Reviews

Peripheral Arterial Disease — What Do We Need to know?

Address for correspondence: Madhan Shanmugasundaram, MD University of Arizona College of Medicine 1501 N Campbell Avenue PO Box 245040 Tucson, Arizona 85724 smadhan13@gmail.com

Madhan Shanmugasundaram, MD; Vinny K. Ram, MD; Ulrich C. Luft, MD; Molly Szerlip, MD, FACP; Joseph S. Alpert, MD Sarver Heart Center, Section of Cardiology, University of Arizona College of Medicine, Tucson, Arizona

Peripheral artery disease (PAD) results from progressive narrowing of arteries secondary to atherosclerosis and is defined as an Ankle Brachial Index of <0.9. PAD is highly prevalent and is an increasing burden on both the economy and the patient, especially given the rapid shift in demographics in the United States. Despite its prevalence and association with cardiovascular disease, PAD is still underdiagnosed and undertreated. This may, in part, be related to lack of recognition from the physician's side or paucity of evidence from clinical trials. It has been shown that medical therapy approved for cardiovascular disease is effective in the treatment of PAD and decreases cardiovascular events. Various revascularization strategies are also available for improving symptoms and quality of life in these patients, yet they are underutilized. In an attempt to increase its recognition, PAD has been considered a coronary artery disease equivalent. This article reviews the diagnosis and management of PAD.

Introduction

Peripheral artery disease (PAD) is a general term used to describe progressive atherosclerotic narrowing of the peripheral arteries, most often used in reference to the arteries of the lower extremities. It is defined as an Ankle Brachial Index (ABI) of ≤ 0.9 in the lower extremities. With the growing elderly population in the United States, there is a significant increase in the burden of PAD. This disease affects 12% to 20% of Americans >65 years of age.^{1,2} The prevalence of PAD in US adults is estimated to range from 8 to 12 million individuals, but there is a significant difference in the prevalence depending on the age, gender, or the diagnostic technique employed. PAD is considered a coronary disease equivalent as it confers equal risk of morbidity and mortality from cardiovascular disease regardless of whether coronary disease is known to be present or not. PAD is a strong predictor of myocardial infarction (MI), stroke, and death from vascular causes. Aggressive medical treatment of atherosclerotic risk factors has been shown to significantly decrease morbidity and mortality associated with PAD.³ That being said, PAD is underdiagnosed and undertreated, with most patients not receiving optimal therapy that has been proven to reduce mortality.⁴ This may be explained, in part, by lack of

The authors have no funding, financial relationships, or conflicts of interest to disclose.

478 Clin. Cardiol. 34, 8, 478–482 (2011) Published online in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com) DOI:10.1002/clc.20925 © 2011 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. awareness on the physician's side and absence of effective screening tools for PAD. The purpose of this article is to review the importance of diagnosing PAD and its available therapeutic strategies.

Methods

A PUBMED search was performed with the terms "peripheral artery disease," "peripheral vascular disease," "endovascular therapy," and "percutaneous revascularization." Highquality randomized trials and retrospective studies addressing epidemiology, diagnosis, risk factors, and therapy of peripheral arterial disease were then included in this review. The citation lists from these articles were also examined for further relevant articles. When appropriate, some review articles were included in this review as they provided more comprehensive oversight on this subject.

Risk Factors and Pathophysiology of PAD

A review of the complete pathophysiology involved in the development and progression of PAD is outside the scope of this article, but understanding the basic etiologic factors is important in interpreting the advances in therapeutic strategies. PAD is similar to atherosclerosis elsewhere in the body; the initiating insult is endothelial injury, followed by inflammation and progressive atherosclerotic narrowing of the vessel. This leads to disruption of blood flow to the peripheral tissues resulting in ischemic injury. Compensatory mechanisms such as vasodilation, development of collateral vessels, and anaerobic metabolism in the tissues result from ischemia. However, as the disease progresses these compensatory mechanisms cannot keep up with the increasing oxygen demands of the ischemic tissue, with resultant tissue necrosis.

