section one

SCREENING

- Part A Cardiovascular Diseases
- Part B Neoplastic Diseases
- Part C Metabolic, Nutritional and Environmental Disorders
- Part D Infectious Diseases
- Part E Vision and Hearing Disorders
- Part F Prenatal Disorders
- Part G Congenital Disorders
- Part H Musculoskeletal Disorders
- Part I Mental Disorders and Substance Abuse

Part A. Cardiovascular Diseases

1. Screening for Asymptomatic Coronary Artery Disease

RECOMMENDATION

There is insufficient evidence to recommend for or against screening middle-aged and older men and women for asymptomatic coronary artery disease, using resting electrocardiography (ECG), ambulatory ECG, or exercise ECG. Recommendations against routine screening can be made on other grounds for individuals who are not at high risk of developing clinical heart disease (see *Clinical Intervention*). Routine screening is not recommended as part of the periodic health visit or pre-participation sports examination for children, adolescents, or young adults. Clinicians should emphasize proven measures for the primary prevention of coronary disease (see *Clinical Intervention*).

Burden of Suffering

Ischemic heart disease is the leading cause of death in the U.S., accounting for approximately 490,000 deaths in 1993.¹ The American Heart Association estimates that approximately 1.5 million Americans will suffer a myocardial infarction (MI) in 1995, and one third will not survive the event.² Atherosclerotic coronary artery disease (CAD) is the underlying cause of most ischemic cardiac events and can result in myocardial infarction, congestive heart failure, cardiac arrhythmias, and sudden cardiac death. Clinically significant CAD is uncommon in men under 40 and premenopausal women, but risk increases with advancing age and in the presence of risk factors such as smoking, hypertension, diabetes, high cholesterol, and family history of heart disease. Although mortality from heart disease has declined steadily over the past three decades in the U.S.,² the total burden of coronary disease is predicted to increase substantially over the next 30 years due to the increasing size of the elderly population.³ The cost of medical care and lost economic productivity due to heart disease in the U.S. has been projected to exceed \$60 billion in 1995.²

Angina is the most common presenting symptom of myocardial ischemia and underlying CAD, but in many persons the first evidence of CAD may be myocardial infarction or sudden death.⁴ It has been estimated that 1–2 million middle-aged men have asymptomatic but physiologically significant coronary disease, also referred to as silent myocardial ischemia.^{4,5}

Accuracy of Screening Tests

There are two screening strategies to reduce morbidity and mortality from CAD. The first involves screening for modifiable cardiac risk factors, such as hypertension, elevated serum cholesterol, cigarette smoking, physical inactivity, and diet (see Chapters 2, 3, and 54–56). The second strategy is early detection of asymptomatic CAD. The principal tests for detecting asymptomatic CAD include resting and exercise ECGs, which can provide evidence of previous silent myocardial infarctions and silent or inducible myocardial ischemia. Thallium-201 scintigraphy, exercise echocardiography, and ambulatory ECG (Holter monitoring) are less commonly used for screening purposes. The efficacy of each of these tests may be evaluated by (a) its ability to detect atherosclerotic plaque, and (b) its ability to predict the occurrence of a serious clinical event in the future (acute MI, sudden cardiac death).

Several resting ECG findings (ST depression, T-wave inversion, Q waves, and left axis deviation) increase the likelihood of coronary atherosclerosis and of future coronary events. However, these findings are uncommon in asymptomatic persons, occurring in only 1-4% of middle-aged men without clinical evidence of CAD,^{6,7} and they are not specific for CAD. One third to one half of patients with angiographically normal coro nary arteries have Q waves, T-wave inversion, or ST-T changes on their resting ECG.⁸⁻¹⁰ Conversely, a normal ECG does not rule out CAD. In the Coronary Artery Surgery Study, 29% of patients with symptomatic, angiographically proven CAD demonstrated a normal resting ECG.¹¹ Asymptomatic persons with baseline ECG abnormalities (Q waves, ST-segment depression, T-wave inversion, left ventricular hypertrophy, and ventricular premature beats) have a higher risk of future coronary events.^{6,12–19} However, prospective studies lasting between 5 and 30 years have found that symptomatic CAD develops in only 3-15% of persons with these ECG findings.^{6,13,18,20} Furthermore, most coronary events occur in persons without resting ECG abnormalities.^{6,7,18,21,22} Thus, routine ECG testing in asymptomatic persons, in whom the pretest probability of having CAD is relatively low, is not an efficient process for detecting CAD or for predicting future coronary events.

