other major vascular events in 20536 people with cerebrovascular disease or other high-risk conditions. *Lancet*. 2004; 363: 757–767. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
80. Amarenco P, Bogousslavsky J, Callahan AS, Goldstein L, Hennerici M, Sillsen H, Welch MA, Zivin J, for the SPARCL Investigators. Design and baseline characteristics of the Stroke Prevention by Aggressive Reduction in Cholesterol Levels (SPARCL) study. *Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2003; 16: 389–395. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
81. Executive Summary of the Third Report of The National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). *JAMA*. 2001; 285: 2486–2497. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
82. The Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). Bethesda, Md: US National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Institutes of Health; 2001. Publication No. 01–3670.
83. Clofibrate and niacin in coronary heart disease. *JAMA*. 1975; 231: 360–381. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
84. Bloomfield Rubins H, Davenport J, Babikian V, Brass LM, Collins D, Wexler L, Wagner S, Papademetriou V, Rutan G, Robins SJ, for the VA-HIT Study Group. Reduction in stroke with gemfibrozil in men with coronary heart disease and low HDL cholesterol: the Veterans Affairs HDL Intervention Trial (VA-HIT). *Circulation*. 2001; 103: 2828–2833. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
85. Kawachi I, Colditz GA, Stampfer MJ, Willett WC, Manson JE, Rosner B, Speizer FE, Hennekens CH. Smoking cessation and decreased risk of stroke in women. *JAMA*. 1993; 269: 232–236. [\[Abstract\]](#)
86. Mast H, Thompson JL, Lin IF, Hofmeister C, Hartmann A, Marx P, Mohr JP, Sacco RL. Cigarette smoking as a determinant of high-grade carotid artery stenosis in Hispanic, black, and white patients with stroke or transient ischemic attack. *Stroke*. 1998; 29: 908–912. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

87. Robbins AS, Manson JE, Lee IM, Satterfield S, Hennekens CH. Cigarette smoking and stroke in a cohort of US male physicians. *Ann Intern Med.* 1994; 120: 458–462. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
88. Shinton R, Beevers G. Meta-analysis of relation between cigarette smoking and stroke. *BMJ.* 1989; 298: 789–794. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
89. Wolf PA, D’Agostino RB, Kannel WB, Bonita R, Belanger AJ. Cigarette smoking as a risk factor for stroke: the Framingham study. *JAMA.* 1988; 259: 1025–1029. [\[Abstract\]](#)
90. Wannamethee SG, Shaper AG, Whincup PH, Walker M. Smoking cessation and the risk of stroke in middle-aged men. *JAMA.* 1995; 274: 155–160. [\[Abstract\]](#)
91. Wilhelmsen L, Svardsudd K, Korsan-Bengtson K, Larsson B, Welin L, Tibblin G. Fibrinogen as a risk factor for stroke and myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 1984; 311: 501–505. [\[Abstract\]](#)
92. O’Donnell CJ, Larson MG, Feng D, Sutherland PA, Lindpaintner K, Myers RH, D’Agostino RA, Levy D, Tofler GH, for the Framingham Heart Study. Genetic and environmental contributions to platelet aggregation: the Framingham Heart Study. *Circulation.* 2001; 103: 3051–3056. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
93. Djousse L, Ellison RC, Beiser A, Scaramucci A, D’Agostino RB, Wolf PA. Alcohol consumption and risk of ischemic stroke: the Framingham study. *Stroke.* 2002; 33: 907–912. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
94. Kool MJ, Hoeks AP, Struijker Boudier HA, Reneman RS, Van Bortel LM. Short- and long-term effects of smoking on arterial wall properties in habitual smokers. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 1993; 22: 1881–1886. [\[Abstract\]](#)
95. Lightwood JM, Glantz SA. Short-term economic and health benefits of smoking cessation: myocardial infarction and stroke. *Circulation.* 1997; 96: 1089–1096. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
96. Naidoo B, Stevens W, McPherson K. Modelling the short term consequences of smoking cessation in England on the hospitalisation rates for acute myocardial infarction and stroke. *Tob Control.* 2000; 9: 397–400. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
97. He J, Vupputuri S, Allen K, Prerost MR, Hughes J, Whelton PK. Passive smoking and the risk of coronary heart disease: a meta-analysis of epidemiologic studies. *N Engl J Med.* 1999; 340: 920–926. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
98. You RX, Thrift AG, McNeil JJ, Davis SM, Donnan GA. Ischemic stroke risk and passive exposure to spouses’ cigarette smoking: Melbourne Stroke Risk Factor

- Study (MERFS) Group. *Am J Public Health*. 1999; 89: 572–575.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
99. Bonita R, Duncan J, Truelsén T, Jackson RT, Beaglehole R. Passive smoking as well as active smoking increases the risk of acute stroke. *Tob Control*. 1999; 8: 156–160.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
100. Fiore MC, Bailey WC, Cohen SJ, et al. Treating Tobacco Use and Dependence: Clinical Practice Guideline. Rockville, Md: US Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service; 2000.
101. Hughes JR, Stead LF, Lancaster T. Antidepressants for smoking cessation. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2003.
102. Silagy C, Lancaster T, Stead L, Mant D, Fowler G. Nicotine replacement therapy for smoking cessation. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2004.
103. Bak S, Sindrup SH, Alslev T, Kristensen O, Christensen K, Gaist D. Cessation of smoking after first-ever stroke: a follow-up study. *Stroke*. 2002; 33: 2263–2269.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
104. Fiore MC, Bailey WC, Cohen SJ, et al. Smoking Cessation. Rockville, Md: US Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Agency for Health Care Policy and Research AHCPR Publication; 1996.
105. US Department of Health and Human Services. The Health Consequences of Smoking: A Report of the Surgeon General. Atlanta, Ga: Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, Office on Smoking and Health; 2004.
106. Hillbom M, Numminen H, Juvela S. Recent heavy drinking of alcohol and embolic stroke. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 2307–2312.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
107. Gill JS, Zezulka AV, Shipley MJ, Gill SK, Beevers DG. Stroke and alcohol consumption. *N Engl J Med*. 1986; 315: 1041–1046.[\[Abstract\]](#)
108. Klatsky AL, Armstrong MA, Friedman GD, Sidney S. Alcohol drinking and risk of hospitalization for ischemic stroke. *Am J Cardiol*. 2001; 88: 703–706.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
109. Mazzaglia G, Britton AR, Altmann DR, Chenet L. Exploring the relationship between alcohol consumption and non-fatal or fatal stroke: a systematic review. *Addiction*. 2001; 96: 1743–1756.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)

110. Wannamethee SG, Shaper AG. Patterns of alcohol intake and risk of stroke in middle-aged British men. *Stroke*. 1996; 27: 1033–1039.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
111. Berger K, Ajani UA, Kase CS, Gaziano JM, Buring JE, Glynn RJ, Hennekens CH. Light-to-moderate alcohol consumption and risk of stroke among U.S. male physicians. *N Engl J Med*. 1999; 341: 1557–1564.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
112. Sacco RL, Elkind M, Boden-Albala B, Lin IF, Kargman DE, Hauser WA, Shea S, Paik MC. The protective effect of moderate alcohol consumption on ischemic stroke. *JAMA*. 1999; 281: 53–60.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
113. Iso H, Baba S, Mannami T, Sasaki S, Okada K, Konishi M, Tsugane S, for the JPHC Study Group. Alcohol consumption and risk of stroke among middle-aged men: the JPHC Study Cohort I. *Stroke*. 2004; 35: 1124–1129.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
114. Malarcher AM, Giles WH, Croft JB, Wozniak MA, Wityk RJ, Stolley PD, Stern BJ, Sloan MA, Sherwin R, Price TR, Macko RF, Johnson CJ, Earley CJ, Buchholz DW, Kittner SJ. Alcohol intake, type of beverage, and the risk of cerebral infarction in young women. *Stroke*. 2001; 32: 77–83.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
115. Gorelick PB, Rodin MB, Langenberg P, Hier DB, Costigan J. Weekly alcohol consumption, cigarette smoking, and the risk of ischemic stroke: results of a case-control study at three urban medical centers in Chicago, Illinois. *Neurology*. 1989; 39: 339–343.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
116. Stampfer MJ, Colditz GA, Willett WC, Speizer FE, Hennekens CH. A prospective study of moderate alcohol consumption and the risk of coronary disease and stroke in women. *N Engl J Med*. 1988; 319: 267–273.[\[Abstract\]](#)
117. Reynolds K, Lewis B, Nolen JD, Kinney GL, Sathya B, He J. Alcohol consumption and risk of stroke: a meta-analysis. *JAMA*. 2003; 289: 579–588.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
118. Sacco RL, Shi T, Zamanillo MC, Kargman DE. Predictors of mortality and recurrence after hospitalized cerebral infarction in an urban community: the Northern Manhattan Stroke Study. *Neurology*. 1994; 44: 626–634.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
119. Soyama Y, Miura K, Morikawa Y, Nishijo M, Nakanishi Y, Naruse Y, Kagamimori S, Nakagawa H, for the Oyabe Study. High-density lipoprotein cholesterol and risk of stroke in Japanese men and women: the Oyabe Study. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 863–868.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

120. Gaziano JM, Buring JE, Breslow JL, Goldhaber SZ, Rosner B, VanDenburgh M, Willett W, Hennekens CH. Moderate alcohol intake, increased levels of high-density lipoprotein and its subfractions, and decreased risk of myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 1993; 329: 1829–1834.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
121. Torres Duarte AP, Dong QS, Young J, Abi-Younes S, Myers AK. Inhibition of platelet aggregation in whole blood by alcohol. *Thromb Res.* 1995; 78: 107–115.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
122. Pellegrini N, Pareti FI, Stabile F, Brusamolino A, Simonetti P. Effects of moderate consumption of red wine on platelet aggregation and haemostatic variables in healthy volunteers. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 1996; 50: 209–213.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
123. Ernst E, Resch KL. Fibrinogen as a cardiovascular risk factor: a meta-analysis and review of the literature. *Ann Intern Med.* 1993; 118: 956–963.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
124. McKenzie CR, Abendschein DR, Eisenberg PR. Sustained inhibition of whole-blood clot procoagulant activity by inhibition of thrombus-associated factor Xa. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 1996; 16: 1285–1291.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
125. Djousse L, Levy D, Benjamin EJ, Blease SJ, Russ A, Larson MG, Massaro JM, D'Agostino RB, Wolf PA, Ellison RC. Long-term alcohol consumption and the risk of atrial fibrillation in the Framingham study. *Am J Cardiol.* 2004; 93: 710–713.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
126. Ding J, Eigenbrodt ML, Mosley TH Jr, Hutchinson RG, Folsom AR, Harris TB, Nieto FJ. Alcohol intake and cerebral abnormalities on magnetic resonance imaging in a community-based population of middle-aged adults: the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) study. *Stroke.* 2004; 35: 16–21.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
127. Mukamal KJ, Longstreth WT Jr, Mittleman MA, Crum RM, Siscovick DS. Alcohol consumption and subclinical findings on magnetic resonance imaging of the brain in older adults: the Cardiovascular Health Study. *Stroke.* 2001; 32: 1939–1946.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
128. US Preventive Services Task Force. Screening and behavioral counseling interventions in primary care to reduce alcohol misuse: recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2004; 140: 554–556.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
129. Fontaine KR, Redden DT, Wang C, Westfall AO, Allison DB. Years of life lost due to obesity. *JAMA.* 2003; 289: 187–193.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