The risk factors for the development of PAD are the same as for other atherosclerotic diseases, including advancing age, male gender, family history, and black race. Modifiable risk factors for PAD include diabetes, smoking, hypertension, and hyperlipidemia.⁵

Clinical Presentation

Approximately 10% to 35% of patients with PAD present with intermittent claudication, defined as discomfort felt by the patient 1 level below the site of arterial occlusion and brought on by exercise and relieved with rest. However, 40% to 50% of patients can have atypical leg pain characterized by exertional lower extremity pain that does not occur with a consistent level of exertion and takes a longer time to resolve with rest. Only 1% to 2% of patients present with critical limb ischemia manifested as ulceration or gangrene. The majority of patients with PAD are asymptomatic.⁶ Patients with PAD may also present with symptoms of coronary artery disease (CAD) or cerebrovascular disease (CVD) as these entities frequently coexist.

Diagnosis

Ankle Brachial Index

The Ankle Branchial Index (ABI) is a simple and noninvasive diagnostic test of choice when evaluating a patient for PAD. It involves the measurement of the ratio of blood pressure in the dorsalis pedis or posterior tibial artery to that in the brachial artery, with the help of a handheld continuous wave Doppler device. This test has been validated by comparison with angiographic confirmation of PAD and was found to be 95% sensitive and close to 100% specific.7 The severity of PAD can be classified based on the ABI values as shown in Table 1. Epidemiologic studies have demonstrated that abnormal ABI values are independent predictors of cardiovascular events and mortality.8 In patients with a normal resting ABI and a high clinical suspicion of PAD, it is recommended that exercise treadmill testing be combined with pre- and postexercise measurement of ABI. This technique has been shown to unmask clinically silent PAD as well as providing a functional assessment of the patient.

Table 1. Severity of Peripheral Artery Disease Based on Ankle Brachial Index Values

ABI (Ratio)	Interpretation
>1.3	Noncompressible
0.91-1.29	Normal
0.41-0.90	Mild-moderate PAD
<0.40	Severe PAD
Abbreviations: ABI, Ankle Brachial Inde disease.	ex; PAD = peripheral artery

Doppler Ultrasonography

Doppler ultrasonography (DU) is a simple, noninvasive test to determine the location of PAD and to delineate stenotic versus occlusive lesions, a difference important when considering revascularization. DU is one of the most commonly ordered tests to evaluate patients with suspected PAD because it is reasonably accurate and cost effective.⁹ Color flow Doppler and pulsed wave Doppler allow one to estimate stenosis severity based on Doppler derived velocity criteria.¹⁰ It can also be used for surveillance of patients following revascularization procedures to identify reocclusion. Although DU is an accurate test for PAD, it requires a high degree of technical expertise as well as expensive equipment that may be lacking in some centers.

Computed Tomography/Magnetic Resonance Imaging Angiography

Computed tomography angiography (CTA) provides detailed images of the vascular system with better spatial resolution of PAD lesions. It provides information on soft tissue integrity surrounding diseased vessels that can be helpful in evaluating complications of PAD such as aneurysms and tissue infarction.¹¹ Disadvantages of CTA include image interference from calcified arteries, radiation exposure, and the need for contrast material.

Magnetic resonance angiography (MRA), on the other hand, does not involve radiation or iodinated contrast and is 93% to 100% sensitive and 96% to 100% specific for the diagnosis of PAD.¹² However, the cost and time necessary for the study limits its routine use.

Catheter-Based Angiography

Catheter-based angiography (CBA) is the gold standard test for PAD, but it is limited to patients who might be revascularization candidates. Pressure gradient measurement and intravascular ultrasound can be performed during angiography. This is helpful in determining the hemodynamic significance of arterial lesions.

Classification of PAD

The most widely used clinical classifications for PAD include Fontaine's stages (Table 2) and Rutherford's categories (Table 3).