The exercise ECG is more accurate than the resting ECG for detecting clinically important CAD. Most patients with asymptomatic CAD do not have a positive exercise ECG, however.^{23–26} ECG changes often do not become apparent until an atherosclerotic plaque has progressed to the point

that it significantly impedes coronary blood flow.^{24,27} In addition, most asymptomatic persons with an abnormal exercise ECG result (usually defined by a specific magnitude of ST-segment depression) do not have underlying CAD.^{27,28} A 1989 meta-analysis found considerable variability in the accuracy of exercise-induced ST depression for predicting CAD (sensitivity 23–100%, specificity 17–100%).²⁹ Although several investigators reported that adjusting the ST segment for heart rate (ST/HR slope or ST/HR index) improves the ability to predict significant CAD^{30–32} and future coronary events,²⁵ other studies have not shown an advantage.^{33–37}

The exercise ECG is also more accurate than the resting ECG in predicting future coronary events. While asymptomatic persons with a positive exercise ECG are more likely to experience an event than those with negative tests, ^{25,38–43} longitudinal studies following such patients from 4 to 13 years have shown that only 1-11% will suffer an acute MI or sudden death.^{25,42,44,45} As with resting ECG, the majority of events will occur in those with a negative exercise test result.^{24,26,44-47} The pathophysiology of acute coronary syndromes may explain the insensitivity of exercise ECG for subsequent coronary events. Unstable angina, MI, and sudden death often result from an acute, occluding thrombus precipitated by the rupture of a mild, non-flow-limiting plaque.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ Among healthy men who subsequently developed symptomatic CAD after a negative screening test, 73% experienced a MI or sudden death as their initial manifestation.^{24,45} In contrast, the majority of asymptomatic persons with a positive exercise ECG develop angina as their initial event.^{5,24,45,51} Thus, while exercise ECG may predict the presence of more severe coronary stenosis and risk of angina in asymptomatic persons, it does not accurately predict risk of acute coronary events.

The addition of thallium-201 scintigraphy to conventional exercise testing improves its accuracy in detecting CAD, making it a useful diagnostic test in persons with symptoms of CAD.^{52,53} However, the probability of CAD after a positive scan is low in asymptomatic persons, and most coronary events occur in those with a negative test result.^{23,44} Because of these limitations and its expense, thallium-201 scintigraphy is not a practical screening test for asymptomatic persons.^{23,44,52,54} The ambulatory ECG can detect episodes of ST-segment depression which may indicate silent is chemia in asymptomatic persons with CAD. These episodes, however, also occur commonly in healthy volunteers^{55–57} and are not reliable predictors of future coronary events, even in asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic patients with documented CAD.^{58,59} There have been no studies of exercise echocardiography in screening asymptomatic populations for CAD.

False-positive screening test results are undesirable for several reasons. Persons with abnormal results frequently undergo invasive diagnostic procedures such as coronary angiography. Abnormal test results may produce considerable anxiety. An abnormal ECG tracing may disqualify some patients from jobs, insurance eligibility, and other opportunities, although the extent of these problems is not known. Proposed strategies for reducing false-positive results include: performing workups in accordance with a Bayesian model;⁶⁰ using discriminant functions to interpret the stress ECG;⁴¹ and targeting testing to high-risk groups.

Effectiveness of Early Detection

Although case-control and cohort studies show that asymptomatic persons with selected ECG findings are at increased risk of MI and cardiac death,^{5,7,22,25,38–43} there is little evidence that routine screening is an effective means to reduce the incidence of acute coronary events in asymptomatic persons. Antianginal drugs such as nitroglycerin, -adrenergic blockers, and calcium channel blockers reduce the frequency and the duration of silent ischemia.^{61–63} In a recent study, atenolol reduced the incidence of cardiac events (MI, cardiac arrest, or worsening angina) in patients who had both silent ischemia and CAD documented by angiography or prior MI;^{64,65} extrapolating these benefits to completely asymptomatic patients with silent ischemia on routine screening may not be justified, given their much lower risk of acute events.⁴⁶