130. Williams MA, Fleg JL, Ades PA, Chaitman BR, Miller NH, Mohiuddin SM, Ockene IS, Taylor CB, Wenger NK, for the American Heart Association Council on Clinical Cardiology Subcommittee on Exercise, Cardiac Rehabilitation, and Prevention. Secondary prevention of coronary heart disease in the elderly (with emphasis on patients ≥ 75 years of age): an American Heart Association scientific statement from the Council on Clinical Cardiology Subcommittee on Exercise, Cardiac Rehabilitation, and Prevention. *Circulation*. 2002; 105: 1735–1743.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
131. Manson JE, Willett WC, Stampfer MJ, Colditz GA, Hunter DJ, Hankinson SE, Hennekens CH, Speizer FE. Body weight and mortality among women. *N Engl J Med*. 1995; 333: 677–685.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
132. Mokdad AH, Ford ES, Bowman BA, Dietz WH, Vinicor F, Bales VS, Marks JS. Prevalence of obesity, diabetes, and obesity-related health risk factors, 2001. *JAMA*. 2003; 289: 76–79.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
133. Flegal KM, Carroll MD, Ogden CL, Johnson CL. Prevalence and trends in obesity among US adults, 1999–2000. *JAMA*. 2002; 288: 1723–1727.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
134. Weil E, Wachterman M, McCarthy EP, Davis RB, O’Day B, Iezzoni LI, Wee CC. Obesity among adults with disabling conditions. *JAMA*. 2002; 288: 1265–1268.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
135. Mann GV. The influence of obesity on health (second of two parts). *N Engl J Med*. 1974; 291: 226–232.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
136. Turcato E, Bosello O, Di Francesco V, Harris TB, Zoico E, Bissoli L, Fracassi E, Zamboni M. Waist circumference and abdominal sagittal diameter as surrogates of body fat distribution in the elderly: their relation with cardiovascular risk factors. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*. 2000; 24: 1005–1010.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
137. Abbott RD, Behrens GR, Sharp DS, Rodriguez BL, Burchfiel CM, Ross GW, Yano K, Curb JD. Body mass index and thromboembolic stroke in nonsmoking men in older middle age: the Honolulu Heart Program. *Stroke*. 1994; 25: 2370–2376.[\[Abstract\]](#)
138. Rexrode KM, Hennekens CH, Willett WC, Colditz GA, Stampfer MJ, Rich-Edwards JW, Speizer FE, Manson JE. A prospective study of body mass index, weight change, and risk of stroke in women. *JAMA*. 1997; 277: 1539–1545.[\[Abstract\]](#)

139. Walker SP, Rimm EB, Ascherio A, Kawachi I, Stampfer MJ, Willett WC. Body size and fat distribution as predictors of stroke among US men. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1996; 144: 1143–1150. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
140. Lindenstrom E, Boysen G, Nyboe J. Lifestyle factors and risk of cerebrovascular disease in women: the Copenhagen City Heart Study. *Stroke.* 1993; 24: 1468–1472. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
141. Selmer R, Tverdal A. Body mass index and cardiovascular mortality at different levels of blood pressure: a prospective study of Norwegian men and women. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 1995; 49: 265–270. [[Abstract](#)]
142. DiPietro L, Ostfeld AM, Rosner GL. Adiposity and stroke among older adults of low socioeconomic status: the Chicago Stroke Study. *Am J Public Health.* 1994; 84: 14–19. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
143. Kurth T, Gaziano JM, Berger K, Kase CS, Rexrode KM, Cook NR, Buring JE, Manson JE. Body mass index and the risk of stroke in men. *Arch Intern Med.* 2002; 162: 2557–2562. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
144. Suk SH, Sacco RL, Boden-Albala B, Cheun JF, Pittman JG, Elkind MS, Paik MC, for the Northern Manhattan Stroke Study. Abdominal obesity and risk of ischemic stroke: the Northern Manhattan Stroke Study. *Stroke.* 2003; 34: 1586–1592. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
145. Dey DK, Rothenberg E, Sundh V, Bosaeus I, Steen B. Waist circumference, body mass index, and risk for stroke in older people: a 15 year longitudinal population study of 70- year-olds. *J Am Geriatr Soc.* 2002; 50: 1510–1518. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
146. Ford ES, Mokdad AH, Giles WH. Trends in waist circumference among U.S. adults. *Obes Res.* 2003; 11: 1223–1231. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
147. Anderson JW, Konz EC. Obesity and disease management: effects of weight loss on comorbid conditions. *Obes Res.* 2001; 9 (suppl 4): 326S–334S. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
148. Renaud S, de Lorgeril M, Delaye J, Guidollet J, Jacquard F, Mamelie N, Martin JL, Monjaud I, Salen P, Toubol P. Cretan Mediterranean diet for prevention of coronary heart disease. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1995; 61 (suppl): 1360S–1367S.
149. Singh RB, Dubnov G, Niaz MA, Ghosh S, Singh R, Rastogi SS, Manor O, Pella D, Berry EM. Effect of an Indo-Mediterranean diet on progression of coronary artery disease in high risk patients (Indo-Mediterranean Diet Heart

- Study): a randomised single-blind trial. *Lancet*. 2002; 360: 1455–1461. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
150. Krauss RM, Eckel RH, Howard B, Appel LJ, Daniels SR, Deckelbaum RJ, Erdman JW Jr, Kris-Etherton P, Goldberg IJ, Kotchen TA, Lichtenstein AH, Mitch WE, Mullis R, Robinson K, Wylie-Rosett J, St Jeor S, Suttie J, Tribble DL, Bazzarre TL. AHA dietary guidelines: revision 2000: a statement for healthcare professionals from the Nutrition Committee of the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2000; 102: 2284–2299. [[Free Full Text](#)]
151. Thompson PD, Buchner D, Pina IL, Balady GJ, Williams MA, Marcus BH, Berra K, Blair SN, Costa F, Franklin B, Fletcher GF, Gordon NF, Pate RR, Rodriguez BL, Yancey AK, Wenger NK, for the American Heart Association Council on Clinical Cardiology Subcommittee on Exercise, Rehabilitation, and Prevention; and American Heart Association Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism Subcommittee on Physical Activity. Exercise and physical activity in the prevention and treatment of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease: a statement from the Council on Clinical Cardiology (Subcommittee on Exercise, Rehabilitation, and Prevention) and the Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism (Subcommittee on Physical Activity). *Circulation*. 2003; 107: 3109–3116. [[Free Full Text](#)]
152. Lee IM, Hennekens CH, Berger K, Buring JE, Manson JE. Exercise and risk of stroke in male physicians. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 1–6. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
153. Hu FB, Stampfer MJ, Colditz GA, Ascherio A, Rexrode KM, Willett WC, Manson JE. Physical activity and risk of stroke in women. *JAMA*. 2000; 283: 2961–2967. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
154. Lee CD, Folsom AR, Blair SN. Physical activity and stroke risk: a meta-analysis. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 2475–2481. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
155. Pate RR, Pratt M, Blair SN, Haskell WL, Macera CA, Bouchard C, Buchner D, Ettinger W, Heath GW, King AC, et al. Physical activity and public health: a recommendation from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and the American College of Sports Medicine. *JAMA*. 1995; 273: 402–407. [[Abstract](#)]
156. Kokkinos PF, Narayan P, Collieran JA, Pittaras A, Notargiacomo A, Reda D, Papademetriou V. Effects of regular exercise on blood pressure and left ventricular hypertrophy in African-American men with severe hypertension. *N Engl J Med*. 1995; 333: 1462–1467. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
157. Endres M, Gertz K, Lindauer U, Katchanov J, Schultze J, Schrock H, Nickenig G, Kuschinsky W, Dirnagl U, Laufs U. Mechanisms of stroke protection

- by physical activity. *Ann Neurol.* 2003; 54: 582–590.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
158. Kohrt WM, Kirwan JP, Staten MA, Bourey RE, King DS, Holloszy JO. Insulin resistance in aging is related to abdominal obesity. *Diabetes.* 1993; 42: 273–281.[\[Abstract\]](#)
159. Dylewicz P, Przywarska I, Szczesniak L, Rychlewski T, Bienkowska S, Dlugiewicz I, Wilk M. The influence of short-term endurance training on the insulin blood level, binding, and degradation of ¹²⁵I-insulin by erythrocyte receptors in patients after myocardial infarction. *J Cardiopulm Rehabil.* 1999; 19: 98–105.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
160. From the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: physical activity trends: United States, 1990–1998. *JAMA.* 2001; 285: 1835.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
161. Katzmarzyk PT, Gledhill N, Shephard RJ. The economic burden of physical inactivity in Canada. *CMAJ.* 2000; 163: 1435–1440.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
162. Gordon NF, Gulanick M, Costa F, Fletcher G, Franklin BA, Roth EJ, Shephard T, for the American Heart Association Council on Clinical Cardiology, Subcommittee on Exercise, Cardiac Rehabilitation, and Prevention; the Council on Cardiovascular Nursing; the Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism; and the Stroke Council. Physical activity and exercise recommendations for stroke survivors: an American Heart Association scientific statement from the Council on Clinical Cardiology, Subcommittee on Exercise, Cardiac Rehabilitation, and Prevention; the Council on Cardiovascular Nursing; the Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism; and the Stroke Council. *Stroke.* 2004; 35: 1230–1240.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
163. Duncan P, Studenski S, Richards L, Gollub S, Lai SM, Reker D, Perera S, Yates J, Koch V, Rigler S, Johnson D. Randomized clinical trial of therapeutic exercise in subacute stroke. *Stroke.* 2003; 34: 2173–2180.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
164. MacKay-Lyons MJ, Makrides L. Cardiovascular stress during a contemporary stroke rehabilitation program: is the intensity adequate to induce a training effect? *Arch Phys Med Rehabil.* 2002; 83: 1378–1383.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
165. Fletcher GF, Balady GJ, Amsterdam EA, Chaitman B, Eckel R, Fleg J, Froelicher VF, Leon AS, Pina IL, Rodney R, Simons-Morton DA, Williams MA, Bazzarre T. Exercise standards for testing and training: a statement for healthcare professionals from the American Heart Association. *Circulation.* 2001; 104: 1694–1740.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)

166. Sacco RL, Gan R, Boden-Albala B, Lin IF, Kargman DE, Hauser WA, Shea S, Paik MC. Leisure-time physical activity and ischemic stroke risk: the Northern Manhattan Stroke Study. *Stroke*. 1998; 29: 380–387.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
167. Beneficial effect of carotid endarterectomy in symptomatic patients with high-grade carotid stenosis: North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial Collaborators. *N Engl J Med*. 1991; 325: 445–453.[\[Abstract\]](#)
168. MRC European Carotid Surgery Trial: interim results for symptomatic patients with severe (70–99%) or with mild (0–29%) carotid stenosis: European Carotid Surgery Trialists' Collaborative Group. *Lancet*. 1991; 337: 1235–1243.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
169. Mayberg MR, Wilson SE, Yatsu F, Weiss DG, Messina L, Hershey LA, Colling C, Eskridge J, Deykin D, Winn HR. Carotid endarterectomy and prevention of cerebral ischemia in symptomatic carotid stenosis: Veterans Affairs Cooperative Studies Program 309 Trialist Group. *JAMA*. 1991; 266: 3289–3294.[\[Abstract\]](#)
170. Barnett HJ, Taylor DW, Eliasziw M, Fox AJ, Ferguson GG, Haynes RB, Rankin RN, Clagett GP, Hachinski VC, Sackett DL, Thorpe KE, Meldrum HE, Spence JD. Benefit of carotid endarterectomy in patients with symptomatic moderate or severe stenosis: North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial Collaborators. *N Engl J Med*. 1998; 339: 1415–1425.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
171. Randomised trial of endarterectomy for recently symptomatic carotid stenosis: final results of the MRC European Carotid Surgery Trial (ECST). *Lancet*. 1998; 351: 1379–1387.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
172. Streifler JY, Eliasziw M, Benavente OR, Harbison JW, Hachinski VC, Barnett HJ, Simard D. The risk of stroke in patients with first-ever retinal vs hemispheric transient ischemic attacks and high-grade carotid stenosis: North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial. *Arch Neurol*. 1995; 52: 246–249.[\[Abstract\]](#)
173. Kappelle LJ, Eliasziw M, Fox AJ, Sharpe BL, Barnett HJ. Importance of intracranial atherosclerotic disease in patients with symptomatic stenosis of the internal carotid artery: the North American Symptomatic Carotid Endarterectomy Trial. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 282–286.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
174. Henderson RD, Eliasziw M, Fox AJ, Rothwell PM, Barnett HJ. Angiographically defined collateral circulation and risk of stroke in patients with severe carotid artery stenosis: North American Symptomatic Carotid