Women and PAD

The influence of gender on the prevalence of PAD is controversial, with some studies showing that PAD is

Table 2. Fontaine's Classification of Peripheral Artery Disease²¹

Stage	Clinical
L	Asymptomatic
lla	Mild claudication
IIb	Moderate to severe claudication
Ш	Ischemic rest pain
IV	Ulceration or gangrene

Clin. Cardiol. 34, 8, 478–482 (2011) M. Shanmugasundaram et al: Peripheral artery disease Published online in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com) DOI:10.1002/clc.20925 © 2011 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. Table 3. Rutherford's Classification of Peripheral Artery Disease²¹

Grade	Category	Clinical
0	0	Asymptomatic
T	1	Mild claudication
I.	2	Moderate claudication
T	3	Severe claudication
П	4	Ischemic rest pain
Ш	5	Minor tissue loss
ш	6	Major tissue loss

slightly more common in males and others showing a more equitable distribution in both genders. However, only one half of women with PAD are symptomatic; the rest are either asymptomatic or present with atypical symptoms.¹³ Regardless of whether PAD is symptomatic or asymptomatic in women, there is similar cardiovascular morbidity and mortality to that observed in men. Therefore, it is important to screen for PAD in women with risk factors for atherosclerotic vascular disease.

Management of PAD

The goals of therapy in PAD include a reduction in cardiovascular events (MI, stroke, and death) and alleviation of claudication with improvement in the quality of life in these patients. Important therapeutic strategies are summarized in Table 4.

Medical Therapy

Tobacco Cessation

Smoking cessation is 1 of the key aspects of PAD therapy and has received a class I recommendation from the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association (ACC/AHA) guidelines for management of PAD. There is a strong link between smoking and prevalence of symptomatic PAD.¹⁴ Smoking not only contributes to the incidence, but also is a significant predictor of progression of symptomatic PAD.¹⁵ Smoking cessation may not reduce claudication symptoms but has been shown to reduce overall mortality and cardiovascular events.¹⁶

Table 4. Summary of Management Strategies in Peripheral Artery Disease

Smoking cessation

Cardiovascular risk factor management (diabetes/hypertension/ hyperlipidemia)

Monitored, symptom limited exercise program

Antiplatelet drugs (ASA/clopidogrel, usually not in combination)

Claudication therapy (cilostazol/pentoxifylline)

Revascularization therapy (for the "ideal" patient)

Abbreviation: ASA = aspirin.

480 Clin. Cardiol. 34, 8, 478–482 (2011)

Cardiovascular Risk Factor Management

Diabetes is a strong predictor of symptomatic PAD and is associated with progression of atherosclerosis. In the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial, it was shown that intensive insulin therapy in patients with type I diabetes resulted in a 22% risk reduction of lower extremity PAD events such as claudication, revascularization, or amputation.¹⁷ Pending further prospective trials, the American Diabetes Association recommends aggressive diabetes control (hemoglobin A1c of <7%) in patients with PAD to reduce microvascular complications.¹⁸ It should be reinforced that meticulous foot care is needed in this cohort of patients (class I recommendation).¹⁹

Hypertension is another well-established risk factor for PAD, but it is not clear if treatment alters the progression of PAD. β -blockers and diuretics are commonly used in PAD patients. Angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors and angiotensin receptor blockers have shown to decrease progression of symptoms and improve cardiovascular outcomes in PAD.²⁰

Hyperlipidemia is associated with symptomatic PAD as well as other cardiovascular events in this patient group; therefore, aggressive management is recommended. The target low-density lipoprotein (LDL-C) level in PAD patients is <100 mg/dL. In patients with coexistent CAD or CVD, a lower LDL-C (<70 mg/dL) may be beneficial.²¹ The Heart Protection Study concluded that statins reduce mortality and other major cardiovascular events.²² PAD patients often have low high-density lipoprotein or high triglyceride levels, in which case niacin or fibrates can be used to decrease cardiovascular events.²³

Exercise Therapy

An often-neglected treatment strategy in PAD patients, a supervised formal exercise-training program has been shown to be beneficial in multiple trials.²⁴ Exercise therapy improves claudication distance, as well as quality of life and functional capacity in patients with PAD.²⁵ A meta-analysis that included only randomized trials showed that exercise produced a significant increase in maximum walking time with this benefit being greater than with angioplasty or bypass surgery.²⁶ Exercise therapy has several limitations, including lack of motivation from both patients and physicians, lack of coverage by medical insurance, and failure to adhere to the exercise regimen with time.