Both aspirin therapy and drug treatment for high cholesterol reduce the incidence of MI and cardiac mortality in patients with symptomatic coronary disease, but the balance of risks and benefits of these therapies in asymptomatic patients is not resolved (see Chapters 2 and 69). Benefits are more likely to exceed risks in asymptomatic patients with underlying coronary disease, however, due to their higher absolute risk of MI and coronary death. New diagnostic techniques may prove more sensitive than angiography in identifying the mild-to-moderate plaques that are a risk factor for developing an acute occlusive thrombus.^{66,67} Their utility will remain in question, however, until appropriate trials demonstrate that early detection and treatment of small coronary plaques is more effective than treatment based on identifiable risk factors (e.g., high blood pressure or high cholesterol) in asymptomatic patients.^{48,49}

Among patients with symptomatic coronary disease, coronary artery bypass grafting prolongs life compared with medical therapy in patients with left main coronary or three-vessel disease with poor left ventricular function.¹¹ The prevalence of high-risk coronary disease among asymptomatic persons, however, is very low; while some patients may suffer a MI or sudden cardiac death as their initial manifestation of CAD, most patients with severe coronary disease initially develop angina.^{5,45} As a result, it is not clear that the benefit of identifying a small number of individuals with severe coronary disease before they develop symptoms is sufficient to justify routine screening of large populations of asymptomatic persons. Recent randomized trials have demonstrated that percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty (PTCA) reduces the frequency of angina in patients with symptomatic CAD, but it does not reduce the incidence of MI or cardiac death.^{68,69} The value of coronary angioplasty for asymptomatic coronary stenoses is not known.

A screening ECG has been recommended to provide a "baseline" to help interpret changes in subsequent ECGs.⁷⁰ Even when important differences are noted between the baseline ECG and a subsequent tracing, these do not necessarily reflect ongoing or recent ischemia. Using the development of a new Q wave on serial ECG as a criterion, the Framingham Study reported an annual incidence of unrecognized MI of 5.4/1,000 men aged 65-74.71 Less specific changes develop more commonly than Q waves. Baseline ECGs are often not available when needed for comparison, nor do they significantly contribute to decision making for patients being evaluated for chest pain,⁷²⁻⁷⁵ especially in those with no history of cardiovascular disease.⁷⁶ One large study found that a baseline ECG was available in 55% of patients evaluated for acute chest pain.⁷³ The availability of a prior ECG was associated with small but significant reduction in hospitalization rates for those patients who had chest pain not due to acute MI. Only a small subset of the asymptomatic population is likely to benefit from having a baseline ECG, however: those with baseline ECG abnormalities suggestive of ischemia who subsequently develop acute noncardiac chest pain. Savings from preventing a few unnecessary hospitalizations among these patients must be weighed against the high costs of routine ECG screening in the large population of asymptomatic persons.

Another argument for ECG screening is that the early identification of persons at increased risk for CAD on the basis of ECG findings may help to modify other important cardiac risk factors such as cigarette smoking, hypertension, and elevated serum cholesterol.⁷⁰ While the efficacy of risk factor modification is well established,^{22,77} no studies have evaluated whether identifying high-risk patients with abnormal ECGs improves efforts to modify risk factors or leads to better clinical outcomes.

Periodic ECG screening is often recommended for persons who might endanger public safety were they to experience an acute cardiac event at work (e.g., airline pilots, bus and truck drivers, railroad engineers). Cardiac events in such individuals are more likely to affect the safety of a large number of persons, and clinical intervention, either through medical treatment or work restrictions, might prevent such catastrophes. No studies have addressed the efficacy of ECG screening in these persons, however.

Preliminary exercise ECG testing has also been recommended for sedentary persons planning to begin vigorous exercise programs, based on evidence that strenuous exertion may increase the risk of sudden cardiac death. The usual underlying cause of sudden cardiac death during exercise is hypertrophic cardiomyopathy or congenital coronary anomalies in young persons and CAD in older persons. Cardiac events during exercise in persons without symptomatic heart disease are uncommon, however, and exercise ECG may not accurately predict those who are at risk. Among over 3,600 asymptomatic, hypercholesterolemic middle-aged men who underwent submaximal exercise ECG during the Lipid Research Clinics Coronary Primary Prevention Trial, 62 (2%) subsequently experienced an acute cardiac event during moderate or strenuous physical activity during follow-up (average 7.4 years).⁷⁸ Although men with exercise-induced ECG changes were at increased risk, only 11 of 62 events occurred in men with an abnormal baseline exercise test (sensitivity 18%). Moreover, few of the men with abnormal test results experienced an activity-related event during follow-up (positive predictive value 4%). Although the negative predictive value of baseline ECG was high (over 98%), it was no better than multivariate analysis based on clinical risk factors alone. Given the low incidence of activity-related events in middle-aged men, and the uncertain benefit of restricting activity in those with abnormal exercise tests, the potential benefits of pre-exercise testing appear small. In populations at low risk for heart disease, any benefits of detecting the rare individual with asymptomatic CAD may be offset by adverse effects of labeling and exercise restrictions for the larger number of persons with false-positive ECG results.