- Endarterectomy Trial (NASCET) Group. *Stroke*. 2000; 31: 128–132.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
175. Rothwell PM, Eliasziw M, Gutnikov SA, Warlow CP, Barnett HJ; Carotid Endarterectomy Trialists Collaboration. Endarterectomy for symptomatic carotid stenosis in relation to clinical subgroups and timing of surgery. *Lancet*. 2004; 363: 915–924.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
176. Failure of extracranial-intracranial arterial bypass to reduce the risk of ischemic stroke: results of an international randomized trial: the EC/IC Bypass Study Group. *N Engl J Med*. 1985; 313: 1191–1200.[\[Abstract\]](#)
177. Grubb RL Jr, Derdeyn CP, Fritsch SM, Carpenter DA, Yundt KD, Videen TO, Spitznagel EL, Powers WJ. Importance of hemodynamic factors in the prognosis of symptomatic carotid occlusion. *JAMA*. 1998; 280: 1055–1060.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
178. Schmiedek P, Piepgras A, Leinsinger G, Kirsch CM, Einhuopl K. Improvement of cerebrovascular reserve capacity by EC-IC arterial bypass surgery in patients with ICA occlusion and hemodynamic cerebral ischemia. *J Neurosurg*. 1994; 81: 236–244.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
179. Jordan WD Jr, Voellinger DC, Fisher WS, Redden D, McDowell HA. A comparison of carotid angioplasty with stenting versus endarterectomy with regional anesthesia. *J Vasc Surg*. 1998; 28: 397–402; discussion 402–393.
180. Naylor AR, Bolia A, Abbott RJ, Pye IF, Smith J, Lennard N, Lloyd AJ, London NJ, Bell PR. Randomized study of carotid angioplasty and stenting versus carotid endarterectomy: a stopped trial. *J Vasc Surg*. 1998; 28: 326–334.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
181. Higashida RT, Meyers PM, Phatouros CC, Connors JJ 3rd, Barr JD, Sacks D, for the Technology Assessment Committees of the American Society of Interventional, Therapeutic Neuroradiology and the Society of Interventional Radiology. Reporting standards for carotid artery angioplasty and stent placement. *Stroke*. 2004; 35: e112–e134.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
182. Alberts MJ, for the Publications Committee of the WALLSTENT. Results of a multicenter prospective randomized trial of carotid artery stenting vs. carotid endarterectomy. *Stroke*. 2001; 32: 325.
183. Endovascular versus surgical treatment in patients with carotid stenosis in the Carotid and Vertebral Artery Transluminal Angioplasty Study (CAVATAS): a randomised trial. *Lancet*. 2001; 357: 1729–1737.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)

184. Yadav JS, Wholey MH, Kuntz RE, Fayad P, Katzen BT, Mishkel GJ, Bajwa TK, Whitlow P, Strickman NE, Jaff MR, Popma JJ, Snead DB, Cutlip DE, Firth BG, Ouriel K, for the Stenting and Angioplasty With Protection in Patients at High Risk for Endarterectomy Investigators. Protected carotid stenting versus endarterectomy in high risk patients. *N Engl J Med.* 2004; 351: 1493–1501.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
185. Fisher C, Gore I, Okabe N, et al. Atherosclerosis of the carotid and vertebral arteries: extracranial and intracranial. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol.* 1965; 24: 455–476.
186. Storey GS, Marks MP, Dake M, Norbash AM, Steinberg GK. Vertebral artery stenting following percutaneous transluminal angioplasty: technical note. *J Neurosurg.* 1996; 84: 883–887.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
187. Chastain HD 2nd, Campbell MS, Iyer S, Roubin GS, Vitek J, Mathur A, Al-Mubarak NA, Terry JB, Yates V, Kretzer K, Alred D, Gomez CR. Extracranial vertebral artery stent placement: in-hospital and follow-up results. *J Neurosurg.* 1999; 91: 547–552.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
188. Malek AM, Higashida RT, Phatouros CC, Lempert TE, Meyers PM, Gress DR, Dowd CF, Halbach VV. Treatment of posterior circulation ischemia with extracranial percutaneous balloon angioplasty and stent placement. *Stroke.* 1999; 30: 2073–2085.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
189. Piotin M, Spelle L, Martin JB, Weill A, Rancurel G, Ross IB, Rufenacht DA, Chiras J. Percutaneous transluminal angioplasty and stenting of the proximal vertebral artery for symptomatic stenosis. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol.* 2000; 21: 727–731.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
190. Jenkins JS, White CJ, Ramee SR, Collins TJ, Chilakamarri VK, McKinley KL, Jain SP. Vertebral artery stenting. *Catheter Cardiovasc Interv.* 2001; 54: 1–5.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
191. Bogousslavsky J, Barnett HJ, Fox AJ, Hachinski VC, Taylor W. Atherosclerotic disease of the middle cerebral artery. *Stroke.* 1986; 17: 1112–1120.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
192. Chimowitz MI, Lynn MJ, Howlett-Smith H, Stern BJ, Hertzberg VS, Frankel MR, Levine SR, Chaturvedi S, Kasner SE, Benesch CG, Sila CA, Jovin TG, Romano JG, for the Warfarin-Aspirin Symptomatic Intracranial Disease Trial Investigators. Comparison of warfarin and aspirin for symptomatic intracranial arterial stenosis. *N Engl J Med.* 2005; 352: 1305–1316.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

193. Thijs V, Albers G. Symptomatic intracranial atherosclerosis: outcome of patients who fail antithrombotic therapy. *Neurology*. 2000; 55: 490–497.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
194. Marks M, Marcellus M, Do H, Steinberg GK, Tong DC, Albert G. Primary angioplasty for symptomatic intracranial atherosclerotic stenosis: long term follow-up. *Stroke*. 2004; 35: 258.
195. Mori T, Kazita K, Mori K. Cerebral angioplasty and stenting for intracranial vertebral atherosclerotic stenosis. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 1999; 20: 787–789.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
196. Mori T, Fukuoka M, Kazita K, Mori K. Follow-up study after intracranial percutaneous transluminal cerebral balloon angioplasty. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 1998; 19: 1525–1533.[\[Abstract\]](#)
197. Connors JJ 3rd, Wojak J. Percutaneous transluminal angioplasty for intracranial atherosclerotic lesions: evolution of technique and short-term results. *J Neurosurg*. 1999; 91: 415–423.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
198. de Rochemont Rdu M, Turowski B, Buchkremer M, Sitzer M, Zanella FE, Berkefeld J. Recurrent symptomatic high-grade intracranial stenoses: safety and efficacy of undersized stents: initial experience. *Radiology*. 2004; 231: 45–49.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
199. SSYLVA Study Investigators. Stenting of Symptomatic Atherosclerotic Lesions in the Vertebral or Intracranial Arteries (SSYLVA): study results. *Stroke*. 2004; 35: 1388–1392.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
200. Cardiogenic brain embolism: the second report of the Cerebral Embolism Task Force. *Arch Neurol*. 1989; 46: 727–743.[\[Abstract\]](#)
201. Fuster V, Halperin JL. Left ventricular thrombi and cerebral embolism. *N Engl J Med*. 1989; 320: 392–394.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
202. Wolf PA, Abbot RD, Kannel WB. Atrial fibrillation: a major contributor to stroke in the elderly: the Framingham study. *Arch Intern Med*. 1987; 147: 1561–1564.[\[Abstract\]](#)
203. Gibbons RJ, Abrams J, Chatterjee K, Daley J, Deedwania PC, Douglas JS, Ferguson TB Jr, Fihn SD, Fraker TD Jr, Gardin JM, O'Rourke RA, Pasternak RC, Williams SV, Gibbons RJ, Alpert JS, Antman EM, Hiratzka LF, Fuster V, Faxon DP, Gregoratos G, Jacobs AK, Smith SC Jr, for the American College of Cardiology; American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines, Committee on the Management of Patients With Chronic Stable Angina. ACC/AHA 2002 guideline update for the management of patients with chronic

- stable angina: summary article: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee on the Management of Patients With Chronic Stable Angina). *Circulation*. 2003; 107: 149–158.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
204. Bonow RO, Carabello B, de Leon AC Jr, Edmunds LH Jr, Fedderly BJ, Freed MD, Gaasch WH, McKay CR, Nishimura RA, O’Gara PT, O’Rourke RA, Rahimtoola SH, Ritchie JL, Cheitlin MD, Eagle KA, Gardner TJ, Garson A Jr, Gibbons RJ, Russell RO, Ryan TJ, Smith SC Jr. Guidelines for the management of patients with valvular heart disease: executive summary: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee on Management of Patients With Valvular Heart Disease). *Circulation*. 1998; 98: 1949–1984.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
205. Fuster V, Ryden LE, Asinger RW, Cannon DS, Crijns HJ, Frye RL, Halperin JL, Kay GN, Klein WW, Levy S, McNamara RL, Prystowsky EN, Wann LS, Wyse DG, Gibbons RJ, Antman EM, Alpert JS, Faxon DP, Fuster V, Gregoratos G, Hiratzka LF, Jacobs AK, Russell RO, Smith SC, Klein WW, Alonso-Garcia A, Blomstrom-Lundqvist C, De Backer G, Flather M, Hradec J, Oto A, Parkhomenko A, Silber S, Torbicki A, for the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association/European Society of Cardiology Board. ACC/AHA/ESC guidelines for the management of patients with atrial fibrillation: executive summary: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines and the European Society of Cardiology Committee for Practice Guidelines and Policy Conferences (Committee to Develop Guidelines for the Management of Patients With Atrial Fibrillation): developed in collaboration with the North American Society of Pacing and Electrophysiology. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2001; 38: 1231–1266.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
206. Braunwald E, Antman EM, Beasley JW, Califf RM, Cheitlin MD, Hochman JS, Jones RH, Kereiakes D, Kupersmith J, Levin TN, Pepine CJ, Schaeffer JW, Smith EE 3rd, Steward DE, Theroux P, Gibbons RJ, Alpert JS, Faxon DP, Fuster V, Gregoratos G, Hiratzka LF, Jacobs AK, Smith SC Jr, for the American College of Cardiology, American Heart Association, Committee on the Management of Patients With Unstable Angina. ACC/AHA 2002 guideline update for the management of patients with unstable angina and non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction: summary article: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee on the Management of Patients With Unstable Angina). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002; 40: 1366–1374.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
207. Eagle KA, Guyton RA, Davidoff R, Edwards FH, Ewy GA, Gardner TJ, Hart JC, Herrmann HC, Hillis LD, Hutter AM Jr, Lytle BW, Marlow RA, Nugent WC, Orszulak TA, Antman EM, Smith SC Jr, Alpert JS, Anderson JL, Faxon DP, Fuster V, Gibbons RJ, Gregoratos G, Halperin JL, Hiratzka LF, Hunt SA, Jacobs

- AK, Ornato JP, for the American College of Cardiology, American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines, American Society for Thoracic Surgery, and the Society of Thoracic Surgeons. ACC/AHA 2004 guideline update for coronary artery bypass graft surgery: summary article: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee to Update the 1999 Guidelines for Coronary Artery Bypass Graft Surgery). *Circulation*. 2004; 110: 1168–1176.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
208. Antman EM, Anbe DT, Armstrong PW, Bates ER, Green LA, Hand M, Hochman JS, Krumholz HM, Kushner FG, Lamas GA, Mullany CJ, Ornato JP, Pearle DL, Sloan MA, Smith SC Jr, Alpert JS, Anderson JL, Faxon DP, Fuster V, Gibbons RJ, Gregoratos G, Halperin JL, Hiratzka LF, Hunt SA, Jacobs AK, for the American College of Cardiology, American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines, and Canadian Cardiovascular Society. ACC/AHA guidelines for the management of patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee to Revise the 1999 Guidelines for the Management of Patients with Acute Myocardial Infarction). *Circulation*. 2004; 110: e82–292.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
209. Risk factors for stroke and efficacy of antithrombotic therapy in atrial fibrillation: analysis of pooled data from five randomized controlled trials. *Arch Intern Med*. 1994; 154: 1449–1457.[\[Abstract\]](#)
210. Hylek EM, Skates SJ, Sheehan MA, Singer DE. An analysis of the lowest effective intensity of prophylactic anticoagulation for patients with nonrheumatic atrial fibrillation. *N Engl J Med*. 1996; 335: 540–546.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
211. Secondary prevention in non-rheumatic atrial fibrillation after transient ischaemic attack or minor stroke: EAFT (European Atrial Fibrillation Trial) Study Group. *Lancet*. 1993; 342: 1255–1262.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
212. Adjusted-dose warfarin versus low-intensity, fixed-dose warfarin plus aspirin for high-risk patients with atrial fibrillation: Stroke Prevention in Atrial Fibrillation III randomised clinical trial. *Lancet*. 1996; 348: 633–638.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
213. Dale J, Myhre E, Storstein O, Stormorken H, Efskind L. Prevention of arterial thromboembolism with acetylsalicylic acid: a controlled clinical study in patients with aortic ball valves. *Am Heart J*. 1977; 94: 101–111.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
214. A randomized trial of aspirin and sulfinpyrazone in threatened stroke: the Canadian Cooperative Study Group. *N Engl J Med*. 1978; 299: 53–59.[\[Abstract\]](#)