Antiplatelet Therapy

It is well established that antiplatelet agents decrease mortality and events in patients with known atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease. However, the Antiplatelet Trialists' Collaboration concluded that there was only a nonsignificant reduction in cardiovascular events in PAD patients free of vascular diseases in other territories who were treated with aspirin (ASA).²⁷

Clopidogrel, on the other hand, decreases the risk of MI, stroke, and vascular death in patients with symptomatic PAD and is US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved for prevention of ischemic events in PAD patients.²⁸ Dual antiplatelet therapy has not shown to be better than any agent (ASA or clopidogrel) alone in patients with PAD.²⁹

M. Shanmugasundaram et al: Peripheral artery disease Published online in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com) DOI:10.1002/clc.20925 © 2011 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

Drug Therapy for Claudication

Although there is a theoretical possibility that vasodilators are useful in PAD, this has not been shown in clinical trials.³⁰ The pathophysiologic explanation is that lower extremity vessels distal to the site of occlusion or stenosis are already dilated, and therefore vasodilators do not work on these vessels. Instead, vasodilators cause systemic vasodilation resulting in a "steal" phenomenon, with resultant decreased perfusion pressure and thus worsening ischemic symptoms.

Pentoxifylline improves the pliability of red blood cells and has some antiplatelet activity. Evidence is split regarding the benefits of pentoxifylline in PAD with 1 randomized trial showing improved lower extremity symptoms with increased claudication distance.³¹ However, a more recent study showed that this agent was no more effective than placebo in increasing maximal treadmill walking distance or improving quality of life.³² A meta-analysis of all pentoxifylline studies concluded that the drug may have a small effect on walking ability, but the data is insufficient to support its widespread use.³³

Cilostazol is a phosphodiesterase-3 inhibitor with antiplatelet activity that is FDA approved for the treatment of claudication. The mechanism of action is unclear, but multiple randomized controlled trials have shown that cilostazol did improve both pain-free and maximal walking distance, thereby improving physical functioning and quality of life.³⁴

Revascularization

Revascularization therapy is increasingly being performed for the treatment of PAD: however, careful selection of patients is extremely important. Table 5 summarizes the common indications for revascularization in PAD. Endovascular therapy consists of angioplasty and stenting. Significant advances in catheter and balloon design, and the development of intravascular stents have resulted in an increase in the number of percutaneous procedures performed. A randomized clinical study comparing percutaneous transluminal angioplasty and bypass surgery for iliac or femoropopliteal disease with claudication or rest ischemia, concluded that there was no significant difference in outcome after a median of 4 years regardless of the revascularization strategy.³⁵ Surgical revascularization is performed for lesions not amenable to angioplasty and when long segments of the vessel are involved. Bypass can be performed using autologous (saphenous vein graft) or synthetic grafts (dacron and polytetrafluroethylene).

Table 5. Indications for Revascularization in Peripheral Artery Disease³⁵

Symptoms refractory to exercise and claudication drug therapy

Presence of severe disability or serious impairment of functional status

Anticipated natural history of progression of the disease

Absence of other comorbidities (such as angina or respiratory disease) that would explain limitation of functional status

Lesion amenable to revascularization with high probability of success

Controversies in PAD

Even though hypertension is a well-established risk factor for CAD, its association with PAD has been questionable.36,37 However, follow-up data from the Framingham study showed a 2.5 to 4-fold increase in risk of PAD in patients with hypertension.³⁸ The ACC/AHA practice guidelines for management of PAD recommend a target systolic blood pressure (SBP) of <140 and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) <90 mm Hg in nondiabetics and SBP <130 and DBP <80 mm Hg in diabetic patients.¹⁹ However, a recent study by Bavry et al showed fewer cardiovascular outcomes with an SBP of 135 to 145 mm Hg and a J-shaped relationship between PAD patients and SBP.³⁹ Therefore, the target blood pressure is still debatable in patients with PAD. Controversy persists in the choice of antihypertensive agents that can be safely used in patients with PAD, as some of these medications (β-blockers) decrease lower limb perfusion pressures thereby worsening ischemia. However, a meta-analysis of 11 placebo-controlled trials in patients with intermittent claudication showed that β-blockers did not adversely affect walking capacity, therefore demonstrating its safety in PAD patients.⁴⁰ Patients referred for revascularization therapies also seem to have a differential benefit for many reasons. At this time, revascularization therapy should be offered to patients who satisfy the following criteria: severe disability from the disease, absence of other exercise limiting diseases, lack of response to drugs and exercise. and a lesion that is amenable for revascularization.¹⁹

Conclusion

Peripheral artery disease is a marker for systemic atherosclerosis and is increasingly prevalent in the United States given the rapid shift in demographics. PAD is associated with coronary and cerebrovascular disease, and is a strong predictor of cardiovascular outcomes and death. Therefore, it becomes important to screen for PAD in patients with multiple risk factors for vascular disease. Medical therapy decreases cardiovascular events in patients with PAD, and if symptoms are refractory to medical therapy, revascularization should be considered.