Recommendations of Other Groups

The routine use of resting electrocardiogram to screen for CAD in asymptomatic adults is not recommended by the American College of Physicians (ACP)⁷⁹ or the Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination.⁸⁰ The American Academy of Family Physicians (AAFP) recommends a baseline electrocardiogram for men 40 years and older with two or more cardiac risk factors and sedentary men about to begin a vigorous exercise program; this recommendation is under review.⁸¹ A task force sponsored by the American College of Cardiology and the American Heart Association (ACC/AHA) recommends baseline testing for all persons over 40 years of age and for those about to have exercise stress testing.⁸²

The AAFP recommends exercise electrocardiography for those whose jobs are linked to public safety (e.g., pilots, air traffic controllers) or that require high cardiovascular performance (e.g., police officers, firefighters).⁸¹ The American College of Sports Medicine recommends exercise ECG testing for men over age 40, women over age 50, and other asymptomatic persons with multiple cardiac risk factors, prior to beginning a vigorous exercise program.⁸³ The ACC/AHA recognize that the exercise

ECG is frequently used to screen asymptomatic persons in some high-risk groups but concluded that there is divergence of opinion with respect to its usefulness.⁸⁴ The ACP does not recommend exercise testing with ECG or thallium scintigraphy as a routine screening procedure in asymptomatic adults.^{79,85}

Discussion

Heart disease is the leading cause of death in the U.S., and interventions that produce even modest reductions in the incidence of acute ischemic events may have substantial public health benefits. Although the resting electrocardiogram can detect evidence of coronary heart disease in asymptomatic persons and identify individuals at increased risk of future coronary events, the ECG has important weaknesses as a screening test. The large majority of asymptomatic persons with abnormal ECG results do not have CAD and are at relatively low risk for developing symptomatic heart disease in the near future. Routine screening may subject many of them to the inconvenience, expense and potential risks of follow-up testing (i.e., cardiac catheterization or radionuclide imaging) to evaluate false-positive screening results. Although exercise testing is more sensitive and specific for high-grade coronary stenoses, the exercise ECG is too time-consuming and expensive for routine use in asymptomatic persons. Finally, neither resting nor exercise ECG reliably detects the mild to moderate atherosclerotic lesions which are often responsible for acute coronary events.

A second important problem with screening for asymptomatic CAD is the lack of evidence that earlier detection leads to better outcomes. The only interventions proven to reduce coronary events in asymptomatic persons are modifications of risk factors such as smoking, high cholesterol, and elevated blood pressure. These interventions, however, should be encouraged for all patients with modifiable risk factors, not only those with screening tests suggestive of CAD. The benefits of more invasive treatments for coronary stenosis (e.g., bypass surgery, angioplasty) are unproven in asymptomatic persons. For certain occupations, such as pilots and heavy equipment operators, where sudden death or incapacitation would endanger the safety of others, considerations other than benefit to the individual patient may favor screening. Although screening cannot reliably identify all persons at risk of an acute event, it may increase the margin of safety for the public.

To minimize the potential adverse effects of false-positive test results, routine screening with ECG should be avoided in populations where the prevalence of CAD is low, including most adults under 40, and middleaged men and women without coronary risk factors. Even in high-risk individuals, the benefits of screening to identify asymptomatic CAD are unproven. For some persons, however, identifying those at high risk of coronary mortality may help guide treatment decisions (e.g., use of aspirin or cholesterol-lowering drugs).

There are major costs associated with widespread screening with resting ECG in asymptomatic adults, and use of other screening tests (ambulatory ECG, exercise testing, and echocardiography) would be substantially more expensive.⁷⁹ The inconvenience, expense, and potential risks of routine screening might be justified if it significantly reduced the incidence of MI and sudden cardiac death, but such evidence is not yet available. Until appropriate studies demonstrate a benefit of screening for CAD, identification and treatment of major cardiac risk factors such as hypertension, elevated serum cholesterol, and cigarette smoking remain the only proven measures for reducing coronary morbidity and mortality in asymptomatic persons.