215. Halperin JL, for the Executive Steering Committee, SPORTIF III and V Study Investigators. Ximelagatran compared with warfarin for prevention of thromboembolism in patients with nonvalvular atrial fibrillation: rationale, objectives, and design of a pair of clinical studies and baseline patient characteristics (SPORTIF III and V). *Am Heart J.* 2003; 146: 431–438. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
216. Visser CA, Kan G, Meltzer RS, Lie KI, Durrer D. Long-term follow-up of left ventricular thrombus after acute myocardial infarction: a two-dimensional echocardiographic study in 96 patients. *Chest.* 1984; 86: 532–536. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
217. Pfeffer MA, Braunwald E, Moyer LA, Basta L, Brown EJ Jr, Cuddy TE, Davis BR, Geltman EM, Goldman S, Flaker GC, et al. Effect of captopril on mortality and morbidity in patients with left ventricular dysfunction after myocardial infarction: results of the survival and ventricular enlargement trial: the SAVE Investigators. *N Engl J Med.* 1992; 327: 669–677. [\[Abstract\]](#)
218. Loh E, Sutton MS, Wun CC, Rouleau JL, Flaker GC, Gottlieb SS, Lamas GA, Moyer LA, Goldhaber SZ, Pfeffer MA. Ventricular dysfunction and the risk of stroke after myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med.* 1997; 336: 251–257. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
219. Falk RH. A plea for a clinical trial of anticoagulation in dilated cardiomyopathy. *Am J Cardiol.* 1990; 65: 914–915. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
220. Ezekowitz M. Antithrombotics for left-ventricular impairment? *Lancet.* 1998; 351: 1904. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
221. Graham SP. To anticoagulate or not to anticoagulate patients with cardiomyopathy. *Cardiol Clin.* 2001; 19: 605–615. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
222. Cleland JG, Findlay I, Jafri S, Sutton G, Falk R, Bulpitt C, Prentice C, Ford I, Trainer A, Poole-Wilson PA. The Warfarin/Aspirin Study in Heart Failure (WASH): a randomized trial comparing antithrombotic strategies for patients with heart failure. *Am Heart J.* 2004; 148: 157–164. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
223. Massie BM, Krol WF, Ammon SE, Armstrong PW, Cleland JG, Collins JF, Ezekowitz M, Jafri SM, O'Connor CM, Packer M, Schulman KA, Teo K, Warren S. The Warfarin and Antiplatelet Therapy in Heart Failure Trial (WATCH): rationale, design, and baseline patient characteristics. *J Card Fail.* 2004; 10: 101–112. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)

224. Group SR. Effect of long-term oral anticoagulant treatment on mortality and cardiovascular morbidity after myocardial infarction: Anticoagulants in the Secondary Prevention of Events in Coronary Thrombosis (ASPECT) Research Group. *Lancet*. 1994; 343: 499–503. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
225. van Es RF, Jonker JJ, Verheugt FW, Deckers JW, Grobbee DE, for the Antithrombotics in the Secondary Prevention of Events in Coronary Thrombosis-2 (ASPECT-2) Research Group. Aspirin and Coumadin after acute coronary syndromes (the ASPECT-2 study): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2002; 360: 109–113. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
226. Fuster V, Gersh BJ, Giuliani ER, Tajik AJ, Brandenburg RO, Frye RL. The natural history of idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy. *Am J Cardiol*. 1981; 47: 525–531. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
227. Hurlen M, Abdelnoor M, Smith P, Erikssen J, Arnesen H. Warfarin, aspirin, or both after myocardial infarction. *N Engl J Med*. 2002; 347: 969–974. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
228. Devereaux PJ, Anderson DR, Gardner MJ, Putnam W, Flowerdew GJ, Brownell BF, Nagpal S, Cox JL. Differences between perspectives of physicians and patients on anticoagulation in patients with atrial fibrillation: observational study. *BMJ*. 2001; 323: 1218–1222. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
229. Carter AB. Prognosis of cerebral embolism. *Lancet*. 1965; 2: 514–519. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
230. Wood P. Diseases of the Heart and Circulation. Philadelphia, Pa: JB Lippincott; 1956.
231. Levine HJ. Which atrial fibrillation patients should be on chronic anticoagulation? *J Cardiovasc Med*. 1981; 6: 483–487.
232. Friedberg CK. Diseases of the Heart. Philadelphia, Pa: WB Saunders; 1966.
233. Deverall PB, Olley PM, Smith DR, Watson DA, Whitaker W. Incidence of systemic embolism before and after mitral valvotomy. *Thorax*. 1968; 23: 530–536. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
234. Coulshed N, Epstein EJ, McKendrick CS, Galloway RW, Walker E. Systemic embolism in mitral valve disease. *Br Heart J*. 1970; 32: 26–34. [[Free Full Text](#)]

235. Szekely P. Systemic embolization and anticoagulant prophylaxis in rheumatic heart disease. *BMJ*. 1964; 1: 209–212. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
236. Adams GF, Merrett JD, Hutchinson WM, Pollock AM. Cerebral embolism and mitral stenosis: survival with and without anticoagulants. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 1974; 37: 378–383. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
237. Fleming HA. Anticoagulants in rheumatic heart-disease. *Lancet*. 1971; 2: 486. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
238. Roy D, Marchand E, Gagne P, Chabot M, Cartier R. Usefulness of anticoagulant therapy in the prevention of embolic complications of atrial fibrillation. *Am Heart J*. 1986; 112: 1039–1043. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
239. Silaruks S, Thinkhamrop B, Tantikosum W, Wongvipaporn C, Tatsanavivat P, Klungboonkrong V. A prognostic model for predicting the disappearance of left atrial thrombi among candidates for percutaneous transvenous mitral commissurotomy. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2002; 39: 886–891. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
240. Bonow RO, Carabello B, De Leon AC, Jr., et al. ACC/AHA guidelines for the management of patients with valvular heart disease. A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association. Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee on Management of Patients With Valvular Heart Disease). *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1998; 32: 1486–1588. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
241. Jeresaty RM. Mitral Valve Prolapse. New York, NY: Raven Press; 1979.
242. Barnett HJ. Transient cerebral ischemia: pathogenesis, prognosis, and management. *Ann R Coll Phys Surg Can*. 1974; 7: 153–173.
243. Barnett HJ, Jones MW, Boughner DR, Kostuk WJ. Cerebral ischemic events associated with prolapsing mitral valve. *Arch Neurol*. 1976; 33: 777–782. [\[Abstract\]](#)
244. Hirsowitz GS, Saffer D. Hemiplegia and the billowing mitral leaflet syndrome. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 1978; 41: 381–383. [\[Abstract\]](#)
245. Saffro R, Talano JV. Transient ischemic attack associated with mitral systolic clicks. *Arch Intern Med*. 1979; 139: 693–694. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
246. Hanson MR, Hodgman JR, Conomy JP. A study of stroke associated with prolapsed mitral valve. *Neurology*. 1978; 23: 341.

247. Korn D, DeSanctis RW, Sell S. Massive calcification of the mitral annulus. *N Engl J Med*. 1962; 268: 900–909.
248. Guthrie RB, Fairgrieve JJ. Aortic embolism due to a myxoid tumor associated with myocardial calcification. *Br Heart J*. 1963; 25: 137–140. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
249. Fulkerson PK, Beaver BM, Auseon JC, Graber HL. Calcification of the mitral annulus: etiology, clinical associations, complications and therapy. *Am J Med*. 1979; 66: 967–77. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
250. Kalman P, Depace NL, Kotler MN, et al. Mitral annular calcifications and echogenic densities in the left ventricular outflow tract in association with cerebral ischemic events. *Cardiovasc Ultrasonic*. 1982; 1: 155.
251. Nestico PF, Depace NL, Morganroth J, Kotler MN, Ross J. Mitral annular calcification: clinical, pathophysiology, and echocardiographic review. *Am Heart J*. 1984; 107 (pt 1): 989–996. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
252. Benjamin EJ, Plehn JF, D'Agostino RB, Belanger AJ, Comai K, Fuller DL, Wolf PA, Levy D. Mitral annular calcification and the risk of stroke in an elderly cohort. *N Engl J Med*. 1992; 327: 374–379. [\[Abstract\]](#)
253. Ching-Shen L, Schwartz IS, Chapman I. Calcification of the mitral annulus fibrosus with systemic embolization: a clinicopathologic study of 16 cases. *Arch Pathol Lab Med*. 1987; 111: 411–414. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
254. Kirk RS, Russell JG. Subvalvular calcification of mitral valve. *Br Heart J*. 1969; 31: 684–692. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
255. Ridolfi RL, Hutchins GM. Spontaneous calcific emboli from calcific mitral annulus fibrosus. *Arch Pathol Lab Med*. 1976; 100: 117–120. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
256. Brockmeier LB, Adolph RJ, Gustin BW, Holmes JC, Sacks JG. Calcium emboli to the retinal artery in calcific aortic stenosis. *Am Heart J*. 1981; 101: 32–37. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
257. Stein P, Sabbath H, Apitha J. Continuing disease process of calcific aortic stenosis. Role of microthrombi and turbulent flow. *Am J Cardiol*. 1977; 39: 159–163. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
258. Holley KE, Bahn RC, McGoon DC, Mankin HT. Spontaneous calcific embolization associated with calcific aortic stenosis. *Circulation*. 1963; 27: 197–202. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

259. Mok CK, Boey J, Wang R, Chan TK, Cheung KL, Lee PK, Chow J, Ng RP, Tse TF. Warfarin versus dipyridamole-aspirin and pentoxifylline-aspirin for the prevention of prosthetic heart valve thromboembolism: a prospective randomized clinical trial. *Circulation*. 1985; 72: 1059–1063.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
260. Sullivan JM, Harken DE, Gorlin R. Pharmacologic control of thromboembolic complications of cardiac-valve replacement. *N Engl J Med*. 1971; 284: 1391–1394.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
261. Chesebro JH, Fuster V, Elveback LR, McGoon DC, Pluth JR, Puga FJ, Wallace RB, Danielson GK, Orszulak TA, Piehler JM, Schaff HV. Trial of combined warfarin plus dipyridamole or aspirin therapy in prosthetic heart valve replacement: danger of aspirin compared with dipyridamole. *Am J Cardiol*. 1983; 51: 1537–1541.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
262. Taguchi K, Matsumura H, Washizu T, Harao M, Kato K, Kato E, Mochizuki T, Takamura K, Mashimo I, Mirifuji K, Nakagaki M, Suma T. Effect of athrombogenic therapy, especially high dose therapy of dipyridamole, after prosthetic valve replacement. *J Cardiovasc Surg (Torino)*. 1975; 16: 8–15.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
263. Turpie AG, Gent M, Laupacis A, Latour Y, Gunstensen J, Basile F, Klimek M, Hirsh J. Aspirin and warfarin after heart-valve replacement: a comparison of aspirin with placebo in patients treated with warfarin after heart-valve replacement. *N Engl J Med*. 1993; 329: 524–529.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
264. Gohlke-Barwolf C, Acar J, Oakley C, Butchart E, Burckhart D, Bodnar E, Hall R, Delahaye JP, Horstkotte D, Kremer R, et al. Guidelines for prevention of thromboembolic events in valvular heart disease. *Eur Heart J*. 1995; 16: 1320–1330.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
265. Salem DN, Stein PD, Al-Ahmad A, Bussey HI, Horstkotte D, Miller N, Pauker SG. Antithrombotic therapy in valvular heart disease: native and prosthetic: the Seventh ACCP Conference on Antithrombotic and Thrombolytic Therapy. *Chest*. 2004; 126 (suppl): 457S–482S.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
266. Antithrombotic Trialists' Collaboration. 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.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
267. Diener HC, Cunha L, Forbes C, Sivenius J, Smets P, Lowenthal A. European Stroke Prevention Study, 2: dipyridamole and acetylsalicylic acid in the secondary prevention of stroke. *J Neurol Sci*. 1996; 143: 1–13.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)

268. Collaborative overview of randomised trials of antiplatelet therapy, I: prevention of death, myocardial infarction, and stroke by prolonged antiplatelet therapy in various categories of patients: Antiplatelet Trialists' Collaboration. *BMJ*. 1994; 308: 81–106.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
269. The Dutch TIA trial: protective effects of low-dose aspirin and atenolol in patients with transient ischemic attacks or nondisabling stroke: the Dutch TIA Study Group. *Stroke*. 1988; 19: 512–517.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
270. Farrell B, Godwin J, Richards S, Warlow C. The United Kingdom Transient Ischaemic Attack (UK-TIA) aspirin trial: final results. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 1991; 54: 1044–1054.[\[Abstract\]](#)
271. Gent M, Blakely JA, Easton JD, Ellis DJ, Hachinski VC, Harbison JW, Panak E, Roberts RS, Sicurella J, Turpie AG. The Canadian American Ticlopidine Study (CATS) in thromboembolic stroke. *Lancet*. 1989; 1: 1215–1220.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
272. Hass WK, Easton JD, Adams HP Jr, Pryse-Phillips W, Molony BA, Anderson S, Kamm B. A randomized trial comparing ticlopidine hydrochloride with aspirin for the prevention of stroke in high-risk patients: Ticlopidine Aspirin Stroke Study Group. *N Engl J Med*. 1989; 321: 501–507.[\[Abstract\]](#)
273. Gorelick PB, Richardson D, Kelly M, Ruland S, Hung E, Harris Y, Kittner S, Leurgans S, for the African American Antiplatelet Stroke Prevention Study Investigators. Aspirin and ticlopidine for prevention of recurrent stroke in black patients: a randomized trial. *JAMA*. 2003; 289: 2947–2957.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
274. CAPRIE Steering Committee. A randomized, blinded, trial of Clopidogrel Versus Aspirin in Patients at Risk of Ischemic Events (CAPRIE): CAPRIE Steering Committee. *Lancet*. 1996; 348: 1329–1339.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
275. Bhatt DL, Marso SP, Hirsch AT, Ringleb PA, Hacke W, Topol EJ. Amplified benefit of clopidogrel versus aspirin in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Am J Cardiol*. 2002; 90: 625–628.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
276. Ringleb PA, Bhatt DL, Hirsch AT, Topol EJ, Hacke W, for the Clopidogrel Versus Aspirin in Patients at Risk of Ischemic Events Investigators. Benefit of clopidogrel over aspirin is amplified in patients with a history of ischemic events. *Stroke*. 2004; 35: 528–532.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
277. Bennett CL, Connors JM, Carwile JM, Moake JL, Bell WR, Tarantolo SR, McCarthy LJ, Sarode R, Hatfield AJ, Feldman MD, Davidson CJ, Tsai HM.

- Thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura associated with clopidogrel. *N Engl J Med.* 2000; 342: 1773–1777.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
278. Guiraud-Chaumeil B, Rascol A, David J, Boneu B, Clanet M, Bierme R. Prevention of recurrences of cerebral ischemic vascular accidents by platelet antiaggregants: results of a 3-year controlled therapeutic trial [in French]. *Rev Neurol (Paris)*. 1982; 138: 367–385.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
279. Bousser MG, Eschwege E, Haguenu M, Lefauconnier JM, Thibault N, Touboul D, Touboul PJ. "AICLA" controlled trial of aspirin and dipyridamole in the secondary prevention of athero-thrombotic cerebral ischemia. *Stroke*. 1983; 14: 5–14.[\[Abstract\]](#)
280. The European Stroke Prevention Study (ESPS): principal end-points: the ESPS Group. *Lancet*. 1987; 2: 1351–1354.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
281. Diener HC, Darius H, Bertrand-Hardy JM, Humphreys M, for the European Stroke Prevention Study 2. Cardiac safety in the European Stroke Prevention Study 2 (ESPS2). *Int J Clin Pract*. 2001; 55: 162–163.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
282. Diener HC, Bogousslavsky J, Brass LM, Cimminiello C, Csiba L, Kaste M, Leys D, Matias-Guiu J, Rupprecht HJ, for the MATCH Investigators. Aspirin and clopidogrel compared with clopidogrel alone after recent ischaemic stroke or transient ischaemic attack in high-risk patients (MATCH): randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2004; 364: 331–337.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
283. Knapp M, King D, Pugner K, Lapuerta P. Non-adherence to antipsychotic medication regimens: associations with resource use and costs. *Br J Psychiatry*. 2004; 184: 509–516.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
284. Piette JD, Heisler M, Wagner TH. Problems paying out-of-pocket medication costs among older adults with diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2004; 27: 384–391.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
285. Sarasin FP, Gaspoz JM, Bounameaux H. Cost-effectiveness of new antiplatelet regimens used as secondary prevention of stroke or transient ischemic attack. *Arch Intern Med*. 2000; 160: 2773–2778.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
286. Yusuf S, Zhao F, Mehta SR, Chrolavicius S, Tognoni G, Fox KK, for the Clopidogrel in Unstable Angina to Prevent Recurrent Events Trial Investigators. Effects of clopidogrel in addition to aspirin in patients with acute coronary syndromes without ST-segment elevation. *N Engl J Med*. 2001; 345: 494–502.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

287. A randomized trial of anticoagulants versus aspirin after cerebral ischemia of presumed arterial origin: the Stroke Prevention in Reversible Ischemia Trial (SPIRIT) Study Group. *Ann Neurol.* 1997; 42: 857–865. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
288. Gorter JW. Major bleeding during anticoagulation after cerebral ischemia: patterns and risk factors: Stroke Prevention in Reversible Ischemia Trial (SPIRIT), European Atrial Fibrillation Trial (EAFT) study groups. *Neurology.* 1999; 53: 1319–1327. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
289. Mohr JP, Thompson JL, Lazar RM, Levin B, Sacco RL, Furie KL, Kistler JP, Albers GW, Pettigrew LC, Adams HP Jr, Jackson CM, Pullicino P, for the Warfarin-Aspirin Recurrent Stroke Study Group. A comparison of warfarin and aspirin for the prevention of recurrent ischemic stroke. *N Engl J Med.* 2001; 345: 1444–1451. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
290. Chimowitz MLM, Howlett-Smith H, et al. Warfarin-Aspirin Symptomatic Intracranial Disease (WASID) Trial: final results. *Stroke.* 2004; 35: 235. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
291. Bassi P, Lattuada P, Gomitoni A. Cervical cerebral artery dissection: a multicenter prospective study (preliminary report). *Neurol Sci.* 2003; 24 (suppl 1): S4–S7. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
292. Treiman GS, Treiman RL, Foran RF, Levin PM, Cohen JL, Wagner WH, Cossman DV. Spontaneous dissection of the internal carotid artery: a nineteen-year clinical experience. *J Vasc Surg.* 1996; 24: 597–605. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
293. Nguyen Bui L, Brant-Zawadzki M, Verghese P, Gillan G. Magnetic resonance angiography of cervicocranial dissection. *Stroke.* 1993; 24: 126–131. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
294. Jacobs A, Lanfermann H, Neveling M, Szeliés B, Schroder R, Heiss WD. MRI- and MRA-guided therapy of carotid and vertebral artery dissections. *J Neurol Sci.* 1997; 147: 27–34. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
295. Lucas C, Moulin T, Deplanque D, Tatu L, Chavot D. Stroke patterns of internal carotid artery dissection in 40 patients. *Stroke.* 1998; 29: 2646–2648. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
296. Endo S, Nishijima M, Nomura H, Takaku A, Okada E. A pathological study of intracranial posterior circulation dissecting aneurysms with subarachnoid hemorrhage: report of three autopsied cases and review of the literature. *Neurosurgery.* 1993; 33: 732–738. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)

297. Han DH, Kwon OK, Oh CW. Clinical characteristics of vertebrobasilar artery dissection. *Neurol Med Chir (Tokyo)*. 1998; 38 (suppl): 107–113.
298. Bassetti C, Carruzzo A, Sturzenegger M, Tuncdogan E. Recurrence of cervical artery dissection: a prospective study of 81 patients. *Stroke*. 1996; 27: 1804–1807. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
299. Touze E, Gauvrit JY, Moulin T, Meder JF, Bracard S, Mas JL, for the Multicenter Survey on Natural History of Cervical Artery Dissection. Risk of stroke and recurrent dissection after a cervical artery dissection: a multicenter study. *Neurology*. 2003; 61: 1347–1351. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
300. Beletsky V, Nadareishvili Z, Lynch J, Shuaib A, Woolfenden A, Norris JW, for the Canadian Stroke Consortium. Cervical arterial dissection: time for a therapeutic trial? *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 2856–2860. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
301. Engelter S, Lyrer P, Kirsch E, Steck AJ. Long-term follow-up after extracranial internal carotid artery dissection. *Eur Neurol*. 2000; 44: 199–204. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
302. Schievink W. The treatment of spontaneous carotid and vertebral artery dissections. *Curr Opin Cardiol*. 2000; 15: 316–321. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
303. Guillon B, Brunereau L, Biousse V, Djouhri H, Levy C, Bousser MG. Long-term follow-up of aneurysms developed during extracranial internal carotid artery dissection. *Neurology*. 1999; 53: 117–122. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
304. Lyrer P, Engelter S. Antithrombotic drugs for carotid artery dissection. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2003;CD000255.
305. Cohen JE, Leker RR, Gotkine M, Gomori M, Ben-Hur T. Emergent stenting to treat patients with carotid artery dissection: clinically and radiologically directed therapeutic decision making. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: e254–257. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
306. Lylyk P, Cohen JE, Ceratto R, Ferrario A, Miranda C. Angioplasty and stent placement in intracranial atherosclerotic stenoses and dissections. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 2002; 23: 430–436. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
307. Malek AM, Higashida RT, Phatouros CC, Lempert TE, Meyers PM, Smith WS, Dowd CF, Halbach VV. Endovascular management of extracranial carotid artery dissection achieved using stent angioplasty. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol*. 2000; 21: 1280–1292. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]

308. Muller BT, Luther B, Hort W, Neumann-Haefelin T, Aulich A, Sandmann W. Surgical treatment of 50 carotid dissections: indications and results. *J Vasc Surg.* 2000; 31: 980–988. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
309. Balas P, Ioannou N, Milas P, Klonaris C. Surgical treatment of spontaneous internal carotid dissection. *Int Angiol.* 1998; 17: 125–128. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
310. Nussbaum ES, Erickson DL. Extracranial-intracranial bypass for ischemic cerebrovascular disease refractory to maximal medical therapy. *Neurosurgery.* 2000; 46: 37–42; discussion 42–33. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
311. Dziewas R, Konrad C, Drager B, Evers S, Besselmann M, Ludemann P, Kuhlenbaumer G, Stogbauer F, Ringelstein EB. Cervical artery dissection: clinical features, risk factors, therapy and outcome in 126 patients. *J Neurol.* 2003; 250: 1179–1184. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
312. Smith WS, Johnston SC, Skalabrin EJ, Weaver M, Azari P, Albers GW, Gress DR. Spinal manipulative therapy is an independent risk factor for vertebral artery dissection. *Neurology.* 2003; 60: 1424–1428. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
313. Rodriguez CJ, Homma S, Sacco RL, Di Tullio MR, Sciacca RR, Mohr JP, for the PICSS Investigators. Race-ethnic differences in patent foramen ovale, atrial septal aneurysm, and right atrial anatomy among ischemic stroke patients. *Stroke.* 2003; 34: 2097–2102. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
314. Mas JL, Zuber M. Recurrent cerebrovascular events in patients with patent foramen ovale, atrial septal aneurysm, or both and cryptogenic stroke or transient ischemic attack: French Study Group on Patent Foramen Ovale and Atrial Septal Aneurysm. *Am Heart J.* 1995; 130: 1083–1088. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
315. Mas JL, Arquizan C, Lamy C, Zuber M, Cabanes L, Derumeaux G, Coste J, for the Patent Foramen Ovale and Atrial Septal Aneurysm Study Group. Recurrent cerebrovascular events associated with patent foramen ovale, atrial septal aneurysm, or both. *N Engl J Med.* 2001; 345: 1740–1746. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
316. Cabanes L, Mas JL, Cohen A, Amarenco P, Cabanes PA, Oubary P, Chedru F, Guerin F, Bousser MG, de Recondo J. Atrial septal aneurysm and patent foramen ovale as risk factors for cryptogenic stroke in patients less than 55 years of age: a study using transesophageal echocardiography. *Stroke.* 1993; 24: 1865–1873. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

317. De Castro S, Cartoni D, Fiorelli M, Rasura M, Anzini A, Zanette EM, Beccia M, Colonnese C, Fedele F, Fieschi C, Pandian NG. Morphological and functional characteristics of patent foramen ovale and their embolic implications. *Stroke*. 2000; 31: 2407–2413. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
318. Homma S, Di Tullio MR, Sacco RL, Mihalatos D, Li Mandri G, Mohr JP. Characteristics of patent foramen ovale associated with cryptogenic stroke: a biplane transesophageal echocardiographic study. *Stroke*. 1994; 25: 582–586. [[Abstract](#)]
319. Steiner MM, Di Tullio MR, Rundek T, Gan R, Chen X, Liguori C, Brainin M, Homma S, Sacco RL. Patent foramen ovale size and embolic brain imaging findings among patients with ischemic stroke. *Stroke*. 1998; 29: 944–948. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
320. Hausmann D, Mugge A, Becht I, Daniel WG. Diagnosis of patent foramen ovale by transesophageal echocardiography and association with cerebral and peripheral embolic events. *Am J Cardiol*. 1992; 70: 668–672. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
321. Van Camp G, Schulze D, Cosyns B, Vandenbossche JL. Relation between patent foramen ovale and unexplained stroke. *Am J Cardiol*. 1993; 71: 596–598. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
322. Serena J, Davalos A. Patent foramen ovale and cryptogenic stroke: where to go from here [in Spanish]. *Rev Esp Cardiol*. 2003; 56: 649–651. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
323. Bogousslavsky J, Garazi S, Jeanrenaud X, Aebischer N, Van Melle G. Stroke recurrence in patients with patent foramen ovale: the Lausanne Study: Lausanne Stroke With Paradoxical Embolism Study Group. *Neurology*. 1996; 46: 1301–1305. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
324. Di Tullio M, Sacco RL, Gopal A, Mohr JP, Homma S. Patent foramen ovale as a risk factor for cryptogenic stroke. *Ann Intern Med*. 1992; 117: 461–465. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
325. Webster MW, Chancellor AM, Smith HJ, Swift DL, Sharpe DN, Bass NM, Glasgow GL. Patent foramen ovale in young stroke patients. *Lancet*. 1988; 2: 11–12. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
326. de Belder MA, Tourikis L, Leech G, Camm AJ. Risk of patent foramen ovale for thromboembolic events in all age groups. *Am J Cardiol*. 1992; 69: 1316–1320. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]