References

- Selvin E, Erlinger TP. Prevalence of and risk factors for peripheral arterial disease in the United States: results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1999–2000. *Circulation*. 2004;110:738–743.
- Ostchega Y, Paulose-Ram R, Dillon CF, et al. Prevalence of peripheral arterial disease and risk factors in persons aged 60 and older: data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 1999–2004. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2007;55:583–589.
- Gornik HL, Creager MA. Contemporary management of peripheral arterial disease: I. cardiovascular risk-factor modification. *Cleve Clin J Med.* 2006;73(suppl 4):S30–S37.
- Hirsch AT, Criqui MH, Treat-Jacobson D, et al. Peripheral arterial disease detection, awareness, and treatment in primary care. *JAMA*. 2001;286:1317–1324.
- Cimminiello C. PAD. Epidemiology and pathophysiology. *Thromb* Res. 2002;106:V295–V301.
- Weitz JI, Byrne J, Clagett GP, et al. Diagnosis and treatment of chronic arterial insufficiency of the lower extremities: a critical review [published correction appears in *Circulation*. 2000;102:1074]. *Circulation*. 1996;94:3026–3049.

- Bernstein EF, Fronek A. Current status of noninvasive tests in the diagnosis of peripheral arterial disease. Surg Clin North Am. 1982;62:473–487.
- 8. Ostergren J, Sleight P, Dagenais G, et al: Impact of ramipril in patients with evidence of clinical or subclinical peripheral arterial disease. *Eur Heart J.* 2004;25:17–24.
- Moneta GL, Yeager RA, Antonovic R, et al. Accuracy of lower extremity arterial duplex mapping. J Vasc Surg. 1992;15:275–283.
- Whelan JF, Barry MH, Moir JD. Color flow Doppler ultrasonography: comparison with peripheral arteriography for the investigation of peripheral vascular disease. *J Clin Ultrasound*. 1992;20:369–374.
- Mallouhi A, Rieger M, Czermak B, et al: Volume-rendered multidetector CT angiography: noninvasive follow-up of patients treated with renal artery stents. *Am J Roentgenol.* 2003;180:233–239.
- Ho KY, de Hann MW, Kessels AG, et al. Peripheral vascular tree stenoses: detection with substracted and nonsubstracted MR angiography. *Radiology*. 1998;206:673–681.
- Aronow WS. Peripheral arterial disease in women. *Maturitas*. 2009;64:204–211.
- Ockene IS, Miller NH. Cigarette smoking, cardiovascular disease, and stroke: a statement for healthcare professionals from the American Heart Association. American Heart Association Task Force on Risk Reduction. *Circulation*. 1997;96:3243–3247.
- 15. Aboyans V, Criqui MH, Denenberg JO, et al. Risk factors for progression of peripheral arterial disease in large and small vessels. *Circulation*. 2006;113:2623–2629.
- Burns P, Gough S, Bradbury AW. Management of peripheral arterial disease in primary care. *BMJ*. 2003;326:584–588.
- Effect of intensive diabetes management on macrovascular events and risk factors in the Diabetes Control and Complications Trial. *Am J Cardiol.* 1995;75:894–903.
- American Diabetes Association. Standards of medical care for patients with diabetes mellitus [published correction appears in *Diabetes Care.* 2003;26:972]. *Diabetes Care.* 2003;26(suppl 1):S33–S50.
- 19. Hirsch AT, Haskal ZJ, Hertzer NR, et al. ACC/AHA 2005 practice guidelines for the management of patients with peripheral arterial disease (lower extremity, renal, mesenteric, and abdominal aortic): a collaborative report from the American Association for Vascular Surgery/Society for Vascular Surgery, Society for Vascular Medicine and Biology, Society of Interventional Radiology, and the ACC/AHA Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Writing Committee to Develop Guidelines for the Management of Patients With Peripheral Arterial Disease). *Circulation*. 2006;113:e463–e654.
- The Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation Study Investigators. Effects of an angiotensin-converting–enzyme inhibitor, ramipril, on cardiovascular events in high-risk patients. N Engl J Med. 2000;342:145–153.
- Norgren L, Hiatt WR, Dormandy JA, et al. Inter-society consensus for the management of peripheral arterial disease (TASC II). J Vasc Surg. 2007;45 (suppl S):S5–S67.
- 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.
- 23. Rubins HB, Robins SJ, Collins D, et al. Gemfibrozil for the secondary prevention of coronary heart disease in men with low levels of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol. Veterans Affairs