CLINICAL INTERVENTION

There is insufficient evidence to recommend for or against screening middle-aged and older men and women for asymptomatic coronary artery disease with resting electrocardiography (ECG), ambulatory ECG, or exercise ECG ("C" recommendation). Recommendations against routine screening may be made on other grounds for persons who are not at high risk of de veloping symptomatic CAD; these grounds include the limited sensitivity and low predictive value of an abnormal resting ECG in asymptomatic persons, and the high costs of screening and follow-up. Screening selected high-risk asymptomatic persons (e.g., those with multiple cardiac risk factors) is indicated only where results will influence treatment decisions (e.g., use of aspirin or lipid-lowering drugs in asymptomatic persons). Screening individuals in certain occupations (pilots, truck drivers, etc.) can be recommended on other grounds, including possible benefits to public safety. The choice of specific screening test for asymptomatic CAD is left to clinical discretion: exercise ECG is more accurate than resting ECG but is considerably more expensive.

Routine ECG screening as part of the periodic health visit or preparticipation sports physical is not recommended for asymptomatic children, adolescents, and young adults ("D" recommendation).

Clinicians should emphasize proven measures for the primary prevention of coronary disease in all patients (see Chapter 3, Screening for Hypertension; Chapter 2, Screening for High Blood Cholesterol; Chapter 54, Counseling to Prevent Tobacco Use; Chapter 55, Counseling to Promote Physical Activity; and Chapter 56, Counseling to Promote a Healthy Diet).

The draft update of this chapter was prepared for the U.S. Preventive Services Task

Force by Dennis L. Disch, MD, and Harold C. Sox, Jr., MD.

REFERENCES

- 1. National Center for Health Statistics. Annual summary of births, marriages, divorces, and deaths: United States, 1993. Monthly vital statistics report; vol 42 no 13. Hyattsville, MD: Public Health Service, 1994.
- 2. American Heart Association. Heart and stroke facts: 1995 statistical supplement. Dallas, TX: American Heart Association, 1995.
- Weinstein MC, Coxson PG, Williams LW, Pass TM, Stason WB, Goldman L. Forecasting coronary heart disease incidence, mortality and cost: the Coronary Heart Disease Policy Model. Am J Public Health 1987;77:1417–1426.
- Thaulow E, Erikssen J, Sandvik L, Erikssen G, Jorgensen L, Cohn PF. Initial clinical presentation of cardiac disease in asymptomatic men with silent myocardial ischemia and angiographically documented coronary artery disease (the Oslo Ischemia Study). Am J Cardiol 1993;72:629–633.
- 5. Cohn PF. Silent myocardial ischemia. Ann Intern Med 1988;109:312-317.
- Rose G, Baxter PJ, Reid DD, McCartney P. Prevalence and prognosis of electrocardiographic findings in middle-aged men. Br Heart J 1978;40:636–643.
- Sox HC Jr, Garber AM, Littenberg B. The resting electrocardiogram as a screening test: a clinical analysis. Ann Intern Med 1989;111:489–502.
- Kemp HG, Vokonas PS, Cohn PF, Gorlin R. The anginal syndrome associated with normal coronary arteriograms. Am J Med 1973;54:735–742.
- Kemp HG, Kronmal RA, Vlietstra RE, Frye FL. Seven year survival of patients with normal or near normal coronary arteriograms: a CASS registry study. J Am Coll Cardiol 1986;7:479–483.
- Cohn PF, Gorlin R, Vokonas PS, Williams RA, Herman MV. A quantitative clinical index for the diagnosis of symptomatic coronary artery disease. N Engl J Med 1972;286:901–907.
- Coronary Artery Surgery Study (CASS). A randomized trial of coronary artery bypass surgery. Survival data. Circulation 1983;68:939–950.
- Cedres B, Liu K, Stamler J, et al. Independent contribution of electrocardiographic abnormalities to risk of death from coronary heart disease, cardiovascular diseases and all causes: findings of three Chicago epidemiologic studies. Circulation 1982;65:146–153.
- Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial Research Group. Baseline electrocardiographic abnormalities, antihypertensive treatment, and mortality in the Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial. Am J Cardiol 1985;55:1–15.
- Harlan WR, Cowie CC, Oberman A, et al. Prediction of subsequent ischemic heart disease using serial resting electrocardiograms. Am J Epidemiol 1984;113:370–376.
- Joy M, Trump DW. Significance of minor ST segment and T wave changes in the resting electrocardiogram of asymptomatic subjects. Br Heart J 1981;45:48–55.
- Kannel WB, Gordon T, Castelli WP, Margolis JR. Electrocardiographic left ventricular hypertrophy and risk of coronary heart disease: the Framingham study. Ann Intern Med 1970;72:813–822.
- 17. Kannel WB. Common ECG markers for subsequent clinical coronary events. Circulation 1987;75 (Suppl II):II-25–II-27.
- Knutsen R, Knutsen SF, Curb JD, Reed DM, Kauz JA, Yano K. The predictive value of resting electrocardiograms for 12-year incidence of coronary heart disease in the Honolulu Heart Program. J Clin Epidemiol 1988;41:293–302.
- Rabkin SW, Mathewson FL, Tate RB. The electrocardiogram in apparently healthy men and the risk of sudden death. Br Heart J 1982;47:546–552.
- Kannel WB, Anderson K, McGee DL, et al. Nonspecific electrocardiographic abnormality as a predictor of coronary heart disease: the Framingham Study. Am Heart J 1987;113:370–376.
- Pedoe HD. Predictability of sudden death from the resting electrocardiogram: effect of previous manifestations of coronary heart disease. Br Heart J 1978;40:630–635.
- Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial Research Group. Exercise electrocardiogram and coronary heart disease mortality in the Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial. Am J Cardiol 1985;55:16–24.
- Cohn PF. Clinical importance of silent myocardial ischemia in asymptomatic subjects. Circulation 1989;81:691–693.
- 24. Epstein SE, Quyumi A, Bonow RO. Sudden cardiac death without warning: possible mechanisms and