327. Homma S, Sacco RL, Di Tullio MR, Sciacca RR, Mohr JP, for the PFO in Cryptogenic Stroke Study (PICSS) Investigators. Effect of medical treatment in stroke patients with patent foramen ovale: Patent Foramen Ovale in Cryptogenic Stroke Study. *Circulation*. 2002; 105: 2625–2631. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
328. Lamy C, Giannesini C, Zuber M, Arquizan C, Meder JF, Trystram D, Coste J, Mas JL. Clinical and imaging findings in cryptogenic stroke patients with and without patent foramen ovale: the PFO-ASA Study: Atrial Septal Aneurysm. *Stroke*. 2002; 33: 706–711. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
329. Cujec B, Mainra R, Johnson DH. Prevention of recurrent cerebral ischemic events in patients with patent foramen ovale and cryptogenic strokes or transient ischemic attacks. *Can J Cardiol*. 1999; 15: 57–64. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
330. Ruchat P, Bogousslavsky J, Hurni M, Fischer AP, Jeanrenaud X, von Segesser LK. Systematic surgical closure of patent foramen ovale in selected patients with cerebrovascular events due to paradoxical embolism: early results of a preliminary study. *Eur J Cardiothorac Surg*. 1997; 11: 824–827. [[Abstract](#)]
331. Devuyst G, Bogousslavsky J, Ruchat P, Jeanrenaud X, Despland PA, Regli F, Aebischer N, Karpuz HM, Castillo V, Guffi M, Sadeghi H. Prognosis after stroke followed by surgical closure of patent foramen ovale: a prospective follow-up study with brain MRI and simultaneous transesophageal and transcranial Doppler ultrasound. *Neurology*. 1996; 47: 1162–1166. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
332. Dearani JA, Ugurlu BS, Danielson GK, Daly RC, McGregor CG, Mullany CJ, Puga FJ, Orszulak TA, Anderson BJ, Brown RD Jr, Schaff HV. Surgical patent foramen ovale closure for prevention of paradoxical embolism-related cerebrovascular ischemic events. *Circulation*. 1999; 100 (suppl): II-171–II-175. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
333. Homma S, Di Tullio MR, Sacco RL, Sciacca RR, Smith C, Mohr JP. Surgical closure of patent foramen ovale in cryptogenic stroke patients. *Stroke*. 1997; 28: 2376–2381. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
334. Khairy P, O'Donnell CP, Landzberg MJ. Transcatheter closure versus medical therapy of patent foramen ovale and presumed paradoxical thromboemboli: a systematic review. *Ann Intern Med*. 2003; 139: 753–760. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
335. Messe SR, Silverman IE, Kizer JR, Homma S, Zahn C, Gronseth G, Kasner SE, for the Quality Standards Subcommittee of the American Academy of Neurology. Practice parameter: recurrent stroke with patent foramen ovale and atrial septal aneurysm: report of the Quality Standards Subcommittee of the

- American Academy of Neurology. *Neurology*. 2004; 62: 1042–1050.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
336. Stampfer MJ, Malinow MR, Willett WC, Newcomer LM, Upson B, Ullmann D, Tishler PV, Hennekens CH. A prospective study of plasma homocyst(e)ine and risk of myocardial infarction in US physicians. *JAMA*. 1992; 268: 877–881.[\[Abstract\]](#)
337. Perry IJ, Refsum H, Morris RW, Ebrahim SB, Ueland PM, Shaper AG. Prospective study of serum total homocysteine concentration and risk of stroke in middle-aged British men. *Lancet*. 1995; 346: 1395–1398.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#)
[\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
338. Coull BM, Malinow MR, Beamer N, Sexton G, Nordt F, de Garmo P. Elevated plasma homocyst(e)ine concentration as a possible independent risk factor for stroke. *Stroke*. 1990; 21: 572–576.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
339. Clarke R, Daly L, Robinson K, Naughten E, Cahalane S, Fowler B, Graham I. Hyperhomocysteinemia: an independent risk factor for vascular disease. *N Engl J Med*. 1991; 324: 1149–1155.[\[Abstract\]](#)
340. Boushey CJ, Beresford SA, Omenn GS, Motulsky AJ. A quantitative assessment of plasma homocysteine as a risk factor for vascular disease: probable benefits of increasing folic acid intakes. *JAMA*. 1995; 274: 1049–1057.[\[Abstract\]](#)
341. Madonna P, de Stefano V, Coppola A, Cirillo F, Cerbone AM, Orefice G, Di Minno G. Hyperhomocysteinemia and other inherited prothrombotic conditions in young adults with a history of ischemic stroke. *Stroke*. 2002; 33: 51–56.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
342. Toole JF, Malinow MR, Chambless LE, Spence JD, Pettigrew LC, Howard VJ, Sides EG, Wang CH, Stampfer M. Lowering homocysteine in patients with ischemic stroke to prevent recurrent stroke, myocardial infarction, and death: the Vitamin Intervention for Stroke Prevention (VISP) randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2004; 291: 565–575.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
343. Hankey GJ, Eikelboom JW, van Bockxmeer FM, Lofthouse E, Staples N, Baker RI. Inherited thrombophilia in ischemic stroke and its pathogenic subtypes. *Stroke*. 2001; 32: 1793–1799.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
344. Ganesan V, McShane MA, Liesner R, Cookson J, Hann I, Kirkham FJ. Inherited prothrombotic states and ischaemic stroke in childhood. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 1998; 65: 508–511.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
345. Koster T, Rosendaal FR, de Ronde H, Briet E, Vandenbroucke JP, Bertina RM. Venous thrombosis due to poor anticoagulant response to activated protein

- C: Leiden Thrombophilia Study. *Lancet*. 1993; 342: 1503–1506.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
346. Svensson PJ, Dahlback B. Resistance to activated protein C as a basis for venous thrombosis. *N Engl J Med*. 1994; 330: 517–522.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
347. Lindblad B, Svensson PJ, Dahlback B. Arterial and venous thromboembolism with fatal outcome and resistance to activated protein C. *Lancet*. 1994; 343: 917.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
348. Simioni P, de Ronde H, Prandoni P, Saladini M, Bertina RM, Girolami A. Ischemic stroke in young patients with activated protein C resistance: a report of three cases belonging to three different kindreds. *Stroke*. 1995; 26: 885–890.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
349. Halbmayer WM, Haushofer A, Schon R, Fischer M. The prevalence of poor anticoagulant response to activated protein C (APC resistance) among patients suffering from stroke or venous thrombosis and among healthy subjects. *Blood Coagul Fibrinolysis*. 1994; 5: 51–57.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
350. Poort SR, Rosendaal FR, Reitsma PH, Bertina RM. A common genetic variation in the 3'-untranslated region of the prothrombin gene is associated with elevated plasma prothrombin levels and an increase in venous thrombosis. *Blood*. 1996; 88: 3698–3703.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
351. Bertina RM, Koeleman BP, Koster T, Rosendaal FR, Dirven RJ, de Ronde H, van der Velden PA, Reitsma PH. Mutation in blood coagulation factor V associated with resistance to activated protein C. *Nature*. 1994; 369: 64–67.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
352. Ridker PM, Hennekens CH, Lindpaintner K, Stampfer MJ, Eisenberg PR, Miletich JP. Mutation in the gene coding for coagulation factor V and the risk of myocardial infarction, stroke, and venous thrombosis in apparently healthy men. *N Engl J Med*. 1995; 332: 912–917.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
353. Martinelli I, Franchi F, Akwan S, Bettini P, Merati G, Mannucci PM. The transition G to A at position 20210 in the 3'-untranslated region of the prothrombin gene is not associated with cerebral ischemia. *Blood*. 1997; 90: 3806.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
354. Longstreth WT Jr, Rosendaal FR, Siscovick DS, Vos HL, Schwartz SM, Psaty BM, Raghunathan TE, Koepsell TD, Reitsma PH. Risk of stroke in young women and two prothrombotic mutations: factor V Leiden and prothrombin gene variant (G20210A). *Stroke*. 1998; 29: 577–580.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

355. Ridker PM, Hennekens CH, Miletich JP. G20210A mutation in prothrombin gene and risk of myocardial infarction, stroke, and venous thrombosis in a large cohort of US men. *Circulation*. 1999; 99: 999–1004. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
356. De Stefano V, Chiusolo P, Paciaroni K, Casorelli I, Rossi E, Molinari M, Servidei S, Tonali PA, Leone G. Prothrombin G20210A mutant genotype is a risk factor for cerebrovascular ischemic disease in young patients. *Blood*. 1998; 91: 3562–3565. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
357. Margaglione M, D'Andrea G, Giuliani N, Brancaccio V, De Lucia D, Grandone E, De Stefano V, Tonali PA, Di Minno G. Inherited prothrombotic conditions and premature ischemic stroke: sex difference in the association with factor V Leiden. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 1999; 19: 1751–1756. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
358. Voetsch B, Damasceno BP, Camargo EC, Massaro A, Bacheschi LA, Scaff M, Annichino-Bizzacchi JM, Arruda VR. Inherited thrombophilia as a risk factor for the development of ischemic stroke in young adults. *Thromb Haemost*. 2000; 83: 229–233. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
359. Pezzini A, Del Zotto E, Magoni M, Costa A, Archetti S, Grassi M, Akkawi NM, Albertini A, Assanelli D, Vignolo LA, Padovani A. Inherited thrombophilic disorders in young adults with ischemic stroke and patent foramen ovale. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 28–33. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
360. Juul K, Tybjaerg-Hansen A, Steffensen R, Kofoed S, Jensen G, Nordestgaard BG. Factor V Leiden: the Copenhagen City Heart Study and 2 meta-analyses. *Blood*. 2002; 100: 3–10. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
361. Aznar J, Mira Y, Vaya A, Corella D, Ferrando F, Villa P, Estelles A. Factor V Leiden and prothrombin G20210A mutations in young adults with cryptogenic ischemic stroke. *Thromb Haemost*. 2004; 91: 1031–1034. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
362. Lopaciuk S, Bykowska K, Kwiecinski H, Mickielewicz A, Czlonkowska A, Mendel T, Kuczynska-Zardzewialy A, Szelagowska D, Windyga J, Schroder W, Herrmann FH, Jedrzejowska H. Factor V Leiden, prothrombin gene G20210A variant, and methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase C677T genotype in young adults with ischemic stroke. *Clin Appl Thromb Hemost*. 2001; 7: 346–350. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
363. Casas JP, Hingorani AD, Bautista LE, Sharma P. Meta-analysis of genetic studies in ischemic stroke: thirty-two genes involving approximately 18,000 cases and 58,000 controls. *Arch Neurol*. 2004; 61: 1652–1661. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]