High-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol Intervention Trial Study Group. N Engl J Med. 1999;341:410–418.

- 24. Nehler MR, Hiatt WR. Exercise therapy for claudication. *Ann Vasc Surg.* 1999;13:109–114.
- Regensteiner JG, Steiner JF, Hiatt WR. Exercise training improves functional status in patients with peripheral arterial disease. *J Vasc Surg.* 1996;23:104–115.
- Lundgren F, Dahllof A, Lundholm K, et al. Intermittent claudication—surgical reconstruction or physical training? A prospective randomized trial of treatment efficiency. *Ann Surg.* 1989;209:346–355.
- 27. 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.
- CAPRIE. A randomised, blinded, trial of clopidogrel versus aspirin in patients at risk of ischaemic events (CAPRIE). CAPRIE Steering Committee. *Lancet*. 1996;348:1329–1339.
- Bhatt D, Fox K, Hacke W, et al. Clopidogrel and aspirin versus aspirin alone for the prevention of atherothrombotic events. *NEngl* J Med. 2006;354:1706–1717.
- Coffman JD. Vasodilator drugs in peripheral vascular disease. N Engl J Med. 1979;300:713–717.
- 31. Porter JM, Cutler BS, Lee BY, et al. Pentoxifylline efficacy in the treatment of intermittent claudication: multicenter controlled double-blind trial with objective assessment of chronic occlusive arterial disease patients. *Am Heart J.* 1982;104:66–72.
- 32. Lindgarde F, Jelnes R, Bjorkman H, et al. Conservative drug treatment in patients with moderately severe chronic occlusive peripheral arterial disease. *Circulation*. 1989;80:1549–1556.
- Girolami B, Bernardi E, Prins MH, et al. Treatment of intermittent claudication with physical training, smoking cessation, pentoxifylline, or nafronyl: a meta-analysis. *Arch Intern Med.* 1999;159:337–345.
- Dawson DL, Cutler BS, Meissner MH, et al. Cilostazol has beneficial effects in treatment of intermittent claudication: results from a multicenter, randomized, prospective, double-blind trial. *Circulation*. 1998;98:678–686.
- Wolf GL, Wilson SE, Cross AP, et al. Surgery or balloon angioplasty for peripheral vascular disease: a randomized clinical trial. *J Vasc Interv Radiol*. 1993;4:639–648.
- 36. Fowkes FG, Housley E, Riemersma RA, et al. Smoking, lipids, glucose intolerance, and blood pressure as risk factors for peripheral atherosclerosis compared with ischemic heart disease in the Edinburgh Artery Study. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1992;135:331–340.
- Smith GD, Shipley MJ, Rose G. Intermittent claudication, heart disease risk factors, and mortality. The Whitehall Study. *Circulation*. 1990;82:1925–1931.
- Kannel WB, McGee DL. Update on some epidemiologic features of intermittent claudication: the Framingham Study. J Am Geriatr Soc. 1985;33:13–18.
- Bavry AA, Anderson RD, Gong Y, et al. Outcomes among hypertensive patients with concomitant peripheral and coronary artery disease: findings from the INternational VErapamil-SR/Trandolapril STudy. *Hypertension*. 2010;55:48–53.
- Radack K, Deck C. Beta-adrenergic blocker therapy does not worsen intermittent claudication in subjects with peripheral arterial disease: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Arch Intern Med.* 1991;151:1769–1776.