implications for screening asymptomatic populations. N Engl J Med 1989;321:320-323.

- Okin PM, Anderson KM, Levy D, Kligfield P. Heart rate adjustment of exercise-induced ST segment depression: improved risk stratification in the Framingham Offspring Study. Circulation 1991;83:866–874.
- Weiner DA. Screening for latent coronary artery disease by exercise testing. Circulation 1991;83:1104-1106.
- Detrano R, Froelicher V. A logical approach to screening for coronary artery disease. Ann Intern Med 1987;106:846–852.
- Uhl GS, Froelicher V. Screening for asymptomatic coronary artery disease. J Am Coll Cardiol 1983;3:946–955.
- Gianrossi R, Detrano R, Mulvihill D, et al. Exercise-induced ST depression in the diagnosis of coronary artery disease: a meta-analysis. Circulation 1989;80:87–98.
- Elamin MS, Boyle R, Kardash MM, et al. Accurate detection of coronary heart disease by new exercise test. Br Heart J 1982;48:311–320.
- Hollenberg M, Zoltick JM, Go M, et al. Comparison of a quantitative treadmill exercise score with standard electrocardiographic criteria in screening asymptomatic young men for coronary artery disease. N Engl J Med 1985;313:600–606.
- Kligfield P, Ameisen O, Okin PM. Heart rate adjustment of ST segment depression for improved detection of coronary artery disease. Circulation 1989;79:245–255.
- Bobbio M, Detrano R. A lesson from the controversy about heart rate adjustment of ST segment depression. Circulation 1991;84:1410–1413.
- Bobbio M, Detrano R, Schmid JJ, et al. Exercise-induced ST depression and ST/heart rate index to predict triple-vessel or left main coronary disease: a multicenter analysis. J Am Coll Cardiol 1992;19:11–18.
- Lachterman B, Lehmann KG, Detrano R, Neutel J, Froelicher VF. Comparison of ST segment/heart rate index to standard ST criteria for analysis of exercise electrocardiogram. Circulation 1990;82:44–50.
- Morise AP, Duval RD. Accuracy of ST/heart rate index in the diagnosis of coronary artery disease. Am J Cardiol 1992;69:603–606.
- 37. Pryor DB. The academic life cycle of a noninvasive test. Circulation 1990;82:302-304.
- Bruce RA, Hossack KF, DeRouen TA, Hofer V. Enhanced risk assessment for primary coronary heart disease events by maximal exercise testing: 10 years' experience of Seattle Heart Watch. J Am Coll Cardiol 1983;2:565–573.
- Giagnoni E, Secchi MB, Wu SC, et al. Prognostic value of exercise EKG testing in asymptomatic normotensive subjects: a prospective matched study. N Engl J Med 1983;309:1085–1089.
- Gordon DJ, Ekelund LG, Karon JM, et al. Predictive value of the exercise tolerance test for mortality in North American men: the Lipid Research Clinics Mortality Follow-up Study. Circulation 1986;74:252–261.
- Hopkirk JAC, Uhl GS, Hickman JR Jr, Fischer J, Medina A. Discriminant value of clinical and exercise variables in detecting significant coronary artery disease in asymptomatic men. J Am Coll Cardiol 1984;3:887–894.
- Josephson RA, Shefrin E, Lakatta EG, Brant LJ, Fleg JL. Can serial exercise testing improve prediction of coronary events in asymptomatic individuals? Circulation 1990;81:20–24.
- Weiner DA, Becker L, Bonow R. The diagnostic and prognostic significance of an asymptomatic positive exercise test. Circulation 1987;75 (Suppl II):II-20–II-21.
- 44. Fleg JL, Gerstenblith G, Zonderman AB, et al. Prevalence and prognostic significance of exerciseinduced silent myocardial ischemia detected by thallium scintigraphy and electrocardiography in asymptomatic volunteers. Circulation 1990;81:428–436.
- McHenry PL, O'Donnell J, Morris SN, Jordan JJ. The abnormal exercise electrocardiogram in apparently healthy men: a predictor of angina pectoris as an initial coronary event during long-term followup. Circulation 1984;70:547–551.
- Cohn PF. Should silent ischemia be treated in asymptomatic individuals? Circulation 1990;82(3 Suppl):II149–II154.
- Bodenheimer MM. Risk stratification in coronary disease: a contrary viewpoint. Ann Intern Med 1992;116:927–936.
- Coplan NL, Fuster VF. Limitations of the exercise test as a screen for acute cardiac events in asymptomatic patients. Am Heart J 1990;119:987–990.
- Fuster V, Badimon L, Badimon JJ, Chesebro JH. The pathogenesis of coronary artery disease and the acute coronary syndromes. N Engl J Med 1992;326:242–250, 310–318.
- 50. Little WC, Constantinescu M, Applegate RJ, et al. Can coronary angiography predict the site of a sub-