364. Kim RJ, Becker RC. Association between factor V Leiden, prothrombin G20210A, and methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase C677T mutations and events of the arterial circulatory system: a meta-analysis of published studies. *Am Heart J*. 2003; 146: 948–957. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
365. Hyers TM, Agnelli G, Hull RD, Morris TA, Samama M, Tapson V, Weg JG. Antithrombotic therapy for venous thromboembolic disease. *Chest*. 2001; 119 (suppl): 176S–193S. [[Free Full Text](#)]
366. Ridker PM, Goldhaber SZ, Danielson E, Rosenberg Y, Eby CS, Deitcher SR, Cushman M, Moll S, Kessler CM, Elliott CG, Paulson R, Wong T, Bauer KA, Schwartz BA, Miletich JP, Bounameaux H, Glynn RJ, for the PREVENT Investigators. Long-term, low-intensity warfarin therapy for the prevention of recurrent venous thromboembolism. *N Engl J Med*. 2003; 348: 1425–1434. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
367. Warkentin TE, Greinacher A. Heparin-induced thrombocytopenia: recognition, treatment, and prevention: the Seventh ACCP Conference on Antithrombotic and Thrombolytic Therapy. *Chest*. 2004; 126 (suppl): 311S–337S. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
368. Levi M, de Jonge E, van der Poll T, ten Cate H. Novel approaches to the management of disseminated intravascular coagulation. *Crit Care Med*. 2000; 28 (suppl): S20–S24. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
369. Kakkar AK, Williamson RC. Thromboprophylaxis in the cancer patient. *Haemostasis*. 1998; 28 (suppl 3): 61–65. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
370. Monreal M, Zacharski L, Jimenez JA, Roncales J, Vilaseca B. Fixed-dose low-molecular-weight heparin for secondary prevention of venous thromboembolism in patients with disseminated cancer: a prospective cohort study. *J Thromb Haemost*. 2004; 2: 1311–1315. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
371. Vila P, Hernandez MC, Lopez-Fernandez MF, Batlle J. Prevalence, follow-up and clinical significance of the anticardiolipin antibodies in normal subjects. *Thromb Haemost*. 1994; 72: 209–213. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
372. Cervera R, Font J, Gomez-Puerta JA, Espinosa G, Cucho M, Bucciarelli S, Ramos-Casals M, Ingelmo M, Piette JC, Shoenfeld Y, Asherson RA, for the Catastrophic Antiphospholipid Syndrome Registry Project Group. Validation of the preliminary criteria for the classification of catastrophic antiphospholipid syndrome. *Ann Rheum Dis*. 2005; 64: 1205–1209. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]

373. Blohorn A, Guegan-Massardier E, Triquenot A, Onnient Y, Tron F, Borg JY, Mihout B. Antiphospholipid antibodies in the acute phase of cerebral ischaemia in young adults: a descriptive study of 139 patients. *Cerebrovasc Dis.* 2002; 13: 156–162. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
374. Nencini P, Baruffi MC, Abbate R, Massai G, Amaducci L, Inzitari D. Lupus anticoagulant and anticardiolipin antibodies in young adults with cerebral ischemia. *Stroke.* 1992; 23: 189–193. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
375. Anticardiolipin antibodies are an independent risk factor for first ischemic stroke: the Antiphospholipid Antibodies in Stroke Study (APASS) Group. *Neurology.* 1993; 43: 2069–2073. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
376. Levine SR, Brey RL, Tilley BC, Thompson JL, Sacco RL, Sciacca RR, Murphy A, Lu Y, Costigan TM, Rhine C, Levin B, Triplett DA, Mohr JP, for the APASS Investigators. Antiphospholipid antibodies and subsequent thrombo-occlusive events in patients with ischemic stroke. *JAMA.* 2004; 291: 576–584. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
377. Levine SR, Brey RL, Sawaya KL, Salowich-Palm L, Kokkinos J, Kostrzema B, Perry M, Havstad S, Carey J. Recurrent stroke and thrombo-occlusive events in the antiphospholipid syndrome. *Ann Neurol.* 1995; 38: 119–124. [[CrossRef](#)] [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
378. Kittner SJ, Gorelick PB. Antiphospholipid antibodies and stroke: an epidemiological perspective. *Stroke.* 1992; 23 (suppl): I-19–I-22. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
379. Buller HR, Agnelli G, Hull RD, Hyers TM, Prins MH, Raskob GE. Antithrombotic therapy for venous thromboembolic disease: the Seventh ACCP Conference on Antithrombotic and Thrombolytic Therapy. *Chest.* 2004; 126 (suppl): 401S–428S. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
380. Crowther MA, Ginsberg JS, Julian J, Denburg J, Hirsh J, Douketis J, Laskin C, Fortin P, Anderson D, Kearon C, Clarke A, Geerts W, Forgie M, Green D, Costantini L, Yacura W, Wilson S, Gent M, Kovacs MJ. A comparison of two intensities of warfarin for the prevention of recurrent thrombosis in patients with the antiphospholipid antibody syndrome. *N Engl J Med.* 2003; 349: 1133–1138. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
381. Levine SR, Salowich-Palm L, Sawaya KL, Perry M, Spencer HJ, Winkler HJ, Alam Z, Carey JL. IgG anticardiolipin antibody titer >40 GPL and the risk of subsequent thrombo-occlusive events and death: a prospective cohort study. *Stroke.* 1997; 28: 1660–1665. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]

382. Tohgi H, Takahashi H, Kashiwaya M, Watanabe K, Hayama K. The anticardiolipin antibody in elderly stroke patients: its effects on stroke types, recurrence, and the coagulation-fibrinolysis system. *Acta Neurol Scand.* 1994; 90: 86–90. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
383. Levine SR, Brey RL, Joseph CL, Havstad S. Risk of recurrent thromboembolic events in patients with focal cerebral ischemia and antiphospholipid antibodies: the Antiphospholipid Antibodies in Stroke Study Group. *Stroke.* 1992; 23 (suppl): I-29–I-32. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
384. Ohene-Frempong K, Weiner SJ, Sleeper LA, Miller ST, Embury S, Moohr JW, Wethers DL, Pegelow CH, Gill FM. Cerebrovascular accidents in sickle cell disease: rates and risk factors. *Blood.* 1998; 91: 288–294. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
385. Adams RJ. Neurological complications. In: Embury SH, Hebbel RP, Narla M, Steinberg MH, eds. *Sickle Cell Disease: Scientific Principles and Clinical Practice.* New York, NY: Raven Press; 1994: 599–621.
386. Jeffries BF, Lipper MH, Kishore PRF. Major intracerebral involvement in sickle cell disease. *Surg Neurol.* 1980; 14: 291–295. [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
387. Adams RJ, McKie VC, Hsu L, Files B, Vichinsky E, Pegelow C, Abboud M, Gallagher D, Kutlar A, Nichols FT, Bonds DR, Brambilla D. Prevention of a first stroke by transfusions in children with sickle cell anemia and abnormal results on transcranial Doppler ultrasonography. *N Engl J Med.* 1998; 339: 5–11. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
388. Ataga KI, Orringer EP. Hypercoagulability in sickle cell disease: a curious paradox. *Am J Med.* 2003; 115: 721–728. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
389. Graido-Gonzalez E, Doherty JC, Bergreen EW, Organ G, Telfer M, McMillen MA. Plasma endothelin-1, cytokine, and prostaglandin E2 levels in sickle cell disease and acute vaso-occlusive sickle crisis. *Blood.* 1998; 92: 2551–2555. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
390. Pegelow CH, Colangelo L, Steinberg M, Wright EC, Smith J, Phillips G, Vichinsky E. Natural history of blood pressure in sickle cell disease: risks for stroke and death associated with relative hypertension in sickle cell. *Am J Med.* 1997; 102: 171–177. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
391. Westerman MP, Green D, Gilman-Sachs A, Beaman K, Freels S, Boggio L, Allen S, Zuckerman L, Schlegel R, Williamson P. Antiphospholipid antibodies, proteins C and S and coagulation changes in sickle cell disease. *J Lab Clin Med.* 1999; 134: 352–362. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)

392. Pegelow CH, Adams RJ, McKie VC, Abboud M, Berman B, Miller S, Olivieri N, Vichinsky E, Wang W, Brambilla DJ. Risk of recurrent stroke in patients with sickle cell disease treated with erythrocyte transfusions. *J Pediatr*. 1995; 126: 896–899. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
393. Fryer RH, Anderson RC, Chiriboga CA, Feldstein NA. Sickle cell anemia with moyamoya disease: outcomes after EDAS procedure. *Pediatr Neurol*. 2003; 29: 124–130. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
394. Ware RE, Zimmerman SA, Schultz WH, et al. Hydroxyurea as an alternative to blood transfusions for the prevention of recurrent stroke in children with sickle cell disease. *Blood*. 1999; 94: 3022–3026. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
395. Samoza A, de Bisotti R, Sumoza D, Fairbanks V. Hydroxyurea (HU) for prevention of recurrent stroke in sickle cell anemia (SCA). *Am J Hematol*. 2002; 71: 161–165. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
396. Walters MC, Patience M, Leisenring W, Rogers ZR, Aquino VM, Buchanan GR, Roberts IA, Yeager AM, Hsu L, Adamkiewicz T, Kurtzberg J, Vichinsky E, Storer B, Storb R, Sullivan KM, for the Multicenter Investigation of Bone Marrow Transplantation for Sickle Cell Disease. Stable mixed hematopoietic chimerism after bone marrow transplantation sickle cell anemia. *Biol Blood Marrow Transplant*. 2001; 7: 665–673. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
397. Bousser MG, Chiras J, Bories J, Castaigne P. Cerebral venous thrombosis: a review of 38 cases. *Stroke*. 1985; 16: 199–213. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
398. Bousser MG. Cerebral venous thrombosis: nothing, heparin, or local thrombolysis? *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 481–483. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
399. Bernstein R, Albers GW. Potential utility of diffusion-weighted imaging in venous infarction. *Arch Neurol*. 2001; 58: 1538–1539. [\[Free Full Text\]](#)
400. Einhaupl KM, Villringer A, Meister W, Mehraein S, Garner C, Pellkofer M, Haberl RL, Pfister HW, Schmiedek P. Heparin treatment in sinus venous thrombosis. *Lancet*. 1991; 338: 597–600. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
401. de Bruijn SF, Stam J. Randomized, placebo-controlled trial of anticoagulant treatment with low-molecular-weight heparin for cerebral sinus thrombosis. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 484–488. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
402. Frey JL, Muro GJ, McDougall CG, Dean BL, Jahnke HK. Cerebral venous thrombosis: combined intrathrombus rtPA and intravenous heparin. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 489–494. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)

403. Kittner SJ, Stern BJ, Feeser BR, Hebel R, Nagey DA, Buchholz DW, Earley CJ, Johnson CJ, Macko RF, Sloan MA, Wityk RJ, Wozniak MA. Pregnancy and the risk of stroke. *N Engl J Med*. 1996; 335: 768–774.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
404. Bates SM, Greer IA, Hirsh J, Ginsberg JS. Use of antithrombotic agents during pregnancy: the Seventh ACCP Conference on Antithrombotic and Thrombolytic Therapy. *Chest*. 2004; 126 (suppl): 627S–644S.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
405. Viscoli CM, Brass LM, Kernan WN, Sarrel PM, Suissa S, Horwitz RI. A clinical trial of estrogen-replacement therapy after ischemic stroke. *N Engl J Med*. 2001; 345: 1243–1249.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
406. Hulley S, Grady D, Bush T, Furberg C, Herrington D, Riggs B, Vittinghoff E. Randomized trial of estrogen plus progestin for secondary prevention of coronary heart disease in postmenopausal women: Heart and Estrogen/Progestin Replacement Study (HERS) Research Group. *JAMA*. 1998; 280: 605–613.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
407. Simon JA, Hsia J, Cauley JA, Richards C, Harris F, Fong J, Barrett-Connor E, Hulley SB. Postmenopausal hormone therapy and risk of stroke: the Heart and Estrogen-Progestin Replacement Study (HERS). *Circulation*. 2001; 103: 638–642.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
408. Rossouw JE, Anderson GL, Prentice RL, LaCroix AZ, Kooperberg C, Stefanick ML, Jackson RD, Beresford SA, Howard BV, Johnson KC, Kotchen JM, Ockene J, for the Writing Group for the Women’s Health Initiative Investigators. Risks and benefits of estrogen plus progestin in healthy postmenopausal women: principal results from the Women’s Health Initiative randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2002; 288: 321–333.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
409. Anderson GL, Limacher M, Assaf AR, Bassford T, Beresford SA, Black H, Bonds D, Brunner R, Brzyski R, Caan B, Chlebowski R, Curb D, Gass M, Hays J, Heiss G, Hendrix S, Howard BV, Hsia J, Hubbell A, Jackson R, Johnson KC, Judd H, Kotchen JM, Kuller L, LaCroix AZ, Lane D, Langer RD, Lasser N, Lewis CE, Manson J, Margolis K, Ockene J, O’Sullivan MJ, Phillips L, Prentice RL, Ritenbaugh C, Robbins J, Rossouw JE, Sarto G, Stefanick ML, Van Horn L, Wactawski-Wende J, Wallace R, Wassertheil-Smoller S, for the Women’s Health Initiative Steering Committee. Effects of conjugated equine estrogen in postmenopausal women with hysterectomy: the Women’s Health Initiative randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2004; 291: 1701–1712.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
410. Bertram M, Bonsanto M, Hacke W, Schwab S. Managing the therapeutic dilemma: patients with spontaneous intracerebral hemorrhage and urgent need for