sequent myocardial infarction in patients with mild-moderate coronary artery disease? Circulation 1988;78:1157–1166.

- Hickman JR Jr, Uhl GS, Cook RL, Engel PH, Hopkirk A. A natural history study of asymptomatic coronary artery disease (abstr). Am J Cardiol 1980;45:422.
- Kotler TS, Diamond GA. Exercise thallium-201 scintigraphy in the diagnosis and prognosis of coronary artery disease. Ann Intern Med 1990;113:684–702.
- 53. Diamond GA. How accurate is SPECT thallium scintigraphy? J Am Coll Cardiol 1990;16:1017-1021.
- Schwartz RS, Jackson WG, Celio PV, Richardson LA, Hickman JR Jr. Accuracy of exercise 201-Tl myocardial scintigraphy in asymptomatic young men. Circulation 1993;87:165–172.
- Kohli RS, Cashman PM, Lahiri A, Raftery EB. The ST segment of the ambulatory electrocardiogram in a normal population. Br Heart J 1988;60:4–16.
- Deanfield JE, Ribiero P, Oakley K, Krikler S, Selwyn AP. Analysis of ST-segment changes in normal subjects: implications for ambulatory monitoring in angina pectoris. Am J Cardiol 1984;54:1321–1325.
- Quyyumi AA, Wright C, Fox K. Ambulatory electrocardiographic ST segment changes in healthy volunteers. Br Heart J 1983;50:460–464.
- Hedblad B, Juul-Moller S, Svensson K. Increased mortality in men with ST segment depression during 24 h ambulatory long-term ECG recording. Eur Heart J 1989;10:149–158.
- Quyyumi AA, Panza JA, Diodati JG, Callahan TS, Bonow RO, Epstein SE. Prognostic implications of myocardial ischemia during daily life in low risk patients with coronary artery disease. J Am Coll Cardiol 1993;21:700–708.
- Detrano R, Yiannikas J, Salcedo EE, et al. Bayesian probability analysis: a prospective demonstration of its clinical utility in diagnosing coronary disease. Circulation 1984;69:541–547.
- Shell WE, Kivowitz CF, Rubins SB, et al. Mechanisms and therapy of silent myocardial ischemia: the effect of transdermal nitroglycerin. Am Heart J 1986;112:222–229.
- Deedwania PC, Carbajal EV, Nelson JR, Hait H. Anti-ischemic effects of atenolol versus nifedipine in patients with coronary artery disease and ambulatory silent ischemia. J Am Coll Cardiol 1991;17:963–969.
- Juneau M, Theroux P, Waters D. Effect of diltiazem slow-release formulation on silent myocardial ischemia in stable coronary artery disease. The Canadian Multicenter Diltiazem Study Group. Am J Cardiol 1992;69:30B–35B.
- Pepine CJ, Cohn PF, Deedwania PC, et al. Effects of treatment on outcome in mildly symptomatic patients with ischemia during daily life: the Atenolol Silent Ischemia Study (ASIST). Circulation 1994;90:762–768.
- Pepine CJ, Cohn PF, Deedwania PC, et al. The prognostic and economic implications of a strategy to detect and treat asymptomatic ischemia: the Atenolol Silent Ischemia Trial (ASIST) protocol. Clin Cardiol 1991;14:457–462.
- Lees AM, Lees RS, Shoen FJ, et al. Imaging human atherosclerosis with 99mTc-labeled low density lipoproteins. Arteriosclerosis 1988;8:461–470.
- 67. Rifkin RD, Uretsky BF. Screening for latent coronary artery disease by fluoroscopic detection of calcium in the coronary arteries. Am J Cardiol 1993;71:434–436.