- anticoagulation. *J Neurol*. 2000; 247: 209–214.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
411. Butler A, Tait R. Restarting anticoagulation in prosthetic heart valve patients after intracranial haemorrhage: a 2 year follow-up. *Br J Haematol*. 1998; 103: 1064–1066.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
412. Broderick JP, Brott TG, Tomsick T, Barsan W, Spilker J. Ultra-early evaluation of intracerebral hemorrhage. *J Neurosurg*. 1990; 72: 195–199.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
413. Bernardini GL, DeShaies EM. Critical care of intracerebral and subarachnoid hemorrhage. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep*. 2001; 1: 568–576.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
414. Le Roux PD, Winn HR. Management of the ruptured aneurysm. *Neurosurg Clin N Am*. 1998; 9: 525–540.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
415. Phan T, Koh M, Wijdicks E. Safety of discontinuation of anticoagulation in patients with intracranial hemorrhage at high thromboembolic risk. *Arch Neurol*. 2000; 57: 1710–1713.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
416. Ananthasubramaniam K, Beattie JN, Rosman HS, Jayam V, Borzak S. How safely and for how long can warfarin therapy be withheld in prosthetic heart valve patients hospitalized with a major bleed? *Chest*. 2001; 119: 478–484.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
417. Tapaninaho A. Deep vein thrombosis after aneurysm surgery. *Acta Neurochir (Wien)*. 1985; 74: 18–20.[\[CrossRef\]](#)[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
418. Eckman MH, Rosand J, Knudsen KA, Singer DE, Greenberg SM. Can patients be anticoagulated after intracerebral hemorrhage? A decision analysis. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 1710–1716.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
419. Fan YH, Zhang L, Lam WW, Mok VC, Wong KS. Cerebral microbleeds as a risk factor for subsequent intracerebral hemorrhages among patients with acute ischemic stroke. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 2459–2462.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
420. Smith EE, Rosand J, Knudsen KA, Hylek EM, Greenberg SM. Leukoaraiosis is associated with warfarin-related hemorrhage following ischemic stroke. *Neurology*. 2002; 59: 193–197.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
421. Vazquez E, Sanchez-Perales C, Garcia-Cortes MJ, Borrego F, Lozano C, Guzman M, Gil JM, Liebana A, Perez P, Borrego MJ, Perez V. Ought dialysis

- patients with atrial fibrillation be treated with oral anticoagulants? *Int J Cardiol.* 2003; 87: 135–139. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
422. Campbell NR, Hull RD, Brant R, Hogan DB, Pineo GF, Raskob GE. Aging and heparin-related bleeding. *Arch Intern Med.* 1996; 156: 857–860. [\[Abstract\]](#)
423. Glazier RL, Crowell EB. Randomized prospective trial of continuous vs intermittent heparin therapy. *JAMA.* 1976; 236: 1365–1367. [\[Abstract\]](#)
424. Fiorelli M, Bastianello S, von Kummer R, del Zoppo GJ, Larrue V, Lesaffre E, Ringelb AP, Lorenzano S, Manelfe C, Bozzao L. Hemorrhagic transformation within 36 hours of a cerebral infarct: relationships with early clinical deterioration and 3-month outcome in the European Cooperative Acute Stroke Study I (ECASS I) cohort. *Stroke.* 1999; 30: 2280–2284. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
425. Berger C, Fiorelli M, Steiner T, Schabitz WR, Bozzao L, Bluhmki E, Hacke W, von Kummer R. Hemorrhagic transformation of ischemic brain tissue: asymptomatic or symptomatic? *Stroke.* 2001; 32: 1330–1335. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
426. Pessin MS, Estol CJ, Lafranchise F, Caplan LR. Safety of anticoagulation after hemorrhagic infarction. *Neurology.* 1993; 43: 1298–1303. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
427. Jencks SF, Huff ED, Cuerdon T. Change in the quality of care delivered to Medicare beneficiaries, 1998–1999 to 2000–2001. *JAMA.* 2003; 289: 305–312. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
428. Rogers WJ, Canto JG, Lambrew CT, Tiefenbrunn AJ, Kinkaid B, Shoultz DA, Frederick PD, Every N. Temporal trends in the treatment of over 1.5 million patients with myocardial infarction in the US from 1990 through 1999: the National Registry of Myocardial Infarction 1, 2 and 3. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2000; 36: 2056–2063. [\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
429. EUROASPIRE I and II Group, European Action on Secondary Prevention by Intervention to Reduce Events. Clinical reality of coronary prevention guidelines: a comparison of EUROASPIRE I and II in nine countries: EUROASPIRE I and II Group: European Action on Secondary Prevention by Intervention to Reduce Events. *Lancet.* 2001; 357: 995–1001. [\[CrossRef\]](#) [\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
430. Fox KA, Goodman SG, Klein W, Brieger D, Steg PG, Dabbous O, Avezum A. Management of acute coronary syndromes: variations in practice and

- outcome: findings from the Global Registry of Acute Coronary Events (GRACE). *Eur Heart J.* 2002; 23: 1177–1189.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
431. Hasdai D, Behar S, Wallentin L, Danchin N, Gitt AK, Boersma E, Fioretti PM, Simoons ML, Battler A. A prospective survey of the characteristics, treatments and outcomes of patients with acute coronary syndromes in Europe and the Mediterranean basin: the Euro Heart Survey of Acute Coronary Syndromes (Euro Heart Survey ACS). *Eur Heart J.* 2002; 23: 1190–1201.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
432. The Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure. Bethesda, Md: US National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Institutes of Health; 2003.
433. Pearson TA, Laurora I, Chu H, Kafonek S. The Lipid Treatment Assessment Project (L-TAP): a multicenter survey to evaluate the percentages of dyslipidemic patients receiving lipid-lowering therapy and achieving low-density lipoprotein cholesterol goals. *Arch Intern Med.* 2000; 160: 459–467.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
434. LaBresh KA, Ellrodt AG, Gliklich R, Liljestrand J, Peto R. Get with the guidelines for cardiovascular secondary prevention: pilot results. *Arch Intern Med.* 2004; 164: 203–209.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
435. *National Institutes of Health Roadmap Press Release.* National Institutes of Health. Available at: <http://nihroadmap.nih.gov/index.asp>. Accessed September 30, 2003.
436. Committee on Quality of Health Care in America. Crossing the Quality Chasm. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 2001.
437. Kenton EJ 3rd, Gorelick PB, Cooper ES. Stroke in elderly African-Americans. *Am J Geriatr Cardiol.* 1997; 6: 39–49.[\[Medline\]](#) [\[Order article via Infotrieve\]](#)
438. Kenton EJ. Access to neurological care for minorities. *Arch Neurol.* 1991; 48: 480–483.[\[Abstract\]](#)
439. Gillum RF, Gorelick PB, Copper ES. Stroke in Blacks: A Guide to Management and Prevention. Basel, Switzerland: Karger; 1999.
440. Saxena R, Koudstaal PJ. Anticoagulants for preventing stroke in patients with nonrheumatic atrial fibrillation and a history of stroke or transient ischaemic attack. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2004:CD000185.

441. Mozes G, Sullivan TM, Torres-Russotto DR, Bower TC, Hoskin TL, Sampaio SM, Gloviczki P, Panneton JM, Noel AA, Cherry KJ Jr. Carotid endarterectomy in SAPHIRE-eligible high-risk patients: implications for selecting patients for carotid angioplasty and stenting. *J Vasc Surg.* 2004; 39: 958–965. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
442. Amarenco P, Lavallee P, Touboul PJ. Stroke prevention, blood cholesterol, and statins. *Lancet Neurol May.* 2004; 3 (5): 271–278.
443. Lewis SJ. Statin therapy in the elderly: observational and randomized controlled trials support event reduction. *Am J Geriatr Cardiol.* 2004; 13 (suppl): 10–16. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
444. Gurm HS, Hoogwerf B. The Heart Protection Study: high-risk patients benefit from statins, regardless of LDL-C level. *Cleve Clin J Med.* 2003; 70: 991–997. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
445. Earnest MP, Norris JM, Eberhardt MS, Sands GH. Report of the AAN Task Force on Access to Health Care: the effect of no personal health insurance on health care for people with neurologic disorders: Task Force on Access to Health Care of the American Academy of Neurology. *Neurology.* 1996; 46: 1471–1480. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
446. Swartztrauber K, Lawyer BL, for the Subcommittee aMotAPC, eds. Neurologist 2000: AAN Member Demographic and Practice Characteristics. St Paul, Minn: American Academy of Neurology; 2001.
447. National Healthcare Disparities Report. Rockville, Md: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; December 23, 2003.
448. American Stroke Association. Facts and Figures. Dallas, Tex: American Stroke Association; 2004.
449. Wang DZ. Editorial comment: telemedicine: the solution to provide rural stroke coverage and the answer to the shortage of stroke neurologists and radiologists. *Stroke.* 2003; 34: 2957. [[Free Full Text](#)]
450. LaMonte MP, Bahouth MN, Hu P, Pathan MY, Yarbrough KL, Gunawardane R, Creary P, Page W. Telemedicine for acute stroke: triumphs and pitfalls. *Stroke.* 2003; 34: 725–728. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
451. Wang S, Lee SB, Pardue C, Ramsingh D, Waller J, Gross H, Nichols FT 3rd, Hess DC, Adams RJ. Remote evaluation of acute ischemic stroke: reliability of National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale via telestroke. *Stroke.* 2003; 34: e188–e191. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]

452. Shafqat S, Kvedar JC, Guanci MM, Chang Y, Schwamm LH. Role for telemedicine in acute stroke: feasibility and reliability of remote administration of the NIH Stroke Scale. *Stroke*. 1999; 30: 2141–2145. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
453. Johnston KC, Worrall BB, for the Teleradiology Assessment of Computerized Tomographs Online Reliability Study. Teleradiology Assessment of Computerized Tomographs Online Reliability Study (TRACTORS) for acute stroke evaluation. *Telemed J E Health*. 2003; 9: 227–233. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
454. Schwamm LH, Rosenthal ES, Hirshberg A, Schaefer PW, Little EA, Kvedar JC, Petkovska I, Koroshetz WJ, Levine SR. Virtual TeleStroke support for the emergency department evaluation of acute stroke. *Acad Emerg Med*. 2004; 11: 1193–1197. [[CrossRef](#)][[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
455. Wiborg A, Widder B, for the Telemedicine in Stroke in Swabia Project. Teleneurology to improve stroke care in rural areas: the Telemedicine in Stroke in Swabia (TESS) Project. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 2951–2956. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
456. American Stroke Association. Stroke Facts 2003: All Americans. Dallas, Tex: American Stroke Association; 2004.
457. Keppel KG, Percy JN, Wagener DK. Trends in racial and ethnic-specific rates for the health status indicators: United States, 1990–98. *Healthy People 2000 Stat Notes*. 2002: 1–16.
458. Feldman RH, Fulwood R. The three leading causes of death in African Americans: barriers to reducing excess disparity and to improving health behaviors. *J Health Care Poor Underserved*. 1999; 10: 45–71. [[Medline](#)] [[Order article via Infotrieve](#)]
459. Smith MA, Risser JM, Lisabeth LD, Moye LA, Morgenstern LB. Access to care, acculturation, and risk factors for stroke in Mexican Americans: the Brain Attack Surveillance in Corpus Christi (BASIC) project. *Stroke*. 2003; 34: 2671–2675. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]
460. Jamerson KA. The disproportionate impact of hypertensive cardiovascular disease in African Americans: getting to the heart of the issue. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich)*. 2004; 6 (suppl 1): 4–10.
461. Sacco RL, Boden-Albala B, Abel G, Lin IF, Elkind M, Hauser WA, Paik MC, Shea S. Race-ethnic disparities in the impact of stroke risk factors: the Northern Manhattan Stroke Study. *Stroke*. 2001; 32: 1725–1731. [[Abstract/Free Full Text](#)]

462. Gorelick PB. Cerebrovascular disease in African Americans. *Stroke*. 1998; 29: 2656–2664.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
463. Hajat C, Dundas R, Stewart JA, Lawrence E, Rudd AG, Howard R, Wolfe CD. Cerebrovascular risk factors and stroke subtypes: differences between ethnic groups. *Stroke*. 2001; 32: 37–42.[\[Abstract/Free Full Text\]](#)
464. Miller NH, Hill M, Kottke T, Ockene IS. The multilevel compliance challenge: recommendations for a call to action: a statement for healthcare professionals. *Circulation*. 1997; 95: 1085–1090.[\[Free Full Text\]](#)
465. National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS). NINDS Stroke Disparities Planning Panel. Bethesda, Md: NINDS, NIH; June 2002.
466. National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS). NINDS Report of the Stroke Progress Review Group. Bethesda, Md: NINDS, NIH; April 2002.