- Parisi AF, Folland ED, Hartigan P. A comparison of angioplasty with medical therapy in the treatment of single-vessel coronary artery disease. N Engl J Med 1992;326:10–16.
- RITA Participants. Coronary angioplasty versus coronary artery bypass surgery: the Randomised Intervention Treatment of Angina (RITA) trial. Lancet 1993;341:573–580.
- Colleen MF. The baseline screening electrocardiogram: is it worthwhile? An affirmative view. J Fam Pract 1987;25:393–396.
- Kannel WB, Abbott RD. Incidence and prognosis of unrecognized myocardial infarction: an update on the Framingham study. N Engl J Med 1984;311:1144–1177.
- Hoffman JR, Igarash E. Influence of electrocardiographic findings on admission decisions in patients with acute chest pain. Am J Med 1985;79:699–707.
- Lee TH, Cook F, Weisberg MC, Rouan GW, Brand DA, Goldman L. Impact of the availability of a prior electrocardiogram on the triage of the patient with acute chest pain. J Gen Intern Med 1990;5:381–388.
- Rubenstein LZ, Greenfield S. The baseline ECG in the evaluation of acute cardiac complaints. JAMA 1980;244:2536–2539.
- 75. Sox HC Jr. The baseline electrocardiogram. Am J Med 1991;91:573-575.
- Ziemba SE, Hubbell FA, Fine MJ, Burns MJ. Resting electrocardiograms as baseline tests: impact on the management of elderly patients. Am J Med 1991;91:576–583.
- 77. Ekelund LG, Suchindran CM, McMahon RP, et al. Coronary heart disease morbidity and mortality in

hypercholesterolemic men predicted from an exercise test: the Lipid Research Clinics Coronary Primary Prevention Trial. J Am Coll Cardiol 1989;14:556–563.

- Siscovick DS, Ekelund LG, Johnson JL, Truong Y, Adler A. Sensitivity of exercise electrocardiography for acute cardiac events during moderate and strenuous physical activity: the Lipid Research Clinics Coronary Primary Prevention Trial. Arch Intern Med 1991;151:325–330.
- 79. Eddy DM, ed. Common screening tests. Philadelphia: American College of Physicians, 1991:398-401.
- Canadian Task Force on the Periodic Health Examination. The periodic health examination: 1984 update. Can Med Assoc J 1984;130:2–15.
- American Academy of Family Physicians. Age charts for periodic health examination. Kansas City, MO: American Academy of Family Physicians, 1994. (Reprint no. 510.)
- 82. American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association. Guidelines for electrocardiography. A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Assessment of Diagnostic and Therapeutic Cardiovascular Procedures (Committee on Electrocardiography). J Am Coll Cardiol 1992;19:473–481.
- American College of Sports Medicine. Guidelines for exercise testing and prescription. 4th ed. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger, 1991.
- American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association. Guidelines for exercise testing. A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on assessment of cardiovascular procedures (Subcommittee on Exercise Testing). J Am Coll Cardiol 1986;8:725–738.
- American College of Physicians. Efficacy of exercise thallium-201 scintigraphy in the diagnosis and prognosis of coronary artery disease. Ann Intern Med 1990;113:703–704.